

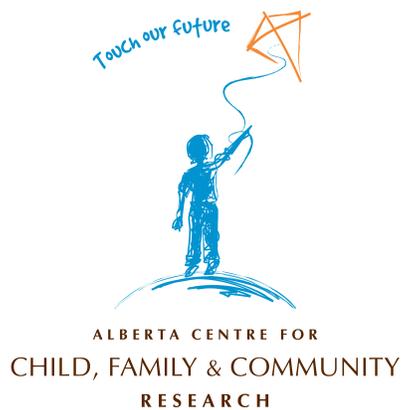
MENTORING
A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

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Prepared for Alberta's Promise

by

The Alberta Centre for Child, Family, and Community Research



Background

The Alberta Centre for Child, Family and Community Research (the Centre), was established to support and disseminate research knowledge and evidence on policy issues related to improving the well-being and health of children. The Centre is seen as an innovative leader in the development and dissemination of policy relevant evidence.

The Centre is collaborating with Alberta's Promise, which was established to bring together business and community leaders to be champions for Alberta's children and youth.

Alberta's Promise focuses on five promises:

1. **A Healthy Start:** Focusing on the growth and wellbeing of children in their early years and supporting parents.
2. **Caring Adults:** Providing support and guidance to children and youth through mentoring, coaching and volunteering.
3. **Lifelong Learning:** Supporting the development of a passion for knowledge and skill development throughout life.
4. **Child and Youth Friendly Communities:** Providing safe, welcoming and supportive communities where families have access to a broad range of services essential for the healthy development of children and youth.
5. **Opportunities to Contribute:** Providing venues for children and youth to engage in and contribute to their communities.

The current review summarizes the literature on mentoring, one aspect of the promise of providing Caring Adults to children and youth.

Alberta's Promise wants to ensure that its work is based on the best available evidence. In particular, as a part of the

process of catalyzing partnerships, the organization would like to support evidence-informed decision-making by business and community leaders regarding their investments in each of the five promise areas. A second priority is ensuring that associated outcomes and impacts of the work of Alberta's Promise are captured. The Centre is providing Alberta's Promise with research, evaluation and knowledge mobilization support.

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Keywords: mentor, Alberta, school based mentoring, community based mentoring, children, youth

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1.0 INTRODUCTION AND DEFINITION OF MENTORING

The promise of Caring Adults within Alberta's Promise acknowledges that caring adults can provide strong support to children. In addition to informal mentors in a child's life such as parents and extended families, mentors are found in community roles such as coaches, teachers and business leaders.

The Alberta Mentoring Partnership (AMP) defines mentoring as "the presence of a caring individual(s) who provides a young person with support, advice, friendship, reinforcement and constructive role modeling over time" (AMP, 2013, March 18, "Guiding Principles," para. 1). This definition of mentoring encapsulates both informal and formal mentoring. As mentioned above, informal mentoring is the most common form as it happens naturally as we develop relationships in our everyday lives (Satchwell, 2006). Formal mentoring instead involves a structured relationship where the mentor and mentee meet with the support of a mentoring program.

The current literature review includes works published on the topic of formal youth mentoring over the past 15 years. Literature from Canada, the United States and abroad was included in the review. However, much of the published literature on mentoring originates from the United States (Farrugia, 2011). This is due to the long-term presence of formal mentoring programs, such as Big Brothers Big Sisters (BBBS) in America (Scrine, Reibel & Walker, 2012). This review includes literature with youth less than 19 years of age. Studies involving supportive relationships between professionals in helping relationships, for example mental health professionals, were excluded. Initially, systematic reviews and meta-analyses on mentoring were sought out. When these were not available for specific topics, individual empirical studies were referenced. These references were then critically reviewed and summarized according thematic categories.

2.0 MENTORING AND THE ALBERTA LANDSCAPE

One of the most important factors in developing youth resilience is having a relationship with a caring adult (The Learning Partnership, 2009). Positive relationships with these adults help to act as a protective factor for youth (Scrine et al., 2012). Changes in adolescence lead to increased interest in other adults outside of their family networks. Rhodes, Spencer, Keller, Liang and Noam (2006) note that relationships with caring adults can help to enhance a youth's relationships, improve their cognitive skills through conversation and promote identity development with adults serving as role models.

Despite the benefits of caring adults there has been a demographic trend towards smaller extended families, an increase in single parent families, overcrowding in schools, coupled with weaker community networks (Hartley, 2004). This may limit children's access to informal mentors, especially for at risk youth who are further socially isolated and can have unstable life situations (Ferronato, 2001). Researchers estimate that 20%, or 8.5 million youth in the United States do not have a caring adult in their life (Cavell, DuBois, Karcher, Keller & Rhodes, 2009). Youth who do not have a caring adult in their life are vulnerable to various difficulties. Formal mentoring programs can help to fill these gaps. Big Brothers Big Sisters of Canada (BBBSC)

currently has over 33,000 children matched with volunteers in their programs (BBBSC, 2013). Ferronato (2001) notes that many formal mentoring programs have waiting lists. For example at the end of 2011/2012, Big Brothers Big Sisters of Calgary and Area (2012) still had 171 young people on a mentoring waiting list. This suggests that there is great need for mentoring programs in Alberta.

In response to these trends, AMP was formed in 2008 under the vision that every child or youth in Alberta who needs a mentor would have access to one. This exciting partnership is an Alberta-wide federation of mentoring agencies, now totaling 90 organizations. Partnerships such as AMP can help in supporting the development of new mentoring programs, and be a forum for the discussion of effective program elements and program evaluation (Hartley, 2004). Since the formation of AMP there has been a 20% increase in the number of mentoring matches and 14 organizations have developed new mentoring programs. AMP also collaborates on initiatives such as public awareness campaigns and providing training to volunteers.

3.0 MENTORING PROGRAM FEATURES

DuBois, Holloway, Valentine and Cooper (2002) in their systematic review of the mentoring literature identified a set of features of mentoring programs that were the strongest predictors of positive program effects. The benefits of mentoring were greater in programs that followed a greater number of these best practices. They also found that programs that followed fewer of these practices had negative effects on youth. They recommend that mentoring programs follow those features that have empirically demonstrated their effectiveness. These included: ongoing training for mentors, structured activities for pairs, clear expectations around the frequency of mentoring meetings, program support mechanisms, and involvement of the mentees family in the program. These program elements will be elaborated on below. Although some program elements shared in this section did not predict program success, DuBois et al. (2002) cautions against eliminating elements just because they do not statistically predict success. For example, they found that procedures for screening mentors were not statistically related to program effectiveness. Despite this fact, screening mentors is still essential to ensure the safety of children and should therefore remain an essential program feature.

3.1 Establishing a Program

There are many different types of mentoring and children benefit differently from each of these types. As such, organizations looking to establish a mentoring program need to think about the characteristics and needs of the children they would like serve (Karcher & Herrera, 2007). This information should be documented, discussing the need for a mentoring program, who will be served by the program, what program structure will be used and where mentoring will take place (AMP, 2013).

3.2 Mentoring Alone or As One Component of Programming

An initial decision in establishing a mentoring program is to decide whether mentoring will be the sole program element or just one component of programming. For example, mentoring is a core component of large agencies such as BBBS and the Boys and Girls Clubs. Other programs include mentoring as just one component of a multipronged program that may include job

training, special education, classroom tutoring, peer group support, and counseling (Satchwell, 2006). DuBois et al. (2002) and Lawner, Beltz and Moore (2013) in their reviews found that programs that provided mentoring alone were equally effective as those who provided mentoring as part of a larger program.

3.3 Program Goal

In order for a program to be effective it needs to clearly outline its goals, activities and projected outcomes (CAT Research & Professional Services, 2006). Some mentoring programs have the general goal of improving the development of youth. Other programs focus on specific goals such as academic, behavioral, cultural, interpersonal, psychological, and/or vocational goals. DuBois et al. (2002) did not find any differences in outcomes between programs that had psychosocial versus more specific goals.

3.4 Setting

The body of available literature has focused on the following settings for mentoring to take place: community, school, workplace, and rural. The nature of each setting will drive the program's goals and strategies (Krtje, 1996). Despite differences among settings DuBois et al. (2002) reported from their meta-analysis that there were no differences in mentoring outcomes based on the setting of the program.

Traditional mentoring programs are most commonly set in the community. In community based mentoring, the mentoring relationship takes place in a variety of locations within the community as opposed to one specific location (Ferronato, 2001).

Manza (2003) found in a national survey of mentoring programs in the United States, site based programs were overtaking community based programs in terms of popularity. As such there has been an increasing trend towards more site based programs, such as school or corporate mentoring. Site based mentoring in a school setting is a relatively new form of mentoring (Wood & Mayo-Wilson, 2012). These programs involve bringing mentors to schools to meet with their mentees and often focus on providing academic support to children. School based mentoring is now outpacing community based mentoring, and the research literature is trying to keep on pace with its use (Karcher & Herrera, 2007).

A difference between school and community based mentoring programs is in the selection of mentees. In community based mentoring, mentees are usually introduced to the program by their parents. In school based mentoring, teachers identify mentees for possible participation in the program (Bernstein, Rappaport, Olsho, Hunt & Levin, 2009).

When mentoring interactions occur within the school setting, mentoring takes place amongst a child's peers. Researchers have suggested future research focus on what effect this may have on the mentoring relationship, either positive or negative. Some suggest that the interaction could have a negative effect, as mentees may feel embarrassed and reluctant to fully participate in activities with their mentor. This may particularly be true among adolescents, when peer interactions become especially important. Others have highlighted the potential positive effects,

such as the ability for the mentor to see how their match interacts with peers. Preliminary research has suggested that, for elementary school students, seeing a mentor spend time with a mentee can have a positive effect on how his/her peers interact with them (Karcher & Herrera, 2007).

