Opening Up:
Mentor Self-Disclosure in Mentoring Relationships With Adolescents.

Hilary Dansey Dutton

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements to the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in Education,
The University of Auckland, 2019

ABSTRACT

Formal youth mentoring aims to promote positive outcomes for youth by facilitating supportive relationships between young people and caring non-familial adults. Evidence suggests the quality of mentoring relationships is a key contributor to effectiveness. Consequently, identifying how mentoring relationships can be enhanced has gained increasing attention. In this thesis I investigate a thus far unexplored relational process in youth mentoring research: mentor self-disclosure. Self-disclosure is a normative communication process that has been consistently linked to the development of close interpersonal relationships. Although youth mentoring is a relational intervention, little is known about the presence, practice, or effect of self-disclosure in mentoring relationships. Here, I present the first substantive work dedicated to self-disclosure in the youth mentoring literature.

I used a multiple methods design to explore mentor self-disclosure using questionnaire and direct observational data across three studies. To begin, I conducted a descriptive study of mentor self-disclosure using questionnaire data gathered from 54 mentors. Findings indicate that mentors are engaging in self-disclosure across a wide range of topics, and largely perceive disclosure as a positive influence on their mentoring relationships. I then examined the link between mentor self-disclosure and relationship quality using questionnaire data from 48 mentoring dyads. Results from bivariate correlation and multiple regression analyses indicate that mentor self-disclosure makes a significant contribution to self-reported relationship quality for mentors and mentees. In the third part of my research, I used modified analytic induction to analyse 43 video-recorded interactions of mentors and mentees in conversation. The observed interactions illuminate key features of how mentors practice self-

disclosure, including the use of relevant and meaningful disclosure, reciprocity of disclosure, and responsiveness to mentees. In sum, my findings reveal use of self-disclosure is widespread among mentors, provide evidence that disclosure can contribute to relationship quality, and show that mentors practice self-disclosure in distinctive ways.

In addition to the thesis findings, several novel elements are included in this research. I use laboratory-based video-recorded direct observation—not before seen in youth mentoring research—to offer a new way of understanding and analysing mentor-mentee communication interactions. I also introduce two new measures to the literature. First, the Mentor Self-disclosure Instrument, a measure of mentor self-disclosure that I developed as part of my research, that is then tested and refined in two separate studies. The second new measure captures relationship quality and is distinguished from others in the field by being focused on the mentor-mentee emotional bond and appropriate for use with both mentors and mentees.

In this thesis, I make the case for greater attention to communication in youth mentoring relationships. The emergent research base on relational processes is indicative of the increased focus on understanding the variable effectiveness of mentoring, and communication is at the heart of these enquiries. Communication tools, including self-disclosure, can be used purposefully and strategically by mentors to enhance their mentoring relationships. I argue that youth mentoring would benefit from developing a theoretical tool kit of communication strategies, including self-disclosure, which can form the basis of mentor training on this important topic. To achieve this, more research on communication in the mentoring context is needed. By embracing innovative research methods and an intriguing aspect of interpersonal relationships, I provide an in-depth and promising look at a neglected phenomenon in youth mentoring relationships.

DEDICATION

To my grandparents, Patience & Ken and Liz & Arthur.

And to my Aunty Liz.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Ehara taku toa, he takitahi, he toa takitini

My success is not mine alone, but that of many

Writing this thesis has been the most exciting, challenging, exhausting, and rewarding endeavour of my life. While my name is on the front, it is only a reality thanks to the people who have been supporting me for many years on my academic journey.

First of all, I want to acknowledge my supervisory dream team, Drs. Kelsey Deane and Pat Bullen. I can't thank you enough for the guidance and encouragement you've given me over the years. I appreciate not only your support on my thesis, but also the other opportunities you've extended to me during that time which have helped me grow as an academic. It has been a real inspiration to learn from you and I hope I can continue in your footsteps.

There are many people in the youth mentoring community who have helped me on my doctoral journey. Thank you to all the mentors, mentees, and youth mentoring programmes who made this research possible. To Ann Dunphy and the New Zealand Youth Mentoring Network: the opportunities and support you've given me has made me feel welcome and truly a part of the youth mentoring community here in Aotearoa. I hope this mahi will help us collectively make youth mentoring in this country as good as possible.

There are numerous folks at the University of Auckland who I would like to thank for their encouragement and advice. To my fellow PhD gals, Moeata, Ati, and Laura—you're the ones who truly *get* what this is like, so thank you for celebrating and commiserating with me along the way. I must also extend a massive thank you to Kane Meissel and the awesome EdPsych postgrad research group for your support and camaraderie over the years. Thank you to the University of Auckland for the doctoral scholarship which made this possible.

To Jade, Felissa, Amy, Tricia. I'm not sure how I lucked into having this incredible core of friendship with you all, but you're the best. Jade, thanks for being my home away from home; Felissa, thanks for listening and caring and adventuring; Amy, thanks for 26 years of shenanigans and laughter. And to the best of all best friends, Tricia. The support and care you have been able to provide me from so far away is astonishing. Thanks for listening to all my rambling voice messages and for your unwavering belief in my ability to do anything I want to. Can you believe what we've made of ourselves?

Finally, the whānau. Thanks to Mum and Dad, for your generosity and making sure I'm eating all my veges when I'm stressed out and working obsessively, and to my sister Jilly for convincing me to get away from my desk every now and then, to clear my head by hunting Pokémon, going to the movies, or debating politics over lunch.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE.

INTRODUCTION.

Caring non-parental adults are a valuable resource for young people (Lerner, Fisher, & Weinberg, 2000; Scales, Benson, Leffert, & Blyth, 2000). They provide additional support, guidance, encouragement, and affection, and enhance the social environment young people are nested in (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Greenberger, Chen, & Beam, 1998). Having quality relationships with non-parental adults has been shown to promote the positive, healthy development of young people (Chen, Greenberger, Farruggia, Bush, & Dong, 2003; DuBois & Silverthorn, 2005; Miranda-Chan, Fruiht, Dubon, & Wray-Lake, 2016). Recognition of the value of these relationships, as well as a perceived decrease in the availability of suitable adults in the lives of young people (Rhodes, 2004), contributed to the development and proliferation of youth mentoring programmes. While youth may encounter and form relationships with such adults naturally—extended family, teachers, coaches, and neighbours, for instance (DuBois & Silverthorn, 2005)—youth mentoring programmes represent a formalised opportunity to develop enriching youth-adult relationships (Baker & Maguire, 2005; Rhodes & DuBois, 2008).

Youth mentoring programmes attempt to replicate the benefits of natural mentoring for youth by purposefully adding caring adults into their social context. These programmes facilitate relationships by matching young people with adults, typically volunteers, who wish to contribute to the development of a young person by offering support and guidance in the context of a warm interpersonal relationship (MENTOR, 2015; Rhodes & DuBois, 2008). With ongoing programme support, mentors and mentees spend time together, regularly engaging in conversation and activities, directed by the needs of the mentee (MENTOR, 2015). Public confidence in the transformative possibilities of mentoring relationships is strong and enduring (DuBois & Karcher, 2005; Rhodes, 2004), with new and expanding programmes internationally

(Busse, Campbell, & Kipping, 2018; Preston, Prieto-Flores, & Rhodes, 2018), which in turn spurs research interest into the effectiveness of this popular intervention.

Youth mentoring has been associated with modest improvements in psychological, social, academic, and behavioural outcomes (DuBois, Holloway, Valentine, & Cooper, 2002; DuBois, Portillo, Rhodes, Silverthorn, & Valentine, 2011; Raposa, Rhodes, et al., 2019). Despite the best intentions of mentors and programmes, the effectiveness of mentoring has been variable (Chan et al., 2013) and, on occasion, there have been iatrogenic effects (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002; Spencer, 2007). Many mentees come from vulnerable backgrounds, so ensuring they can safely and successfully reap the benefits of mentoring is critical (Rhodes, Liang, & Spencer, 2009). Consequently, a swathe of research has been conducted on identifying the characteristics and processes of youth mentoring that increase the likelihood of intervention effectiveness. Much of this effort has focused on the mentor-mentee relationship (Varga & Deutsch, 2016).

The strong emphasis on the mentor-mentee relationship is understandable given that mentoring is a relationship-based intervention (Schwartz, Rhodes, Chan, & Herrera, 2011). Therefore, understanding how the relationship influences effectiveness is critical. Many researchers have focused on the link between relationship quality and effectiveness (e.g., Goldner & Mayseless, 2009; Goldner & Scharf, 2014; Thomson & Zand, 2010; Zand et al., 2009). Relationship quality has typically been conceptualised as closeness: an interpersonal mentor-mentee bond characterised by warm feelings for one another, and often associated with trust and mutuality (Nakkula & Harris, 2005; Rhodes, 2004). This connection is a distinguishing characteristic of mentoring (Keller, 2005b) and speaks to an intuitive belief that good relationships can make the difference for youth. Indeed, research shows that high quality mentoring relationships can result in more effective programming (DuBois et al., 2002, 2011; Raposa et al., 2019). Because not all mentoring pairs form a close interpersonal bond, identifying those factors that contribute to relationship quality becomes increasingly important to making

sure programmes have the best chance possible to making their intervention effective (DuBois, Neville, Parra, & Pugh-Lilly, 2002).

Studies have explored numerous possible contributors to relationship quality. Factors such as attunement (Pryce, 2012), empathy (Spencer, 2006), self-reflection (Dutton, Bullen, & Deane, 2018), and programme support and training (Bayer, Grossman, & DuBois, 2015; Weiler, Boat, & Haddock, 2019), have all been linked with quality mentoring relationships. Notably, mentors assume considerable responsibility for the success of mentoring: their behaviours and decisions within the relationship are a focal point for identifying factors that promote relationship quality (Dutton, Bullen, & Deane, 2019; Nakkula & Harris, 2014). Equipping mentors with the tools to facilitate a quality relationship with their mentee is therefore essential. By identifying those processes that mentors can purposefully engage in to grow and support their mentoring relationship, the chances of intervention effectiveness can be increased (Varga & Deutsch, 2016).

The potential of youth mentoring has energised programme and researcher interest in identifying the key ingredients of successful and effective mentoring relationships, in order to maximise the benefits of these relationships for increasing numbers of young people. In this thesis I explore one possible ingredient: self-disclosure. Self-disclosure is a two-way transaction between a discloser and a listener (Derlega, Winstead, & Greene, 2008) and a normative process in most interpersonal relationships (Guerrero, Andersen, & Afifi, 2007). Sharing information about oneself appears to facilitate the development and maintenance of close, trusting relationships in various contexts (Altman & Taylor, 1973; Dindia, 2002). Through self-disclosure, we learn information about others and share information about ourselves to people we want to know, inform, attract, and impress; self-disclosure is a pathway to knowing and being known on a personal level. Self-disclosure ranges from small talk among strangers to intimate conversation with a romantic partner (Greene, Derlega, & Mathews, 2006). It is an essential

component of establishing, maintaining, and deepening personal relationships because, in addition to the content shared, it expresses implicit messages of trust, respect, closeness, and being valued by the other (Derlega, Metts, Petronio, & Margulis, 1993).

There is an expansive field of literature dedicated to understanding the purpose and effect of self-disclosure on relationships. Multiple theories hypothesise how disclosure contributes to relationship development (Altman & Taylor, 1973; Knapp & Vangelisti, 1992; Reis & Shaver, 1988). Empirical research has shown links between self-disclosure and relationship quality, as well as associated characteristics like closeness, trust, liking, commitment, and satisfaction (Collins & Miller, 1994; Gillespie, 2015; Lannutti & Strauman, 2006; Sprecher & Hendrick, 2004; Tan, Overall, & Taylor, 2012; Weidler & Clark, 2011; Wheeless & Grotz, 1977). Collectively, this body of knowledge presents a persuasive picture of self-disclosure as a powerful contributor to establishing and sustaining interpersonal relationships.

Research on self-disclosure has been undertaken in diverse contexts. This includes self-disclosure in families (Finkenauer, Engels, Branje, & Meeus, 2004; Kil, Grusec, & Chaparro, 2018), romantic relationships (Sprecher & Hendrick, 2004; Tan et al., 2012), friendships (Bauminger, Finzi-Dottan, Chason, & Har-Even, 2008; Dolgin & Kim, 1994; Fehr, 2004), and therapeutic (D'Aniello & Nguyen, 2017; Hill & Knox, 2002) and business relationships (Andersson, Gustafsson, Kristensson, & Wästlund, 2016; Zimmer, Arsal, Al-Marzouq, Moore, & Grover, 2010). Current research trends largely revolve around disclosure online via social media (Bazarova & Choi, 2014; Nguyen, Bin, & Campbell, 2012), online dating and mobile dating apps (Gibbs, Ellison, & Lai, 2011; Taylor, Hutson, & Alicea, 2017), online privacy (Joinson, Reips, Buchanan, & Schofield, 2010), and automated 'chatbots' (Ho, Hancock, & Miner, 2018). The breadth of research on self-disclosure illustrates not only how fundamental it is to almost every type of relationship, but the importance of context for understanding how it functions and its impact on relationships.

With this in mind, it is astonishing that there was virtually no substantive published research on self-disclosure in the youth mentoring context prior to the work I conducted for this thesis (Dutton, 2018; Dutton et al., 2019). Despite the extensive efforts of the field to identify those critical ingredients that promote relationship development, one as essential as self-disclosure—supported by a wealth of theoretical and empirical evidence in other contexts—had been largely ignored. Mentors have a critical role to play in developing quality relationships. As well as good intentions, mentors need to have knowledge and skills for establishing and sustaining a warm interpersonal relationship with their mentee. It is incumbent on the field to emphasise the investigation of relational processes, like disclosure, that can help fulfil the promise of mentoring.

Research Rationale

In this thesis, I provide an in-depth examination of mentor self-disclosure in youth mentoring relationships. Previous research has indicated that simply talking to one another is one of the most common activities mentoring dyads engage in (Herrera, 2004), yet minimal research has been done on how mentors and mentees communicate with one another. Due to the support in the youth mentoring literature for a positive association between relationship quality and outcomes for youth (Bayer et al., 2015; Deutsch & Spencer, 2009; DuBois, Holloway, et al., 2002), self-disclosure is of particular interest because of the strong theoretical and empirical links it has with high quality interpersonal relationships (Knapp & Daly, 2011). No contemporary study has specifically examined self-disclosure in mentoring relationships.

Although disclosure is a dyadic process and mentees do disclose to mentors (Rhodes et al., 2009; Thomson & Zand, 2010), my research focuses on mentor self-disclosure. This is partly inspired by the work of Goodman and Dooley (1976) who saw the potential of self-disclosure as a tool paraprofessionals in a helping role—like mentors—could purposefully use for developing quality relationships. While there is some agreement in the youth mentoring literature regarding

processes or characteristics which contribute to quality relationships (Varga & Deutsch, 2016), information about specific tools mentors can use to facilitate such relationships is still underdeveloped. In addition, a mentor-oriented perspective may be more usefully applied to mentor training. Training is essential to safe and effective mentoring practice, and should be based on sound theory and empirical evidence wherever possible (DuBois, Holloway, et al., 2002; Kupersmidt & Rhodes, 2014). There is a large field of research on self-disclosure more broadly, but youth mentoring relationships are unique and research conducted in this context should be helpful for programmes training mentors about self-disclosure. With improved evidence upon which to base training on this topic, mentors may be better able to use disclosure to enhance their relationships by, for example, facilitating closeness and trust. Therefore, my intention is for this research to have practical value for informing mentor training about the use of disclosure in this context, and ultimately support mentors in their efforts to build quality relationships with mentees.

Self-disclosure, as I have described it here, is based on its conceptualisation as a relational process. However, it has also been framed as a personality trait whereby individuals have enduring self-disclosure profiles which are internal rather than interpersonal (Dindia, 2002). Research from this perspective tends to measure people as 'high' or 'low' disclosers and then explores these differences with a focus on individual characteristics, such as gender (Dindia, 2002). Although a plethora of research has been conducted using this approach, particularly on gendered differences in disclosure (e.g., Fehr, 2004, Radmacher & Azmitia, 2006), in this thesis I use a 'self-disclosure as process' conceptualisation. I chose this perspective because the focus on how self-disclosure functions in relationships is more closely aligned with my research rationale, based on advancing our knowledge of relational processes, in comparison to the personality trait perspective which is concerned with examining group differences. Furthermore, by concentrating my research on relational processes at the dyadic level, I have not explored the influence of context on dyads in depth in this thesis. I acknowledge that context plays an

important role in mentoring relationships, and that the New Zealand context this research is embedded in is uniquely different from the United States, where most of literature on youth mentoring is located. However, I elected to concentrate on self-disclosure as a dyadic process for this thesis, and comment on the potential for context-based research on self-disclosure in Chapter 8. Finally, with respect to the conceptualisation of self-disclosure, I note that while it can be nonverbal (e.g., wearing a wedding ring, speaking with an accent, or style of dress), this thesis—like most research on self-disclosure (Greene et al., 2006)—is focused on purposeful, verbal, one-to-one disclosures. Such disclosures are a good fit for use with a direct observation methodology and my aim to understand self-disclosure as a communication tool for mentors to use strategically and purposefully.

In response to the dearth of research on self-disclosure in the mentoring context, I used a multiple methods design to facilitate exploration of a singular phenomenon from several perspectives, and take advantage of the full range of data being collected as part of the Y-AP Observation Study (described below). Rather than using a fully mixed-methods typology for the thesis, wherein the studies within the thesis would be 'mixed' at different stages (e.g., using findings from one study to set parameters for another study; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009), my approach was to use multiple methods across discrete studies that build on one another to illustrate a comprehensive picture of mentor self-disclosure (Anguera, Blanco-Villaseñor, Losada, Sánchez-Algarra, & Onwuegbuzie, 2018). Each study is independent from the others, but in combination, they are linked by a broader narrative about exploring mentor self-disclosure as a process that contributes to relationship development in a unique context. Consequently, my thesis results are comprised of a mixed-methods study (Chapter 5), a quantitative study (Chapter 6), and a qualitative study (Chapter 7), followed by a discussion which reflects on the findings as a whole.

To achieve this, I use a combination of self-report questionnaire-based measures and video-recorded observations of mentor-mentee pairs interacting in a laboratory setting. As noted by Knapp and Daly (2011), individuals may be limited in their ability to provide accurate recollections of past behaviours, so observed interactions can help validate behaviours reported by participants. Conversely, observed behaviour in an unfamiliar environment or situation may not represent typical dyadic interactions. Self-report data about what typically occurs in the relationship is, therefore, a useful supplement to the observational data (Knapp & Daly, 2011). Using direct observations also allowed me to assess the dyadic dimension of self-disclosure, as the mentee's reaction and contribution to the interactions were captured. More detail about the benefits of using observation data are included in Chapters 4 and 7.

With this in mind, I explore the nature, effect, and practice of mentor self-disclosure in formal youth mentoring relationships with adolescent mentees, guided by three research aims:

1: To describe the nature of mentor self-disclosure that occurs in youth mentoring relationships.

2: To examine the link between mentor self-disclosure and relationship quality.

3: To identify key features of mentor self-disclosure based on observed self-disclosure interactions with mentees.

Overall, in this thesis I provide a fresh and much-needed insight into mentor-mentee communication by spotlighting a relational process known to be instrumental in relationship development and maintenance in other contexts. With the rationale for this thesis introduced, I believe it is important to articulate my position as a researcher and the factors that brought me to this important field of research. The experiences and background that motivated this research are described next, while the influence of these factors on my methodology specifically are outlined in Chapter 4.

My Position in the Research

My first exposure to formal youth mentoring occurred during my undergraduate studies when, as part of a service-learning course, I mentored a young person for one year through a school-based mentoring (SBM) programme. This proved to be a formative experience for me, as it opened my eyes to the power of mentoring relationships. This SBM programme had a mixed-delivery structure: while pairs were matched and spent one-to-one time together, the cohort of dyads met at the same time and place every week, and therefore also had opportunities to interact with one another during session time. This meant I not only experienced my own mentoring relationship but interacted with a group of mentors and mentees over the course of one year. During this time, I noticed how other relationships experienced different trajectories to my own, with some mentees flourishing under the attention and support of their mentors, while other relationships had a subtler influence. I also observed mentors engaging with their mentees in different ways, all with goodwill and positive intentions, hoping they could make a difference in their mentee's life. What I experienced for myself, and what I saw in other mentors, inspired my research interest in youth mentoring.

When I transitioned to postgraduate studies, I sought out an opportunity to do research as part of a mentoring programme evaluation. Through this process, I found myself continually drawn to the relationship aspect of mentoring; my curiosity lay in how mentors and mentees feel about each other, what they do when they are together, and how the interactions they engage in contribute to their relational bond. My Masters thesis followed this pathway, exploring how relationship quality is conceptualised and facilitated in school-based mentoring relationships. It was during this time that I forged a connection with the New Zealand Youth Mentoring Network (NZYMN). Similar to MENTOR in the United States, NZYMN provides training, guidelines for mentoring practice, national conferences, and networking opportunities for mentoring organisations in New Zealand (New Zealand Youth Mentoring Network, n.d.). Based on my

research about mentoring relationship quality in the local context, I was invited to contribute to the Guide to Safe and Effective Practice, adapting my research findings for a document distributed nationally to practitioners in youth work and youth mentoring (New Zealand Youth Mentoring Network, 2016). This experience solidified my interest in conducting applied research for mentors and mentoring programmes, particularly concerning relationship development.

My interest in youth mentoring has also been informed by my identity as Māori, the indigenous people of New Zealand. In *Te Ao Māori* (the Māori world), relationships called *tuakana-teina* are a regular part of social life. *Tuakana* are older family members—typically siblings or cousins—who provide support and guidance to younger family members, *teina* (Ministry of Education, n.d.). Although they are older, tuakana are not necessarily adults. An older sibling, for instance, can assume the tuakana role during childhood or adolescence for a younger teina (Royal Tangaere, 1997). Tuakana-teina also represents a concept of learning and development, grounded in *whanaungatanga* (relationships, kinship) and *ako* (to learn and to teach; Royal Tangaere, 1997). In Māori society, a tuakana and teina may switch roles, with the tuakana becoming the learner and teina the teacher. In doing so, the interpersonal relationship at the heart of whanaungatanga is strengthened (Royal Tangaere, 1997). The tuakana-teina relationship model is one example of how indigenous natural mentoring practices can inform formal youth mentoring practice, particularly in an effort to provide culturally appropriate mentoring to the many Māori youth who are engaged in mentoring programmes (Farruggia, Bullen, Solomon, Collins, & Dunphy, 2011). Moreover, it highlights the centrality of relationships to youth development within Te Ao Māori, and therefore the importance of relationship-based interventions.

In considering moving into doctoral research, I wanted to look deeper into the mentor-mentee bond and how it is developed: how do two strangers come together to build a relationship which has the potential to be transformative? During my studies, I had noticed the dearth of

research on how mentors and mentees communicate with one another. This was surprising to me, given adages like ‘communication is the key to a great relationship’ enjoy widespread use and acceptance. How did a popular intervention based on the premise of positive change through relationships neglect to understand communication in this context? I knew from my own experience that my mentee and I had spent an enormous amount of time talking, progressively getting to know one another through conversation and activities. In particular, I thought about the ways I tried to engage her in disclosure, using stories about my own life to try and forge a connection with her. Self-disclosure was something I used both intuitively and strategically throughout our relationship. Perusing the youth mentoring literature, it quickly became apparent that within the modicum of research on mentor-mentee communication, self-disclosure had rarely been given serious consideration as a pathway for relationship development. This was the beginning of my thesis and led to my involvement in the Youth-Adult Partnerships Observation Study.

Research Context: The Youth-Adult Partnerships (Y-AP) Observation Study

I was extended an opportunity to work on and do my doctoral research with an innovative research project using direct observation data of mentoring interactions to examine the critical ingredients of successful youth-adult partnerships (Y-AP). At the beginning of the project, I identified the potential for exploring mentor self-disclosure as a contributor to successful youth mentoring relationships. It was also a topic which was well-suited to the methodological paradigm being used in the Y-AP Observation Study, as discussed in Chapter 4. I joined the project as the research coordinator, alongside my primary doctoral supervisor who was the Principal Investigator, and my second supervisor who was also a named investigator. The research design was established prior to me joining the project, however I was active in developing procedures and tools for the observation study (e.g., activities used in observation

and the self-disclosure questionnaire for mentors). I was also responsible for participant recruitment and running the observation sessions.

Working with community partners, we recruited youth mentoring dyads from various programmes to participate in the Y-AP Observation Study, which gathered self-report questionnaire data and video-recorded observation data in three phases. In the pilot phase, we collected data from mentors responding to an anonymous online questionnaire. The online questionnaire served to collect preliminary data and test a range of measures relevant to the mentor-mentee relationship, including a self-disclosure questionnaire which I developed. One manuscript was derived from the findings from this phase (see Chapter 5). The second phase of the Y-AP Observation Study gathered observation and self-report data as part of a dyadic observation session. This thesis includes two manuscripts based on data collected during this phase (Chapters 6 and 7). The third phase collects longitudinal self-report data and is not used in this thesis.

Overview of the Thesis

This is a thesis with publications. The University of Auckland allows doctoral students to include publications—published and unpublished—in their thesis where they are the lead author, and the publications are part of a coherent thesis narrative and structure. Completing a thesis with publications allows doctoral students to write and publish their work during the course of their PhD, rather than retroactively drawing manuscripts from a traditional monograph thesis (Sharmini, Spronken-Smith, Golding, & Harland, 2015). I decided to take this option, producing four publications about mentor self-disclosure (two published, two under review) in Chapters 3, 5, 6, and 7. I begin each of these chapters with a short linking passage which explicates the connection of the publication to the rest of the thesis.

As a result of this structure, this thesis effectively includes multiple literature review, methods, and discussion sections. In chapters 1, 2, and 3, I focus on using the literature on youth

mentoring, relationship quality, and self-disclosure to situate and justify the thesis. I have endeavoured to reduce overlap with later chapters, as the literature reviews included in the publication chapters were written to support the distinct purpose and arguments within each manuscript. Nonetheless, there are core ideas that are foundational to the thesis and contextualise the publications, and are therefore repeated. Additionally, this structure means particular elements of my thesis are broken up and spread across multiple chapters, rather than being reconciled in one space. In terms of methods, Chapter 4 focuses on the methodology of this thesis, including how I have situated it in relation to the Y-AP Observation Study and the broader youth mentoring field, as well as my position and identity as a researcher. Details regarding how I conducted the research are included in the methods sections of the relevant results chapters.

Chapters 5, 6, and 7 are publications based on three separate studies conducted on mentor self-disclosure for the purposes of this thesis. Chapter 5 details a descriptive account of mentoring self-disclosure, including what topics they disclose about and how they feel about disclosing to their mentees, while Chapter 6 investigates whether mentor self-disclosure has an effect on relationship quality. Chapter 7 extends the findings from the previous two chapters through the innovative use of direct observations of mentor-mentee interactions to explore how mentors practice self-disclosure. As with the literature review and research methods, each of these chapters has its own discussion section which reflects specifically on the findings in that publication. In the discussion chapter for the thesis, Chapter 8, I take a broader scope to consider what these individual pieces mean in relation to one another, pulling together the strands of research to express the story of mentor self-disclosure carried throughout this thesis, emphasising the contributions to the youth mentoring field, and implications for practice and research.

CHAPTER TWO.

GETTING UNDER THE HOOD: THE MECHANICS OF YOUTH MENTORING

The previous chapter presented an initial orientation to this thesis, introducing youth mentoring and self-disclosure. In this chapter, youth mentoring is unpacked in greater detail. It begins with an overview of youth mentoring, exploring modes of programme delivery, models of mentoring, and some evidence for intervention effectiveness. This is followed by a deeper investigation into the mentor-mentee relationship and relationship quality, including the link between quality and effectiveness, and how relationship quality is facilitated by mentors and mentoring programmes. In this chapter, I argue that understanding the underlying relational processes is vital to getting mentoring relationships right and, therefore, fulfilling the potential of youth mentoring as a positive force for young people.

Youth Mentoring Programmes

Youth mentoring is a flexible type of programming which has been, and continues to be, diversified in various ways (Karcher, Kuperminc, Portwood, Sipe, & Taylor, 2006). Youth mentoring programmes can be broadly divided into SBM and community-based (CBM) programmes. CBM relationships tend to be unstructured. Programmes usually stipulate a minimum number of meetings per month, but pairs have flexibility about when they meet (e.g., weekends or after school). Mentors are largely responsible for arranging these meetings and facilitating the activities pairs do together. The amount of time mentoring pairs spend together varies between programmes and pairs, but the intention is for meetings to be regular and substantive (e.g., minimum of one hour), and to extend over a minimum period of time, usually 12 months (MENTOR, 2015; Raposa, Dietz, & Rhodes, 2017). Although some programmes have events that pairs can attend (MENTOR, 2015), most of the time mentors and mentees

choose what they want to do together with little oversight from the programme (Karcher et al., 2006). CBM therefore allows pairs to establish a relationship that meets their needs and can be adjusted as required.

While CBM has long been the norm in youth mentoring, SBM has become increasingly popular over the past two decades (Herrera & Karcher, 2014). SBM programmes are typically facilitated by a youth mentoring organisation in partnership with the school, with pairs meeting regularly on school grounds at a designated time, before, during, or after school (Portwood & Ayers, 2005). SBM is not only distinguished by its location, but also its delivery. In contrast to CBM, SBM programmes are often delivered over a more condensed period of time and highly structured (Portwood & Ayers, 2005). Generally, dyads meet weekly for an hour (Herrera, Sipe, McClanahan, Arbreton, & Pepper, 2000; Portwood & Ayers, 2005) for one academic year, although some SBM programmes may be delivered over a shorter period of time (e.g., Elledge, Cavell, Ogle, & Newgent, 2010; McQuillin et al., 2015). SBM programmes are more likely to be involved in choosing and providing activities for dyads to engage in (Herrera et al., 2000), and typically have a greater emphasis on academic improvement compared to CBM programmes (Karcher et al., 2006). It is also more likely that SBM programmes provide on-site supervision, such as a staff member who attends sessions and is available for mentoring pairs to guide sessions, observe pairs, and provide assistance if required (Herrera et al., 2000). Supervision for CBM dyads is typically provided through regular meetings and phone calls with mentors, mentees, and mentee families (MENTOR, 2015). Several researchers have argued SBM is more cost-effective (Herrera et al., 2000; Portwood & Ayers, 2005) because schools have resources at the ready—books, sports equipment, spaces like gyms and classrooms, and teachers—which would require extra expense in a community setting. However, research conducted with programme managers in the United Kingdom indicated some schools lack sufficient facilities for on-site mentoring (Busse et al., 2018). Despite this, a recent cost analysis of one Big Brothers

Big Sisters programme found that on average, a CBM match costs almost three times as much as a SBM match over the course of the relationship (Alfonso et al., 2019).

Beyond the CBM/SBM divide, programmes can vary according to how much interaction mentors and mentees have with other pairs. As suggested above, CBM dyads have little structure imposed by the programme and are therefore more independent, meeting on their own and perhaps only interacting with other pairs at programme events. In contrast, as I noted earlier, the structured nature of SBM programmes often means multiple pairs are at the same place, at the same time, on a regular basis. This can be described as mixed-delivery mentoring because it combines traditional one-to-one relationships with group mentoring (Farruggia et al., 2011): dyads are nested in a setting surrounded by other mentoring pairs, and are often encouraged to interact with one another during sessions, as well as spending time one-to-one (Deutsch, Wiggins, Henneberger, & Lawrence, 2013). Group mentoring itself can take several different forms, such as multiple mentors and mentees, multiple mentors to one mentee, or one mentor to multiple mentees (Herrera, Vang, & Gale, 2002).

Youth mentoring programmes are diverse and reflect the needs and resources of targeted youth and the community they are embedded in. Nonetheless, programmes typically rely on similar assumptions about how mentoring works, and in particular, the essential role of the mentor-mentee relationship to helping youth flourish.

Models of Mentoring: How Mentoring Makes a Difference

The most enduring and popular model of youth mentoring comes from Rhodes (2004). This model is predicated on three developmental processes taking place within the context of a relationship based on mutuality, trust, and empathy. First, the mentee's social and emotional development is enriched. Mentoring relationships can improve the ability of young people to establish good relationships with other adults in their life, particularly their parents. Rhodes suggests that a positive mentoring experience can be corrective for youth who have lacked caring

adult support in their life. However, even mentees with healthy attachment to adults can benefit from having an extra adult with whom to express themselves: mentors can be a listening ear and an exemplar of how to communicate effectively. Youth may also internalise positive feedback given to them by their mentors, building self-esteem and self-worth.

Similarly, mentoring can contribute to the cognitive development of mentees (Rhodes, 2004). Adolescence is a time of significant brain development, and honing new cognitive skills—such as critical thinking and self-reflection—is enhanced in conversation. Mentors therefore provide a space for mentees to practice these skills. Mentors do this not only by listening, but by prompting mentees to engage in conversation in a different way to how they talk to peers. Moreover, mentor independence from family and school may make them an attractive target for difficult or uncomfortable conversations which mentees may not want to have with other adults.

The final process in Rhodes' (2004) model is role modelling and identification. Identity development is a central task of adolescence, as young people consider who and what they want to be as an adult (Steinberg & Morris, 2001). In some instances, the connection between role model and mentor is explicit, such as when mentees are paired with a mentor who works in a field they are interested in pursuing. However, mentees can also derive benefits for their identity development when there is no explicit role model function. Mentors can broaden horizons for mentees by exposing them to new people, places, and opportunities. They can also encourage mentees to reflect and think about themselves during conversation.

While Rhodes' (2004) model is focused on the mentor-mentee relationship and the relational processes within it, Keller (2005) offers a systemic model of mentoring which incorporates families and programmes. This model is characterised by interdependence and a complex context within which mentoring dyads are embedded. The mentee is at the centre of the model, surrounded by their mentor, family, and programme staff, all of whom have relationships

with the mentee and each other. Furthermore, these relationships are all surrounded by the programme context, which also influences the interactions between parties. By taking a systemic approach to conceptualising mentoring, Keller acknowledges that the mentor-mentee relationship does not exist in a vacuum. Rather, the web of interconnections means programmes and families can impact the success and effectiveness of mentoring. For example, Keller describes how mentors may interact with the mentees' families to support the match. Families provide background information about the mentee and can express their expectations and values which they want the mentoring relationship to align with. With this information, mentors can monitor their own behaviour to be consistent with the family and avoid conflicts which may undermine the mentoring relationship.

In addition to these two theoretical models of youth mentoring relationships, Evans and Ave (2000) outline several psychological mechanisms which may drive or enhance the effectiveness of mentoring. Like Rhodes (2004), they identify role modelling as an important part of youth mentoring. Ongoing interactions with a mentor who represents the type of person they would like to be can encourage a mentee to emulate the mentor's characteristics and behaviour. This process is more potent when there is an emotional connection between mentor and mentee and is particularly relevant for minority youth. Evans and Ave (2000) extend this thinking to suggest mentors may act as a de facto parent by providing additional learning experiences, dependability, warmth, and guidance. However, this comes with significant risks associated with the temporary nature of the mentoring role. A further mechanism, social support, may occur within, or independent of, either of these roles. Mentors can also be an ecological influence, exposing mentees to opportunities they may not otherwise have access to.

Evans and Ave (2000) identify two instrumental mechanisms of mentoring as well. First, mentors can contribute to specific positive skill development, thus taking on a more teacher-like role. These can be performance-oriented skills (e.g., sports, hobbies) or social skills (e.g.,

empathy, listening), and may be particularly valuable during times of transition. Second, mentors can help modify undesirable behaviours by being a "change agent" (Evans & Ave, 2000, p. 43). They may help with existing or potential behaviours and may require the mentor to have special skills. In both instances, mentors can enact change by directly influencing a specific mentee skill or behaviour.

These models represent a 'mentoring-as-relationship' approach (Cavell & Elledge, 2014). In this view, the relationship is mentoring: it is the catalyst for other processes which stimulate change and without the relationship, there is no mentoring. Therefore, under a 'mentoring-as-relationship' approach, effectiveness is largely dependent on relationship factors, such as quality and duration. While this approach has been critiqued on the basis of insufficient evidence to claim the mentoring relationship is the catalyst or primary mechanism of change, since almost all studies investigating this link are correlational (Cavell & Elledge, 2014), it remains the predominant position in youth mentoring theory and research.

Evidence for the Effectiveness of Mentoring

Amidst the popularity and critiques of the 'mentoring-as-relationship' approach, the field has accumulated an ever-increasing body of research regarding the effectiveness of youth mentoring. To date, three meta-analyses have been published (DuBois, Holloway, et al., 2002; DuBois et al., 2011; Raposa, Rhodes, et al., 2019). Raposa and colleagues (2019) have conducted the most recent meta-analysis of studies regarding the effectiveness of youth mentoring. It focused on evaluations of programmes that used one-to-one youth-adult relationships as the primary delivery component of the intervention. The review of 70 studies from 1975 to 2017 found mentoring had a statistically significant effect across multiple outcomes. The overall effect size is similar to that found by previous meta-analyses (DuBois, Holloway, et al., 2002; DuBois et al., 2011), and represents a moderate effect amongst prevention programmes for youth (Tanner-Smith, Durlak, & Marx, 2018). Youth outcomes were grouped into five categories—school,

cognitive, health, psychological, and social—and all had statistically significant effects at $p < .001$ level. Effects were particularly strong for outcomes regarding social support and relationship quality with peers, teachers, and parents. Several moderators were associated with greater effectiveness, including programmes having a higher percentage of male mentees and male mentors, and mentors who come from helping backgrounds. No differences were observed according to mentee age and ethnicity, or programme type (SBM or CBM).

Previously, DuBois and colleagues conducted two influential meta-analyses covering research from 1970 to 1998 (DuBois, Holloway, et al., 2002), and 1999 to 2010 (DuBois et al., 2011). The first meta-analysis included 55 studies and indicated that mentees did receive small benefits from being mentored, particularly when they were in close, enduring relationships. Based on this dataset, further analyses were conducted to identify moderators of programme effects, which in turn were used to develop best practices for enhancing the effectiveness of mentoring programmes. Predictors of effectiveness included ongoing training for mentors, mentors with a helping background (e.g., teacher, social worker), engaging in structured activities, clear expectations about the frequency of contact, parental involvement, and programmes in a non-school setting.

The second meta-analysis included 73 studies and once again showed modest benefits for mentees. There was a statistically significant positive effect for five out of six outcome categories: attitudinal/motivation, social/relational, psychological/emotional, conduct problems, and academic/school. In addition, those studies that compared mentored and non-mentored youth indicated that mentees not only make gains but are prevented from experiencing some declines seen in non-mentored youth. Once again, moderators of effectiveness were tested. Significant contributors to effectiveness were associated with youth characteristics (greater proportion of male mentees, youth with relatively high risk), mentor role (mentors taking an advocacy role,

mentors taking a teaching role), and programme matching (dyads being matched according to similarity in interest, dyads not being matched according to similarity in race or ethnicity).

Collectively, these three meta-analyses suggest a consistent positive effect of youth mentoring over 40 years of research. However, the magnitude of the effect remains fairly modest. As a result, researchers continue to explore different elements of mentoring relationships and programmes in order to develop more sophisticated explanations for how and when youth mentoring can be effective. Based on theoretical (e.g., Rhodes, 2004) and empirical evidence (e.g., DuBois, Holloway, et al., 2002), relationship quality has been of particular interest.

The Mentor-Mentee Relationship

In line with the "mentoring-as-relationship" hypothesis (Cavell & Elledge, 2014), the foundation of youth mentoring is the mentor-mentee relationship. This relationship shapes the nature of programme processes such as delivery mode (e.g., one-to-one or group mentoring), matching, and mentor training. Because of its importance to mentoring as an intervention, much research is dedicated to understanding the mentor-mentee relationship. The following section therefore focuses on delineating the stages of mentoring relationships and three conceptualisations of different types of mentoring relationship, developmental, prescriptive, and instrumental.

Stages of mentoring relationships.

The models of mentoring discussed earlier in this chapter (Evans & Ave, 2000; Keller, 2005a; Rhodes, 2004) illustrate how mentoring as an intervention theoretically works. Keller also offers a model of how mentoring relationships progress through five stages over time: contemplation, initiation, growth and maintenance, decline and dissolution, and redefinition (Keller, 2005b). Contemplation occurs before the relationship begins; it is a time of anticipation and preparation as mentor and mentee know they are soon to meet their mentoring partner. The time spent in this phase can vary depending on programme processes, such as how matching is done and how long

it takes. When dyads are matched and begin meeting with one another, they enter the initiation stage. This is largely a process of becoming acquainted with one another, being curious about the other, and sharing information to identify similarities and establish compatibility. Consequently, this is likely to be a period characterised by reciprocal self-disclosure.

For most pairs, the third stage is the longest: growth and maintenance. By transitioning out of the initiation stage, dyads are settled in the relationship and may have established a routine of regular meetings and activities, providing a sense of reliability and familiarity. Relationship growth may be evident through increased trust and closeness, in part facilitated by self-disclosure which can increase in amount and intimacy during this stage, suggesting it could be a particularly beneficial time in the relationship to examine self-disclosure. Keller describes how maintenance of the mentoring relationship may be done in implicit and explicit ways. Discussions about each other and the relationship, as well as shared affection, are explicit maintenance behaviours, while implicit behaviours include the routines of dyadic interactions, like conversation and hanging out together.

Growth and maintenance may be interrupted by the fourth stage, decline and dissolution. Decline represents a time when the importance of the relationship is reduced, but the relationship continues nonetheless, while dissolution signals the end of the mentoring relationship. This stage may be stimulated by internal issues (e.g., unresolved conflict, a sense that the relationship has served its purpose, or a gradual loss of interest in continuing the relationship by one or both partners) or external forces (e.g., the mentor or mentee moving away, other commitments reducing the availability of either partner, or a time-limited programme structure, where programmes are designed to end after a certain period). The final stage in Keller's model is redefinition. Here, mentor and mentee may redefine their relationship so it can continue. This may include altering the time commitment (e.g., reducing meetings from fortnightly to monthly), what they do together (e.g., using technology to "meet" long distance), or addressing unresolved

conflict. Even if a relationship ends, redefinition can occur as participants reflect on their relationship to learn from the experience.

These stages represent a broad, normative trajectory for mentoring relationships, and relationships may experience differences in how these stages unfold: pairs may spend more or less time in stages compared to others, and movement between stages may vary as well. The distinctions between stages provide a blueprint for how shifts in the mentoring relationship may be indicative of changing needs for mentors and mentees. Mentors should be aware of these fluctuations so they can successfully navigate each stage of the relationship and, when necessary, adjust how they interact with their mentee. This speaks to mentor approaches to mentoring and the influence different approaches have on developing and sustaining the quality relationships which are most likely to facilitate youth development.

Relationship styles.

Over the course of a mentoring relationship, a pattern of mentor-mentee interactions in the relationship emerges. This pattern reflects the relationship style, which has been divided into three main styles: developmental, instrumental, and prescriptive (Karcher & Nakkula, 2010). These styles have been revisited by numerous researchers (Karcher & Nakkula, 2010; Li & Julian, 2012; Morrow & Styles, 1995; Sipe, 2005) but have largely remained conceptually consistent over time. While they have been linked to effectiveness in mentoring (e.g., Morrow & Styles, 1995), relationship styles also provide insight into how mentoring works by highlighting essential relational processes.

In their seminal work, Morrow and Styles (1995) advocated for developmental relationships in youth mentoring based on their research with over 80 mentoring dyads. Their conceptualisation of developmental relationships begins with mentors establishing a connection with mentees, which in turn opens mentees up to their mentor and the relationship. At this point, mentors could expand the intention of the relationship from being relationship-focused to

including some instrumental support, such as academic help. Mentors in developmental relationships also incorporate opportunities for mentees to participate in decision-making and are responsive to their decisions. Morrow and Styles conclude by stating developmental relationships result in mentees experiencing meaningful support from mentors, as they feel comfortable expressing their feelings to, and asking for advice from, someone who they trust.

Building on the work of Morrow and Styles (1995), Li and Julian (2012) argue that developmental relationships are the 'active ingredient' for promoting positive development in young people. Active ingredients are the essential component or mechanism in an intervention which makes it effective. In this case, it is a particular style of relationship that is responsible for youth mentoring working as intended. Li and Julian hypothesise that this active ingredient—developmental relationships—is not unique to youth mentoring, but rather works across youth development settings. In their framework, Li and Julian (2012) describe developmental relationships as having four essential, interconnected characteristics. The first is attachment: a genuine, positive emotional connection between youth and adult. Second, reciprocity refers to the value of engaging in joint activities. Reciprocity is enhanced by the presence of attachment, as young people naturally enjoy doing activities with adults whom they feel positively about. When dyads engage in reciprocal interactions, adults have a chance to witness and assess the competencies of young people, which sets up the third characteristic, progressive complexity. As activities get progressively more complex, youth are stretched to learn and develop, and the adult with whom they have an attached, reciprocal relationship acts as a scaffold for their learning. As the capabilities of the young person improve, they are able to exert greater control and independence and the adult reduces their scaffolding. At this time, the fourth characteristic—balance of power—comes to the fore. Power in the relationship shifts as the young person increases their competency and self-efficacy and is less reliant on adult help.

A further framework for developmental relationships has been recently published by the Search Institute. They identified five elements to developmental relationships, each of which can be practised through several specific actions (Search Institute, 2018). The first element is expressing care. Adults can show young people that they matter by being warm and dependable, listening to and believing in them, and offering encouragement. Challenging growth is the second element, which requires adults to have high expectations, hold youth accountable for their actions, and help youth reflect on and learn from their mistakes. Adult support is essential to developmental relationships, as adults provide guidance, advocacy, and boundaries to help empower youth to be active agents in their life. Like Li and Julian (2012), the Search Institute acknowledges the importance of power sharing, grounded in respect and collaboration, and with young people as active decision-makers and leaders. The last element concerns expanding possibilities through connection: adults should inspire youth by exposing them to new ideas and experiences and facilitating connections with others. This framework does not explicitly address youth-centeredness, even though it is an essential feature of developmental relationships as described elsewhere (Karcher & Nakkula, 2010; Morrow & Styles, 1995).

In a mentoring context, developmental relationships can be identified by a youth-centered approach, with mentors being responsive and flexible to the needs of mentees, and embracing mentees as decision-makers in the relationship, both in terms of activity choice and the direction and nature of the relationship more broadly (Karcher & Nakkula, 2010; Li & Julian, 2012). Li and Julian argue, then, that programmes for youth development, including mentoring, should facilitate developmental relationships. This entails having developmental relationships as an explicit programme goal (often neglected in favour of achievement-oriented goals), and providing additional support to mentors as the relationship develops beyond initial training.

Instrumental relationships focus on skill or competency development from the outset, and this continues throughout the relationship (Hamilton & Hamilton, 1992; Karcher et al., 2006;

McQuillin, Terry, Strait, & Smith, 2013; Sipe, 2005). Like the developmental style, instrumental relationships are youth-focused and collaborative (Karcher & Nakkula, 2010). Mentees are active in deciding what goal they are working towards and the pair engage in positive goal-focused interactions in the context of a 'working alliance': a constructive interpersonal relationship which does not necessarily have the close emotional bond associated with developmental relationships (McQuillin et al., 2013). Although instrumental relationships have previously been set in opposition to developmental relationships, Karcher and Nakkula (2010) argue this is not the case. Rather, they posit that both styles are founded on the same principle—youth-centeredness—but practice this in slightly different ways at the start of a relationship. While developmental relationships begin with a focus on building the relationship which facilitates mentee change, instrumental relationships begin with a specific goal or purpose in mind, and by virtue of constructive, supportive time spent together, a rapport develops between mentor and mentee (Karcher & Nakkula, 2010). Furthermore, Karcher and Nakkula suggest the developmental and instrumental styles of relationship represent two ways of doing the same underlying work with adjustments made for developmental needs. While younger mentees respond to developmental relationships which are playful and focused on the present, the future-focused goal orientation of instrumental relationships is better suited for older adolescents who are looking for adult support as they prepare to transition into adulthood. Instrumental relationships may therefore be particularly well-suited for time-limited, site-based programmes, such as SBM which, while goal-oriented, do not preclude the eventual development of an emotional mentor-mentee attachment (McQuillin et al., 2013).

Prescriptive relationships stand in contrast with developmental and instrumental relationships, primarily because these mentors put themselves first and engage in little youth-centred practice (Karcher & Nakkula, 2010; Morrow & Styles, 1995). The mentor's goals and preferences, not the mentee's, guide the relationship; the structure and rules of the relationship are defined by the mentor, not together, as a partnership; and mentors do not adjust their

expectations, mentees are simply expected to meet them. In their research, Morrow and Styles found most prescriptive mentors were focused on setting goals and overestimated their ability to help their mentee achieve these goals, which were often unrealistic. Then, because they were not responsive and flexible, the mentors ended up exasperated at the lack of progress, a feeling echoed by mentees who were in a relationship lacking connection and meaningful support. This approach also means mentors are often focused on the shortcomings of mentees, and see their role as a fixer of youth, rather than partner and supporter of youth (Karcher & Nakkula, 2010). This is not to say that mentee change is not important. Rather, the relationship comes first and from that foundation, change can happen.

What all three styles of mentoring relationship have in common is that it is the mentor who is the responsible agent. While "relationship" suggests a dyadic framework, all three relationship styles largely focus on what the mentor does and how their actions influence the relationship, as suggested by Sipe (2005). In developmental and instrumental relationships there is space for the expression and development of mentee agency. Nonetheless, mentors take principal responsibility for how relationships develop (Nakkula & Harris, 2005) and there is little discussion of how mentees actively contribute to the relationship development process. This is not uncommon in the youth mentoring literature. Mentees are often represented as the receivers or targets of the intervention, and it is the responsibility of the programme and mentors to be responsive to their needs. With this responsibility, it is critical to understand what mentors do within the context of mentoring relationships in order to facilitate quality connections, and how programmes might support mentors to engage in positive and supportive interactions—hence the mentor-centric focus of this thesis.

Mentoring relationship quality.

