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Initial Motivation and its Impact on Quality and Dynamics in Formal Youth Mentoring Relationships: Longitudinal Qualitative Study

A thesis submitted for the Degree of PhD in Sociology to National University of Ireland, Galway

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ABSTRACT
This longitudinal qualitative study explores experiences and understandings of the mentoring role in the Big Brothers Big Sisters Czech Republic mentoring programme, using a phenomenological approach. In particular, the study explores mentors’ initial motivation for volunteering and its impact on mentoring experiences, and the quality and dynamics of developed formal youth mentoring relationships. As such, it explores in detail the characteristics and dynamics of helping processes that do or do not mediate mentoring benefits such as provided social supports to children. In addition, it explores the risks and ethical dilemmas associated with formal youth mentoring involvement. It highlights both the risks of the mentoring role and the characteristics of quality that mediate mentoring benefits. Thus, it illuminates the pathways through which formal mentors do or do not become significant adults for children and young people in formal youth mentoring relationships and interventions. It contributes to theory, research and practice with: 1) a longitudinal qualitative methodology that has not been used before, 2) the use of the theoretical framework of Self-Determination theory that has not been applied in a similar context to date, 3) findings in relation to detailed pathways of helping processes in formal youth mentoring relationships and interventions. The characteristics and dynamics of 1) controlling, and 2) autonomy supportive formal youth mentoring relationships are identified and subsequent recommendations for future research and practice in formal mentoring relationships and interventions are made.
DECLARATION

I, Tereza Brumovská, declare that the thesis entitled Initial Motivation and its Impact of Quality and Dynamics in Formal Youth Mentoring Relationships: Longitudinal Qualitative Study submitted by me for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy at NUI Galway is the record of work carried out by me during the period from September 2010 to March 2017 under the guidance of Dr. Bernadine Brady and Prof. Pat Dolan and has not formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, or titles in this or any other University or other similar institution of higher learning.
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Thanks to all my friends and close ones in the past, present, and in the future for the inspiring encounters and everything that arose from them. Relationships are the basic theme of my life. I could not work without the people that are close – around or in my heart. Thanks to Veronica for her help with proof-reading of the text and finalizing the thesis.

Thanks to Michelle Gunning for her support during the last PhD years. I learnt a lot from her. Thanks also to Beate and Viktor for developing my creativity, empathy, flexibility, understanding, and more. They challenged my fears, and showed me more options. I had to choose, and I chose to finish my thesis in the end, but I am grateful for what I have learnt from them.

Finally, I thank myself for the courage and persistence I found to finish this thesis. I learnt a lot, not only about the research, but also about myself. I realized I have had the idea of the thesis in my head since my undergraduate studies. Nevertheless, it took a lot of my energy, joy, and pain to bring it to this end. I am happy it could happen. I am grateful for this energy that led me through, and for the opportunity to learn to trust it and follow through without fear and enjoy the creativity, freedom and happiness it brings.
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GLOSSARY OF TERMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ABBREVIATIONS

YMR – Youth Mentoring Relationship
NYMR – Natural Youth Mentoring Relationship
FYMR – Formal Youth Mentoring Relationship
BBBS CZ – Big Brothers Big Sisters Czech Republic Mentoring Programme
SDT – Self-Determination Theory
CET – Cognitive-Evaluation Theory
BHN – Basic Human Needs

GLOSSARY OF TERMS

Mentor: A volunteer who agrees to engage in a one-to-one supportive relationship with a socially-disadvantaged child and teenager for at least 10 months of regular meetings.

Mentee: A child or a teenager (from 6 to 15-years-old) who is referred to the mentoring programme by professionals in social or health or educational institutions for a one-to-one mentoring relationship that is seen as somehow potentially beneficial for the child and his/her difficulties in coping.

Parent: A carer/parent of the child referred to the mentoring programme who agrees the child will meet up with a voluntary mentor regularly once a week for at least ten months.

Case-Worker: A coordinator of the mentoring matches who manages: 1) recruitment, training matching, and regular supervision of voluntary mentors for at least ten months; and 2) referral, matching, and communication on feedback of mentees and parents.

Mentoring Relationship: A one-to-one supportive developmental relationship between an older, wiser adult mentor and a younger mentee. The match meets up regularly once a week for at least ten months to spend time in enjoyable activities. The relationship developed is supposed to be supportive for the mentee’s positive development.
**Big Brothers Big Sisters CZ:** A mentoring programme funded in the Czech Republic, based on BBBS International guidelines and aimed at promoting the virtues of volunteering and civil society

**Mediator:** The term ‘mediator’ is used in two different ways in the thesis: Firstly, it is used in the literature review relating to the results of quantitative studies to refer to its usage in statistical terminology and methodology. Secondly, it is explained in the theoretical framework of the study that the term ‘mediator’ is also used in the theoretical approach of L. Vygotsky and his followers. ‘Mediator’ in the theoretical meaning of developmental psychology of L. Vygotsky is a caring, more experienced significant adult who ‘mediates’ the experiences of culture and society to the less experienced child. Thus, according to the theory, the meanings of cultural and social symbols are ‘mediated’ to the child in the quality social interactions developed between children and their carers during childhood and adolescence. This process is called mediation. As a result, mediation facilitates development of higher psychological functions. The term ‘mediator’ in this theoretical qualitative understanding is used in the theoretical framework, methodological chapter and in the results and discussion chapters in order to explore and explain the pathways though which formal mentors become mediators and informal significant adults for children.
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

1.0. INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER I.

A mentoring relationship is a connection between an older, wiser, caring mentor and a younger less experienced mentee. The principles of mentoring are beneficial for children’s learning, positive development, and well-being. Natural mentoring relationships (NMR) are observable in intergenerational human relationships that have been developed over generations throughout history. Nevertheless, it can be argued that natural mentoring relationships are disappearing in the social networks of children and young people of post-modern risk societies (Beck, 1992; Feuerstain, 1998). Thus, formal youth mentoring interventions have gained increased popularity in the literature and praxis of social services in the last decade and have been implemented as prevention and early intervention services for disadvantaged children and young people across Europe (Hall, 2003; Dolan, Brady, 2012; Brady, 2010; Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010, 2008; Brumovská, 2007).

Formal youth mentoring interventions (FYMIs) aim to foster the benefits of a natural mentoring relationship for children who lack the presence of significant adults in their lives and thus facilitate the positive development and well-being of children and young people (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010, 2008; Brady et al., 2017). The relationship is fostered formally by a third party, a youth mentoring organisation. Formal youth mentoring relationships and natural youth mentoring relationships can differ both in how they develop and in the benefits children receive from them. In particular, research on formal youth mentoring relationships (FYMRs) argues that not all FYMRs are beneficial, and some are even harmful (Grossman, Rhodes, 2002, Liang et al., 2007, 2002; Spencer et al., 2006; Spencer, 2007; Allen et al., 2007; Morrow, Styles, 1995). In addition, the characteristics features of FYMR that mediate the benefits of mentoring to children have not been explored sufficiently to
date (Zand et al., 2009). For instance, no study on youth mentoring to date has questioned the effect of the initial motivation of mentors on the characteristics and dynamics of developed formal youth mentoring relationships over time. Nevertheless, the previous study on helping relationships outlined that the quality of the initial motivation of helpers impacted on the perceived benefits of these helping relationships reported by recipients (Weinstein, Ryan, 2010). Thus, the initial motivation presumably impacts on the quality and dynamics in formal youth mentoring relationships.

This study aims to address the gap in knowledge regarding the principles of formal youth mentoring relationships. It aims to explore the characteristics features of FYMR that facilitate the benefits of mentoring and thus contribute to a child's positive development and well-being. In addition, the thesis also explores the characteristics features that impose potential risks from FYMR on mentees. Finally, as it addresses the gap in the knowledge on mentors' motivation for volunteering as it closely explores the quality of initial motivation of volunteers and its impact on quality of FYMRs that mentors develop. As a result, the overall aim of the thesis is to explore how formal mentors become/don't become mediators and informal significant adults for socially-disadvantaged children and young people in FYMRs. Thus, the thesis contributes to current research and evidence-based practice in the field of youth mentoring.

1.1. NATURAL MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

Natural mentoring relationships have been part of organic social networks throughout history. Bennett (2003) defines a natural mentoring relationship as one where someone gains new knowledge and personal development as a result of the bond. Natural mentoring relationships facilitate social learning, where the mentee learns a particular set of values and practices (Rogoff, 1990). Mentoring relationships function as a mutual connection between two

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1 The first use of the word "Mentor" is evident in Homer's epos Odyssey. In particular, the principle of the relationship is the close, caring, and supportive connection in which the Mentor functions as a role model for Telemachus. The Mentor mediated the experiences, opinions, and attitudes while caring for Telemachus' positive cognitive and personal development during the years of his adolescence (Freedman, 1992).
people that can be formed and developed spontaneously at any time during the lifespan.

The mentoring relationship is beneficial for the mentee due to the processes that occur in the relationship. In particular, the relationship is characterized by mutual respect, loyalty, and interest in the facilitation of learning and consequently by the socio-emotional and cognitive development of a mentee (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2008, 2010). The mentor offers models of behaviour, values and attitudes, in addition to practical examples of problem-solving skills. They offer the mentee different types of social support that facilitate opportunities for the learning and development of talents and skills, and thus mediate the mentee’s positive development (Cutrona, 2000; Dolan, Brady, 2012; Brady et al., 2017) and the development of the mentee’s competence and autonomy (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010). A mentor can also advocate for the mentee when needed (DuBois and Silverthorn, 2005). As such, the natural mentoring relationship is an archetypal human developmental relationship, the principles of which mediate the positive cognitive, socio-emotional, and individual development of a mentee in different social settings.

However, as natural mentoring relationships are disappearing in the natural social networks of children and young people in risk societies (Beck, 1992, Feuerstein, 1988), the benefits of mentoring relationships in children’s development and well-being are increasingly sought through formal youth mentoring interventions.

1.2. FORMAL YOUTH MENTORING INTERVENTIONS

The principles of mentoring relationships have been harnessed since the end of the 20th century as the features that support the positive development of children, young people, and adults. Mentoring principles in the post-modern era are formally used in a range of human relationships and social networks.

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2 Forty per cent of natural mentors are members of extended family such as grandparents, older siblings, uncles, aunts, or cousins; 26% of natural mentors are teachers and counsellors, coaches of extra-curricular activities, members of church, workmates, family, friends etc. Natural mentoring relationships represent 69% of all noted mentorships within the social network of children and young people during their development (DuBois, Silverthorn, 2005).
Thus, the functions of youth mentoring relationships have been implemented in social services interventions aimed at the prevention of social risks, as well as a part of the personal and professional development training of children and young people. In particular, formal youth mentoring relationships have been seen as providing social support and contributing to positive youth development. I argue that the aim of formal mentoring interventions is to replicate the characteristics, quality, and benefits of naturally occurring mentoring relationships (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010; Zimmerman et al., 2002; Hamilton, Hamilton, 2004; Werner, Smith, 1982; Philip, Hendry, 2000; Philip, 1997; Freedman, 1992; Rhodes, 2002; Dolan, Brady, 2012; Brady et al., 2017).

FYMRs can be conceptualised in three ways (Keller, 2007):

1. A Prevention-Oriented Approach: Mentoring is seen as an add-on feature that supports children in coping with stress and other risks occurring in their social environments and prevents the escalation of problems.

2. A Community-Oriented Approach: Mentoring relationships are a source of social support, which in turn contributes to children's positive development and well-being.

3. A Developmental Perspective: Mentors take on the role of significant adults in children's positive development and well-being.

This thesis uses the developmental perspective for exploration of its aims and objectives. It explores in-depth the pathways of characteristic features of FYMRs. In particular, it explores the quality of initial motivation of mentors and its impact on quality and dynamics of FYMRs that mentors developed with socially-disadvantaged children and young people. Overall, it enlights the pathways in which formal mentors become/don’t become mediators, informal mentors and significant adults for mentees. The developmental perspective is now discussed in detail.
1.3. DEVELOPMENTAL PERSPECTIVE ON FORMAL YOUTH MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

The developmental perspective is concerned with the impact of the mentoring experience on the positive development of children and young people. In particular, it presumes that the benefits of the mentoring relationship are mediated through the experience of a caring close connection between a mentor and his or her protégé. The understanding of the mentoring role and the helping relational processes mediated by a mentor in a mentoring bond are viewed as crucial for mediating the positive benefits of mentoring to children (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010). Thus, the developmental perspective also questions the impact of the quality of the initial motivation on the characteristics, quality and dynamics of mentoring relationships developed by the mentors’ approach over time.

According to the developmental perspective, the quality of the mentoring experience will act to moderate the benefits and outcomes of mentoring interventions for children (Philip, 1997; Colley, 2003; Grossman, Rhodes, 2002; Spencer, 2006; 2007, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010; Spencer et al., 2014; Brady et al., 2017). In other words, I argue that the mentors’ understanding of the mentoring role, which in turn influences their style of interaction, impacts crucially on the characteristics, quality, and benefits of the mentoring experience for mentees (Keller, 2007; Nakkula, Haris, 2005; Larose et al., 2005; Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010; Rhodes, 2005; Spencer, 2006, 2007; Philip, 1997; Morrow, Styles, 1992, 1995). In addition, I presume that the characteristics of the perceived mentors’ role and their approach to children will be influenced by the quality of the initial motivation of mentors for volunteering (Weinstein, Ryan, 2010). However, the processes by which formal mentors become or do not become informal supporters and significant adults for children has not been explored sufficiently to date. Initial motivations of mentors, particular characteristics of mentoring dynamics, and features of risks and quality in FYMR that develop over time have not been explored in depth to date (Zand et al., 2009; Rhodes et al., 2009; Spencer et al., 2006).

The developmental perspective considers the differences in the processes of formal mentoring relationships developed by mentors’ relational styles. The
developmental perspective explains the characteristic features of the perceived benefits of the mentoring experience as well as the potential risks that the characteristics of mentor's helping styles pose for mentees (Keller, 2007; Rhodes et al., 2009; Spencer, 2006; Spencer, Lian, 2009; Brumovská, Seidlová Máčková, 2010). I will use the developmental perspective on formal youth mentoring relationships to explore the role of the mentor in the mentee's positive development (Keller, 2007; Rhodes, 2002; Brumovská, Seidlová Máčková, 2010; Ryan, Deci, 2000, 1985) and consequently to explore the characteristics of mentors' involvement styles that impact on the quality and dynamics of formal youth mentoring relationships.