A drawback of school-based programs is the school calendar, which can limit mentoring opportunities and inhibit relationship development. School based pairs can be delayed in starting their match as it can take one to two months to recruit, train and match pairs. Many programs will continue to match mentors and mentees throughout the school year (Karcher & Herrera, 2007). As well, sometimes lack of contact over the summer can lead to premature match closures, leaving the mentor and mentee with a lack of closure to the relationship. Herrera et al. (2007) found few BBBS school based matches kept in touch over the summer. Yet, Karcher and Herrera (2007) found that most mentors expressed a desire to stay in contact with their mentees and they believed that their mentees wanted to stay in touch as well. Herrera et al. (2007) found that those matches that keep in touch over the break were more likely to continue their relationship in the fall and the match lasted longer. Additionally, relationship quality among these pairs was also enhanced.

Some school-based programs may view unsupervised contact between mentors and mentees over the summer as a liability. Karcher and Herrera (2007) provide suggestions for organizations to avoid this issue such as:

- The organization to host supervised summer activities.
- Encourage matches to stay in contact through the phone, letters and email.
- Provide games and activities for matches to participate in over the phone, letters and email.
- Agency newsletters to keep both mentors and mentees updated and connected to the program.

Another form of site based mentoring, corporate mentoring, can be appealing for businesses that want to support their employees in their mentoring activities with youth. Employee involvement in mentoring can result in: improved public image, employee retention, improved customer relations and loyalty, increased brand recognition, increased ability to attract and retain investors, improved employee job performance and reduced absenteeism (Northstar Research Partners, 2005).

An example of corporate mentoring is BBBS of Calgary and Area's Corporate Bigs program (BBBS of Calgary and Area, 2012). In these programs employees volunteer their time and are matched with youth. On a weekly basis either the mentees travel together to meet with their mentors in their workplace, or vice versa.

Some ways employers can help to support mentoring are to:

- Share information about mentoring with their employees.
- Launch a workplace mentoring program so that mentees can meet with their mentors at work.
- Be flexible to employees adjusting their work schedules so that they can mentor.
- Share mentoring success stories with colleagues to encourage other businesses to take on similar efforts.

Finally, mentoring programs operating in rural and remote settings will require tailored approaches to mentoring. Taylor (2007) highlighted barriers to operating community-mentoring programs in rural environments. For example, recruiting mentors that do not already have a personal relationship with the child can be difficult. Also, hosting organizations will need to address issues such as transportation, and ensuring mentor pairs meet by providing group activities.

3.5 E-Mentoring

E-mentoring has been used in remote communities to address some of the above concerns. These programs involve a mentoring relationship that takes place primarily over electronic communications (Single & Single, 2005). Some youth find e-mentoring appealing as they can participate in a mentoring program without the fear of being viewed (Single & Single, 2005). Another advantage of e-mentoring is that mentees have the opportunity to connect with mentors outside of their geographic area (Single & Single, 2005). E-mentoring can also be beneficial for mentors as well in that they can focus their volunteer time on their mentee, and do not need to spend time travelling to and from face to face appointments.

In face to face mentoring programs, mentors and mentees are often matched on the basis of criteria such as gender and culture. However in e-mentoring Ensher, deJanasz, and Heun (2004) found that perceived similarity was a more important matching factor. Programs that used e-mentoring also developed e-training for their mentors and mentees (Kasprisin, 2003). The e-trainings were conducted in groups of 15 to 20 participants, who communicated over electronic discussion lists. The lists were moderated by a trainer who presented information and scenarios regarding relationship development in e-mentoring.

In face to face mentoring, pairs are assigned caseworkers that help to support the relationship. In e-mentoring, support personnel called coaches help to facilitate schedules, deadlines and coordinate the matches between mentors and mentees (Single & Single, 2005). Research has shown that pairs who received coaching support in the form of frequent coaching messages were the most effective (Single & Single, 2005). Single and Muller (2001) used coaching messages as part of their program. They regularly sent out messages with educational information and motivational messages for mentoring pairs tailored to the mentees developmental level. A reminder for mentoring pairs to contact their coach if they were experiencing difficulties accompanied each of these messages.

Mentee benefits from face to face mentoring programs have also been reported in e-mentoring programs. For example, mentees benefit from the information they gain from their mentors. Additionally mentees reported gaining self-esteem and confidence (Single & Single, 2005). However, researchers caution that e-mentoring should only be attempted when face to face mentoring is not practical or available (Single & Single, 2005). Difficulties faced in maintaining relationships in face-to-face mentoring programs are exacerbated in e-mentoring. In these programs it is easy for participants to sign up and then not follow through on their commitment (Single & Single, 2005). This is encouraged by the nature of electronic communications, which allow one to for example, ignore email from a mentee or support staff (Kasprisin, 2003).

Another aspect to keep in mind when offering an e-mentoring program is the cost of technology and information technology expertise (Single & Single, 2005). Additionally, when providing e-mentoring opportunities to populations without ready access to technology, programs will need to invest more resources in hardware and training.

Rather than viewing e-mentoring as a separate programming approach, it could instead be viewed as a complementary approach to traditional mentoring. E-mentoring could be used in combination with face to face meetings, phone calls, and video conferences (National Mentoring Center, 2002).

3.6 One on one, Group and Mixed Mentoring

Most mentoring programs use a one on one mentoring format; and this is the most common form addressed in the research literature (Satchwell, 2006). One on one mentoring involves one mentor focusing their efforts on a single mentee (Ferronato, 2001).

Group mentoring is less common and involves a mentor guiding a group of mentees (Ferronato, 2001). Group mentoring may be an attractive option for youth who are uncomfortable with a one on one mentoring arrangement (Herrera, Vang & Gale, 2002). Additionally, group mentoring may be appealing to mentors as they may see this setting as safer and less risky (Satchwell, 2006). Finally, group mentoring can be used in those programs where there is a shortage of available mentors (Satchwell, 2006). However, a caveat to group mentoring relationships is that they tend to not be as strong when compared to one on one mentoring matches (Satchwell, 2006).

A new form of mentoring, called mixed mentoring is a hybrid model of mentoring which transitions from group to one on one mentoring. Programs begin in a group setting in an effort to slowly build relationships around structured activities. This allows the mentee and mentor to build a trust-based relationship in a more relaxed and supported environment (CAT Research, 2011). The group setting also enables the program coordinator to develop a relationship with the mentee's family, providing them with an understanding of mentoring, the organization and individuals involved. Parents who have little exposure to formal mentoring have an opportunity to develop relationships with program staff and their child's mentor. This type of program capitalizes on the effective elements of both group and one on one mentoring.

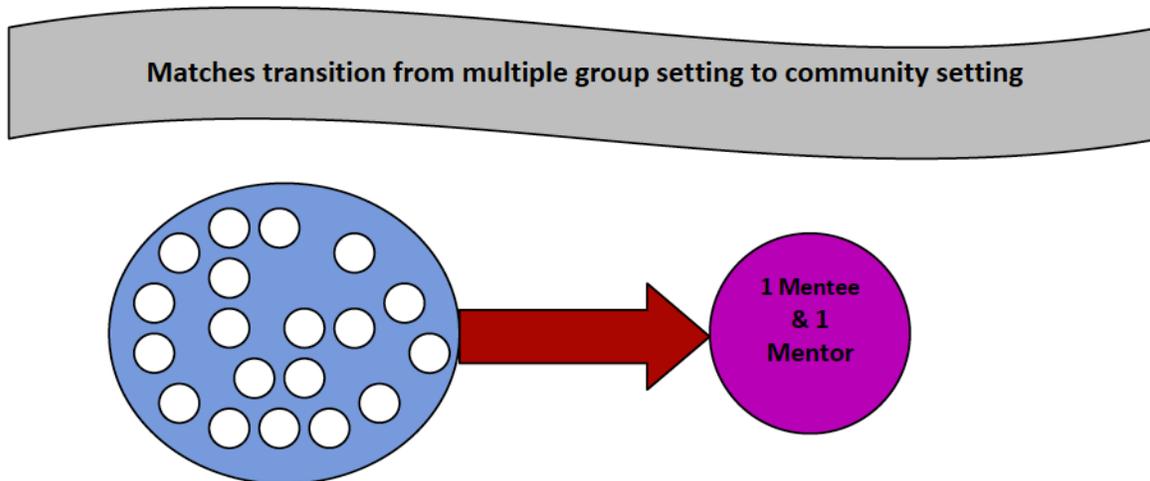


Figure 1: Mixed mentoring (originally from CAT Research, 2011)

3.7 Cross Age Mentoring

As recruiting adults to mentor children can be difficult, some programs have sought out other models to help reduce wait lists. Developmental or cross age mentoring involves using mentors not typically targeted by mentoring programs (Karcher, 2007). Lawner et al. (2013) in their synthesis of mentoring evaluations found that adult; older peer and college aged mentors were equally effective. Two forms of cross age mentors are the use of adolescent and retired adult mentors.

3.7.1 Adolescent Mentors

Adolescent mentors involve the use of high school students who provide mentoring in school based mentoring programs to elementary or middle school students. These meetings take place in a school environment at lunch or after school and typically last one hour (Karcher, 2007). The structure is similar to school based mentoring programs, with matches meeting weekly throughout the academic year (Karcher, 2007). Karcher and Herrera (2007) and Karcher (2007) note that half of the volunteers in BBBS school mentoring programs are adolescent mentors and a fourth of all matches made in BBBS each year are cross age.

Karcher (2007) found larger positive effects where there was at least a two-year difference in age between the mentor and mentee, and when the pair attended different schools. Bowman and Myrick (1987) found smaller effects for elementary and middle school aged mentors when compared to high school aged mentors. There are also benefits for adolescent mentors such as community service experience, skill development in working with youth, and gaining knowledge of learning strategies (Government of Alberta, 2010).

Adolescent mentors will likely need different resources and supports than adult mentors to help them in their role (Karcher, 2005a; Lakes & Karcher, 2005). In some cases, modified training materials have been developed (Cox, 2006; Karcher, 2002). As adolescent mentors are less equipped with life experience, they may become overwhelmed when difficulties arise in the relationship or when working with children with behavioral problems. Therefore, supervisors

need to remain alert to signs of stress in mentors (Karcher, 2007). The Government of Alberta, Advanced Education and Technology developed a teen mentoring handbook, activity and resource book to support peer mentors which can be downloaded from the AMP website (<http://www.albertamentors.ca/admin/content/default.cfm?h=6&PageId=12232>).