As noted in Chapter 1, relationship quality has typically been conceptualised as a close interpersonal bond between mentor and mentee (Nakkula & Harris, 2005; Rhodes, 2004).

However, as researcher interest in mentoring relationship quality has grown, there has also been an increased complexity in how quality is conceptualised. For instance, Nakkula and Harris (2014) propose a multi-dimensional construct of relationship quality. Internal match quality concerns the feelings mentors and mentees have about each other, therefore encompassing a traditional view of relationship quality by drawing on closeness and satisfaction. However, they broaden the conceptualisation of relationship quality by including compatibility (i.e., compatible traits and interests between mentor and mentee) and competence as part of internal match quality. In particular, relational competence refers to the skills and traits that mentors and mentees have to help build the relationship, including communication skills. Internal match quality best represents the conceptualisation of relationship quality used in this thesis. The other dimensions of relationship quality posited by Nakkula and Harris (2014) are match structure and external match quality. Informed by instrumental mentoring, match structure refers to how the activities dyads do together are associated with specific outcomes, and how a youth-centred, task-focused approach can promote youth development. Contextual factors that influence the relationship are considered external match quality, and include programme support, families, and other support networks, such as school.

Although Nakkula and Harris (2014) propose a multi-dimensional conceptualisation of relationship quality, many researchers use measures of specific relationship characteristics as barometers of relationship quality. These include closeness, satisfaction, warmth, and trust (Bayer et al., 2015; Farruggia, Bullen, & Pierson, 2013; Herrera et al., 2002; Leyton-Armakan, Lawrence, Deutsch, Williams, & Henneberger, 2012; Pryce & Keller, 2012). Other studies have operationalised relationship quality using measures such as mentee emotional engagement (Schwartz et al., 2011), and mentees identifying mentors as significant adults in their life (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009). The variety in these measures suggest an inconsistent understanding of what counts as relationship quality and as a result, a fragmented approach to measuring and understanding a critical aspect of youth mentoring. This highlights the need for a more holistic

and consistent conceptualisation of relationship quality in the mentoring context, which should then be reflected in how it is measured.

The influence of relationship quality on youth outcomes.

As discussed earlier in this chapter, Rhodes's (2004) model of mentoring argues that having an adult mentor not only adds a caring adult into the life of mentees, but improves their ability to develop good interpersonal relationships with other adults. Several studies have borne this out. One study of 526 youth in a SBM programme found quality relationships were significantly associated with improvements in mentee relationships with parents and teachers over the course of an academic year (Chan et al., 2013). In a study with 219 youth in a CBM programme, Zand et al. (2009) found high quality mentoring relationships had a direct, positive association with family bonding and relationships with adults after eight months of mentoring. Meanwhile, findings from a longitudinal study showed relationship quality predicted friendship with adults and self-disclosure to adults at two time points during the relationship (eight and 16 months), and parent attachment at eight months (Thomson & Zand, 2010).

Prosocial behaviours with peers also appear to be influenced by relationship quality. Kanchewa and colleagues (2018) found establishing a trusting relationship with a mentor reduced rejection sensitivity in mentees, and also had a positive, indirect effect on prosocial behaviours and assertiveness with peers after five months of mentoring. Positive relational outcomes associated with relationship quality have also been reported in a mixed-delivery mentoring programme (Deutsch et al., 2013). The study, comprised of eight mentoring groups with eight to ten mentoring dyads in each group, examined the relationship between dyadic satisfaction and social interactions in the group. Groups that included more mentees who were satisfied with their mentoring relationship were more likely to engage in positive social processes, like showing support and building trust. Conversely, groups with a greater proportion of less satisfied mentees were more likely to engage in negative social processes, such as

disengagement and rejection. Similarly, a study investigating relationship quality in a group mentoring context found youth who reported having a quality relationship with their mentor were more likely to report deriving social benefits from mentoring, such as working with peers (Herrera et al., 2002).

Bayer, Grossman, and DuBois (2015) conducted a randomised control evaluation with 1,139 youth, half of whom received treatment by participating in an SBM programme. They determined that a close mentoring relationship, as reported by mentees, was the primary contributor to programme effectiveness. This finding applied to four academic outcomes measured: scholastic efficacy beliefs, completion of schoolwork, quality of schoolwork, and overall academic performance. Goldner and Mayseless (2009) found mentor-reported relationship closeness was positively correlated with teacher-reported mentee academic functioning (e.g., comprehension, concentration, and interest) for a sample of 84 dyads, while Zand and colleagues (2009) reported on a positive association between relationship quality and school bonding. Correlational analyses conducted by Chen and colleagues (2013) found relationship quality had an indirect effect on mentees' attitude towards school, via improved relationships with parents and teachers.

In addition to relational and academic outcomes, many programmes aim to contribute to other aspects of youth wellbeing and relationship quality has been associated with such improvements in a number of studies. In one quasi-experimental study with over 200 mentees, relationship quality was directly associated with improvements in life skills, including self-efficacy, peer resistance, and negative attitudes towards substance use (Zand et al., 2009). A recent study found relationship quality positively affected multiple mentee outcomes, particularly behavioural outcomes such as delinquency and misconduct (Lyons et al., 2018). Furthermore, Lyons and colleagues found outcome effects were enhanced when pairs reported high relationship quality and engagement in goal-setting and feedback activities. Rhodes et al.

(2005) found mentees who reported greater satisfaction and trust with mentors also reported greater global self-worth, while relationship quality also indirectly predicted improvements in self-esteem in another study (Chan et al., 2013). In summary, the above literature points to relationship quality as a critical ingredient of programme effectiveness, warranting advanced understanding and exploration of this important construct.

Facilitating relationship quality: Mentor practices and relational processes.

As evidence regarding the link between relationship quality and effectiveness grows, the impetus to identify facilitators of relationship quality gets stronger. As I noted in the introduction, research in this space has largely focused on the role of mentors. Mentors assume considerable responsibility when they enter a relationship with a young person (Dutton et al., 2019). This goes beyond responsibility regarding safety and ethical issues (Rhodes et al., 2009) and the practical responsibilities associated with spending time with mentees. Researchers have found that how mentors mentor is critical to relationship quality, as exemplified by the previous discussion regarding relationship styles. Relationship styles represent a pattern of interactions that occur across a mentoring relationship, which means mentors can engage in specific processes—like self-disclosure—that foster the bond and rapport that emerges from developmental and instrumental relationships.

One such process, examined by Pryce (2012), is mentor attunement: the way mentors attend to the verbal and nonverbal cues of mentees' needs and interests. This high-level responsiveness prioritises the needs of mentees above those of mentors, and is associated with shared decision-making. Pryce (2012) also connects attunement with mentor self-efficacy. Mentors with high attunement tend to have high self-efficacy, a factor which has been shown to positively affect relationship quality (Karcher, Nakkula, & Harris, 2005) and outcomes for mentees (Parra, DuBois, Neville, Pugh-Lilly, & Povinelli, 2002). Elsewhere, research has identified critical self-reflection as beneficial for relationship quality (Dutton, Bullen, et al.,

2018). Mentors who practice self-reflection think about what they do in mentoring sessions: what works and should continue to be done, and what does not work, and should therefore be adjusted or discontinued. This reflection encourages mentors to develop their practice and seek advice as necessary. Bayer and colleagues (2015) explored relationship quality for 565 youth participating in a SBM programme. They found youth who reported having a close connection with their mentor were more likely to have mentors who were reliable (i.e., showed up when they were supposed to) and had received more training.

Pryce and Keller (2013) identified four types of mentoring relationships based on how mentors engaged in activities with their mentee. Teaching assistant/tutoring included pairs where mentors spent a considerable amount of time tutoring their mentee and focused on academic tasks. Other mentors—labelled friend/engaging—balanced academic work with having fun together, proactively developing a friendly, egalitarian relationship together. A third group of dyads were designated sage/counselling. These mentors had the same friendly, youth-oriented demeanour as the friend/engaging group, but steered away from being too egalitarian, instead choosing to take on the adult role exemplified through guidance and role modelling. A small group were considered acquaintance/floundering, who lacked the purpose and connection seen in other groups. Mentee-reported assessment of relationship quality found those in the sage/counselling group had better relationships than those in other groups.

McMorris and colleagues (2018) used latent profiles analysis of mentor and mentee self-report data to identify three types of matches. Sixty-one percent of pairs were identified as tight matches, where mentors and mentee reported high levels of closeness, compatibility, and good communication. Another 31% of matches were characterised by tentative mentors who reported lower levels of closeness with their mentee, although mentee reports indicated they were satisfied with the relationship. These mentors had a less positive attitude towards youth prior to mentoring, and were more likely to want additional training (on topics such as how to build a

strong relationship and work with a mentee who is quiet or resistant). The remaining 8% of mentors were labelled as tough matches, and were characterised by lower closeness and happiness in the relationship, mentors who did not listen to their mentees, and mentees who were less open and engaged.

Mentors also make important contributions to dyadic processes that foster quality relationships, such as those identified by Spencer (2006) in interviews with 24 successful CBM pairs. Authenticity refers to partners who are genuine in their interactions with the other. By being themselves, authentic mentors allow mentees to develop trust in them whilst being mindful of, and responsive to, the differences between them. Empathy captures the ability for mentors to see things from the mentee's perspective. When mentors used empathy to understand the context of the mentee and how it impacts their life, mentees felt seen and cared for by their mentor. As many mentoring programmes aim to foster mentee skills and capabilities, collaboration includes all the ways mentors and mentees work together in a productive way. This includes academic, social, and emotional competencies. Lastly, companionship sums up a feeling of simply liking one another, enjoying hanging out together, and having a genuine friendship.

The practices and processes described above are largely mentor-driven, but programmes can also influence relationship quality as the context in which dyads are embedded. For example, one recent study found that mentor experiences of certain aspects of the mentoring programme predicted relationship quality (Weiler et al., 2019). Programme experiences include structure (e.g., organisation and planning), staff support (e.g., availability to talk in case of problems), sense of belonging in the programme, and programme provision of opportunities to develop skills (e.g., teamwork and resolving conflict). Mentors who reported having these experiences in the programme reported significantly higher relationship quality. The same study showed increased dosage improves relationship quality within-programme; in other words, pairs who

spent more time together rated relationship quality higher compared to pairs in the same programme who spent less time together.

The research on relationship quality detailed here illustrates how important mentors are to building the high quality, mentee-oriented relationships associated with intervention effectiveness. There is, however, a considerable gap in this research. How mentors communicate with mentees, and what influence interpersonal communication has on mentoring relationships, is largely unexplored. Gayle and Preiss (2002) explained that communication is essential to the development and maintenance of healthy relationships, impacting individuals and dyads in numerous ways, including identity development, exploring and establishing boundaries, collecting information about others, and meeting individual and dyadic needs. A better understanding of interpersonal communication in the mentoring context would give programmes and practitioners valuable guidance about fostering high quality relationships.

Moreover, the lack of research on communication is indicative of the knowledge base on relationship processes in general. The youth mentoring field has mainly concerned itself with evaluative research which focuses on effectiveness, while research on the processes that drive quality relationships and successful outcomes has been somewhat overlooked (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009). However, there appears to be broad acknowledgement that mentoring varies in effectiveness, both at a dyadic and programmatic level (Chan et al., 2013; Deutsch & Spencer, 2009), and more research dedicated to relational processes has accumulated (e.g., Lester, Goodloe, Johnson, & Deutsch, 2019; Pryce, 2012; Spencer, 2006; Varga & Deutsch, 2016). Greater emphasis on relational processes is critical for addressing the differential effects of mentoring: the better we understand what is happening within relationships to produce positive outcomes, the more able we are to implement training and practices which facilitate the mechanisms of change.

Conducting research about self-disclosure brings together these disparate threads. As I mentioned in the introduction, and describe in more detail in Chapter 3, there is precedence for believing self-disclosure makes an important contribution to developing and sustaining relationships. Models of mentoring emphasise the fundamental role of the mentor-mentee relationship, and with the growing evidence base regarding the importance of high quality relationships to the success of mentoring, the imperative to identify facilitators of such relationships gets stronger. Two strands of research which could fulfil this brief—interpersonal communication and relational processes—deserve more attention. By exploring self-disclosure in this thesis, my intention is to understand how self-disclosure fits in to this picture and demonstrate the contribution it can make to mentoring practice.

Summary

Research on communication in youth mentoring is nascent, despite being a vital part of developing high quality relationships. In this chapter, I have delved into the literature on youth mentoring. Youth mentoring programmes are popular and diverse, reflecting a widespread belief in transformative youth-adult relationships for youth development, and the need for a flexible intervention which can be adapted to meet the needs of different youth and the communities they are located in. Although programme delivery can differ, the essence of youth mentoring is the mentor-mentee relationship. However, research has shown not all relationships are created equal, and evidence strongly suggests high quality mentoring relationships improve the efficacy of the intervention. With this in mind, it is critical that the relational processes that promote quality are identified and mentors are trained and supported to engage in behaviours which enhance mentoring relationships.

CHAPTER THREE.

ADULTS DISCLOSING TO NON-FAMILIAL ADOLESCENTS IN INTERVENTION SETTINGS.

A unique characteristic of youth mentoring relationships is that they combine components of various other relationships. At any given time, they may resemble a familial relationship, friendship, or teacher-student relationship. In this chapter, an analogy is drawn between youth mentoring and another relationship-based intervention for youth: psychotherapy. Unlike mentoring, psychotherapy has a rich base of research about the use of self-disclosure. In particular, one strand of research is concerned with the use of self-disclosure by the therapist. This literature explores whether therapist disclosure offers any benefits to clients or the therapeutic relationship. Importantly, it also gives thoughtful consideration to the ethics of disclosure considering the formality and sensitivity of therapy, which is embedded in a specific power relationship. In this chapter, I review the literature on therapist self-disclosure and consider how it applies to the youth mentoring context. It unpacks self-disclosure in more detail and argues that the evidence on self-disclosure in therapy and other settings makes a strong case for closer examination of the role of mentor disclosure in facilitating quality mentoring relationships. I also summarise the disparate fragments of research on disclosure in the youth mentoring context, and the clues they yield about communication between mentors and mentees.

This chapter is a modified version of a manuscript published in *Adolescent Research Review*. The changes to the manuscript include small additions to the content and adjustments to the prose to enhance coherence and consistency with the rest of the thesis.

Full Reference: Dutton, H. (2018). Mentor self-disclosure in youth mentoring relationships: a review of the literature about adults disclosing to non-familial adolescents in intervention settings. *Adolescent Research Review*, *3*(1), 57-66. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40894-017-0065-0

Mentor Self-Disclosure in Youth Mentoring Relationships: A Review of the Literature About Adults Disclosing to Non-Familial Adolescents in Intervention Settings

Introduction

The promise of youth mentoring is that something special will happen when a caring adult is paired with a vulnerable young person. This promise has sustained the growth and development of mentoring programmes to address a range of youth issues across diverse contexts. Youth mentoring programmes bring young people together with non-familial adults "with the aim of cultivating a relationship that will foster the young person's positive development and well-being" (DuBois et al., 2011, p. 58). Exploring mentoring relationships is essential to understanding how they can create positive change in the lives of youth (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009). As a result, youth mentoring has attracted considerable attention from researchers seeking explanations for what that "something special" is, and how it can be cultivated in all mentoring relationships.

The quality of the dyadic relationship between mentor and mentee has been identified as a critical component of the success of youth mentoring (Rhodes & DuBois, 2008). With growing evidence of the positive impact of relationship quality on mentoring effectiveness, the interest in understanding how high quality relationships can be nurtured by mentors and programmes also grows. Yet, what kind of communication occurs between mentors and mentees, and how it may affect relationship quality, is largely unknown. As a result, programmes have little evidence from youth mentoring contexts to train and support mentors in maximising communication techniques to develop quality relationships.

Studies of relationships, closeness, and communication often include some consideration of self-disclosure (Greene et al., 2006). Self-disclosure generally includes any way individuals

reveal information about themselves to another person (Wheeless & Grotz, 1976). By sharing personal details, self-disclosure is thought to have a significant impact on relationships by promoting intimacy and trust (Jourard, 1971) and has been theoretically described as the primary process through which individuals establish closeness in personal relationships (Altman & Taylor, 1973).

The Current Study

In this article, I bridge a gap between two interventions where adults form interpersonal relationships with non-familial adolescents: youth mentoring and psychotherapy. The literature on self-disclosure is vast, but has primarily explored disclosure between adults. Disclosure in youth-adult relationships of all kinds has received less attention in the literature. In an effort to argue for increased attention to, and systematic research of, mentor self-disclosure, I collate the fragments of knowledge regarding self-disclosure within the youth mentoring literature. I also review the literature regarding therapist self-disclosure to adolescent clients to highlight some insights that may be pertinent for youth mentoring research. I conclude with a discussion on the potential effect of mentor self-disclosure on safe and effective mentoring practice.

Notably, the boundaries of adolescence are somewhat blurred in the literature included in this review. As suggested by its name, youth mentoring has a broad reach in terms of mentee age, and includes children as well as adolescents (Keller, 2007). Here the focus is on research conducted with mentees aged 11-22. In the psychotherapy realm, much of literature is either theoretical or conducted with therapists; adolescence is therefore discussed as a broad developmental stage with no specific age range indicated.

Youth Mentoring: An Overview

Many adolescents are served by youth mentoring programmes worldwide. Based on theory and evidence that youth experience positive development in the presence of meaningful relationships

with non-parental adults (Herrera, 2004; Rhodes, 2004), mentoring introduces caring adults to young people who could benefit from such a relationship. Formal youth mentoring is provided through programmes developed and operated by governments, private organizations, educational institutions, and community groups. Typically, mentoring involves dyads meeting regularly over an extended period of time (often a minimum of one year; Raposa, Dietz, & Rhodes, 2017), to spend time together. Youth mentoring is differentiated from tutoring by the pivotal role of the mentor-mentee relationship: the relationship, characterised by mutuality, trust, and empathy (Rhodes, 2004), is the foundation of the intervention. In contrast, tutoring tends to be focused on the structured transmission of curriculum information and skills (Topping, 1998). Thus, while mentors may engage in tutoring activities, they are also expected to provide emotional, social, and psychological support (Eby, Rhodes, & Allen, 2007).

Mentors are usually non-parental adults who volunteer to support and guide a young person (DuBois & Karcher, 2014). Programmes recruit mentors from local communities, vet and train them, and then match them with a young person. Recent data shows that mentors in the United States are most likely to be white women, aged between 35-54, with a college education (Raposa et al., 2017). As it has grown in popularity, youth mentoring has been adapted to new and diverse contexts, such as SBM and group mentoring (Karcher et al., 2006). These new variations of mentoring still rely on the central principle of developing a relationship with a supportive and caring adult.

There is an evidence base of consistent but small positive effects for youth mentoring programmes. Notably, meta-analyses conducted by DuBois and colleagues (2002; 2011) found mentored youth experienced improved academic, behavioural, social, and emotional outcomes, although the magnitude of effect was lower than those reported in meta-analyses of other youth interventions. Recent studies have found adolescent mentees have a reduced risk of school dropout (Moreno-Candil & Garza, 2017), lower participation in and acceptance of problem

behaviours (Weiler et al., 2015), as well as improvements in their relationships with parents and teachers (Chan et al., 2013), relational development and self-understanding (Deutsch, Reitz-Krueger, Henneberger, Futch Ehrlich, & Lawrence, 2017), and cultural identity and mental health (Crooks, Exner-Cortens, Burm, Lapointe, & Chiodo, 2017).

The modest effects established so far have highlighted a need for researchers and practitioners to identify the mechanisms of change that generate positive outcomes for youth (Keller, 2005a; Rhodes, Spencer, Keller, Liang, & Noam, 2006). In doing so, youth mentoring programmes may be able to provide more effective interventions that target the aspects of mentoring that increase the likelihood of change. As mentoring is a relational intervention, it is expected that relationships, particularly high quality ones, are a key mechanism of change (Rhodes & DuBois, 2008). Therefore, there is a significant amount of interest in understanding how quality relationships can be fostered by mentoring programmes (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009).

From this overview, parallels between psychotherapy and formal youth mentoring can be ascertained. Both are purposeful, youth-oriented, interpersonal interventions, specifically aimed at promoting positive outcomes for adolescents through the development of a relationship (Spencer, 2004). Similar to youth mentoring, the relationship between therapist and client—the therapeutic working alliance—is a predictor of positive outcomes (Duncan et al., 2003). Moreover, mentoring and psychotherapy relationships are likely to be highly structured. The time, place, and duration of meetings are often pre-arranged, and the relationships themselves may only exist for a set period of time.

These relationship characteristics distinguish youth mentors from parents and teachers. Youth mentoring researchers tend to describe mentors as complementary to parents, often advocating for programmes and mentors to work with parents as part of a supportive adult environment for young people (Keller, 2005a; Spencer & Basualdo-Delmonico, 2014; Taylor & Porcellini, 2014). Teachers are also important adults in the lives of adolescents. In some

circumstances, teachers may occupy a mentor-like role for their students. However, the scope of most teacher-student relationships is limited in terms of spending quality one-on-one time together. From this perspective, parents, teachers, and mentors fulfil unique roles for youth. Thus, while research has been conducted on self-disclosure in families and school settings, therapists may be a more insightful analogue for mentor self-disclosure to adolescent mentees.

Youth Mentoring and Self-Disclosure

Like most kinds of relationships, communication between mentor and mentee is essential to establishing a quality relationship. As noted earlier, talking is one of the most common activities dyads do together (Herrera, 2004), and mentors are often regarded as role models for teaching mentees effective communication in relationships (Kupersmidt & Rhodes, 2014; Rhodes, 2004). Communication skills are also the most common topic in mentor training, reflecting the significance of communication in mentoring relationships (Kupersmidt & Rhodes, 2014). Despite these indications, little is known about what communication in mentoring relationships looks like (Karcher & Hansen, 2014), although there are some exceptions which, for example, explore communication as it relates to mentor approaches (Pryce & Keller, 2013) or as a mechanism for emotional support (Spencer & Liang, 2009). While self-disclosure is rarely mentioned in the mentoring literature, this section will present an overview of where self-disclosure and mentoring do cross paths in the literature.

Companionship Theory.

The only substantive study conducted on mentor disclosure in youth mentoring relationships comes from Goodman (1972). Before the term "mentoring" was commonly used, Goodman conducted a study on "companionship theory". Goodman developed a programme where 88 university-aged male mentors were paired with adolescent boys, based on "the special nature of structured cross-age companionships" where mentors "would not attempt to intervene as professional therapists but rather would build gradual friendships" (p. 16) with their paired

young person. This description of the companionship has strong similarities to the way mentoring relationships are defined today.

The value of mentor disclosure is an underlying assumption of Goodman's (1972) research. During the screening and selection process, Goodman and his colleagues included a group activity where mentors were asked to disclose personal information to other prospective mentors. The researchers argued that a mentor's capacity to both self-disclose and respond appropriately to the self-disclosure of others was indicative of a mentor's understanding, openness, and warmth. Additionally, mentors completed a 60-item self-disclosure questionnaire (Jourard, 1971) at the start and end of the mentoring relationship, which asked participants to report the extent to which they have made themselves known to another person across six different topics: attitudes and opinions, tastes and interests, work or studies, money, personality, and body.

The findings regarding mentor disclosure are insightful. Mentor self-disclosure was positively associated with interpersonal closeness, and those mentors who reported engaging in higher levels of disclosure had more discussions with their mentee about their respective feelings toward the other. Increased mentor self-disclosure was correlated with interest and openness: mentors with higher scores on measures of being interested in and open with their mentee disclosed more than mentors with lower scores. The study also found mentors who received weekly small group training (about half of the mentors in the program) were reported by mentees to have disclosed more than those mentors who did not participate in weekly training sessions. The mentees with trained mentors also reported knowing more about their mentors feelings, and having their feelings better known by their mentor.

Additionally, mentors provided feedback on the type of conversation topics engaged in with their mentee. Categories included current and past activities, future visits, the mentoring programme, school, skills, personality and behaviour, feelings about each other, friends, and

parents. Mentor disclosure occurred in all categories, although it occurred more often in some topics than others. For example, over the course of the relationship, mentors discussed their studies twice as often as talking about their friends. While most categories were more likely to be discussed in relation to the mentee rather than the mentor, two categories—personality and behaviour, and feelings about the other—were particularly reciprocal. Discussions categorised as personality and behaviour were described by Goodman (1972) as being therapeutic, and often concerned personal problems. Pairs who discussed these topics more than average reported greater disclosure from both mentors and mentees. Mentors who were trained were more likely to discuss these topics.

At the conclusion of the mentoring relationships, mentors were asked what they would do differently to improve their relationship. Most mentors cited being more open and honest about themselves (Goodman, 1972). This suggests the mentors were aware that self-disclosure is a critical component of good relationships, and that disclosing more to their mentee could have facilitated a closer relationship.

Help-intended communication.

Following on from Companionship Theory, Goodman and Dooley (1976) developed a framework of help-intended communication. The framework pairs six "helping intentions" with six "response modes" (p. 106). Helping intentions are reasons for a communication interaction, which then map onto response modes that are the method for enacting the helping intention. These paired intentions and responses were developed to work as a single response, a conversation, or as a pattern in a relationship. The helping intentions identified by Goodman and Dooley are gathering information, guiding another's behaviour, providing interpersonal space, explaining or classifying another's behaviour, expressing empathy, and revealing one's personal condition. The response modes are question, advisement, silence, interpretation, reflection/paraphrase, and self-disclosure. Therefore, self-disclosure (a response mode) is used to

express similarity or an association with another person by sharing personal information (helping intention). Goodman and Dooley refer to these disclosures as “me-too” statements (1976, p. 113): by revealing a similar experience, disclosers express understanding and acceptance of the listener’s situation.

Goodman and Dooley (1976) posited this framework as a tool for measuring and understanding communication in helping relationships that utilise paraprofessionals. Contemporary mentors would likely be considered paraprofessionals using the criteria Goodman and Dooley set forth: engaging in face-to-face communication with clients with an intention to help, and brief training characterised by greater emphasis on improving interpersonal communication rather than research and theory. Goodman and Dooley developed the framework of help-intended communication primarily because, in their view, the training of paraprofessionals was not adequate for effectiveness. Building a set of easily-trainable micro-skills for paraprofessionals could be used to improve training.

Self-disclosure in the contemporary youth mentoring context.

Karcher and Hansen’s (2014) work on mentoring activities was informed by Goodman’s research on companionships (1972; Goodman & Dooley, 1976). Karcher and Hansen argue that Goodman’s work is the only research to substantively explore communication tools in mentoring relationships, despite preceding contemporary mentoring research by 25 years. A framework of mentoring strategies and techniques developed by Karcher and Hansen includes self-disclosure as a “mentor talking tool” (p. 66)—a communication skill that can be taught to and used by mentors for purposeful ends. They conclude with a plea for researchers to revisit and reconsider Goodman’s work, particularly around talking tools like disclosure.

Mentor self-disclosure is typically reduced to peripheral mentions in the contemporary youth mentoring literature. Although fragmented, these pieces within various studies provide some interesting insights into how mentor self-disclosure functions in mentoring relationships

with adolescents. Liang, Spencer, Brogan, and Corral (2008) conducted a study investigating natural mentoring relationships. Unlike formal mentoring, where relationships are arranged and supported by a mentoring programme, natural mentoring occurs when non-parental adults (e.g., extended family members, teachers, or coaches) provide informal and ongoing support to a young person (DuBois & Silverthorn, 2005). In Liang and colleagues' (2008) study, college-aged mentees placed considerable value on trust and fidelity in their natural mentoring relationships, and the reciprocity of disclosure was particularly important to them. When mentors opened up about personal successes or challenges, mentees felt "special and trusted" (p. 174). For mentees at middle- and high-school, disclosure that was reciprocal and honest was critical to building trust in their natural mentoring relationship.

Liang and colleagues (2008) also offer some insight into the relational implications of self-disclosure by natural mentors. Their study identified responses from youth about de-idealization, and how youth feel when they observe or hear about their mentor engaging in problem behaviours. The results reflect important developmental differences. For young mentees (11-12 years old), learning of their mentor's behaviour was distressing. However, older mentees (high school and college students) expressed some acceptance and appreciation when mentors shared these details with them. The same study found honesty in mentoring relationships is important to mentees in all three age groups (Liang et al., 2008). This can create tension between the value of self-disclosure—where mentor honesty builds feelings of trust and closeness with their mentee—and the potential harm of the content of their disclosure, particularly if it involves engaging in problem behaviours. Research on self-disclosure in mentoring relationships is needed to ascertain whether the benefits of improved relationship quality outweigh any risks associated with mentor disclosure, and how these benefits and risks may vary according to mentee age.

Varga and Deutsch (2016) examined several dyadic-level factors that have been linked to quality mentoring relationships. Descriptions of two of these factors alluded to the positive effect of self-disclosure. Authenticity was exemplified by a mentee report where personal disclosures from her mentor fortified her trust in her mentor, and encouraged her to open up to her mentor. Identification was defined as mentors comparing their life experiences to those experiences of their mentee, thus engaging in self-disclosure to make connections of understanding between mentor and mentee. Both of these factors were associated with dyadic satisfaction with their relationship.

Self-disclosure is included in a model of mentoring relationships focused on youth in foster care systems. Based on qualitative data from semi-structured interviews with 23 participants who were in foster care as youth, Ahrens et al. (2011) used key themes from qualitative analysis to develop a model to better explain how mentoring specifically works for youth in foster care. One facilitator of the initial mentor-mentee relationship described by mentees is mentor (adult) self-disclosure about their own experiences. In the example provided, one mentee conveys her mentor's disclosure as an indication of genuine openness and care. It is a small part of Ahrens and colleagues' (2011) model, but nonetheless affirms that mentor self-disclosure occurs in mentoring relationships and was valuable for this group of youth.

These mentions in the literature indicate that self-disclosure does occur in youth mentoring relationships, and may have an impact on the quality of these relationships. However, important dimensions of self-disclosure remain largely unexplored. More substantive and focused research, as I have conducted as part of this thesis, could shed light on the degree, nature, and effect of mentor self-disclosure on youth mentoring relationships.

Self-Disclosure

Approximately one-third of human speech is used to tell others about our subjective experiences (Tamir & Mitchell, 2012). As a fundamental element of interpersonal communication (Knapp &

Daly, 2011), self-disclosure has received significant theoretical and research attention. Self-disclosure is a mechanism of communication where an individual purposefully reveals personal information to another (Greene et al., 2006; Jourard, 1971). Self-disclosure is an inherently relational process that appears to occur in relationships of almost every type, in almost every environment. It has been linked to desirable relationship characteristics such as closeness, intimacy, and trust (Jourard, 1971).

One of the most fruitful areas of research on self-disclosure is in the context of therapist-client relationships. Self-disclosure research had its beginnings in psychotherapy, with the pioneer Sidney Jourard (1964, 1971). Stemming from personal reflections about whether a lack of disclosure and authentic expression contributed to some of the psychological ills his patients were suffering, the concept of self-disclosure as a requisite for health developed (Jourard, 1971). He argued that having a "healthy" personality meant individuals had a positive and realistic sense of self which facilitated personal growth (Jourard, 1964, p. 25). Self-disclosure was essential to sense of self, as it prevented individuals from becoming isolated from their real self and improved relationships with others due to its reciprocal nature (Jourard, 1964). His work on the connection between self-disclosure and health in personal relationships was eventually reflected back on therapists and their disclosures to patients.

Traditionally, the therapist's role was to maintain neutrality in their relationships with patients. Disclosure was one-way, with therapists refraining from divulging personal information unless this information was pertinent to their professional role, such as their credentials (Simon, 1990; Zur, 2009). Even contemporary therapy largely expects any disclosure to be a one-way experience, dedicated to patients (Simon, 1990). Despite widespread use (Edwards & Murdock, 1994), little is known about how therapist disclosure occurs in therapeutic relationships (Psychopathology Committee of the Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, 2001) and efforts to quantify exactly how often therapists use self-disclosure has largely concluded it is rarely used

by therapists (Hill & Knox, 2002). Nevertheless, developments in approaches to mental health, including holistic models of treatment (Simon, 1990) and new frameworks for psychotherapy (e.g., humanistic, feminist; Peterson, 2002) have resulted in increased visibility, acceptance, and promotion of therapist disclosure to their patients.

Therapist self-disclosure with adolescents.

Much of the literature about therapist self-disclosure is based on relationships with adult patients. However, some researchers have argued that the use and effect of therapist self-disclosure may be different with adolescent patients. This subset of the literature tends to focus on the developmental needs of adolescents and fostering good therapeutic relationships with them. It also tends to rely on qualitative studies: a meta-analysis conducted by Karver, Handelsman, Fields, and Bickman (2006) found no quantitative research on therapist self-disclosure with adolescent patients.

The transition from adolescence to adulthood is intense and complex: although they often closely resemble adults, simply using the same strategies when working with adolescents in therapy is imprudent (Gaines, 2003; Weiner, 1978). Like children, adolescents are more likely to ask personal questions of their therapist (Psychopathology Committee of the Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, 2001). With a new set of experiences and problems entering their life, adolescents have a new-found curiosity about the adult world (Papouchis, 1990; Weiner, 1978). Adolescents in therapy may view their therapist as someone they can get accurate information on sensitive topics from, or who they can look to as a model of how to autonomously deal with the myriad of new issues now relevant in their life (Papouchis, 1990; Simon, 1990).

Therapist self-disclosure can promote differentiation and identification for adolescents. Developmentally, adolescents begin to de-idealize their parents; they move from the juvenile perception of parents and adults as omnipotent figures to a more realistic understanding of

parents as flawed (Frank, Pirsch, & Wright, 1990). During this process, adolescents also begin to separate their identity from that of their parents, which in turn can introduce conflicts about values and standards (Frank et al., 1990). They may be looking for non-parental adults to look up to and connect with (Papouchis, 1990). For adolescents in therapy, therapists can use self-disclosure to differentiate themselves from the adolescent's parents, while also providing an adult model with ideals and values aligned with mainstream society for the adolescent to identify with (Gaines, 2003).

Similarly, Gaines (2003) suggests therapists can promote constructive development at a time when adolescents are moving into adulthood and renegotiating their relationship with their parents. As adolescents differentiate themselves from their parents, they still require adult help in conceptualising themselves as a competent and successful adult – something adolescents in therapy are often lacking (Gaines, 2003). Therapists can facilitate this through disclosure of their personal ideas about the adolescent's transition to adulthood. This may include their dreams of seeing the adolescent attend university or following a particular career, for instance.

One feature of working with adolescents in therapeutic settings is a tendency to enter new relationships with adults with some mistrust and suspicion (Gaines, 2003; Papouchis, 1990). This initial wariness (Gaines, 2003) is heightened when therapists avoid or redirect personal questions asked by the adolescent patient (Papouchis, 1990; Psychopathology Committee of the Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, 2001). Therapist self-disclosure can help alleviate suspicion by showing adolescents therapists are flawed (by disclosing they have also been in therapy, for example; Gaines, 2003), further contributing to the process of de-idealization of adults previously discussed. In addition, therapist disclosure can demonstrate to adolescents that their therapist is willing and able to be honest with them, thus indicating the therapist has trust in them (Papouchis, 1990; Simon, 1990). The therapist's office therefore becomes a space where

openness is valued and respected and self-disclosure becomes a necessary tool to establishing the trust and honesty that effective therapeutic relationships are dependent on (Papouchis, 1990).

Subsequently, researchers generally argue that adolescents require more self-disclosure than adults in therapeutic relationships (Papouchis, 1990). This does not mean therapists should disclose indiscriminately (Weiner, 1978); rather, therapists should try to answer direct questions honestly, and take the questions asked by adolescents seriously (Gaines, 2003). Even if therapists think the information adolescents are requesting is irrelevant or trivial, they should not dismiss them, as the questions adolescents ask are useful for understanding what is important to them (Gaines, 2003). Redirection may be more appropriate after a frank answer from the therapist, who can then inquire about the adolescents' curiosity and encourage adolescent self-reflection (Papouchis, 1990).

Although the literature I have canvassed here largely focuses on the potential positive effect of disclosure in mentoring or therapeutic relationships, there are certainly risks involved as well. In the psychotherapy context, a study from Wells (1994) provides examples of the negative effects of therapist self-disclosure with adult clients. This included clients terminating their therapeutic relationship after the therapists' self-disclosure made them feel unsafe; clients reporting a loss of confidence and trust in their therapist; and a variety of negative emotions such as anger, humiliation, offence, shame, and hurt. Participants also reported that therapist self-disclosure resulted in refraining from expressing some feelings out of concern for how the therapist would react. These risks highlight the importance of investigating the impact of mentor self-disclosure on the mentee and the mentoring relationship, and emphasise the value of mentor training about disclosing in safe and effective ways.

Discussion

Receiving guidance and support from caring non-parental adults is essential for young people to thrive. Despite its popularity, youth mentoring has significant gaps in its research base. Self-

disclosure is one such gap, lacking dedicated research despite extensive theoretical and empirical connections between self-disclosure and quality interpersonal relationships (e.g., Altman & Taylor, 1973; Greene et al., 2006; Jourard, 1971). I argue that youth mentoring could benefit from understanding not only how mentor self-disclosure influences mentoring relationships, but also how self-disclosure could be used to maximise their quality and effectiveness. Following reviews that have highlighted the connection between youth mentoring and psychotherapy (Spencer, 2004; 2012), I agree that psychotherapy offers insightful, analogous research from which youth mentoring researchers and practitioners can begin constructing their own knowledge base about self-disclosure.

Although research on mentor self-disclosure is largely piecemeal, this review provides glimpses of how it functions in youth mentoring relationships. In particular, adolescent mentees have reported finding mentor self-disclosure helpful to their relationship, facilitating rapport, developing trust, and establishing an open dialogue between mentor and mentee (Ahrens et al., 2011; Goodman, 1972; Liang, Spencer, Brogan, & Corral, 2008; Varga & Deutsch, 2016). These findings echo those found in the psychotherapy literature, where therapist self-disclosure to adolescent clients is rooted in the developmental needs of adolescents, as they become adults themselves and renegotiate their relationships with the adults already in their lives (Gaines, 2003; Papouchis, 1990; Simon, 1990). This literature is limited by a tendency to speak broadly of adolescence as a developmental stage, rather than differentiating between the needs of early, mid, and late adolescent clients. Nevertheless, what youth mentoring can gain from psychotherapy research is not only evidence of the potential benefits of self-disclosure, but also guidance on how it can be used strategically and safely.

Simply being in a mentoring relationship is not sufficient for having a positive impact on youth (Spencer, 2004). The quality of the relationship appears to make a difference, and variation in relationship quality is likely to account for some of the variability in effectiveness

among mentoring programmes (Chan et al., 2013). Accordingly, many researchers have pursued an interest in identifying the factors that facilitate (or obstruct) the development of high quality mentoring relationships. Relationship quality has been conceptualised and measured using markers such as closeness (e.g., Bayer et al., 2015), warmth and trust (e.g., Farruggia et al., 2013), and mentee emotional engagement (e.g., Schwartz et al., 2011). This literature reviewed here suggests that self-disclosure can facilitate such characteristics. In terms of mentoring practice, mentors could be trained to use self-disclosure in strategic ways to build and enhance their mentoring relationship. Utilising self-disclosure as a "talk-tool" (Goodman & Dooley, 1976; Karcher & Hansen, 2014) may be one way forward, as well as strategies borrowed from therapists such as how and when to use redirection in response to mentee questioning (Gaines, 2003; Papouchis, 1990).

The issue of safety is critical when considering adult self-disclosure to non-familial adolescents. Therapists are licensed practitioners bound by stringent codes of practice to avoid exploitation or harm (Peterson, 2002). They also have extensive training that means they are more likely to be able to tell when self-disclosure is or is not appropriate or helpful. In contrast, mentors are predominantly volunteers who receive some training, but are unlikely to have the level of expertise therapists have. While there is growing emphasis on the ethical guidelines mentors should abide by (e.g., Rhodes et al., 2009), any such guidelines are less strict than those therapists follow. Training and ethics provide important professional standards for the safety of the adult and the young person.

Consequently, not establishing or maintaining boundaries introduces real risk for mentees. Unlike therapy, where there are clear roles for therapist and client, mentoring relationships typically fall in a gap between "professional and kinship, and are thus afforded greater latitude in what constitutes appropriate boundaries" (Rhodes et al., 2009, p. 454). Two problems may subsequently arise. The first is that mentors may share inappropriate information

with their mentee. This may occur with younger mentees who are unable to comprehend and process disclosures that concern mature content or ideas. As Liang and colleagues (2008) noted, honesty is essential for close mentoring relationships, but this must be considered against the developmental abilities of mentees. Furthermore, mentors must be mindful of tensions between their experiences, beliefs, and opinions and those of their mentee's family. Families place their trust in mentors without the additional safeguard of professional training and standards therapists have. Inappropriate disclosure can be a source of difficulty in mentoring relationships (Kupersmidt & Rhodes, 2014) and therefore mentors should be cautioned to be mindful and strategic with self-disclosure (Rhodes et al., 2009).

Another potential problem stemming from a lack of boundaries is mentors putting their own problems or issues on the shoulders of their mentees. This has long been an argument for therapist neutrality and avoidance of self-disclosure (Edwards & Murdock, 1994; Peterson, 2002). Even with increased use of self-disclosure with adolescent patients, therapist self-disclosure must only be used to the benefit of the patient or therapeutic relationship (Myers & Hayes, 2006). Although not as hierarchical as therapeutic relationships, mentoring relationships are still mentee-focused. While mentor self-disclosure may be beneficial for establishing rapport, building closeness and trust, and providing guidance, the intention is never for mentees to emotionally support their mentor. The risk of this happening may be higher when dyads are close in age (e.g., college students mentoring high school students), a characteristic that is more likely to appear in youth mentoring than therapeutic relationships.

The therapeutic relationship is generally client-focused, as therapists are providing a service to their client. For some clients, this may mean any therapist disclosure infringes upon the expectation of a relationship wholly devoted to the client (Wells, 1994). While youth mentoring relationships are mentee-oriented, they are also bidirectional in ways that more closely resemble a friendship. Self-disclosure may therefore be more welcome—and perhaps

even expected—in a mentoring relationship. This difference highlights the importance of attending to mentor self-disclosure and conducting research in youth mentoring contexts.

The bridge built between youth mentoring and psychotherapy in this review does have limitations. While the literature about therapist self-disclosure in general is vast, the subset specifically regarding adolescent clients is much smaller (Gaines, 2003). Thus, while psychotherapy research is informative and more substantive than that in youth mentoring, both fields would benefit from further research on this subject. Additionally, in this review I have focused on research concerning adult, rather than adolescent, self-disclosure. Self-disclosure is a reciprocal interaction and ought to be explored from both adult and adolescent perspectives. As noted in Chapter 1, beginning with mentors provides an explicit connection between research and training: ultimately, the responsibility to build high quality relationships is on mentors, with evidence-based guidance and support from programmes.

The lack of research on mentor self-disclosure means there is considerable scope for future research on this subject. In particular, I recommend further research on three dimensions of mentor self-disclosure: (a) the topics mentors self-disclose about (see Chapter 5); (b) how mentor self-disclosure affects the mentoring relationship (see Chapter 6); and (c) developmental differences regarding the need, appropriateness, and effect of mentor self-disclosure on mentees in various stages of adolescence. Addressing these aspects of mentor self-disclosure would be valuable for informing mentor training.

Conclusion

Self-disclosure is a normative and reciprocal process in almost every kind of relationship. In this review, I have considered a subset of the self-disclosure literature: the important and special relationships adults form with non-familial adolescents as part of a relational intervention such as youth mentoring and psychotherapy. The psychotherapy literature suggests that adolescents need some degree of adult self-disclosure to bond with them, and to gain optimal benefit from these

relationships. Thus far, evidence of mentor self-disclosure is haphazard and underdeveloped, but there is no reason to imagine that youth mentoring relationships are exempt from this engaging in this type of interpersonal communication. Youth mentoring depends on close, trusting relationships to be most effective. The research discussed here demonstrates the potential for strong dyadic bonds to be developed through the use of strategic, authentic mentor self-disclosure. While there are desirable benefits associated with self-disclosure, there are also risks. These risks can be mitigated by mentor training, but in order to train mentors effectively, research on the extent and nature of mentor self-disclosure, as well as its effects on youth mentoring relationships, is needed.

CHAPTER FOUR.

METHODOLOGY.

The previous chapters have shown that research on relational processes in mentoring is underdeveloped, and one such process—self-disclosure—has only been surfaced as incidental to other aspects of mentoring relationships. I argue that despite being neglected in youth mentoring research, self-disclosure has excellent prospects as an exemplar for understanding how mentor-mentee communication influences relationship development. Due to the substantial gap in the mentoring literature, there were a multitude of possible ways to explore self-disclosure in this thesis. Consequently, I had to make decisions about what I wanted to focus on and the methods that would be most appropriate for my enquiry. As described in Chapter 1, I decided to focus on mentor self-disclosure and had the opportunity to gather my data as part of the Y-AP Observation Study, but had to think carefully about how to bring these together in a coherent and methodologically sound way.

In this chapter, I provide further details of my decision-making about the methodology I used for this thesis. I begin by outlining three philosophical worldviews which have influenced my interpretation of the youth mentoring literature and my own methodological decision-making for this thesis. I then discuss the research methods that have dominated youth mentoring research and the pathways that I think will advance the field, including greater use of direct observation and dyadic data, both of which were well served by the Y-AP Observation Study which this thesis was situated in. I follow this with a discussion about the ethical considerations for the Y-AP Observation Study, with particular attention given to how we approached the collection and use of video-recorded data in an ethical way. I then describe how I integrated my research questions within the Y-AP Observation Study methodology. I conclude the chapter with a

reflection on how critical realism and pragmatism support the aims of my thesis, as well as how my identity as a Māori researcher influences my work.

Philosophical Paradigms in Research Methodology

Underpinning all research are philosophical paradigms that conceptualise knowledge and how we make sense of ourselves and the world (Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011). Within these paradigms are a set of basic beliefs that influence what researchers want to know, how it can be known, and the best way to gather and interpret knowledge that is legitimate and valuable (Patton, 2015). While there are numerous paradigms employed by researchers across different disciplines, here I will briefly describe three prominent worldviews—positivism, post-positivism, and constructivism—which have influenced the youth mentoring field and my own approach to research, through practice and critique.

Historically, research and knowledge has been dominated by positivism: a paradigm supported by the belief that we can access and explain one true reality through the objective use of experimental methods to verify hypotheses (Lincoln et al., 2011; Roy, 2014). Despite a swing away from positivism since the mid-20th century, it continues to have an influence on how research is practiced and evaluated (Alastalo, 2009; Roy, 2014). This is particularly true when considering what counts as quality evidence—measures of methodological rigour, such as validity and reliability, are considered hallmarks of quality across disciplines (Lincoln et al., 2011). Methodologically, positivism relies on quantitative methods to access and interpret knowledge (Lincoln et al., 2011).

Post-positivism steps away from positivism in some ways, whilst retaining some of its core tenets (Bryman, 2009). For instance, like positivism, the primary aim of post-positivism is to explain and predict phenomena, and it values similar criteria for quality evidence (Lincoln et al., 2011). Post-positivism also typically accepts there is one true and objective reality (Bryman, 2009; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). However, it deviates from positivism by taking a critical

position that posits there are limitations to our ability to see that world, and therefore accepts multiple possible realities, rather than one definitive and true reality (Bryman, 2009; Roy, 2014). This divergence impacts what research methods are used in post-positivist research. While still popular, less emphasis is placed on quantitative methods, and qualitative methods can be used consistent with the philosophy of post-positivism (Lincoln et al., 2011).

While there is some paradigmatic similarity between positivism and post-positivism, constructivism makes a complete break with these worldviews. It is informed by a philosophy of relativism, where realities are subjective and constructed by individuals and communities, resulting in a numerous, distinct realities (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Lincoln et al., 2011). There is no singular reality to gather knowledge about. This means that instead of seeking an objective universal truth, constructivists want to understand how individuals or communities derive meaning from their experiences in the world (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). As a result, constructivism primarily relies on qualitative research methods, where trustworthiness and authenticity are characteristics of quality evidence (Lincoln et al., 2011).

Research Methods in Youth Mentoring

As a field, youth mentoring is relatively new, with a wave of literature emerging in the early 1990's that set the tone for much of the research that followed. Youth mentoring research has tended towards a positivist orientation, with an emphasis on measuring intervention effectiveness using objective, quantitative methods. This approach is in line with the evidence-based movement which seeks to encourage and justify high quality programming by establishing effectiveness with rigorous 'gold-standard' research (Bullen, Deane, Meissel, & Bhatnagar, 2019). Similarly, much of the research on youth mentoring has been based on programme evaluations that attempt to show how a specific programme is contributing the development of its mentees. Examples of this approach include the meta-analyses conducted by DuBois and

colleagues (2002, 2011) and evaluations of programmes like Big Brothers Big Sisters (Grossman & Tierney, 1998; Herrera et al., 2007).

More recently, there has been a gradual shift towards examining the mechanisms of change within mentoring programmes—the question has changed from is mentoring effective to how does mentoring produce positive outcomes? As noted in Chapter 2, the mentor-mentee relationship has been the focus of researcher scrutiny, resulting in influential models such as Rhodes' (2004) model of mentoring that explicates the interactions which occur between mentor and mentee and facilitate mentee growth. Moreover, there has been increased emphasis on explaining how mentoring works best for specific groups, under specific conditions (Karcher et al., 2006). This type of enquiry is still rooted in the positivist and post-positivist appeal for explanations, but also acknowledges that the effectiveness of mentoring is not universal, but contextually situated.