1.3.1. Mentor as a Mediator and Significant Adult

Developmental psychologists debate as to whether developmental processes are pre-programmed by inherent and rather automatic biological structures, or whether the process of development needs the stimulation of and interaction with the social environment to bring about the processes of adaptation. Social and developmental psychologists argue that the process of development is enabled only in interaction with the social environment (Brumovská, Seidlová Máčková, 2010; Ryan, 1991, 1993; Štech, 1997; Vygotsky, 1978; Ryan, Deci, 1985).

In particular, they argue that the uniqueness of human development consists in the nature of hominisation (the process of becoming a human being), that differs radically from other mammals. The human baby appears to have an innate predisposition to naturally form attachments with several adults and children within their environment. Hence, the child’s personality, activities, and interests are not isolated attributes of either their individual nature or of the imposed influences of the environment, but rather are attained through the interaction between the child and the system of social relationships to which the child belongs. In particular, the experience of single social interactions with the significant adults the child is exposed to are significant for the child’s development (Štech, 1997; Hill, Tisdal, 1997; Brumovská, Seidlová, Máčková, 2010; Máčková, 2008, 2009).

Human interactions are unique with regard to the distance that is created through social relationships. This distance provides a space where the outer social rules, subjects, tools, relations, and meanings are internalized into the
child's self-structures. In particular, the inner psychological self of human beings is constructed, produced, and established through the process of internalisation. The internalisation of the social world is always a unique process (Štech, 1997; Brumovská, Seidlová, Málková, 2010; Vygotsky, 1978; Ryan, Deci, 1985).

Vygotsky, in his theoretical work, focused on the conceptualization of self and its development and structure in the context of social and interpersonal relationships. There are three important points in Vygotsky’s theory regarding the impact of a mentor on the development of a mentee (Kozulin, Presseisen, 1995). Firstly, he argued that the human mind is socially constructed. Human cognition and culture are based on the internalized forms of the content of social interactions. Each human individual lives in the world that is created “on the top” of previous historical human experience of the given culture and society. As a result, the “higher” psychological functions are developed from the natural form through social and interpersonal relationships in processes of internalization. Processes of internalization of cultural tools have a social character. Thus the experience of social interactions is a necessary condition for the development of higher psychological functions. The development of higher psychological functions is socially inter-related and inter-dependent (Kozulin, Presseisen, 1995, Málková, 2008, 2009, Štech, 1997, Vygotsky, 1978).

Secondly, Vygotsky further specified that the development of higher psychological functions occurs in the process of internalisation but is mediated by the quality of the social interactions between children and significant others. The process is thus called mediation. In particular, mediation is the qualitative relational process whereby the meanings of cultural tools are transmitted between generations, and the consequent internalisation of these into the psychological structures of the self. Mediation has a non-genetical, social character. It gives the cultural tools the social and cultural meaning they represent (Štech, 1997; Málková, 2008; Kozulin, 2010).

3 The psychological functions firstly serve as abilities for developing interactions between the child and his or her significant adults. Social interactions mediate the symbolic meaning of cultural tools. These interactions further proceed and transform into higher intra-psychical structures of the individual.

4 Mediation occurs in two forms: Through internalization of experiences gained in social interactions; and through the direct interactions with adults in the role of mediators of meaning.
Presseisen, 1995; Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010). Thus, a mentor is a mediator who contributes to the development of higher psychological functions in the socio-cultural context of children.

Thirdly, Vygotsky developed the concept of psychological tools that represent the meanings of cultural and social phenomena, actions, and behaviors. In social interactions, the meaning of cultural tools is mediated by more experienced individuals, mainly with language. Thus, the most important psychological tool is language and speech (Ibid). I argue that a mentor is a significant adult who mediates the social and cultural meanings to the mentee in quality mentoring interactions, both through language (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010) and non-verbally (Ryan, 1991, 1993; Ryan, Solky, 1996).

As a result, development refers to the processes through which one’s authentic self, with its potential, becomes actualized and manifested through the elaboration of internal structures (Ryan, Deci, 1985). Development involves the processes of differentiation, assimilation, and adaptation during childhood, adolescence, and the lifespan in general. Following this, integration of these processes into the larger structures of organization through social interactions results in higher psychological functioning of the self in the process of adaptation (Ryan, Deci, 1985: 116).

I argue that Vygotsky’s concept was further elaborated in theories of development in the social context, such as Self-Determination Theory (SDT, Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000). In particular, SDT argues that the internal source of development is an inner human ability for self-organization (Ryan, 1993:1). A perspective of SDT (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000) sees development as driven intrinsically though the intentions and motives that emerge from active interactions between the individual organism and the social environment (Ryan, Deci, 1985:114; Ryan, 1993:1). Thus, the term “development” in SDT is defined as “an internal principle through which an entity expands and elaborates itself while at the same time preserving its integrity and cohesion” (Ryan, 1993:1).

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5 Differentiation is the process through which the existing capacities of larger global aspects of one’s self become broken into more specific elements. Assimilation is the process of incorporation of the environmental aspects into one’s pre-existing self-structures. Thirdly, the function of accommodation enlarges the organism’s capacity for changing or elaborating existing capacities to include more aspects of the present social environment (Ryan, Deci, 1985:116-117).
In addition, SDT argues that human development is a lifelong process of differentiation and integration of higher psychological functions that occurs through social interactions with significant others. In other words, the processes of development are activated through the child’s experiences in social interactions with adults. In particular, it argues that human development is essentially influenced by the quality of social interactions between the child and the significant adults in their environment. The quality interactions are called mediation (Vygotsky, 1978). Thus, our understanding of the process of development cannot omit the focus on existence-in-social-context that enables development (Ryan, 1993).

SDT conceptualizes significant adults as those who facilitate the attainment of the basic human needs of relatedness, autonomy, and competence in children through quality social interactions. In addition, it argues that social environments can clearly either facilitate or forestall the organization and autonomous activity of the individual, and impact significantly on the developmental level and degree of integration the individual achieves (Ryan, 1993).

In conclusion, the process of socialization and development in general, and the interpretation of the outer world by significant adults in a child’s development, can be understood as having specific characteristics called mediation (Vygotsky, 1978) and internalization (Štech, 1997:25-26; Feuerstein, 1998; Málková, 2009; Ryan, Deci, 1985; Ryan, 1991, 1993). The quality of mediation impacts on the degree to which the optimal development of the child’s structures and functions is enabled, processed, and internalized (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000). In other words, the dialectical relationship between the developing person and the social environment where the development is embedded cannot be overlooked (Ryan, 1993:3; Štech, 1997; Málková, 2008; Kozulin, Presseisen, 1995).

I argue that Vygotsky’s (1978) and Ryan’s (1991, 1993 Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000) concepts theorized the importance of the role of mediators and significant adults in children’s development. In particular, it conceptualizes qualitative exploration of features of mentors’ interactions with children that mediate/don’t mediate the benefits of FYMRs. Thus, the concept of mediation allows qualitative exploration of processes and dynamics in FYMRs and defines their quality that mediates the benefits of mentoring to children.
particular, mediators can be viewed as significant adults who engage in quality social interactions with children in order to facilitate children's positive development. Thus, I argue that the concepts of mediation and internalization of higher psychological functions in the development of children are useful for an exploration of the role of mentor as mediator and significant adult in the mentee’s positive development. In other words, it is a theoretical framework that argues for qualitative exploration of how mentors become/don’t become mediators and significant adults in FYMRS.

Furthermore, the idea that the human mind is socially constructed emphasizes the link between the quality of experience with social interactions and positive socio-emotional and cognitive development. In particular, it draws attention to the processes through which formal mentors become/do not become mediators and informal significant adults in mentees' lives. Hence, it is a useful perspective for exploring the moderators of quality in mentoring relationships, and thus moderators of children's positive development in FYMRS (Štech, 1997; Ryan, 1991, 1993; Málková, 2008; Kozulin, Presseisen, 1995).

The application of the theoretical perspective of SDT to how a formal mentor becomes a significant adult in a mentee’s development implies the need for exploration of the mentoring processes that a mentor facilitates in mentoring interactions. In addition, it is a perspective that argues for exploration of the link between the quality of initial motivation and the consequent characteristic features of mentoring relationships that mentors develop over one year of their mentoring involvement. Thus, the developmental perspective on formal mentoring relationships with the application of SDT offers a theoretical framework for exploration of the mentor's experience as a mediator and significant adult in the mentee’s development, and the consequent helping processes developed in relationships based on the mentor's understanding of the mentoring role. Thus, I argue that SDT is a useful theoretical perspective that can help to highlight moderators of quality and the positive outcomes of FYMRS, as well as

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6 Moderators are factors that impact on the relational styles of significant adults in children’s development (such as voluntary mentors). “Mediator” is a theoretical term in developmental social and cultural psychology (Málková, 2008, Štech, 1997, Feuerstein, 1988, Kozulin, Presseisen, 1995). Mediators are significant adults who impose themselves between the object (cultural tools, symbols, language etc.) and the child and mediate (explain, transfer) them the meanings of it.

1.4. **RATIONALE, AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH STUDY**

Following the theoretical developmental perspective, the rationale for the study can be summarized with three main arguments regarding the focus of the thesis on the exploration of the impact of initial motivation on the quality and dynamics in formal youth mentoring relationships:

1) Rationale in the need for more detailed theoretical knowledge on principles of risks and benefits in formal youth mentoring relationships;

2) Rationale in the need for informing the policy and evidence-based practice of mentoring interventions on how benefits as well as risks of formal mentoring are mediated in formal youth mentoring relationships;

3) Rationale in personal experience with mentoring as a mentor and interest as a researcher in the field of youth mentoring.

1) Rationale for informing theoretical knowledge: The literature on formal youth mentoring interventions identifies a gap in the theoretical knowledge on the deeper relational processes that are developed in FYMRs. For instance, no study to date has questioned the initial motivation of mentors for volunteering. In addition, no study to date has explored the impact of the initial motivation of mentors on the quality and dynamics of FYMRs. Nevertheless, the study on helping relationships concluded that the quality of motivation of helpers impacted on the perceived quality and benefits of helping relationships reported by receivers (Weinstein, Ryan, 2010). The research study focuses on the gap in the theoretical knowledge and explores the impact of initial motivation on characteristics, quality and dynamics developed in FYMRs over one year of mentoring involvement.

2) Rationale for informing policy and evidence-based practice: The good evidence-based practice in FYMRs needs to be informed about both the
principles that facilitate the benefits of FYMRs and the features that pose potential risks for mentees. The risks of FYMRs have been questioned theoretically (Rhodes et al., 2009; Spencer et al., 2006) and in previous research studies (Grossman, Rhodes, 2002; Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010). Nevertheless, no study to date has explored the characteristics of quality and risk in FYMRs in detail with a focus on initial motivation and its impact on characteristics and dynamics of the FYMR. The presented study explores the characteristics of quality and risk and their dynamics developed in FYMRs over 1 year of mentoring involvement. As such, it informs policy and good evidence-based practice of FYMRs.

3) Rationale in personal experience with mentoring: The study builds on my previous experience and research in youth mentoring. I participated as a volunteer mentor in BBBS CZ in Prague from 2000-2003 in two mentoring matches. Through this experience, I recognized that the experience of mentoring relationships is varied. In particular, I heard about the differing dynamics of mentoring relationships during monthly group supervision meetings. Furthermore, I have previously explored the experiences of mentors and mentees in two Swedish and one Czech mentoring programmes. I compared and contrasted mentoring experiences and used the experience of my MSc. research study in the design of this study.

As I see research in social science to be a tool for the promotion of equality and justice in society, and especially a tool for the positive development and well-being of children and young people, I started to conduct undergraduate and postgraduate research studies on various aspects of the mentoring experience. I was particularly interested in exploring the factors that moderate the quality of the mentoring experience for children.

My research aims to contribute to the body of knowledge in relation to youth mentoring. As such, this research study aims to further elaborate the results of the study on experiences and dynamics of FYMRs published by Tereza Brumovská and Dr. Gabriela Seidlová Málková (2008, 2010; see Appendix 1). Furthermore, this research study aims to build on the findings of Bogat, Liang, and Rigol–Dahn (2008) who analyzed mentors’ experiences of their participation in a formal school-based mentoring programme with pregnant adolescent girls and highlighted similar dynamics of FYMRs to
Brumovská & Málková (ibid) (see Appendix 1). Neither of these two landmark studies explored the quality of the initial motivation for volunteering and consequent impact on the characteristics and dynamics in FYMRs. Thus, the presented study aims to continue in my previous work and it explores the impact of initial motivation on dynamics and characteristics of FYMRs developed over 1 year of mentoring involvement in detail.

1.4.1. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Following the rationale of the study, the aim of the study is to explore how formal mentors become or don't become mediators and informal significant adults of mentees in FYMRs. Consequently, the main aim was translated into the following three objectives of the thesis:

1. To explore the impact of initial motivation on the quality and dynamics of the FYMR during 1 year of mentoring involvement;
2. To explore the characteristics and dynamics of risk factors in FYMRs;
3. To explore the factors in FYMRs that mediate the experiences of quality, benefits, and dynamics of the informal mentoring bond.

In summary, the study explores the mentoring processes through which formal mentors become or don't become significant adults who facilitate children's optimal development. In particular, the study builds on and further explores the results of previous studies on quality features (Spencer, 2006; Rhodes, 2005; Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010) and risks of FYMRs (Grossman, Rhodes, 2002; Spencer, 2007; Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010; Rhodes et al., 2009). Following that, it explores mentors' motivation for involvement, their approach to children in the mentoring role, and their experience as mentors. Crucially, the study explores the impact of these factors on the characteristics, quality, and dynamics developed over 1 year in FYMRs. Thus, it helps to fill the gap in both theoretical knowledge on FYMRs in literature and good evidence-based policy and practice of FYMIs.

The study is an exploratory longitudinal qualitative research study with a phenomenological approach to data collection and analysis. The qualitative approach was chosen as a suitable methodology for in-depth exploration of relational processes in FYMRs. The phenomenological approach to research design was deemed suitable for the exploration of mentoring experiences. In addition, the longitudinal design of the study was suitable for the exploration
of the characteristics and dynamics in FYMRs that mentors developed over time. The longitudinal approach was especially useful for exploring the impact of initial motivation on consequent characteristics and dynamics of FYMRs developed by mentors over 1 year of mentoring involvement. Thus, the longitudinal qualitative approach was deemed a suitable research approach for in-depth exploration of relational processes and their characteristic features in FYMRs.