Despite the proliferation of these types of matches, Karcher (2007) reports that there are no large randomized trials of adolescent mentoring in the research literature. While there are some single site randomized studies, they used small samples, which can limit the validity of the results (Karcher, 2007). In summary the practice of these matches has outpaced the research (Karcher, 2007).

3.72 Retired Adult Mentors

As noted earlier, another form of cross age mentoring is the use of retired individuals as mentors. This form of mentoring is also sometimes called intergenerational mentoring (Taylor, 2007). Freedman (1999) called older adults an “increasing natural resource” due to North America’s aging population. Retired individuals are often drawn to school based mentoring programs in particular. These volunteer opportunities are perceived as safer places to mentor and retired adults enjoy the structure of such programs (Satchwell, 2006).

Morrow-Howell (2007) found that older adults were better than middle-aged adults in establishing relationships with youth who were experiencing difficult circumstances and in periods of change. This was especially true for older adults who had experienced family and personal problems and challenges themselves (Freedman, 1988). A side benefit of intergenerational mentoring is that it can help to address some of the stereotypes older adults have of youth and conversely what youth believe to be true about older adults (Taylor, 2007).

3.8 Recruiting and Screening

Most of the research literature around recruitment and screening within mentoring programs focuses on best practices in selecting mentors. However, Bisanz et al. (2003) provides the reminder that screening should be a two-sided process, for both mentees and mentors. Recommendations for the recruitment and screening of mentees and mentors are summarized below.

3.81 Mentees

Most community based mentoring programs receive mentee referrals from parents. It can therefore be difficult to recruit mentees whose parents are not aware of mentoring programs or what they can offer (Bisanz et al., 2003; Herrera et al., 2002). Referrals to school mentoring programs most often come from teachers. This has the advantage of allowing children whose parents are not aware of mentoring programs to access these services (Herrera, 1999).

Generally those children chosen for mentoring programs are viewed as being at-risk in some way (e.g. poverty, substance use, delinquency) and lacking natural mentors (Freedman, 1993; Bisanz et al., 2003). Mentees should be screened as to their willingness to engage in a mentoring relationship and what qualities they would like in their mentor.

3.82 Mentors

Recruiting a sufficient number of mentors is a key aspect of a program's success (Satchwell, 2006). Many programs rely on their staff to spread the word about the need for mentors, and staff working in related programs are often internally recruited as mentors (Novotney, Mertinko, Lange & Baker, 2000; CAT Research & Professional Services, 2006).

Previous research has shown that of those who express an interest in mentoring, only 5% will go on to become mentors (Delaney, Milne, Johansson & Merlene, 2002). In order to optimize recruitment of mentors, organizations should be prepared to quickly perform criminal record checks and child welfare screens, so that their interest does not wane (Satchwell, 2006). Longer screening times can cause potential mentors, especially men, to lose interest in the program (Satchwell, 2006). Delays in recruiting mentors will also be evidenced by long waiting lists of mentees waiting to be matched.

Some have suggested providing compensation to mentors for their time would improve their commitment to mentoring. However, Dubois et al. (2002) found from their meta-analysis that compensating mentors was not related to mentor retention. DuBois et al. (2002) also examined whether mentors from helping roles, such as teachers, were more effective in working with mentees. They found that using mentors from these types of roles significantly influenced the outcomes of mentoring, especially in the case of children with individual risk factors such as academic difficulties.

Although it takes time, screening mentors is critically important. Mentors can cause more harm than good if they are "critical, untrustworthy, inconsistent or abusive" resulting in negative interactions or role modeling (Ferronato, 2001, p.12; Rhodes & DuBois, 2008). This can be pronounced for children already lacking positive adult role models, and impact their self-esteem and trust in adults (Bisanz et al., 2003).

Interviews and references should be used to elicit information on characteristics of mentors. Rhodes et al. (2006) emphasized that mentors should possess the quality of attunement, meaning the ability to anticipate a mentee's needs in an empathetic manner. Satchwell (2006) encourages programs to also look for qualities such as approachability, enthusiasm, commitment, availability, trustworthiness, maturity, communication skills, respect, and financial stability. With regards to availability, consideration should be paid to a potential mentor's schooling, work or family responsibilities, which may interfere with their ability to fully engage in the mentoring process (Spencer, 2007a). Mentees can interpret missed appointments as a form of rejection; with youth basing their judgments of their own likeability, attractiveness and behavior on the degree their mentor honors these appointments (Karcher, 2005b).

3.9 Training

A key aspect of successful mentoring programs is the training they provide to mentors and mentees about the relationship upon which they are about to embark. Training can take two forms pre-match and ongoing. Pre-match training can help give mentors and mentees an

orientation to the organization and what to expect once a match is made. Ongoing training support can educate mentors on how to address difficulties as they arise in the mentor relationship, ideas for activities and on the organization's policies and procedures.

Most programs provide training to mentors, with only 24% of programs stating that they do not provide training (DuBois, 2007). School based mentors are generally provided with less training, as there is often an additional support component to these programs that provides supervision to pairs.

The length of mentor training can vary greatly from one hour to two days (Sipe & Roder, 1999). A study of community and school based mentoring program volunteers found that mentors receiving less than two hours of training reported lower levels of closeness and supportiveness in their mentoring relationships. Those mentors that received six or more hours reported the strongest relationships with their mentees (Herrera et al., 2000).

Pre-match training is offered to mentors as part of most mentoring programs. DuBois et al. (2002) found that 71% of studies in his review provided an initial training or orientation. CAT Research and Professional Services (2006) conducted interviews with mentors who identified pre-match training topics they thought would be helpful to prospective mentors. They requested information on the mentoring role, how to successfully work with youth, and appropriate boundaries with mentees.

An important piece of pre-match training is for programs to check in with mentors on the expectations that they bring to their relationships (Spencer, 2007a). One of the leading reasons for premature termination of matches by mentors is unmet expectations (Evans, 2005; Spencer, 2007b). Expectations may exist around how soon a relationship will develop and whether challenges will occur. To address this Spencer (2007a) has developed a pre-match exercise for mentors. The activity consists of a variety of descriptions of typical matches that can be presented to mentors to help begin a discussion around their preferences and expectations of the relationship. Additionally, training time can be used to talk with potential mentors about how mentoring relationships are formed, typical challenges that may arise, and how these challenges can be handled.

1. Mentee Temperament and 2. Mentee Motivation/Engagement		
Shy, reserved, quiet	←.....→	Outgoing, chatty
Apathetic, disinterested	←.....→	Very engaged
<p>Relationship example</p> <p>The mentee doesn't talk much. The mentor repeatedly tries to engage the mentee by asking questions, telling stories, etc. The mentor asks the mentee what he/she wants to do but usually gets one word answers. The mentor encourages the mentee to call anytime but never hears from him or her. The burden of making contact, planning meetings, and making conversation falls heavily on the mentor. This may last for a few weeks or months.</p>		<p>Relationship example</p> <p>Mentee is very chatty, always talking, and asking questions, some of which may be inappropriate and personal. The mentee calls the mentor all the time and wants to spend much more time with the mentor than the program requires. The mentor often has to tell the mentee that he/she is unavailable to talk or visit. This behavior may happen almost immediately after matching or after the pair has been together for a few months.</p>

Figure 2: Typical match description for a pre-match exercise with mentors (originally from Spencer, 2007a)

The importance of the mentor-mentee relationship should be emphasized with mentors, as opposed to transforming the mentee (Satchwell, 2006). Also, information on child development is important for mentors so that they have realistic expectations of their mentee's abilities (Spencer, 2007a). Available evidence has demonstrated that mentors who are responsive to the needs and stage of development of their mentees are more successful (Rhodes, 2007).

The topics of ongoing mentor training has been neglected in comparison to efforts invested in screening, pre-match training, and matching of pairs (DuBois et al., 2002). Only 23% of studies included in DuBois et al.'s (2002) review had an ongoing training component for mentors. Often programs are reluctant to make such training mandatory as it is perceived as an additional burden to mentors that may inhibit their participation, as well as the added cost to the host organization (Freedman, 1992). CAT Research and Professional Services (2006) recommend that programs hesitant to provide ongoing training due to cost or capacity limitations, partner with other organizations. Keller (2007) suggests partnering with learning institutions in an effort to collaborate, share knowledge and resources in training and supporting staff. This would ensure that mentors receive the training they need, and that the capacity of internal staff is built to provide this service in the future. An example of this is AMP's online training modules for new mentors that are available to its partnering organizations, to date a total of 900 mentors have completed the training.

The screenshot shows the header for the 'Orientation for Mentors' course. On the left is the Alberta Mentoring Partnership logo. To the right is a photograph of a man in a blue shirt pointing at something off-camera, with a young boy looking at him. Below the photo is the text: 'To be a mentor, you don't need superhuman qualities. Just human ones.' The course title 'Course: Orientation for Mentors' is centered, followed by 'Approximate Completion Time: 1 hour'. A paragraph describes the course content. A 'NOTE' states the training is not a replacement for in-person training. Below are two boxes: 'Step 1: Individual Lessons' with a list of five lesson links, and 'Please Note*' with a warning about audio playback.

Figure 3: AMP mentor training module (originally from <http://www.albertamentors.ca/>)

An important training subject for mentors is cross-cultural relationships, as many mentors will find themselves in matches with children of a different background. Volunteers of mentoring programs tend to be Caucasian and from middle to upper income levels (MENTOR/National Mentoring Partnership, 2006). While most mentees tend to be from an ethnic background and live in a low-income household (Freedman, 1993). As such, mentor training regarding class and ethnicity could be beneficial (Spencer, 2006). Training can help mentors identify their cultural values and beliefs (Spencer, 2007a). Such training can also help mentors establish stronger connections with their mentees (Bisanz et al., 2003).

Most of the literature around training within mentoring programs centres on training for mentors as opposed to mentees. However, mentees also bring expectations to the mentoring relationship. Karcher (2007) noted that mentees could benefit from an orientation on how to use their mentors for support, as the degree to which mentees sought out the support of their mentor was one of the best predictors of relationship quality. Additionally, where developmentally appropriate, mentees should be made aware of the role of mentors including their limitations and constraints. Mentees should also be made aware of their shared responsibility for maintaining the relationship by honoring mentor meetings and communicating with their mentor (Rhodes, 2007). AMP is currently testing online training modules for mentees that they will have available to their partnering organizations in the summer of 2013. These modules will include what it is to be a mentor and mentee, how to get to know your mentors and safety and boundary tips for mentees.