Despite the predominance of positivist-leaning research methodologies in youth mentoring, there is a growing acceptance of qualitative research methods and how they can provide a unique and important perspective on mentoring. This represents the introduction of constructivist paradigms into youth mentoring research through, for example, studies which explore how mentees and mentors experience mentoring (e.g., Lakind, Atkins, & Eddy, 2015; Weiss, Harder, Bratiotis, & Nguyen, 2019) or why youth mentoring relationships fail (Spencer, 2007), as well as influential work on youth mentoring using interviews (e.g., Spencer, 2006) and field observations (Pryce, 2012). However, even within broad qualitative approaches, the desire for methodological rigour can be seen when characteristics typically associated with quantitative research—such as objectivity and reliability—are present. For example, some researchers have employed thematic analysis using coding reliability, which effectively applies the principles of quantitative analysis to qualitative data via a requirement for inter-coder reliability, use of a codebook, or by valuing the most prevalent themes in the data over themes that occur

infrequently but offer specific, distinctive insights worthy of greater consideration (Braun, Clarke, Hayfield, & Terry, 2018). This is not to say that these approaches are not truly qualitative; rather, they are indicative of the omnipresent influence of positivist research on the youth mentoring field when it comes to considering what counts as quality evidence.

Unsurprisingly for a relatively new field of research, youth mentoring still has some significant research gaps, in both focus and methods. While evaluative research continues to be important to programmes, especially for justifying funding, continued movement towards understanding relational processes is essential (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009). Evaluative research typically assesses whether mentees experience particular outcomes from mentoring, but this provides a limited input-output view of effectiveness (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009). We know that mentees have different experiences of mentoring and derive different benefits from having a mentor (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009). We also know that high quality relationships are more likely to be effective (DuBois, Holloway, et al., 2002; Raposa, Rhodes, et al., 2019), therefore identifying processes within relationships that can be strategically used to enhance quality would be advantageous. By conducting research on relationship processes, we can look beyond an input-output model of mentoring and explain how processes contribute to the development of high quality relationships (Tolan, Henry, Schoeny, & Bass, 2008; Pryce, Deane, Barry, & Keller, 2020). This would advance the field by elucidating specific actions that can be integrated into mentor or programme practice.

Researchers have typically relied on self-report data gathered via questionnaires from mentors and mentees, with scant research using dyadic data or direct observation methodologies (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009; DuBois, Doolittle, Yates, Silverthorn, & Tebes, 2006). Self-report data tends to be retrospective and may be unduly influenced by more recent events, either positively or negatively (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009). Moreover, self-report offers only an internal view of mentoring and participants may not be cognizant of everything happening within the

relationship. The use of distal perspectives—either from external informants like programme staff, or researcher observation—can contribute to the creation of a more complete picture of the relationship, as can triangulation through the use of dyadic data (DuBois et al., 2006; Dutton, Deane, & Bullen, 2018). With these considerations in mind, I argue that youth mentoring research would benefit from a move towards greater use of dyadic data and direct observation methods to assess relationships from a processes perspective.

Dyadic data, in the mentoring context, acknowledges that the mentor-mentee relationship is a site for social processes, and therefore our understanding of the relationship has to account for the ways these processes unfold as mentors and mentees interact with one another (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009). Processes require active engagement from the mentor and mentee to occur in the mentoring relationship, and are therefore in contrast to relationship characteristics, which typically refer to passive features of the mentor, mentee, or relationship, like relationship length (Varga & Deutsch, 2016). The benefit of identifying impactful processes is that they can be used purposefully in context, at a micro (e.g., disclosure within a single conversation) or macro level (e.g., disclosure used throughout the beginning stage of a relationship). Dyadic data captures the mentoring unit, rather than an individual perspective, which contextualises relational processes as part of an interpersonal interaction.

Several researchers have commented on the lack of direct observation methodologies used in youth mentoring (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009; DuBois et al., 2006; Pryce et al., 2020). Unlike the retrospective accounts gathered via self-report, direct observation data captures interactions in real-time, making it less susceptible to foibles of memory. However, direct observation, both field- and laboratory-based, has significant hurdles that can be challenging to negotiate. This is particularly true in youth mentoring where the population of interest may be vulnerable or have limited resources. For example, a significant challenge for undertaking field observations of CBM pairs is that they meet and interact independently. This is not only

impractical for researchers, but the conspicuous presence of an additional person may alter how the pair interacts (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009). A SBM setting, where multiple pairs tend to meet and interact at the same place and time, is more efficient for researchers and the influence of their presence may be lessened (Pryce et al., 2020). Laboratory-based direct observation, on the other hand, may be a better fit for CBM pairs for whom travelling to meet each other is a regular part of their relationship, but depending on location, travel and transport can be difficult to manage (Pryce et al., 2020).

Nonetheless, if these challenges can be managed, there is a lot to be gained from using direct observation methods in youth mentoring. While laboratory-based observation can be labour-intensive to analyse, particularly when multiple coders are used, having video-recorded data which can be revisited and analysed for different behaviours is a significant benefit of this approach (Pryce et al., 2020). Observation also provides a distal perspective of real-time interactions which have been advocated elsewhere (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009; Dutton, Deane, et al., 2018), and if used in conjunction with questionnaires, can effectively act as a triangulation of mentor and mentee self-reports. When approached with care and rigour, direct observation methods can result in high quality, rich data that offers unique and much-needed insights into the complexities of relational processes in youth mentoring.

Methodology in the Y-AP Observation Study

The purpose of the Y-AP Observation Study was to investigate the critical ingredients of effective youth mentoring using a multiple methods paradigm in which direct observations are the central feature. This paradigm has been used in relationship science to examine how people interact with one another. For instance, a similar methodology has been used in the context of romantic relationships whereby researchers use direct observation in concert with self-report questionnaires to identify specific behaviours that contribute to relationship success or dysfunction (e.g., Overall, Fletcher, Simpson, & Sibley, 2009; Tan et al., 2012). Applying this

methodology for the Y-AP Observation Study tapped into two gaps in the youth mentoring field: dyadic data and laboratory-based direct observation. Not only was the Y-AP Observation Study based on an innovative methodology which has not been used in youth mentoring before, but it offered a prime opportunity to explore relational processes, such as self-disclosure. On this basis, it seemed to be an excellent fit for my thesis research.

The Y-AP Observation Study had three phases. It began with a pilot phase, which recruited mentors who had recently ended a youth mentoring relationship to complete an anonymous questionnaire online. While this phase was limited to retrospective self-report data from the mentor, it was necessary to test the relevance and use of various measures, including the MSDI, the previously mentioned instrument I developed to measure mentor self-disclosure, and is described in more detail in Chapter 5. The second phase included the direct observation component. Mentoring pairs attended research sessions on campus, where they completed pre and post-observation questionnaires and participated in three video-recorded activities together. The procedures for this phase are described in Chapter 7. As detailed later in this chapter, I used data collected from the first two phases of the Y-AP Observation Study in this thesis. The third phase is a longitudinal follow-up, conducted at 6 months and 1 year post-observation. No data from this phase has been used in the current research.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical approval for this research was obtained from the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee as part of the Y-AP Observation Study (see Appendix A). Each phase of the study had a different set of ethical requirements. For the pilot phase, no personal data was collected from participants. Participants completed an online anonymous questionnaire that included information about the study, as well as confidentiality and data security, which they had to consent to. To receive *koha* (a Māori concept associated with giving thanks or

reimbursement), participants were instructed to send their postal information to me directly via email after completing the questionnaire, so it was never connected to their questionnaire data.

For the second phase, all participants over 16 years signed consent forms, while participants under 16 signed an assent form and signed parent/caregiver consent was required as well. Participants were provided with information sheets prior to their session, and the research lead (usually me) briefed them on key ethical requirements regarding confidentiality, data storage, and their right to stop the session or withdraw from the research at any time. We were also clear that, while their data was treated confidentially, if we had any reason to suspect their safety or the safety of someone else was at risk, we had a process in place that required breaking their confidentiality. This process included enlisting two faculty members from the Faculty of Education and Social Work who are registered social workers to consult in the event of disclosures that suggest action should be taken to mitigate serious health and safety risks. This was especially important because of the emotion discussion activity that could potentially result in sensitive disclosures. Appendix B includes the Participant Information Sheets and consent/assent forms used in the Y-AP Observation Study.

We were also mindful that many of the young people who participated in this study come from vulnerable backgrounds as youth mentoring programmes often target at-risk youth. To provide additional support for youth and their mentors, all participants were independently debriefed by a researcher following the post-observation questionnaire administration. During debrief, we reminded participants about the project's policy regarding confidentiality and disclosure during sessions and were provided with a debriefing sheet that included contact details for the research team, including myself. For mentees, the debrief form included contact information for several helping organisations (e.g., Youthline, Lifeline). The debrief form for mentors had similar organisational details, as well as website links to two national resources for people working with youth (Ara Taiohi, 2011; New Zealand Youth Mentoring Network, 2016).

Debriefing also gave participants an opportunity to provide feedback and ask questions about the study.

The use of observation data requires thoughtful ethical consideration because the data itself cannot be de-identified. The video-recorded data is managed according to University of Auckland standards, including storage on password-protected computers and secure university servers. Moreover, the youth mentoring community in New Zealand is small, which means there is a strong likelihood of a researcher knowing a participant personally. To manage this risk, all researchers within the Y-AP Observation Study signed confidentiality agreements and were required to abstain from viewing or analysing observation data that involved someone known to them. In my case, there was one dyad where I had an established working relationship with the mentor and therefore did not use their video-recorded interaction in my final study (Chapter 7). The mentor was made aware of this prior to the research session.

Although participants were recruited through mentoring organisations, we do not provide organisations with information regarding who participated in our study. Programme-specific findings are not provided to organisations, but general findings from this thesis will be available.

My Thesis and the Y-AP Observation Study

As noted in Chapter 1, after deciding to situate my thesis within the Y-AP Observation Study, I had to consider how to maximise the strengths of the methodologies it used to investigate my phenomenon of interest, mentor self-disclosure. I elected to use data from the first two phases of the Y-AP Observation Study. In designing my research and determining my research aims, I wanted to take advantage of the different types of data being collected (i.e., questionnaire and observation data), and having access to two different samples (i.e., the pilot and observation samples). The studies that comprise the results chapters have therefore been designed around what I felt were the strengths for each data type and sample. An outline of how each study fits

into the Y-AP Observation Study and the associated research aims and questions are described below.

Chapter 5 uses data from the pilot phase to conduct a descriptive, exploratory study on mentor self-disclosure. The lack of research on this topic meant there was no substantive evidence regarding the prevalence of disclosure (i.e., how many mentors disclose to their mentees, and to what degree) or the topics mentors disclose about. There were also few reports regarding how mentors feel about disclosure and any potential implications of their perceptions. For these reasons, the self-report pilot data provided a solid source for preliminary exploration of mentor disclosure. The pilot phase was also a good opportunity to test the MSDI and receive feedback from participants regarding ease of use and understanding, which I could use to make revisions for later use. Due to the descriptive aim of this study, I decided both the qualitative and quantitative data from the responses to the MSDI would be relevant and useful. In my view, the methodological limitations of using retrospective self-report data were outweighed by the novel subject and my intention to mix the data to produce, for the first time, a thorough descriptive account of mentor self-disclosure. The rationale for a mixed-methods approach, as well as the thematic analysis method used for qualitative analysis, are described in the chapter. The research aim and questions for this study were:

Research Aim 1: To describe the nature of mentor self-disclosure that occurs in youth mentoring relationships.

Research Question 1.1: What is the prevalence of mentor self-disclosure within the current sample?

Research Question 1.2: What types of personal information do mentors disclose to their adolescent mentees?

Research Question 1.3: How do mentors describe their self-disclosure to their mentees?

A key part of the rationale for this thesis was the evidence from other contexts that shows self-disclosure promotes relationship characteristics like closeness, trust, and liking. Therefore, investigating this connection in the youth mentoring context was important to bridging the gap between self-disclosure and youth mentoring literature. Chapter 6 uses baseline questionnaire data from the observation phase of the Y-AP Observation Study, which was well-suited for this purpose. Unlike the pilot phase, this dataset included dyadic data that allowed mentor and mentee information to be linked and thus examine associations between mentor self-disclosure and assessments of relationship quality from mentors and mentees. Furthermore, the revised MSDI was used in this study, so I was able to assess how the modifications fared after use with a different sample. This study was guided by the following research aim and question:

Research Aim 2: To examine the link between mentor self-disclosure (e.g., breadth, depth of disclosure) and relationship quality, guided by Social Penetration Theory.

Research Question 2.1: Is there an association between mentor self-disclosure and relationship quality reported by mentors and mentees?

Observation is the cornerstone of the Y-AP Observation Study and I wanted to capitalise on the strengths of this methodology to provide a rich and substantive understanding of mentor self-disclosure. While the questionnaire data in both phases provided compelling insights regarding the prevalence and effect of self-disclosure, Chapter 7 uses the video-recorded direct observation data to show what the questionnaire data could not—what are mentors actually doing when they disclose? Dyads participated in a discussion activity (detailed in Chapter 7) designed to provoke self-disclosure, and these interactions were analysed to identify the key features of their disclosure, informed by youth mentoring and self-disclosure literature. Like that in Chapter 6, the data are dyadic, but the focus is on the interactions and providing the distal perspective of relational processes unfolding in real-time. The research aim and question for this study are:

Research Aim 3: To identify key features of mentor self-disclosure based on observed self-disclosure interactions with mentees.

Research Question 3.1: What are the key features of mentor self-disclosure when they are in discussion with their mentee?

Researcher Position

My epistemological position as a researcher is grounded in critical realism. As a post-positivist paradigm, critical realism combines the realist ontology with the epistemological position of constructivism (Maxwell & Mittapalli, 2010); it acknowledges that there is an objective 'real' world that can be known, but our perception of that reality is context-dependent (Patton, 2015; Sayer, 2000). As a result, perceptions of reality will vary according to the social and historical context which an individual is living in, and findings are understood as contextual, rather than universal (Roy, 2014). The broader paradigm of realism has traditionally been associated with quantitative methods of inquiry, although there are arguments for how qualitative (Patton, 2015) and mixed-methods (Maxwell & Mittapalli, 2010) research can be conducted within the realism worldview. Critical realism is a useful lens through which to explore relational processes because the blend of realism and constructivism aligns with the objective existence of processes within a relationship, but also accounts for how these processes can be differentially perceived and experienced by mentoring dyads. Moreover, the use of laboratory-based direct observation data applies some degree of control and standardisation to data collection, but inductive qualitative analysis was used to interpret the interactions being observed.

In addition to the epistemological worldview that I bring to my research, I also acknowledge my position as a Māori researcher and how this influences my work, as indicated in the introduction to this thesis. My research is not *kaupapa Māori*—it is not done by Māori, for Māori, within a *tikanga Māori*[1] context (Henry & Pene, 2001; Royal, 2012). However, there are

[1] Tikanga Māori refers to a Māori concept of doing things 'the Māori way'.

tenets of *kaupapa Māori* research and Te Ao Māori which are important to me and inevitably influence my approach to what and how I research. First, relationships are at the heart of everything Māori, expressed through values like whanaungatanga and tuakana-teina, which I described in Chapter 1. Whanaungatanga is relationships: it captures all the ways in which we relate to one another, and how those relations come with obligation, belonging, and support. While tuakana-teina is analogous to mentoring as an intervention, it is fundamentally built upon whanaungatanga connections between mentor and mentee (Royal Tangaere, 1997). The centrality of whanaungatanga to Māori life informs my research by underscoring the importance of relationships to wellbeing—the very premise youth mentoring is built upon.

Second, kaupapa Māori research is a process of decolonisation which challenges the privileging of western research methodologies and advocates the legitimacy of indigenous knowledge production (Cooper, 2012; Smith, 2012). That is, it seeks to disrupt the power dynamic between the coloniser and colonised by elevating and validating indigenous research based on indigenous values, particularly in academic spaces (Royal, 2012). The methodologies which are considered 'gold standard' in positivist research traditions are rejected by kaupapa Māori in favour of Māori ways of knowing and generating knowledge (*mātauranga Māori*; Henry & Pene, 2001). This position often results in a preference for qualitative research, where knowledge and methods are grounded in a particular historical and cultural space, similar to a constructivist paradigm (Henry & Pene, 2001). My critiques of positivism and the predominant role it has played in youth mentoring research are informed by this perspective; indeed, scepticism about the privileging of positivist methodologies in research is not unusual in New Zealand, due in part to the values embedded in our bicultural society (Bullen et al., 2019). These critiques are especially important given that in New Zealand, many Māori youth are engaged in youth mentoring and youth development interventions (Deane, Dutton, & Kerekere, 2019; Farruggia et al., 2011), and therefore their worldview should be central to how we do research with them. As I stated previously, this thesis was not designed or enacted as *kaupapa Māori*

research. While ethnicity and culture are present in some of the findings, it does not form a major part of the justification or purpose of the research. However, some of the decisions I made during the course of this thesis have been informed by my identity as a Māori researcher and are thus outlined here.

At the start of this chapter, I outlined three philosophical paradigms which are germane to this thesis: positivism, post-positivism, and constructivism. The relevance of each have been described through the chapter, in respect to youth mentoring methodologies or my own position as an emerging academic. However, in practice, my work—including this thesis—is also informed by pragmatism. Pragmatism values the connection between action and reflection (Biesta, 2010), fundamentally asking how research can be used and practically applied (Patton, 2015; Roy, 2014). Taking a pragmatic approach to research means being driven by the research questions, rather than a particular epistemological or ontological paradigm (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). This is not to say pragmatism is incompatible with other philosophical paradigms; in fact, several pragmatists have acknowledged similarities between realism and pragmatism specifically (Maxwell & Mittapalli, 2010). The centrality of research questions means pragmatism does not subscribe to either quantitative or qualitative research methods; instead, it embraces mixed-methods and multiple methods research and promotes the use of whatever methods will best answer research questions (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Patton, 2015). With respect to my thesis, pragmatism informed my approach to designing a multiple methods study with practical application, which would be aligned with the conditions of the Y-AP Observation Study which were already established.

Summary

In designing my thesis, I had several methodological matters to bring together to form a coherent whole. This included considering how the youth mentoring field typically practices research and how I think it can be moved forward; the purpose and paradigm used by the Y-AP Observation

Study; and my own beliefs not only about research epistemology, but what was compelling to me about the topic of mentor self-disclosure. Through this process, I identified three research aims that were well-suited to the Y-AP Observation Study methodology and could make an interesting and novel addition to the youth mentoring literature. The rest of this thesis is dedicated to unpacking these research aims and exploring mentor self-disclosure with more focus and intent than has been done previously.

CHAPTER FIVE.

A MIXED-METHODS EXPLORATION OF MENTOR SELF-DISCLOSURE.

In the previous chapters, I have made the case for exploring self-disclosure in the youth mentoring context. Self-disclosure is well-established as a process which can have a considerable influence on the development of close interpersonal relationships. Given the salience of relationship quality in youth mentoring, an intervention which largely relies on the mentor-mentee relationship to drive important outcomes for youth, understanding the role of self-disclosure in relationship development is of particular interest. However, little research in the contemporary mentoring literature has operationalised self-disclosure as a construct or explored associations between self-disclosure and quality in mentoring relationships.

In the first study for this thesis, I decided to focus on establishing a preliminary picture of mentor self-disclosure as the foundation for the rest of this thesis. To do this, I conducted a mixed-method, descriptive study of the nature of mentor self-disclosure to better understand how prevalent disclosure is, what mentors disclose about, and how they feel about disclosing to their mentee. These aspects of self-disclosure represent the fundamental parameters of enquiry into disclosure and, to some extent, justify further research on this phenomenon by demonstrating for the first time that mentors engage in plenty of disclosure, on a wide range of topics, and do so with purpose and thoughtfulness. Moreover, these dimensions of self-disclosure set the scope for the subsequent studies in this thesis, which investigate the link between mentor disclosure and relationship quality (Chapter 6) and identify key features of how mentors practice self-disclosure (Chapter 7).

This chapter presents a modified version of a manuscript published in the *Journal of Community Psychology*. I have made changes to the published manuscript, including minor

additions to the content and adjustments to the prose to enhance coherence and consistency with the rest of the thesis.

Full Reference: Dutton, H., Bullen, P., & Deane, K. L. (2019). “It is OK to let them know you are human too”: Mentor self-disclosure in formal youth mentoring relationships. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *47*(4), 943-963. https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.22165

"It is OK to Let Them Know You Are Human Too": Mentor Self-Disclosure in Formal Youth Mentoring Relationships

Introduction

Mentoring relationships have been conceptualised as a hybrid; part parent, therapist, teacher, and friend, mentors are a unique and important resource for young people (Goldner & Mayseless, 2008; Keller & Pryce, 2010). Mentoring can occur naturally with non-parental adults who provide informal and ongoing support to a young person (DuBois & Silverthorn, 2005), or more formally with relationships arranged, supported, and supervised through programmes to promote youth wellbeing and development. As a relational intervention, youth mentoring aims to bring together mentors and mentees for enduring relationships characterised by trust, empathy, and mutuality (Rhodes, 2004; Rhodes & DuBois, 2008). While the goal of mentoring may vary from programme to programme, or even among dyads within the same programme, most expect mentors to provide emotional, social, and psychological support (Eby et al., 2007). As the primary vehicle for enhanced outcomes, mentoring relationships have been the subject of considerable scrutiny, as researchers and practitioners work to elucidate the key characteristics of high quality relationships (Keller & Pryce, 2010). Although it has received little attention in the mentoring literature, self-disclosure is considered an important relational ingredient, thus warranting further investigation (Dutton, 2018).

Self-disclosure occurs when an individual purposefully reveals personal information to another (Greene et al., 2006; Jourard, 1971). Self-disclosure is commonplace in most types of interpersonal relationships (Derlega et al., 1993), and is often considered a powerful tool for developing trust and intimacy in a relationship (Altman & Taylor, 1973; Jourard, 1971). Both the content and process of disclosure can convey messages of trust, respect, closeness, and being valued by the other (Derlega et al., 1993). Self-disclosure is also characterised by reciprocity: if an individual reveals personal information to someone, there is an expectation that the recipient

of the disclosure will likewise share something personal with the original discloser (Guerrero et al., 2007; Jourard, 1971).

In almost every relationship, individuals make decisions about when to disclose, what personal content to disclose, to whom, and for what ends (Omarzu, 2000). Individuals may self-disclose for social approval, relief of distress (by talking about problems, for example), to obtain benefits from the listener, or to clarify their identity or an impression of themselves to the listener (Omarzu, 2000). Greene et al. (2006) identify self-, other-, and relationship-focused reasons to disclose. Self-focused reasons are typically motivated by benefits to the discloser, such as catharsis and support-seeking, while other-focused reasons emphasise benefits to or rights of the listener. For instance, an individual may feel compelled to disclose out of obligation if the information directly affects the listener. Disclosures may also be motivated by the relationship between the discloser and listener, such as developing intimacy or extending trust. Greene and colleagues also highlight the influence of distal influences, such as culture and the social network the dyad is embedded in. In youth mentoring, these distal influences may be particularly salient. Mentors may be paired with a mentee from a different ethnic and class background, and the responsibility of the mentor role amplifies the importance of thoughtful, considerate discretion about what to disclose (or not).

Derlega and colleagues (2008) summarise self-disclosure as having multiple dimensions which vary according to the disclosure context. Self-disclosure can be differentiated according to content: for instance, someone can make descriptive disclosures (i.e., facts about themselves), evaluative disclosures (i.e., their subjective feelings or opinions), or relational disclosures (i.e., their feelings about a person or relationship). Disclosure can also vary according to how informative, truthful, or relevant it is, and cultural and social mores will also influence what, when, and how information is disclosed (Derlega, Winstead, & Greene, 2008; Greene et al., 2006; Wheeless & Grotz, 1976). Valence is another dimension of self-disclosure, which accounts for the positivity (e.g., personal achievement) or negativity (e.g., personal failure) of the

disclosure (Guerrero et al., 2007; Wheeless & Grotz, 1976). Clearly, self-disclosure can be used and adapted in a multitude of ways depending on the situation at hand. With this degree of adaptability, self-disclosure is "one of our most accessible and controllable strategies for action within complex social environments" (Omarzu, 2000, p. 174).

Considering the ubiquity of self-disclosure in relationships, and its potential to facilitate interpersonal bonds, it is surprising that there is a dearth of literature examining disclosure in mentoring contexts. While it has been addressed in two reviews (Dutton, 2018; Karcher & Hansen, 2014), empirical research about self-disclosure in youth mentoring relationships is conspicuously absent. In this chapter, I present findings from a small-scale exploratory study conducted with mentors from two youth mentoring programmes in New Zealand in an effort to capture how mentors disclose to their mentees.

Self-Disclosure in Mentoring-Adjacent Settings

While the youth mentoring literature is lacking in research on self-disclosure, studies about other relationships involving young people — such as therapist-client, parent-child, and peer relationships — are informative (Goldner & Mayseless, 2008). As explored in Chapter 3, an enormous amount of research has been conducted in the psychotherapy domain about if, when, and how therapists should disclose to their patients (e.g., Farber, 2003; Gibson, 2012; Henretty & Levitt, 2010; Hill & Knox, 2002; Knox & Hill, 2003; Stricker & Fisher, 1990; Watkins, 1990).

Some posit that therapist disclosure may be particularly important in the early stages of the relationship, as patients ascertain whether they like and trust their therapist, and to assist in reducing anxiety about therapy (Bloomgarden & Mennuti, 2009; Simon, 1990). Further, increasing perceived similarity between therapist and client can also help establish rapport and trust (Edwards & Murdock, 1994; Hill, Knox, & Pinto-Coelho, 2018). Others have argued that therapists can use self-disclosure to model positive behaviour and communication skills. Through self-disclosure, therapists demonstrate positive and constructive ways to experience and

express emotions (Edwards & Murdock, 1994; Stricker, 2003); model problem-solving and coping skills for stressful or challenging situations (Simon, 1990); portray relationships as a space for intimacy and sharing (Stricker, 2003); and exhibit how to acknowledge and apologise for mistakes (Simon, 1990).

As well as supporting therapist-client relationships, disclosure is a critical part of healthy communication in families (Finkenauer et al., 2004; Norrell, 1984). Parents have reported disclosing to their adolescent children to convey and receive information, feel closeness, provide emotional support or advice, share good news, vent, try to change their child's behaviour, and to experience pleasure, affection, and inclusion in the relationship (Dolgin, 1996; Kil et al., 2018; Martin & Anderson, 1995). In a study of patterns of disclosure and relationship satisfaction in families, researchers found that, in most cases, higher levels of self-disclosure to family members was linked to greater satisfaction in familial relationships for parents and children (Finkenauer et al., 2004). Similarly, a positive correlation between self-disclosure and relationship quality for mothers and their adolescents has been reported (Lichtwarck-Aschoff, Finkenauer, van de Vorst, & Engels, 2012). Martin and Anderson (1995) found relationship satisfaction between fathers and sons was not a result of the amount of self-disclosure in their relationship. Rather, honest self-disclosure motivated by pleasure and affection was characteristic of satisfying father-son relationships. Additionally, adolescents have expressed appreciation of reciprocal self-disclosure with parents (Tokić & Pećnik, 2011).

Self-disclosure is also a normal part of adolescent friendships (Fehr, 2004; McNelles & Connolly, 1999). Adolescent development is associated with cognitive and social changes that emphasise peer relationships, and sharing personal information becomes part of the growing need for intimacy (Camarena, Sarigiani, & Petersen, 1990; McNelles & Connolly, 1999). Research has shown adolescents increasingly report and depend on self-disclosure as part of their close relationships as they get older (Radmacher & Azmitia, 2006). Self-disclosure has been

shown to predict intimacy in adolescent friendships (Bauminger et al., 2008), and contribute to the maintenance of these relationships long-term (Oswald & Clark, 2003). Even co-rumination, "an extreme and negatively focused form of self-disclosure" (Rose, 2002, p. 1840), has been found to contribute positively to friendship quality and closeness in adolescents.

Risks of Self-Disclosure

As noted in Chapter 3, while studies have largely found self-disclosure promotes positive relationship characteristics and behaviours, there can be associated challenges and risks. Rejection by the listener, hurting or embarrassing the listener, or losing personal autonomy and integrity may occur in the course of self-disclosing (Guerrero et al., 2007; Omarzu, 2000). For instance, studies have shown that disclosure of trauma can increase distress in the listener, and fear of causing distress in loved ones may result in withdrawal from personal relationships in an effort to avoid disclosure (Kelly & McKillop, 1996).

In the family context, reciprocal self-disclosure may indicate a lack of boundaries between parents and children, which can have a negative effect on the child or the relationship (Finkenauer et al., 2004; Koerner, Wallace, Lehman, & Raymond, 2002). In a study of post-divorce mothers, Koerner and colleagues (2002) found that mother-to-daughter self-disclosure did not build closeness; rather, in some instances it decreased daughter's reports of closeness, and increased psychological distress for some daughters through increased worry for their mothers. Other research has shown higher levels of maternal disclosure is associated with higher levels of depressive feelings reported by sons, but not daughters (Lichtwarck-Aschoff et al., 2012). In therapeutic settings, despite contemporary models surfacing some of the benefits, therapist self-disclosure has historically been discouraged to avoid therapists imposing thoughts and feelings on their client, interfering with the client's psychological development, and potentially compelling them to be emotionally supportive of the therapist (Hill et al., 2018; Myers & Hayes, 2006; Papouchis, 1990). Moreover, therapist disclosure may be perceived by

clients as breaching professional boundaries (Wells, 1994). The extant research on self-disclosure thus suggests that individuals must engage in a careful balancing act when self-disclosing to others and remain attentive to the cost-benefit trade-offs that may exist.

This balancing act may be particularly important for youth mentors because each of the above described relationships—therapist-client, parent-child, and peer—are relevant to the hybrid nature of youth mentoring relationships. In Chapter 2, several psychological mechanisms associated with parenting and teaching were described as contributors to the effectiveness of mentoring (Evans & Ave, 2000). Goldner and Mayseless (2008) argue for a conceptualisation of mentors where mentors combine dimensions of being a parent, a therapist, a friend, and a teacher, and thus inhabit a unique role of support for young people. Keller and Pryce (2010) extend this conceptualisation and offer a framework of mentors as a hybrid of other relationships, using the dimensions of power and permanence which distinguish vertical and horizontal relationships (Laursen & Bukowski, 1997).

In this framework, vertical relationships are exemplified by the parent-child relationship: power relations are unequal, as parents exert authority over children, and the obligations to each other are permanent. In contrast, friendship represents a horizontal relationship, voluntary and egalitarian with both members of the relationship deriving equal benefits from the friendship. Mentoring relationships are, according to Keller and Pryce (2010), a hybrid of vertical and horizontal relationships. On the dimension of power, mentors are in an authority role. They are responsible for the relationship, and although mentors are typically non-professionals, growing acknowledgement of the power differential between mentors and mentees has emphasised the professional element of formal youth mentoring, particularly in training guidelines (MENTOR, 2015; Rhodes et al., 2009). Mutuality is an important facet of quality mentoring (Lester et al., 2019; Rhodes, 2004) but the mentor-mentee relationship is not egalitarian in the same way friendships are. Mentoring relationships resemble friendships on the dimension of permanence,

as they are voluntary and can be ended at any time by mentor or mentee. Given the hybrid nature of youth mentoring relationships, it is important to carefully consider the purpose and effect of self-disclosure in this unique context. Mentors and mentees may engage in friendship behaviours such as disclosing feelings (Goldner & Mayseless, 2008), or the vertical aspect of the relationship may constrain self-disclosure. It is also unknown whether, under certain conditions, disclosure negatively influences the mentoring relationship. Therefore, understanding more about disclosure in youth mentoring relationships would be beneficial.

Self-Disclosure in Youth Mentoring Research

While self-disclosure has been a popular topic in relationship research for decades, it has received no dedicated research in contemporary youth mentoring literature. Earlier, Goodman (1972) conducted research on "companionships" where college-aged males were paired with adolescent boys for friendship and guidance, what would be referred to today as a mentoring relationship. Goodman found mentors disclosed on various topics including current and past mentoring activities, future visits, the mentoring programme, school, skills, personality and behaviour, feelings about each other, friends, and parents. Higher rates of mentor reported disclosure correlated with higher levels of closeness with their mentees, and mentors who received programme training tended to self-disclose more than those who did not receive training.

Apart from Goodman's (1972) study, youth mentoring research that explicitly explores self-disclosure is scarce. There are a few studies where behaviours implied to be self-disclosure were present. A study by Lester and colleagues (2019) about mutuality in youth mentoring relationships describes how reciprocal sharing with one another is part of the process of mutuality, which in turn is thought to foster high quality interpersonal bonds between mentor and mentee. In particular, they highlight the contribution of mentors using disclosure of personal experiences to demonstrate empathy, normalise adolescent experiences, and offer relevant advice

to their mentees. Spencer and Liang (2009) conducted a study about relational processes in enduring youth mentoring relationships. In interviews with 12 mentor-mentee pairs, they found communication was an integral part of mentors providing emotional support to their mentees. Mentee narratives highlighted the value of having a mentor who openly and non-judgmentally shared their own opinions and thoughts, which alludes to the relevance of mentor self-disclosure in mentor-mentee relationships. In another example, Herrera (2004) found 95 percent of mentors reported talking with their mentee about personal issues and problems, and 65 percent did so regularly. Furthermore, when mentors talked with their mentees about personal issues, they also reported higher ratings of relationship closeness. However, the opposite was true for their mentees, who felt less close to their mentors than those mentees whose mentors disclosed less. Herrera (2004) suggests that while mentors may associate personal discussions, including self-disclosure, with a close and well-functioning relationship, mentees may find these conversations uncomfortable, especially if the relationship is new or the mentee is pre-adolescent.

While these studies are insightful, they hold limited value in terms of understanding self-disclosure in the unique interpersonal context of youth mentoring. The literature discussed here shows that adult-to-adolescent disclosure occurs in a number of settings, and is likely to be occurring in youth mentoring relationships too. To better understand the benefits and potential risks associated with disclosure in youth mentoring relationships, research specifically investigating disclosure in this context is needed. Thus, this chapter offers findings from a small-scale exploratory study designed to capture mentor descriptions of their self-disclosures during the course of their mentoring relationship. I also offer a tool for collecting mentor self-disclosure data (modified from a self-disclosure in psychotherapy questionnaire) and reflect on how well it worked for this novel youth mentoring context.

Methods

In this study, I used data obtained from the first phase of the Y-AP Observation Study that examines critical ingredients of successful youth-adult partnerships, including self-disclosure. We gathered data from mentors via an anonymous online questionnaire that included an adapted version of a self-disclosure questionnaire I developed for this thesis. With the dearth of self-disclosure research in the mentoring context, I wanted to use this preliminary dataset on mentor self-disclosure for descriptive purposes and to refine the questionnaire for use in my second study (see Chapter 6).

Due to the exploratory nature of the study, I deemed a mixed-methods survey design most suitable. By using a mixed-methods approach, I was able to capture complementary aspects of a singular phenomenon which, when combined, provided a better answer to my primary research aim of examining mentor experiences of self-disclosure than using either quantitative or qualitative methods individually would (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Thus, I designed the questionnaire as a fully mixed concurrent design, with an emphasis on expansion rather than triangulation (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009); that is, I used the qualitative responses for further exploration on self-disclosure, rather than validation of findings from the quantitative data. While the overall purpose of the study was exploratory in nature, I developed the questionnaire with three research questions in mind:

(a) What is the prevalence of mentor self-disclosure within the current sample?

(b) What types of personal information do mentors disclose to their adolescent mentees?

(c) How do mentors describe their self-disclosure to their mentees?

I used quantitative survey items to capture the prevalence and content of mentor self-disclosure, as well as mentor perceptions on two dimensions identified as relevant to self-disclosure based on the literature (helpfulness of training and perceived effect of disclosure). I also included open-

ended qualitative questions to build on the quantitative findings by asking mentors to describe their experiences of disclosing to their mentee. Given the lack of research on mentor self-disclosure, this exploratory survey design was expected to elicit a descriptive synopsis of mentor self-disclosure within this sample of mentors.

Participants.

Fifty-four mentors participated in the study. Qualitative data were submitted by 29 of the 54 mentors. Table 1 shows the gender, ethnicity, and relationship characteristics for the total sample, as well as a comparison between those participants who submitted qualitative data and those who did not. For all groups, relationship length ranged from six months to four years.

Procedure.

The Y-AP Observation Study research team elected to use convenience sampling to recruit mentors who were nearing the completion of a one-to-one formal mentoring relationship, or had completed a formal mentoring relationship with an adolescent mentee (between the ages of 12-18 at the time of mentoring) in the past two years. We implemented this sampling criteria in order to avoid reducing the potential participant pool of the observation phase by targeting mentors who would not be eligible to participate in that phase of the Y-AP Observation Study. To be eligible for the research, the mentoring relationship must have lasted a minimum of three months, allowing for the initial 'honeymoon' period of the relationship to have passed (Keller, 2005b; Nakkula & Harris, 2005), and responses were based on established relationship behaviours.

We recruited participants from two CBM programmes that target Year 10 secondary school students (approximately 15 years of age) in Auckland, New Zealand. The relationship duration expectation for one programme was 12 months, while the other has a relationship length expectation of four years. We provided staff from these programmes with information on the

research project, and briefed them on the background and purpose of the study. We provided participation invitations for programmes to distribute to mentors via email or social media, which included a direct link to the online questionnaire administered using Qualtrics software.

Table 1

Participant characteristics for the full and sub-samples.

	Total Sample % (n = 54)	Qualitative Participants % (n = 29)	Non-Qualitative Participants % (n = 25)
Gender			
Female	79.6	86.2	72.0
Male	20.4	13.8	28.0
Ethnicity			
NZ European	72.2	72.4	72.0
NZ Māori	1.9	0	4.0
European Non-NZ	14.8	13.8	16.0
Indian	3.7	3.4	4.0
Pacific Island	1.9	0	4.0
Chinese	1.9	3.4	0
Other Asian	5.6	3.4	8.0
Other	7.4	10.3	4.0
Relationship length			
6-12 months	77.8	65.5	92.0
More than 12 months	22.2	34.5	8.0
Meeting frequency			
Once per month or less	18.5	27.6	8.0
Several times per month	64.8	51.7	80.0
Once a week	14.8	20.7	8.0
More than once a week	1.9	0	4.0
Mean meeting duration (hours)	2.65	2.79	2.46

Note: Ethnicity does not add up to 100 percent as participants could report more than one ethnicity

Interested mentors accessed the online questionnaire via the link provided. Ethical information was provided at the beginning of the questionnaire and participants were asked to indicate consent before continuing. Participants took approximately 30-40 minutes to complete the questionnaire. At the end of the questionnaire, participants were instructed to email me with their name and address details so a $10 gift card could be mailed to them. This ensured participant data were not connected to their personal details in any way.

Measures.

Mentor and relationship characteristics. Mentors reported on sex (Male, Female, or Other) and ethnicity (NZ European/Pākehā, indigenous Māori, Tokelauan, Fijian, Tongan, Cook Islands Māori, Samoan, Other Pacific Islands, Chinese, Indian, South-East Asian, Other Asian, European [non-NZ], and Other). More than one ethnicity could be selected, and if more than one was selected, respondents were asked to nominate the one that was most important. Mentors also reported on the length of their mentoring relationship. Mentors were not asked to identify the mentoring programme they were associated with, nor demographic details about their mentee.

Mentor Self-Disclosure Instrument (MSDI). I developed the 44-item MSDI in order to capture both quantitative and qualitative responses from participants about their self-disclosure. It is based on Jourard's (1971) Self-Disclosure Questionnaire—a 60-item questionnaire which asks respondents to report the extent to which they have made themselves known to their mentee across six different topics: attitudes and opinions, tastes and interests, work or studies, money, personality, and body. Jourard's (1971) Self-Disclosure Questionnaire has been used extensively since it was published, including in a previous study with mentoring pairs (Goodman, 1972). However, adaptations were required to make the questionnaire applicable to contemporary mentoring relationships. Thirty-two items from the questionnaire were identified as appropriate for youth mentoring relationships and included in the MSDI. The language of several items were

adapted for relevance (e.g., “any problems or worries that I had with my appearance in the past” was changed to “any problems and worries that I had with my appearance *when I was an adolescent*”) and clarity (e.g., “what it takes to get me feeling real depressed and blue” was changed to “what it takes to get me feeling real depressed and *sad*”). In addition, 12 items not present in the original Self-Disclosure Questionnaire, regarding substance use, school experiences, and sex, were added to the MSDI based on my knowledge of youth mentoring relationships.

Respondents indicated to what extent they disclosed information to their mentee using four response options from the original scale in the Self-Disclosure Questionnaire: nothing, general, fully, and false (i.e., they have lied to their mentee about this disclosure item). No mentors used the “false” option and it was therefore not included in my analysis. All items from the MSDI are presented in Table 2. As I intended to explore the intimacy of self-disclosure, I decided to divide the MSDI into three parts (A, B, and C), grouped by the degree of intimacy of the topic. Part A (11 items) addresses general or superficial information, such as interests and hobbies (e.g., my likes or dislikes in music) and school and career (e.g., my positive experiences in school). Part B (20 items) includes information of a personal or value-laden nature, such as personal values (e.g., what I think and feel about religion) and emotions (e.g., what it takes to hurt my feelings deeply). Lastly, Part C (13 items) focuses on risk behaviours and intimate information, including substance use (e.g., my personal habits of smoking cigarettes) and sex and sexuality (e.g., my sexual orientation). The allocation of items among the three parts was informed by previous research on topic intimacy as a guide (Dolgin & Kim, 1994; Rubin & Shenker, 1978; Sollie & Fischer, 1985).

At the end of each part of the MSDI, there are three questions pertaining to different dimensions of self-disclosure: mentor training, perceived effect of self-disclosure, and cause of self-disclosure. The identification and relevance of these dimensions to my research was based

on self-disclosure and youth mentoring research (Altman & Taylor, 1973; Goodman, 1972; Karcher & Hansen, 2014; Rhodes et al., 2009; Weber, Johnson, & Corrigan, 2004). These questions are not item-specific, and therefore begin with a prompt, "thinking about the items you just answered". Mentors were asked about whether they feel any mentor training they may have received prepared them for discussing these topics with their mentee, with four response options (yes, no, unsure, have not received training). Mentors were also asked about the perceived effect of mentor self-disclosure on the relationship and had five response options (a positive effect, a negative effect, no effect, unsure, or did not disclose). A third question asked mentors about what prompted their self-disclosures and how often (never, occasionally, usually, always) this occurred because the mentee asked about it directly, the mentor offered it to the mentee unprompted, or it was accidentally revealed.

At the end of each part of the MSDI, mentors were also asked to complete an open-ended question to elicit further comments regarding their experiences of disclosing to their mentee, such as the circumstances or context of the conversation, or how they felt during the conversation. Given the exploratory focus of this study, I left the open-ended question as broad as possible to allow mentors to comment on any aspect of their experience disclosing to their mentees. Thus, mentors had three opportunities—once at the end of Part A, B, and C—to provide qualitative information about their self-disclosure on the topics included in each section. Some mentors (n = 11) only responded to one of the open-ended questions, while a further 18 participants did so for at least two parts of the MSDI.

Table 2

MSDI categories, items, and prevalence of each response option

Categories and items	Mentors who disclosed (%)		
	Not at all	Generally	Fully
Hobbies & Interests			
My likes and dislikes in music †	5.6	57.4	37.0
The types of things I enjoy reading †	18.5	53.7	27.8
The kinds of movies that I like to see; the TV shows that are my favourites †	1.9	59.3	38.9
My favourite ways of spending spare time (i.e., what your interests are) †	0	48.1	51.9
School & Work			
My positive experiences at school †	7.4	48.1	44.4
My negative experiences at school †	22.2	42.6	35.2
How I feel about the choice of career that I have made, whether or not I'm satisfied with it †	3.7	42.6	53.7
What I enjoy most and get the most satisfaction from in my present work/study †	11.1	46.3	42.6
What I find to be the most boring and unenjoyable aspects of my present work/study †	33.3	44.4	22.2
My ambitions and goals in my work/study †	13.0	55.5	31.5
What I feel are my shortcoming and handicaps that prevent me from getting further ahead in my work ‡	70.4	24.1	5.6
What I feel are my special strong points for my work/study ‡	38.9	50.0	11.1
Beliefs			
What I think and feel about religion; my personal religious views ‡	37.0	51.9	11.1
My feelings about how parents ought to deal with children ‡	42.6	51.9	5.6

Money			
How much money I make at my work, or get as an allowance ‡	83.3	13.0	3.7
My feelings about the salary or rewards that I get for my work/study ‡	77.8	18.5	3.7
Whether or not I owe money; if so, how much ‡	87.0	13.0	0
How I budget my money – the proportion that goes to necessities, luxuries, etc ‡	57.4	38.9	3.7
Whether or not I gamble; if so, the way I gamble and the extent of it §	87.0	9.3	3.7
Self-esteem			
The aspects of my personality that I dislike, worry about, that I regard as a handicap to me ‡	53.7	42.6	3.7
The kinds of things that make me especially proud of myself, full of self-esteem or self-respect ‡	14.8	70.4	14.8
My feelings about my appearance – things I like and things I don't like ‡	63.0	33.3	3.7
How I wish I looked; my ideals for overall appearance ‡	79.6	20.4	0
Any problems and worries that I had with my appearance when I was an adolescent ‡	48.1	44.4	7.4
Emotions			
What feelings, if any, I have trouble expressing or controlling ‡	72.2	24.1	3.7
Things in the past or present that I feel ashamed and guilty about ‡	70.4	27.8	1.9
The kinds of things that make me furious ‡	59.3	37.0	3.7
What it takes to get me feeling real depressed and blue ‡	68.5	29.6	1.9
What it takes to get me real worried, anxious, and afraid ‡	57.4	40.7	1.9
What it takes to hurt my feelings deeply ‡	59.3	38.9	1.9
Health			
Whether or not I make any special efforts to keep fit and healthy †	1.9	31.5	66.7

Whether or not I have any health problems (including mental health) ‡	64.8	31.5	3.7
Substance Use - Views			
My personal views on smoking cigarettes §	25.9	40.7	33.3
My personal views on drinking alcohol §	27.8	51.9	20.4
My personal views on smoking marijuana §	51.9	24.1	24.1
My personal views on using other drugs (e.g., ecstasy, methamphetamine, cocaine) §	53.7	25.9	20.4
Substance Use – Habits			
My personal habits of smoking cigarettes §	35.2	16.7	48.1
My personal habits of drinking beer or wine §	53.7	29.6	16.7
My personal habits of drinking hard liquor (such as whiskey or vodka) §	64.8	24.1	11.1
My personal habits of smoking marijuana §	66.7	11.1	22.2
My personal habits of using other drugs (e.g., ecstasy, methamphetamine, cocaine) §	66.7	13.0	20.4
Sex			
My personal views on sexual morality (e.g., should people have pre-marital sex) §	68.5	18.5	13.0
My sexual orientation §	50.0	31.5	18.5
My feelings about the sexual orientation of others §	55.5	24.1	20.4

Note: Symbols indicate what part of the MSDI items are in. † = Part A; ‡ = Part B; § = Part C

Analysis

Quantitative analysis.

After data were collected via the Qualtrics questionnaires, I downloaded and exported the responses into SPSS. Based on an initial clean of the data, I removed the responses from one participant as their mentoring relationship did not meet the three-month minimum duration criteria of the study. I also decided to remove the question regarding what prompted the mentor's disclosure from the dataset as several of the responses created interpretation difficulties (e.g., answering "always" to two options which should be mutually exclusive), suggesting the question was not well constructed or understood by participants. I conducted a missing values analysis in SPSS on all scale items that revealed seven cases had missing values, ranging from one to two values across cases and a total of .29% values missing across all data points. Little's MCAR test demonstrated that the data were missing at random, thus the expectation maximization procedure was used to impute missing values. I recoded two variables for analysis. For meeting frequency, I used the midpoint for ten mentors who provided ranges in their answer (e.g., 2-4 meetings per month became 3). All responses were then recoded into a new variable with four codes: once a month or less (0-1 meetings reported), several times per month (1.5-3 meetings reported), once a week (3.5-4 meetings reported); and more than once a week (4.5 or more meetings reported). Twenty mentors reported a range in their responses to meeting duration. Once again, I replaced their answers with the midpoint of the range they provided.

I calculated descriptive statistics for the dimensions of mentor self-disclosure (prevalence and content) under investigation. For analysis of the content of mentor self-disclosure, I grouped items in two separate ways. First, a descriptive profile of disclosure was produced according to the three groups of the MSDI (i.e., Part A, B, and C). The MSDI items

were also re-categorised and analysed according to 10 topic categories: beliefs (2 items), emotions (6), health (2), hobbies & interests (4), money (5), school & work (8), self-esteem (5), sex (3), substance use – views (4), and substance use – habits (5). Table 2 includes the category to which each item was assigned for analysis.

Qualitative analysis.

Using qualitative enquiry is considered suitable for descriptive, exploratory research (Patton, 2015) so I included open-ended questions in the questionnaire, as this allowed mentors to articulate the context and meaning of their own self-disclosure. Owing to the exploratory nature of the study and my critical realist orientation, whereby perception of an objective 'real' world is context-dependent and accessible via participant's accounts of their 'reality', I decided to do an inductive thematic analysis following the method set out by Braun and Clarke (2006; Terry, Hayfield, Clarke & Braun, 2017) to construct themes that captured the scope of mentors' descriptions of self-disclosure. This method of thematic analysis has several features which distinguish it from other types of thematic analysis. First, researchers are actively engaged in constructing themes, rather than relying on themes to "emerge" from the data (Terry et al., 2017). Second, practices associated with a coding reliability method of thematic analysis (e.g., using a codebook, calculating inter-coder reliability) are not used. Instead, Braun and colleagues (2018) advocate for a fully qualitative, reflexive approach where researchers are acknowledged as active participants in producing knowledge. Finally, while themes represent a pattern across multiple responses in the data set, quantifying the prevalence of themes is not essential as even themes which appear less often in the data can tell us something valuable (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

To begin, I analysed the data from all three sections of the MSDI together. The data were read twice, taking notes of potential codes or ideas for later stages of coding. Data were

then uploaded into NVivo 11 for coding. I also uploaded the notes made during reading into NVivo as a linked memo. I read and considered each comment independently, applying one or more codes to each comment as appropriate. Twenty-three initial codes were created, as well as a "not relevant" code where I coded comments which were not about self-disclosure (e.g., feedback on the questionnaire, general reflections and thoughts on their mentoring experience). At the end of this process, I reviewed the notes from the first reading to see if anything pertinent was overlooked during the initial coding process.