The field work and data collection took place in the BBBS CZ programme in Prague and Ústí nad Labem in North Bohemia. It followed 11 matches for 12 months of their involvement in the programme. Qualitative in-depth interviews were undertaken to explore the experiences of mentors during the first months and after five and ten months of their mentoring involvement. An in-depth Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) was carried out in several hermeneutic cycles (Smith et al., 2012). This research study was undertaken at the UNESCO Child and Family Research Centre (UCFRC) at NUI Galway in Ireland in cooperation with Charles University, Prague.

1.5 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

The thesis is presented in eight chapters. Chapter II, the literature review, is in two parts. The first part reviews the literature on characteristics and of quality in, and benefits of, mentoring relationships. In particular, as I argue that the aim of formal mentoring interventions is to replicate the quality and benefits of natural mentoring bonds, I summarize and compare the quality features of natural and formal mentoring bonds. In addition, I review the risk features of formal mentoring relationships and the types of relationships that formal mentoring interventions develop. The section concludes with a graphical process model of moderators of helping processes in FYMRs. The second part of the chapter reviews theory and research on self-determination theory (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000) and youth mentoring relationships.

Chapter III describes the research design and methods of data collection and analysis that were used to achieve the research aim and objectives. In particular, this chapter describes the background to the research study and discusses the ontological stance and epistemological position, the research design, methods of data collection and analysis, and the ethics of the research
Chapters IV, V, VI, and VII present the findings of the study as follows:

1) Chapter IV presents findings on the types and quality of initial motivation of mentors for volunteering in mentoring relationships that were expressed both before their involvement and during the first month of their mentoring experience. Using the SDT framework, the ten matches under study were divided into two groups according to the types of initial motivation: a) Relationships with initial controlling motivations; and b) Relationships with initial autonomous motivations (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000, Weinstein Ryan, 2010).

2) Building on the analysis presented in Chapter IV, Chapters V, VI and VII, present findings on how these initial motivations shaped the characteristics and dynamics of the emerging mentoring relationships. Two types of relationships are compared and contrasted both in terms of their characteristics over 11 months of involvement and of the quality and dynamics of the FYMRs. In particular, Chapter V outlines the findings regarding mentors' styles of coping with the challenges experienced in the mentoring role. Chapter VI focuses on mentors' understanding of the impact of the mentoring role on children's well-being, as well as the quality of provided social supports. Chapter VII concludes with findings on the quality and dynamics of satisfaction, and experiences of closeness and benefits, in the mentoring relationships.

In summary, the thesis argues that the features of quality and developed dynamics of relationships are in congruence with the characteristics of Controlling and Autonomy Supportive developmental relationships defined by SDT. In addition, it highlights the key features of quality and dynamics in relationships and the pathways of the benefits of mentoring that are mediated by mentors to children.

Chapter VIII summarizes, integrates, and discusses the findings in the context of the current literature on mentoring, significant adults, and the potential of phenomena of play in future mentoring research and practice. It also makes recommendations for further research and evidence-based practice in FYMRs and interventions.
CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0. INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER II

Following the introduction of the developmental perspective of the thesis in Chapter I, I will now outline the theoretical and research context of the study and review the literature on youth mentoring relationships and interventions. Following the initial outline of the developmental perspective on FYMRs, a review of self-determination theory and research is presented. The literature review is in five parts:

1) Firstly, as I argue that the main aim of formal mentoring interventions is to foster the functions of natural mentoring relationships, I will review the literature on the outcomes, benefits, and features of quality of natural mentoring relationships in order to compare them with the features of quality in formal youth mentoring bonds.

2) Secondly, I will review research studies on outcomes and perceived benefits in formal mentoring relationships. These are drawn from independent evaluation studies and systematic reviews on outcomes of formal mentoring interventions.

3) Thirdly, I will review the characteristic features that mediate the benefits as well as risks of FYMRs. This section reviews the research findings according to three themes: 1. Moderators in quantitative studies and characteristics of quality in qualitative studies on FYMRs; 2. Mediators of risks in quantitative studies and characteristics of risks in qualitative studies in FYMRs; and 3. Typology of FYMRs.

4) Following this, I will summarize the first section of the review on the research findings. In particular, I will discuss the process model of mentoring helping processes (Rhodes, 2002, 2005), and develop a model
that adapts Rhodes’ model with findings on quality features in mentoring processes. The model emphasizes the characteristics and pathways of quality in FYMRs, and the benefits of the mentoring experience according to the research literature.

5) Finally, because SDT is used as a theoretical framework for the data analysis and discussion, I review the literature on self-determination theory and research in relation to FYMRs (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000) in the second part of the chapter.

2.0.1. DEFINITION OF FORMAL YOUTH MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS
Since the principles of mentoring relationships can be used in a broad array of human interactions and formal interventions, a unified definition of formal mentoring is not established in current research literature. For instance, Jacobi (1991) identified 15 different definitions of formal mentoring used in youth services, academia, and business settings. The variety of definitions of formal mentoring springs from the different uses of the principles of the mentoring relationship in various program settings.

In general, however, mentoring relationships are characterized by a caring connection between an older caring adult who provides consistent support, companionship, and guidance to a younger, less experienced protégé, and is aimed at the development of autonomy and competence of the child or adolescent (Rhodes, 2002, Ryan, 1991, 1993). In other words, mentors in FYMRs are significant adults who develop an intergenerational developmental relationship in order to support children and adolescents through their transition into adulthood (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010). For this reason scientists in the field have identified five core general elements of mentoring relationships (Eby, Rhodes, Allen, 2007: 10):

1) It is a unique one-to-one relationship between two individuals. No two mentorships are the same, even if some common features can be identified.

2) Mentoring is a learning partnership. Almost all mentoring relationships mediate the acquisition of knowledge regardless of the goals, form, and formal setting.
3) Mentoring is a process defined by the type of support provided from mentor to mentee. The support provided has different characteristics that depend on the needs of the mentee.

4) Mentoring is reciprocal, yet asymmetrical. While a mentor receives personal benefits from the mentoring activity that are a source of motivation and personal engagement, the primary focus is on the growth and personal development of the mentee.

5) Mentorship is a dynamic relationship. In relational types of youth mentoring, where the focus is on the development of a close connection, the processes of mentorships are similar to the developments of friendships and close intergenerational relationships.

As a result, for the current research study, I employ the definition of formal mentoring relationships that summarizes the above characteristic features:

Mentoring is a unique, one-to-one caring and supportive connection between an older, more experienced mentor and younger mentee. The mentor provides support, guidance, encouragement and care in order to facilitate the protégé’s cognitive, personal and social growth and development. The relationship is dynamic - it develops and changes over time. It is an asymmetrical, yet reciprocal connection that in ideal cases fosters natural intergenerational friendship. (Rhodes, 2005:25)

2.1. NATURAL MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

I argue that the aim of FYMRs is to achieve the characteristics, quality, and benefits of naturally occurring mentoring bonds. Thus, in the next section I will review the characteristics of natural mentoring relationships in detail to compare these with the features of quality in FYMRs.

2.1.1. OUTCOMES AND PERCEIVED BENEFITS OF NATURAL MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

Naturally occurring mentoring relationships are in general presumed to have a more positive impact on youths compared to FYMRs because 1) they are naturally formed within the social networks of young people; 2) they tend to last longer; 3) they are less artificial than FYMRs; 4) mentors are more likely
to be similar to mentees in terms of their context and background; 5) mentors may already be familiar with the mentee’s family background and therefore less susceptible to unrealistic expectations; and 6) mentors are more likely to participate in important events of the mentees’ lives and thus become a natural member of the mentees’ social networks (Cavell, Meehan, Heffer & Holiday, 2002).

The outcomes of the evaluative research studies on mentoring relationships have shown the positive impact of natural and formal mentors. In general, young people with the experience of natural mentoring relationships were found to be more resilient in four main areas: 1) Social Relationships; 2) Risk Behaviour; 3) Cognitive Skills and Learning; and 4) Personal Well-Being: (Blinn-Pike, 2007, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010). Thus, several studies found that mentors function as protective factors that neutralize the risk factors of the youth’s environment. In particular, the experience of a natural mentoring relationship was associated with the following:

1) Young people were found to be more socially mature and flexible towards traditional gender roles (Werner, Smith, 1982). The experience with a natural mentor was associated with improved coping and problem-solving skills in relationships (Rhodes, Contreras and Mangelsdorf, 1994), a perceived increased breadth and variety of social networks (Sánchez, Esparza, Berardi and Pryce, 2010), and an increased level of perceived and received social supports (Sánchez, Esparza, Berardi and Pryce, 2010, Rhodes, Contreras and Mangelsdorf, 1994).

2) Adolescents were better able to structure their activities (Werner, Smith, 1982). Hence, they were more likely to have positive attitudes towards school (Zimmerman, Bingenheimer and Notaro, 2002), and therefore to graduate from high school and to attend college (DuBois and Silverthorn, 2005).

3) Young people expressed a higher level of integration of internal values and attitudes towards their life, and thus a higher resilience to stress and environmental risks (Werner and Smith, 1982). In particular, they exhibited a decrease in risk behaviors such
as substance abuse; and also (more/increased) regular use of contraception DuBois, Silverthorn, 2005). In addition, they had a decreased probability of 1) contracting sexually transmitted diseases (Ahrens, DuBois, Richardson, Fan and Lozano, 2008), and 2) involvement in violent and non-violent delinquent behaviour such as smoking marijuana (Zimmerman, Bingenheimer and Notaro, 2002), being a member of a gang, or hurting someone (DuBois, Silverthorn, 2005, Ahrens, DuBois, Richardson, Fan and Lozano, 2008).

4) Finally, the experience of a natural mentoring relationship mediated higher perceived personal well-being and health (Ahrens, DuBois, Richardson, Fan and Lozano, 2008, Werner, Smith, 1982). In particular, young people with natural mentors reported decreased depression and suicidal ideation (Ahrens, DuBois, Richardson, Fan and Lozano, 2008, Rhodes, Contreras and Mangelsdorf, 1994), a higher level of self-esteem, relatively high satisfaction and well-being (DuBois, Silverthorn, 2005), and a high level of physical activity (DuBois, Silverthorn, 2005).

Lastly, a Scottish study (Philip, Hendry, 2000) examined the perceived benefits of mentoring for 30 natural mentors. They argued that mentoring involvement provided the opportunity to enhance their cultural capital in four distinctive respects (Philip, Hendry, 2000:218): 1) Mentors were enabled to make sense of their own past experiences, including their natural mentoring relationships and/or odds and challenging events; 2) Mentoring was an opportunity to gain insight into the realities of other people’s lives and to learn from these for themselves; 3) Experience of reciprocal and intergenerational alternative kinds of relationship was enriching; and 4) Mentors built-up a set of new psycho-social skills as “exceptional adults” who offered support, challenge, and friendship.
2.1.2. **Qualitative Moderators of Mentoring Benefits in Quantitative Studies**

Studies have also focused on exploring the mediators of benefits in natural youth mentoring relationships. I later go on to argue that the characteristics of natural mentoring relationships are in congruence with quality features of FYMRs fostered in mentoring interventions.

Firstly, Sánchez, Esparza, Berardi and Pryce (2011) explored the impact of long-term natural mentors on a social network of Latino youth during high school transition. They found that having a natural mentor at T1 measures predicted natural mentoring relationship at T2 measures. *Participants with mentors at both times of measures* reported a rich and varied social network with perceived and received social supports, in comparison to respondents of the other two control groups. Thus, **duration length of mentoring relationships was a predictor of positive benefits** of the mentoring experience. Similarly, Munson and McMillen (2009) found that young people with long-term natural mentoring relationships were less likely to have been arrested by the age of 19, and reported less stress and depression and a higher level of general well-being and satisfaction with life. In addition, **the frequency and quality of contact** between youth and non-parental significant adults in mentoring relationships were found to be moderating factors in the behavior problems of young people (Rishel, Sales, Koeske, 2005).

The following quality factors were further specified in these studies:

**Closeness:** Courtney and Lyons (2009) explored the association between features of relationships and outcomes for former foster youths at the age of 21 (n=590). They shown that closeness with a natural mentor was associated with a significantly large reduction of a recent experience of homelessness. Similarly, Whitney, Hendrickker and Offutt (2011) explored the moderators of quality in mentoring bonds in relation to: 1) Initial age of a mentee; 2) Durability; 3) Perceived closeness; and 4) Type of natural mentors (Peer or Adult) in association with the outcomes for adolescents. As a result, youths

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7 The presence of natural mentors was indicated with a question: "Other than your parents or step-parents, has someone else made an important difference in your life since you were 14 years old?"
with adult mentors had a significantly lower level of depressive affects han youth with peer mentors. In addition, high-quality mentors were linked to higher levels of mentees’ perceived self-esteem. Interestingly, the youths with low-quality mentors had significantly more problems with alcohol than non-mentored youth and youth with high-quality mentors.

**Provided Guidance and Advice:** Greeson, Usher and Grinstein–Weiss (2010) examined the mediating effect between natural mentoring relationship characteristics, material hardship and asset-related outcomes, and expectations for the future among young people who were fostered (n=15,197). They found that natural mentors who provided guidance/advice and were considered as role models by youths were associated with mentees having a bank account and positive expectations.

**Engagement, Authenticity and Empowerment:** Similarly, Liang, Tracy, Taylor and Williams (2002) examined the direct mediating effects between the quality factors of natural mentoring relationships and the well-being and mental health of college students (n=450, M age 19.2). The quality of mentoring relationships was measured by a survey with questions that operationalized definitions of the following relational quality features: *engagement*, *authenticity*, and *empowerment* (Liang et al., 2002: 280). They found that a higher perceived level of the measured relational qualities significantly predicted a higher level of self-esteem and a decreased sense of loneliness among young people (Liang et al., 2002: 281).