Figure 4: AMP mentee training module (originally from <http://www.albertamentors.ca/>)

In DuBois et al.'s (2002) review, pre-match mentor training was not significantly related to the effectiveness of mentoring programs. However, research has demonstrated the benefits of ongoing training support to mentors. DuBois et al. (2002) found that programs that provided ongoing training to their mentors reported larger effects than those programs that did not provide such training. Herrera et al. (2007) found that those mentors who received both pre-match and ongoing training reported closer relationships with their mentees and were more likely to continue their relationship into another year. Additionally, youth in relationships where their mentor had received training reported higher quality relationships (Herrera et al., 2013).

3.10 Matching

Matching refers to the process of an organization looking at their available adult volunteers and matching them with mentees based on certain criteria. Some examples of matching criteria are gender, ethnicity, interests and socioeconomic status. The most common matching criteria used by programs are gender and ethnicity (Satchwell, 2006). The belief is that relationships involving participants of the same gender or ethnicity will allow these pairs to identify with each other more easily as they will share similar life experiences (Klinck et al., 2005; Bisanz et al., 2003).

A difficulty with providing gender matches is that most mentoring programs' volunteer rosters consist of primarily female mentors. A recent review of school based mentoring reported that 70% of mentors were female (Wood & Mayo-Wilson, 2012). This may be due in part to difficulties in recruiting male mentors. When same gender matches are possible they tend to result in positive outcomes. For example, Novotney et al. (2000) reported more positive outcomes for boys matched with male mentors than boys matched with a female mentor.

Often pairs are matched in terms of their ethnicity. A mentee or their family's desire for a same ethnicity mentor should be assessed during the enrollment process (Liang & West, 2007). Some feel that only mentors from the same ethnic background can relate to the challenges faced by minority youth (Satchwell, 2006). Ethnic mentors can help their mentees understand their cultural history, and traditions while at the same time helping youth navigate the dominant culture in which they live (Blechman, 1992). These mentors can also serve as role models to youth (Jucovy, 2002). An advantage of same ethnicity matches is that mentees tend to naturally be drawn to mentors of the same cultural background (Liang & West, 2007).

A criticism of ethnicity matching is that although these matches may develop trust quickly due to their perceived similarity, it does not ensure a successful match (Satchwell, 2006). Another barrier is that while over half of mentees from a study of BBBS programs were from ethnic minorities, only 15 to 20% of mentors come from an ethnic minority (Tierney & Grossman, 2000; Jucovy, 2002; Klinck et al., 2005). Recruiting mentors from minority communities can be difficult, due to social problems such as poverty (Bisanz et al., 2003). This is especially true for males from minority backgrounds (Rhodes, Reddy, Grossman & Lee, 2002). Programs that insist on forming same ethnicity pairs can become hampered by long waiting lists of mentees (Jucovy, 2002; Klink et al., 2005).

The research findings regarding same versus cross ethnicity matches are not consistent (Liang & West, 2007). Rhodes et al. (2002) found benefits for youth in same ethnicity pairs depending on gender. Boys in these pairs demonstrated increased in academic competence and self esteem, while girls showed increases in school value and self-esteem. In a study comparing African American and White mentors, African American mentors were more likely to make a connection with mentees of their ethnicity and play a role both in their personal and professional development (Kalbfleisch & Davies, 1991). A similar result was found in a study of Latino mentor pairs. Students in these matches felt their mentors were more helpful in their personal and professional development, and expressed more satisfaction with their pairing than youth in cross cultural matches (Santos & Reigadas, 2002). However, Liang and West (2007) did not find differences in how frequently pairs meet or how long their relationship lasted between those matched on their ethnicity or those cross-matched.

When same culture pairings are not possible, there are some advantages of cross-cultural matches. These matches can be helpful for new immigrants, who can use their mentor as a bridge to the mainstream culture (Smith-Mohammed, 1998). In the case of cross-cultural matches, it is important for mentors to receive cultural awareness training as misunderstandings can result from lack of awareness (Liang & West, 2007). Spencer (2007a) discusses how mentors may be naive to how cultural differences can influence the development of the mentoring relationship and some mentors can face difficulties in navigating these differences. Also, mentors in cross-cultural matches should be prepared on how to speak with mentees who are facing racism. In the absence of training, mentors can take on a crisis management role with their mentee, which in turn places strain on the relationship (Ginwright, 2005).

Wood and Mayo-Wilson (2012) in their review of school based mentoring programs found that most mentees were from low-income families. Jucovy (2002) argues that socioeconomic status (SES) is more significant as a matching factor than ethnicity or gender. As with members of other vulnerable groups, mentoring programs have found it difficult to recruit low-income adults. This may be due to competing concerns, which make it difficult for those of lower SES to volunteer their time. Other research has indicated that rather than gender and cultural similarities, attention should be paid to matches in terms of attitudes and interests. Outcomes from these matches have been increased mentee satisfaction, increased support from mentors, and closer relationships (Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Grossman & Rhodes, 2002; Herrera, Sipe & McClanahan, 2000).

There is some evidence demonstrating the benefits/lack of negative effects of matching adults and youth with different characteristics (Satchwell, 2006; Sipe, 1999). Such matches are usually born out of a lack of available mentors with certain characteristics (Sipe, 1999). For example, one study found that mentees that were matched with highly educated mentors in different communities helped support youth in expanding their social networks (Satchwell, 2006).

In summary the use of matching procedures was not significantly related to program effectiveness, and criteria for matching pairs did not significantly moderate effectiveness (DuBois et al., 2002; Sipe, 1996). Liang and West (2007) recommends that matches be based on the needs of the mentee and the preferences of his/her family and suggests there is no one size fits all match strategy. It is most important for mentees to perceive themselves as similar to their mentor, so that connections may develop.

3.11 Relationship Length

It is believed that the longer the length of a mentoring relationship the more positive benefits a youth will receive (Shaw & Bisanz, 2008; Ferronato, 2001). Researchers believe this is due to the fact that the benefits of mentoring take a long period of time to become evident (Hartley, 2004). Other researchers have countered that the length of the mentor match is only a proxy measure of the development of the mentor relationship that occurs over time (Kolar & McBride, 2011). Consistency and reliability on the part of mentors in attending mentoring appointments, along with emotional closeness between pairs have also been associated with positive outcomes (Rhodes & DuBois, 2008; DuBois et al., 2002). Sipe (1996) notes in her synthesis of mentoring research that it took pairs at least six months to first develop trust in the relationship.

Most school based mentoring programs require that a mentor commit to one school year of weekly meetings with their mentee (Randolph & Johnson, 2008). Research supports the requirement of a 12 month commitment to mentoring; with Herrera (2004) finding the greatest number of benefits in school based mentoring relationships that last 12 months or longer. These benefits included improved social skills, attitudes and classroom behaviors. Grossman and Rhodes (2002) similarly found the most improvement among pairs that met for over 12 months in their evaluation of a community based mentoring program. Shorter relationships can have negative effects on mentees including bringing up feelings of abandonment (Ferronato, 2001;

Hartley, 2004). One study's results found less benefits and increases in problem behavior in youth whose relationships ended in less than a year (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002).

To ensure the longest possible matches in school based mentoring (Karcher & Herrera, 2007):

- Pairs should be matched as early in the school year as possible.
- Match younger children first.
- Match children before their transitions to junior high or high school.

Despite the positive association between relationship length and mentee outcomes, only a few studies in DuBois et al.'s (2002) review reported on the average length of their mentoring relationships. Wood and Mayo-Wilson (2012), in their review of school-based mentoring programs, also found that few studies provided information on the length of their mentoring relationships. As such, reporting on the average length of relationships should be a standard outcome of a program evaluation.

3.12 Activities

Because school based mentoring programs take place within the school environment, mentor pairs tend to participate in more academic activities than their community-based counterparts (Karcher & Herrera, 2007). Mentors often structure school-based sessions by completing homework first, followed by more enjoyable activities. An advantage of community based mentoring is that it allows mentors to connect with their youth in the community and with activities that youth feel are fun (Karcher & Herrera, 2007). Jekielek, Moore and Hair (2002) found that social activities such as these helped to build trust among pairs.

An evaluation of a local mentoring program found an evolution in the activities of the mentoring sessions. Mentors discussed how initially they would carefully plan the time they spent with their mentees (Shaw & Bisanz, 2008). Structured activities such as these can be helpful for mentees, and was found to have a significant effect on program effectiveness (DuBois et al., 2002).

When mentors are dominant in activities youth may become disengaged and experience a loss of ownership in the activity. Conversely, if mentees are allowed to take sole control of activities they often come to a halt or lose focus. As such, there should be a healthy balance in terms of involvement of the mentor and mentees in activities (Larson, Walker, & Pearce, 2005). Over time mentors found it was more effective to reach a decision with their mentee about activities (Shaw & Bisanz, 2008). Mentees seem to benefit from participating in the decision making process about goals and activities (Rhodes, 2007; Karcher, Herrera & Hansen, 2010). Decision making between pairs communicates to mentees that their opinions and interests are heard. This results in more positive attitudes and behaviors in mentees (Grossman & Johnson, 1999).

3.13 Parent/Family Involvement

Satchwell (2006) describes the relationship between the mentor, mentee and family as being essential to a match's success. Additionally in Bisanz et al.'s (2003) interviews with Aboriginal mentoring programming members, a number of participants noted family was an essential partner in the mentoring relationship. In four pilot Aboriginal mentoring programs, parent

engagement was a key component to ensure continued involvement of the children as mentees and as part of community development with the host communities (CAT Research & Professional Services, 2011). Mentors need to be educated about the importance of developing a relationship with their mentee's family. Ferronato (2013) describes family mentoring where the mentor, in addition to forming a relationship with their mentee also develops a supportive relationship with the mentee's family. DuBois et al. (2002) found parental support and involvement in mentoring enhanced the effectiveness of programs.