The next phase of analysis moved from codes to themes. I explored connections between codes using various mind-maps and tables, looking for meaningful themes within the data. I identified and reviewed several candidate themes in two steps. First, I re-coded the NVivo file using candidate themes to see if they were coherent within-theme and distinct between-themes. Then, I discussed the candidate themes with my supervisors, which resulted in further revision and re-coding. After repeating this process several times, we agreed that the iteration of themes presented here accurately and saliently represented the mentor comments.

Results

Quantitative results.

All participants reported self-disclosing to their mentees. On average, mentors reported self-disclosing on 23.63 items (*SD* = 9.13), and the total number of items disclosed ranged from 4 to 44 (out of a possible 44). Items in Part A were popular subjects for mentor self-disclosure. Eighty-nine percent (n=48) of mentors reported a disclosure in Part A, compared with 39% (n=21) in Part B and 46% (n=25) in Part C. The number of mentors who disclosed on each item is shown in Table 2.

The percentage of mentors who disclosed about each item within the category was averaged and is presented in Figure 1. The most popular category for disclosure was hobbies and interests, while money was the least disclosed topic. Mentors tended to disclose on positively-oriented items more than negatively-oriented items. For example, in the school and work category, there were more disclosures about positive experiences at school compared to negative experiences at school, and disclosure about satisfaction and strengths at work were more popular than disclosures on boredom or shortcomings at work. Despite being categorised as one of the most intimate topics for disclosure, 60% of mentors reported disclosing their views on substance use to their mentees. Notably, almost three-quarters of mentors disclosed their views on smoking cigarettes and drinking alcohol. The fact that substance use disclosures were quite common may explain why there was more disclosure for Part C items compared to Part B items.

Figure 1. Average percentage of mentors who disclosed on items in each category

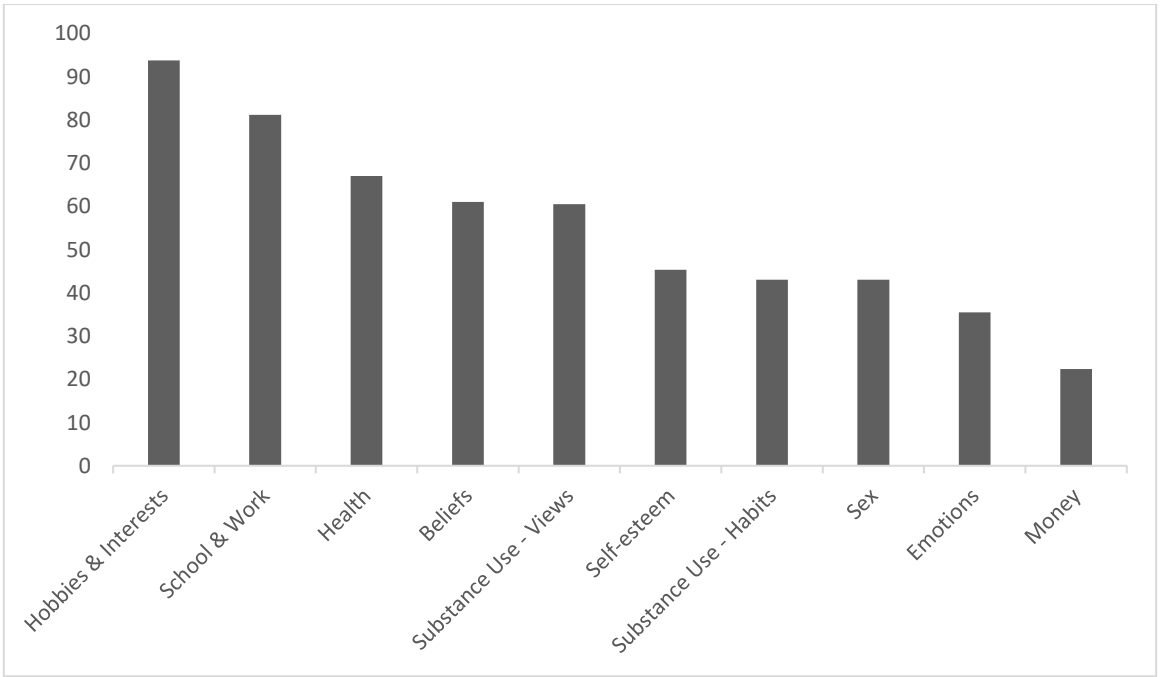


Table 3 summarises participant responses to questions about training and perceived effect of mentor self-disclosure. Mentors typically reported mentor training as being helpful when it came to disclosure. More mentors reported training was helpful in Part C than Part B. Overall, mentors felt their self-disclosure has a positive effect on the mentoring relationship. This response is particularly strong for Part A. The perceived effect of self-disclosure gets progressively more complex for Parts B and C, as shown by the increasing percentage of mentor reports of uncertainty, no effect, or no disclosure occurring.

Table 3

Perceived helpfulness of training and effect of mentor self-disclosure on the mentoring relationship

	Mentor responses (%)		
	Part A	Part B	Part C
Helpfulness of mentor training			
Yes, it helped me	68.5	48.1	57.4
No, it did not help me	3.7	16.7	12.9
I'm unsure if it helped me	22.2	25.9	20.4
I have not received training on these topics	5.6	9.3	9.3
Effect of disclosure on mentoring relationship			
Yes, it affected our relationship positively	81.4	57.4	53.7
Yes, it affected our relationship negatively	1.9	0	0
No, it had no effect on our relationship	5.6	16.7	20.3
I'm unsure if it had an effect on our relationship	11.1	18.5	16.7
I haven't discussed these things with my mentee	0	7.4	9.3

Qualitative results.

I have structured this section to take the reader through a narrative which moves through the disclosure process, from how mentors disclose, to facilitators of disclosure, followed by the challenges that arise when mentors disclose, and ending with the perceived consequences of

disclosure, as these components of the disclosure process were captured in the 29 mentors' open-ended responses. Through thematic analysis, I constructed six main themes based on the comments provided by mentors: strategies for self-disclosure, disclosure as a pathway for positive relationship characteristics, influence of mentoring programmes, perceived lack of mentee interest, culture clash, and effects of self-disclosure. Where applicable, corresponding sub-themes are italicised and discussed in turn.

Strategies for self-disclosure. Within this theme, mentors illuminated how they disclosed, as well as strategies for managing challenging self-disclosure. Mentors typically described taking an organic approach, with statements such as "I would just slip in bits of information about myself whilst we were on the topic and the mentee was sharing", or asking mentees questions about themselves which could be followed up with mentor disclosures. In these instances, mentors appear to use self-disclosure in a purposeful way, actively opening themselves up to their mentees in a natural, non-confronting manner. Mentors also acknowledged how they shared personal information with mentees in the course of doing activities with them. In contrast, several mentors also recognised incidental disclosure and the various ways they disclose in non-verbal ways. While the current study was focused on verbal disclosures, it should be noted that some mentors did exhibit an awareness that elements of their person and environment transmit personal information to their mentee. One mentor remarked:

> Disclosure of my life and choices has often occurred incidentally and by observation not just through talk – e.g. from visits to my house, listening to my music in the car (with the mentee changing the channel) or meeting my family and pets, eating meals at my house etc.

Another mentor revealed he has visible scars which provoked verbal disclosures about his health.

Mentors also explained how they employed specific strategies to manage challenges with self-disclosure (some specific examples of challenges are discussed in later themes). Typically, these responses identified a barrier to self-disclosure, followed by a description of the strategy they used to overcome it. For example, one mentor remarked "My mentee rarely asked about me but I talked about my own experiences in context of talking about her experiences". Despite the mentee not specifically asking for personal information from the mentor, the mentor used shared experiences as a gateway for meaningful and relevant self-disclosure. In another example, a mentor described wanting to disclose information about her family relationships growing up, which she felt were relevant to her mentee. She decided to disclose within the context of structured programme activity, as "this was before our relationship was robust enough for me to talk to her about it one on one, which we could easily do now and it wouldn't be an issue". This demonstrates how some mentors consciously manage communication in their relationships, and how some potential barriers to self-disclosure can be circumvented by mentors.

Disclosure as a pathway for positive relationship characteristics. Mentor self-disclosure was facilitated by a desire to establish or develop particular qualities in their mentoring relationship, notably honesty and similarity. Honesty was valued by mentors, as shown by one mentor who simply wrote "being honest is always the best approach". Another remarked "I just feel that if I'm honest with my mentee, she will be honest with me eventually too, and she won't see me as a stranger that she cannot relate to", connecting their desire for honesty with the reciprocal nature of self-disclosure. In these cases, mentors perceived self-disclosure as intertwined with honesty, which in turn increased the likelihood of forming an authentic bond with their mentee. Likewise, some mentors associated self-

disclosure with establishing similarities between mentors and mentees. If mentees were in a situation the mentor related to, this similarity provided an opportunity for mentors to connect with their mentee using self-disclosure. In one example, a mentor noted her mentee, "was struggling in a class she was previously successful in because she did not like the current teacher so we discussed what that was like for me". Another mentor, who noted that she came from a similar background to her mentee, disclosed these similarities because "I felt that it was incumbent on me to let her know you should not be embarrassed about either your upbringing or your success". In justifying why she disclosed about substance use, another mentor argued that "it is OK to let them know that you are human too, and despite any slight misdemeanour can still straighten up and succeed". These examples reveal how mentors may use self-disclosure as a mechanism for establishing similarity, and the perceived value of sharing commonalities to successful relationships.

Influence of mentoring programmes. Numerous mentors discussed the impact of mentoring programmes on their self-disclosure. Programmes appeared to function largely as facilitators of mentor self-disclosure through the provision of mentor training and structured activities. Several mentors noted how the training provided by the programme helped them find a balance between being personal and being professional, and "was good at showing us how much information is appropriate to share". Setting boundaries about what is (and is not) appropriate self-disclosure appeared to make mentors more comfortable with disclosing, reducing their concerns about saying the wrong thing. However, one mentor noted how the mentor training constrained self-disclosure, specifically when it came to risk behaviours. After reasoning why she disclosed her own risk behaviours, this mentor acknowledged her disclosure was in opposition to the mentoring programme, as "the training was clear that drugs alcohol etc. were more or less no-go areas", highlighting a tension between abiding by the programme rules and following her own instincts and beliefs.

Mentors also mentioned how programmes provided structured activities which required self-disclosure. In one example, a programme required mentors to write a speech to give to mentees. A mentor described how she wrote two speeches—one about her family and the other about her career journey—then gave both to her mentee to read, asking for advice about which speech she should present. This activity was used by the mentor as a guise for sharing personal information with her mentee in a non-confrontational way. Another mentor wanted more program-provided structured activities, as her previous experience with such activities resulted in "one of the best days I had with [mentee]", although no specifics about the activity were provided. Structured activities may reinforce both the value and boundaries of self-disclosure, facilitating mentor openness (by acknowledging the benefits of disclosure) and efficacy (by providing guidelines to support mentor decision-making about disclosure).

Perceived lack of mentee interest. A perceived lack of mentee interest was a challenge for some mentors, who recounted how mentees discouraged self-disclosure by appearing disinterested when mentors self-disclosed, or by not asking mentors about themselves. Statements such as "my mentee never asked questions about me personally" and "I have never disclosed my personal life to any of my mentees. None have ever asked" suggest that some mentors want mentees to express curiosity about their mentors by actively asking questions of them and engaging in the reciprocity typically associated with self-disclosure. For one mentor, having a mentee who did not ask personal questions appeared to generate insecurity and frustration:

> To be honest, it felt like I was talking to a brick wall and that maybe I was just utterly boring. I always felt drained from our meetings. I hope she didn't feel the same way. I didn't know how to overcome her lack of interaction. We would speak about her favourite things and she would chat happily but she had no idea about me really. There was a period when we had not met for two months and I had told her the reason

> why was because I was ill. When we did meet up, I told her I had been in hospital, she didn't say anything. No 'I hope you are OK'. I appreciate she may have felt awkward asking me.

This mentor has an expectation for how her mentee should respond to self-disclosure, which the mentee did not meet. The mentor clearly wants her mentee to know her, and she persists with self-disclosure despite interpreting the lack of interest as indicative of her being "utterly boring". This example illustrates how mentors may have unfair and unrealistic expectations about engaging in reciprocal self-disclosure with a young person, and the subsequent impact it can have on the mentor.

Culture clash. Several mentors reported experiencing a culture clash with their mentee's family. Mentors commented on how they withheld information about themselves if they conflicted with the culture or beliefs of their mentee's family. This challenge was clearly set out by two mentors in particular, who noted:

> I deliberately stayed away from these topics. Her family are Tongan and have strong cultural values. I was aware that if I shared my true thoughts or actions, her parents may disapprove of me and my mentee may feel conflicted as to who she should listen to. I remember going through the exact same thing. It's tough.

> I consider myself an atheist and have disclosed this to my mentee who is deeply religious but in respect to her parents I have not set out this in any great detail.

These mentors demonstrated care and respect for both the mentee and family. They consciously made decisions about what to disclose, and both comments reflect mentors who put mentees and their families first. This is most aptly noted in the first quote, where the mentor is aware of the effect her disclosures may have on her mentee.

Perceived effect of self-disclosure. Similar to the quantitative results, self-disclosure was overwhelmingly perceived by mentors as having a positive effect, either on the mentoring relationship or the mentee. Perceived positive effects on the relationship included building trust and honesty, understanding and knowing each other better, facilitating conversation flow, and bonding. Illustrating how mentors see self-disclosure as a strategy for building a good mentoring relationship, one mentor said "I gave my experiences and thoughts which seemed to help to build open honest conversation and trust and break down barriers". In other instances, mentors noted how they disclosed in an effort to help mentees manage their emotions, including anxiety and anger. One noted, "when my mentee discussed his issues regarding feeling unsure or angry in a situation, it helped to be able to discuss my experiences in similar situations and the ability to use these experiences in a positive way". Another mentor described how he disclosed as motivation to succeed, saying "I believe my sharing my experiences freely was a factor in motivating my mentee as we come from very similar backgrounds". In a further example, one mentor described how she hoped disclosing about risk behaviours dissuade her mentee from participating in such behaviours:

> Explained my personal experience with smoking, the bad side effects and the reasons why I am now a non-smoker and proud of it. Discussions on drugs, explained experiences I've seen through friends and family members with drugs, encouraged her to never go down that track.

This comment illustrates how mentors may believe they can have an effect on their mentee, circumventing poor decision-making by disclosing lessons from their own experiences, as well as the experiences of people around them, to their mentees.

Discussion

My primary aim for this exploratory study was to capture descriptive data on how mentors self-disclose to their adolescent mentees. The findings based on this sample present a picture of mentors engaging in a considerable amount of self-disclosure, across a range of topics. It is perhaps unsurprising that topics such as hobbies and school were most popular, as disclosures of this nature would likely occur in the early stages of a relationship, as mentors and mentees are getting to know one another. These topics are superficial but also present immediate opportunities for pairs to find common ground upon which to build their relationship (Raposa, Ben-Eliyahu, Olsho, & Rhodes, 2019). A more surprising finding concerned disclosures about substance use. Such disclosures were fairly common for this group of mentors, particularly about smoking and drinking alcohol. As mentors of adolescents, these topics may seem especially pertinent for an educative form of disclosure, given adolescence is a period of experimentation for many youth. However, it may be the case that mentors who self-disclose certain information – such as their previous or current substance use – may be presenting themselves as negative role models for their mentees (Beam, Gil-Rivas, Greenberger, & Chen, 2002; Greenberger et al., 1998). On the other hand, mentor disapproval may act as a protective factor against misconduct (Beam et al., 2002). The data captured here offers a glimpse into the incidence of these disclosures, and suggests a closer look may be worthwhile. Specific details about what substance use related disclosures are occurring, such as whether mentors disclose about past or current use, the amount of detail they disclose, and whether mentors or mentees are initiating these disclosures would be beneficial.

In both the quantitative and qualitative data, the mentors in this sample almost universally perceived self-disclosure as having a positive effect on either their mentee or their mentoring relationship. This response is particularly strong for items in Part A, which

suggests the items typically considered to be part of the 'getting to know you' phase of a relationship are building rapport and warmth as intended. These positive perceptions of self-disclosure are not unfounded; as discussed earlier, research has shown how self-disclosure can be beneficial to relationships, particularly when it comes to developing highly desired relationship characteristics such as trust and closeness (Derlega et al., 1993; Greene et al., 2006). Of particular interest is the idea of mentors disclosing to identify similarities with their adolescent mentees, which in turn enhances their relationship. Therapists have reported using disclosure with adolescents specifically for this purpose (Gaines, 2003; Papouchis, 1990; Simon, 1990). Some aspects of adolescence – such as an increased desire for independence, decision-making, and intimacy – are universal, and by drawing on their own experiences in these areas, mentors may be able to help support their mentee and build a stronger relationship. In contrast to Part A, the perceived effect of self-disclosure was more mixed for items in Parts B and C. The additional complexity and intimacy of these items may have made it more difficult for these mentors to recognize how their disclosures could affect the relationship.

While the mentors in this study largely described self-disclosure positively, there were challenges too. Self-disclosure can blur the line between professional and personal for mentors (Rhodes et al., 2009). Mentors are adults in positions of power who are entrusted to guide and support a young person, so maintaining professional standards is imperative, as highlighted by the best practice guides for the field (e.g., MENTOR, 2015). At the same time, mentoring relationships can be deeply personal, requiring trust, empathy, and closeness (Nakkula & Harris, 2005; Rhodes, 2004). This may be a further indication of the unique, hybrid nature of mentor-mentee relationships (Goldner & Mayseless, 2008; Keller & Pryce, 2010), where the rules of personal (e.g., familial and peer) and professional (therapist and teacher) relationships intermingle and lose clarity.

The results from this study highlight a troubling pattern of some mentors holding unrealistic and unfair expectations about how youth communicate with adults. Unrealistic expectations of the mentoring relationship have previously been found to contribute to relationship failure (Spencer, 2007). In this study, a perceived lack of mentee interest in the mentor led to feelings of frustration and disappointment in some mentors. They appeared to, consciously or not, want some kind of emotional validation from their mentees, typically through mentees expressing interest in their mentor's life. This may be because self-disclosure is privileged in adult social life as the primary way of developing interpersonal intimacy (Fehr, 2004; Radmacher & Azmitia, 2006) and is strongly associated with "the norm of reciprocity" (Derlega et al., 1993, p. 33). Thus, self-disclosure is not only interpreted by adults as a mutual exchange in personal information, but a mutual interest in wanting to know each other. In an early study of youth mentoring relationships, Hamilton and Hamilton (1992) noted how some mentors with a focus on building the mentoring relationship, rather than mentee competence, expected intimate disclosure too early in the relationship. However, research suggests the disclosure-intimacy pathway is learned during adolescence, as young people experience deeper friendship and romantic relationships (Fehr, 2004).

Another element of responsible disclosure was revealed in several comments about culture clash, and how mentors consider their mentee's family before self-disclosure on some topics. The role and place of family in youth mentoring relationships is an essential consideration (Keller, 2005a; Spencer, Basualdo-Delmonico, & Lewis, 2011) and, as noted in Chapter 3, the hybrid role of mentors can result in blurred boundaries regarding the appropriateness of self-disclosure. While dyads may be matched on any number of criteria, there is no guarantee that the mentor's beliefs and values will align with those of their mentee and mentee's family. This may be particularly germane in cross-cultural mentoring relationships. While self-disclosure is encouraged in Western societies as interpersonal

connections need to developed and nurtured through dyadic interactions like self-disclosure (Fehr, 2004), this is not necessarily so in other cultures (Sue & Sue, 1999). Interpersonal connections are built into collectivist cultures, reducing the need for self-disclosure as a method of intimacy-building (Adams, Anderson, & Adonu, 2004). However, culture clashes may not always be associated with religious or cultural differences. Differences in social class also need to be considered and negotiated sensitively by mentors and mentoring programmes (Spencer, 2007).

A secondary aim of this study was to assess the utility of the MSDI as originally designed and consider refinements based on how mentors responded to the questionnaire. The items included in the MSDI appear to be relevant to the youth mentoring context and have been retained for use in a subsequent study, in the same three-part structure. For this study, the response options in the original questionnaire were used (Jourard, 1971). Upon reflection, I found using grouping variables such as "general" disclosure and "full" disclosure had limited usefulness, particularly for more advanced quantitative analysis. Thus, the scale of the MSDI has been modified further for use in a subsequent study. Furthermore, my intention with the design of the MSDI was to have progressively more intimate topics in each part to ascertain if there were differences in mentor self-disclosure depending on the intimacy of the topic. The allocation of items to each part of the MSDI was informed by research in other contexts (e.g., Dolgin 1996; Dolgin & Kim, 1994). Revisions may be needed to reflect the unique context of youth mentoring and therefore should be based on additional research on the perceived intimacy of topics from mentor and mentee perspectives (see Chapter 6 for MSDI amendments associated with scale and topic intimacy).

Implications for programmes.

Mentors involved with the two programmes recruited for this study predominantly found programme training to be beneficial, helping to set boundaries, disclose responsibly and ethically, and in a constructive, non-confrontational setting through the use of structured activities. However, tensions were also present. This was exemplified by one mentor's description their program's 'hands off' approach to mentors discussing topics such as alcohol, drugs, and sex, and the mentor's own personal philosophy about openness to these topics. It is possible that programmes see mentoring through a professional, risk-averse lens, and therefore train mentors to avoid sensitive disclosures, rather than providing them with multiple strategies for managing disclosure—such as deflection, ambivalence, or honesty—which mentors can then use at their discretion. When mentors are face-to-face with their mentee, simply avoiding disclosure may be difficult to do, especially if disclosure is prompted by their mentee asking personal questions. This suggests a nuanced approach to training mentors about self-disclosure would be beneficial so mentors feel confident about what is a common communication process in these relationships. Training on mentor-mentee communication should also include discussion of the developmental differences in self-disclosure. While I was unable to tease out specific developmental differences in this study, other research on mentoring relationships have clearly indicated that such differences are present and can change the value and effect of self-disclosure (Liang et al., 2008). Furthermore, programmes should reinforce the hybrid nature of the mentor-mentee relationship to ensure mentor expectations are aligned and in sync with the professional (as well as personal) character of the relationship. Finally, out of respect and appreciation for family values, consideration of family should be part of mentor decision-making about disclosure, and mentoring programmes should be training mentors to be careful how they express any differences between themselves and the mentee's family.

Future directions and study limitations.

There is considerable scope for research on self-disclosure in mentoring relationships. Theoretical exploration of self-disclosure, including how it is connected to other mechanisms in mentoring relationships such as mutuality (Lester et al., 2019; Rhodes, 2004), would provide conceptual clarity. While the extant literature on relationships and disclosure suggests self-disclosure is likely occurring in all mentoring relationships, it would be preferable to establish the extent of self-disclosure based on data from mentoring dyads as it is a dyadic process. Furthermore, the value of self-disclosure is most strongly supported by the associated capacity to facilitate trust and closeness. Future research should test whether this link exists, and if so, how it functions in mentoring relationships (see Chapter 6).

I conducted this research as a small-scale, exploratory study on a phenomenon which has received little if any dedicated research in contemporary youth mentoring literature. By using online questionnaire data, I was able to ascertain whether this phenomenon was present in mentoring relationships as I anticipated it likely was, and thus provide some preliminary findings upon which further research could be based on. However, this methodology has limitations which future studies should redress. Greater consideration of gender and age would be insightful. The sample was predominantly female which may influence their patterns of self-disclosure (Dindia, 2002). Moreover, a developmental perspective could unpack important differences in the appropriateness and usefulness of mentor self-disclosure according to the age of the mentee (Liang et al., 2008). Future research should also consider using more in-depth qualitative methodologies to fully capture the nuances of self-disclosure and how it functions in relationships from a dyadic perspective (see Chapter 7). Due to the methodology used here, ambiguous statements from mentors were unable to be clarified. From a methodological standpoint, I also acknowledge that while I practiced reflexivity as a critical element of this version of thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Terry, Hayfield,

Clarke, & Braun, 2017), it did not include the use of independent researchers to act as a check against the themes I generated and any biases that may be present in this analysis.

As noted in Chapter 1, this study focused on mentor perspectives, but it is equally important to gather data from mentees about self-disclosure. While mentors largely held a positive orientation to self-disclosure, it is unknown whether mentees have similarly good experiences with self-disclosure in mentoring relationships. Research on what mentees disclose, in what context they disclose, and how they feel about their mentor's disclosures would be helpful for training mentors to be responsive to the needs of their mentee. It would also contribute to our understanding of if, and how, disclosure facilitates desirable relationship characteristics such as trust and closeness.

Conclusion

Despite research from other relationship contexts showing there are substantive risks and rewards associated with self-disclosure, the youth mentoring literature has, to date, largely only addressed self-disclosure on the periphery of studies on adjacent topics. Mentors are encouraged to develop rapport and trust with their mentees, and support their mentees by building a genuine, authentic understanding of each other during their time together. It appears that mentors use self-disclosure to do this, at least in part. Examining self-disclosure in greater detail is essential to understanding what it does, why it matters, and how interventions like youth mentoring can use it in purposeful, strategic ways to the benefit of mentors, mentees, and mentoring relationships while also being mindful of potential risks.

CHAPTER SIX.

A QUANTITATIVE EXAMINATION OF THE EFFECT OF MENTOR SELF-DISCLOSURE ON RELATIONSHIP QUALITY.

Self-disclosure is widely considered to have a positive effect on interpersonal relationships. This belief was affirmed in Chapter 5, where the vast majority of mentors perceived self-disclosure as an advantageous influence on their mentoring relationship. Moreover, results from that study showed all the mentors in the sample disclosed to some degree, with most indicating a history of general disclosure on a variety of different topics in their mentoring relationship. It seems likely that mentors are motivated to disclose in part due to their belief that it has a positive influence on their relationship.

In this study, I aimed to investigate whether the connection between disclosure and relationship quality existed in the youth mentoring context. Although decades of research into the benefits of self-disclosure have consistently supported this link, youth mentoring represents a context with unique characteristics which could moderate its effect on relationship quality. Furthermore, moving into the second phase of the Y-AP Observation Study introduced mentee data into the picture, providing an opportunity to see whether mentees were responding as positively to mentor self-disclosure as mentors did. Of note is the use of dyadic data, which is still unusual in youth mentoring research despite repeated commentary advocating its value for understanding relational processes and interactions. In this chapter, I present a quantitative analysis of the effect of mentor self-disclosure on mentor and mentee-reported relationship quality, theoretically grounded in one of the most prominent models of self-disclosure, Social Penetration Theory.

This chapter consists entirely of a manuscript submitted to the *Journal of Community Psychology*, with some minor modifications to ensure coherence and consistency with the rest of the thesis.

Examining the Effect of Mentor Self-Disclosure on Relationship Quality in Youth Mentoring Using Social Penetration Theory

Introduction

Positive youth development is enhanced by the presence of supportive, caring relationships with non-parental adults. This premise has long fuelled the interest in and expansion of formal youth mentoring as a relationship-based intervention. Youth mentoring has been associated with positive developmental outcomes including improved interpersonal relationships (Herrera et al., 2002; Raposa, Rhodes, et al., 2019), academic competence (Bayer et al., 2015; Zand et al., 2009), and reduced behaviour or conduct issues (Converse & Lignugaris/Kraft, 2009; Lyons, McQuillin, & Henderson, 2018). However, youth mentoring is not effective in all instances, and as such, examining what specific elements of youth mentoring contribute to effectiveness is critical to improving youth mentoring as an intervention for youth development and adjustment (Rhodes et al., 2006).

There is consensus within the literature that the quality of mentoring relationships is associated with intervention effectiveness (DuBois, Holloway, et al., 2002; Nakkula & Harris, 2005). Accordingly, researchers have considered a number of mechanisms that may enhance relationship quality (Varga & Deutsch, 2016). However, one area that has largely been neglected in mentoring research is mentor-mentee communication (Pryce et al., 2020. Relationship research shows communication is integral to relationship development and maintenance (Guerrero et al., 2007), yet little research has been devoted to understanding how mentoring dyads communicate and how different facets of communication may affect the relationship (Karcher & Hansen, 2014).

Before youth mentoring research emerged as a field, Goodman and Dooley (1976) developed a framework for 'help-intended communication'. The framework was designed to support paraprofessionals – like youth mentors – engaged in helping relationships. They identified six communication micro-skills that mapped on to specific intents: Questioning should be used to gather information; advisement for guiding behaviour; silence provides interpersonal space; interpretation can explain someone's behaviour; reflection and paraphrasing express empathy, and self-disclosure builds connection by revealing oneself (Goodman & Dooley, 1976). To date, this framework has rarely been applied or explored in the youth mentoring context (Karcher & Hansen, 2014).

More recently, Karcher, Herrera, and Hansen (2010) explored two types of conversation and the effect they had on mentor-reported relationship quality using data from over 400 mentors in a school-based mentoring program. Relational conversation included casual conversation on topics like family and friends, while goal-oriented conversation focused on school, behaviour, and future aspirations. While both types of conversation influenced relationship quality, relational conversation was more significant, especially for children and preadolescents (Karcher, Herrera, & Hansen, 2010). Elsewhere, Pryce and Keller (2013) described how mentor-mentee communication contributed to the interpersonal tone of mentoring relationships. One group of dyads, labelled 'engaged', were characterised by their easy, fluid communication with one another and mutual disclosure about their personal lives. In comparison to other pairs, engaged pairs reported higher levels of closeness, enjoyment when spending time together, and overall relationship quality (Pryce & Keller, 2013). These findings point to the influence particular ways of communicating have on mentoring relationship quality, but the scarcity of such studies means our collective understanding of the power of communication in the mentoring context is limited.

In this study, I aim to add to the literature on mentor-mentee communication by examining a specific type of interaction, and one of the micro-skills identified by Goodman and Dooley (1976)—self-disclosure. I do so by using Social Penetration Theory (SPT; Altman and Taylor, 1973) to explore the connection between self-disclosure and relationship quality. To my knowledge, this is the first time SPT has been applied to the youth mentoring context. I also discuss an instrument for measuring mentor self-disclosure which I developed and presented previously (Dutton et al., 2019), and refined in this study.

Social Penetration Theory and Self-Disclosure

The literature on self-disclosure is expansive and SPT is one of the most prominent models of how people develop bonds with others through self-disclosure (Altman & Taylor, 1973). SPT theorises that individuals develop closeness and intimacy with others through the systematic and gradual use of self-disclosure over time. Generally beginning with superficial disclosures about the self, the information shared during interpersonal interactions increases in intimacy. As this occurs, feelings of closeness and affection are fostered, and the relationship deepens.

SPT conceptualises disclosure as having both breadth (amount of disclosure) and depth (intimacy of disclosure; Altman & Taylor, 1973). Breadth has two dimensions: Breadth category refers to the number of topics of disclosure, while breadth frequency refers to the amount of detail, time, and focus given to a topic. Thus, someone who discloses on only a few topics but in great detail would have low breadth category and high breadth frequency, whereas someone who discloses a small amount about a large number of topics has high breadth category and low breadth frequency. Depth is conceptualised in layers. As individuals disclose more about themselves, the layers peel away to reveal increasingly intimate personal information. As such, SPT can be described with an onion metaphor: self-disclosure functions as though we are peeling back layers of ourselves to share with another.

Outer layers contain superficial information about the self (e.g., hobbies and interests), followed by moderately intimate personal information (e.g., religion and health), until the inner layers of the onion represent the most intimate information a person could share (e.g., sex and inner fears). Thus, interpersonal closeness increases as we share more of ourselves – in both breadth and depth – with someone.

Given the layered structure of the onion, SPT suggests that self-disclosure functions in an orderly way, beginning with disclosure of more superficial information and gradually progressing "in a layer-by-layer fashion, without skipping layers" (Altman & Taylor, 1973, p. 29) to more intimate information. However, the systematic nature of social penetration does not mean all relationships develop alike. Altman and Taylor (1973) stress that the depth of intimacy can, and does, vary between relationships. In some relationships, considerable intimacy is achieved as individuals engage in self-disclosure and reveal more of themselves. Other relationships stay fairly superficial.

SPT provides a theoretical account of how self-disclosure promotes relationship development. Although SPT has not been applied to youth mentoring before, Keller's (2005b) stage-based model of mentoring relationship development also considers the contribution of disclosure. In this model, Keller suggests that self-disclosure occurs in the initial phases of the relationship, as pairs share information to get to know one another, after which the breadth and depth of self-disclosure may increase as the relationship progresses over time. Self-disclosure may be indicative of the intimacy of a mentoring relationship, and contribute to its development over time, strengthening or weakening the mentor-mentee connection (Keller, 2005b). However, an empirical link between self-disclosure and mentoring relationship quality is yet to be established.

The Current Study

In this study, my primary focus was on testing the association between mentor self-disclosure and relationship quality, informed by SPT. I hypothesised:

> H_1: Higher mentor self-disclosure will be associated with higher mentor- and mentee-reported relationship quality.

I also wanted to test whether any of the dimensions of SPT—breadth category, breadth frequency, and depth—uniquely predicted relationship quality. In particular, disclosing intimately is associated with relationship characteristics like closeness and trust (Altman & Taylor, 1973; Reis & Shaver, 1988), and therefore may make a distinct contribution to self-reported relationship quality.

I identified five possible confounds and included them as covariates in my analyses. Gender has been associated with self-disclosure, with evidence suggesting women disclose more than men (Dindia, 2002). In addition to the link between relational conversation and relationship quality for younger mentees described above (Karcher et al., 2010), mentees have been found to have developmental differences in how they perceive disclosure of risk behaviours by natural mentors (Liang et al., 2008), which may impact their rating of relationship quality. Previous research (e.g., DuBois, Holloway, et al., 2002) has indicated mentors from a helping background increase the effectiveness of mentoring, and may be able to develop better relationships with mentees. Relationship length has been associated with mentoring relationship quality, with dyads in longer relationships typically reporting better quality (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002). Finally, mentor training was associated with more disclosure and closer relationships by Goodman (1972).

Methods

Participants.

Forty-nine mentoring pairs, recruited from seven mentoring programmes in Auckland, New Zealand, participated in a study examining the critical ingredients of youth-adult partnerships. Each pair met the eligibility criteria regarding relationship length (three month minimum) and mentee age (12-18 years old). The eligibility criteria for length ensured participants were in an established relationship (Keller, 2005b).

Mentors were aged between 20 and 59 (M = 36.05, SD = 10.89), and were predominantly female (71%). All participants identified as male or female. Participants had the option to identify with one or more ethnic backgrounds. Eight mentors (16%) identified with two or more ethnicities. The largest group was New Zealand European (n = 31), followed by Māori (n = 7), Pacific Island (n = 7), Other European (n = 5), Other (n = 5), and Asian (n = 4). Most mentors were in full-time employment (n = 36) and ten were university students. A majority of mentors had received some mentor training (n = 43) and half had previous experience as a mentor (n = 25). Mentees were aged between 12 and 19 (M = 16.04, SD = 1.50), with one mentee turning 19 between signing up for and then completing the study. Like the mentor sample, most mentees (78%) were female. Almost one-third of mentees identified with two or more ethnicities (n = 15). Three mentees did not answer the question on ethnic identity, but of the other 46 mentees, 28 identified as being of Pacific Island heritage, as well as New Zealand European (n = 12), Māori (n = 11), Asian (n = 7), Other European (n = 2) and Other (n = 1). Consequently, most dyads (81.6%) were cross-cultural. Relationship length ranged from three to 26 months (M = 8.65, SD = 5.67), and on average, pairs met twice per month for 2.45 hours.

Procedure.

While attending a Y-AP Observation Study research session on campus at the University of Auckland, participating pairs completed online questionnaires administered using Qualtrics software. Mentees answered the questionnaire on an iPad or laptop. They also chose whether or not to complete the questionnaire on their own or with assistance from a researcher with youth work experience. Most mentees elected to complete it on their own, and the researcher sat nearby to answer any questions. In another room, mentors completed the questionnaire on a desktop computer with a researcher available to answer questions if necessary. Participants typically took 20-30 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Questionnaire development.

I collected self-disclosure data using the MDSI (Dutton et al., 2019). Based on feedback from participants in the prior study and my reflections following initial administration and analysis, I made several amendments to the first iteration, which had previously been published. I also changed the response options for the MSDI from a 4-option response (indicating whether the mentor disclosed fully, generally, never, or made a false disclosure) to a 7-point Likert scale (anchor points 1 = *told mentee nothing,* 7 = *told mentee most things*). This helped capture variance in responses and minimised some respondent confusion about what counts as "full" or "general" disclosure. Prior to analysis, I recoded responses from 1-7 to 0-6 (0 = *told mentee nothing*, and 6 = *told mentee most things*). I also removed the "false" response option from the first iteration and replaced it with a separate question: how much information about yourself, positive or negative, have you concealed from your mentee? (1 = *have not concealed any information*, 7 = *concealed a lot of information*). In addition, some comments from mentors who completed the MSDI in the prior study suggested that disclosures about sex were more diverse than the questionnaire originally captured.

Therefore, I added two questions about sex (my sexual experiences, e.g., experience of losing virginity; my personal opinions or experiences about sexual health, e.g., accessing contraception) to the MSDI, bringing it to 46 items in total.

The MSDI divides items into three sections—A, B, and C—which designate low, medium, and high intimacy items based on topic intimacy literature in other domains (e.g., families, Dolgin, 1996; friendships, Dolgin & Kim, 1994). The first iteration of the MSDI (Dutton et al., 2019) used these tiers to measure self-disclosure depth. However, the findings from that study revealed different self-disclosure prevalence patterns than I had theorised based on these intimacy tiers. Accordingly, I reconsidered the usefulness of these tiers in the current iteration. In particular, I had concerns that, while the tiers were based on topic intimacy literature, perceptions of intimacy in other relationships may be different to those in the context of a youth mentoring relationship due to the unique power and ethical dimensions at work in mentoring (Rhodes et al., 2009). Therefore, to further tailor the MSDI to the mentoring context, I developed new intimacy gradings specifically focused on topic intimacy from a mentor's perspective.

I conducted a workshop to rank item intimacy with two graduate students with expertise in youth work and youth development. They were briefed with some background information on self-disclosure, SPT, and topic intimacy as outlined by Dolgin and Kim (1994). I then instructed them to rank the items independently from low to high intimacy according to their personal perceptions of youth mentoring relationships in the New Zealand context. Low intimacy was described as "the sort of thing one would freely disclose to a mentee, or which is extremely impersonal in nature", while high intimacy was described as "the sort of thing one would disclose to a mentee only with great difficulty, or which is extremely personal in nature" (Rubin & Shenker, 1978, p. 4). Further, they could group items as they wished and were not obligated to distribute the items evenly or have a certain number

of groups (e.g., three groups of low, medium, and high intimacy). We then convened for a joint discussion and collective ranking. From the collective ranking, they sorted items into tiers of intimacy, from 1 (low intimacy) to 10 (high intimacy; see Appendix C for the revised MSDI and item intimacy tiers).

Measures.

Self-disclosure: breadth, depth, and total disclosure. First, guided by SPT, two variables associated with breadth were captured using the MSDI. I calculated breadth-category by counting the number of items mentors disclosed about, indicated by an answer from 1-6 on the scale, for a total between 0 and 46. For breadth-frequency, I summed mentor responses across all items on the 7-point scale, where higher numbers indicate disclosing a greater amount. To calculate a self-disclosure depth score, I first weighted each item according to the intimacy tier assigned to each in the workshop (i.e., items in tier 1 received a value of 1, items in tier 2, a value of 2, and so on to tier 10; see Appendix C for a list of items in each tier). Then, I summed the weighted marks for each item a mentor disclosed on to generate a depth score. Finally, I calculated total self-disclosure by multiplying the amount of disclosure indicated on the 7-point scale (i.e., breadth frequency) by the appropriate topic intimacy weighting (i.e., depth) for each item, and then summed.

Relationship quality. As noted in Chapter 2, relationship quality is a complex variable to measure and researchers use different approaches to capture it. We considered several validated instruments for measuring mentoring relationship quality, however, none were adopted for the Y-AP Observation Study. We rejected established measures for two reasons. First, some instruments only measured mentor or mentee perceptions of relationship quality, not both, and there was a strong preference to use matched measures for mentors and mentees. Using matched measure enables meaningful comparison because mentors and

mentees are responding on the same construct. Even among the few established measures designed for mentors and mentees, the items are not matched. The second issue was that some instruments included items or factors which were not theoretically distinct from other variables being measured as part of the Y-AP Observation Study, such as attachment or responsiveness, both of which were being measured independent from relationship quality.

Moreover, for the purposes of my research, I felt a measure which focused on the relational bond would be most appropriate, since it is the characteristics of such a bond (e.g., closeness and trust) which are associated with self-disclosure. We were unable to locate a measure which met these criteria in the youth mentoring literature and therefore elected to draw on relationship science to develop one. We proceeded with a measure which asked participants to rate their mentoring relationship across six dimensions on a 7-point scale: satisfaction, commitment, closeness, trust, enjoyment, and liking. This was informed by the Perceived Relationship Quality Components inventory (Fletcher, Simpson, & Thomas, 2000), an 18-item measure which captures relationship quality in romantic relationships across six dimensions which are each assessed using three items. We adjusted the dimensions to better suit the mentoring context, substituting three which were not relevant for our purposes (intimacy, passion, and love) with dimensions theoretically relevant to mentoring and self-disclosure (closeness, enjoyment, liking). Furthermore, to reduce mentee respondent burden, each dimension was assessed on only one item (see Table 4).

As shown in Table 4, an exploratory factor analysis using principal axis factoring with direct oblimin rotation indicated all items met the criterion for recommended factor loadings (> .40; Stevens, 2002) and loaded on one unidimensional relationship quality factor, as anticipated. Internal consistency of the relationship quality scale was high for both mentors (Cronbach's $\alpha = .815$) and mentees (Cronbach's $\alpha = .904$).

Table 4

Factor loadings for exploratory factor analysis of relationship quality for mentors and mentees

Items	Factor loading - mentors	Factor loading - mentees
How satisfied/happy are you with your mentoring relationship?	.722	.726
How committed are you to your mentoring relationship?	.712	.682
How close is your mentoring relationship?	.736	.890
How much do you trust your mentor/mentee?	.463	.772
How much do you enjoy spending time with your mentor/mentee?	.811	.767
How much do you like your mentor/mentee?	.552	.858

Covariates. I included four variables as covariates to control for potential spurious associations that could be attributed to the theoretical confounds described earlier: mentor sex, relationship length, mentee age, and previous experience as a mentor. I used mentor-reported sex only, as almost all dyads (93.8%) were matched with the same sex. Mentors reported how many months they had been in a relationship with their mentee. I interpreted previous experience as a mentor as indicative of having a helping background. Although it was theoretically relevant, mentor training was not included because almost all the mentors in the sample had received training (87.8%).

Analysis

I exported the Qualtrics questionnaire data into IBM SPSS Version 25 for analysis. A missing values analysis showed there was no data missing for the self-disclosure, relationship quality, sex, and relationship length variables. Three participants did not answer the question regarding previous experience as a mentor so analyses with this variable proceeded with a slightly smaller sample. The assessment for normality identified an extreme outlier in the mentee-reported relationship quality data. I elected to remove this case from the dataset, leaving a total sample of 48 dyads. The normality assessment also indicated a negatively

skewed distribution for both mentor and mentee relationship quality. The z-score for mentee relationship quality was -3.23, well over the benchmark of ± 1.96 (Kim, 2013) as indicative of non-normality in samples under 50. To address this, I conducted a reciprocal transformation. Z-scores showed the skew for mentees fell within the ± 1.96 parameters after transformation. The distribution of mentor-reported relationship quality post-transformation was on the cusp of non-normality (1.967). After assessing other transformation options, I determined that proceeding with transformed mentor and mentee data was the best option for analysis.

I first analysed bivariate correlations between self-disclosure and relationship quality and the four possible confounding variables—sex, mentee age, relationship length, and previous experience as a mentor. Analysis showed substantial multicollinearity between the three dimensions of self-disclosure based on SPT (breadth-category, breadth-frequency, and depth), with Pearson's *r* ranging from .845 to .985, $p < .01$. The collinearity suggests the dimensions were not capturing distinct aspects of self-disclosure; rather, they were essentially measuring the same construct (Dormann et al., 2013). On this basis, and for ease of interpretation, I decided to discard breadth and depth variables in favour of the total self-disclosure variable as a predictor for further regression analysis.

Results

Descriptive analyses showed mentors disclosed 24.40 items on average (*SD* = 9.26), with a range of 6 to 42 items. This is consistent with the findings from my previous study, which used the MSDI with a different sample (Dutton et al., 2019). The mean number of items disclosed was fractionally higher for male mentors (*M* = 24.43, *SD* = 7.05) when compared to female mentors (*M* = 24.38, *SD* = 10.13), but this was not statistically significant.

Relationship quality was high for both mentors (M = 6.11, SD = 0.59) and mentees (M = 6.17, SD = 0.78).

The bivariate correlation results shown in Table 5 indicate self-disclosure was significantly correlated with relationship quality for mentees and mentors. Mentor relationship quality was also correlated with sex and relationship length.[2] Given the three significant bivariate correlations identified in the mentor results, I progressed with a multiple regression analysis to assess self-disclosure as a predictor of relationship quality for mentors, controlling for sex and relationship length. Results showed self-disclosure was not a predictor for mentor-reported relationship quality in this sample, and neither was relationship length, although there was a marginally significant effect for relationship length (see Table 6). Given the small sample size, statistical power was low and likely contributed to these null results. Nevertheless, sex was significant and $\eta^2 = .34$, indicating that sex accounted for 34% of the variance in relationship quality for mentors.

[2] The analyses described here were repeated twice, once with the outlier case included and once using untransformed, skewed data for relationship quality. In both cases, the significant bivariate correlations reported here were also present, except for the correlation between self-disclosure and mentor-reported relationship quality, which disappeared.

Table 5

Bivariate correlations of self-disclosure, relationship quality, and covariates

Variables	Mentor sex	Mentee age	Rel. length	Prev. experience	Self-disclosure	Mentor RQ	Mentee RQ
Mentor sex	-						
Mentee age	-.167	-					
Rel. length	.248	.138	-				
Prev. experience	.007	-.204	-.116	-			
Self-disclosure	.072	-.050	.275	-.133	-		
Mentor RQ	.430**	.030	.398**	-.224	.306*	-	
Mentee RQ	-.003	-.157	.284	-.068	.369**	.352*	-

Sex coded as Male = 0, Female = 1

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 6

Standard multiple regression for mentor reported self-disclosure, relationship length, and sex

Variable	B	SE B	β	η^2	p
Intercept	.21	.10			
Self-disclosure	.00	.00	.21	.20	.110
Relationship length	.01	.00	.25	.24	.066
Sex	.15	.05	.35	.34	.009**

Note: Adjusted $R^2 = .27$

Discussion

To add to the emerging literature on relational processes in youth mentoring (Varga & Deutsch, 2016), I conducted this study to examine the link between self-disclosure and mentoring relationship quality for the first time since Goodman's (1972) companionship theory. The findings provide preliminary evidence that mentor self-disclosure contributes to mentor and mentee-reported relationship quality. It appears that receiving disclosure is

interpreted positively by mentees and thus influences their perception of the mentoring relationship (Ahrens et al., 2011; Liang et al., 2008; Varga & Deutsch, 2016). Mentor self-disclosure may act as an invitation into the mentor's world, to know and be known by the other (Dindia, 2002), and young people may not experience such an invitation from other helping adults in their lives (e.g., teachers, coaches). Moreover, the smaller association between disclosure and relationship quality for mentors may be because they see it as simply part of their job as mentors, and therefore does not have as strong an impact on their perception of the relationship when compared to mentees. There is some evidence that mentors highly value mentee disclosure (Dutton et al., 2019; Spencer & Liang, 2009; Varga & Deutsch, 2016), which would support a theoretical position that receiving self-disclosure matters to perceptions of mentoring relationship quality. While Karcher and colleagues (2010) found a link between relational conversations and mentor-reported relationship quality, there is no indication of the extent to which mentors and mentees were contributing to these conversations, nor how much disclosure was occurring in them. I also note that the small sample size likely constrained my ability to detect effects, so although self-disclosure was not significant in the regression analysis, the correlational association suggests a significant effect for mentors would be present if statistical power was increased.

One advantage of mentor self-disclosure predicting mentee reports of relationship quality is that disclosure is a purposeful communication tool which can be used strategically by mentors to maximise benefits to their relationship, as proposed by Goodman and Dooley (1976). As such, programmes could include self-disclosure in their mentor training, in preparation for the early stages of the relationship when disclosure is most likely to occur naturally (Keller, 2005b). One reason why I conducted this research focusing on the mentor's self-disclosure behaviours is that it is relatively easier for programmes to inform and instruct mentors on specific mentoring practices that are advantageous, rather than targeting mentees

to engage in specific behaviours. Self-disclosure is especially well-suited to this approach, since it is a highly reciprocal process which increases in value and practice during adolescence (Camarena et al., 1990; Radmacher & Azmitia, 2006). Mentors can therefore model self-disclosure for mentees, inviting reciprocal disclosure from the mentee, and positively influencing relationship quality, which in turn may contribute to the effectiveness of mentoring.

Sex was included as a covariate for this study, based on literature that shows females tend to engage in more disclosure than males (Dindia, 2002). My findings showed mentor sex was a significant covariate, but it predicted relationship quality rather than self-disclosure. Little is known about how mentor sex might affect the mentoring relationship. One recent study found a contrasting result to ours, whereby male mentors reported having higher quality relationships compared to female mentors (Spencer, Drew, Walsh, & Kanchewa, 2018), while other research has found no difference in reported relationship quality according to gender (Suffrin, Todd, & Sánchez, 2016). It is possible that differences in relationship quality measures contribute to divergent findings. Male and female mentors may perceive the quality of their mentoring relationship based on different characteristics. For instance, measures which include activity-oriented items such as collaboration may be more in line with how male mentors perceive and value their relationship, compared to our measure which exclusively focused on the relational bond, which aligns more closely with relationship quality from a female perspective (Spencer et al., 2018). Differing programme contexts may also contribute to inconsistent results regarding gender or sex differences and point to the need for research that can accommodate larger samples of mentors from a range of programmes.