Moreover, two major qualitative studies were conducted with 56 middle school, high school, and college students (Liang, Spencer, Brogan and Corral, 2007) and with seven foster women of colour (Greeson, Bowen, 2007) in order to explore the mediators of benefits in their experience of natural mentoring. The researchers identified the qualitative features of natural mentoring relationships that are in congruence with findings on qualitative features in FYMRs (which will be reviewed below). In particular, these quality features of natural mentoring relationships mediated positive experiences in

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8 Defined as “perceived mutual involvement, commitment and attunement to the relationship” (ibid).
9 Defined as “the process of acquiring knowledge of self and the other and feeling free to be genuine in the context of the relationship” (ibid).
10 Defined as “the experience of feeling personally strengthened, encouraged and inspired to take action” (ibid).
those mentoring relationships. As such, young foster women described a change in attitude towards school, better school performance, and improved relationships with family members. They were also better able to cope with emotional issues and handle their feelings, and were less anxious and more confident and outgoing in relationships (Greeson, Bowen, 2008). Similarly, Liang et al. (2008) argued that young people did not fear sharing sensitive personal topics with mentors, topics they would be uncomfortable discussing with parents or other adults (Liang, Spencer, Brogan and Corral, 2007).

Firstly, respondents valued the support received within the context of or enhanced by the experience of “fun” in shared activities or during the shared trips to the place of the activity. Shared fun and enjoyment were described as mediators of the mentoring process in the building and deepening of the relational bond between the mentor and a young person (Liang, Spencer, Brogan and Corral, 2007).

Secondly, mutual trust and fidelity were described as features that distinguished the mentor from other adults. In particular, young people valued the fact that their mentor “kept secrets”, was honest with the mentee, and did not lie. Thus, students confided in the mentor in relation to personal matters that they could not share with most family members and friends (Ibid). Similarly, Greeson and Bowen (2008) reported that young foster women perceived the development of trust over time as the foundation for positive relationships with mentors. In addition, mutuality of trust in the mentoring bonds was perceived as a factor that mediated further benefits of the natural mentoring relationships (Ibid).

Furthermore, Greeson and Bowen (2008) emphasized the importance of the experience of social supports provided in natural mentoring relationships of young women. In particular, the researchers identified and described the experiences of emotional, informational, instrumental and appraisal supports received in natural mentoring relationships as mediators of mentoring benefits.

Emotional Social Support was experienced as availability of natural mentors to talk to when mentees experienced the need, problem, or issue arisen (Greeson, Bowen, 2008). In particular, it was identified as experiences of love and caring developed from the ability to trust the natural mentors, experiences of happiness and excitement, and the experiences of
being listened to and responded to when with the mentor (ibid). The experiences of care were further described as the availability of the mentor to support the mentee at any time, as the ability of the mentor to care very naturally and helpfully, or as the feeling that the mentors cared simply by the way they acted around the protégé (ibid).

**Informational Support** was experienced by mentees as information received from mentors on matters of importance to mentees, and as the sharing of experiences on life events (ibid).

**Appraisal Support** was identified as the ability of the mentor to offer their opinion, share and discuss mentees’ points of view on particular situations, offer optional solutions, and give a better understanding with provision of choice in solving the situation (Greeson, Bowen, 2008). Similarly, Liang et al. (2007) reported that the young people in their study valued the nondirective and non-judgmental approach of good mentors, who supported their mentee without imposing their values and attitudes, and so encouraged their autonomy.

Finally, the experiences of **Instrumental (Tangible) Support** involved either the provision of material items or practical assistance with daily tasks. When providing tangible support, mentors combined practical advice, support of skills development, and faith in skills and abilities of protégés. Thus, they supported mentees’ confidence (Ibid). Mentees especially valued when the mentor "sat down" with them to discuss the options of the topics and tasks. Mentors were also found to be important when they supported mentees in being part of a minority group at school or dealing with stress and depression (Greeson, Bowen, 2008; Liang, Spencer, Brogan and Corral, 2007).

Moreover, Greeson and Bowen (2008) described the parent-child dynamics of the natural mentoring relationships as a quality factor developed out of the experience of trust, love, and care. They argued that **role-modelling and availability for identification** were important quality features of the mentors’ role. In particular, young foster woman described the mentor as being similar to their own biological mother in providing advice and emotional support. All the women felt safe and secure with mentors who they felt were fostering their missing parent. Similarly, young students expressed admiration for their mentors and a desire to emulate them in their actions and behavior (Liang, Spencer, Brogan and Corral, 2007).
Finally, **positive expectations for the future of mentees** were linked with the high quality and efficacy of natural mentoring relationships. In particular, young women believed they would keep in touch with their mentors in the future regardless of their life situation (Greeson, Bowen, 2008).

To summarize, the research on characteristic features of natural mentoring relationships in quantitative studies shows the factors that impact on natural helping processes in mentoring as follows:

1) Moderators of quality in natural mentoring relationships in quantitative studies:
   - Durability of relationships
   - Frequency of contact
   - Type of mentor
   - Perceived closeness in relationships

2) Characteristics of quality features in helping processes and benefits in natural mentoring relationships in qualitative studies:
   - Availability of a mentor for role modelling and identification
   - Experience of perceived and received social supports (Provided guidance and advice, empowerment; emotional, informational, appraisal, and instrumental enactment supports)
   - “Fun Factor” of shared experiences
   - Experiences of happiness and excitement
   - Mutual trust and fidelity
   - Experiences of being listened to and responded to
   - Positive expectations for the future

3) Perceived benefits and outcomes of natural mentoring relationships
   - Better ability to cope with socio-emotional challenges
   - Decreased level of stress and perceived loneliness
   - Better communication skills
   - Better academic performance and positive change in attitudes to education
In conclusion, I argue that the characteristics of quality in FYMRs mentoring relationships are aimed to foster the functions and benefits of natural mentoring (Brumovská, Šeídlová Máľková, 2010). In addition, the exploration of quality features in mentoring experiences in FYMRs is the subject of this research study. Therefore, the outcomes, perceived benefits, and characteristic features of quality in FYMRs will be reviewed according to previous quantitative and qualitative studies in the following part of this chapter in order to compare and contrast natural and formal mentoring bonds for the purposes of this study.

2.2. FORMAL MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

In order to explore how formal mentors develop quality interactions with children in FYMRs and become significant adults for mentees, the next part of this chapter focuses specifically on the review of moderators in quantitative studies and characteristics of quality that mediate mentoring benefits according to qualitative studies on formal mentoring bonds. In addition, it also reviews the risks and dilemmas that formal mentoring relationships can impose on mentees, and summarizes the outcomes and perceived benefits of FYMRs.

2.2.1. RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT EVALUATION STUDIES ON OUTCOMES OF FORMAL MENTORING SCHEMES

Research studies have shown that the mentoring experience has a positive impact on mentees in terms of increased self-esteem, more positive social values and attitudes, improved social and interpersonal skills, enhanced creativity, increased passion and energy, and improved personal relationships (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson & McKee, 1978, Hall, 2003, DuBois et al., 2011). However, evaluation studies on formal mentoring relationships showed neutral and negative impacts as well as positive depending on the measures and examined variables as well as on the characteristics of the mentoring schemes and relationships (Blinn-Pike, 2007, DuBois et al., 2002, 2011).

Following on from this, meta-analytical reviews that were conducted (DuBois et al, 2002, 2011) brought the synthesis of independent particular reports on outcomes of mentoring schemes to more generalized knowledge. In
particular, they highlighted the benefits of formal mentoring schemes for mentees, with emphasis on the particular moderators that impact on final outcomes of FYMRs. Thus, the moderators identified in the meta-analytical studies on mentoring outcomes are the features of quality that mediate the mentoring benefits identified with quantitative methodologies.

2.2.1.1. Quantitative and Mixed Method Studies on Outcomes of Formal Youth Mentoring Interventions.

One of the studies on the impact of the BBBS programme on 45 boys between ages 7 to 15 from single-parent homes (Turner, Sean, Sherman, Avraham, 1996) shown that the boys with mentors reported significantly higher results in self-concept measures than those in the control group. Furthermore, the results of the landmark national evaluation study on the BBBS programme (Tierney et al., 1995) proved that mentored youths were significantly less likely to initiate alcohol and drug abuse, were less likely to hit someone, less likely to skip school, more likely to have good relationship with their families, and more likely to feel competent at school than those in the control group.

Following this, the data were further analyzed with a focus on the impact of the BBBS programme on the peer relationships of foster youth in relative and non-relative care after 18 months of participation in the programme (Rhodes, Haight, Briggs, 1999). The results showed that foster parents were more likely than non-foster parents to report improvements of children in terms of social skills; higher comfort, and greater trust when interacting with young people. In addition, foster youths with mentors showed improvements in peer relationships, pro-social behavior, and self-esteem measures. Similarly, Dolan et al. (2011) conducted an RCT evaluation study on the BBBS Ireland programme. They concluded that the programme was efficient in its implementation and beneficial for mentees. Contrary to that study, the results of evaluation studies on outcomes of the Swedish community-based and school-based youth mentoring programmes (Bodin and Leifman, 2011; Jackson, 2002) showed no statistically significant impact of programmes on young people. However, the researchers concluded that a relatively low statistical power of the research samples in both studies prevented definite conclusions on the programmes’ outcomes.
A significant review of 55 independent evaluations of outcomes of mentoring interventions that were published between 1970 and 1998 (DuBois et al., 2002) concluded that mentoring programmes have a significant, even if small effect on the outcome measures of problem or high-risk behaviour, academic/educational outcomes, and career/employment outcomes. In addition, the study found that mentoring schemes had some effects on the social competence and emotional/psychological adjustment of mentees.

Similarly, another meta-analysis of 43 research articles on outcomes of formal mentoring schemes published between 1975 and 2001 concluded that the mentoring schemes had the most significant effect on the measures on school, academic, and career preparation, and a smaller effect on measures on violence and anti-social behavior (Smith, 2002).

Furthermore, a narrative review of ten evaluations of formal mentoring schemes with five experimental and five non-experimental/quasi-experimental research designs concluded that mentored youths were slightly less likely to hit other peers or use alcohol and drugs, were slightly more likely to: 1) have better attitudes towards school and report fewer absences from school; 2) had more positive attitudes towards helping others in general; 3) had improved relationships with parents; and 4) had better attitudes towards their elders (Jekielek et al., 2002).

Moreover, a multidisciplinary meta-analysis of 116 independent studies and reports on outcomes of formal mentoring (Eby et al., 2007) comparing the overall effect size associated with mentoring outcomes for protégés across the different fields of mentoring (youth, academic, and workplace) showed that mentoring was associated with a wide range of favourable behavioural, attitudinal, and interpersonal outcomes. In general, mentoring programs were shown to most readily influence behavioral and attitudinal outcomes and interpersonal relationships. In particular, youth mentoring was found most likely to influence school attitudes (school attitudes, withdrawal behavior, and academic performance), intentions to help others (community service, mentoring others, volunteering), and interpersonal relationships (Ibid).

Finally, the most recent meta-analysis of outcomes in youth mentoring interventions (DuBois at al., 2011) drawing on the developmental model of
formal mentoring (Rhodes, 2002, 2005) encompassed 73 independent evaluation studies of youth mentoring interventions published between 1999–2010. The findings supported the process model (Rhodes, 2002, 2005) and showed that formal mentoring had a positive impact on behavioural, social, emotional, and academic measures, especially when mentored youth are compared with their non-mentored peers. However, the findings shown that the gains on outcome measures are only modest in comparison to control groups, and that certain conditions in programme settings are more efficient than others (DuBois et al., 2011).

In summary, the evaluation studies and meta-analytical reviews have shown that formal mentoring programmes have an impact, especially on academic attitudes, socio-emotional well-being, and risk behavior of mentees. The results support the theoretical process model that outlines the processes and outcomes of formal mentoring (Rhodes, 2002, 2005, see below). Thus, the next part of this chapter will review the research findings on moderators and mediators of perceived benefits and quality outcomes in FYMRs.

2.2.2. MODERATORS AND CHARACTERISTICS OF QUALITY IN FYMRs

The benefits and outcomes of FYMRs have also been theoretically modelled as having a positive impact on cognitive and socio-emotional development, decreased risk behavior of youth, and leads to a generally higher level of well-being (Rhodes, 2002, 2005). In particular, Rhodes (Ibid) argued that the mentoring processes are defined in terms of the moderators and mediators of mentoring benefits in relationships. In other words, experiences of these factors predict positive outcomes of FYMRs. Thus, drawing on previous results in quantitative studies on FYMRs she argued that moderators and mediators of mentoring benefits are features of quality in mentoring processes. In particular, she argued that the quality factors of FYMRs are experiences of closeness, trust, and empathy. Nevertheless, Rhodes did not discuss the processes in which the identified qualities in FYMRs are or are not developed. Thus, the relational processes that mediate closeness, trust, and empathy in FYMRs remain unknown.
The following review of the research literature on moderators and mediators of quality in FYMRs follows the Rhodes model. I revised and updated the Rhodes process model according to current literature findings. In particular, I revised the moderators and characteristics of quality that mediate benefits in FYMRs identified in the quantitative, mixed-method, and qualitative research studies to date. As a result, I developed the model on mentoring processes with updated moderators and features of quality that mediate benefits in a mentoring bond. In addition, this model is further developed in the theoretical framework, and is examined in the analysis and discussion of the presented study.

2.2.2.1. Moderators of Quality: Objective Features in Quantitative Studies
Firstly, the quantitative studies on mentoring moderators concluded several objective characteristics that were measured with quantitative methodologies and were shown as moderators of the resultant benefits of mentoring for young people.

The frequency of contact of the match predicted positive ratings of perceived closeness in relationships in school-based BBBS programmes (DuBois, Neville, 1997). The frequency of staff contacts also predicted the...
amount of relational obstacles, such as low perceived closeness in the relationships as well as the negative ratings of perceived benefits of mentoring for young people (Ibid). Moreover, a strong positive association was found to exist between the length of the relationship and the amount of contacts of the match and perceived benefits (DuBois, Neville, 1997, Grossman and Rhodes, 2002). In particular, young people whose match terminated within the first three months suffered significant declines in self-worth and perceived scholastic competence. On the contrary, youths who were matched with mentors for more than 12 months reported significant increases in their self-worth, self-perceived social acceptance, perceived scholastic competence, quality of parental relationships, positive school attitudes, and a decrease in the risk of substance abuse and truancy. No significant benefits for youths were found in matches that lasted less than six months; nevertheless, youths reported an increase in alcohol use. Youth matched in mentoring relationships for 6 – 12 months reported a decrease in the amount of times they hit someone, a decrease in school truancy, and an increase in perceived scholastic competence (Grossman, Rhodes, 2002:208 - 209).