Despite this evidence, Farrugia (2011) found in their review of mentoring programs in New Zealand that 50% of programs had no contact with mentee's families. While some programs recognize the importance of involving parents, they have difficulty in fully engaging this group (CAT Research & Professional Services, 2006). An important initial step to involve parents is to gain their approval of the match (Satchwell, 2006). Another way to involve parents is to offer parent training before the first mentor/mentee meeting, which can provide parents with an orientation to the program. Additionally, a way to involve parents is through the use of case managers/coordinators who can provide updates to parents through regular support phone calls. Herrera, DuBois, Baldwin Grossman (2013) found that matches that received these support calls regularly met more frequently.

The Alberta Mentoring Partnership (2013) provides some practical suggestions on how to involve parents in a mentoring program:

- Meet with parents in person.
- Host an open house.
- Invite parents to take part in or observe the program.
- Organize family nights, and provide food. Invite other important community members to these events.
- Make parental involvement an explicit part of your program planning, ensuring someone is responsible for this aspect of the program and funds are available to support these activities.

3.14 Program Support

Programs should be monitored in terms of their implementation, and mentor pairs should be effectively supervised. Mentoring programs that have practices such as these to support pairs are more likely to demonstrate positive outcomes (Hansen, 2006). The degree of supervision by mentoring programs lies on a spectrum, depending on the type of mentoring program. Group mentoring programs require the least amount of supervision; while community mentoring requires a moderate level of supervision and school based mentoring requires the most supervision. Matches, especially in the early stages, require monitoring by staff to help address challenges such as miscommunication or conflict situations as they arise with pairs (Jucovy, 2002; Liang & Rhodes, 2007). Despite this, DuBois et al. (2002) found that providing supervision to mentors did not influence the program's effectiveness.

When mentors cannot be directly supervised by mentoring program staff, it is important to have procedures in place to ensure that the fidelity of program is maintained. For example, having mentors keep logs of their mentoring activities that are then periodically reviewed with

mentoring program staff is one way of ensuring program fidelity. DuBois et al. (2002) found that having procedures in place to monitor program implementation did influence the program's effectiveness.

The quantity and quality of support phone calls between case managers and mentors are associated with longer matches and more regular meetings between mentor pairs (Herrera et al., 2013). Mentors require feedback of this type in order to feel effective in their relationships. Relationships are more likely to be successful when mentors feel they are effective (Rhodes, 2007). These phone calls can also serve as a mechanism for mentors to provide feedback to the organization, as a means of program improvement. Sipe (1996) identified mentors seeking out and using program support staff as a characteristic of effective mentors. Despite this evidence, in a study of a school based mentoring program, 12% of mentors stated that they had not communicated with program or school staff for support or advice. Karcher and Herrera (2007) cite this as evidence that program staff need to actively engage pairs in order to provide them with support and supervision.

Having the appropriate infrastructure has a trickle-down effect to mentees. Herrera et al. (2007) reported that mentors who were well supported and prepared by program staff had closer relationships and were better able to continue their match into another year. Another study found that the more contact mentors had with case managers, the more likely they were to say they felt important, that they personally benefitted from being a mentor, and viewed their mentoring relationship positively (Karcher & Herrera, 2007).

Programs where appropriate resources are directed to infrastructure can help to prevent early match failures. Resources include staff that are well trained and are supported in their positions (Rhodes, 2007; CAT Research & Professional Services, 2006). Consistency of staff is important as they play a key role in maintaining communication between mentors, mentees and their families. Staff turnover can negatively affect the sustainability of matches (Keller, 2007). The support of one designated caseworker is especially necessary for pairings involving at risk youth (Funk & Ek, 2002).

Keller (2007) provides some practical recommendations to help with staff retention:

- Provide a supportive workplace, with support from peers and managerial staff.
- Work to understand and address the causes of staff turnover.
- Recognize staff for high quality work.
- Provide staff with opportunities to achieve and experience growth.
- Provide adequate compensation for high quality staff.
- Mentor staff in their positions.

Additionally, staff need to have reasonable a workload. For example, school based mentoring programs where caseworkers were only responsible for one school and had appropriate resources were better able to provide supportive environments for their mentors (Shaw & Bisanz, 2008).

3.15 Closing the Mentor Relationship

Rhodes (2002) study noted that only half of mentoring relationships lasted beyond a few months and Herrera et al. (2013) found that half of mentees in their study experienced a match close by the time of their 13 month follow up. Similarly, Bernstein et al. (2009) found that up to half of school based mentoring relationships end prematurely before the end of the school year. Relationships among vulnerable youth are even more susceptible to early closure (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002). Examining the reason why matches end early can help to shed light on how programs can better support matches to avoid some of these challenges.

Spencer (2007) conducted interviews with early ending matches to determine the factors that contributed to the end of the relationship. One theme that emerged from these interviews was that of abandonment. Examples included interviewees discussing phone calls not being returned or visits being missed. Another theme expressed by mentors was the perceived lack of enthusiasm for the mentoring relationship by mentees.

Mentees discussed the difficulties mentors had in relating to them on their terms. These mentors had unrealistic expectations of children they worked with based on their developmental level. Mentors can also have difficulties in being aware of cultural differences between themselves and their mentees. Some mentors also had unrealistic expectations of the mentoring relationship. For example, mentors were unprepared for the challenges in building a relationship, especially with vulnerable youth. When mentors or mentees are uncertain of how to handle difficult situations some opt to abandon the relationship. Some of the pairs mentioned that they did not receive adequate support from the mentoring program when difficulties arose. This theme highlights the need for programs to help educate mentors of the reality of the mentoring relationship and illustrates the need for staff support of matches.

More than half the time it was mentors who initiated the end of a match. The most common reasons provided for the end of the match by mentors was that their mentees were not interested enough or they had the impression that their mentees did not seem to need a mentor (Herrera et al., 2013). Only 10% of mentors noted the mentee's high level of need drove the end of the relationship (Herrera et al., 2013). Negative outcomes are especially associated with matches that are ended abruptly or unexpectedly (Rhodes & DuBois, 2008). Effects of terminations include disappointment and frustration on the part of mentees. Also one set of researchers found that girls were less satisfied with short to medium length matches, suggesting that girls may be more sensitive to relationships ending early (Spencer, 2007). Abrupt terminations can also have negative consequences for mentors who would prefer closure or who are interested in the continuation of the relationship (Shaw & Bisanz, 2008).

In some cases though, mentoring matches must come to an end. In these cases matches should end as amicably and honestly as possible in order to preserve gains made. Terminating a mentoring relationship needs to receive the same amount of effort that is invested in establishing matches. Currently mentors receive little training on how to successfully close a mentoring relationship (Karcher & Herrera, 2007). As such, researchers have called for programs to develop clear guidelines and expectations for closing relationships, to train mentors

on match termination and support mentors in implementing the procedures (Karcher & Herrera, 2007; Spencer, 2007). Spencer (2007) also recommended that mentors and mentees be educated from the beginning of their options for ending a mentoring relationship.

When matches do come to an end programs should conduct private, confidential exit interviews with both the mentor and mentee. These interviews will help to determine what the positive and negatives were of the relationship, and to identify next steps (Ferronato, 2001). Interested programs can refer to the match termination process developed by Lakes and Karcher (2005) which is available on the MENTOR website

(http://www.mentoring.org/program_resources/elements_and_toolkits/operations/). Karcher and Herrera (2007) have requested that researchers examine this topic area further.

In summary, DuBois (2007) notes that there is a great deal of variability in terms of the effectiveness of mentoring programs, and programs may benefit from education regarding elements of programs that have been proven to be successful. It has been suggested that mentoring programs use evidence to inform the features of their programs thereby increasing the likelihood of effectiveness (DuBois, 2007). Proven practices could also be used to develop a credentialing program for mentoring based on best practices (DuBois, 2007). Below is a summary of program features discussed in this section and their demonstrated effectiveness.

Table 1: Program Features Impact on Effectiveness

Program Feature	Impact (y/n)	Comment
Mentoring Alone/One Component	No	No difference between programs with mentoring alone or as one component of programming.
Program Goal	No	No difference between programs with psychological versus more specific goals.
Setting	No	No difference between programs in community versus site specific settings.
One on One, Group & Mixed Mentoring	-	One on one, group and mixed mentoring have not been compared in terms of their effectiveness.
Cross Age Mentoring	-	Adolescent, adult and retired adult mentors have not been compared in terms of their effectiveness.
Recruiting & Screening	No	Screening mentors did not influence outcomes of mentoring programs, however screening should take place to ensure the safety of children.
Training	Yes	Programs that provided ongoing training for mentors were more effective. Six or more hours of ongoing training should be provided.

Program Feature	Impact (y/n)	Comment
Matching	No	Regardless of the matching criteria (ethnicity, gender etc.) used, programs that used these criteria were no more effective than those that did not match mentors and mentees.
Relationship Length	Yes	Relationships lasting longer than 12 months were more effective than those lasting less than a year.
Activities	Yes	When mentors and mentees were provided with structured activities, mentees had more positive outcomes.
Parent/Family Involvement	Yes	Programs that encouraged parent and family involvement in the mentoring relationship had more positive outcomes.
Program Support	No/Yes	Supervision of mentor pairs did not influence mentee outcomes. However, monitoring program fidelity by mentors was an effective practice.

4.0 MENTORING OUTCOMES

4.1 Mentee Outcomes

Dubois et al. (2002) found in their meta-analysis of mentoring programs that 10% of programs reviewed had negative outcomes; one-third demonstrated nil effects and the remaining studies ranged from small to large effects. Overall, this translated to a small to modest benefit for youth. Roberts, Liabo, Lucas, DuBois and Sheldon (2004) sum up the mentoring research literature with the following statement “robust research does indicate benefits from mentoring for some young people, in some circumstances, in relation to some outcomes” (p. 513). As there is a great deal of variation among programs in terms of their goals, setting and duration, it is can be difficult to make general statements about the specific outcomes of mentoring (Scrine et al., 2012). As such, the literature on the general effects of mentoring on academic, socio-emotional, and problem/high risk behavior outcomes are discussed below.