The measures of self-disclosure and relationship quality I present here extend and add to the youth mentoring literature. I made refinements to the previously published MSDI

(Dutton et al., 2019) to enhance its applicability specifically for youth mentoring research and is one of only a few tools available for capturing data about mentor-mentee communication. The iteration published here includes improved response options and, crucially, more carefully considers how mentors perceive intimacy in their disclosures. As well as being a unique hybrid of parent, teacher, therapist, and friend (Goldner & Mayseless, 2008), mentors partner with youth during a time when they are encountering more adult-like experiences and emotions. Disclosures on sensitive topics may be especially relevant during this time, yet mentors also must set appropriate boundaries and abide by programme rules. The MSDI provides a useful starting point for understanding the complexities of disclosure in the youth mentoring context. With regards to relationship quality, we perceived a gap whereby, to our knowledge, there is no published measure of relationship quality which is focused exclusively on the relational bond and can be administered to both mentors and adolescent mentees. The benefit of this is that their responses can be meaningfully compared because both parties to the relationship are reporting on the same specific aspects of their relationship.

Overall, more research on self-disclosure is needed to fully understand the role and influence it has in the youth mentoring context. In particular, studies such as this one should be repeated with larger samples, and research investigating the mentee's perspective on self-disclosure is essential for ensuring the safe and effective use of disclosure in mentoring relationships as there are potential harms associated with disclosure (Dutton, 2018; Rhodes et al., 2009). Furthermore, while this study has focused on self-disclosure, mentor-mentee communication in general has been neglected by mentoring research to date. Given the fundamental importance of communication to good relationships, it seems prudent for mentoring researchers to explore this area more fully.

Limitations.

The small sample size of this study limits interpretations of how the findings can be extended to mentoring more generally. It is possible that less powerful effects were not picked up by the analysis, or that effects that did present are a characteristic of this specific group of mentoring dyads. As the pairs self-selected into the study, they likely represent higher quality pairs with a strong commitment to the relationship. Nevertheless, my sample did include mentoring dyads from a range of different programmes—a rarity in this applied field—and results regarding self-disclosure prevalence patterns replicated a previously published study. Although the study was theoretically informed by SPT and set out to investigate its theoretical dimensions in a mentoring context, issues with collinearity meant correlations at dimension level (i.e., whether breadth or depth contributes more to improved relationship quality) were not possible. Replicating this study with the current, improved version of the MSDI and a larger sample would help explicate whether the theoretical dimensions exist in practice. If the high degree of correlation between the dimensions exists in other samples, this may be beneficial in practice as it offers a simpler way to score self-disclosure.

Conclusion

Mentoring is a relational intervention that can be successful at promoting positive outcomes for youth. Continuing to identify specific relational processes that make a difference to relationship quality is beneficial to mentoring practice. In particular, enhancing the quality of mentoring relationships is paramount for both youth outcomes and making mentoring a positive experience overall. Equipping mentors with specific skills for developing high quality relationships with mentees is one way programmes can make steps towards intervention effectiveness.

CHAPTER SEVEN.

A QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF LABORATORY-BASED DIRECT OBSERVATIONS OF MENTOR SELF-DISCLOSURE.

The previous studies were designed to provide evidence of mentor self-disclosure in terms of its nature in, and effect on, youth mentoring relationships, using self-report data. From these studies, insightful information regarding mentor self-disclosure was gleaned, such as the topics mentors disclose, mentor perceptions of the benefits and challenges of disclosure in the youth mentoring context, and the positive effect of self-disclosure on mentor and mentee reported relationship quality. These findings make important contributions to the overall purpose of the thesis: an in-depth examination of mentor self-disclosure in youth mentoring relationships. In this chapter, I extend the exploration of self-disclosure in this thesis via the use of direct observations of mentor-mentee interactions. The observation data provides a unique, dyad-centred look at their interactions in a standardised setting and provides a window into these interactions which other sources, such as self-report, cannot replicate. I discuss the ways in which the unique context of youth mentoring influences mentor disclosure and the implications for relationship-building. Since this is the first time research using laboratory-based direct observation has been used in youth mentoring, I also discuss how this innovative methodology can advance our understanding of relational processes.

The manuscript presented here is based on my theory-informed analysis of the interactions and features of mentor disclosure which I identified using modified analytic induction. This chapter presents a modified version of a manuscript published in *Children and Youth Services Review*. I have made changes to the published manuscript, including minor additions to the content and adjustments to the prose to enhance coherence and consistency with the rest of the thesis.

Full Reference: Dutton, H., Deane, K. L., & Bullen, P. (2020). Opening up: An exploration of youth mentor self-disclosure using laboratory-based direct observation. *Children and Youth Services Review, 108*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2019.104654

Opening Up: An Exploration of Youth Mentor Self-Disclosure Using Laboratory-Based Direct Observation

Introduction

Self-disclosure is commonly used to forge new relationships and deepen existing ones (Dindia, 2002; Guerrero et al., 2007). By purposefully opening up and sharing information about ourselves, we communicate messages of closeness, trust, and wanting to be known by the other person (Derlega et al., 1993). The desire to disclose is so strong that estimates suggest one-third of our everyday speech is spent engaging in disclosure (Tamir & Mitchell, 2012). Moreover, self-disclosure occurs in virtually every kind of relationship, both personal (e.g., Bauminger, Finzi-Dottan, Chason, & Har-Even, 2008; Finkenauer, Engels, Branje, & Meeus, 2004; Tan, Overall, & Taylor, 2012) and professional (e.g., Andersson, Gustafsson, Kristensson, & Wästlund, 2016; Cayanus, Martin, & Goodboy, 2009; Hill & Knox, 2002). It acts as an important communication strategy for developing closeness and trust over time (Altman & Taylor, 1973; Reis & Shaver, 1988), and is generally perceived to positively contribute to establishing and maintaining relationships.

Developing and sustaining close, trusting mentor-mentee relationships is essential to the success of youth mentoring (Bayer et al., 2015; Griffith, 2016; Nakkula & Harris, 2014). Mentoring programmes aim to promote youth thriving by pairing young people with a caring adult to spend time with (Rhodes & DuBois, 2008). Mentors are expected to be supportive role models who nurture mentee development as part of an enduring interpersonal relationship (Rhodes, 2004). Although programmes encourage mentors to build a bond based on closeness and trust with mentees, there is still a considerable knowledge gap regarding specific skills or strategies mentors can employ to foster such relationships. One way to

redress this gap is to examine relationship processes that facilitate the growth and maintenance of quality youth mentoring relationships (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009).

Previous studies have hinted at the role of self-disclosure in mentoring relationships, however dedicated research with a focus on disclosure is scarce (Dutton, 2018; Karcher & Hansen, 2014). Mentors have reported using self-disclosure with mentees (Dutton et al., 2019), but it is unknown how mentors practice self-disclosure and therefore how the disclosure process occurs in the context of the mentor-mentee relationship. Extending our knowledge of disclosure could increase the capacity for mentors and programmes to use it in strategic ways to develop and sustain close mentoring relationships. To do this, I observed mentor-mentee interactions to examine how mentors actually engage in self-disclosure with their adolescent mentees. In a first for the field, we employed a laboratory-based observation paradigm, allowing me to observe and record mentoring pairs engaging in a discussion-based activity in a controlled environment. In doing so, I was able to analyse occurrences of mentor self-disclosure to identify the key features of how mentors practice self-disclosure.

Background

Youth mentoring.

Models of youth mentoring posit that mentoring relationships can promote improvements in youth outcomes across various domains (Rhodes, 2004). Research indicates that high quality mentoring relationships are particularly beneficial (Bayer et al., 2015; DuBois, Holloway, et al., 2002; Raposa, Rhodes, et al., 2019), as the mentor-mentee bond facilitates specific interpersonal processes that stimulate youth development (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009). Consequently, identifying and understanding relational processes that contribute to developing quality mentoring relationships is critical to furthering the field and enhancing intervention effectiveness (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009; Varga & Deutsch, 2016).

For instance, mutuality has been long regarded as an important process in quality youth mentoring relationships. In her seminal model of youth mentoring, Rhodes (2004) describes mutuality as one of three characteristics, in addition to trust and empathy, which enhance mentoring relationships and promote positive youth development. Mutuality requires both mentors and mentees to contribute to the construction and maintenance of the relationship (Keller, 2007). In a study exploring mentor and mentee perceptions of mutuality, Lester and colleagues (2019) identified two key dimensions. The first, shared relationship excitement, referred to both partners wanting to be in the relationship. This excitement manifested as wanting to know one another, enjoying spending time together, and engaging in meaningful conversation. Mutuality was also practiced through experiential empathy. This encompassed mentors sharing advice and experiences with their mentee, through which a bond developed (Lester et al., 2019).

Spencer (2006) identified four processes that occurred in successful, enduring mentoring relationships: authenticity, empathy, collaboration, and companionship. Authenticity refers to being genuine with one another and was particularly important for mentees to develop trust in their mentor. Empathy, like mutuality, is a cornerstone of Rhodes' (2004) model of youth mentoring. Spencer (2006) describes how mentors who practice empathy try to understand things from the mentee's perspective and acknowledge the complexities of young people's lives when they interact with their mentee. Collaboration was important not only on task-related activities such as schoolwork, but also when working together to help the mentee manage emotional and social experiences, with the mentor providing support and acting as a guide. Lastly, enjoyment of one another's company and having fun together reflected the process of companionship (Spencer, 2006).

Another important relational process, attunement, represents the ability of mentors to be aware of and responsive to mentee needs in the relationship (Pryce, 2012; Pryce,

Gilkerson, & Barry, 2018). Highly attuned mentors are mentee-oriented and able to adapt flexibly in the moment in response to their mentee. They also perceive the relationship in mutual terms, insofar as both parties commit to working together to meet the mentee's needs and goals. In contrast, mentors with low attunement do not pick up on their mentee's verbal and non-verbal cues and are therefore less likely to adjust their mentoring practice in response to the mentee. Attunement demands not only an awareness of mentee needs and goals, but a willingness to centre the relationship around them (Pryce, 2012).

Research exploring relational processes such as these has strengthened our understanding of mentoring relationships and how mentors can cultivate quality relationships with their mentee. I contend that self-disclosure is a process with similar potential, as described in the following section.

Self-disclosure.

A hallmark characteristic of disclosure is reciprocity (Derlega, Winstead, & Greene, 2008; Jourard, 1971). In most relationships, both parties disclose to the other, offering information about themselves with the expectation that the other person will respond in kind (Derlega et al., 1993; Dindia, 2002). Through reciprocal self-disclosure, individuals scope out the relationship by making themselves known to the other person and accepting disclosure in return, signalling their interest and openness to the other. The reciprocity of disclosure may be driven by trust-attraction, whereby receiving a disclosure makes the listener feel more trustworthy. This in turn increases the likelihood of trusting the discloser and disclosing in return (Dindia, 2002). Elsewhere, the reciprocity of self-disclosure has been attributed to conversational norms, which strongly dictate what is appropriate when in conversation (Derlega et al., 1993). These norms also mean individuals not only engage in disclosure, but they expect disclosure that matches their own in terms of relevance and degree of intimacy in

return (Derlega et al., 1993; Jourard, 1971). Research examining disclosure among strangers has shown that reciprocal disclosures promote positive interpersonal outcomes such as liking, closeness, perceived similarity, and enjoyment (Sprecher, Treger, Wondra, Hilaire, & Wallpe, 2013).

Self-disclosure has also been identified as an efficient way to express similarities with another person (Goodman & Dooley, 1976). Identifying commonalities early in relationships is an important part of building rapport and establishing compatibility (Keller, 2005b; Knapp & Vangelisti, 1992). Research suggests disclosure motivated by similarity is more common among same-sex friendships, in comparison to parental or romantic relationships (Derlega, Winstead, Mathews, & Braitman, 2008). Moreover, research on self-disclosure in organisational mentoring relationships shows mentee perceptions of similarity to their mentor facilitates perceptions of the mentor as a role model, as well as commitment to their career development (Mitchell, Eby, & Ragins, 2015). In youth mentoring, a recent study of mentor perceptions of self-disclosure found mentors use it to express both similarity and honesty with their mentee, characteristics which mentors believe to be important to relationship development (Dutton et al., 2019). These beliefs echo the disclosure-similarity connection described above, and are additionally supported by findings from other research on mentoring relationships where self-disclosure is linked to similarity and honesty (Ahrens et al., 2011; Lester et al., 2019; Liang et al., 2008).

Understanding relational processes using direct observation methods.

Research on mentoring relationship processes have largely focused on mentor and mentee reported perspectives to explore attitudes, beliefs, and experiences of mentoring (Pryce et al., 2020). These perspectives are valuable and have significantly influenced our current understanding of relational processes in mentoring. However, they provide a limited picture

of what occurs in a relationship based on individualised viewpoints. Direct observation provides an outside perspective from which researchers can perceive behaviours those in the relationship may not be cognizant of, reducing the reliance on participants accurately and honestly recalling their behaviour. By capturing data in the moment, direct observation offers a context-laden viewpoint from which dyadic interactions can be analysed. Understanding of dyadic mentoring processes is further enhanced when interactions are video-recorded, as multiple viewings by multiple researchers are possible, allowing rich analysis of mentoring interactions. Moreover, the dyadic nature of mentoring relationship processes are best understood when the dyad is the unit of analysis and direct observation serves this approach well in comparison to individual reports (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009).

In the youth mentoring literature, limited studies have used direct observations to capture interactions in a naturalistic setting. Pryce's (2012) work on attunement offers a pertinent example of the benefits of using observation to understand dyadic interactions. Researchers were able to see how mentors responded in the moment, and then identified micro-processes, such as active listening, eye contact, and perceiving mentee cues, which contribute to attunement (Pryce, 2012). This example illustrates how observing authentic interactions can give insight into the behaviours participants engage in, which may not be captured in self-report data (Johnson & Turner, 2003). Laboratory-based direct observation paradigms provoke a more specific range of mentoring relevant interaction patterns under controlled and standardised conditions. This enables a deeper look into specific mentor-mentee communication processes in a systematic way (Pryce et al., 2020).

Research Rationale

There is increasing interest in the relational processes that occur in youth mentoring relationships (Varga & Deutsch, 2016). Self-disclosure represents one such process which is

broadly accepted as an integral part of interpersonal relationships (Derlega et al., 1993). While the value of self-disclosure has been established by researchers working in other relationship contexts, the distinctive nature of mentor-mentee relationships must also be accounted for. Mentors have been described as a hybrid of parent, therapist, teacher, and friend (Goldner & Mayseless, 2008; Keller & Pryce, 2010) within the context of a helping relationship created for the purpose of mentee development. This unique setting should influence how relational processes manifest in real interactions. For example, while the intragenerational relationships that are the focus of much self-disclosure research (e.g., best friends, romantic partners) are relatively equal, mentoring relationships are firmly oriented to the benefit of one partner—the mentee. Thus, the uniqueness of the mentor-mentee relationship could lead to distinctive mentor disclosure practices.

In this study, I sought to understand self-disclosure as a relational process within the youth mentoring setting using a novel combination of data collection and analysis techniques. My aim was to identify key features of mentor self-disclosure based on observed self-disclosure interactions with mentees. This chapter presents the first empirical study derived from the Youth-Adult Partnerships (Y-AP) Observation Study. This novel research uses laboratory-based direct observation to capture and analyse communication behaviour within youth-adult relationships to identify the interactional features that promote youth thriving (Deane & Dutton, 2019). The direct observation paradigm provides an excellent opportunity to understand self-disclosure. Whilst this is the first time the paradigm has been used in a youth mentoring context, disclosure has been examined using a similar method in other contexts (e.g., romantic relationships; Tan et al., 2012). I analysed observations using modified analytic induction, a technique designed for theory-informed systematic qualitative analysis. Although self-disclosure is a dyadic interaction, this study concentrates on the mentor's role, following the work of Goodman and Dooley (1976), which identified self-

disclosure as a tool that paraprofessionals, like youth mentors, could strategically use to enhance their practice. This study offers an original investigation of communication in mentoring pairs.

Research Design

We designed the Y-AP Observation project to stimulate a variety of mentor and mentee behaviours through joint activities. The video-recorded observation was comprised of three activities, described below. Every pair completed the same activities, in the same order, with the same resources, as part of a standardised procedure (Deane & Dutton, 2019). By recording the interactions, multiple researchers are able to closely view and analyse the interactions, repeatedly for different analytic purposes, and therefore glean as much information as possible from the data.

During the research session, mentors and mentees complete two questionnaires. Prior to observation, they complete baseline questions regarding themselves and their mentoring relationship. Following observation, participants complete a questionnaire focused on how they felt during the session. Due to the artificial nature of direct observation, participants may behave in ways that are not typical for their relationship. For this reason, in the post-observation questionnaire we ask Y-AP mentors to verify the typicality of their observed interactions with the question "to what extent was the discussion realistic and reflect how you would normally discuss this type of issue?" Responses are captured on a 7-point scale (1 = *not at all*, 7 = *very much*).

Typically, laboratory based observations are associated with quantitative research and employ standardised coding of pre-defined constructs of specific behaviours or interactions to measure what is observed in the video (Johnson & Turner, 2003). However, due to the limited corpus of research on mentor self-disclosure, there is minimal evidence of whether

the a priori constructs used for self-disclosure research in other contexts are relevant to mentoring relationships. Consequently, I decided to use modified analytic induction—a qualitative approach for systemically examining phenomenon of interest—to provide rich insight into how mentors disclose to their mentees from a theory-informed perspective.

Activity design.

We collaboratively designed the activities and sought support from an expert in laboratory-based observation research. We intended for the activities to have some similarity to the type of activities mentoring pairs engage in and endeavoured to elicit genuine, realistic dyadic interactions of interest. For the first activity, the mentoring pairs played a card game of their choice for three minutes. This activity primarily served as an icebreaker: participants were able to get used to the space they were in while engaging in a familiar and fun activity. The second activity asked pairs to put together a short creative presentation on any topic, and in any format (e.g., poem, dance, speech), they chose. The pairs had ten minutes to put together their presentation. When their time was up, they had up to two minutes to present their "creation" to the researcher. We intended for this to be a joint activity that put participants under a minor degree of stress (via a pressured situation), thereby eliciting interactions associated with collaboration and support.

The third and final activity, and the one used for analysis in this study, was a prompted discussion about emotions. A researcher (typically me) gave the participating pair seven cards, each with an emotion written on the card (excited, stressed, hurt/sad/upset, anger/frustration, happy, embarrassed, proud; see Appendix D) and matching emoji image. We chose these emotions to be developmentally appropriate for mentees ranging in age from 12 to 18 and relevant to mentoring relationships. The researcher then instructed participants to discuss what these emotions mean to them and/or a time they experienced one or more of

these emotions. Participants could talk about as few or as many of the emotions as they wished, and in any order they wanted, within a seven minute timeframe. We designed this activity to focus on intimate relational interactions involving processes such as disclosure.

Sampling frame.

The Y-AP Observation Study includes dyads in formal and natural mentoring relationships. In this study, I only use data from formal pairs, because I anticipated natural mentors (e.g., older siblings) would likely be subject to different norms of communication with mentees, and my primary interest was in investigating disclosure within the unique relational context of formal youth mentoring. We established two inclusion criteria for mentor-mentee pairs. Firstly, pairs had to have been participating in a program-facilitated relationship for at least three months. This minimum relationship length criterion increased the likelihood we would observe naturalistic, established relationship interactions as part of the growth and maintenance stage of mentoring relationships (Keller, 2005b). Secondly, mentees had to be between 12 and 18 years old, and mentors over 19. This criterion ensured we observed pairs who represented a youth-adult mentoring relationship.

Procedures

Recruitment.

We primarily recruited participants through formal mentoring organisations with whom the research team had a pre-established relationship. We approached programme coordinators to request permission to speak at a programme event to promote the research, and/or distribute information via social media and email. Most programmes had at least one event and I was invited to give a short presentation about the study and collect contact information from any interested mentors or mentees. I then emailed participant information sheets directly to interested parties and advised of the process for booking research sessions. We received 178

expressions of interest from mentors and mentees. From this group, 66 mentors or mentees (37%) responded to the email, and 45 pairs (25%) participated in the research between June 2016 and March 2019. The characteristics of the seven mentoring programmes we recruited participants from is shown in Appendix E.

We recruited three dyads by other means. We advertised the study on Facebook in an effort to recruit natural mentoring pairs. Two pairs who responded to that advertisement were in a formal mentoring relationship and are therefore included in this study. We recruited another pair after the mentor heard about the study at a youth mentoring conference. Three pairs were not included in the analysis due to: (a) a recording error, which resulted in no video of the discussion activity; (b) a mentor requesting their video data be withdrawn after the session was completed; and (c) I knew one mentor personally and was not permitted to analyse their video for ethical reasons. Therefore, the final sample for the study was 42 pairs.

Participant characteristics.

Mentors were predominantly female (*n* = 30, 71.4%), identified as New Zealand European (*n* = 22, 52.4%) and ranged from 20 to 59 years old (*M* = 37.12 years, *SD* = 11.73). Other mentor ethnicities included Other European (*n* = 4, 9.5%), Asian (*n* = 4, 9.5%), Pacific Island (*n* = 3, 7.1%), New Zealand Māori (*n* = 1, 2.4%) and Other (*n* = 2, 4.8%). Six mentors identified with two or more of these ethnicities. Most mentors were in full-time employment (*n* = 27, 64.3%), with four working part-time (9.5%), one (2.4%) unemployed, and nine (21.4%) in tertiary study. Most mentors had received some mentor training (*n* = 37, 88.1%) and previous experience as a mentor (*n* = 22, 52.4%). Mentees ranged in age from 12 to 19[3] (*M* = 16.02, *SD* = 1.57), and were either secondary school (92.9%) or tertiary (7.1%) students. Most relationships were same-sex (*n* = 40, 95.2%) and cross-ethnic (*n* = 35, 83.3%)

[3] One mentee signed up for the study when they were 18 years old but turned 19 just before attending the research session.

matches. Relationship length ranged from three to 26 months (*M* = 8.83 months, *SD* = 5.86). Dyads met twice per month on average (*SD* = 1.14) for 2.43 hours (*SD* = 9.23).

Data collection.

Participating dyads travelled to one of two available relationship research laboratories at the University of Auckland for data collection. Both laboratories consisted of three spaces: an observation room with built-in cameras and microphones, a connected computer suite where video-recording was managed, and an office with a computer for completing questionnaires. Food and drink was available to participants throughout the data collection session, in accordance with local cultural practices.

The data collection sessions took approximately 1.5 hours. We obtained informed participant consent or assent (for those under 16 years) at the start of the session and parental consent in advance of the session when this was required for mentees under 16. Mentors and mentees completed a baseline questionnaire prior to observation. Then, pairs completed the three activities described earlier for the video-recorded portion of the session. For each activity, a researcher explained the instructions for the activity, answered any questions, then left the room. After the participants finished all of the observed activities, they completed a post-observation questionnaire and debrief during which they received two movie vouchers each as *koha*. Where relevant, we provided a voucher to cover parking costs on campus.

Analytical Approach

As noted earlier, video-based direct observations are usually coded using a priori quantitative constructs. However, because such constructs are yet to be developed for self-disclosure in youth-adult relationships, I took an inductive approach to analysis as a starting point for theory development. Inductive analysis assists in developing themes or theories ‘bottom-up’: patterns identified from the data are constructed into a coherent theoretical picture (Bogdan &

Biklen, 2007; Patton, 2015). In this study, I acknowledged that I already had expectations for the data based on my knowledge of relational processes in youth mentoring and self-disclosure, and that this knowledge would inform my understanding of what we observed in these data (Coan & Gottman, 2007). I therefore decided to use modified analytic induction to combine my theory-informed perspective with inductive analysis.

Modified analytic induction (Becker, 1998; Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Gilgun, 1995; Rettig, Tam, & Magistad, 1997) begins analysis with a hypothesis or concept of the phenomenon under investigation. These hypotheses, based on prior theory and research, describe anticipated patterns or themes in the data. They are then systematically reviewed and revised as data are analysed. It is this process of revision that directs the production of "descriptive hypotheses that identify patterns of behaviours, interactions, and perceptions" (Gilgin, 1995, p. 269). That is, while analysis begins with hypotheses in mind, based on previous theory and research, they are subject to change through the process of analysis, resulting in rich, descriptive statements or concepts (Gilgun, 1995; McCarthy & McMahon, 2008). These hypotheses tend to be general, descriptive statements, rather than causal explanations (McCarthy & McMahon, 2008; Rettig et al., 1997). Engle and colleagues (2007) describe their use of a similar technique in observation studies called progressive refinement of hypotheses, arguing that the systematic review and revision of hypotheses during analysis is a robust method of hypothesis development.

Based on my knowledge of youth mentoring and self-disclosure, I anticipated observing two things. First, mentor disclosure would exhibit some of the characteristics consistently associated with self-disclosure, including reciprocity, similarity, valence, and interpersonal disclosure. I expected these basic features of disclosure used in other relationships would appear when mentors conversed with their mentee too. Secondly, I also expected that the youth mentoring context would influence mentor disclosure. I was unsure

exactly how this might manifest, but nonetheless anticipated that I would be able to see how mentors adapted their self-disclosure to fit the context and their mentoring relationship. Therefore, analysis proceeded with two hypotheses:

> H_1: Mentors practice self-disclosure using processes identified in the self-disclosure literature, including reciprocity, similarity, valence, and interpersonal disclosure.
>
> H_2: The unique context of youth mentoring relationships will influence how mentors self-disclose to mentees.

Analysis procedure.

Because modified analytic induction does not prescribe a specific analytical process, I developed a three-step watch-review-revise process to analyse these data. Step one involves watching the videos. I watched a video and took detailed notes of disclosure interactions and other relevant particulars about the conversation or interaction (e.g., what emotions were chosen and by who). At the end of a video, I checked my notes, and added any missing or relevant details, before moving on to the next video. This was repeated for five videos, so by the end of step one, there were five sets of notes, each regarding what occurred within mentor disclosures for an individual video. I decided to conduct step one in blocks of five videos (of seven minutes each), as this could be easily done in one sitting whilst retaining the information from the videos for step two.

The second step is review. After I viewed and wrote notes for each block of five pairs, I collated and reviewed the notes collectively. From this, I detailed common patterns regarding mentor self-disclosure within that group in a separate document. As analysis progressed, I also reviewed the collective notes of all the previous blocks of videos, which allowed me to make connections and develop ideas across all the videos watched to that point. Then, for the third step, I examined the patterns and trends from step two against the

hypothesis and made revisions as necessary. With 42 videos to analyse, I undertook the watch-review-revise process eight times in total (the final two times with six videos instead of five).

Once I completed the analysis for all videos and a revised hypothesis was generated (described in the results below), I met with my supervisors for discussion and critique. My supervisors were familiar with the videos as they had viewed them for another study using the same data, and therefore could knowledgably critique the hypothesis and discuss any potential bias in my analysis. I made refinements based on these discussions, particularly to enhance conceptual clarity, and present those findings here.

Results

Mentor self-disclosure was widespread across the sample. Only one mentor abstained from disclosing through the entire 7-minute emotion activity and discussion. Mentor responses in the post-observation questionnaire show the discussion activity was generally a highly accurate representation of how they talk with their mentee (M = 6.14, SD = 1.00 on a 7-point response scale).

The hypotheses developed at the beginning of analysis revolved around my expectation of observing characteristics of self-disclosure that are well established in the literature across relationship types (H_1), and disclosure practices that are unique to mentors due to the influence of the youth mentoring context (H_2). Following the revise and review process, it was evident that aspects of both hypotheses were observable in the videos but were more interrelated than anticipated. As the first hypothesis posited, some characteristics of self-disclosure were present, but the youth mentoring context added further dimensions which expanded those characteristics. The overarching feature of mentor self-disclosure was that it was mentee-oriented, and mentors enacted this in two ways, both associated with established

characteristics of self-disclosure. First, by practicing meaningful and relevant disclosures in the form of establishing similarity, interpersonal disclosure, and giving advice. Both similarity and interpersonal disclosures are described in the self-disclosure literature, but the youth-adult dynamic of mentoring introduced a practice of advice-giving through disclosure. Second, the mentee-oriented approach of mentors affected the pattern of disclosure interactions. As expected, reciprocity was present but having a mentee-focused orientation also influenced how mentors deviated from this pattern on some occasions. Thus, the original hypotheses were condensed into one: mentors practice self-disclosure in mentee-oriented ways, characterised by disclosures that are relevant and meaningful to the mentee, and shared in the context of a reciprocal and balanced pattern of disclosure. The rest of this section describes how this hypothesis manifested in the observed mentor disclosures, addressing relevant and meaningful disclosures first, then the pattern of reciprocal and balanced disclosure. Modified analytic induction focuses on developing descriptive statements or concepts informed by theory, and therefore the hypothesis represents a common thread through the recorded interactions. However, these behaviours are not universal and notable instances where mentors did not disclose in line with the hypothesis are also described in this section.

Disclosures that are relevant and meaningful to the mentee.

Mentee-focused disclosure typically included content that was relevant and meaningful to the mentee. Relevance refers to the topic of disclosure, and whether it directly connects to the mentee in some way. Such disclosures may include a mentor disclosing about something they already know is pertinent to the mentee (and stating this as part of their disclosure; e.g., “You saw Mamma Mia, didn’t you? I saw the sequel recently”); disclosing about something directly related to a prior disclosure by the mentee during the interaction; or disclosing about the mentee or the mentoring relationship. Meaningful disclosure captures the affective nature

of the disclosure: does it feel personal, as if the mentor is genuinely trying to share a part of themselves with the mentee? This does not necessarily infer intimacy; rather, the disclosure is made *with meaning* by the mentor. Interpreting meaningfulness is often based on visual and vocal cues from the mentor, such as facial expressions and body language. Disclosures that are relevant and meaningful occurred when the focus of the discussion was on the mentee, even though the mentor was disclosing. Across the cohort, mentors exhibited relevant and meaningful disclosures in three ways.

Establishing similarities. Some mentors used the discussion as an opportunity to connect to their mentee by establishing or reinforcing a similarity between them. Typically, they did this in response to a mentee disclosure and these could be superficial or more intimate. For instance, one mentee talked about the places that make her happy, including libraries. In response, her mentor shared "the happy places for me are, I'm a bit like you as well, so like libraries and bookshops, I love walking around bookshops." For another pair, the mentee discussed the subjects she was studying for upcoming national secondary school exams and the mentor disclosed that she also took Calculus.

For other mentors, disclosing about emotional states expressed similarity and normalised feelings. Sometimes, mentors did this in a broad way, like when mentors made generalised statements about their emotional life as an adolescent. One example came from a mentor who shared "From what you've told me, you feel a lot like I felt like when I was your age … I feel like I've been through exactly what you're going through now". While broad, the disclosure reinforces that the mentor can relate to the mentee as she goes through adolescence and sets a tone of understanding.

On other occasions, mentors grounded disclosures about experiencing similar emotions in specific situations. One mentee opened up about feeling upset because he failed

an exam although he studied hard. In response, his mentor admitted "I failed an exam two years ago. And then I had to re-sit it, and that was kind of the same thing as well, you work so hard for something and you really try to get it done, right?" In another example, a mentee talked to his mentor about feeling sad and upset due to some complicated, ongoing family issues. After disclosing, he asked his mentor if he had ever felt that way and his mentor responded:

> Yeah quite a lot man, I used, I used to feel this way when my dad was alive because he wasn't a very good dad, so a lot of the time what he'd do would make me feel quite sad and upset. It would probably also cross with this one as well [points to angry emotion card] because I'd get angry, so yeah, a lot of the time the anger would come out and I'd probably yell and scream and stuff when I was younger, like get real angry and take it out on my mum or my sister and then yeah, it wasn't very good.

This mentor opens up and discloses honestly about having a similar experience to the mentee. Moreover, he connects the emotion under discussion—'hurt/sad/upset'—to another one on the table, highlighting the interconnections between emotions, before disclosing regret in how he dealt with those emotions.

Interpersonal disclosures. A number of mentors made interpersonal disclosures about how they felt about their mentee (e.g., affirming personal qualities of the mentee) or the mentoring relationship (e.g., how the relationship has affected the mentor). These disclosures were typically invoked using the positively-oriented emotions, and it was clear that some mentors wanted to take advantage of the discussion to express their feelings to their mentee. Mentors often made disclosures about how they felt about their mentee in response to choosing the 'proud' emotion. For example, one mentee spoke about her pride in receiving a school award. Her mentor quickly responds:

> I was going to choose that one as well, I'm really proud of you for winning the award because as I said when we were texting, you applied yourself, and you put yourself into this … you step out of your comfort zone and push yourself to do stuff that maybe isn't the easiest and that's why I'm really proud of you.

In addition to disclosures of pride, mentors shared their observations about the mentees character more generally. In most instances, these were short disclosures, affirming qualities like being happy, optimistic, or calm. Another pair talked in detail about how the mentee's openness affected the mentor and the relationship:

> Mentor: "I think with you, you're good at talking about this kind of thing [gestures at emotion cards] which is good, because when I think about it, when you, after we met up and said 'oh this really hurt me' or 'this made me sad', at least you can talk about it because a lot of people bottle that all up and don't want to tell anyone how they're feeling".
>
> Mentee: "You're the only one I talk to about it"
>
> Mentor: "That's good that you feel like you can talk to me about that though, that's good, I love that you share it with me. You actually have a positive impact on my life too, because when you, you talk so openly with me about it, I think I should be more open about it."

This example shows how disclosure can reinforce the value of the relationship to the mentor, illustrating how both mentor and mentee can be positively influenced by one another. In addition, mentor disclosure can act as feedback to the mentee during a time of formative development; in this instance, encouraging the mentee to continue healthy expression of her emotions.

Interpersonal disclosures about the relationship, though less common, were typically warm, expressing genuine joy and happiness at being in the mentoring relationship. For one pair, choosing 'happy' resulted in the mentor saying "I'm so happy that you are here today", followed by a quick agreement from the mentee—"I was about to say this moment right now"—and a hug. In another exchange, a mentor recognised her mentee and the effort she puts in to the relationship:

> I'm proud of you because I feel like you have thrown yourself into this relationship and I love it, it's so cool and I love that you can talk to me about things and you always put yourself on the line and you show up and are present and I appreciate it, so I'm really proud of you and I'm proud to be your mentor.

Giving advice. Mentor disclosure occasionally manifested as advice giving, especially during discussions about being stressed. Mentees often raised issues associated with stress, which were almost always linked to school and academic assessments. Some of the most common mentor responses offered general support and sympathy but did not include any disclosure. However, some responses included mentors situating advice in their own experiences of stress management. For example, one mentee immediately started the activity discussing the stress of upcoming exams and how it was exacerbated by friends and classmates struggling to cope with their own stress. After listening, her mentor responds:

> There are always going to be hard times, like work right now for me is really intense, but I go home and I know I've got you and I've got [partner] and my parents and my dogs and there are always things that will stress you, but you have to keep the balance.

Here, the mentor not only articulates that she experiences stress, but she also describes how the people around her—including the mentee—are a respite to work which helps her relax. In

doing so, she offers both advice and thanks to the mentee. In another example, a mentee talked about managing his work/life balance in the first year of university. His mentor endorsed keeping active, saying "definitely exercise is my key way of staying on top of stress. If I haven't exercised in a few days I notice the difference".

Reciprocal and balanced disclosure.

The second feature identified through my analysis captures a pattern of disclosure interactions between mentor and mentee. Dyads rarely agreed on a specific structure prior to beginning the discussion. Instead, they appeared to fall into a conversational rhythm quickly. Although reciprocity is by definition dyadic, the emphasis here is on the mentor's role and behaviour within those dyadic interactions, and how they relate to mentee-oriented practice.

Participants tended to structure the discussion around taking turns to disclose. Mentors and mentees often switched roles multiple times during the activity, shifting between discloser and listener, and appeared to do so easily and naturally. In a few pairs, it manifested in the form of 'quick-fire' disclosure: short, succinct disclosures made in a to-and-fro style. In one example, the mentor and mentee took turns and made eighteen disclosures in seven minutes, covering all the emotions. As well as reciprocity, disclosure interactions were distinguished by how balanced they were. The balance of the interaction refers to whether participants had relatively equal time to disclose, in relatively equal detail. The reciprocal-balanced pattern of disclosure was typical across the cohort. When combined, reciprocal and balanced disclosure offers space to both mentor and mentee to mutually share information about themselves. For example, within seven minutes one pair disclosed about four emotions and took turns with who disclosed first about each emotion: for 'embarrassed' and 'proud' the mentor went first, while the mentee disclosed first on 'anger/frustration' and 'happy'. The disclosures were of similar length (between 30 and 60 seconds) and when needed, the mentor

prompted the mentee's disclosure in an easy and natural way. For instance, when the mentee suggested he has nothing to be proud of, the mentor said "no way! What about school?", and the mentee quickly agreed and disclosed about that emotion. The mentor made space for the mentee to disclose and knew how to facilitate it.

Deviations from the reciprocal-balanced pattern. There were some pairs, however, where this pattern was less common and instead either the mentor or mentee was the primary discloser throughout the discussion. This most often occurred when mentors focused on eliciting disclosures from the mentee. Typically, these mentors were still active in the conversation, but tended to ask questions or give advice or feedback, rather than disclosing, and thus prioritised the mentee's disclosures during the activity. One mentor exemplified this during a discussion about anger. She made a brief disclosure about experiencing anger while driving, before the mentee recounted a recent incident at school that made her angry. The mentor asked a number of questions, including how the mentee tries to calm down, whether her technique helps, and whether she gets angry often. In response, the mentee elaborated on her disclosure and the mentor received a richer picture of how the mentee experiences anger, as well as communicating interest and care to her mentee. She engaged in similar questioning when they discussed two other emotions during their conversation as well. Occasionally this approach manifested in a mentor peppering the mentee with so many questions that their questioning, rather than mentee responses, became the overarching characteristic of the discussion. These cases suggest that mentors can try to be mentee-focused, but sometimes struggle to actually give the mentee space to disclose.

In some cases, the conversation itself was driven by and dedicated to the mentor's disclosures. For instance, one mentor made several detailed disclosures back-to-back, while her mentee's disclosures were short and summative. For another dyad, a discussion on "embarrassed" began with the mentee taking 30 seconds to describe an incident in class that

embarrassed her. In response, the mentor spent almost half the activity time responding with multiple disclosures about her own experiences at school, public speaking, and clarifying how embarrassed feels for her. On this and other occasions, mentors appeared to simply get carried away with their own thoughts, which extended their disclosures. In contrast, a few mentors dominated the conversation with their disclosures because the mentee was withdrawn from the conversation. In one such example, a mentor prompted a discussion about 'stressed':

> Mentor: What makes you stressed?
>
> Mentee: School.
>
> Mentor: Yeah? How come?
>
> Mentee: Because there's a lot of it.
>
> Mentor: Do you put pressure on yourself?
>
> Mentee: I try not to.
>
> Mentor: It makes me stressed when I open up myself and try to do too much. And when I'm late [giggles] … Sometimes work, probably similar to your school, just like lots to do. And not enough time. And high expectations. You set yourself a standard then want to meet it.

In this case and others like it, the mentor tried to encourage the mentee to talk by asking questions, but when these failed, she would disclose about herself. This pattern was repeated several times during the conversation, resulting in an interaction dominated by mentor disclosure among these pairs. This contrasts with a reciprocal and balanced example described earlier, when a mentor needed only a quick suggestive prompt to facilitate mentee disclosure and keep the activity going.

Mentor responsiveness to disrupted disclosure interactions. While most mentors maintained a consistent pattern of disclosure for the entire discussion, there were a few instances where mentors changed what they were doing partway through the activity in response to a mentee comment. In one illustrative case, a pair took turns disclosing about feeling excited, happy, angry, embarrassed, and proud during the first few minutes of the activity. Following 'proud', the mentee chose 'hurt/sad/upset' and revealed her parents had been disappointed in some of her recent school results, which hurt her feelings. The mentor's approach to the conversation changed immediately, asking thoughtful questions and reinforcing the good work the mentee had done during the school year. Although the discussion to that point was characterised by a reciprocal-balanced pattern of disclosure, the remainder was entirely mentee-focused and the mentor did not disclose at all. This swift response is in contrast with several other mentors who did not adapt their disclosure pattern when their mentee shared something very personal. Responsive adaptations like this were an uncommon occurrence in the dyads observed in this study and therefore represent an exception, rather than the rule. Nevertheless, its presence (and lack thereof in some circumstances) is worth highlighting because it represents an important feature of mentor disclosure—knowing when to withdraw reciprocity—and how it may be indicative of a mentee-focused approach driven by practices such as attunement and responsiveness.

Discussion

There is an ever-increasing interest in identifying specific processes that may contribute to the development of close interpersonal bonds between mentor and mentee. In doing so, mentors and programmes alike may be able to harness specific strategies to improve the effectiveness of mentoring at an individual and programmatic level. While communication is consistently regarded as an essential part of good relationships, we know very little about how mentors and mentees talk to one another. The purpose of this study was to further

explore self-disclosure in youth mentoring relationships by identifying key features of mentor self-disclosure in dyadic interactions observed in a laboratory setting. This paper advances our understanding of relational processes by investigating an interaction in mentoring relationships previously neglected in research (Dutton, 2018; Karcher & Hansen, 2014). It also makes a significant contribution to the youth mentoring literature methodologically by using video-recorded observation data for the first time in the youth mentoring field. Here, I reflect on these contributions in greater detail and how they could be applied by mentors and mentoring programmes.

The research question driving this study was focused on how mentors practice self-disclosure in the context of their mentoring relationships. Prior research has shown mentors intentionally engage in self-disclosure because they believe it has a positive effect on their relationship (Dutton et al., 2019). This study expands on that research by directly observing mentor disclosure in a discussion activity and therefore seeing how this intention is enacted through specific practices. Although mentors differed in their approaches to the activity, the features described in this paper represent the most distinctive disclosure practices across the cohort.

Meaningful and relevant disclosure was widely observed but practiced to varying degrees: some mentors were able to infuse it into every disclosure, while others only used this practice once or twice. Even for those mentors who struggled to engage in self-disclosure of this nature, there were indications mentors were genuinely attempting to be relevant and connected to their mentee. Previous research has indicated mentors purposefully use disclosure to make connections through similarity (Dutton et al., 2019), and I observed such efforts in this study. Such disclosures explicate superficial similarities that can contribute to perceptions of compatibility (Keller, 2005b), and may lay the foundation for future interactions (e.g., going to a bookshop together or asking the mentor for help with Calculus).

Interpersonal disclosures emphasise the relational aspect of mentoring: it gives mentees feedback about how they are valued by the mentor and makes explicit the warm personal regard that is believed to be important to relationship-building (Keller, 2007). At times, such disclosures also surfaced how the mentee enriches the mentor's life. In a formal helping relationship, mentors are expected to make a difference to their mentee, but the reverse can also be true, and disclosures of this nature may facilitate mentee feelings of closeness in the mentoring relationship. While advice did not always come in the form of self-disclosure, doing so can provide an opportunity for mentors to connect with their mentees in an authentic, empathetic way (Spencer, 2006).

Relevance and meaningfulness are described here as interconnected, but many mentor disclosures were disconnected insofar as only one of these dimensions was present. This was most often the case when mentors disclosed in a way that was irrelevant to their mentee. Research examining relationship failures shows that socioeconomic, class, and cultural mismatch can deeply effect mentoring relationships, particularly when mentors place little thought into adjusting their own behaviour to bridge these differences (Spencer, 2007), and mentors have previously indicated an awareness of how this may affect their self-disclosure (Dutton et al., 2019). In some dyads, this mismatch appeared to be at play when mentors disclosed about things such as overseas travel and work problems which mentees did not connect with. The contextual influence of youth mentoring was particularly apparent in these instances. Such disclosures may be standard among adults and therefore feel like an easy way for mentors to pursue a conversation with their mentee. However, these unrelatable disclosures were more likely to stifle than stimulate conversation—what works among adults does not necessarily translate to the mentor-mentee dynamic. Mentors are well-intentioned volunteers and introducing mentees to new things and broadening their horizons is a desirable thing (Rhodes, 2004; Search Institute, 2018). However, this needs to be carefully considered

against distancing mentees by amplifying the economic and social differences, which are often present in mentoring relationships. Mentors who can adjust their disclosures in a mentee-oriented way may have greater success using self-disclosure to connect with their mentee and enrich their mentoring relationship long-term.

The mentee-oriented nature of meaningful and relevant disclosure aligns with the developmental relationship approach advocated by researchers (Karcher & Nakkula, 2010; Li & Julian, 2012; Morrow & Styles, 1995). As noted in Chapter 2, developmental relationships prioritise the mentor-mentee bond as the 'active ingredient' for mentee growth (Li & Julian, 2012; Morrow & Styles, 1995). By fostering a relationship that is mentee-focused, mentors provide a space for mentees to seek help, support, and advice. Disclosure is most commonly associated with cultivating interpersonal bonds (Derlega et al., 1993), which is essential to developmental relationships (Morrow & Styles, 1995). Making meaningful disclosures may be especially useful for this purpose, because its affective quality expresses an opening up and desire for the mentee to know the mentor. Many mentors were able to disclose in this way but combining it with relevant disclosure was more difficult. For instance, some mentors talked about work in a meaningful way—they opened up about feeling stressed, proud of a recent promotion, or concerned about being made redundant—but only a few were able to make it relevant to youth, typically by comparing it to school, and therefore connecting it to an experience familiar to mentees. Disclosures that are relevant enhance the developmental approach because it centres on the mentee. Relevance pushes mentors to ask what they have to share about themselves *that can benefit their mentee.* This may include honesty, trust, similarity, advice, normalising emotions, and positive interpersonal feedback. Relevant disclosure and meaningful disclosure enrich one another. Building developmental relationships is often endorsed by mentoring programmes (MENTOR, 2015), and this type of

disclosure provides a concrete exemplar for applying the principles of developmental relationships in practice.

In addition to the content of mentor disclosure, I was able to see and differentiate patterns of disclosure interactions. Almost all the mentors in this study upheld the norm of reciprocity (Derlega et al., 1993); there was a natural ebb-and-flow, which provided space for mentors and mentees to share equally within the conversation. This is a positive sign as practicing reciprocal disclosure has been associated with positive interpersonal outcomes (Sprecher et al., 2013). Furthermore, I could see how mentors used self-disclosure norms, like reciprocity, to elicit disclosures from mentees who were shy or hesitant in conversation. Deviations from the reciprocal-balanced pattern provided exemplars of attunement, as mentors noticed a shift in the mentee and changed their disclosure style—including abandoning disclosure in some instances—in response to the mentee. This suggests that relational processes in mentoring interact with each other and are not wholly independent.

The findings from this study provide a mentoring-specific description of disclosure that accounts for the unique characteristics of youth mentoring relationships. Some of the features of mentor self-disclosure were consistent with the broader literature on disclosure, such as reciprocity and establishing similarity. However, the mentee-oriented approach which underpinned these features is distinctive because it focuses the intent and value of the disclosure predominantly on the mentee. The closest analogy to this dynamic is in therapist-client relationships, where a therapist typically withholds from disclosure unless it serves to benefit the client or the therapeutic relationship (Dutton, 2018; Hill & Knox, 2002). Because of the contextual influence, mentor self-disclosure is not as one-sided as in therapeutic settings—there is a greater focus on mutuality and friendship which invites an egalitarian attitude towards knowing one another through disclosure.

When self-disclosure interactions are observed and analysed in context, a more useful description of the phenomenon is surfaced. To this end, it is possible to see productive uses for self-disclosure beyond developing close interpersonal relationships. Goodman and Dooley (1976) advocated the strategic use of several communication techniques, including self-disclosure, to improve helping relationships. Their work centred the value of disclosure on establishing similarities to, eventually, facilitate an interpersonal bond (Goodman & Dooley, 1976). Based on the observations and analysis presented here, I argue that self-disclosure is a flexible tool that can enhance mentor practice in several ways. These include normalising emotions and experiences, particularly during adolescence; modelling emotive communication; building self-esteem and identity with interpersonal feedback; providing advice and guidance; and expressing empathy.

This study also makes a significant methodological contribution as the first in the field to use the paradigm of video-recorded, laboratory-based direct observation common in psychology and relationship science but highly under-utilised in the mentoring field (Pryce et al., 2020). Although observation is often used with coding a priori constructs during analysis, my approach in this study was more exploratory in nature. I was able to see interactions as they unfolded, providing access to behaviours that mentors may not recall during an interview or questionnaire. For instance, I expected to see reciprocal patterns of disclosure, but the deviations from this pattern, when I could see mentors making decisions in real time and in context, gave me a richer understanding of mentor self-disclosure. Direct observation is also an effective way to capture dyadic interactions (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009; Pryce et al., 2020). As I said in Chapter 4, analysing dyadic data is essential to advancing the field because mentoring is a relational intervention and its success relies, at least in part, on the social interactions that occur between mentor and mentee (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009). The dyadic nature of self-disclosure—and interpersonal communication more generally—makes it

particularly well suited to this methodology. Although I was focused on mentor self-disclosure in this study, seeing the mentor within the dyadic context provides additional insights into how disclosure functions as part as a broader pattern of communication and interaction.

Limitations.

Using direct observation to analyse mentor-mentee interactions is an innovative step forward for the field, but there are critiques to this methodological approach. It is possible participants did not behave naturally due to the artificial nature of being in the research laboratory and knowing they were being recorded (Johnson & Turner, 2003). We attempted to reduce this risk in several ways. First, by framing the activity as a "normal conversation" which could be conducted in any way pairs decide. By providing participants with flexibility, dyads were free to adjust the conversation and their interaction to feel comfortable. Second, by the time they began the discussion activity, the dyads had been in the laboratory for approximately one hour and had already completed two other activities. Initial guardedness due to the recording equipment likely decreased as they became accustomed to the space. As noted earlier, data from the post-observation questionnaire indicates mentors felt the discussion was a realistic representation of how they would have interact with their mentee, and therefore I can be fairly confident the discussions are representative for this sample. Relationship science researchers have investigated the external validity of laboratory-based direct observation paradigms using similar procedures and find that, while interactions in the lab may tend to be slightly more positive than those in naturalistic settings (in approximately 50% of dyads), they still enable meaningful differentiation of interaction patterns between relationship partners (Heyman, 2001).