Furthermore, the following identified objective moderators impacted on durability of formal mentoring relationships. Previous experience of abuse in young people was found to be a significant predictor of mentoring duration. In particular, Grossman and Rhodes (2002) found that mentoring matches with adolescents who had sustained experience of abuse were more likely to break up. The age of youths was also found to be a predictor of relationship duration. In particular, youths between the ages of 13–16 years were more likely to break up a match in each period of the relationship than younger people between the ages of 10–12 years (Grossman and Rhodes, 2002). Age and Marital Status of a Mentor (Grossman and Rhodes, 2002) also moderated relationship durability. In particular, unmarried volunteers between the ages of 26–30 years were 65% less likely to terminate the relationship each month in comparison to married volunteers in the same age group. Moreover, a higher income rate of mentors predicted longer-lasting relationships (Grossman and Rhodes, 2002). Finally, the gender of matches moderated relationship duration. In particular, female same-sex matches were, in general, more likely to terminate the relationship than male matches (Grossman and Rhodes, 2002).
2.2.2.2. **Moderators and Characteristics of Quality: Subjective Features in Quantitative Studies**

Grossman and Rhodes (2002) argued that the impact of objective moderators on relationship durability was decreased with the perceived quality features of mentoring relationships; that is, with **perceived satisfaction** in mentoring relationships and **youth-centeredness** in mentors’ relational style. The higher the level of quality young people perceived in these factors, the lower the impact of further identified relational risk factors on the length of relationships and outcomes of mentoring for youth (Ibid).

Similarly, Karcher, Nakkula and Harris (2005) argued that both the perceived relational quality, measured with the perceived relational trust and closeness, and the frequency of conflict in the relationships perceived by mentees correlated with mentoring outcomes on the scales of mentees’ subjective well-being. Moreover, positive relationship characteristics such as interpersonal attraction, perceived closeness, and rate of conflicts were found to be a mediator of positive and negative mood and relationship depth. In particular, perceived interpersonal similarity in extraversion was found to be a predictor for durability of formal mentoring relationships (Madia and Lutz, 2004). Thus, perceived closeness was found to be positively associated with perceived benefits for young people reported by mentors (DuBois, Neville, 1997). As a result, positive characteristics of relationships were found to be mediators of intention of mentors to remain in relationships, perceived relationship depth, perceived interpersonal attraction, and consequent positive outcomes of the mentoring experience (Madia and Lutz, 2004).

In addition, Karcher, Davidson, Rhodes and Herrera (2010) measured the impact of teenage mentor’s attitudes towards young people on mentees’ benefits from mentoring relationships in cross-age formal peer mentoring relationships with 221 high school volunteers, 205 mentees, and 182 students of control group. Measures for mentees included scales on school connectedness, academic achievement, social acceptance, youth emotional engagement (satisfaction with the mentor), match length, and teacher-student relationship quality. The results showed that **positive mentor attitudes** towards youth were associated with more emotional engagement of mentees towards their mentors. In particular, academically disconnected mentees with

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11 Importance placed on school, active initiative to achieve success at school.
positive mentors were more emotionally engaged in relationships, and subsequently they reported significantly better relationships with teachers. Conversely, the academically-connected mentees with negative mentors made more negative contributions in the classroom and had lower peer acceptance than connected controls according to the teachers’ reports.

Furthermore, the discrepancy between the expected and actual role of mentors (Madia, Lutz, 2004) was found to be a predictor of a mentor’s intention to remain in the relationship. The higher a mentor’s negative discrepancy between ideal and actual role, the lower intention mentors shown to engage in mentoring relationships (ibid).

Karcher, Nakkula and Harris (2005) explored the impact of mentors’ perceived self-efficacy and a priori motivation to have a positive experience on the quality of mentoring relationships. The results showed that the perceived mentee characteristics and quality of mentoring relationship were fully mediated by mentors’ perceived self-efficacy and expectation of gaining a good experience in a mentoring role. In particular, mentors’ a priori positive motivation was associated with a high level of perceived self-efficacy after 4–6 weeks of mentoring experience. In addition, the mentors’ perceived self-efficacy mediated the relationship between perceived mentee characteristics and risk-status, and perceived quality of the mentoring relationship from the mentor’s perspective. In addition, mentors’ initial perceived self-efficacy was positively related to mentees’ experience of empathy, praise, and attention (EPA scale) and mentees’ perceived importance for the mentor at the end of the school year. Lastly, mentees’ support-seeking behaviour factor was found to be a predictor of perceived relationship quality reported by mentors (ibid).

Jackson (2002) assessed the cognitive benefits of participation in a mentoring scheme for formal mentors measured with several survey assessments. The results showed that, in general, mentors enjoyed the mentoring role, reporting overall satisfaction. In particular, they valued the direct practical experience that enabled them to understand the at-risk peers and their role as positive role-models for protégés that gave them an opportunity to make a difference in children’s life (ibid). However, I argue that these findings on the perceived benefits for mentors, together with no significant findings on outcomes of mentoring schemes for children (ibid),
could mean that the mentoring scheme placed mentors in a deficit-model approach towards children with a more controlling attitude rather than a strength-based approach towards them (Morrow, Styles, 1995, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010, Spencer, 2007, Ryan, Deci, 1985, Solky, Ryan, 1998). Moreover, mentors also appreciated weekly supervision. They felt supported by the peer mentors during the group discussions and benefited from working with professionals who cared for the mentees.

Finally, the mentors of the study reported that, although some of them felt frustrated, they continued to care about the children. They also realized that in mentoring relationships children needed to have goals set according to their individual needs (ibid). I argue that caring for children despite the feelings of frustration revealed issues in terms of their satisfaction of needs (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000, Weiss, 1974, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010) that could presumably have a further impact on the health of mentors and consequently on the quality of relationships and their impact on mentees (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010, Weinstein, Ryan, 2010).

In summary, I argue that these studies raised many questions regarding the risks of formal mentoring relationships. However, these were not discussed in adequate detail, as the quantitative research designs did not provide data for further in-depth exploration. Thus, I argue that this highlights the limits of quantitative designs, while emphasising issues in formal mentoring relationships that require further research.

2.2.2.3. CHARACTERISTICS OF MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS: MIXED – METHOD STUDIES

Philip, Shucksmith and King (2004) and subsequently Philip (2006) explored the views of young people on experiences with paid and voluntary mentors in three Scottish mentoring schemes. In particular, they analyzed factors of positive mentoring experiences and benefits from mentors’ and mentees’ perspectives. Moreover, Philip (2006) consequently further analyzed the same data set with a focus on the qualitative dimensions of successful formal mentoring relationships. Similarly, Blinn-Pike, Kuschel, McDaniel, Mingus and Poole Mutti (1998) empirically described the mentor’s role and processes in mentoring relationships between adult formal mentors (n=20) and pregnant young women and mothers. The results of these studies identified several
features that mediated the benefits of a positive mentoring experience. In general, young people valued experiences of trust, control, reciprocity, and sharing, and in particular the following features mediated the positive mentoring experiences.

Firstly, **shared and understood background and context**, that is, empathizing with mentees’ experience of diversity by mentors, mediated mentees’ trust and the sharing of other personal issues with mentors (Philip, Shucksmith and King, 2004). Secondly, **a positive image of the young person** (ibid) was found to exist in mentoring relationships with positive feedback. In particular, young people emphasized the importance of mentors accepting them on their own terms and valuing and empowering their capabilities and positive abilities (ibid). Thirdly, **negotiation** over shared activities mediated positive mentoring experiences. Moreover, negotiation also focused on setting boundaries of dependence and autonomy within the mentoring relationship.

Young people with positive mentoring experiences also valued the “**fun factor**” they experienced during shared activities with their mentors. The experience of enjoyment and fun allowed young people to go beyond casual behavior and allowed for spontaneity, such as sharing jokes, and recognizing the same sense of humor and capacity to laugh at their own shared actions. As a result, the “fun factor” facilitated **reciprocity** and predicted a high level of trust in mentoring relationships (ibid). Hence, building **trust** was a key process of development in the mentoring relationship. From that, the level of trust of young people had in their mentors further developed the closeness and depth of the relationships. In particular, young people began to trust mentors slowly as soon as they felt safe in the relationship. Thus, the mentees tested the reactions of mentors to their challenging behavior before they began to trust them, became closer, and shared personal issues (ibid).

The quality of the mentoring experiences was moderated by issues of **confidentiality**. In particular, the fact that sensitive confidential issues shared in mentoring relationships were further discussed among the staff of mentoring schemes was a source of challenge and conflict in some matches. However, when confidentiality was a subject of negotiation and young people were part of the process of decision making, and had the information and opportunity for discussion on how the confidential information would be
revealed, the confidential issues were shared smoothly without conflict and undermining of trust (ibid).

Finally, Blinn-Pike, Kuschel, McDaniel, Mingus and Poole Mutti, (1998) identified social supports provided in relationships as **emotional, tangible, and informational supports**. Moreover, they identified the role of mentors in supportive mentoring relationships as a **quasi-parental role** in which mentors functioned and were perceived as role models to their protégés (ibid). In particular, the mentor’s role revealed three characteristic features of mentors: 1) Providing the emotional, tangible, and informational supports related to family issues, 2) Availability for mentees who shared personal and intimate issues with mentors; 3) Involvement in events of the mentee’s life (ibid).

In sum, young people valued their mentors, especially for their support in times of adversity at different stages of their lives. Young people also perceived the add-on individual and group work as beneficial.

The moderators and mediators of quality identified in quantitative and mixed-method studies on FYMRs were previously summarized by Philip (2006:11).

For the purpose of the current study, I include Philip’s work and summarize the moderators and mediators in these studies as follows:

1. **Moderators of perceived benefits and mentoring outcomes: Objective features:**
   - Frequency of contact
   - Length of relationship
   - History and age of a mentee
   - Gender, age, income and marital status of a mentor

2. **Moderators of quality in subjective mentoring experience:**
   - Interpersonal attraction and similarity in extraversion
   - Perceived satisfaction in mentoring roles

3. **Moderators of quality in mentors’ approaches:**
Level of discrepancy between expectations and the reality of the mentoring role

Mentors' perceived self-efficacy

Perceived mentees' characteristics and risk-status

Understanding of mentees' background and context

Positive image of young person

Level of youth-centeredness

Motivation to have a positive experience in mentoring role

Ability to negotiate perceived challenges

Frequency of conflict

4. Quality features (benefits) of mentoring relationships:

Experiences of enjoyment and fun

Experience of close connection,

Experience of trust, empathy, appraisal and attention

Experience of emotional, information and tangible support

2.2.2.4. Moderators and Mediators of Quality: Qualitative Evidence

The moderators and mediators of quality were specified in detail in a range of qualitative studies. In particular, the characteristics of A) a positive mentoring bond; B) beneficial roles of mentors; C) helping approaches of mentors and supportive processes in relationships were identified and described in detail:

A. A Positive Mentoring Bond

A Secure Base: The research studies explored and defined features of a positive formal mentoring bond. Firstly, the positive relational bond was described as a sense of emotional connection, and that provided a secure base for mentees (Dallos, Comley – Ross, 2005). In particular, the secure base of the mentoring relationship was perceived as occurring when the mentor was
available for mentees at times of adversity when they felt fearful, anxious, stressed or threatened (ibid). Similarly, other qualitative studies described features of companionship and ‘a break from the world’ (Spencer, 2006, Spencer, Liang, 2009, Brady et al., 2017) experienced as mutual enjoyment of time spent together and finding enjoyment in each other’s company in the mentoring match. The “fun factor” further mediated the perceived escape from daily stresses (Spencer, Liang, 2009). Furthermore, companionship was described as a feeling of being like a family, and not being able to imagine life without this relationship (Spencer, 2006).

**Reciprocity:** Secondly, the feature of reciprocity was experienced as fostering mentees’ self-respect. In particular, simple forms of reciprocity were experienced by mentees in mentoring interactions, and were perceived by mentees as an important feature of equality in mentoring relationships (Dallos, Comley–Ross, 2005).

**Authenticity:** Authentic relationships were experienced as feelings of connectedness and being able to express and share feelings genuinely (Spencer, 2006).

**Trust:** Finally, trust was built through the experiences of 1) availability of support of a mentor, 2) perceived reliability of a mentor, and 3) seeing the mentor as a potential support in cases of need (Dallos, Comley – Ross, 2005). Thus, mentors were perceived as available positive support at times of adversity (Dallos, Comley–Ross, 2005).

### B. Beneficial Roles of Mentors

Mentors in positive relationships overcame mentees’ negative expectations quickly and were described by mentees as surprisingly interesting and kind from first impressions. In general, positive mentors became role models for their protégés. In particular, for some youths the experience of a “good” mentoring relationship was similar to the parent-child relationship. Others described the importance of difference in experiences with mentors in comparison to mentees’ parents (Dallos, Comley – Ross, 2005).
C. Helping Approaches of Mentors and Supportive Processes in Relationships

The mediators of helping processes in formal mentoring relationships identified across qualitative studies are as follows:

**Empathy:** An empathetic approach was described as understanding the mentees and their personality, character, interests, and needs sensibly from the mentee’s own perspective (Spencer, 2006). In addition, mentors were able to contextualize the issues and difficulties, and expressed awareness on challenges the mentees were facing. As such, mentees believed that mentors cared for them, understood them, and knew who they were (ibid).

**Collaboration:** Collaboration in mentoring interactions was referred to as the experiences of working together to develop new skills or capacities of the mentees (Spencer, 2006). Encouragement and practical instrumental support was offered by mentors. Mentors assisted the mentees to develop a range of new skills, or empowered their natural talents and abilities (Spencer, 2006; Liang, 2009; Brady et al., 2017)

**Esteem support:** Young people described mentors giving them a sense of being a useful and valuable person. The findings describe the experience of mentees who referred to relationships with mentors as existing not only at one given time and place. Moreover, mentees had a sense of the relationship when the mentor was not actually present. They considered what the mentor would have suggested in certain situations, even when the mentor was not physically present. Importantly, they refrained from behavior which the mentor would not respect such as “breaking the rules” (Dallos, Comley–Ross, 2005).