4.11 Academic

Many mentoring programs have the goal of improving the academic outcomes of mentees. Youth involved in mentoring have reported that their attitudes toward school were more positive and that they felt more connected to their school after experiencing mentoring (Funk & Ek, 2002; Jekielek et al., 2002; Karcher, 2008; Rhodes, Grossman, & Resch, 2000). Students have also reported that as a result of mentoring they developed greater confidence in their ability to complete tasks and goals, especially in terms of their academic skills and their ability to succeed (Wheeler, Keller, & Dubois, 2010; Wood & Mayo-Wilson, 2012; Herrera et al., 2013; Langhout, Rhodes, & Osborne, 2004).

In addition to feeling more positive towards their schools and increased confidence, youth were more likely to regularly attend classes. Wood and Mayo-Wilson (2012) in their meta-analysis of school based mentoring programs for adolescents similarly found small to modest positive changes in student attendance. Wheeler, Keller, Dubois (2010), Funk and Ek (2002) and Jekielek et al. (2002) also reported reductions in truancy their studies.

Although mentored students felt more connected to school, were more confident in their academic abilities, and attended school more often the results on academic achievement have been mixed. Positive results on achievement include early results from a Canadian longitudinal study of mentoring which found that children who were mentored were twice as likely to have high academic performance and were two and a half times more likely to participate in extra-curricular school activities (DeWit, 2013). Tolan, Henry, Schoeny and Bass (2008) in their meta-analysis of studies of mentoring interventions with delinquent youth also found positive outcomes on academic performance. Finally, Herrera et al. (2013) found that at risk youth's grades improved as a result of participating in mentoring.

Herrera et al. (2007) found mixed results on academic outcomes in their study. Youth who began the study with less academic difficulties, tended to benefit more from mentoring. They hypothesized that the mentors of youth that were having academic problems were more inclined to focus their mentoring sessions on academic activities as opposed to relationship building activities. Neutral results were found by a number of researchers. For example, Wood and Mayo-Wilson (2012) found in their systematic review of school-based mentoring programs that the intervention did not influence mentee's academic achievement. Similarly Karcher (2008) found no benefits from mentoring in terms of academic outcomes.

Table 2: Mentoring and Academic Outcomes

Academic Outcome	Effective (y/n)	Comment
School Connectedness	Yes	Mentored students were more connected to their schools.
Academic Confidence	Yes	Mentored students were more confident in their academic skills.
Attendance	Yes	Mentored students attended school more regularly and were truant less.
Academic Achievement	Mixed	Positive and nil results have been found for mentored students in terms of their subsequent academic achievement.

4.12 Socio-emotional/Psychological

Research has suggested that in mentoring programs, particularly school based mentoring, changes in students first become evident in socio-emotional measures (Shaw & Bisanz, 2008). This may be due in part to mentors focusing first on assisting students in their social development and developing their friendship with mentees. Herrera (2004) also notes that

socio-emotional changes in mentees are precursors to eventual changes in attendance and academic development that appear after mentoring relationships have a chance to develop.

In Shaw and Bisanz’s (2008) evaluation of a school based mentoring program, both teachers and mentors noted social growth in students. Teachers described improvements in “self-esteem, confidence, interaction with peers, and as taking more pride in their work and being more willing to participate in class” (p. 15). Several studies of mentoring have also reported small but significant changes in children’s self-esteem and self-worth as a result of mentoring (Karcher, 2008; Wood & Mayo-Wilson, 2012; Langhout et al., 2004; Rhodes et al., 2000).

Rhodes et al. (2000) suggest that building positive relationships with mentors helps to increase a youth’s resiliency and ability to benefit from the support of their parents and other care providers. Consistent with this theory, mentoring studies have reported improved relations between youth and their parents (Funk & Ek, 2002; Jekielek et al., 2002), feelings of family connectedness (Funk & Ek, 2002), and decreased feelings of alienation from parents (Langhout et al., 2004). In addition to positive benefits in relating to parents and guardians, some mentoring studies have noted improvements in mentees social skills with peers (Karcher, 2008). Children were also more likely to be accepted by their peers after mentoring (Herrera et al., 2013; Wheeler et al., 2010) and to have fewer conflicts with their friends (Langhout et al., 2004).

Benefits have also been demonstrated between mentoring and mental health. Herrera et al. (2013) found across groups of various risk profiles, there was a significant reduction of depressive symptoms as a result of receiving mentoring. This was despite the fact that one in four youth scored high in number of depressive symptoms before being matched. Lawner et al. (2013) recommend additional research on the effects of mentoring on mental health outcomes.

Table 3: Mentoring and Socio-emotional/Psychological Outcomes

Socio-emotional/Psychological Outcome	Effective (y/n)	Comment
Self Esteem	Yes	Improved self esteem in mentored youth.
Self Worth	Yes	Increased feelings of self worth in youth who were mentored.
Relationship With Parents	Yes	Improved relationship with parents and feelings of family connectedness in mentored youth.
Social Skills	Yes	Improved social skills and less conflict with peers for youth who were mentored.
Mental Health	Yes	Decreased depressive symptoms in mentored youth.

4.13 Problem/High Risk Behavior

Researchers have suggested that rather than directly addressing problem behavior, mentoring strengthens abilities thereby leading to positive development (Jekielek et al., 2002). DuBois et al.’s (2002) systematic review of mentoring programs included an examination of the

relationship between mentoring and problem behavior, of which delinquency was one component. They found that problem behavior had the largest changes as a result of mentoring of any outcome categories that were examined.

Tolan et al. (2008) also conducted a meta-analysis of studies of mentoring interventions with identified or self-identified delinquent youth on outcomes including aggression. Consistent with DuBois et al. (2002) findings, significant and positive effects were found for several outcomes, however the largest benefits were witnessed for the outcomes of delinquency and aggression. As such, they recommend mentoring as a valuable intervention for youth at-risk or involved in delinquency for reducing aggression. Similarly, King, Vidourek, Davis and McClellan (2002) found in a mentoring program for at risk youth that mentored children participated less in bullying and physical fights compared to before they started in the program. Finally, a meta-analysis of three large studies of school based mentoring in the United States found that mentoring significantly decreased classroom misbehavior (Wheeler et al., 2010).

Several studies have examined the effect of mentoring on substance use. Two randomized controlled trials in the Thomas et al. (2011) review found that children involved in mentoring were less likely to begin using alcohol, and one study demonstrated a reduction in children experimenting with drugs. Herrera et al. (2013) discusses the difficulty in having substance use as an outcome for evaluations that are often conducted with children too young to have participated in these behaviors. Additionally, many evaluations span such short time periods it is difficult to witness changes in these outcomes.

Table 4: Mentoring and Problem/High Risk Behavior Outcomes

Problem/High Risk Behavior Outcome	Effective (y/n)	Comment
Aggression	Yes	Mentored youth were less aggressive as a result of mentoring.
Bullying	Yes	Youth who experienced mentoring were less likely to participate in bullying.
Classroom Misbehaviour	Yes	Mentored youth were less likely to misbehave in the classroom.
Substance Use	Mixed	Mixed results have been found in preventing substance use in mentored youth.

4.2 Mentor Outcomes

Surprisingly little research has been conducted on how mentors benefit from the mentoring relationship. However, it is important for programs to ensure that their mentors are satisfied with their experience. Research has shown that when mentors do not benefit personally from a mentoring relationship, those relationships are more likely to end prematurely (Snyder, Clary, & Stukas, 2000). These relationships drain mentors enthusiasm for the pairing and leave them feeling burdened (Rhodes, 2007).

Shaw and Bisanz (2008) found that mentors involved in a school based mentoring program in Edmonton were satisfied with their mentoring experience and commented that they enjoyed their relationships with their mentees and their own personal growth. Scrine et al. (2012) report that mentors benefit from their mentoring experience through a greater sense of efficacy, pride, and insight into their own lives. Mentors that participated in a set of Aboriginal mentoring pilot projects in Alberta reported that they personally grew from the experience. They also shared that their confidence in being a mentor grew throughout their time in the relationship (CAT Research & Professional Services, 2006). Mentors also benefit from the growth they witness in their mentees (Herrera, 1999). In summary, of the few outcomes reported on mentors, personal growth and satisfaction with the growth witnessed in mentees were most commonly witnessed.

4.3 Economic Costs/Social Return on Investment

The average costs of school and community based mentoring programs are \$1000 per match per year (Herrera et al., 2007). However costs can vary greatly between programs (Foster, 2010). When costs per hour are examined, school based mentoring is much more expensive due to the personnel costs of providing support and supervision for these pairs. When using a group mentoring format costs are reduced to \$408 per participating youth (Herrera et al., 2002).

Research on the economic benefits of mentoring is limited. Part of the reason for this is the difficulty in assigning monetary amounts to the positive outcomes that arise from mentoring programs. However when used as a preventative measure, mentoring programs have clear economic benefits. Associated costs of not providing mentors to youth include delinquency, school dropout, health, social services and substance abuse (Cohen, 1998; DuBois, 2013). Long-term outcomes will need to be collected as well. These outcomes could include high school graduation, earnings, employment rates, as well as number of criminal offenses (DuBois, 2013; Lawner et al., 2013). In summary, demonstrating the economic benefits of mentoring is limited by the need to collect long term outcomes and the difficulty of assigning monetary amounts to these outcomes.

5.0 MENTORING WITH SPECIAL GROUPS

5.1 Aboriginal

The Aboriginal population is the youngest group within Alberta. Additionally, the growth in the Aboriginal child and youth populations has been rapid between 1996 and 2006 (Statistics Canada, 2013). As a result, mentoring organizations have partnered with Aboriginal agencies to adapt mentoring programming for use with Aboriginal youth. Several resources exist for those interested in developing mentoring programs in Aboriginal communities, including AMP's "Tools for Mentoring in Aboriginal Communities" (2013) or Alberta Children's Services' "Handbook for Aboriginal Mentoring" (2007).