A further limitation is that the findings here cannot be linked to specific motivations to disclose or outcomes of disclosure. While educated speculation at the motivation of mentor disclosure is possible based on video evidence, no definitive claims about why mentors do certain things associated with disclosure can be made. While such inferences may be made using self-report data (where mentors may explicitly state the rationale for their behaviour), explanatory statements about motivations or decision-making cannot be made on observation data alone (Johnson & Turner, 2003). Moreover, while certain disclosure interactions are highlighted here as potentially having a positive influence on mentoring relationships, my analysis does not show whether or not disclosure contributes to relationship development or quality.

I also acknowledge that I am not independent from the data. I attended all observation sessions and had considerable interaction with the pairs. Therefore, I was not a neutral or "blind" observer. However, my supervisors were not involved in data collection at any time, and part of their role in the analysis was to minimise bias based on my personal interactions with the participants.

Conclusion and future directions

Generally speaking, relational processes in mentoring are still not well understood (Varga & Deutsch, 2016), but the emergent literature places considerable value on explicating those processes that underlie the formation and maintenance of mentoring relationships. This study advances our understanding of mentor self-disclosure by describing how disclosure—a normative communication strategy that contributes to relationship development—occurs in and is influenced by the youth mentoring context. It also highlights the potential benefits of expanding our understanding of mentor skills or strategies that can cultivate close and trusting relationships with mentees. In doing so, programmes can provide mentors with the

training and support to develop interpersonal skills that are advantageous for mentoring practice. Embracing research on relational processes, mentor-mentee communication, and the use of direct observation methods would push our collective understanding of youth mentoring forward.

CHAPTER EIGHT.

DISCUSSION.

The purpose of this thesis was to provide an in-depth examination of mentor self-disclosure in formal youth mentoring relationships. The mentor-mentee relationship is at the heart of youth mentoring and as a result, there is an ever-growing body of work dedicated to understanding how to establish close and enduring mentoring relationships. Relationship quality is significant because research shows that higher quality relationships are associated with better outcomes for youth (Bayer et al., 2015; Chan et al., 2013; Goldner & Mayseless, 2009; Zand et al., 2009). Given the status of youth mentoring as a popular yet modestly effective intervention (DuBois, Holloway, et al., 2002; DuBois et al., 2011; Raposa, Rhodes, et al., 2019), identifying and understanding the processes that facilitate quality relationships has taken on additional emphasis.

Part of the rationale for this thesis was that there was no contemporary research dedicated to self-disclosure in mentoring relationships, despite the swathe of literature about the benefits of disclosure for interpersonal relationships in other fields. Within the mentoring literature, there is a scattering of incidental findings regarding self-disclosure. These findings hint that mentor self-disclosure occurs in and contributes to mentoring relationships, but a substantive and coherent story about mentor self-disclosure was missing. In contrast, relationship research has engaged in significant theoretical development (e.g., Altman & Taylor, 1973; Reis & Shaver, 1988) and investigated self-disclosure in a variety of relationship contexts (e.g., Bauminger et al., 2008; Finkenauer et al., 2004; Tan et al., 2012), resulting in a consensus that self-disclosure is an important part of relationship development

and maintenance over time. In particular, the link between self-disclosure and close, trusting relationships seemed germane to youth mentoring.

Therefore, I endeavoured to apply these ideas from relationship science to the youth mentoring context. I narrowed my thesis down to three key enquiries about the nature, effect, and practice of mentor self-disclosure in formal youth mentoring relationships:

1: To describe the nature of mentor self-disclosure that occurs in youth mentoring relationships;

2: to examine the link between mentor self-disclosure and relationship quality; and

3: to identify key features of mentor self-disclosure based on observed self-disclosure interactions with mentees.

These aims were designed to elicit understandings of how disclosure in the mentoring context aligns with what is known about disclosure elsewhere, but also how it might diverge due to the unique hybrid nature of the mentor-mentee relationship. In this concluding chapter, I summarise the findings from each study in this thesis, then detail how they collectively contribute to the field of youth mentoring through new knowledge about self-disclosure, as well as the use of innovative methods. I also describe some implications for practice and research, with an emphasis on how these findings could inform mentor training, before offering my final reflections on this thesis.

The study described in Chapter 5 addressed the first research question, whereby mentor responses to the MSDI provided insight into the prevalence and content of their self-disclosure. All 54 mentors in the sample reported disclosing about at least a few items, and the average number of items disclosed—24 out of 44 items—suggest mentor self-disclosure is common and traverses a fairly broad range of topics. Mentors reported disclosing on a variety of topics, with hobbies and school among the most popular. Mentors also reported

disclosing about intimate topics associated with risk behaviours: disclosures about cigarette and alcohol use were noteworthy, with more than half of the mentors disclosing their attitudes about using them, but even disclosures about use of other drugs, notably marijuana, were reasonably common. Thematic analysis of qualitative responses in the MSDI showed some mentors used self-disclosure for purposeful ends, typically the development of positive relationship characteristics such as honesty and establishing similarity. They experienced challenges regarding a perceived lack of mentee interest in their lives, as well as culture clash. Nonetheless, they felt self-disclosure overall had a positive effect on their mentoring relationship.

As shown in the published literature review in Chapter 3, self-disclosure has long been associated with the development and maintenance of close, trusting interpersonal relationships. This was the focus of my second research question and addressed in the quantitative study described in Chapter 6. I gathered self-report data from mentors and mentees to ascertain whether that association was present in youth mentoring relationships. Quantitative analysis showed that mentor self-disclosure indeed made a significant contribution to mentor and mentee reported relationship quality. For mentees, self-disclosure was the only significant predictor of relationship quality among the variables I tested. It seems that mentor disclosure is interpreted positively by mentees, and enhances their perception of the quality of their mentoring relationship. For mentors, self-disclosure was significant in terms of a bivariate association with mentor perceptions of relationship quality, but overshadowed by a shared association with mentor sex, with female mentors significantly more likely to rate their relationship highly in comparison to male mentors.

The findings from the descriptive and quantitative studies indicated mentors were commonly engaging in self-disclosure and that this was beneficial for their mentoring relationships. However, the insights derived from mentor and mentee self-report data were

limited; in particular, they did not show what disclosure interactions actually look like, and therefore lacked a dyadic context-laden picture that could deepen our understanding of mentor self-disclosure. To attend to this, I used laboratory-based direct observations to explore how mentors practice disclosure in a discussion-based activity with their mentees in a controlled setting, as described in Chapter 7, which answered my third research question. From these observations of mentor self-disclosure in 43 pairs, it was evident that many mentors approach self-disclosure from a mentee-oriented position, whereby their disclosure behaviours were influenced by their efforts to be responsive to their mentee. This was expressed through both the content and pattern of self-disclosure.

Collectively, these findings provide the first substantive and focused look at mentor self-disclosure in contemporary youth mentoring literature. They showed that many of the expectations based on self-disclosure literature in other contexts are relevant to the mentoring context, but also that the unique relational context has some bearing on how mentors disclose. While each of the results chapters examined a specific research question and reflected on these findings in turn, there are also broader insights to be discussed.

Advancing the Field: Insights into Self-Disclosure

In this thesis, I explored a relatively unexamined aspect of youth mentoring relationships, and designed this research to make both knowledge-based and methodological contributions to the youth mentoring literature. Self-disclosure is a phenomenon well studied in other contexts, but the dearth of research within the mentoring setting represented a significant gap in the literature. The insights that can be drawn from this research include how mentors perceive self-disclosure and how this might influence their practice; how self-disclosure may be linked to other relational processes in mentoring; and how the responsibilities of being a mentor and role model might influence self-disclosure.

In the current research, participating mentors overwhelmingly perceived disclosure positively. It is likely that this belief—along with the strong conversational norms regarding disclosure among adults—encourages them to disclose. The findings show mentor self-disclosure as normative and widespread, and perhaps more intimate, than previous literature suggests. Every mentor who completed the MSDI, over 100 in total, indicated they engaged in some disclosure, and the mean and standard deviation of both samples painted a consistent picture regarding the amount of self-disclosure mentors were sharing with their mentee. There was, of course, variation: some mentors disclosed a lot, others very little; some disclosed only superficially, others waded into more intimate territory. Nonetheless, the findings align with the general conception of self-disclosure as a fundamental communication strategy in interpersonal relationships across diverse contexts. They also provide a useful comparison point with the literature on therapist disclosure which I reviewed in Chapter 3. Therapist self-disclosure has been characterised as uncommon but widespread (Edwards & Murdock, 1994; Hill & Knox, 2002); that is, most therapists use disclosure, but they do so only on rare occasions. It seems mentors engage in more disclosure than therapists do, perhaps as a result of being in a less hierarchical and more egalitarian relationship (Keller & Pryce, 2010), where mutual self-disclosure is acceptable. Identifying some of these basic characteristics about the prevalence and nature of mentor self-disclosure serves as a first, evidence-informed step into understanding how disclosure interactions work within a mentoring relationship.

With the findings of this thesis, I also provide evidentiary support that mentor beliefs about the positive influence of disclosure are well-placed, indicating that self-disclosure is associated with relationship quality for both mentors and mentees. For mentees, the picture is relatively straightforward: the more their mentors disclosed about themselves, the more mentees perceived their relationships as being of high quality. This supports findings from

previous studies where mentees gave their perspective on mentor disclosure. For instance, youth in foster care described how mentor disclosure helped them feel that they could trust and open up to their mentor (Ahrens et al., 2011), and mentees in a CBM programme valued mentors disclosing about experiences that mirrored their own and in doing so, normalised their feelings (Lester et al., 2019). It seems then, that when done right, mentees interpret mentor disclosure as helpful and personal, and this has flow-on effects in terms of how they evaluate their mentoring relationship. Mentor responses in this thesis were more complicated, as self-disclosure was overpowered by other predictors, notably sex, in the regression analysis. In Chapter 6, I speculated as to why this might be the case, suggesting that mentors may perceive disclosure as simply a part of doing their job as a mentor rather than a reflection of having a close interpersonal relationship with their mentee. More research is needed to replicate the findings and ascertain the reasons for these differences.

These findings stand in contrast to another study which found mentees reported lower relationship quality when mentors disclosed (Herrera, 2004). However, these divergent findings may be attributed to two sampling differences. First, the earlier study involved SBM pairs, while this thesis predominantly involved CBM pairs. The tendency for SBM to be more structured and oriented towards academics may mean mentor disclosure feels less relevant to mentees (Karcher et al., 2006; Karcher & Nakkula, 2010). SBM is also increasingly associated with instrumental mentoring relationships (McQuillin et al., 2013), and as such, there is less overt emphasis on the relationship itself in comparison to CBM, where developing the mentor-mentee bond is prioritised and self-disclosure may be more openly integrated into the relationship. Second, there is an important developmental difference in the two samples. Mentees in the SBM sample were younger and perhaps not developmentally ready to be receptive to mentors sharing information about themselves (Herrera, 2004). Mentor disclosure may be especially problematic for youth if the information they disclose

challenges their perception of their mentor, as was the case in Liang and colleagues (2008) study with natural mentors. In the realm of psychotherapy, therapists working with adolescents can contribute to the process of de-idealisation and identity formation through self-disclosure (Frank et al., 1990). However, younger children may not be developmentally ready to see the flaws in the adults they trust and look up to. Also, the mentees in this thesis were more likely to be in mid-adolescence, by which time self-disclosure has emerged as an essential part of relationship development (Camarena et al., 1990; Radmacher & Azmitia, 2006).

As well as providing an improved understanding of self-disclosure, the findings from this thesis make an important addition to the literature on relational processes in youth mentoring. The focus on processes in mentoring is gathering momentum, largely because of their potential for driving high quality mentoring relationships (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009; Varga & Deutsch, 2016). Self-disclosure is a unique process worth examination, but two processes discussed in the literature deserve additional thought in relation to self-disclosure. First, the mentee-oriented approach to disclosure described in Chapter 7 is reminiscent of Pryce's (2012) work on attunement. Highly attuned mentors demonstrate an awareness of their mentees' needs and are able to respond flexibly to those needs. Attunement is essential to good mentoring practice in a wide variety of interactions, and attuned mentors may be better at engaging in relevant, meaningful, and reciprocal disclosure because of their capacity to perceive and meet their mentee's needs, even though self-disclosure is an interaction ostensibly about the self. The second process is mutuality, whereby the mentor and mentee co-construct their relationship through bidirectional engagement and knowing of one another (Keller, 2007; Lester et al., 2019). Mentors and mentees perceive self-disclosure as an important part of this, and in particular, mentor self-disclosure creates spaces for empathy and advice (Lester et al., 2019). This was observed among the dyads in Chapter 7. The role of

self-disclosure in developing mentoring relationships is heightened, given mutuality is a pillar of quality mentoring relationships according to the most influential model of youth mentoring to date (Rhodes, 2004). Acknowledging these links across studies is useful for conceptualising relational processes in the mentoring context. While research generally focuses on one specific process—as I have done here with disclosure—within a mentoring relationship these processes are more likely to move a relationship forward through their interconnections.

Exploring self-disclosure tells us not only about the relationship, but also something about the mentor. The mentor role is unique. Some of the characteristics which make mentoring so distinctive, such as the youth-adult dynamic in a formalised, helping relationship, result in a mentor being a hybrid of various other relationship roles (Goldner & Mayseless, 2008; Keller & Pryce, 2010; see Chapter 5). As such, they may engage with mentees in a way that resembles a family member, a friend, teacher, or coach. More likely, they do all of these things, shifting between these roles and adjusting their behaviour throughout the relationship, depending on what is most appropriate or helpful for the mentee at a given time. The particular power dynamic of mentoring, which is both vertical (like a teacher/student relationship) and horizontal (like a friendship; Keller & Pryce, 2010), likely affects how mentors interact with their mentee. Thus, we cannot expect mentors to disclose as they do to their friends or other adults. The findings in this thesis suggest mentor self-disclosure is impacted to some degree by this role and the expectations and responsibilities associated with it.

In the self-disclosure literature, one strong motivator to disclose is the need to be known by the other person (Derlega et al., 1993; Omarzu, 2000). However, mentors probably do not enter mentoring relationships with a desire to be known by their mentee. Their purpose is to help, as indicated by research regarding mentor motivations (Caldarella, Gomm, Shatzer,

& Wall, 2010), so while some disclosure is inevitable and necessary, whether or not their mentee truly knows their deep and authentic self is likely less important to them. Instead, based on the findings from this thesis, I suggest that it seems more probable that some mentors approach their relationship with strategically focused intentions on helping a young person and think carefully about what to disclose, letting what is best for their mentee drive their disclosure. It is this approach which I termed mentee-oriented disclosure in my third study. It draws on the youth-centred approach advocated in developmental and instrumental relationship styles (Karcher & Nakkula, 2010) to understand how the underlying principle of these styles can drive a specific type of interaction. Youth mentoring relationships are intended to be an additive to the lives of young people, through the provision of support, guidance, and adult interactions which facilitate youth development. Having an awareness of this role may influence mentor behaviour across multiple interaction types, not just self-disclosure. Disclosure is a good example of how mentors can adjust their behaviour to suit the role and the responsibilities that come with it.

Exploring mentor self-disclosure has also given insights into the responsibilities mentors have to other people in the mentoring process, like their mentees' families and the mentoring programme. Family members put considerable trust into mentors who, in the context of formal youth mentoring, are strangers being brought into the life of their young person to make a difference (Spencer & Basualdo-Delmonico, 2014). The relationship between mentors and mentee families also makes an important contribution to the longevity and success of the mentoring relationship (Spencer, 2007; Spencer et al., 2011), so respecting that trust is vital. This respect can influence how mentors self-disclose. As shown in Chapter 5, several mentors were mindful of social and cultural differences they had with their mentee's family and withheld from disclosing certain things about themselves to avoid disrespecting or offending the family. This can create its own tensions: there may be times

when mentees could benefit from hearing a different perspective, or where avoidance or concealment could jeopardise the mentor-mentee relationship. In the therapeutic literature reviewed in Chapter 3, I noted how therapists can be a source of good information for youth, and using self-disclosure can be a particularly effective technique for therapists working with adolescents (Papouchis, 1990; Simon, 1990). Moreover, for therapists working with mistrusting adolescents, the use of redirection or avoidance techniques in response to personal questions being asked of them can worsen the suspicion young people have of therapists (Gaines, 2003; Papouchis, 1990; Psychopathology Committee of the Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, 2001). A similar tension which arose in this thesis concerned disclosure of sensitive topics, with a mentor disagreeing with the directive of the mentoring programme to avoid disclosure on substance use. I will unpack this point in more detail later in this chapter, but it is worth noting here that mentors do have a responsibility to the mentoring programme and as this example shows, decisions about disclosure can prove to be challenging ground for mentors.

Role modelling is an important function of youth mentors, as mentees may see their mentor as exhibiting characteristics, behaviours, or achievements they would like to emulate (Evans & Ave, 2000; Rhodes, 2004). Previous research has shown that important non-parental adults, such as mentors, disclosing their disapproval of participating in risk behaviours was a protective factor for youth misconduct (Beam et al., 2002). Here, the findings show that disclosures about substance use were not uncommon. It is not possible to glean specific details about these disclosures from the data: for instance, it is not known whether these disclosures confirmed mentors engaged in substance use, or were expressed as cautionary tales to avoid such behaviours. Comments from the qualitative portion of the MSDI showed that some mentors believe honesty about these matters are important to establishing trust, as well as being an example that young people can learn from and

overcome mistakes (Dutton et al., 2019). Moreover, even with directives from the mentoring programme to avoid such disclosures, some mentors will be guided by their own instincts and disclose accordingly. This presents a double-edged sword where their honesty, which should be beneficial to the mentee and the mentoring relationship, may unintentionally role model maladaptive behaviours. The lessons here are complex and require focused research attention to more fully understand not only how mentor disclosures of this nature may impact mentees, but also how mentoring programmes can best support mentors to make the best choices for themselves and their mentee.

Advancing the Field with Novel Methods

The use of laboratory-based direct observations is an innovative step for the youth mentoring field. While this paradigm has been used extensively in relationship science (Pryce et al., 2020), youth mentoring research has only rarely used observation techniques, and to my knowledge, this has always been based in the field, rather than in a laboratory. As noted in Chapters 4 and 7, there are some advantages to direct observation in a laboratory. In particular, the environment can be standardised and controlled, and the interactions can be video-recorded. This can enable more refined comparison across pairs because they are all engaged in the same task, in the same space. Moreover, their interactions can be viewed by researchers on demand and at the same time, even if the data is collected over several years, as was the case in this thesis. This type of observation was especially well suited to exploring self-disclosure. I was able to develop an activity specifically to provoke self-disclosure, and consequently capture a wealth of data of disclosure-oriented interactions. In this thesis, I have focused on how mentors practice self-disclosure, but the nature of video-recorded data—that it can be viewed repeatedly, on demand, in perpetuity—means the same data can be revisited to analyse the same interactions from mentee or dyadic perspectives, or with specific elements of disclosure in mind. As such, this thesis represents a glimpse into what is possible

with laboratory-based observation and makes a strong case for expanding its use in youth mentoring, despite some of the noted barriers regarding resourcing and expertise, as articulated by Pryce and colleagues (2020) and in earlier chapters of this thesis.

This thesis also paired a unique data collection method with an uncommon approach to analysis. In relationship science research, laboratory-based observation data is typically analysed quantitatively, with multiple coders using pre-determined coding schedules using theory-driven constructs to code interactions (e.g., Tan et al., 2012) or using micro-analytic schedules focused on micro-expressions, tones and verbal content (Coan & Gottman, 2007). However, with the dearth of research on self-disclosure in the mentoring context, I had to think carefully about what the data offered and how I, as a researcher, could maximise its usefulness. In my view, the videos represented an opportunity to examine self-disclosure in a deep, qualitative way, not dissimilar to how a researcher may approach analysis of field observations. The lack of knowledge about mentor self-disclosure invited an exploratory approach. However, I also had theory-informed expectations about what I would likely see in the videos. Therefore, I sought an analytic approach which married the rich, exploratory perspective of inductive qualitative analysis, with the theoretical knowledge that would influence how I perceived interactions during analysis. Modified analytic induction met this criteria. Wholly qualitative approaches to analysis are still underrepresented in youth mentoring, and my use of modified analytic induction in this thesis is intended to offer another look at how qualitative research can illuminate relationship processes in order to better understand what happens when mentors and mentees interact with one another.

This thesis also introduces two new measures to the youth mentoring literature. The MSDI is a substantial contribution, tailored to the youth mentoring context whilst drawing on the knowledge already available as part of the long history of research on self-disclosure within other contexts, such as therapy. The formalised youth-adult dynamic of mentoring

relationships meant that published measures designed for adult only relationships (like the original Self-Disclosure Questionnaire; Jourard, 1971) were not appropriate and likely had limited usefulness for drawing out how youth mentor self-disclosure might be uniquely different to other contexts. In particular, I wanted the MSDI to tap into the types of topics that might be relevant to youth mentoring due to the developmental period adolescent mentees are in. The items regarding risk behaviours showed that many mentors are having discussions with their mentee about these behaviours and some degree of disclosure is occurring as a result. I return to the implications of this for programmes and future research later in the chapter. Furthermore, using the MSDI in separate studies meant I had an opportunity to refine the measure following its pilot testing. Although it would likely benefit from further revisions (there may be items that could be included or rephrased, for instance), it is the only instrument designed specifically for measuring mentor self-disclosure within the youth mentoring context.

As described in Chapters 4 and 7, the requirements of the Y-AP Observation Study necessitated the development of a new relationship quality measure as well. It is distinct from those already available, notably by tapping exclusively into the relational bond and being suitable (and standardised) for mentors and mentees. The conceptualisation of relationship quality in the youth mentoring literature is evolving and varied, ranging from single item measures of characteristics like closeness to questionnaires with multiple factors (e.g., Harris & Nakkula, 2003a, 2003b). Missing from the various measures available for capturing relationship quality however, was one that directly and specifically accounted for the emotional relationship and was appropriate for use by both partners. This was pertinent for my purposes since self-disclosure has previously been associated with these interpersonal feelings, rather than external influences which are included in some measures of relationship quality (e.g., Rhodes, Schwartz, Willis, & Wu, 2014). I contend that the emotional bond that

is essential to relationship quality is likely shared by mentor *and* mentee. Both parties are able to understand whether they trust and like the other, or feel closeness in the relationship. Using relationship quality as a comparative outcome, as I did in Chapter 6, is made more meaningful when both sets of respondents are reporting on the same relationship characteristics in the same way.

There are two further distinctive characteristics of this research which are worth highlighting. First, participants were recruited from different programmes. This is unusual in mentoring research, which is typically programme-based and often evaluative in nature. However, the Y-AP Observation Study provided an opportunity to examine dyads from multiple programmes, and as a result, the data tell us about mentoring relationships in a more general sense, rather than being a reflection of relationships in a specific programme which may have processes or practices which make their dyads distinctive from others. That is, the data are—to some degree—de-contextualised, so the findings represent the dyads, rather than the programme. The second distinctive characteristic is the use of dyadic data from the observation study. This is still fairly rare in youth mentoring research, which tends to collect data from mentors and mentees (and other participants, such as teachers or family members) independently. Although I took a mentor-centric position in analysis, the dyadic interactions informed how I interpreted what the mentor was doing. Interpreting, for example, whether a disclosure was relevant to the mentee was at least partially dependent on how the mentee responded. Self-disclosure is not a singular, discrete event. Rather, it is best understood as part of a pattern of interaction, necessitating dyadic data which captures both the discloser and recipient to fully comprehend the meaning of the interaction.

Implications for Mentor Training and Practice

Through my work in this thesis, I have made knowledge- and method-based contributions to the youth mentoring literature that have associated implications for future practice and research. My pragmatic, applied approach to research underscored my motivation to gather data about self-disclosure which could usefully inform mentor training regarding communication in youth mentoring relationships. Inspired by the work of Goodman and Dooley's (1976) help-intended communication, later described as mentor "talking-tools" (Karcher & Hansen, 2014, p. 66), I wanted to provide some evidence-based guidelines for harnessing the power of self-disclosure in the mentoring context in a safe and ethical way that mitigates potential risk. This was largely directed towards gathering data on the practice of self-disclosure which could be applied by mentors and programmes.

As noted earlier, mentors reported that programme training and support was helpful, although there were also hints that programme directives about disclosure—particularly about what is and is not appropriate to disclose—can contradict mentor instincts about what is best for their mentee and the mentoring relationship. Respondents did not provide much information about how self-disclosure was addressed by programme training. For instance, it is unknown whether programmes advised mentors to avoid sensitive topics, or, on occasions where mentees ask mentors about sensitive topics directly, whether mentors should provide ambiguous responses or redirect mentee questions. While self-disclosure on non-intimate topics is encouraged by programmes to build rapport and form connections with mentees (Keller, 2005b), being in an enduring close relationship may increase the likelihood of sensitive disclosure being offered or requested, particularly in the context of adolescence when mentees are looking to mentors, as trusted adults, to help them navigate the increasing complexities of transitioning into adulthood. In Chapter 5, I suggest mentoring programmes may try to assuage potential problems by taking a risk-averse position and instructing

mentors to avoid disclosures on certain topics, rather than a more comprehensive approach which would consider a variety of different responses and explore the complexity of disclosure in a fuller way. The lack of research on mentor self-disclosure also means the field lacks quality information about how programmes perceive disclosure and what they train mentors to do.

This is one space where it is particularly valuable to consider lessons from psychotherapy. The extensive training that therapists have mediate some of the issues that may arise from self-disclosing in a youth-adult helping relationship. However, the expectations of therapy also mean therapists are less likely to be expected to disclose in comparison to mentors, where the hybrid nature of the mentoring role blurs lines of family, friend, teacher, and therapist and therefore gives more scope to disclosures being an appropriate and normal part of communication. Without adequate training, mentors may rely on the norms of disclosure among adults to guide their expectations. This was evident when several mentors in this study commented on their concerns about a lack of mentee interest in their lives. Perhaps more importantly, therapists have the skills and knowledge to know when different disclosure strategies are most appropriate: when will a young person respond favourably to being redirected, or be satisfied with an ambiguous answer, or have a real need for honesty from their mentor? (Gaines, 2003; Papouchis, 1990) Mentors have to make these same decisions spontaneously, but without the training that therapists have. Clearly, more research is needed to understand the dynamics of sensitive disclosures, from mentor, mentee, and programme perspectives. Based on the findings of this thesis, I would argue that mentors would benefit from having multiple evidence-informed strategies which can be employed appropriately and confidently. This would include programme support and follow-up, so disclosure, even on sensitive topics, can be advantageously woven into the fabric of mentoring relationships.

Future Directions for Research

This thesis illuminates several gaps where more research is needed to more fully comprehend the function and effect of self-disclosure in mentoring relationships. Some of the ideas presented here have been outlined in the results chapters, either as limitations or future directions. Here, I explore them in greater depth to fully express the potential for interesting and innovative research on self-disclosure and communication in youth mentoring.

Based on the widespread practice of mentor self-disclosure and the positive impact it has on relationship quality, the findings of this thesis provide a rationale for thinking more carefully and purposefully about how to maximise the benefits of disclosure in the youth mentoring context. It provides some evidentiary basis for training and supporting mentors in their disclosures. In particular, mentors should be encouraged to filter their disclosures through a mentee-oriented approach, drawing on the principles of developmental relationships, like youth-centeredness (Karcher & Nakkula, 2010; Li & Julian, 2012; Morrow & Styles, 1995), where the information they share about themselves has relevance and meaning to their mentee. More broadly, the findings here provide an impetus to look more closely at communication strategies in youth mentoring. Communication is an integral part of relationship development and is therefore a popular topic for programme training (Kupersmidt & Rhodes, 2014). However, little research on communication has been conducted in the mentoring context. This may be due, in part, to the lack of dyadic research methods employed by the youth mentoring field. Communication is a dynamic process and direct observation is well suited to capturing and analysing dyadic data.

I contend that youth mentoring would benefit from having a theoretical tool kit of communication strategies and techniques. Goodman and Dooley's (1976) six micro-skills for paraprofessionals provide a good base from which to grow, as shown by Karcher and

Hansen's "talking-tools" (2014, p. 66). Both of these perspectives take a skill-based approach, breaking communication specific competencies germane to mentoring relationship development and able to be taught effectively and efficiently by mentoring programmes. This approach also fits into the "relational competence" (Nakkula & Harris, 2014, p. 47) element of relationship quality. Relational competence refers to the skills mentors have for facilitating relationship development, such as youth-centeredness and empathy. Self-disclosure and various other communication strategies would fit into that category, effectively linking communication and relationship quality at a theoretical level.

The findings described in Chapter 5 showed that mentors are engaging in disclosures about some intimate and potentially difficult topics, possibly to a greater degree than mentoring programme staff might expect. Once again, additional research on whether this pattern holds across a larger sample would be beneficial, but even the results of this study should be a reminder to mentoring programmes that mentors can and do disclose about sensitive topics, and to consider whether the programme fully equips and supports mentors to deal with such disclosures if they occur. Little has been written about the ethics of youth mentoring (Rhodes, Liang, & Spencer, 2014). However, the prospect of disclosures about sensitive topics raises a complicated set of questions about boundaries, role modelling, and both the benefits and risks associated with such disclosures. This is even more pertinent when mentees are moving through adolescence, as they are exposed to an array of new experiences, emotions, and opportunities, some of which pose real risks—risks adolescents often like to take.

Similarly, previous research has demonstrated the disapproval of risk behaviours by natural mentors acts as a protective factor for youth (Beam et al., 2002). It seems logical to look more closely at whether this same effect occurs in formal youth mentoring. It would also be insightful to explore how mentoring programmes perceive mentor self-disclosure,

especially about risk behaviours, and how these perceptions influence mentor training. Concerns about mentors maintaining appropriate boundaries with mentees have been raised previously (Rhodes et al., 2009), but lack sufficient nuance and depth to meaningfully unpack how disclosures about sensitive topics—including substance use and other risk behaviours—may have multiple, varying effects on mentoring relationships. Furthermore, discussion on the potential for a positive influence stemming from such disclosures, such as increased trust and closeness, is unheard of. With this in mind, mentee families would provide a compelling perspective on mentor self-disclosure. Some mentors do make decisions about disclosure based on how their mentees' families may react to certain disclosures. Hearing from mentee families about their perspective on mentor disclosure would be insightful and necessary to ensure that mentors avoid disclosure which could be hurtful or offensive.

In Chapters 5, 6, and 7, I argued for more research on various aspects of disclosure, including studies with larger samples, mentee perspectives on their own and their mentor's self-disclosure, and dyad-centric analysis. Quantitative analysis similar to that conducted in Chapter 6 would benefit from having a larger sample that increases statistical power. Furthermore, as the knowledge base of self-disclosure in mentoring grows, we may have sufficient theoretical and empirical grounds to adequately adapt or develop quantitative coding guidelines which could provide valuable information regarding how disclosure works in mentoring relationships with regards to its predictive validity, which would be further enhanced with increased sample size and sufficient power to detect effects. Mentee perspectives on mentor self-disclosure are an important next step, and a particular emphasis on differences depending on gender, ethnicity, and developmental stage would be welcome so mentors can use disclosure to best meet the needs of their mentee. Mentee perspectives on mentor self-disclosure is imperative to fully comprehend the effect it has on the mentoring relationship, but equally important is research on how mentees disclose; for instance, what

encourages mentees to disclose to their mentor? What are they hoping to get from their mentor following disclosure? The value of dyadic research has been discussed elsewhere (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009) and is re-iterated here. Mentoring relationships are spaces for dynamic, interconnected, dyadic interactions and data which captures both sides together can only further our collective understanding of what happens in mentoring.

I have also discussed the potential for direct observation methods to elevate youth mentoring research (see Chapters 4 and 7). Observing pairs in action provides a fresh perspective on what happens when mentors and mentees are together. Like dyadic data, direct observation captures the dynamic element of interpersonal interactions, and where the unfolding of real-time behaviours—in the field or laboratory—can bring new insights to how we think about quality mentoring relationships (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009; DuBois et al., 2006; Pryce et al., 2020). The observation study in this thesis provides a glimpse into the possibilities that this methodology offers. Direct observation represents a new, innovative frontier of research in youth mentoring and the field could make significant strides in our understanding of relational processes, and other relevant phenomenon, by embracing that potential.

On several occasions in this thesis, I have raised the issue of how age and developmental needs of mentees could influence how they interpret and respond to mentor self-disclosure. These differences have been articulated previously in the context of natural mentoring relationships (Liang et al., 2008), with younger mentees experiencing discomfort when they found out their mentor had engaged in problem behaviours, whereas mentees in mid- and late-adolescence interpreted their mentors disclosure as a sign of honesty and trust. For this reason, I included mentee age in the bivariate correlations in for my second study, but there was no significant relationship with self-disclosure or relationship quality. The mentees in that sample were mostly clustered in mid-adolescence, with only a few in early or

late adolescence, and therefore the lack of age variation likely contributed to the null effects. Nonetheless, it is an important consideration that should be explored with greater focus in future research.

This thesis also offers limited findings regarding gender and self-disclosure. There has long been a gender question in terms of self-disclosure: historically, females have been described as more likely to self-disclose to others and there is a considerable amount of research to support that assertion (Dindia, 2002). However, other studies have questioned this characterisation of gender and self-disclosure, and argued that males disclose as much as females do, particularly at the start of a relationship (Derlega, Winstead, & Greene, 2008). Interestingly, in my analysis that accounted for gender, the association was with relationship quality and not self-disclosure. Both of the samples used in this thesis had more females than males, and a sample with a greater proportion of male mentors may find divergent results. It is also worth noting that there was no discernible gender difference in the observation data. Nonetheless, the gender-disclosure dynamic would be worth exploring in a future study, not only comparing mentors, but also at the mentee (if, for instance, mentees of different genders disclose differently) and dyadic (e.g., same- vs cross-gender matches) level.

At the beginning of this thesis, I acknowledged that this work is embedded in a specific cultural context which is different to that of most research on youth mentoring. I also remarked in Chapter 5 that culture could influence self-disclosure, as various researchers have argued it is more common in Western social life, in comparison to communities with a collectivist orientation (Adams et al., 2004; Sue & Sue, 1999). There was not scope within this thesis to examine the link between culture and mentor self-disclosure. Future research could consider this relationship between different contexts for youth mentoring, such as New Zealand and the United States, or from the perspective of ethnic differences (e.g., Māori, Pacific Island, and Pākehā in New Zealand).

Another possible pathway for research could consider more closely the link between self-disclosure and relationship length. Models of relationship development suggest the amount and intimacy of disclosure varies during the course of a relationship. For example, early in a relationship there tends to be a lot of superficial disclosure as people get to know one another, whereas later in a relationship disclosure is less frequent, but more intimate (Altman & Taylor, 1973). Research investigating self-disclosure from the perspective of relationship length might be useful for understanding whether similar patterns exist in mentoring, or if disclosure at a certain time in the relationship is especially beneficial.

One of the significant challenges for my thesis was the dearth of information on disclosure in mentoring relationships. Much of the current evidence is fragmented and incidental: small nuggets of information about disclosure could be found in numerous studies, but the studies themselves were focused on some other phenomenon, so self-disclosure received relatively little analysis and interpretation. As a result, I had to look beyond contemporary mentoring literature, not only to other contexts (e.g., psychotherapy) but older work, such as companionship theory (Goodman, 1972). In the most recent edition of the *Handbook of Youth Mentoring*, Karcher and Hansen (2014) discuss companionship theory and help-intended communication (Goodman & Dooley, 1976), lamenting the lack of attention paid to these studies that investigated youth mentoring prior to the establishment of the current field of mentoring. Both pieces provide interesting and relevant information about youth mentoring relationships. In particular, help-intended communication provided a focused exploration of how mentors, as paraprofessionals in a helping relationship, can use communication in strategic and purposeful ways to the benefit of their practice and outcomes for youth. This strongly influenced my thinking about self-disclosure and, in my view, broader consideration given to these and other texts like it could inspire future research that

revisits some of the best and most compelling ideas that precede contemporary youth mentoring research.

Similarly, this thesis also reinforces the call from Spencer (2004, 2012) for youth mentoring researchers to consider psychotherapy research as a valuable source of information and guidance. As I posited in Chapter 3, there are characteristics shared by mentoring and psychotherapy—such as being a formalised and structured helping relationship—which make both distinct from other relationships which are held as analogues for mentoring (e.g., friendships). There is a tremendous wealth of knowledge in psychotherapy which, even if not directly transferable to mentoring, can provide a robust theoretical and empirical basis for mentoring-specific research. Self-disclosure is an excellent exemplar of this.

Concluding Thoughts

My principal message in this thesis is that the way mentors and mentees communicate with one another matters. I have argued throughout that communication is essential to developing quality mentoring relationships and yet remains woefully unexplored. Despite being in the business of relationships, the youth mentoring literature at large has not sufficiently considered the wisdom in the adage ‘communication is the key to a great relationship’. After three decades of contemporary research, we still know very little about how mentors and mentees do the most basic of activities: talking together. With the recent shift towards greater exploration of relational processes in youth mentoring relationships, the time for communication to receive more attention from researchers in this context is now.

Self-disclosure is a compelling area for research because there is something intuitive and deeply human about it. It is socially embedded in our experiences of opening up to someone else, of being known and understood by another person. Self-disclosure speaks to an underlying human need to connect with others—the same need which supports the ongoing

belief in the transformative power of mentoring relationships. This thesis is an exemplar of what is still to be explored and understood about communication in the mentoring context. It offers relevant and useful knowledge for the present, but hopefully also provokes ideas for the future and how the youth mentoring field might take steps towards developing a more sophisticated understanding of mentors and mentees connecting and flourishing with one another.

APPENDIX A:

INSTITUTION ETHICS APPROVAL

Office of the Vice-Chancellor
Finance, Ethics and Compliance

The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92019
Auckland, New Zealand

Level 10, 49 Symonds Street
Telephone: 64 9 373 7599
Extension: 87830 / 83761
Facsimile: 64 9 373 7432

UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE (UAHPEC)

02-Dec-2015

MEMORANDUM TO:

Dr Kelsey Deane
Counselling, HumServ & SocWrk

Re: Application for Ethics Approval (Our Ref. 016137): Approved

The Committee considered your application for ethics approval for your project entitled **Adult-Youth Partnerships: Relationship Features that Predict Future Youth Thriving.**.

We are pleased to inform you that ethics approval is granted for a period of three years.

The expiry date for this approval is 02-Dec-2018.

If the project changes significantly, you are required to submit a new application to UAHPEC for further consideration.

If you have obtained funding other than from UniServices, send a copy of this approval letter to the Research Office, at ro-awards@auckland.ac.nz. For UniServices contracts, send a copy of the approval letter to the Contract Manager, UniServices.

In order that an up-to-date record can be maintained, you are requested to notify UAHPEC once your project is completed.

The Chair and the members of UAHPEC would be happy to discuss general matters relating to ethics approvals. If you wish to do so, please contact the UAHPEC Ethics Administrators at ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz in the first instance.

Please quote reference number: **016137** on all communication with the UAHPEC regarding this application.

(This is a computer generated letter. No signature required.)

UAHPEC Administrators

University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee

c.c. Head of Department / School, Counselling, HumServ & SocWrk
Dr Patricia Bullen
Dr Nickola Overall
Miss Hilary Dutton
Dr Matthew Shepherd

Additional information:

1. Do not forget to fill in the 'approval wording' on the Participant Information Sheets and Consent Forms, giving the dates of approval and the reference number, before you send them out to your participants.

2. Should you need to make any changes to the project,please complete the online proposed changes and include any revised documentation.

3. At the end of three years, or if the project is completed before the expiry, please advise UAHPEC of its completion.

4. Should you require an extension, please complete the online Amendment Request form associated with this approval number giving full details along with revised documentation. An extension can be granted for up to three years, after which a new application must be submitted.

5. Please note that UAHPEC may from time to time conduct audits of approved projects to ensure that the research has been carried out according to the approval that was given.

Research Office
Post–Award Support Services

The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92019
Auckland, New Zealand

Level 10, 49 Symonds Street
Telephone: 64 9 373 7599
Extension: 83711
Facsimile: 64 9 373 7432
ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz

UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE (UAHPEC)

29-Nov-2018

MEMORANDUM TO:

Dr Kelsey Deane
Counselling, HumServ & SocWrk

Re: Request for change of Ethics Approval (Our Ref. 016137): Amendments Approved

The Committee considered your request for change for your study entitled **Adult-Youth Partnerships: Relationship Features that Predict Future Youth Thriving.** and approval was granted for the following amendments on 29-Nov-2018.

The Committee approved the following amendments:

1. To extend the approval for a further 3 years.

The expiry date for this approval is 02-Dec-2021.

If the project changes significantly you are required to resubmit a new application to the Committee for further consideration.

In order that an up-to-date record can be maintained, it would be appreciated if you could notify the Committee once your study is completed.

The Chair and the members of the Committee would be happy to discuss general matters relating to ethics approvals. If you wish to do so, please contact the UAHPEC Ethics Administrators at ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz in the first instance.

Please quote reference number **016137** on all communications with the UAHPEC regarding this application.

(This is a computer generated letter. No signature required.)

UAHPEC Administrators
University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee

c.c. Head of Department / School, Counselling, HumServ & SocWrk
Dr Patricia Bullen
Dr Nickola Overall
Ms Hilary Dutton
Dr Matthew Shepherd

APPENDIX B:

Y-AP PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEETS AND CONSENT/ASSENT FORMS

SCHOOL OF COUNSELLING,
HUMAN SERVICES AND SOCIAL WORK

Epsom Campus
Gate 3, 74 Epsom Ave
Auckland, New Zealand
T +64 9 623 8899
W www.education.auckland.ac.nz
The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92601
Symonds Street
Auckland 1135
New Zealand

Participant Information Sheet for Mentors

Title of Research Project: Adult-Youth Partnerships: Relationship Features that Predict Future Youth Thriving

Principal Investigator: Dr Kelsey Deane, School of Counselling, Human Services and Social Work, University of Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, extn: 48685. E-mail. k.deane@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Investigator: Dr Pat Bullen, School of Learning, Development and Professional Practice, University of Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, extn: 48535. E-mail. p.bullen@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Investigator: Associate Professor Nickola Overall, School of Psychology, University of Auckland. Phone 09 923 9120. E-mail. n.overall@auckland.ac.nz

Research Co-ordinator: Hilary Dutton. E-mail: nzmentoringresearch@gmail.com

Tēnā koe! Warm Greetings!

The aim of this research is to identify the critical ingredients of successful adult-youth partnerships. Mentor-mentee pairs who have been meeting for a minimum of three months as part of a formal mentoring relationship with a youth or mentoring programme are invited to participate in this research. Mentees should also be 12-18 years of age to participate. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary.

What does this involve?

During the first session, you and your mentee will independently complete an online questionnaire about yourself and your mentoring relationship. Your mentee will not see your responses, and your questionnaires will remain confidential at all times, identified only by a random numerical code which only the researchers will have access to.

You will then engage in two activities with your mentee and these will be video-recorded. The first will be a collaborative creative activity. A second activity will involve a discussion with your mentee. After the activities are completed, you and your mentee will be separated to independently complete a post-observation questionnaire and debrief. You may withdraw from participating at any time during this initial session if you feel uncomfortable at any stage. The first session will take up to 2 hours of your time and you will receive two Event Cinema movie vouchers as koha/reimbursement for your time and effort.

For the second part of the study, you will be asked to complete a follow-up questionnaire after six months and one year after your visit to the University of Auckland. This questionnaire will be similar to the one completed in the first session, and will take approximately 45 minutes to complete. As before, your mentee will not ever see your responses, and your answers will only be identifiable by a confidential numerical code.

The follow-up questionnaires do not have to be completed at the University of Auckland. You can arrange for a researcher to meet you at a place convenient for you. For each questionnaire completed you will each be reimbursed with a $10 Warehouse voucher. You may withdraw from this project at any time during this follow-up period.

Confidentiality

All the information you give during the research will be strictly confidential unless anything discussed or revealed by you or your mentee causes concern for your safety or the safety of others. If this occurs, we will discuss this with you and determine the best way to support you.

It is necessary to record your name and contact details to enable participation in the follow-up questionnaires. However, these details will be stored separately from all research data - your name and contact details will never be associated with your questionnaire and recorded interactions.

You will be assigned a random Research ID number between 1 and 400 at the beginning of the first session at the University of Auckland and this number will be used instead of your name on all questionnaires. A list of participant names and their random ID numbers will be stored in a password-protected file on the Research Coordinator's computer. No one else will be able to see it and no one other than the researcher assistants will ever know what your personal responses were. All responses will be identified only by the confidential ID numbers. Your responses will not be shared with your mentee at any time.

Your questionnaires and the video recording of your activities from the first session will be stored separately from your personal information in a locked filing cabinet in a secure room at the University of Auckland, and only Dr Deane and her research associates will have access to your questionnaire and video data. All research associates will sign confidentiality agreements, and your data will be treated with respect and kept confidential at all times. In addition, no member of the research team (including Dr Deane and the Associate Investigators) will be allowed to review the questionnaires or watch the video of anyone they know personally.

You have the right to withdraw your personal information, questionnaire data and recorded interaction data up to one month after the date of your participation in the initial session. All electronic data not withdrawn after one month will be kept indefinitely on password-protected computers for research purposes, but all hard copy research data, including your signed consent form, will be destroyed after six years and your identity will never be revealed or associated with the data.

Results from this research will be published in research articles, reports and presentations and may also be used to develop educational or training materials for people working with youth. This study is part of Dr Deane's ongoing research program on mentoring relationships, and may also be used in future postgraduate research projects. These projects will never use your

name in their results, and any other personal information that could identify you will be changed or excluded for publication.

Are there any benefits to being involved in the study?

As was noted earlier, participating in this research will be thanked with a koha of a movie voucher and two other gift vouchers. We hope this project will mean more young people can have great relationships with a mentor, and your information will help make that possible.

At the end of each year, we can send you a copy summarising the research findings obtained that year. This will be sent to the email you have provided for this study, if you indicate you would like to receive a copy of the report on the consent form, but this email address will not be associated with your questionnaire or recorded data at any time.

Are there any risks to being involved in the study?

While we believe there is minimal risk associated with this research, the study does involve thinking and reporting about yourself and your mentoring relationship. It is therefore possible that the discussion or questionnaires could be stressful if you or your mentee have or are currently experiencing personal difficulties or difficulties in your relationship. Please note that you can withdraw from the study at any time with no questions asked, including withdrawal of any information provided to the researchers up to one month from the date of the initial session.

There is a possibility that people who know you well and know that you are involved in a mentoring relationship could identify you in related publications or presentations but this is very unlikely and no identifying details (e.g. name and unique characteristics) will be included in anything produced about the study.

If at any stage you experience distress, either during or following participation, there are support and counselling services available through Auckland Family Counselling and Psychotherapy Centre Inc. (33 Owens Road, Epsom, Auckland, Phone: 6387632), Youthline (www.youthline.co.nz/, 0800 376 633) and Lifeline Aotearoa (www.lifeline.org.nz, 09 5222 999). You may also contact any of the people on this information sheet to request assistance in contacting an appropriate support service.

He mihi nui! Thank you for reading about this research!

Further information

For any questions regarding this project, please contact Dr Deane (details above) or the Head of the School of Counselling, Human Services and Social Work, Dr Allen Bartley, The University of Auckland, Private Bag 92019, Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, Extension 48140. Email: a.bartley@auckland.ac.nz

For any queries regarding ethical concerns you may contact:

The Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Research Office, Private Bag 92019, Auckland, 1142. Phone 09 373-7599, ext. 83711. Email: ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz

This research has received funding from the University of Auckland Faculty Research Development Fund.

Approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee on 29 November 2018 for a further three years until 02 December 2021, Reference Number 016137

SCHOOL OF COUNSELLING,
HUMAN SERVICES AND SOCIAL WORK

Epsom Campus
Gate 3, 74 Epsom Ave
Auckland, New Zealand
T +64 9 623 8899
W www.education.auckland.ac.nz
The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92601
Symonds Street
Auckland 1135
New Zealand

Consent Form for Mentors

This form will kept for a period of 6 years.

Title of Research Project: Adult-Youth Partnerships: Relationship Features that Predict Future Youth Thriving

Principal Investigator: Dr Kelsey Deane, School of Counselling, Human Services and Social Work, University of Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, extn: 48685. E-mail. k.deane@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Investigator: Dr Pat Bullen, School of Learning, Development and Professional Practice, University of Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, extn: 48535. E-mail. p.bullen@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Investigator: Associate Professor Nickola Overall, School of Psychology, University of Auckland. Phone 09 923 9120. E-mail. n.overall@auckland.ac.nz

Research Co-ordinator: Hilary Dutton. E-mail: nzmentoringresearch@gmail.com

- I have read the Participant Information Sheet and have understood the nature of the research.
- I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have had any questions answered to my satisfaction.
- I understand that participation in this research is voluntary.
- I understand that this research session will take up to 2 hours of my time, and will involve (1) completing questionnaires about myself and my mentoring relationship, and (2) participating in two video-recorded activities with my mentee.
- I understand that the interactions with my mentee will be recorded.
- I understand that the recording will be stopped at any time on my request.
- I understand that I will be contacted to complete two follow-up questionnaires in (1) six months and (2) one year.
- I understand that my responses will not be shared with my mentee.
- I understand that my questionnaire responses will only be identified by an anonymous code number and my personal information and recorded interactions will be kept confidential unless anything discussed or revealed by myself or my mentee causes concern for my safety or the safety of others.
- I understand that if anything is disclosed during the research which causes concern for my safety or the safety of others, the Principal Investigator will take appropriate action.