**Engaged and authentic emotional and advice support:** Young people mentioned that mentors helped them by listening to their matters, supported them with emotional problems, and offered validation, feedback, suggestion, and acceptance (Dallos, Comley–Ross, 2005, Brady et al., 2017; Spencer, Liang, 2009). This emotional support was found to be a dominant theme across the mentoring experience. Young girls described the experience of emotional support, trust and mutual openness in the relationship. Women mentors also expressed their intentions from the beginning of relationships to support girls
by listening and creating trust so the protégé could turn to them at any time. Mentees also emphasized that mentors were honest with them in their advice and shared their opinions in addition to being reliable, available, respectful, and engaged in the relationship. In particular, what made the emotional support powerful was the ability of mentors to listen and respond with honest and genuine feedback and opinion, without passing judgments on the girls for their decisions. Women mentors described their provision of emotional support through conversation as happening in the context of shared fun activities that were part of the mentoring relationship. They described their role in the relationship as an equal friend rather than a parental role in relation to a child or adolescent (Ibid).

**Interrelatedness of emotional connection, collaboration and companionship:** All the participants in mentoring relationships reported an easy flow of shared fun. The flow of mentoring interactions also provided the opportunity for mentors to offer support and encouragement (Spencer, Liang, 2009). The young girls emphasized that the experience of a relationship with someone who listened to them, knew and liked them, believed in them, was available to help them, and simply enjoyed spending time with them was crucial for enhancement of their well-being. Moreover, the “fun factor” of regular activities with the mentor also opened opportunities for the mentor to provide a range of support and assist the mentee in learning new skills as needed, and enabled the match to connect with each other in new ways through the experience of fun and relaxation (ibid).

The emotional bond the matches maintained corresponded with the clear and active investment of the mentors in the positive development of the mentees, and it seemed to render the support mentors offered especially potent and meaningful. As such, mentors were described by young girls as having a significant and influential role in their lives (ibid).

**2.2.2.5. RISKS OF FORMAL MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS**
Kalbfleish (2002) remarked that mentoring relationships have the character of friendship. That is, within friendships, “humans have fun, fight, laugh, and cry...they become jealous, compete, cooperate, learn, become bored, have conflict and forgive” (Kalbfleish, 2002:67). She argues that mentoring relationships are often treated as static entities, with the dynamics that occur
in them due to their characteristics and qualities that change and develop over time being overlooked. In addition, the conflict that can be experienced significantly changes the dynamics of the mentoring relationship (ibid). As such, theory and research on youth mentoring explores the potential dilemmas and risk factors that change the character and impact on the quality and outcomes of FYMRs.

According to the research, the external risk factors in formal mentoring relationships include the following (Rhodes, 2002, 2005; Spencer, 2007; Philip, 2006): The mentor or mentee moving out of the place of residence; graduations from school; illness; parental re-marriage; competing adolescent peer relationships; adolescent’s time-consuming hobbies; family interference; and inadequate support from the mentoring programme. Researchers argued that these factors impact on the eligibility of mentors and mentees for mentoring meetings on a regular basis (Rhodes, 2002, 2005, Spencer, 2007, Spencer et al., 2014).

Philip (2006) summarized the relational risk factors that were identified in the research literature as moderators of quality and benefits of FYMRs. She argued, in particular, that poorly managed endings, short-term durations, the challenge of confidentiality, and the challenge of boundaries moderated the quality and benefits of FYMRs.

Finally, researchers argued that the risk factors related to the approaches of voluntary mentors mediate the risks of FYMRs for mentees. In particular, the risk factors related to the approach of mentors are as follows (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010, Philip, 2003, Rhodes, 2005, Rhodes et al., 2009, Spencer et al., 2006):

1. **Perceived unsupportive or judgmental mentors** mediated protégés perception of less psychosocial support provided by mentors (Rhodes, 2002, 2005; Eby, 2005).

2. **Insufficient motivation and feedback from mentees perceived by mentors:** In particular, mentors often mentioned a perceived lack of effort or appreciation on the mentee’s side as a source of dissatisfaction and early termination of formal mentoring relationships (Rhodes, 2002, 2005, Spencer, 2007, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010).


5. **A mismatch between a mentor and a mentee** (Rhodes, 2002, 2005, Eby, 2005, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010, Spencer et al., 2014): As the formal mentoring relationships are matched by a third party – the mentoring programme - the most obvious risk factor is a lack of basic personal chemistry perceived from the beginning of the mentoring involvement. The sources of mismatch were also perceived in **background differences, age difference, interests or personality** (Ibid).

2.2.3. **Types of Formal Mentoring Relationships**

In conclusion, the literature on quality of FYMRs argues that the developed characteristics of the mentoring bond are moderated by the volunteer’s approach to the child in the mentoring role. As a result, the research on mentoring distinguished the types of effective and less effective FYMRs (Morrow, Styles, 1992, 1995, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2008, 2010, Sipe 2002, Rhodes 2002, Spencer, 2004, 2006, 2007). The review below on types of formal mentoring relationships summarizes the quality and risk relational factors that are developed in formal mentoring interventions.

In particular, FYMRs were identified and divided according to the following:

1. Function, that is, the level of support they provide to young people;

2. Differences in relational characteristics and dynamics;

3. Mentor’s style.
The following summary of types of FYMRs explains in detail how the characteristics and dynamics of relationships developed by mentors impact on the quality and benefits of mentoring experiences for children. The research on types of mentoring relationships defined the relational quality and risk factors developed by mentors. In addition, the research results also referred to the phases of relationships and consequent dynamics with a different quality developed from relational characteristics. The results on types, quality, and risk factors in the mentoring bond and the mentor’s approach to children are closely related and linked to the presented research study that aims to explore the characteristics and dynamics of helping processes in FYMRs in detail.

**Types of Relationships Defined by the Level of Support: Primary and Secondary Relationships**

Firstly, *Primary and Secondary Relationships* (Freedman, 1992: 66) were theoretically defined and discussed in terms of quality, level of support and relational closeness they offered to mentees:

1. **Primary relationships** are perceived as extraordinarily intense, open, and with a strong commitment. Thus, a real emotional and reciprocal relational bond is developed. They are found in both formal and informal mentoring matches.

2. **Secondary relationships** do not function outside the formal support of the mentoring scheme and probably dissolve if programme support is not operating. Freedman argues that even though secondary relationships are unlikely to be as beneficial as primary formal mentoring relationships, they are still likely to facilitate some benefits for mentoring recipients through the processes of social supports (Freedman, 1992, Brady, 2010, Dolan et al., 2017).

**Types of Relationships Defined by the Relational Dynamics and Approach of Mentors**

Secondly, Morrow and Styles (1992) described two types of relationships defined according to the perceived level of satisfaction in the match. They found that two different dynamics of satisfaction moderated the approach of mentors. These were described as satisfied and dissatisfied relationships (Morrow, Styles, 1992: 14):
In satisfied relationships the mentors allowed youth-driven character of content and timing. They were patient with youth’s defenses and let them determine when and how the trust would be established, and also to signal if, when, or in what way the divulgence of personal problems and challenges would occur. Determining roles in the relationship varied in time from weeks to months. The mentors defined the youth’s needs through identifying their interests. They built trust by taking those interests seriously and focusing on areas where the youth was most receptive to help.

In dissatisfied relationships youth did not have a voice in determining the types of mentoring activities. The mentors were prescriptive in determining the areas in which they would help the youth. These relationships had destructive dynamics – the youth tended to “vote with their feet”, withdraw from the relationship, and not continue to show up for the meetings.

Following their first study, Morrow and Styles (1995) went on to identify two types of FYMR based on the mentor’s approach to communication with children: developmental and prescriptive.

Developmental relationships were characterized by a youth-oriented approach, focusing on the child’s needs and wishes. Volunteers respected the personality of the child and cooperated with them by involving them in the decision-making process. They had a sensitive empathetic approach. As a result, they succeeded in developing a trusting and close relational bond with a high level of perceived satisfaction and long-term duration.

Prescriptive relationships were characterized by mentors who primarily intended to fulfil the goals they set in mentoring relationships on their own. As a result, they pushed children to achieve the pre-established aims, and neither paid attention to the child’s own needs, nor respected their personalities and wishes. Prescriptive relationships tended to be experienced with a low level of satisfaction; closeness and trust were absent or rare, and the relationships terminated prematurely or immediately after the completion of the formally assignment time.

Finally, two studies undertaken by Brumovská and Seidlová Máliková (2008, 2010) and Bogat et al. (2008) explored and defined the dynamics of FYMRs and their types based on the mentor’s approach to children in mentoring relationships over 12 months of mentoring involvement. In particular, the relational dynamics were identified in terms of stages of the
relationship as follows: Initial, Middle, and Final stage. In addition, the types of relationships were explored in terms of difference in mentors’ approaches in the relational stages, and were described in types as: 1) Relationships with Friendly-Equal Approach of Mentors; 2) Relationships with Dilemmas of Mentors; and 3) Relationships with Authoritative-Intentional Approach of Mentors (Ibid). As these two studies preceded the current study and are important to it, the details of the results can be seen in APPENDIX 1.

2.3. SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS ON MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

The literature review focused on the factors of quality identified in Natural and FYMRs. In particular, the moderators and mediators of quality in youth mentoring relationships (YMRs) were reviewed, as well as the risk factors of formal mentoring and consequent types of FYMR.

In conclusion, I aimed to revise the model of helping processes developed by Rhodes (2002, 2005) and to update it with the characteristics features of quality in the mentoring processes identified in the literature to date. Thus, the following model summarizes the characteristics features that impact on the quality and benefits of FYMRs found by the research to date. The factors of quality also included the results of the literature on natural mentoring relationships.

I captured the relational dynamics related to the characteristics features that facilitate the positive outcomes and benefits of relationships. In addition, I included the risk factors as moderators of mentoring benefits, as well as the resultant types of FYMR identified in the literature to date. In particular, the model explains that development of a quality approach of mentors is moderated with objective background risk factors. In addition, mentors’ helping motivations, perceived competence, and attitudes to the mentoring role and children impact on the quality of the relationships from the beginning. Following that, the quality mentoring bond is developed and experienced. Nevertheless, with further risk factors involved in FYMRs that moderate the quality of the bond, several types of FYMRs with different features of quality, risks and benefits were identified in the research literature. As a result, an awareness of the detailed helping processes that
develop/do not develop mediators of quality in FYMRs is crucial for securing the efficacy of formal youth mentoring interventions. In addition, as the model shows, no study to date has explored the impact of initial motivation of mentors on the characteristics, quality, and risk features developed in FYMRs. The following part of the chapter will thus revise the theoretical perspective of Self-determination Theory on quality of initial motivation of mentors and its impact on quality of relationships that mentors as significant adults develop with children in mentoring interventions.
Figure 2: A review of moderators and mediators of quality in mentoring helping processes: Process Model revisited:

| Positive Approach of a Mentor: Youth-centered, Provides Social Supports, Collaborative, Non-Judgemental, Empathetic, Negotiates Challenges and Conflicts, Perceived as Quasi-Parent, Good Object, Role Model, Perceived as Reliable. |
| Features of Positive Mentoring Bond: Secure Attachment, Sense of Emotional Connection, Experiences of “Fun Factor”, Reciprocity, Mutual Enjoyment, Companionship, Closeness, Authenticity, Negotiable Roles and Activities. |
| Subjective Moderators and Risks in FYMRs: Perceived Satisfaction, Frequency of Conflict, Perceived Similarity and Interpersonal Attraction, Relationship Duration, Perceived Lack of Feedback from the Mentee, Relationship's Ending |
| Objective Moderators and Risk Factors in Mentoring Involvement: Interpersonal History, Social Competencies, Developmental Stage of a Mentee, Family and Community Context, Competing Relationships, (Poor) Support from the Mentoring Programme, Moving, Illnesses, Graduations, Competing Hobbies. |
| Types of FYMR with Different Quality: 1) Satisfied and Dissatisfied; 2) Developmental and Prescriptive; 3) Friendly-Equal, with Dilemmas/Perceived Unresolved Challenge; or Authoritative-Intentional. |
| Perceived Benefits of FYMRs: Companionship, Break from the World, Relaxation, Experience of Trust and Empathy, New Skills and Confidence, Perceived and Received Social Supports. |
| Outcomes of FYM Interventions: Social-Emotional, Cognitive and Identity Development in Mentees |

PART II: THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE OF SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY IN DEVELOPMENT AND MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

2.4.0. INTRODUCTION TO SDT

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) concerns the regulation of behavior that is embedded in the theoretical concept of autonomy. Thus, it is a useful theory for the exploration of mentors’ initial motivation and its quality in FYMRs. In particular, SDT distinguishes a continuum of behavioural regulations (or motivation types) that vary according to the degree of autonomy (or self-determination) in the behaviour. Thus, SDT theorizes the motivation and regulation of behaviours. Behaviour itself varies with respect to the degree to which it is autonomous, controlled, or amotivated (Ryan, Deci, 1985). The more autonomous the actions are, the more congruent they are with the person and the more they express the endorsement and relative unity between the self and exhibited behaviours (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000, Weinstein, Ryan, 2010, Ryan, 1993). As a result, the degree of autonomy in motivation of behaviour impacts on the character of consequent actions and interpersonal relationships (Grolnick, Ryan, 1989).

In particular, SDT proposes that behaviour can be initiated intrinsically in order to satisfy basic human needs (BHN). Thus, SDT accepts the organismic approach to development that argues for the presence of an active autonomous part of the self. This part is called “an authentic self” and actions regulated by it emanate from an intrinsic perceived locus of causality (IPLOC). In addition, SDT distinguishes heteronomous or controlled behavior that is experienced as not truly emanating or reflecting the self, but as driven by external forces that emanate from outside of the self. Thus, the actions are controlled with extrinsic controlling motivations when they become a contingency between one’s behavior and the result of it. As a result, one is regulated from an extrinsic perceived locus of causality (EPLOC) and feels pressure and tension in actions (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Deci, Ryan, 1987, Ryan, 1991, 1993, Chirkov et al., 2003).
In other words, an activity can have different qualities of motivation depending on the source of initiation of the action. In particular, the individual initiates the activity intrinsically out of an expectation of experiencing interest, enjoyment, and/or excitement while performing the activity (*Intrinsic motivation*). In addition, the BHNs are facilitated autonomously from IPLOC in the activities initiated from extrinsic sources that the individual identifies with or that are in congruence with one's values, attitudes, and interests (*Extrinsic motivations*) of *Integration* and *Identification*. Thus, the actions are initiated in congruence with the authentic self (from IPLOC); that is, out of autonomous motivations.