For agencies interested in establishing their own Aboriginal mentoring program, it should be developed out of a need expressed by/and in collaboration with the community. As Bisanz et al. (2003) notes the needs of each community will be individual and "programs developed for First Nations reservations may not fit the needs of people on Métis settlements or in urban settings"

(p. 28). As such time should be taken to build relationships with community members to learn the needs of the community. CAT Research and Professional Services (2006) notes that time, at least one year, will need to be set aside to meet with community members, build trust and develop a plan for the program. Successful programs already existing in the community should be surveyed. Bisanz et al. (2003) suggests that, rather than establishing new programs, mentoring programs be built upon successful existing programs to avoid the duplication of services. They note, “a successful mentoring program would be one that is connected to other programs in the community with similar objectives whether they are mentoring specific or not” (p. 23).

Proper protocol in Aboriginal communities involves approaching community leaders such as the chief and band council members for their support (Bisanz et al., 2003). In order for programs to be implemented, buy in from this internal leadership is essential, and key contacts will need to be fostered within the community (CAT Research & Professional Services, 2006). A community advisory board can help provide important feedback and support in the development of a mentoring program (Bisanz et al., 2003; Satchwell, 2006). Regular meetings of the board in the development and implementation phases will ensure that the community has ongoing input into the program. The board should consist of key community members and partners (CAT Research & Professional Services, 2006). Elders should also be engaged to ensure the inclusion of appropriate cultural and spiritual elements (CAT Research & Professional Services, 2006). Other key members of an advisory board include cultural and business leaders, school representatives, First Nations, Métis, and Inuit organization representatives and parents (AMP, 2013). Focus group members of Bisanz et al.'s (2003) research also suggested that youth be included in the planning process. It was felt that by involving youth in developing the program, this would convey a sense of ownership and connection to the program. As such, there should be a youth component to the community advisory board.

As the term mentoring may be foreign to Aboriginal communities, for a program to be successful initial efforts will have to focus on sharing how mentoring can support children, youth and community members (CAT Research & Professional Services, 2006). CAT Research and Professional Services (2006) found that children's participation in the mentoring programs depended on the community's awareness of the program.

A number of Aboriginal pilot projects and established mentoring programs have developed a set of best practices regarding Aboriginal mentoring. Best practices regarding mentor and mentee matching, mentor recruitment, and program content are presented below.

In consultations with Aboriginal community members the need for having culturally matched mentors has been expressed in previous research (Bisanz et al., 2003; Satchwell, 2006). It was felt that Aboriginal mentors would be in the best position to support traditional values with their mentees (Bisanz et al., 2003). The recruitment and screening of Aboriginal mentors can be a challenge for mentoring organizations (Bisanz et al., 2003). Although contributing to the community is a key aspect of Aboriginal culture, formalized volunteering is more foreign (CAT Research & Professional Services, 2006). Aboriginal mentors who were interviewed as part of

CAT Research and Professional Services (2006) research discussed how they initially believed they could not fulfill the role. Many participants commented that they felt that mentors must be experts in working with children, and as such they were reluctant to volunteer. Those who did volunteer expressed that they wanted to help the development of Aboriginal youth. They felt reassured that they would be receiving training and support from the program coordinator (CAT Research & Professional Services, 2006).

A group of pilot Albertan Aboriginal mentoring projects found success in recruiting mentors from those within an inner circle, or those who already had a relationship with the program (CAT Research & Professional Services, 2006). For example, they recruited from staff of the host organization and youth from other leadership programs. AMP (2013) suggests identifying a mentoring champion in the community, to help spread the word about the program and help to identify potential mentors.

Focus group members of Bisanz et al.'s (2003) research also suggested the use of peer mentors. Pilot sites for using peer mentors in Aboriginal mentoring programs found that the programs provided youth mentors with opportunities for positive interactions with other youth and adults (CAT Research & Professional Services, 2006).

Finally, CAT Research & Professional Services (2006) reported that programs were most successful in recruiting Aboriginal mentors when their program was well known and had established a relationship with those in the community. The community advisory board can assist in establishing screening processes for mentors that are culturally appropriate and tailored to each community.

Staff and mentors generated a list of mentor qualities they felt were beneficial, they were (Satchwell, 2006):

- A sense of humor
- Being authentic, not phony
- Showing respect for children, not being authoritarian
- Show a commitment to working with children
- Show a commitment to the program through regular attendance
- Serve as a role model to children, establishing boundaries within the pair
- Use training and ongoing supports provided to mentors
- Build a relationship with their mentee including building trust

Although previous research has established a preference for cultural matching in Aboriginal mentoring programs, in the absence of an Aboriginal mentor there was support for cross-cultural mentoring. AMP (2013) recommends that training for non-Aboriginal mentors should allow time for mentors to reflect on their own cultural identity, as well as their assumptions and stereotypes of other cultures. Another important aspect of training would be sharing knowledge of the residential school experience and the impacts those experiences have on Aboriginal people today (Bisanz et al., 2003).

As discussed earlier, Aboriginal learning is more common to take place in a group setting. Aboriginal learning is also less formal, with less defined roles of who the teacher is and who is the learner (Bisanz et al., 2003). Focus group interviewees agreed that group mentoring is more culturally appropriate when working with Aboriginal youth (CAT Research & Professional Services, 2006). Interviewees felt that a group setting would be more encouraging for youth to participate, and easier for children to learn (Little Bear, 2000). In interviewing Aboriginal mentors, they felt that there would be less pressure and more support for them to grow and develop as mentors in a group setting (CAT Research & Professional Services, 2006).

Bisanz et al. (2003) also suggests using symbols such as the medicine wheel from Aboriginal culture to help facilitate exchanges within a group setting. Using cultural symbols can aid in building respect and trust between group members, as a circle denotes a sense of equality among participants. Farrugia (2011) in their review of Aboriginal mentoring programs in New Zealand, found that most programs solely utilized group mentoring or combined it with one on one mentoring. One on one mentoring can be helpful, for example when working with high risk youth who may not be prepared to interact initially in a group setting (CAT Research & Professional Services, 2006)

In addition to using cultural symbols in group settings, Bisanz et al. (2003) discussed the need to include Aboriginal history and culture into the mentoring programming, as a means to strengthen traditional values.

5.2 Multicultural

In 2010 Alberta became home to 11.6 % of all immigrants to Canada, a total of 32,640 individuals. Of these newcomers, 22.7% were between the ages of 0 to 14 years (Government of Alberta, 2011). Newcomer youth to Canada often seek out informal connections to those from their home countries who have successfully made the transition to Canada. These youth serve as cultural brokers by introducing their peers to Canadian life, the people, and customs (Satchwell, 2006). Mentoring programs have expressed interest or have been approached to provide formal mentoring to immigrant communities to supplement these experiences with informal mentors. Multicultural mentoring programs now exist in Alberta tailored to multicultural youth in general, immigrant and Somali youth.

AMP has established a set of guidelines for organizations interested in developing mentoring programs for immigrant communities (AMP, 2013). Similar to best practices identified in Aboriginal mentoring, a considerable amount of time should be set aside initially to build strong relationships with the community and to gain experience in their culture (AMP, 2013). In turn, this will be an opportunity to share information about the mentoring organization. For many cultural groups, formal mentoring is a foreign concept. As such time will need to be taken to familiarize groups with the mentoring process.

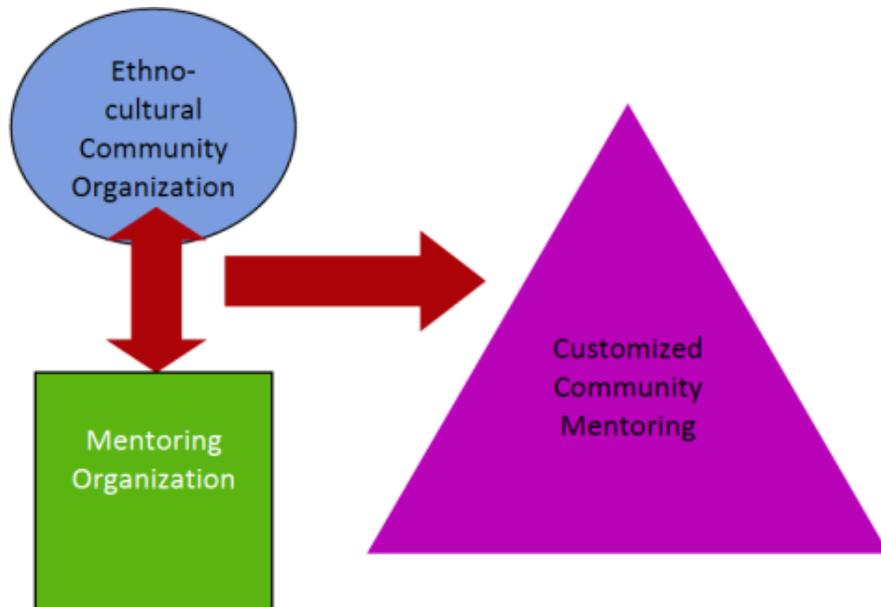


Figure 5: Cultural mentoring program development (originally from CAT Research, 2011)

An important consideration for these upfront meetings and later operation of the program is the use of translation services, which should be identified as a key program expense. Translation services will also be needed when meeting with parents to involve them in the mentoring process (CAT Research, 2011). Additional efforts will need to be made to involve parents and family members. In addition to home visits, hosting opportunities for family members to view the program will be necessary for success (CAT Research, 2011).

The establishment of an advisory committee, consisting of community members, will assist in identifying resources for developing an effective program (AMP, 2013). Program elements, such as screening and mentor training, will need to be adapted for the cultural community with which the organization is working. Training materials can be reviewed and revised with the advisory committee to make sure that the content is understandable in terms of its language and concepts. Additionally, the cultural review could identify any issues that maybe either uncomfortable or 'taboo' (CAT Research, 2011).

Program staff in key roles, such as the program coordinator, should be from the same cultural group as those being served (CAT Research, 2011; AMP, 2013). Similar to mainstream programs, CAT Research (2011) found in their evaluation of AMP's cultural pilot programs that the sites with mature, consistent and experienced staff experienced less challenges. Culturally competency was also identified as a key qualification. If cross-cultural matching is to occur, mentor training should include training about cultural traditions, customs, history, and protocols for interacting with children and youth and their families (CAT Research, 2011). A key outcome of these programs should be building the social capital of the community. As such programs should focus on developing children's leadership skills within their cultural context (CAT Research, 2011).