- I understand that trained research coders may code and analyse my questionnaire and recorded interactions. All coders will sign confidentiality agreements concerning all data collected in this study and no researchers will be allowed to code the video interactions of anyone known to them personally.
- I understand that these recordings will be the property of Dr Kelsey Deane. They will be stored in a research archive only available to Dr Kelsey Deane and her research team.
- I understand that all hard copy research data, including my signed consent form, will be kept for 6 years in a locked cabinet at University of Auckland, then they will be destroyed. All electronic research data will be kept indefinitely on password-protected computers.
- I consent to publication of the results of the project with the understanding that anonymity and confidentiality will be preserved but I understand that people who know me well may be able to identify me when reading publications about this study.
- I understand that I can stop participating in this research at any time without giving a reason.
- I understand that after completing this research session I have the right to withdraw my information/data up to one month from today's date.
- I agree to participate in this research.

Name:_____

Signed:_____

Date:_____

If you would like to receive updates on the project findings at the end of each year, please tick here ☐

This research has received funding from the University of Auckland Faculty Research Development Fund.

Approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee on 29 November 2018 for a further three years until 02 December 2021, Reference Number 016137

SCHOOL OF COUNSELLING,
HUMAN SERVICES AND SOCIAL WORK

Epsom Campus
Gate 3, 74 Epsom Ave
Auckland, New Zealand
T +64 9 623 8899
W www.education.auckland.ac.nz
The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92601
Symonds Street
Auckland 1135
New Zealand

Participant Information Sheet for Mentees 16 and over

Title of Research Project: Adult-Youth Partnerships: Relationship Features that Predict Future Youth Thriving

Principal Investigator: Dr Kelsey Deane, School of Counselling, Human Services and Social Work, University of Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, extn: 48685. E-mail. k.deane@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Investigator: Dr Pat Bullen, School of Learning, Development and Professional Practice, University of Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, extn: 48535. E-mail. p.bullen@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Investigator: Associate Professor Nickola Overall, School of Psychology, University of Auckland. Phone 09 923 9120. E-mail. n.overall@auckland.ac.nz

Research Co-ordinator: Hilary Dutton. E-mail: nzmentoringresearch@gmail.com

Tēnā koe! Warm Greetings!

We are looking for mentor-mentee pairs who have been meeting for at least three months as part of a youth or mentoring programme. Mentees should also be 12-18 years of age to participate. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. The aim of this research is to identify the important ingredients of successful adult-youth partnerships.

What does this involve?

The first session will take place at the University of Auckland. You and your mentor will separately complete an online questionnaire about yourself and your mentoring relationship. Your mentor will not see your responses, and your data will remain confidential at all times, identified only by a random number code which only the researchers will have access to.

You will then do two activities with your mentor and these will be video-recorded. The first will be a creative activity you do with your mentor. A second activity will ask you to have a short talk with your mentor. After the activities are completed, you and your mentor will be separated to complete another questionnaire and debrief. You may withdraw from participating at any time during this initial session if you feel uncomfortable at any stage. The first session will take approximately 2 hours of your time and you will receive two Event Cinema movie vouchers as koha/reimbursement for your time and effort.

For the second part of the study, you will be contacted by a researcher and asked to complete a follow-up questionnaire six months and one year after your visit to the University of Auckland. This questionnaire will take approximately 45 minutes to complete, and will be

similar to the one you complete during the first session. Your mentor will never see your responses, and your name will not ever be linked to your answers.

The follow-up questionnaires do not have to be completed at the University of Auckland. You can arrange for a researcher to meet you at a place convenient for you. For each questionnaire completed you will each be reimbursed with a $10 Warehouse voucher. You may withdraw from this project at any time during this follow-up period.

Confidentiality

All the information you give during the research will be strictly confidential unless anything discussed or revealed by you or your mentor causes concern for your safety or the safety of others. If this occurs, we will discuss this with you and determine the best way to support you.

It will be necessary to record your name and contact details so the researchers can contact you for the follow-up questionnaires. However, these details will be stored separately from all research data - your name and contact details will never be associated with your questionnaire or the video-recording file.

You will be assigned a random Research ID number between 1 and 400 at the beginning of the first session at the University of Auckland and this number will be used instead of your name on all questionnaires. A list of participant names and their random ID numbers will be stored in a password-protected file on the Research Coordinator's computer. No one else will be able to see it and no one other than the researchers will ever know what your personal responses were. All responses will be identified only by the confidential ID numbers. Your responses will not be shared with your mentor at any time.

Your questionnaires and the video recording of your activities from the first session will be stored separately from your personal information in a locked filing cabinet in a secure room at the University of Auckland. Only Dr Deane and her research team will have access to your data and will watch your video to see how you and your mentor interact. All research team members will sign confidentiality agreements, and your data will be treated with respect and kept confidential at all times. In addition, no member of the research team will be allowed to watch the video of anyone they know personally.

You also have the right to withdraw your personal information, questionnaire data and recorded video data up to one month after the date of your participation in the initial session. All electronic data not withdrawn after one month will be kept indefinitely on password-protected computers, but your signed consent form and the file linking participant names and ID numbers will be destroyed after six years. Results from this research will be published in research articles, reports and presentations and may also be used to develop educational or training materials for people working with youth and in postgraduate student research projects. Your identity will never be revealed or associated with the data and any other personal information that could identify you will be changed or excluded for publication..

Are there any benefits to being involved in the study?

You will be thanked for participating in the initial research session with a koha of movie vouchers and two other gift vouchers if you complete the two additional questionnaires. We

hope this project will mean more young people can have great relationships with a mentor, and your information will help make that possible.

At the end of each year, we can send you a copy summarising the research findings obtained that year. This will be sent to the email you have provided for this study if you indicate you would like to receive a copy of the report on the consent form, but this email address will not be associated with your questionnaire or recorded data at any time.

Are there any risks to being involved in the study?

While we believe there is minimal risk associated with this research, the study does involve thinking and reporting about your mentoring relationship and about experiences in your life. It is therefore possible that the activities or questionnaires could be stressful if you or your mentor have or are currently experiencing personal difficulties or difficulties in your relationship. You can withdraw from the study at any time with no questions asked, including withdrawal of any information provided to the researchers up to one month from the date of the initial session.

there is a possibility that people who know you well and know that you are involved in a mentoring relationship could identify you in related publications or presentations but this is very unlikely and no identifying details (e.g. name and unique characteristics) will be included in anything produced about the study.

If at any stage you experience distress, either during or following participation, there are support and counselling services available through Auckland Family Counselling and Psychotherapy Centre Inc. (33 Owens Road, Epsom, Auckland, Phone: 6387632), Youthline (www.youthline.co.nz/, 0800 376 633) and Lifeline Aotearoa (www.lifeline.org.nz, 09 5222 999). You may also contact any of the people on this information sheet to request assistance in contacting an appropriate support service.

He mihi nui! Thank you for reading about this research!

Further information

For any questions regarding this project, please contact Dr Deane or Hilary Dutton (details above) or the Head of the School of Counselling, Human Services and Social Work, Dr Allen Bartley, The University of Auckland, Private Bag 92019, Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, Extension 48140. Email: a.bartley@auckland.ac.nz

For any queries regarding ethical concerns you may contact:

The Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Research Office, Private Bag 92019, Auckland, 1142. Phone 09 373-7599, ext. 83711. Email: ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz

This research has received funding from the University of Auckland Faculty Research Development Fund.

Approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee on 29 November 2018 for a further three years until 02 December 2021, Reference Number 016137

SCHOOL OF COUNSELLING,
HUMAN SERVICES AND SOCIAL WORK

Epsom Campus
Gate 3, 74 Epsom Ave
Auckland, New Zealand
T +64 9 623 8899
W www.education.auckland.ac.nz
The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92601
Symonds Street
Auckland 1135
New Zealand

Consent Form for Mentees 16 and over

This form will kept for a period of 6 years.

Title of Research Project: Adult-Youth Partnerships: Relationship Features that Predict Future Youth Thriving

Principal Investigator: Dr Kelsey Deane, School of Counselling, Human Services and Social Work, University of Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, extn: 48685. E-mail. k.deane@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Investigator: Dr Pat Bullen, School of Learning, Development and Professional Practice, University of Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, extn: 48535. E-mail. p.bullen@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Investigator: Associate Professor Nickola Overall, School of Psychology, University of Auckland. Phone 09 923 9120. E-mail. n.overall@auckland.ac.nz

Research Co-ordinator: Hilary Dutton. E-mail: nzmentoringresearch@gmail.com

- I have read the Participant Information Sheet and have understood the nature of the research.
- I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have had any questions answered to my satisfaction.
- I understand that participation in this research is voluntary.
- I understand that this research session will take up to 2 hours of my time, and will involve (1) completing questionnaires about myself and my mentoring relationship, and (2) participating in two video-recorded activities with my mentor.
- I understand that the interactions with my mentor will be recorded.
- I understand that the recording will be stopped at any time on my request.
- I understand that I will be contacted to complete two follow-up questionnaires in (1) six months and (2) one year.
- I understand that my responses will not be shared with my mentor.
- I understand that my questionnaire responses will only be identified by an anonymous code number and my personal information and recorded interactions will be kept confidential unless anything discussed or revealed by myself or my mentor causes concern for my safety or the safety of others.
- I understand that if anything is disclosed during the research which causes concern for my safety or the safety of others, the Principal Investigator will take appropriate action.

- I understand that trained research coders may code and analyse my questionnaire and recorded interactions. All coders will sign confidentiality agreements concerning all data collected in this study and no researchers will be allowed to code the video interactions of anyone known to them personally.
- I understand that these recordings will be the property of Dr Kelsey Deane. They will be stored in a research archive only available to Dr Kelsey Deane and her research team.
- I understand that all hard copy research data, including my signed consent form, will be kept for 6 years in a locked cabinet at University of Auckland, then they will be destroyed. All electronic research data will be kept indefinitely on password-protected computers.
- I consent to publication of the results of the project with the understanding that anonymity and confidentiality will be preserved but I understand people who know me well may be able to identify me when reading publications about this study.
- I understand that I can stop participating in this research at any time without giving a reason.
- I understand that after completing this research session I have the right to withdraw my information/data up to one month from today's date.
- I agree to participate in this research.

Name:_____

Signed: _____ Date: _____

If you would like to receive updates on the project findings at the end of each year, please tick here ☐

This research has received funding from the University of Auckland Faculty Research Development Fund.

Approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee on 29 November 2018 for a further three years until 02 December 2021, Reference Number 016137

SCHOOL OF COUNSELLING,
HUMAN SERVICES AND SOCIAL WORK

Epsom Campus
Gate 3, 74 Epsom Ave
Auckland, New Zealand
T +64 9 623 8899
W www.education.auckland.ac.nz
The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92601
Symonds Street
Auckland 1135
New Zealand

Participant Information Sheet for Mentees under 16

Title of Research Project: Adult-Youth Partnerships: Relationship Features that Predict Future Youth Thriving

Principal Investigator: Dr Kelsey Deane, School of Counselling, Human Services and Social Work, University of Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, extn: 48685. E-mail. k.deane@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Investigator: Dr Pat Bullen, School of Learning, Development and Professional Practice, University of Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, extn: 48535. E-mail. p.bullen@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Investigator: Associate Professor Nickola Overall, School of Psychology, University of Auckland. Phone 09 923 9120. E-mail. n.overall@auckland.ac.nz

Research Co-ordinator: Hilary Dutton. E-mail: nzmentoringresearch@gmail.com

Tēnā koe! Warm Greetings!

We are looking for mentor-mentee pairs who have been meeting for at least three months as part of a youth or mentoring programme. Mentees should also be 12-18 years of age to take part. Participation is completely voluntary.

The goal of this study is to gather information about mentoring relationships so we can understand important things like what makes mentoring relationships work well and what outcomes mentees experience by being in a mentoring programme. You are currently in a mentoring relationship and we would like to know how you feel about yourself and your mentor. The study will help mentoring programmes make sure their programmes are as positive as possible.

What does this involve?

Taking part in this research means you will spend some time with the researchers three times in one year. The first time we meet, you will come with your mentor to complete a questionnaire about yourself and your mentoring relationship. You will be separated from your mentor for this part, but a researcher will be with you to help if you have any questions.

After the questionnaires are finished, you will be asked to do two activities with your mentor. You will be video-recorded as you do these activities. The first activity will be a creative exercise for you and your mentor to do. The second activity will be a discussion between you and your mentor. After the activities, you and your mentor will be separated again to

complete a short questionnaire. The questionnaires and activities will take about 2 hours altogether. To say thank you, you and your mentor will receive two Event Cinema movie vouchers.

Six months after you have done the questionnaires and activities, you will be contacted by the researcher to do another questionnaire about your mentoring relationship. To say thank you, you will receive a $10 Warehouse gift voucher/koha. The last part of the research will happen after one year. Once again, a researcher will contact you and you will complete one more questionnaire. There will be a $10 Warehouse gift voucher/koha given to you for this as well.

If you do not want to participate in the study at all that is fine. It is also OK if you change your mind while the research is happening. You can tell the researchers you don't want to do it anymore and you will not be in trouble. You can also ask to have your data (the questionnaire and video) removed from the study up to one month after they are completed. After that date you cannot ask for it to be withdrawn. If you decide you don't want to participate in the research after one month, that is OK and you don't have to provide a reason why.

Will other people know who I am?

All the information you give during the research will be strictly confidential unless anything discussed or revealed by you or your mentor causes concern for your safety or the safety of others. If this occurs, we will discuss this with you to work out the best way to support you.

All the researchers will sign confidentiality agreements, so they cannot tell anyone about what happened with you during the research. No one except the researchers will know what your answers to the questionnaire were, and no one except the researchers will see the video-recording of you and your mentor. Also, no one working on the project will be allowed to watch the video of you if they know you personally. The researchers will assign you a code number between 1 and 400 and this will be used on all your questionnaires instead of your name. Only the Research Coordinator, Hilary, will know what your number is. Your responses will not be shared with your mentor at any time.

The researchers will have your name and contact details so they can contact you later to complete the other two parts of the study. No one else will have access to these details, and they will be kept separate from the information you give us during the research.

All hard copy research data, including the consent form you sign, will be locked in a cabinet at the University of Auckland for six years and then they will be destroyed. The electronic data (computer files with the questionnaire information and the videos) will be kept on the researchers' password-protected computers indefinitely so the information can be used in research. These will be securely saved in password-protected files.

The information we get from you will be used to write articles and reports, and to present results at conferences or events with other researchers. It may also be used in student research projects. We will never use your name or describe who you are in any of these reports.

Are there any benefits to being involved in the study?

As we noted above, you will be thanked with two Event Cinema movie vouchers and two other gift vouchers. We hope this project will mean more young people can have great relationships with a mentor, and your information will help make that possible.

At the end of each year, we can email you a report about the research findings we discovered that year. If you want to receive this report, the consent form has space for your email address and a box for you to tick saying we can send the report to you. The email address you give us will not be linked with your questionnaire or recorded data at any time.

Are there any risks to being involved in the study?

While we believe participating in this research has minimal risk, the study does involve thinking and reporting about your mentoring relationship and about important experiences in your life. It is therefore possible that the activities or questionnaires could be stressful if you or your mentor have or are currently experiencing personal difficulties or difficulties in your relationship. You can leave the study at any time with no questions asked, including withdrawal of any information provided to the researchers up to one month from the date of the first session.

We think it is unlikely that you will be upset or hurt by participating in this research. If you get upset during a session, you can ask the researchers to stop for a break or to stop completely. If you decide you not to take part in the study anymore, that is fine. We can remove any information provided to the researchers up to one month from the date of the initial session. If you get upset after the research session, you can contact support and counselling services, like those listed below:

- Youthline, 0800 376 633, www.youthline.co.nz/
- Lifeline Aotearoa, 09 5222 999, www.lifeline.org.nz
- Auckland Family Counselling and Psychotherapy Centre Inc. (33 Owens Road, Epsom, Auckland, Phone: 6387632).

There is a possibility that people who know you well and know that you are involved in a mentoring relationship could identify you in any reports we publish. We will not include any of your unique personal characteristics, such as your name, in any of our reports or presentations.

You may also contact any of the people on this information sheet to ask for help in contacting a support service.

He mihi nui! Thank you for reading about this research!

Further information

If you have any questions about the project please contact Dr Deane or Hilary Dutton (details above) or the Head of the School of Counselling, Human Services and Social Work, Dr Allen Bartley, The University of Auckland, Private Bag 92019, Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, Extension 48140. Email: a.bartley@auckland.ac.nz

For any queries regarding ethical concerns you may contact:

The Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Research Office, Private Bag 92019, Auckland, 1142. Phone 09 373-7599, ext. 83711. Email: ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz

This research has received funding from the University of Auckland Faculty Research Development Fund.

Approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee on 29 November 2018 for a further three years until 02 December 2021, Reference Number 016137

SCHOOL OF COUNSELLING,
HUMAN SERVICES AND SOCIAL WORK

Epsom Campus
Gate 3, 74 Epsom Ave
Auckland, New Zealand
T +64 9 623 8899
W www.education.auckland.ac.nz
The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92601
Symonds Street
Auckland 1135
New Zealand

Assent Form for Mentees 16 and under

This form will kept for a period of 6 years.

Title of Research Project: Adult-Youth Partnerships: Relationship Features that Predict Future Youth Thriving

Principal Investigator: Dr Kelsey Deane, School of Counselling, Human Services and Social Work, University of Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, extn: 48685. E-mail. k.deane@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Investigator: Dr Pat Bullen, School of Learning, Development and Professional Practice, University of Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, extn: 48535. E-mail. p.bullen@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Investigator: Associate Professor Nickola Overall, School of Psychology, University of Auckland. Phone 09 923 9120. E-mail. n.overall@auckland.ac.nz

Research Co-ordinator: Hilary Dutton. E-mail: nzmentoringresearch@gmail.com

- I have read the Participant Information Sheet and understand what the research is about.
- I have had the opportunity to ask questions and my questions have been answered.
- I understand that taking part in this research is my choice.
- I understand that I will be asked to complete two questionnaires and that I will be video-recorded doing two activities with my mentor.
- I understand that no-one except the research team will see the video and no-one who knows me personally will watch the video of me and my mentor.
- I understand that I can ask for the recording be stopped at any time.
- I understand that I can leave the study at any time without giving a reason.
- I understand that I can ask for my data to be removed within one month of today's date.
- I understand that my participation and the information I provide in this research is confidential unless anything discussed or revealed by myself or my mentor causes concern for my safety or the safety of others.
- I understand that my responses will not be shared with my mentor.

- I understand that my name and personal information will not appear in any papers or reports based on this research but I understand that people who know me well may be able to identify me when reading publications about this study.
- I understand that all hard copy research data, including my signed assent form, will be kept for 6 years in a locked cabinet at University of Auckland, then they will be destroyed. All electronic research data will be kept indefinitely on password-protected computers.
- I know who to contact if I have any problems with the study.
- I agree to be available to complete two follow-up questionnaires in (1) six months and (2) one year.
- I am aware that my parent/guardian has consented to my participation.
- I agree to take part in this research.

Name:_____

Signed: _____

Date:_____

If you would like to receive updates on the project findings at the end of each year, please tick here ☐

This research has received funding from the University of Auckland Faculty Research Development Fund.

Approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee on 29 November 2018 for a further three years until 02 December 2021, Reference Number 016137

SCHOOL OF COUNSELLING,
HUMAN SERVICES AND SOCIAL WORK

Epsom Campus
Gate 3, 74 Epsom Ave
Auckland, New Zealand
T +64 9 623 8899
W www.education.auckland.ac.nz
The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92601
Symonds Street
Auckland 1135
New Zealand

Participant Information Sheet for Parents/Caregivers of Mentees under 16

Title of Research Project: Adult-Youth Partnerships: Relationship Features that Predict Future Youth Thriving

Principal Investigator: Dr Kelsey Deane, School of Counselling, Human Services and Social Work, University of Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, extn: 48685. E-mail. k.deane@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Investigator: Dr Pat Bullen, School of Learning, Development and Professional Practice, University of Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, extn: 48535. E-mail. p.bullen@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Investigator: Associate Professor Nickola Overall, School of Psychology, University of Auckland. Phone 09 923 9120. E-mail. n.overall@auckland.ac.nz

Research Co-ordinator: Hilary Dutton. E-mail: nzmentoringresearch@gmail.com

Tēnā koe! Warm Greetings!

We are looking for mentor-mentee pairs who have been meeting for a minimum of three months as part of a formal mentoring relationship with a youth or mentoring programme to participate in a research project. The aim of this research is to identify the important ingredients of successful adult-youth partnerships. Mentees should also be 12-18 years of age to participate. Participation in this study is completely voluntary.

What does this involve?

The first session will take place at the University of Auckland. Your child/ward and their mentor will independently complete a questionnaire about themselves and their mentoring relationship. They will then do two activities together which will be video-recorded. The first will be a collaborative creative activity. A second activity will ask be a short discussion with their mentor. After the activities are completed, your child/ward and their mentor will be separated to independently complete a post-observation questionnaire and debrief. Your child/ward may withdraw from participating at any time during this initial session if they feel uncomfortable at any stage. The first session will take up to 2 hours of your child/ward's time and your child/ward will receive two Event Cinema movie vouchers as reimbursement for their time and effort.

For the second part of the study, your child/ward will be contacted by a researcher and asked to complete a follow-up questionnaire after six months and one year. This questionnaire will take approximately 30-45 minutes to complete. The follow-up questionnaires do not have to be completed at the University of Auckland, and you can arrange for a researcher to meet your child/ward at a place convenient for you. For each questionnaire completed, your

child/ward will be reimbursed $10 in Warehouse vouchers. Your child/ward may withdraw from this project at any time during this follow-up period.

Confidentiality

All the information your child/ward provides during the research will be strictly confidential unless anything discussed or revealed by your child/ward or their mentor causes concern for their safety or the safety of others. If this occurs, we will discuss this with them and determine the best way to obtain support.

It will be necessary to record your child/ward's name and contact details to enable participation in the follow-up questionnaires. However, these details will be stored separately from all research data – your child/ward's name and contact details will never be associated with their questionnaire and recorded interactions.

A random Research ID number between 1 and 400 will be assigned to your child/ward at the beginning of the first session at the University of Auckland and this number will be used instead of their name on all questionnaires. A list of participant names and their random ID numbers will be stored in a password-protected file on the Research Coordinator's computer. No one else will be able to see it and no one other than the researcher assistants will ever know what your child/ward's personal responses were. All responses will be identified only by the confidential ID numbers. Your child/ward's responses will not be shared with their mentor at any time.

Your child/ward's questionnaires and the video recording of the mentoring activities from the first session will be stored separately from their personal information in a locked filing cabinet in a secure room at the University of Auckland, and only Dr Deane and her research associates will have access to your child/ward's questionnaire and video data. All research associates will sign confidentiality agreements, and your child/ward's data will be treated with respect and kept confidential at all times. In addition, no member of the research team (including Dr Deane and the Associate Investigators) will be allowed to review the questionnaires or watch the video of anyone they know personally.

You have the right to withdraw your child/ward's personal information, questionnaire data and recorded interaction data up to one month after the date of their participation in the initial session. All electronic data not withdrawn after one month will be kept indefinitely on password-protected computers for research purposes, but all hard copy research data, including your signed consent form (and your child/ward's signed assent form), will be destroyed after six years and your child/ward's identity will never be revealed or associated with the data. Results from this research will be published in research articles, reports and presentations and may also be used to develop educational or training materials for people working with youth. This study is part of Dr Deane's ongoing research program on mentoring relationships, and may also be used in future postgraduate research projects. These projects will never use your child/ward's name in their results, and any other personal information that could identify your child/ward will be changed or excluded for publication.

Are there any benefits to being involved in the study?

As was noted earlier, your child/ward's participation in this research will be thanked with a koha of a movie voucher and two other gift vouchers. We hope this project will mean more

young people can have great relationships with a mentor, and your child/ward's information will help make that possible.

At the end of each year, we can send you a copy summarising the research findings obtained that year. This will be sent to the email you have provided for this study, if you indicate you would like to receive a copy of the report on the consent form, but this email address will not be associated with your child/ward's questionnaire or recorded data at any time.

Are there any risks to being involved in the study?

While we believe there is minimal risk associated with this research, the study does involve your child/ward thinking and reporting about themself and their mentoring relationship. It is therefore possible that the discussion or questionnaires could be stressful if they or their mentor have or are currently experiencing personal difficulties or difficulties in their relationship. Please note that you can withdraw your child/ward from the study at any time with no questions asked, including withdrawal of any information provided to the researchers up to one month from the date of the initial session.

There is a possibility that people who know your child/ward well and know that they are involved in a mentoring relationship could identify your child/ward in related publications or presentations but this is very unlikely and no identifying details (e.g. name and unique characteristics) will be included in anything produced about the study.

If at any stage your child/ward experiences distress, either during or following participation, there are support and counselling services available through Auckland Family Counselling and Psychotherapy Centre Inc. (33 Owens Road, Epsom, Auckland, Phone: 6387632), Youthline (www.youthline.co.nz/, 0800 376 633) and Lifeline Aotearoa (www.lifeline.org.nz, 09 5222 999). You may also contact any of the people on this information sheet to request assistance in contacting an appropriate support service.

He mihi nui! Thank you for reading about this research!

Further information

For any questions regarding this project, please contact Dr Deane (details above) or the Head of the School of Counselling, Human Services and Social Work, Dr Allen Bartley, The University of Auckland, Private Bag 92019, Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, Extension 48140. Email: a.bartley@auckland.ac.nz

For any queries regarding ethical concerns you may contact:

The Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Research Office, Private Bag 92019, Auckland, 1142. Phone 09 373-7599, ext. 83711. Email: ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz

This research has received funding from the University of Auckland Faculty Research Development Fund.

Approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee on 29 November 2018 for a further three years until 02 December 2021, Reference Number 016137

SCHOOL OF COUNSELLING,
HUMAN SERVICES AND SOCIAL WORK

Epsom Campus
Gate 3, 74 Epsom Ave
Auckland, New Zealand
T +64 9 623 8899
W www.education.auckland.ac.nz
The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92601
Symonds Street
Auckland 1135
New Zealand

Consent Form for Parents/Caregivers of Mentees under 16

This form will kept for a period of 6 years.

Title of Research Project: Adult-Youth Partnerships: Relationship Features that Predict Future Youth Thriving

Principal Investigator: Dr Kelsey Deane, School of Counselling, Human Services and Social Work, University of Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, extn: 48685. E-mail. k.deane@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Investigator: Dr Pat Bullen, School of Learning, Development and Professional Practice, University of Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, extn: 48535. E-mail. p.bullen@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Investigator: Associate Professor Nickola Overall, School of Psychology, University of Auckland. Phone 09 923 9120. E-mail. n.overall@auckland.ac.nz

Research Co-ordinator: Hilary Dutton. E-mail: nzmentoringresearch@gmail.com

- I have read the information sheet provided and understand what this research is about and why my child/ward has been invited to participate.
- I understand that this consent covers three sessions with my child/ward, one which includes two questionnaires and video-recorded activity session with their mentor, and two follow-up questionnaire sessions in six months and one year.
- I understand that no-one except the research team will see the video-recording of my child/ward.
- I have had the opportunity to ask questions and my questions have been answered.
- I understand that my child/ward's participation in this research is voluntary.
- I understand that my child/ward's participation in this research and any information they provide is confidential unless anything discussed or revealed by my child/ward or their mentor causes concern for their safety or the safety of others.
- I understand that my child/ward's responses will not be shared with their mentor.
- I understand that trained research assistants will have access to my child/ward's personal information and data, and that all research assistants will sign confidentiality agreements concerning all data collected in this study and no researchers will be allowed to code the video interactions of anyone known to them personally.

- I understand that either my child/ward or I may withdraw my child/ward from the study at any time without having to give reasons and without penalty.
- I understand that I can ask for my child/ward's data to be withdrawn from the study within one month of the first session.
- I understand that all hard copy research data, including my signed consent form, will be kept for 6 years in a secure filing cabinet at University of Auckland, then they will be destroyed. All electronic data will be kept indefinitely on password-protected computers.
- I know who to contact if I/my child/ward has any problems with the study.
- I agree for my child/ward to be available to complete two follow-up questionnaires in (1) six months and (2) one year.
- I agree for my child/ward to participate in this research.
- I consent to publication of the results of the project with the understanding that anonymity and confidentiality will be preserved but I understand people who know my child/ward and their mentor well may be able to identify them when reading publications about this study.

Name:

_____

Signed:

_____

Date:

_____

Email and Mobile Number (for follow up contact):

_____

If you would like to receive updates on the project findings at the end of each year, please tick here ☐

This research has received funding from the University of Auckland Faculty Research Development Fund.

Approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee on 29 November 2018 for a further three years until 02 December 2021, Reference Number 016137

SCHOOL OF COUNSELLING,
HUMAN SERVICES AND SOCIAL WORK

Epsom Campus
Gate 3, 74 Epsom Ave
Auckland, New Zealand
T +64 9 623 8899
W www.education.auckland.ac.nz
The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92601
Symonds Street
Auckland 1135
New Zealand

Organisation Information Sheet

Title of Research Project: Adult-Youth Partnerships: Relationship Features that Predict Future Youth Thriving

Principal Investigator: Dr Kelsey Deane, School of Counselling, Human Services and Social Work, University of Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, extn: 48685. E-mail. k.deane@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Investigator: Dr Pat Bullen, School of Learning, Development and Professional Practice, University of Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, extn: 48535. E-mail. p.bullen@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Investigator: Associate Professor Nickola Overall, School of Psychology, University of Auckland. Phone 09 923 9120. E-mail. n.overall@auckland.ac.nz

Research Co-ordinator: Hilary Dutton. E-mail: nzmentoringresearch@gmail.com

Tēnā koe! Warm Greetings!

The aim of this research is to identify the important ingredients of successful adult-youth partnerships, and which of these ingredients actually contribute to positive, long-term outcomes for youth. To do this, we are seeking to recruit mentor-mentee pairs who are in a formal mentoring relationship within a mentoring or youth organisation, who have been meeting for a minimum of three months, and where the mentee is aged between 12 and 18. Your assistance in reaching out to suitable dyads in your programme would be useful for conducting this important research.

This research follows on from a pilot study that ensured the study presented here is based on sound questions that are easily interpreted and relevant to mentors and mentees in the New Zealand context. To those of you who assisted us with the initial stage, we thank you for your previous contribution!

All that we require from your organisation for the present study is to assist us by 1) emailing the attached invitation to mentors and mentees who meet the above criteria; 2) posting the attached invitation on your organisational website or any newsletters you distribute to mentors and mentees; and/or 3) allowing us to visit a programme event/session to discuss the research with potential mentors and mentees. Pairs who are interested in participating can then contact the research team for further information using the details on the flyer which accompanies this letter. The research will initially be conducted at the University of Auckland, and will take approximately 1.5 hours of their time at an initial session during

which mentor and mentee pairs will be videotaped while participating in two activities. Follow-up questionnaire sessions will take place 6 months and 1 year later. The follow up questionnaires will take approximately 45 minutes each and can be conducted online or at a location convenient for the participants. Mentors and mentees will be reimbursed for their time. Participants will be advised their involvement is completely voluntary and they are free to withdraw from this study at any time without having to give reason and without penalty.

To protect the confidentiality and information of participants, the researchers will not be able to provide specific details regarding any pair who is involved in your programme. Further, the mentors and mentees will not have access to each other's responses. We can, however, provide electronic copies of journal articles, reports, or other publications which arise from this research.

Although we believe there is minimal risk associated with taking part in this research, participants will be debriefed and provided with support and counselling services should they become upset or distressed after participating. Furthermore, if anything is disclosed during the course of the research which causes concern for the safety of participants or others, then the Principal Investigator will take appropriate action.

He mihi nui! Thank you for reading about this research!
For any questions regarding this project, please contact Dr Deane (details above) or the Head of the School of Counselling, Human Services and Social Work, Dr Allen Bartley, The University of Auckland, Private Bag 92019, Auckland. Phone 09 373 7599, Extension 48140. Email: a.bartley@auckland.ac.nz

For any queries regarding ethical concerns you may contact:

The Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Research Office, Private Bag 92019, Auckland, 1142. Phone 09 373-7599, ext. 83711. Email: ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz

This research has received funding from the University of Auckland Faculty Research Development Fund.

Approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee on 29 November 2018 for a further three years until 02 December 2021, Reference Number 016137

APPENDIX C:

MENTOR SELF-DISCLOSURE INSTRUMENT

Mentor Self-Disclosure Inventory (MSDI) for pilot participants

Items marked with an asterisk were not taken from the Self-Disclosure Questionnaire (Jourard & Lasakow, 1958).

The MSDI was administered via an online platform, and some parts of the questionnaire looked slightly different to participants as a result of the online formatting.

This question has three parts, each asking about the personal information about yourself that you may have shared with your mentee during your sessions. This section has been adapted from Jourard and Lasakow (1958) *The Jourard Sixty-Item Self-Disclosure Questionnaire.* Retrieved from www.sidneyjourard.com/Questionnaire.pdf.

> Reflecting on the past six months, indicate the extent that you have talked about that item to your mentee; that is, the extent to which you have made yourself known to your mentee. In each section, use the below rating scale to describe the extent that you have talked about each item.

Nothing: I have told my mentee nothing about this aspect of me.
General: I have talk in general terms about this. My mentee has only a general idea about this aspect of me.
Fully: I have talked in full and complete detail about this item to my mentee. They know me fully in this respect and could describe me accurately.
False: I have lied or misrepresented myself to my mentee so that they have a false picture of me.

Part A:

	Nothing	General	Fully	False
1. My likes and dislikes in music	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. The types of things I enjoy reading	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. The kinds of movies that I like to see; the TV shows that are my favourites	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. My favourite ways of spending spare time (i.e., what your interests are)	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. My positive experiences at school*	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. My negative experiences at school*	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Whether or not I make any special efforts to keep fit and healthy	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. How I feel about the choice of career that I have made, whether or not I'm satisfied with it	☐	☐	☐	☐

9. What I enjoy most and get the most satisfaction from in my present work/study	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. What I find to be the most boring and unenjoyable aspects of my present work/study	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. My ambitions and goals in my work/study	☐	☐	☐	☐

Thinking about the items you just answered, in general, how often have these discussions occurred because:

	Never	Occasionally	Usually	Always
1. My mentee asked about this topic directly	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I offered this information to my mentee, unprompted	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. It was accidentally revealed (e.g., slip of the tongue, mentee overheard me in conversation with someone else)	☐	☐	☐	☐

Thinking about the items you just answered, do you feel any mentor training you may have received prepared you for discussing these topics with your mentee?

Yes, it helped me	☐
No, it did not help me	☐
I'm unsure if it helped me	☐
I have not received training on this topic	☐

Thinking about the items you just answered, do you think discussing these topics with your mentee has affected your relationship?

Yes, it affected our relationship positively	☐
Yes, it affected our relationship negatively	☐
No, it had no effect on our relationship	☐
I'm unsure if it had an effect on our relationship	☐
I haven't discussed these things with my mentee	☐

If you have any details or examples regarding your experience discussing these topics with your mentee (e.g, the circumstances or context of the conversation, how you felt during the conversation), you may share them here:

Part B:

Once again, reflecting on the <u>past six months</u>, indicate the extent that you have talked about each item to your mentee; that is, the extent to which you have made yourself known to your mentee.

	Nothing	General	Fully	False
1. What I think and feel about religion; my personal religious views.	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. My feelings about how parents ought to deal with children.	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. How much money I make at my work, or get as an allowance.	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. My feelings about the salary or rewards that I get for my work/study.	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. What I feel are my shortcoming and handicaps that prevent me from getting further ahead in my work.	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. What I feel are my special strong points for my work/study.	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Whether or not I owe money; if so, how much.	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. How I budget my money – the proportion that goes to necessities, luxuries, etc.	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. The aspects of my personality that I dislike, worry about, that I regard as a handicap to me.	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. The kinds of things that make me especially proud of myself, full of self-esteem or self-respect.	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. What feelings, if any, I have trouble expressing or controlling.	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Things in the past or present that I feel ashamed and guilty about.	☐	☐	☐	☐

13. The kinds of things that make me furious.	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. What it takes to get me feeling real depressed and blue.	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. What it takes to get me real worried, anxious, and afraid.	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. What it takes to hurt my feelings deeply.	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. My feelings about my appearance – things I like and things I don't like.	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. How I wish I looked; my ideals for overall appearance.	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. Any problems and worries that I had with my appearance when I was an adolescent.	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. Whether or not I have any health problems (including mental health).	☐	☐	☐	☐

Thinking about the items you just answered, in general, how often have these discussions occurred because:

	Never	Occasionally	Usually	Always
1. My mentee asked about this topic directly	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I offered this information to my mentee, unprompted	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. It was accidentally revealed (e.g., slip of the tongue, mentee overheard me in conversation with someone else)	☐	☐	☐	☐

Thinking about the items you just answered, do you feel any mentor training you may have received prepared you for discussing these topics with your mentee?

Yes, it helped me	☐
No, it did not help me	☐
I'm unsure if it helped me	☐
I have not received training on this topic	☐

Thinking about the items you just answered, do you think discussing these topics with your mentee has effected your relationship?

Yes, it affected our relationship positively	☐
Yes, it affected our relationship negatively	☐
No, it had no effect on our relationship	☐

I'm unsure if it had an effect on our relationship ☐

I haven't discussed these things with my mentee ☐

If you have any details or examples regarding your experience discussing these topics with your mentee (e.g, the circumstances or context of the conversation, how you felt during the conversation), you may share them here:

Part C:

Once again, reflecting on the <u>past six months</u>, indicate the extent that you have talked about each item to your mentee; that is, the extent to which you have made yourself known to your mentee.

For this part, please remember the questions are not asking what your personal habits are, but whether you have DISCUSSED these topics with your mentee. For example, it is not asking whether or not you smoke cigarettes, but whether you have discussed your smoking OR non-smoking with your mentee.

	Nothing	General	Fully	False
1. My personal views on smoking cigarettes*	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. My personal habits of smoking cigarettes*	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. My personal views on drinking alcohol.	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. My personal habits of drinking beer or wine*	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. My personal habits of drinking hard liquor (such as whiskey or vodka)*	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. My personal views on smoking marijuana*	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. My personal habits of smoking marijuana*	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. My personal views on using other drugs (e.g., ecstasy, methamphetamine, cocaine)*	☐	☐	☐	☐

9. My personal habits of using other drugs (e.g., ecstasy, methamphetamine, cocaine)*	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. My personal views on sexual morality (e.g., should people have pre-marital sex).	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. My sexual orientation*	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. My feelings about the sexual orientation of others*	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Whether or not I gamble; if so, the way I gamble and the extent of it.	☐	☐	☐	☐

Thinking about the items you just answered, in general, how often have these discussions occurred because:

	Never	Occasionally	Usually	Always
1. My mentee asked about this topic directly	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I offered this information to my mentee, unprompted	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. It was accidentally revealed (e.g., slip of the tongue, mentee overheard me in conversation with someone else)	☐	☐	☐	☐

Thinking about the items you just answered, do you feel any mentor training you may have received prepared you for discussing these topics with your mentee?

Yes, it helped me	☐
No, it did not help me	☐
I'm unsure if it helped me	☐
I have not received training on this topic	☐

Thinking about the items you just answered, do you think discussing these topics with your mentee has effected your relationship?

Yes, it affected our relationship positively	☐
Yes, it affected our relationship negatively	☐
No, it had no effect on our relationship	☐
I'm unsure if it had an effect on our relationship	☐
I haven't discussed these things with my mentee	☐

If you have any details or examples regarding your experience discussing these topics with your mentee (e.g, the circumstances or context of the conversation, how you felt during the conversation), you may share them here:

Mentor Self-Disclosure Inventory (MSDI) for full study participants

Items marked with an asterisk were not taken from the Self-Disclosure Questionnaire (Jourard & Lasakow, 1958).

The MSDI was administered via an online platform, and some parts of the questionnaire looked slightly different to participants as a result of the online formatting.

This section has three parts, each asking about the personal information about yourself that you may have shared with your current mentee during your sessions.

Part A:

Reflecting on your current mentoring relationship, please indicate how much you have told your mentee ABOUT YOURSELF for each item.

My likes and dislikes in music

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

The types of things I enjoy reading

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

The kinds of movies that I like to see; the TV shows that are my favourites

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My favourite ways of spending spare times (i.e., what my interests are)

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My positive experiences at school*

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My negative experiences at school*

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

Whether or not I make any special efforts to keep fit and healthy

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

How I feel about the choice of career/study that I have made (e.g., whether or not I'm satisfied with it)

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

What I enjoy most and get the most satisfaction from in my present work/study

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

What I find to be the most boring and unenjoyable aspects of my present work/study

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My ambitions and goals in my work/study

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

Please answer the following questions in relation to the discussions you have had with your mentee on the topics described on the previous page – interests/hobbies, school experiences, current study/work, keeping fit and healthy.

How often have these discussions occurred because:

	Never	Occasionally	Usually	Always
My mentee asked about this topic directly	☐	☐	☐	☐
I offered this information to my mentee, unprompted	☐	☐	☐	☐
It was accidentally revealed (e.g., slip of the tongue, mentee overheard me in conversation with someone else)	☐	☐	☐	☐

Did you receive any mentor training to prepare you for discussing these topics with your mentee?

I received mentor training on these topics Yes ☐ No ☐

If Y, to what extent do you feel this training helped you?

Not at all helpful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Extremely helpful***

Do you think discussing these topics with your mentee has affected your relationship?

I haven't discussed these things with my mentee	☐
I'm unsure if it had an effect on our relationship	☐
No, it had no effect on our relationship	☐
Yes, it affected our relationship	☐

If Y, how much did it affect your relationship?

Strongly negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Strongly positive***

How much information about yourself (positive or negative) have you concealed from your mentee on these topics?

Have not concealed any information	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Concealed a lot of information***

If you have any details or examples regarding your experience discussing these topics with your mentee (e.g., the circumstances or context of the conversation, how you felt during the conversation), you may share them here:

Part B:

Once again, reflecting on your current mentoring relationship, please indicate how much you have told your mentee ABOUT YOURSELF for each item.

What I think and feel about religion; my personal religious views

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My feelings about how parents ought to deal with children

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

How much money I make at my work or get as an allowance

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My feelings about the salary/rewards that I get for my work/study

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

What I feel are my shortcomings and handicaps that prevent me from getting further ahead in my work/study

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

What I feel are my special strong points for my work/study

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My personal financial debts (e.g., whether or not I owe money; if so, how much)

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

How I budget my money – the proportion that goes to necessities, luxuries, savings, etc.

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

The aspects of my personality that I dislike, worry about, that I regard as a handicap to me

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

The kinds of things that make me especially proud of myself, full of self-esteem or self-respect

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

What feelings, if any, I have trouble expressing or controlling

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

Things in the past or present that I feel ashamed and guilty about

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

The kinds of things that make me furious

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

What it takes to get me feeling real depressed and sad

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

What it takes to get me real worried, anxious and afraid

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

What it takes to hurt my feelings deeply

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My feelings about my appearance – things I like and things I don’t like

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

How I wish I looked; my ideals for overall appearance

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

Any problems or worries that I had with my appearance when I was an adolescent

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

Whether or not I have any health problems (i.e., mental or physical health)

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

Please answer the following questions in relation to the discussions you have had with your mentee on the topics described on the previous page – religion, finances, personal strengths and weaknesses, negative emotions, your appearance.

How often have these discussions occurred because:

	Never	Occasionally	Usually	Always
My mentee asked about this topic directly	☐	☐	☐	☐
I offered this information to my mentee, unprompted	☐	☐	☐	☐
It was accidentally revealed (e.g., slip of the tongue, mentee overheard me in conversation with someone else)	☐	☐	☐	☐

Did you receive any mentor training to prepare you for discussing these topics with your mentee?

I received mentor training on these topics Yes ☐ No ☐

If Y, to what extent do you feel this training helped you?

Not at all helpful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Extremely helpful***

Do you think discussing these topics with your mentee has affected your relationship?

I haven't discussed these things with my mentee ☐

I'm unsure if it had an effect on our relationship ☐

No, it had no effect on our relationship ☐

Yes, it affected our relationship ☐

If Y, how much did it affect your relationship?

Strongly negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Strongly positive***

How much information about yourself (positive or negative) have you concealed from your mentee on these topics?

Have not concealed any information	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Concealed a lot of information***

If you have any details or examples regarding your experience discussing these topics with your mentee (e.g, the circumstances or context of the conversation, how you felt during the conversation), you may share them here:

Part C:

Once again, reflecting on your current mentoring relationship, please indicate how much you have told your mentee ABOUT YOURSELF for each item.

For this part, please remember the questions are not asking what your personal habits are, but whether you have DISCUSSED these topics with your mentee. For example, it is not asking whether or not you smoke cigarettes, but whether you have discussed your smoking OR non-smoking with your mentee.

My personal views on smoking cigarettes*

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My personal habits of smoking cigarettes (current or previous)*

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My personal views on drinking alcohol

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My personal habits of drinking beer or wine (current or previous)*

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My personal habits of drinking hard liquor, such as whiskey or vodka (current or previous)*

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My personal views on smoking marijuana*

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My personal habits of smoking marijuana (current or previous)*

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My personal views on using other drugs, such as ecstasy, methamphetamine, cocaine*

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My personal habits of using other drugs, such as ecstasy, methamphetamine, cocaine (current or previous)*

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My sexual orientation*

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My feelings about the sexual orientation of others*

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My sexual experiences (e.g., experience of losing virginity)*

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My personal opinions or experiences about sexual health (e.g., accessing contraception; visiting Family Planning)*

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My personal views on sexual morality (e.g., should people have pre-marital sex)

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

My personal gambling habits debts (e.g., the way I gamble and the extent of it)

Told mentee nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Told mentee most things***

Please answer the following questions in relation to the discussions you have had with your mentee on the topics described on the previous page – alcohol use, cigarette smoking, drug use, sex and sexuality, gambling.

How often have these discussions occurred because:

	Never	Occasionally	Usually	Always
My mentee asked about this topic directly	☐	☐	☐	☐
I offered this information to my mentee, unprompted	☐	☐	☐	☐
It was accidentally revealed (e.g., slip of the tongue, mentee overheard me in conversation with someone else)	☐	☐	☐	☐

Did you receive any mentor training to prepare you for discussing these topics with your mentee?

I received mentor training on these topics Yes ☐ No ☐

If Y, to what extent do you feel this training helped you?

Not at all helpful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Extremely helpful***

Do you think discussing these topics with your mentee has affected your relationship?

I haven't discussed these things with my mentee ☐

I'm unsure if it had an effect on our relationship ☐

No, it had no effect on our relationship ☐

Yes, it affected our relationship ☐

If Y, how much did it affect your relationship?

Strongly negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Strongly positive***

How much information about yourself (positive or negative) have you concealed from your mentee on these topics?

Have not concealed any information	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	***Concealed a lot of information***

If you have any details or examples regarding your experience discussing these topics with your mentee (e.g., the circumstances or context of the conversation, how you felt during the conversation), you may share them here:

This section has been adapted from Jourard and Lasakow (1958) *The Jourard Sixty-Item Self-Disclosure Questionnaire.* Retrieved from www.sidneyjourard.com/Questionnaire.pdf

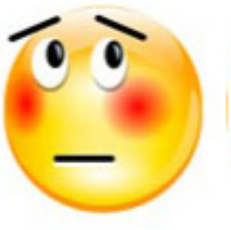
Mentor Self-Disclosure Instrument (MSDI) topic intimacy tiers

Item	Tier
Low intimacy	
The kinds of movies that I like to see; the tv shows that are my favourites	1
My positive experiences at school	1
The types of things I enjoy reading	1
Whether or not I make any special efforts to keep fit and healthy	1
My favourite ways of spending spare time (i.e., what my interests are)	1
My likes and dislikes in music	1
How I budget my money – the proportion that goes to necessities, luxuries, savings, etc	2
What I feel are my special strong points for my work/study	2
What I find to be the most boring and unenjoyable aspects of my present study/work	2
My ambitions and goals in my work/study	2
What I enjoy most and get the most satisfaction from in my present work/study	2
The kinds of things that make me especially proud of myself, full of self-esteem and self-respect	2
The kinds of things that make me furious	2
How I feel about the choice of career/study that I have made (e.g., whether or not I'm satisfied with it	2
My personal views on drinking alcohol	3
My personal views on smoking cigarettes	3
My negative experiences at school	3
Any problems or worries that I had with my appearance when I was an adolescent	3
What feelings, if any, I have trouble expressing or controlling	3
Medium intimacy	
What I feel are my shortcomings and handicaps that prevent me from getting further ahead in my work/study	4
My personal habits of drinking beer or wine (current or previous)	4
What it takes to get me feeling real depressed and sad	4
My feelings about my appearance – things I like and things I don't like	5
My personal views on smoking marijuana	5

What it takes to get me real worried, anxious and afraid	5
The aspects of my personality that I dislike, worry about, that I regard as a handicap to me	5
My feelings about how parents ought to deal with children	5
My personal opinions or experiences about sexual health (e.g., accessing contraception, visiting Family Planning)	6
My personal gambling habits and debts (e.g., the way I gamble and the extent of it)	7
My personal habits of drinking hard liquor such as whiskey or vodka (current or previous)	7
High intimacy	
Whether or not I have any health problems (i.e., mental or physical health)	8
What I think and feel about religion; my personal religious views	8
My personal habits of smoking cigarettes (current or previous)	8
What it takes to hurt my feelings deeply	8
My feelings about the salary/rewards that I get for my work/study	8
My feelings about the sexual orientation of others	9
My personal views on using other drugs, such as ecstasy, methamphetamine, cocaine	9
How I wish I looked; my ideals for overall appearance	9
My sexual orientation	9
How much money I make at my work or get as an allowance	9
My personal views on sexual morality (e.g., should people have premarital sex)	9
My sexual experiences (e.g., experience of losing virginity)	10
My personal habits of using other drugs such as ecstasy, methamphetamine, cocaine (current or previous)	10
My personal financial debts (e.g., whether or not I owe money; if so, how much)	10
My personal habits of smoking marijuana (current or previous)	10
Things in the past or present that I feel ashamed and guilty about	10

APPENDIX D:

Y-AP DISCUSSION ACTIVITY EMOTION CARDS

Excited	
Embarrassed	
Proud	
Stressed	
Hurt/sad/upset	
Happy	
Anger/ frustration	

APPENDIX E:

Y-AP STUDY PARTICIPANTS - PROGRAMME CHARACTERISTICS

Characteristics of programmes from which participants were recruited for the Y-AP study.