Furthermore, SDT distinguishes extrinsic motivations initiated out of an EPLOC with expectations of external rewards (*external regulations*) or with ego-involvement in the activity to satisfy feelings such as pride, or conversely acting out of feelings such as shame, guilt etc. (*introjections*). External regulations and introjections are behaviors driven from the source in discrepancy with the authentic self. Thus, they are called *controlling motivations*. The behavior can be regulated with feelings of helplessness, hopelessness, and lack of interest or control over the behavior. These actions are performed with *amotivation*. The types of motivations are discussed in detail in the following part of this chapter. Firstly, Figure 3 shows the scheme

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12 Intrinsic motivation is a natural expression of the self. It is an essential part of human personality that drives development of the self: “Intrinsic motivation is the energy source that is central to the active nature of the organism (Ryan, Deci, 1985:11). It plays the major role in development as the energizer of the organismic integration process as well as of the behaviours that promote that process of internalization and integration” (Ryan, Deci, 1985: 114-115).

13 Extrinsic motivation refers to behaviour where motivation for doing an activity is something other than the intrinsic interest of the individual in the activity itself (Ryan, Deci, 1985:35). Extrinsicly motivated activities are performed with greater or lesser external pressure. In particular, extrinsically regulated behaviour ranges from the external controls to the personal choices that correspond to one’s own internal values, attitudes, and desires in one’s needs [this last phrase is strange to me] (Ryan, Deci, 1985:35).

14 The debate on the organismic approach to development of “the authentic self” that facilitates healthy development, and the “ego” that facilitates defenses of the self; functions of self-defences with debates on resiliency and coping goes back to the psychoanalytical approach of Freud and C. G. Jung and involves theories on resiliency, stress, and coping. I adopted these terms in the meanings that SDT uses; that is, in an organismic approach.

15 Amotivation is a form of behavior characterized by a lack of intention to act. Amotivated people do not act at all or act without intention; that is, they only go through the motions automatically. Amotivation results from not valuing the activity, having feelings of no competence for its performance, or out of perceived lack of control over one's behavior (Ryan, Deci, 2000: 72).
of types of motivations in SDT according to the level and quality of integration of regulation with the autonomous self.

**Figure 3: Typology of Motivation in SDT**

Figure 3 – Description: shows that human motivation in SDT is classified according to 1) the perceived locus of causality; that is, a source that regulates behavior with autonomy or control; and 2) quality of motivation according to the level of autonomy and self-determination in the regulation of behavior. In particular, it divides the regulations of human behavior into 1) autonomous (from IPLOC) and controlling (from EPLOC); and quality of motivation in 2) amotivated activities; and activities regulated with autonomous and controlling motivations (Ryan, Deci, 1985).

Because research on SDT previously argued that the initial motivation of carers was a moderator of quality in experience of helping behavior and helping relationships (Weinstein, Ryan, 2010), I employ the perspective of SDT to explore characteristic features of quality in FYMRs developed by mentors, their initial motivation, and their consequent involvement approaches.

In addition, SDT argues that positive development in children is facilitated in social interactions with significant adults. In addition, it distinguishes the quality of these interactions and their impact on positive development. Thus, SDT is discussed in detail in this chapter and applied to the data analysis and discussion of the thesis.

In sum, SDT conceptualized five minor sub-theories on motivation, self-determination, and positive development in the social context (Ryan, Deci, 1985):

1) Theory of Intrinsic Motivation  
2) The Theory of Internalization and Extrinsic Motivation that provides the types of motivation facilitated by environment and their impact on behaviour and development.  
3) Cognitive-Evaluation Theory on the impact of environment on development and facilitation of basic human needs.
4) The Basic Human Needs Theory that introduces the role of the basic human needs of autonomy, relatedness, and competence in human development and motivation of behaviour.

5) The Causality-Orientation Theory that explains in detail the inclinations in human motivation.

The SDT sub-theories related to the experience of the mentoring relationship are discussed in detail in the following part of Chapter II.

2.4.1. THEORY OF BASIC HUMAN NEEDS IN MOTIVATION

According to SDT, behaviour is initiated in order to satisfy the basic human needs (BHN) of relatedness, autonomy, and competence (Ryan, Deci, 2000, Deci, Ryan, 2000, Weinstein, Ryan, 2010). The experience of BHN is especially salient for the positive development of children and young people, but it also motivates helpers (voluntary mentors) in the helping activity in FYMRs (Ibid).

2.4.1.1. AUTONOMY AND THE NEED FOR AUTONOMY

Autonomy refers to behaviour that one feels emanates authentically from the self. The term “authentic” literally means “really proceeding from reputed source of author.” (Ryan, 1991: 223). The origin of actions is felt with a sense of choice that one takes responsibility for (Sartre, 1956, Ryan, 1991: 225).

Autonomy represents a subjective sense of initiation, endorsement, volition and self-direction in one’s action. It is a process of regulating one’s own behavior; and experience of governing the initiation and direction of action. It entails a sense of freedom, ownership, authenticity, identity, responsibility and choice. (Ryan, 1991:225)

The need for autonomy is a need to experience these qualities in one’s actions and interactions. In other words, autonomous actions are integral to the person, reflecting the relative unity of the self “behind” one’s actions (Ryan, 1993:9-10). Autonomous behavior is regulated by one’s own choice and characterized by flexibility and lack of pressure (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 1987, Ryan, 1993, Chirkov, Ryan, Kaplan, Kim, 2003, Deci, Ryan, 2000). Autonomously motivated actions proceed from one’s core self-organization. In particular, Ryan argues that, on occasions when one feels as “oneself” in interactions with the other, s/he becomes transparent and self-revealing. In such interactions, a
person is authentic, that is, their interaction “comes from the source” (Ryan, 1993: 224).

2.4.1.2. The Need for Competence

The need for competence can be defined as the need to experience an optimal challenge. People are intrinsically motivated to use their creativity and resourcefulness to master their skills and potential. They seek challenging opportunities. In other words, SDT argues that people naturally seek experiences that offer the development of greater perceived competence in the context of autonomously motivated performance (Ryan, Deci, 1985: 130).

2.4.1.3. The Need for Relatedness

Relatedness is a natural state of individuals who experience well-being and self-cohesion most fully when in connection with others. (Ryan, 1991:210)

The need for relatedness concerns the need to experience emotional and personal bonds with other people. It reflects the need for human experience in socializing, support, grouping, and mutual sharing with others (Ryan, 1991:210).

2.4.2. Internalization in Development; and Motivation of Behaviour

Basic human needs are experienced in activities initiated by individuals spontaneously out of interest, enjoyment, or excitement (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Deci, 1980, 1975). Nevertheless, many social behaviors, rituals, and values are driven by actions that are neither intrinsically motivated nor spontaneous. On the contrary, most of the stimuli in social relationships are experienced and internalized as external regulations (LaGuardía, 2009, Ryan, 1991). In particular, many activities evolve from experiences in interactions with significant others rather than deriving from self-regulated interests (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Ryan, 1991, 1993, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010, Štech, 1997).

The degree to which external stimuli are adopted into the structure of self can vary significantly. The more internalized the activity, the more it is motivated from IPLOC with internal self-regulation in congruence with the autonomous self. Thus, the more fully one adopts social values, attitudes, or
rules, the higher degree of integration of the behavior in congruence with self-experiences, and a sense of autonomy, self-determination, and personal commitment in their performance is evident. In addition, basic human needs are autonomously experienced in the performance of the activity. On the other hand, regulations that are external to the self or regulated with ego-involvement are not integrated within the structure of the self, but instead imply control and undermine self-determination of behaviour (Ibid).

The theory of internalization explores the processes through which an individual acquires social attitudes, beliefs, and behavioural regulations in interaction with the social environment. In particular, it explores how extrinsic behavioural regulations become part of a personal self-organization (Ryan, Deci, 1985:130, 2000, Ryan, 1991, LaGuardia, 2009). “Internalization is an active, natural process in which the individuals attempt to transform socially sanctioned mores or requests into personally endorsed values and self-regulations” (Deci, Ryan, 2000: 236). The self-determination in behaviour is defined according to the level of congruence between an autonomous self and the regulation that initiates the activity. Thus, the theory of internalization in SDT suggests a continuum of extrinsically regulated behaviors that vary with the degree of autonomy in which the behavioural regulations are internalized into the self-structures. In particular, SDT proposes a variety of types of behaviours that differ in the perceived locus of causality; that is, a locus of initiation and performance of the activity (PLOC). To define the level of control and autonomy in motivation, SDT divides a concept of Perceived Locus of Causality into extrinsic (EPLOC) and intrinsic (IPLOC) (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000). In particular, activity is regulated from an External perceived locus of causality (EPLOC), that is, with external control of the self; or Internal perceived locus of causality (IPLOC), with an experience of self-determination (Ryan, Deci, 1985). Hence, SDT distinguishes the continuum of motivation types that vary in quality according to the degree of autonomy in the action called autonomous or controlling motivations (Ryan, Deci, 1985).
2.4.2.1. Autonomously Motivations

Self-determination in human behavior is represented in those events when the activity is initiated and experienced with the freedom of choice. (Ryan, Deci, 1985: 31)

Thus, autonomous motivation in SDT is defined as “a need for a self-determined competence” (Ryan, Deci, 1985:32). Autonomous actions are unified with the person and express the endorsement of and relative unity between the self and exhibited behaviors (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000, Weinstein, Ryan, 2010, Ryan, 1993). One is active out of the choice and the ultimate aim of activity is the satisfaction of BHNs facilitated from performance of the activity itself (Ryan, 1991, Ryan, Deci, 1985). Thus, the highest self-determination in activity (initiated from IPLOC) is evident in intrinsically motivated behavior. Furthermore, autonomy is evident in activities initiated with autonomous extrinsic regulations, that is, with identification and integration: “The more competent an individual feels in performance of the activity, the more autonomously motivated s/he will be provided that the activity will offer an optimal challenge and will be performed within the context of perceived self-determination” (Ryan, Deci, 1985:58).

Autonomy and self-determination are fully evident in activities regulated with intrinsic motivation (Ryan, Deci, 2000: 72). Behaviour motivated out of self-determination is also found in extrinsically motivated activities that show an advanced degree of internalization and integration of external regulations into the self-structure.

As a result, identified, integrated, and intrinsic forms of regulations are defined as autonomous motivations (Ryan, Deci, 2000: 73).

1) Intrinsic Motivation as Autonomous Behavioural Regulation

...the innate organismic need for self-determination and competence. It energizes a variety of behavior and psychological processes for which the primary rewards are experiences of effectance and autonomy (Ryan, Deci, 1985: 32).

In general, intrinsic motivation is an essential part of the human self that drives human development with the aim of meeting basic human needs in one’s capacities to the highest possible degree (Ryan, 1991:214). It is the

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16 These are initiated by the self out of the interest, enjoyment and excitement that is expected to be experienced when the activity is performed.
energetic basis of the active organism that energizes internalization and integration processes of development. In particular, intrinsically self-regulated activity operates from the energetic center of animated existence. Thus, it springs from one's own nature, is initiated and performed spontaneously since people feel free to exhibit the activity, and is experienced as coherent and vital self-regulated behaviour.

Thus, intrinsic motivation concerns the active, exploratory, challenge-seeking nature of individuals, which plays a crucial role in the acquisition and elaboration of psychological functions in development (Ryan, 1993:21). It is found in activities that are initiated spontaneously with the aim of experiencing a sense of self-efficacy or competence, or to feel as causal agents of their own behaviors (Ryan, Deci, 2000). It is an innate organismic need for experience of relatedness, competence, and self-determination (autonomy) in human activity; and it is also an energizer of a variety of behaviours that are initiated, regulated, and rewarded with the meeting of BHNs (Ryan and Deci, 1985, 2000). In other words, "behaviour is regulated by qualities of direction, selection, and persistence. It reflects not mere restlessness, but organization, direction, and agency." (Ryan, 1991:209). The depth of involvement in the activity is something that is rewarding in itself. The enjoyment is the positive emotional reward that is experienced when the activity is performed. In addition, the meeting of BHNs in an activity can be coherently integrated into self-structures (Ryan, 1993:5). As a result, the activity itself becomes valuable to be repeated "for its own sake" and becomes autotelic (Csikszentmihalyi, 1993, Ryan, Deci, 1985).

Intrinsic Motivation and Experience of Flow
Intrinsically motivated activity performed at the highest level of autonomy and competence becomes an experience of flow phenomena (Csikszentmihalyi, 2013, Ryan, Deci, 1985). "Flow is the experience of dynamic, holistic sensation that follows upon concentration and complete

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17 Intrinsically motivated behaviour is evident from the early age of human life as soon as is natural and spontaneous in the strivings for responsiveness in baby’s social behaviour [there’s something strange about this sentence after “human life”. I’ve made a change that I think clarifies it]. For instance, it is evident in children, who are intrinsically motivated to learn, to engage in social relationships, to undertake challenges, and to play. (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000, Ryan, 1991, 1993).
involvement into the activity itself. One feels on automatic pilot, doing what needs to be done without conscious effort” (Csikszentmihalyi, 2013:60).

When highly intrinsically motivated people are deeply interested in an activity, they experience a sense of flow. The flow experience is described as an experience of the merging of the performed activity and personal awareness. Due to the deep concentration on the activity, the dualism between the actor and the action vanishes. Moreover, time seems to pass faster, so the hours are perceived as minutes. This in turn focuses the performer on the present moment, where daily hassles and anxieties disappear (Csikszentmihalyi, 2013). Thus, the flow experience has a relaxing and healing impact on one’s well-being. The flow is also experienced as self-transcendence. Self-consciousness in the form of worries about how one looks and popularity among peers disappear while the individual experiences their autonomy and competence. As a result, experience of flow in turn has a positive impact on one’s self-confidence, self-esteem and general well-being (Csikszentmihalyi, 2013). Thus, the quality dimensions of the flow experience describe purer instances of behaviours that are performed with the fuel of intrinsic motivation (Ryan, Deci, 1985). Interestingly, the opposite experience to interest and flow are the feelings of tension and pressure (Ryan, Deci, 1985).

2) Integration
Integration displays the fullest and most complete form of internalization of extrinsic stimuli into the self-structure. It involves identifying with the goal or the value of action, but also its integration into one’s self-structure. Hence, the initially external regulation becomes fully transformed into the self-structure as an internal regulation, and the action becomes a new regulation of the self. Thus, autonomous motivation with a high degree of self-determination is evident in the performance of the individual (Ryan, Deci, 2000).