5.3 Risk Status

Herrera et al. (2013) highlight the trend of mentoring programs being asked to serve higher risk youth, such as those involved in care or the justice system. Many youth at risk do not participate in structured activities, which can limit their interaction with positive adult role models (Satchwell, 2006). Interactions with a positive adult such as a mentor help to challenge negative views and past experiences these youth have had with adults. Mentors can also provide at risk youth with emotional support to help them cope with negative events in their lives. Locally, the Alberta Crime Reduction and Safe Communities Task Force (2007) recommended “Schools, communities and the provincial government should work together to expand mentoring programs for at-risk children and youth” (p. 58).

Children and youth can face two types of factors that place them at-risk for negative outcomes, namely individual and environmental. Individual risk factors involve difficulties that lie within an individual such as a youth’s behavior, their social or academic functioning, or health (Herrera et al., 2013). In contrast, environmental risk factors lie outside of an individual such as their life circumstances. Examples are living in a dangerous neighborhood or coming from a low SES background (Herrera et al., 2013). Researchers have suggested that youth faced with environmental risk may be especially appropriate for mentoring due to a lack of positive role models in their lives (Rhodes, 1994; Portwood, Ayers, Kinnison, Waris, & Wise, 2005; Rodriguez-Planas, 2012).

Many would think that recruitment efforts would need to be enhanced to recruit at risk youth into mentoring programs. However, programs involved in the Herrera et al. (2013) study instead found that they were able to recruit youth without significant efforts beyond their traditional outreach strategies. Once relationships are established with youth, programs will need to concentrate more of their resources on supporting these relationships though (Karcher & Herrera, 2007).

Training and support services will need to be modified depending on the type and level of risk mentees have experienced (Herrera et al., 2013). For example mentors in the Herrera et al. (2013) study who were matched with the highest risk youth, requested training in learning how to interact with their mentee’s family and how to navigate social service systems involved with the youth. Mentors matched with children with high individual risks experienced challenges with their mentee’s behavior (Herrera et al., 2013). These mentors requested support in dealing with their mentees social and emotional issues. Early match training and caseworker support, as evidenced by longer support calls, was beneficial for these mentors.

Mentors in relationships with at risk youth will also need to be educated on the time it will take to develop trust, due to these youths negative past relationships (Rhodes, 2007). They should also be cautioned to steer away from trying to “save” their mentee, and instead work towards developing a relationship based on trust and support (Satchwell, 2006). Grossman and Rhodes (2002) found shorter mentoring relationships involving youth who faced complex individual risk factors such as abuse histories or those referred to the program due to psychological or educational problems. When relationships failed it appeared to be due to unrealistic

expectations on the part of the mentor or insufficient training. For example, Spencer (2007) found that some mentors underestimated the needs of their mentees or the challenges that can be experienced in trying to build a relationship.

In terms of outcomes, DuBois et al. (2002) found that youth experiencing individual or environmental risk factors did exhibit an overall effect of mentoring. Additionally, those youth experiencing both individual and environmental factors showed the largest benefits from mentoring programs. In summary, DuBois et al. (2002) concluded from their review that there is support for mentoring programs providing benefits to youth at risk, especially those experiencing combined individual and environmental risk. Similarly, Herrera et al. (2013) concluded from their study that mentoring should be widely available to youth of different risk profiles as all youth benefitted in important ways.

Herrera et al. (2013) suggested that as a result of the above findings, changes should be made to the mentee intake process for mentoring programs to determine a youth's risk level. They recommend "gathering information about difficulties in the youth's environment and about personal challenges, such as behavior problems or mental health issues" (p. 6). Additionally, DuBois et al. (2002) notes that measures of youth risk status need to be incorporated into future research studies as risk status can have a significant effect on mentoring outcomes.

6.0 MENTORING EVALUATION AND RESEARCH PRACTICES

6.1 Effective Evaluation Practices

An important aspect of any program's implementation is the development of a regular evaluation process to ensure program goals are being met and to determine how the program can be improved (CAT Research & Professional Services, 2006). However, a recent review of mentoring programs in New Zealand reported that only 35% of programs had participated in an evaluation to examine their effectiveness (Farrugia, 2011). A barrier to the evaluation of programs is the identification of appropriate outcome measures, and the development of tools and systems to collect this information (CAT Research & Professional Services, 2006). Host organizations, partnerships with other agencies and learning institutions can help to provide support to programs in this respect.

Ferronato (2001) presents two types of evaluations that mentoring programs can utilize to demonstrate their results. Output evaluations demonstrate a program's level of productivity and involve measures such as the number of mentor matches and the usual match length. In contrast, outcome evaluations demonstrate changes in attitudes, behavior, knowledge/skills in participants. Often changes in outcomes such as these become evident earlier in studies using qualitative methodologies such as interviews, before quantitative measures such as surveys (Shaw & Bisanz, 2008). As such it is important to use both qualitative and quantitative measures to document changes in participants.

A common data piece that should be collected is demographic information on mentors and mentees. This will help to determine who is engaging in services and who is currently not being served. Also, for those mentors and mentees who choose to exit the program, it is important to

assess reasons for ending their involvement in an effort to further improve services (Novotney et al., 2000). Liang and West (2007) suggested that more attention be paid to different demographic characteristics and their combinations between mentors and mentees and how this may influence the quality of their relationship. For example, they note that most of the extant research on same-ethnicity and cross-ethnicity pairs, does not compare the combinations of mentor-mentee within and across ethnicity and gender.

DuBois et al. (2002) emphasizes the importance of incorporating nonreactive measures into any evaluation of mentoring programs. Examples of nonreactive measures are educational tests or attendance records. Nonreactive measures help to avoid possible demand characteristics as a source of bias in an evaluation. Demand characteristics are when respondents interpret a study's purpose and unconsciously change their behavior to fit that interpretation.

Two criticisms of existing mentoring research is the use of small sample sizes and single informants which can lead one to question if the results are representative of the group as a whole (Shaw & Bisanz, 2008; Randolph & Johnson, 2008). Another criticism is the reliance on non-or quasi-experimental research designs (Portwood & Ayers, 2005; Randolph & Johnson, 2008; Wheeler et al., 2010). Stronger effects of mentoring were evident in Randomized Controlled Trials (RCT) compared to quasi-experimental studies in Tolan et al.'s (2008) review. Not using random selection in mentoring research also limits how the results of the research can be generalized to other programs (Wheeler et al., 2010). However, a barrier to using a RCT designs in mentoring research are the ethical issues around assigning children to a control group where they cannot access mentoring (Randolph & Johnson, 2008; Wheeler et al., 2010).

Even when mentoring research designs employ a control and intervention group, there is often poor differentiation between the groups. Bernstein et al. (2009) found that only 86% of children in a designated intervention group actually received mentoring. Additionally, 35% of children in the control group received mentoring from a source outside of the program of interest. As such, it is important when conducting research with an intervention and control group design to ensure that the intervention group has fully received the intervention. Additionally, outcomes from members of the control group who have received mentoring outside of the program of interest should be kept separate from youth who have received no mentoring and their results analyzed separately.

Both Wood and Mayo-Wilson (2012) and Tolan et al. (2008) noted in their reviews that many studies lacked details about the activities mentoring pairs participated in, as well as information on how the programs were implemented. DuBois et al. (2002) also requested that evaluators provide more information on the attrition of mentors from programs, the motivations for mentors volunteering for the program, whether training was provided to mentors and the extent they followed the training recommendations. This additional information would be helpful to researchers to further identify effective practices of programs.

When conducting research on the effects of programming in special groups, such as immigrant and Aboriginal groups, it is important to be sensitive to the cultural structure of those

communities. A key partner of the evaluation team will be the community, which will help to define the goals and processes of the evaluation (CAT Research & Professional Services, 2006). Farrugia (2011) discusses how this can be operationalized in their review of Aboriginal mentoring programs in New Zealand. Participants and researchers met together through a series of focus groups to plan the evaluation. To ensure that everyone was viewed as equal and had an opportunity to share their thoughts, they sat in a circle when sharing their opinions.

Finally, as noted earlier, studies have used a variety of measures to collect information on similar outcomes of mentoring. If programs were to agree on a set of common performance measures and data collection methods it would be easier to demonstrate a program's effectiveness. Hartley (2004) called for national goals, funding guidelines, and benchmarks in mentoring to help ensure that high quality programs persevere. However, she acknowledges that such a strategy would need to be flexible enough to accommodate diverse groups who may wish to adapt programming to fit their needs.

6.2 Future Directions of Research

Some key future topics of research in mentoring research include: factors of mentoring effectiveness, mechanisms of change from mentoring, and the long-term outcomes of mentoring.

Although some of the research on factors that influence the effectiveness of mentoring programs were discussed in this review, there is still a need for additional research in this area (DuBois et al., 2002). There is a lack of understanding of the components of mentoring that lead to positive outcomes for youth (Herrera et al., 2011; McQuillin, Smith & Strait, 2011). By gaining a greater understanding of these specific components, programs can ensure these best practices are incorporated into their programming. Additionally, although changes in mentees and mentors have been demonstrated in various types of mentoring, the understanding of the mechanisms behind these changes is needed (Wood & Mayo-Wilson, 2012).

Some studies have questioned whether the effects from mentoring programs persevere across time (Rhodes, 2008). DuBois et al. (2002) found support that the benefits of mentoring do continue after youth end their participation in mentoring programs, although they note this happens on a limited basis. Herrera et al. (2007) found that the positive academic, behavioral and attendance effects of a school based mentoring program did not continue into the following school year. Similarly, studies of the effects of a cross age mentoring program found that changes in negative behavior and positive attitudes toward student's school and families were not retained at the end of the school year (Aseltine, Dupre, & Lamlein, 2000; Taylor, LoSciuto, Foz, & Sonkowsko, 1999).

As a result a growing number of mentoring researchers are employing longitudinal study designs. Longitudinal designs involve tracking the same youth across time to see if those mentored have different long-term outcomes from those who do not receive mentoring. For example, DeWit (2013) is undertaking one of the largest mentoring studies ever in Canada, and will be following 997 mentees aged 6 to 17 longitudinally. Studies such as these will help

determine whether mentoring contributes to long-term outcomes such as increased graduation rates or subsequent enrollment in postsecondary education.

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