	Gender of programme participants	Mentee age range	Mentee risk status	Mentor profile	Expected relationship length	School- or community-based	Core aim/area of programme
Programme 1	Both	17-18	Moderate	Working professional, 25+	2+ years	CBM	Educational achievement; transition to university
Programme 2	Both	-	-	Peers, adults	-	CBM	Leadership in sustainability
Programme 3	Both	16-17	Moderate	University student	1 year	SBM	Educational achievement, transition to university
Programme 4	Both	13-20	-	-	-	CBM	Creative arts for empowerment
Programme 5	Both	14-16	Low	18+	1 year	CBM	Confidence, life skills
Programme 6	Male only	17-18	Low	Working professional	3 years	CBM	Transition for university
Programme 7	Female only	15-18	Moderate	25+	2-4 years	CBM	Leadership

APPENDIX F:

Y-AP RECRUITMENT FLYER

THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND
Te Whare Wānanga o Tāmaki Makaurau
NEW ZEALAND

EDUCATION AND SOCIAL WORK

LOOKING FOR SOMETHING FUN TO DO FOR YOUR NEXT MENTORING SESSION?

MENTORING PAIRS NEEDED TO TAKE PART IN ACTIVITIES FOR IMPORTANT NEW RESEARCH!

This research has received funding from the University of Auckland Faculty Research Development Fund.

This research has been approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee 2 December 2015 for three years (Reference # 016137)

Researchers from the University of Auckland Faculty of Education and Social Work are currently recruiting mentoring pairs who have been involved in a mentoring partnership for at least three months to participate in research investigating mentoring relationships. Mentees must be between 12-18 years of age.

The research involves two parts:

- Mentoring pairs visiting the University of Auckland to be observed taking part in two fun activities together.
- Questionnaires to be completed at the first session, then at follow-up meetings after 6 months and 1 year.

Koha/reimbursement will be provided to all participants for their time and effort. **Two Event Cinema tickets will be provided** to each mentor and mentee for the first session. **A $10 Warehouse voucher will be provided for follow-up sessions.**

If you are interested in participating or would like more information, please contact the Research Co-ordinator, Hilary Dutton, at nzmentoringresearch@gmail.com or call/text: 027 405 7191

REFERENCES

Adams, G., Anderson, S. L., & Adonu, J. K. (2004). The cultural grounding of closeness and intimacy. In D. J. Mashek & A. Aron (Eds.), *Handbook of Closeness and Intimacy.* (pp. 321–339). Retrieved from http://public.eblib.com/choice/publicfullrecord.aspx?p=335513

Ahrens, K. R., DuBois, D. L., Garrison, M., Spencer, R., Richardson, L. P., & Lozano, P. (2011). Qualitative exploration of relationships with important non-parental adults in the lives of youth in foster care. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *33*(6), 1012–1023. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2011.01.006

Alastalo, M. (2009). The history of social research methods. In P. Alasuutari, L. Bickman, & J. Brannen (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Social Research Methods*. London, UK: SAGE.

Alfonso, Y. N., Lindstrom Johnson, S., Cheng, T., Jones, V., Ryan, L., Fein, J., & Bishai, D. (2019). A marginal cost analysis of a Big Brothers Big Sisters of America youth mentoring program: New evidence using statistical analysis. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *101*, 23–32. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2019.03.002

Altman, I., & Taylor, D. A. (1973). *Social penetration theory: The development of interpersonal relationships*. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

Andersson, P. K., Gustafsson, A., Kristensson, P., & Wästlund, E. (2016). The effect of frontline employees' personal self-disclosure on consumers' encounter experience. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *30*, 40–49. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2015.12.004

Anguera, M. T., Blanco-Villaseñor, A., Losada, J. L., Sánchez-Algarra, P., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2018). Revisiting the difference between mixed methods and multimethods: Is

it all in the name? *Quality & Quantity*, *52*(6), 2757–2770. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-018-0700-2

Ara Taiohi. (2011). *Code of ethics for youth work in Aotearoa New Zealand*. Wellington, NZ: National Youth Workers Network Aotearoa.

Bauminger, N., Finzi-Dottan, R., Chason, S., & Har-Even, D. (2008). Intimacy in adolescent friendship: The roles of attachment, coherence, and self-disclosure. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, *25*(3), 409–428. https://doi.org/10.1177/0265407508090866

Bayer, A., Grossman, J. B., & DuBois, D. L. (2015). Using volunteer mentors to improve the academic outcomes of underserved students: The role of relationships. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *43*(4), 408–429. https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.21693

Bazarova, N. N., & Choi, Y. H. (2014). Self-disclosure in social media: Extending the functional approach to disclosure motivations and characteristics on social network sites. *Journal of Communication*, *64*(4), 635–657. https://doi.org/10.1111/jcom.12106

Beam, M. R., Gil-Rivas, V., Greenberger, E., & Chen, C. (2002). Adolescent problem behavior and depressed mood: Risk and protection within and across social contexts. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *31*(5), 343–357.

Becker, H. S. (1998). *Tricks of the trade: How to think about your research while you're doing it*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Biesta, G. (2010). Pragmatism and the philosophical foundations of mixed methods research. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *SAGE Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioral Research* (pp. 95–118). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Bloomgarden, A., & Mennuti, R. B. (2009). Lessons learned from adolescent girls. In *Psychotherapist revealed: Therapists speak about self-disclosure in psychotherapy* (pp. 101–114). New York, NY: Routledge.

Bogdan, R., & Biklen, S. K. (2007). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theories and methods* (5th ed). Boston, MA: Pearson A & B.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, *3*(2), 77–101. https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa

Braun, V., Clarke, V., Hayfield, N., & Terry, G. (2018). Thematic Analysis. In P. Liamputtong (Ed.), *Handbook of research methods in health social sciences* (pp. 1–18). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-2779-6_103-1

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development: Experiments by nature and design*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Bryman, A. (2009). The end of the paradigm wars? In P. Alasuutari, L. Bickman, & J. Brannen (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Social Research Methods*. London, UK: SAGE.

Bullen, P., Deane, K. L., Meissel, K., & Bhatnagar, S. (2019). What constitutes globalised evidence? Cultural tensions and critical reflections of the evidence-based movement in New Zealand: What constitutes globalised evidence? *International Journal of Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1002/ijop.12574

Busse, H., Campbell, R., & Kipping, R. (2018). Examining the wider context of formal youth mentoring programme development, delivery and maintenance: A qualitative study with mentoring managers and experts in the United Kingdom. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *95*, 95–108. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2018.10.028

Caldarella, P., Gomm, R. J., Shatzer, R. H., & Wall, D. G. (2010). School-based mentoring: A study of volunteer motivations and benefits. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*, *2*(2), 199–215.

Camarena, P. M., Sarigiani, P. A., & Petersen, A. C. (1990). Gender-specific pathways to intimacy in early adolescence. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *19*(1), 19–32.

Cavell, T. A., & Elledge, L. C. (2014). Mentoring and prevention science. In D. L. DuBois & M. J. Karcher (Eds.), *Handbook of Youth Mentoring* (2nd ed., pp. 29–42). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Cayanus, J. L., Martin, M. M., & Goodboy, A. K. (2009). The relation between teacher self-disclosure and student motives to communicate. *Communication Research Reports*, *26*(2), 105–113.

Chan, C. S., Rhodes, J. E., J, W. H., Lowe, S. R., Schwartz, S. E. O., & Herrera, C. (2013). Pathways of influence in school-based mentoring: The mediating role of parent and teacher relationships. *Journal of School Psychology*, *51*(1), 129–142. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2012.10.001

Chen, C., Greenberger, E., Farruggia, S. P., Bush, K., & Dong, Q. (2003). Beyond parents and peers: The role of important non-parental adults (VIPs) in adolescent development in China and the United States. *Psychology in the Schools*, *40*(1), 35–50. https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.10068

Coan, J. A., & Gottman, J. M. (2007). The Specific Affect Coding System (SPAFF). In J. A. Coan & J. J. B. Allen (Eds.), *Handbook of emotion elicitation and assessment* (pp. 106–123). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Collins, N. L., & Miller, L. C. (1994). Self-disclosure and liking: A meta-analytic review. *Psychological Bulletin*, *116*(3), 457.

Converse, N., & Lignugaris/Kraft, B. (2009). Evaluation of a school-based mentoring program for at-risk middle school youth. *Remedial and Special Education*, *30*(1), 33–46. https://doi.org/10.1177/0741932507314023

Cooper, G. (2012). Kaupapa Maori research: Epistemic wilderness as freedom? *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies*, *47*(2), 64–73.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (5th edition, international student edition). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2007). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Crooks, C. V., Exner-Cortens, D., Burm, S., Lapointe, A., & Chiodo, D. (2017). Two years of relationship-focused mentoring for First Nations, Métis, and Inuit adolescents: Promoting positive mental health. *The Journal of Primary Prevention, 38*(1–2), 87–104. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10935-016-0457-0

D'Aniello, C., & Nguyen, H. N. (2017). Considerations for intentional use of self-disclosure for family therapists. *Journal of Family Psychotherapy*, *28*(1), 23–37. https://doi.org/10.1080/08975353.2017.1283147

Deane, K. L., & Dutton, H. (2019). *The Youth-Adult Partnerships Observational Study: Research rationale, protocol and procedures*. Unpublished Manual. Auckland, NZ: University of Auckland.

Deane, K. L., Dutton, H., & Kerekere, E. (2019). *Ngā Tikanga Whanaketanga – He Arotake Tuhinga. A review of Aotearoa New Zealand youth development research*. Retrieved from: https://arataiohi.org.nz/publications/aotearoa-youth-research/

Derlega, V. J., Metts, S., Petronio, S., & Margulis, S. T. (1993). *Self-disclosure*. Newbury Park, CA: SAGE.

Derlega, V. J., Winstead, B. A., & Greene, K. (2008). Self-disclosure and starting a close relationship. In S. Sprecher, A. Wenzel, & J. H. Harvey (Eds.), *Handbook of Relationship Initiation* (pp. 153–174). New York, NY: Psychology Press.

Derlega, V. J., Winstead, B. A., Mathews, A., & Braitman, A. L. (2008). Why does someone reveal highly personal information? Attributions for and against self-disclosure in

close relationships. *Communication Research Reports*, *25*(2), 115–130. https://doi.org/10.1080/08824090802021756

Deutsch, N. L., Reitz-Krueger, C. L., Henneberger, A. K., Futch Ehrlich, V. A., & Lawrence, E. C. (2017). "It gave me ways to solve problems and ways to talk to people": Outcomes from a combined group and one-on-one mentoring program for early adolescent girls. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, *32*(3), 291–322. https://doi.org/10.1177/0743558416630813

Deutsch, N. L., & Spencer, R. (2009). Capturing the magic: Assessing the quality of youth mentoring relationships. *New Directions for Youth Development*, *121*, 47–70. https://doi.org/10.1002/yd.296

Deutsch, N. L., Wiggins, A. Y., Henneberger, A. K., & Lawrence, E. C. (2013). Combining mentoring with structured group activities: A potential after-school context for fostering relationships between girls and mentors. *The Journal of Early Adolescence*, *33*(1), 44–76. https://doi.org/10.1177/0272431612458037

Dindia, K. (2002). Self-disclosure research: Knowledge through meta-analysis. In M. Allen, R. W. Preiss, B. M. Gayle, & N. Burrell (Eds.), *Interpersonal communication research: Advances through meta-analysis* (pp. 169–185). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Dolgin, K. G. (1996). Parents' disclosure of their own concerns to their adolescent children. *Personal Relationships*, *3*(2), 159–169.

Dolgin, K. G., & Kim, S. (1994). Adolescents' disclosure to best and good friends: The effects of gender and topic intimacy. *Social Development*, *3*(2), 146–157.

Dormann, C. F., Elith, J., Bacher, S., Buchmann, C., Carl, G., Carré, G., … Lautenbach, S. (2013). Collinearity: A review of methods to deal with it and a simulation study

evaluating their performance. *Ecography*, *36*(1), 27–46. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0587.2012.07348.x

DuBois, D. L., Doolittle, F., Yates, B. T., Silverthorn, N., & Tebes, J. K. (2006). Research methodology and youth mentoring. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *34*(6), 657–676. https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.20122

DuBois, D. L., Holloway, B. E., Valentine, J. C., & Cooper, H. (2002). Effectiveness of mentoring programs for youth: A meta-analytic review. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *30*(2), 157–197.

DuBois, D. L., & Karcher, M. J. (2005). Youth mentoring: Theory, research, and practice. In D. L. DuBois & M. J. Karcher (Eds.), *Handbook of Youth Mentoring* (1st ed., pp. 2–13). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

DuBois, D. L., & Karcher, M. J. (2014). Youth mentoring in contemporary perspective. In D. L. DuBois & M. J. Karcher (Eds.), *Handbook of Youth Mentoring* (2nd ed., pp. 3–13). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

DuBois, D. L., Neville, H. A., Parra, G. R., & Pugh-Lilly, A. O. (2002). Testing a new model of mentoring. *New Directions for Youth Development*, (93), 21–57.

DuBois, D. L., Portillo, N., Rhodes, J. E., Silverthorn, N., & Valentine, J. C. (2011). How effective are mentoring programs for youth? A systematic assessment of the evidence. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, *12*(2), 57–91. https://doi.org/10.1177/1529100611414806

DuBois, D. L., & Silverthorn, N. (2005). Natural mentoring relationships and adolescent health: Evidence from a national study. *American Journal of Public Health*, *95*(3), 518–524. https://doi.org/95/3/518 [pii]

Duncan, B. L., Miller, S. D., Sparks, J. A., Claud, D. A., Reynolds, L. R., Brown, J., & Johnson, L. D. (2003). The Session Rating Scale: Preliminary psychometric properties of a “working” alliance measure. *Journal of Brief Therapy*, *3*(1), 3–12.

Dutton, H. (2018). Mentor self-disclosure in youth mentoring relationships: A review of the literature about adults disclosing to non-familial adolescents in intervention settings. *Adolescent Research Review*, *3*(1), 57–66. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40894-017-0065-0

Dutton, H., Bullen, P., & Deane, K. (2018). Getting to the heart of it: Understanding mentoring relationship quality from the perspective of program supervisors. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, *26*(4), 400–419. https://doi.org/10.1080/13611267.2018.1530132

Dutton, H., Bullen, P., & Deane, K. L. (2019). “It is OK to let them know you are human too”: Mentor self-disclosure in formal youth mentoring relationships. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *47*(4), 943–963. https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.22165

Dutton, H., Deane, K. L., & Bullen, P. (2018). Distal and experiential perspectives of relationship quality from mentors, mentees, and program staff in a school-based youth mentoring program. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *85*, 53–62. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2017.12.008

Eby, L. T., Rhodes, J. E., & Allen, T. D. (2007). Definition and Evolution of Mentoring. In T. D. Allen & L. T. Eby (Eds.), *The Blackwell Handbook of Mentoring* (pp. 7–20). https://doi.org/10.1111/b.9781405133739.2007.00002.x

Edwards, C. E., & Murdock, N. L. (1994). Characteristics of therapist self-disclosure in the counseling process. *Journal of Counseling and Development: JCD*, *72*(4), 384.

Elledge, L. C., Cavell, T. A., Ogle, N. T., & Newgent, R. A. (2010). School-based mentoring as selective prevention for bullied children: A preliminary test. *The Journal of Primary Prevention*, *31*(3), 171–187. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10935-010-0215-7

Engle, R. A., Conant, F. R., & Greeno, J. G. (2007). Progressive refinement of hypotheses in video-supported research. In R. Goldman (Ed.), *Video research in the learning sciences*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Evans, I. M., & Ave, K. T. (2000). Mentoring children and youth: Principles, ussues, and policy implications for community programmes in New Zealand. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology*, *29*(1), 41–49.

Farber, B. A. (2003). Self-disclosure in psychotherapy practice and supervision: An introduction. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, *59*(5), 525–528. https://doi.org/10.1002/jclp.10156

Farruggia, S. P., Bullen, P., & Pierson, L. (2013). An in-depth examination of the mentor-mentee relationship quality. In M. F. Shaughnessy (Ed.), *Mentoring: Practices, potential challenges and benefits* (pp. 11–22). Hauppauge, NY: Nova Science.

Farruggia, S. P., Bullen, P., Solomon, F., Collins, E., & Dunphy, A. (2011). Examining the cultural context of youth mentoring: A systematic review. *Journal of Primary Prevention*, *32*(5–6), 237–251. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10935-011-0258-4

Fehr, B. (2004). Intimacy expectations in same-sex friendships: A prototype interaction-pattern model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *86*(2), 265–284. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.86.2.265

Finkenauer, C., Engels, R. C. M. E., Branje, S. J. T., & Meeus, W. (2004). Disclosure and relationship satisfaction in families. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *66*(1), 195–209. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0022-2445.2004.00013.x-i1

Fletcher, G. J. O., Simpson, J. A., & Thomas, G. (2000). The measurement of perceived relationship quality components: A confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *26*(3), 340–354. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167200265007

Frank, S. J., Pirsch, L. A., & Wright, V. C. (1990). Late adolescents' perceptions of their relationships with their parents: Relationships among deidealization, autonomy, relatedness, and insecurity and implications for adolescent adjustment and ego identity status. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *19*(6), 571–588.

Gaines, R. (2003). Therapist self-disclosure with children, adolescents, and their parents. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 59*(5), 569–580. https://doi.org/10.1002/jclp.10163

Gayle, B. M., & Preiss, R. W. (2002). An overview of dyadic processes in interpersonal communication. In M. Allen, R. W. Preiss, B. M. Gayle, & N. Burrell (Eds.), *Interpersonal communication research: Advances through meta-analysis* (pp. 111–123). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Gibbs, J. L., Ellison, N. B., & Lai, C.-H. (2011). First comes love, then comes Google: An investigation of uncertainty reduction strategies and self-disclosure in online dating. *Communication Research, 38*(1), 70–100. https://doi.org/10.1177/0093650210377091

Gilgun, J. F. (1995). We shared something special: The moral discourse of incest perpetrators. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 57*(2), 265–281.

Gibson, M. F. (2012). Opening up: Therapist self-disclosure in theory, research, and practice. *Clinical Social Work Journal*, *40*(3), 287–296. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10615-012-0391-4

Gillespie, N. (2015). Survey measures of trust in organizational contexts: An overview. In F. Lyon, G. Mollering, & M. N. K. Saunders (Eds.), *Handbook of research methods on trust* (2nd ed., pp. 225–239). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.

Goldner, L., & Mayseless, O. (2008). Juggling the roles of parents, therapists, friends and teachers – a working model for an integrative conception of mentoring. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, *16*(4), 412–428. https://doi.org/10.1080/13611260802433783

Goldner, L., & Mayseless, O. (2009). The quality of mentoring relationships and mentoring success. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 38*(10), 1339–1350. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-008-9345-0

Goldner, L., & Scharf, M. (2014). Attachment security, the quality of the mentoring relationship and protégé' adjustment. *Journal of Primary Prevention, 35*(4), 267–279. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10935-014-0349-0

Goodman, G. (1972). *Companionship Theory*. London, UK: Jossey-Bass.

Goodman, G., & Dooley, D. (1976). A framework for help-intended communication. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research & Practice, 13*(2), 106–117.

Greenberger, E., Chen, C., & Beam, M. R. (1998). The role of "very important" nonparental adults in adolescent development. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 27*(3), 321–343.

Greene, K., Derlega, V. J., & Mathews, A. (2006). Self-disclosure in personal relationships. In A. Vangelisti & D. Perlman (Eds.), *Cambridge Handbook of Personal Relationships* (pp. 409–427). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Griffith, A. N. (2016). Trajectories of trust within the youth program context. *Qualitative Psychology*, *3*(1), 98–119. https://doi.org/10.1037/qup0000049

Grossman, J. B., & Rhodes, J. E. (2002). The test of time: Predictors and effects of duration in youth mentoring relationships. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 30*(2), 199–219.

Grossman, J. B., & Tierney, J. P. (1998). Does Mentoring Work?: An Impact Study of the Big Brothers Big Sisters Program. *Evaluation Review*, *22*(3), 403–426. https://doi.org/10.1177/0193841X9802200304

Guerrero, L. K., Andersen, P. A., & Afifi, W. A. (2007). *Close encounters: Communication in relationships* (2nd ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Hamilton, S. F., & Hamilton, M. A. (1992). Mentoring programs: Promise and paradox. *The Phi Delta Kappan*, *73*(7), 546–550.

Harris, J., & Nakkula, M. (2003a). *Match Characteristics Questionnaire (MCQ).* Unpublished instrument. Retrieved from http://www.mentoringevaluation.com/Tools.htm

Harris, J., & Nakkula, M. (2003b). *Youth Mentoring Survey (YMS).* Unpublished instrument. Retrieved from http://www.mentoringevaluation.com/Tools.htm

Henretty, J. R., & Levitt, H. M. (2010). The role of therapist self-disclosure in psychotherapy: A qualitative review. *Clinical Psychology Review*, *30*(1), 63–77. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2009.09.004

Henry, E., & Pene, H. (2001). Kaupapa Maori: Locating indigenous ontology, epistemology and methodology in the academy. *Organization*, *8*(2), 234–242.

Herrera, C. (2004). *School-based mentoring: A closer look*. Retrieved from Public/Private Ventures website: http://www.issuelab.org/resource/school_based_mentoring_a_closer_look

Herrera, C., Grossman, J. B., Kauh, T. J., Feldman, A. F., McMaken, J., & Jucovy, L. Z. (2007). *Making a difference in schools: The Big Brothers Big Sisters school-based mentoring impact study*. Retrieved from Public/Private Ventures website: http://www.issuelab.org/resource/making_a_difference_in_schools_the_big_brothers_big_sisters_school_based_mentoring_impact_study

Herrera, C., & Karcher, M. J. (2014). School-based mentoring. In D. L. DuBois & M. J. Karcher (Eds.), *Handbook of Youth Mentoring* (2nd ed., pp. 203–220). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Herrera, C., Sipe, C. L., McClanahan, W. S., Arbreton, A. J. A., & Pepper, S. K. (2000). *Mentoring school-age children: Relationship development in community-based and*

school-based programs. Retrieved from Public/Private Ventures website: http://www.issuelab.org/resource/mentoring_school_age_children_relationship_development_in_community_based_and_school_based_programs

Herrera, C., Vang, Z., & Gale, L. Y. (2002). *Group mentoring: A study of mentoring groups in three programs*. Retrieved from Public/Private Ventures website: http://www.issuelab.org/resource/group_mentoring_a_study_of_mentoring_groups_in_three_programs

Heyman, R. E. (2001). Observation of couple conflicts: Clinical assessment applications, stubborn truths, and shaky foundations. *Psychological Assessment*, *13*(1), 5–35. https://doi.org/10.1037//1040-3590.13.1.5

Hill, C. E., & Knox, S. (2002). Self-Disclosure. In J. C. Norcross (Ed.), *Psychotherapy relationships that work: Therapist contributions and responsiveness to patients* (pp. 225–265). Cary, NC: Oxford University Press.

Hill, C. E., Knox, S., & Pinto-Coelho, K. G. (2018). Therapist self-disclosure and immediacy: A qualitative meta-analysis. *Psychotherapy*, *55*(4), 445–460. https://doi.org/10.1037/pst0000182

Ho, A., Hancock, J., & Miner, A. S. (2018). Psychological, relational, and emotional effects of self-disclosure after conversations with a chatbot. *Journal of Communication*, *68*(4), 712–733. https://doi.org/10.1093/joc/jqy026

Johnson, R. B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, *33*(7), 14–26. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X033007014

Johnson, R. B., & Turner, L. A. (2003). Data collection strategies in mixed methods research. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (pp. 297–319). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Joinson, A., Reips, U.-D., Buchanan, T., & Schofield, C. B. P. (2010). Privacy, trust, and self-disclosure online. *Human-Computer Interaction*, *25*(1), 1–24. https://doi.org/10.1080/07370020903586662

Jourard, S. M. (1964). *The transparent self: Self-disclosure and well-being*. New York, NY: Van Nostrand.

Jourard, S. M. (1971). *Self-disclosure: An experimental analysis of the transparent self*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Kanchewa, S. S., Yoviene, L. A., Schwartz, S. E. O., Herrera, C., & Rhodes, J. E. (2018). Relational experiences in school-based mentoring: The mediating role of rejection sensitivity. *Youth & Society*, *50*(8), 1078–1099. https://doi.org/10.1177/0044118X16653534

Karcher, M. J., & Hansen, K. (2014). Mentoring activities and interactions. In D. L. DuBois & M. J. Karcher (Eds.), *Handbook of Youth Mentoring* (2nd ed., pp. 63–82). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Karcher, M. J., Herrera, C., & Hansen, K. (2010). "I dunno, what do you wanna do?": Testing a framework to guide mentor training and activity selection. *New Directions for Youth Development*, *2010*(126), 51–69. https://doi.org/10.1002/yd.349

Karcher, M. J., Kuperminc, G. P., Portwood, S. G., Sipe, C. L., & Taylor, A. S. (2006). Mentoring programs: A framework to inform program development, research, and evaluation. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *34*(6), 709–725. https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.20125

Karcher, M. J., & Nakkula, M. J. (2010). Youth mentoring with a balanced focus, shared purpose, and collaborative interactions. *New Directions for Youth Development*, *126*, 13–32. https://doi.org/10.1002/yd.347

Karcher, M. J., Nakkula, M. J., & Harris, J. (2005). Developmental mentoring match characteristics: Correspondence between mentors and mentees' assessments of relationship quality. *The Journal of Primary Prevention*, *26*(2), 93–110. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10935-005-1847-x

Karver, M., Handelsman, J., Fields, S., & Bickman, L. (2006). Meta-analysis of therapeutic relationship variables in youth and family therapy: The evidence for different relationship variables in the child and adolescent treatment outcome literature. *Clinical Psychology Review*, *26*(1), 50–65. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2005.09.001

Keller, T. E. (2005a). A systemic model of the youth mentoring intervention. *The Journal of Primary Prevention*, *26*(2), 169–187. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10935-005-1850-2

Keller, T. E. (2005b). The stages and development of mentoring relationships. In D. L. DuBois & M. J. Karcher (Eds.), *Handbook of Youth Mentoring* (pp. 82–99). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Keller, T. E. (2007). Youth mentoring: Theoretical and methodological issues. In T. D. Allen & L. T. Eby (Eds.), *The Blackwell Handbook of Mentoring*. https://doi.org/10.1111/b.9781405133739.2007.00003.x

Keller, T. E., & Pryce, J. (2010). Mutual but unequal: Mentoring as a hybrid of familiar relationship roles. *New Directions for Youth Development*, *2010*(126), 33–50. https://doi.org/10.1002/yd.348

Kelly, A. E., & McKillop, K. J. (1996). Consequences of revealing personal secrets. *Psychological Bulletin*, *120*(3), 450–465.

Kil, H., Grusec, J. E., & Chaparro, M. P. (2018). Maternal disclosure and adolescent prosocial behavior: The mediating roles of adolescent disclosure and coping. *Social Development*, *27*(3), 652–664. https://doi.org/10.1111/sode.12287

Kim, H.-Y. (2013). Statistical notes for clinical researchers: Assessing normal distribution (2) using skewness and kurtosis. *Restorative Dentistry & Endodontics, 38*(1), 52. https://doi.org/10.5395/rde.2013.38.1.52

Knapp, M. L., & Daly, J. A. (2011). Background and current trends in the study of interpersonal communication. In M. L. Knapp & J. A. Daly (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Interpersonal Communication* (4th ed., pp. 3–22). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Knapp, M. L., & Vangelisti, A. L. (1992). *Interpersonal communication and human relationships* (2nd ed). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Koerner, S. S., Wallace, S., Lehman, S. J., & Raymond, M. (2002). Mother-to-daughter disclosure after divorce: Are there costs and benefits? *Journal of Child and Family Studies, 11*(4), 469–483.

Kupersmidt, J. B., & Rhodes, J. E. (2014). Mentor training. In D. L. DuBois & M. J. Karcher (Eds.), *Handbook of Youth Mentoring* (2nd ed., pp. 439–456). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Lakind, D., Atkins, M., & Eddy, J. M. (2015). Youth mentoring relationships in context: Mentor perceptions of youth, environment, and the mentor role. *Children and Youth Services Review, 53*, 52–60.

Lannutti, P., & Strauman, E. (2006). Classroom communication: The influence of instructor self-disclosure on student evaluations. *Communication Quarterly, 54*(1), 89–99. https://doi.org/10.1080/01463370500270496

Laursen, B., & Bukowski, W. M. (1997). A developmental guide to the organisation of close relationships. *International Journal of Behavioral Management, 21*(4), 747–770.

Leech, N. L., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2009). A typology of mixed methods research designs. *Quality & Quantity, 43*(2), 265–275. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-007-9105-3

Lerner, R. M., Fisher, C. B., & Weinberg, R. A. (2000). Toward a science for and of the people: Promoting civil society through the application of developmental science. *Child Development, 71*(1), 11–20. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8624.00113

Lester, A. M., Goodloe, C. L., Johnson, H. E., & Deutsch, N. L. (2019). Understanding mutuality: Unpacking relational processes in youth mentoring relationships. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *47*(1), 147–162. https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.22106

Leyton-Armakan, J., Lawrence, E., Deutsch, N. L., Williams, J. L., & Henneberger, A. (2012). Effective youth mentors: The relationship between initial characteristics of college women mentors and mentee satisfaction and outcome. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *40*(8), 906–920. https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.21491

Li, J., & Julian, M. M. (2012). Developmental relationships as the active ingredient: A unifying working hypothesis of "what works" across intervention settings. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, *82*(2), 157–166. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1939-0025.2012.01151.x

Liang, B., Spencer, R., Brogan, D., & Corral, M. (2008). Mentoring relationships from early adolescence through emerging adulthood: A qualitative analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *72*(2), 168–182. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2007.11.005

Lichtwarck-Aschoff, A., Finkenauer, C., van de Vorst, H., & Engels, R. C. M. E. (2012). Being mum's confidant, a boon or bane? Examining gender differences in the association of maternal disclosure with adolescents' depressive feelings. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *41*(4), 449–459. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-011-9661-7

Lincoln, Y. S., Lynham, S. A., & Guba, E. G. (2011). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences, revisited. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research* (4th ed, pp. 97–128). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Lyons, M. D., McQuillin, S. D., & Henderson, L. J. (2018). Finding the sweet spot: Investigating the effects of relationship closeness and instrumental activities in school-based mentoring. *American Journal of Community Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1002/ajcp.12283

Martin, M. M., & Anderson, C. M. (1995). The father-young adult relationship: Interpersonal motives, self-disclosure, and satisfaction. *Communication Quarterly, 43*(2), 119–130.

Maxwell, J. A., & Mittapalli, K. (2010). Realism as a stance for mixed methods research. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *SAGE Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioral Research* (pp. 145–168). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

McCarthy, M., & McMahon, C. (2008). Acceptance and experience of treatment for postnatal depression in a community mental health setting. *Health Care for Women International*, *29*(6), 618–637. https://doi.org/10.1080/07399330802089172

McMorris, B. J., Doty, J. L., Weiler, L. M., Beckman, K. J., & Garcia-Huidobro, D. (2018). A typology of school-based mentoring relationship quality: Implications for recruiting and retaining volunteer mentors. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *90*, 149–157. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2018.05.019

McNelles, L. R., & Connolly, J. A. (1999). Intimacy between adolescent friends: Age and gender differences in intimate affect and intimate behaviors. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, *9*(2), 143–159.

McQuillin, S. D., Strait, G., Smith, B., & Ingram, A. (2015). Brief instrumental school-based mentoring for first- and second-year middle school students: A randomized evaluation. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *43*(7), 885–899. https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.21719

McQuillin, S. D., Terry, J. D., Strait, G. G., & Smith, B. H. (2013). Innovation in school-based mentoring: Matching the context, structure and goals of mentoring with

evidence-based practices. *Advances in School Mental Health Promotion*, *6*(4), 280–294. https://doi.org/10.1080/1754730X.2013.832009

MENTOR. (2015). *Elements of effective practice for mentoring*. Boston, MA: MENTOR.

Ministry of Education. (n.d.). The concept of a tuakana–teina relationship. Retrieved June 9, 2019, from http://tereomaori.tki.org.nz/Curriculum-guidelines/Teaching-and-learning-te-reo-Maori/Aspects-of-planning/The-concept-of-a-tuakana-teina-relationship

Miranda-Chan, T., Fruiht, V., Dubon, V., & Wray-Lake, L. (2016). The functions and longitudinal outcomes of adolescents' naturally occurring mentorships. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *57*(1–2), 47–59. https://doi.org/10.1002/ajcp.12031

Mitchell, M. E., Eby, L. T., & Ragins, B. R. (2015). My Mentor, My Self: Antecedents and outcomes of perceived similarity in mentoring relationships. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *89*, 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2015.04.008

Moreno-Candil, D., & Garza, M. (2017). A pilot study of the impact of the Peraj Mentoring Program on school dropout risk of Mexican children: Educational trajectories (1999-2010). *Journal of Community Psychology*, *45*(3), 315–332. https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.21849

Morrow, K. V., & Styles, M. B. (1995). *Building relationships with youth in program settings: A study of Big Brothers/Big Sisters*. Public/Private Ventures.

Myers, D., & Hayes, J. A. (2006). Effects of therapist general self-disclosure and countertransference disclosure on ratings of the therapist and session. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research, Practice, Training*, *43*(2), 173–185. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-3204.43.2.173

Nakkula, M. J., & Harris, J. T. (2005). Assessment of mentoring relationships. In D. L. DuBois & M. J. Karcher (Eds.), *Handbook of Youth Mentoring* (1st ed., pp. 100–118). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Nakkula, M. J., & Harris, J. T. (2014). Assessing Mentoring Relationships. In D. L. DuBois & M. J. Karcher (Eds.), *Handbook of Youth Mentoring* (2nd ed., pp. 45–62). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

New Zealand Youth Mentoring Network. (n.d.). New Zealand Youth Mentoring Network, history. Retrieved April 28, 2019, from https://www.youthmentoring.org.nz/about/history.cfm

New Zealand Youth Mentoring Network. (2016). *Guide to effective and safe practice in youth mentoring*. Auckland, NZ: NZYMN.

Nguyen, M., Bin, Y. S., & Campbell, A. (2012). Comparing online and offline self-disclosure: A systematic review. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking*, *15*(2), 103–111. https://doi.org/10.1089/cyber.2011.0277

Norrell, J. E. (1984). Self-disclosure: Implications for the study of parent-adolescent interaction. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *13*(2), 163–178.

Omarzu, J. (2000). A disclosure decision model: Determining how and when individuals will self-disclose. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *4*(2), 174–185.

Oswald, D. L., & Clark, E. M. (2003). Best friends forever?: High school best friendships and the transition to college. *Personal Relationships*, *10*, 187–196.

Overall, N. C., Fletcher, G. J., Simpson, J. A., & Sibley, C. G. (2009). Regulating partners in intimate relationships: The costs and benefits of different communication strategies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *96*(3), 620.

Papouchis, N. (1990). Criteria for therapist self-disclosure. In G. Stricker & M. Fisher (Eds.), *Self-disclosure in the therapeutic relationship* (pp. 157–174). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4899-3582-3

Parra, G. R., DuBois, D. L., Neville, H. A., Pugh-Lilly, A. O., & Povinelli, N. (2002). Mentoring relationships for youth: Investigation of a process-oriented model. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *30*(4), 367–388. https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.10016

Patton, M. Q. (2015). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods: Integrating theory and practice* (Fourth edition). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Peterson, Z. D. (2002). More than a mirror: The ethics of therapist self-disclosure. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research, Practice, Training*, *39*(1), 21–31. https://doi.org/10.1037//0033-3204.39.1.21

Portwood, S. G., & Ayers, P. M. (2005). Schools. In D. L. DuBois & M. J. Karcher (Eds.), *Handbook of Youth Mentoring* (1st ed., pp. 335–348). https://doi.org/10.4135/9781412976664.n22

Preston, J. M., Prieto-Flores, Ò., & Rhodes, J. E. (2018). Mentoring in context: A comparative study of youth mentoring programs in the United States and Continental Europe. *Youth & Society, 51*(7), 900-914. https://doi.org/10.1177/0044118X18813700

Pryce, J. (2012). Mentor attunement: An approach to successful school-based mentoring relationships. *Child & Adolescent Social Work Journal*, *29*(4), 285–305. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10560-012-0260-6

Pryce, J., Deane, K. L., Barry, J. E., & Keller, T. E. (2020). Understanding relationship dynamics: Advancing the field of youth mentoring with direct observational methods. *Adolescent Research Review*, 1-12. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40894-019-00131-z

Pryce, J., Gilkerson, L., & Barry, J. E. (2018). The Mentoring FAN: A promising approach to enhancing attunement within the mentoring system. *Journal of Social Service Research*, *44*(3), 350–364. https://doi.org/10.1080/01488376.2018.1472174

Pryce, J., & Keller, T. E. (2012). An investigation of volunteer-student relationship trajectories within school-based youth mentoring programs. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *40*(2), 228–248. https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.20487

Pryce, J., & Keller, T. E. (2013). Interpersonal tone within school-based youth mentoring relationships. *Youth & Society*, *45*(1), 98–116. https://doi.org/10.1177/0044118X11409068

Psychopathology Committee of the Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry. (2001). Reexamination of therapist self-disclosure. *Psychiatric Services*, *52*(11), 1489–1493.

Radmacher, K., & Azmitia, M. (2006). Are there gendered pathways to intimacy in early adolescents' and emerging adults' friendships? *Journal of Adolescent Research*, *21*(4), 415–448. https://doi.org/10.1177/0743558406287402

Raposa, E. B., Ben-Eliyahu, A., Olsho, L. E. W., & Rhodes, J. E. (2019). Birds of a feather: Is matching based on shared interests and characteristics associated with longer youth mentoring relationships? *Journal of Community Psychology*, *47*(2), 385–397. https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.22127

Raposa, E. B., Dietz, N., & Rhodes, J. E. (2017). Trends in volunteer mentoring in the United States: Analysis of a decade of census survey data. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *59*(1–2), 3–14. https://doi.org/10.1002/ajcp.12117

Raposa, E. B., Rhodes, J. E., Stams, G. J. J. M., Card, N., Burton, S., Schwartz, S., … Hussain, S. (2019). The effects of youth mentoring programs: A meta-analysis of outcome studies. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-019-00982-8

Reis, H. T., & Shaver, P. (1988). Intimacy as an interpersonal process. In S. W. Duck, D. F. Hay, S. E. Hobfoll, W. Ickes, & B. M. Montgomery (Eds.), *Handbook of Personal Relationships* (pp. 367–389). Oxford, UK: Wiley & Sons.

Rettig, K. D., Tam, V. C.-W., & Magistad, B. M. (1997). Using pattern matching and modified analytic induction in examining justice principles in child support guidelines. *Marriage & Family Review*, *24*(1–2), 193–222. https://doi.org/10.1300/J002v24n01_09

Rhodes, J. E. (2004). *Stand by me: The risks and rewards of mentoring today's youth*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Rhodes, J. E., & DuBois, D. L. (2008). Mentoring relationships and programs for youth. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *17*(4), 254–258.

Rhodes, J. E., Liang, B., & Spencer, R. (2009). First do no harm: Ethical principles for youth mentoring relationships. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, *40*(5), 452–458. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0015073

Rhodes, J. E., Liang, B., & Spencer, R. (2014). *Ethical issues in youth mentoring* (D. L. DuBois & M. J. Karcher, Eds.). In *Handbook of Youth Mentoring* (2nd ed., pp. 511–522). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Rhodes, J. E., Schwartz, S. E. O., Willis, M. M., & Wu, M. B. (2014). Validating a mentoring relationship quality scale: Does match strength predict match length? *Youth & Society*, 1–23. https://doi.org/10.1177/0044118X14531604

Rhodes, J. E., Spencer, R., Keller, T. E., Liang, B., & Noam, G. (2006). A model for the influence of mentoring relationships on youth development. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *34*(6), 691–707. https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.20124

Rose, A. J. (2002). Co-rumination in the friendships of girls and boys. *Child Development*, *73*(6), 1830–1843.

Roy, A. (2014). Aboriginal worldviews and epidemiological survey methodology: Overcoming incongruence. *International Journal of Multiple Research Approaches*, *8*(1), 117–128.

Royal, T. A. C. (2012). Politics and knowledge: Kaupapa Maori and matauranga Maori. *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies*, *47*(2), 30–37.

Royal Tangaere, A. (1997). Māori human development learning theory. In P. Te Whāiti, M. B. McCarthy, & A. Durie (Eds.), *Mai i Rangiātea: Māori wellbeing and development* (pp. 46–59). Auckland, NZ: Auckland University Press.

Rubin, Z., & Shenker, S. (1978). Friendship, proximity, and self-disclosure. *Journal of Personality*, *46*(1), 1–22.

Sayer, R. A. (2000). *Realism and social science*. London, UK: SAGE.

Scales, P. C., Benson, P. L., Leffert, N., & Blyth, D. A. (2000). Contribution of developmental assets to the prediction of thriving among adolescents. *Applied Developmental Science*, *4*(1), 27–46. https://doi.org/10.1207/S1532480XADS0401_3

Schwartz, S. E. O., Rhodes, J. E., Chan, C. S., & Herrera, C. (2011). The impact of school-based mentoring on youths with different relational profiles. *Developmental Psychology*, *47*(2), 450–462. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021379

Search Institute. (2018). *The Developmental Relationships Framework*. Retrieved from https://www.search-institute.org/developmental-relationships/developmental-relationships-framework/

Sharmini, S., Spronken-Smith, R., Golding, C., & Harland, T. (2015). Assessing the doctoral thesis when it includes published work. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *40*(1), 89–102. https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2014.888535

Simon, J. C. (1990). Criteria for therapist self-disclosure. In G. Stricker & M. Fisher (Eds.), *Self-disclosure in the therapeutic relationship* (pp. 207–225). New York, NY: Springer Science+Business Media New York.

Sipe, C. L. (2005). Toward a Typology of Mentoring. In D. L. DuBois & M. J. Karcher (Eds.), *Handbook of Youth Mentoring* (1st ed., pp. 65–80). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Smith, L. T. (2012). *Decolonizing Methodologies: Research and Indigenous Peoples* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Zed Books.

Sollie, D. L., & Fischer, J. L. (1985). Sex-role orientation, intimacy of topic, and target person differences in self-disclosure among women. *Sex Roles*, *12*(9–10), 917–929.

Spencer, R. (2004). Studying relationships in psychotherapy: An untapped resource for youth mentoring. *New Directions for Youth Development*, *2004*(103), 31–43. https://doi.org/10.1002/yd.89

Spencer, R. (2006). Understanding the mentoring process between adolescents and adults. *Youth & Society*, *37*(3), 287–315. https://doi.org/10.1177/0743558405278263

Spencer, R. (2007). "It's not what I expected": A qualitative study of youth mentoring relationship failures. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, *22*(4), 331–354. https://doi.org/10.1177/0743558407301915

Spencer, R. (2012). A working model of mentors' contributions to youth mentoring relationship quality: Insights from research on psychotherapy. *LEARNing Landscapes*, *5*(2), 295–312.

Spencer, R., & Basualdo-Delmonico, A. (2014). Family involvement in the youth mentoring process: A focus group study with program staff. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *41*, 75–82.

Spencer, R., Basualdo-Delmonico, A., & Lewis, T. O. (2011). Working to make it work: The role of parents in the youth mentoring process. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *39*(1), 51–59.

Spencer, R., Drew, A. L., Walsh, J., & Kanchewa, S. S. (2018). Girls (and boys) just want to have fun: A mixed-methods examination of the role of gender in youth mentoring relationship duration and quality. *The Journal of Primary Prevention*, *39*(1), 17–35. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10935-017-0494-3

Spencer, R., & Liang, B. (2009). "She gives me a break from the world": Formal youth mentoring relationships between adolescent girls and adult women. *The Journal of Primary Prevention*, *30*(2), 109–130.

Sprecher, S., & Hendrick, S. S. (2004). Self-disclosure in intimate relationships: Associations with individual and relationship characteristics over time. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, *23*(6), 857–877. https://doi.org/10.1521/jscp.23.6.857.54803

Sprecher, S., Treger, S., Wondra, J. D., Hilaire, N., & Wallpe, K. (2013). Taking turns: Reciprocal self-disclosure promotes liking in initial interactions. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *49*(5), 860–866. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2013.03.017

Steinberg, L., & Morris, A. S. (2001). Adolescent development. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *52*(1), 83–110. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.83

Stevens, J. P. (2002). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences* (4th ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Stricker, G. (2003). The many faces of self-disclosure. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, *59*(5), 623–630. https://doi.org/10.1002/jclp.10165

Sue, D. W., & Sue, D. (1999). *Counseling the culturally different: Theory and practice* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Suffrin, R. L., Todd, N. R., & Sánchez, B. (2016). An ecological perspective of mentor satisfaction with their youth mentoring relationships. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *44*(5), 553–568. https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.21785

Tamir, D. I., & Mitchell, J. P. (2012). Disclosing information about the self is intrinsically rewarding. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *109*(21), 8038–8043. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1202129109

Tan, R., Overall, N. C., & Taylor, J. K. (2012). Let's talk about us: Attachment, relationship-focused disclosure, and relationship quality. *Personal Relationships*, *19*(3), 521–534. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-6811.2011.01383.x

Tanner-Smith, E. E., Durlak, J. A., & Marx, R. A. (2018). Empirically based mean effect size distributions for universal prevention programs targeting school-aged youth: A review of meta-analyses. *Prevention Science*, *19*(8), 1091–1101. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11121-018-0942-1

Taylor, A. S., & Porcellini, L. (2014). Family involvement. In D. L. DuBois & M. J. Karcher (Eds.), *Handbook of Youth Mentoring* (2nd ed., pp. 457–468). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Taylor, S. H., Hutson, J. A., & Alicea, T. R. (2017). Social consequences of Grindr use: Extending the internet-enhanced self-disclosure hypothesis. *Proceedings of the 2017 CHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems - CHI '17*, 6645–6657. https://doi.org/10.1145/3025453.3025775

Terry, G., Hayfield, N., Clarke, V., & Braun, V. (2017). Thematic analysis. In C. Willig & W. S. Rogers (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research in psychology* (pp. 17–37). London, UK: SAGE.

Thomson, N. R., & Zand, D. H. (2010). Mentees' perceptions of their interpersonal relationships: The role of the mentor-youth bond. *Youth & Society, 41*(3), 434–445. https://doi.org/10.1177/0044118x09334806

Tokić, A., & Pećnik, N. (2011). Parental behaviors related to adolescents' self-disclosure: Adolescents' views. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, *28*(2), 201–222. https://doi.org/10.1177/0265407510382320

Tolan, P., Henry, D., Schoeny, M., & Bass, A. (2008). Mentoring interventions to affect juvenile delinquency and associated problems. *Campbell Systematic Reviews*, *4*(1), 1–112. https://doi.org/10.4073/csr.2008.16

Topping, K. (1998). Effective tutoring in America Reads: A reply to Wasik. *The Reading Teacher*, *52*(1), 42–50.

Varga, S. M., & Deutsch, N. L. (2016). Revealing both sides of the story: A comparative analysis of mentors and protégés relational perspectives. *The Journal of Primary Prevention*, *37*(5), 449–465. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10935-016-0443-6

Watkins, C. E. (1990). The effects of counselor self-disclosure: A research review. *The Counseling Psychologist*, *18*(3), 477–500. https://doi.org/10.1177/0011000090183009

Weber, K., Johnson, A., & Corrigan, M. (2004). Communicating emotional support and its relationship to feelings of being understood, trust, and self-disclosure. *Communication Research Reports*, *21*(3), 316–323.

Weidler, D. J., & Clark, E. M. (2011). A distinct association: Inclusion of other in the self and self-disclosure. *The New School Psychology Bulletin*, *9*(1), 36–46.

Weiler, L. M., Boat, A. A., & Haddock, S. A. (2019). Youth risk and mentoring relationship quality: The moderating effect of program experiences. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *63*(1–2), 73–87. https://doi.org/10.1002/ajcp.12304

Weiler, L. M., Haddock, S. A., Zimmerman, T. S., Henry, K. L., Krafchick, J. L., & Youngblade, L. M. (2015). Time-limited, structured youth mentoring and adolescent problem behaviors. *Applied Developmental Science*, *19*(4), 196–205. https://doi.org/10.1080/10888691.2015.1014484

Weiner, M. F. (1978). *Therapist disclosure: The use of self in psychotherapy*. Boston, MA: Butterworths.

Weiss, S., Harder, J., Bratiotis, C., & Nguyen, E. (2019). Youth perceptions of a school-based mentoring program. *Education and Urban Society*, *51*(3), 423–437. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013124517722830

Wells, T. L. (1994). Therapist self-disclosure: Its effects on clients and the treatment relationship. *Smith College Studies in Social Work*, *65*(1), 23–41.

Wheeless, L. R., & Grotz, J. (1976). Conceptualization and measurement of reported self-disclosure. *Human Communication Research*, *2*(4), 338–346.

Wheeless, L. R., & Grotz, J. (1977). The measurement of trust and its relationship to self-disclosure. *Human Communication Research*, *3*(3), 250–257.

Zand, D. H., Thomson, N. R., Cervantes, R., Espiritu, R., Klagholz, D., LaBlanc, L., & Taylor, A. (2009). The mentor-youth alliance: The role of mentoring relationships in promoting youth competence. *Journal of Adolescence*, *32*(1), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2007.12.006

Zimmer, J. C., Arsal, R., Al-Marzouq, M., Moore, D., & Grover, V. (2010). Knowing your customers: Using a reciprocal relationship to enhance voluntary information disclosure. *Decision Support Systems*, *48*(2), 395–406. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dss.2009.10.003

Zur, O. (2009). Therapist self-disclosure: Standard of care, ethical considerations, and therapeutic context. In A. Bloomgarden & R. B. Mennuti (Eds.), *Psychotherapist*

revealed: Therapists speak about self-disclosure in psychotherapy (pp. 31–54). New York, NY: Routledge.