3) Identification
Identification is a process through which people recognize the value of an action or a goal and accept it as a motivation for its performance. Thus, the performance and aim of the action is believed to be important. As a result, the person identified with the activity tends to perform it with higher commitment. The behaviour regulated with identification is externally
instrumental, but it is experienced with a high degree of autonomy that emanates out of IPLOC. The activity is performed freely and endorsed wholly by the individual (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000).

2.4.2.2. CONTROLLING MOTIVATIONS

On the other hand, a person’s actions are heteronomous or controlled if they are experienced as not truly emanating from or reflecting the self, but as emanating from outside of the self. Extrinsic motivation is initiated and exhibited with a contingency to be reached as an outcome of the activity, and is experienced as controlled by this contingency. As a result, a person experiences pressure and tension while his actions are controlled by the contingency and thus regulated from an EPLOC. In addition, the satisfaction of basic human needs is diminished (Ryan, Deci, 1985:31, 1987, Ryan, 1991, 1993, Chirkov et al., 2003). Thus, the extrinsic controlling motivation is “an instrumental behavior that is directed from EPLOC towards outcomes extrinsic to the behavior itself” (Ryan, Deci, 2000:236).

In particular, controlling motivations are introjections and external regulations. A behavior motivated with controlling motivations lacks any motivation or control to act. In order to explore mentors’ motivation for voluntary involvement in FYMR, I consider amotivation as a part of controlling regulations:

1) Introjection

Introjection refers to the process whereby a regulation is taken and maintained because of the feelings of shame, anxiety or guilt that would result if the regulatory action was not performed. (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 32)

Introjection is present in those behaviors that are motivated out of internal rewards such as pride or contingent self-esteem, and avoidance of punishments such as guilt or anxiety. Thus, introjection is a form of regulation of behavior with ego-involvement (Ibid). In these events, people are motivated to demonstrate their competence to avoid threatening feelings of guilt, failure, and shame. As a result, they aim to maintain feelings of contingent self-worth (Ryan, Deci, 2000: 72).

Introjections represent a partial internalization, where regulations are not a part of the integrated cluster of motivations, cognitions, and emotions that frame a self. On the contrary, they are instruments for defense of the ego from
uncomfortable feelings, actions, and events. Thus, introjections are internally driven regulations that are not experienced as a part of the autonomous self, but are instead controlled from EPLOC. They are contingencies that drive the activity as well as the person who performs it (Ibid).

2) External regulations

Here behavior is externally regulated in events that are controlled by specific external contingencies. It refers to situations whereby the individual acts in order to attain desired consequences such as tangible rewards, praise, external approval, or avoidance of punishment. External regulation has a controlling character as it undermines intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1999).

2.4.3. Summary of the Theory of Motivation in SDT

SDT argues that the sense of autonomy of one's experience pertains to whether the activity originates from the internal emergent center of activity or some other locus of causality (Ryan, 1993:5). SDT distinguishes intrinsic and extrinsic motivations and amotivation. In addition, it distinguishes the degree of autonomy in human behavior. It divides the regulations of behavior into controlling and autonomous according to the perceived locus of causality; that is, according to the level of regulation from the autonomous self from which the behavior is regulated. It argues for a different quality of behavioral regulation in human activity and actions. Thus, I argue that the theory of motivation in SDT is a useful tool for the analysis of motivation in mentors’ involvement, and consequent characteristics mediated by the quality of motivation in mentors’ approach.

According to SDT, the degree of autonomy and control in actions impacts on the quality of consequent social interactions and events, and on development in general (Grolnick, Ryan, 1989). In particular, SDT explores the impact of motivational regulations on the quality of social interactions and significant relationships in the development of children in Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) (Ryan, Deci, 1985). CET specifies the features of quality in developmental relationships with significant adults. I argue that CET is a useful concept for defining and exploring the processes of quality in FYMRs. In particular, I argue that SDT provides a useful theoretical framework to study the impact of the quality of initial motivation in mentors’ involvement on the characteristics and quality of the FYMRs they develop (Weinstein, Ryan,
I will proceed to review the main theoretical arguments and research findings that link to FYMRs in the following part of this chapter.

2.4.4. **Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET): Quality of Developmental Relationships between Significant Adults and Children**

CET is a theory relating to understanding the impact of significant adults on the development of children. Three core propositions from CET are important for this research study:

Firstly, development in general, and internalization of learning in particular, is motivated and facilitated by the quality of social interactions between children and significant adults. Interpersonal context shapes the meaning of events that support or thwart autonomous motivation and self-determination for learning and development in children. Thus, the quality of social interactions is crucial for motivation and internalization of learning, resilience, and well-being.

Secondly, the degree to which external regulations become internalized into one's self-structure in socialization is moderated by the quality of social interactions. The quality of social interactions impacts on the level of integration of external limits in children’s selves. In addition, interpersonal events support the meeting of basic human needs in relationships to a different degree (Ryan, Deci, 1985). Hence, researchers in CET define the quality dimensions of developmental relationships with significant adults that track the degree of autonomy support versus control in motivating children, as well as their impact on children's optimal development.

Thirdly, the character and quality of social interaction impacts on the degree of autonomy facilitated by significant adults in the internalization of external regulations to children’s self-structure (Ryan, 1991, 1993, Ryan, Deci, 1985, Deci et al., 1994). In particular, CET proposes the moderators that significant adults use to support or undermine intrinsic motivation and self-determination in the development of children. It specifies the different degrees of the characteristics of events that facilitate internalization of external behavioural limits and stimuli into the self-structures (of children).

CET defines communication styles that differ in the degree to which the satisfaction of basic human needs for autonomy and competence are
facilitated in social interactions. According to CET, significant adults moderate the quality of internalization processes in the development of children and impact on the quality of internalization through the style they use for developing and regulating children's behaviour (Ryan, Deci, 1985:62). In particular, CET argues that significant adults in interactions facilitate events that impose regulations on children's behaviour that support or undermine self-determination and intrinsic motivation in children. I define the characteristics and features of quality in parent-child relationships in the following section.

2.4.4.1. **QUALITY OF INTERACTIONS FACILITATED BY AUTONOMY SUPPORTIVE ADULTS IN DEVELOPMENTAL RELATIONSHIPS**

Grolick and Ryan (1989) explored parental styles across three dimensions of interactions with children: autonomy support versus control, involvement, and provision of structure. In particular, the following three dimensions of parental style were found to be significant for the evaluation of the degree of autonomy support and control in relationships with children:

1) **Value and support for competence in children:** the degree to which parents valued autonomy and volition in children vs. the degree to which they valued obedience and compliance were the indicators of parental attitudes towards support of children’s competence.

2) **Handling with limits of social norms and of conflict situations:** The degree to which parenting styles were punitive were compared with the degree to which parents acknowledged children's desires with provision of information and with minimum control in the event of conflict affected children’s autonomous integration of social rules.

3) **Control versus Provision of Choice:** The degree to which parents facilitated opportunity for choice and participation in decision-making in cooperation with children were contrasted and corresponded with the degree to which children’s autonomy in interactions was supported or controlled.

I argue that the dimensions that define controlling and autonomy-supportive parenting styles (Grolick, Ryan, 1989, Deci et al, 1994) are applicable to the analysis of FYMRs. I argue that these three characteristics are useful for the
analysis of characteristics of mentors’ styles in interactions with children in formal mentoring relationships.

Deci et al. (1994: 124) further defined the qualities of the three dimensions previously explored in parental styles by Grolnick and Ryan (1989). In particular, Deci et al. (Ibid) argue that the degree to which the three qualitative characteristics in parenting styles are evident in social interactions with children moderate the degree to which the behavioural limits are internalized autonomously. The qualitative features mediate the degree of autonomy in motivations facilitated in children. In other words, the qualitative characteristics of social interactions indicate the degree to which the experiences of autonomy and competence needs, and thus autonomous internalization of external behavioral limits, are facilitated in children. The dimensions of quality of social interactions between significant adults and children are measured with the experiences of conflict, control, and competence in relationships. In particular, the support of autonomy and intrinsic motivation in developmental relationships are evident in those interactions where the following qualitative features are present (Deci, 1994, Ryan, Solky, 1989).

1) **Acknowledgement of conflicting feelings in the event of conflict:** An acknowledgement of the inner experience of potential or apparent conflict between the target request and person’s inclinations expresses respect and a right to choose. As a result, it alleviates the tension associated with conflict. In turn, it allows the person to understand that the target behaviour can harmoniously co-exist with the person’s inclinations, and hence the regulation can be internalized (Deci et al., 1994: 124). In other words, it supports self-determination.

2) **Minimizing pressure and conveying choice in the event of control and limit-setting:** Events of limit-setting are significant for providing experience of autonomy within daily events (Ryan and Deci, 1985; Ryan, Solky, 1993). The language that communicates information about behavioral regulation provides feedback or a structure that allows the child to draw their own conclusions on behavioral limits. In other words, the provision of a rationale that is personally meaningful for the child and
emphasizes why the self-regulation of the target activity would have a personal utility supports autonomous internalization of behavioral limits (Ibid). In addition, provision of positive or constructive feedback or a structure in activity facilitates mindful reflection in children (Ryan, Deci, 1985:96).

3) Support for optimal challenge in the events that facilitate intrinsic motivation: the events that facilitate the experiences of interest, enjoyment, and/or excitement, support children's intrinsic motivation with the experiences of autonomous competence (Deci et al., 1994: 124, Ryan, Deci, 1985).

As a result, SDT defines the quality features of Informational Events, Autonomy Support, and Autonomy-Supportive Relationships:

**Informational Events, Autonomy Support, and Autonomy-Supportive Relationships**

Informational events are "those that allow choice (e.g., that are free from unnecessary pressure) and provide information that is useful for the person in their attempts to interact effectively with the environment" (Ryan, Deci, 1985:96). In particular, during informational events supportive significant adults motivate self-initiated activity in children by providing choice, authentic feedback, and optimal challenge. Thus, they facilitate autonomy and develop autonomy-supportive relationships over time (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Ryan, Solky, 1996). As a result, autonomy support is defined in the behavior of significant adults as:

...the readiness of a person to assume another's perspective or internal frame of reference and to facilitate self-initiated expression and action. It typically entails acknowledgement of other's perceptions, acceptance of the other's feelings, and an absence of attempts of control the other's experience and behavior (Ryan, Solky, 1996: 252)

Research on CET has explored the characteristics and impact of autonomy-supportive significant adults such as parents, teachers, and youth workers on children's optimal development and well-being.

Firstly, research explored features of autonomy-supportive teachers. For instance, researchers concluded (Jang, Deci and Reeve, 2010: 589, Deci,
Schwartz, Sheinman and Ryan, 1981) that autonomy supportive teachers nurtured children’s inner resources and built up instructions around student’s interests, preferences, personal goals, options for choice, and explanation. In particular, they acknowledged students’ feelings and perspectives which they valued, accepted expressed negative effects from pupils as valid reactions to teachers’ demands; and imposed structures and engaging presentations on uninteresting tasks. In addition, their non-controlling informational language provided explanatory rationales for limit-setting events and tasks. Finally, they reported greater empathy, importance of grasping the child’s point of view in problem situations, and minimizing their exercise of social controls.


In addition, research on autonomy-supportive adults focused on exploring the nurturing quality of parental styles. Avery and Ryan (1988) explored pre-adolescent views on parents with two quality features of parental style: involvement (commitment to resources and emotional acceptance of the child), and autonomy social support - the degree of encouragement of self-initiation and self-regulation that prevailed over the emphasis on external controls.

Similarly, a nurturing parental style supports higher self-esteem, perceived competence, and quality of peer relationships in their children (Avery and Ryan, 1998). Parents who provided reliable resources and opportunities for choice and self-determination facilitated the child’s autonomy and competence at school (Ryan, 1991). Furthermore, (Koestner et al, 1984) children who were exposed to limit-setting events with informational qualities were more intrinsically motivated and creative, and displayed more enjoyment in the activities than children in controlling situations. In particular, parents who were less autonomy-supportive were associated with children with less developed self-regulation at school, more behavioral problems, and lower achievement reported by both children and teachers (Grolnick and Ryan, 1989).
In sum, research on CET has explored the quality of interactions between significant adults and children and its impact on optimal development. It has shown that the quality or style of interactions between adults and children moderates children’s positive development and well-being. Children who experienced autonomy support in interactions with significant adults and could satisfy their needs for autonomy and competence were able to integrate external regulations on their behavior with autonomy and self-regulation (Ryan, 1991: 224).

As a result, Ryan et al. (1991, 1993; Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000; Ryan, Solky, 1996) argued that the configuration of autonomy and relatedness in developmental relationships facilitates individuation and the healthy development of the self. According to Ryan (Ibid), autonomy support enhances strength and feelings of closeness in the relational bond. In addition, autonomy-supportive relationships facilitate authenticity and encourage affective expression and self-disclosure in providing opportunities for reflective choicefulness and aiding self-initiative and self-esteem. Thus, an autonomy-supportive approach from significant adults enhances positive relational “working models” in children’s development. Autonomy supportive relationships enhance feelings of belonging, being cared for by others, feelings of self-worth, and the sense of perceived social support available to children within social networks (Ryan, 1993; Ryan, Solky, 1996: 253).

In conclusion, autonomy support not only provides a buffer for stress, but also facilitates children’s positive development and optimal integration in healthy developmental relationships (Ryan, Deci, 2000, 2001; Ryan, Solky, 1996; Ryan, 1993). Ryan (1991, 1993) argues that healthy (autonomy-supportive) developmental relationships involve an optimal condition of relatedness, when one can experience a bond with the other in the context of care and support. One’s autonomy is respected and supported with a felt acceptance of self, and at the same time with a sense of belonging to the relationship with the significant other. In quality developmental relationships, one can experience the sharing of internal frames of reference with an absence of contingency, social comparison, or control. As a result, the authentic self is expressed, received, and reflected by the other. The true self emerges, and one becomes manifested. The experience of self-disclosure or being true to the self in relation to the other becomes a characteristic feature.
2.4.4.2. Control in Developmental Relationships

CET recognizes the controlling aspects of social interactions between children and significant adults. Controlling aspects of social events are specified by Deci et al (1994) as:

1) **Instrumentality**: When the event situation is structured with the intention of achieving a goal, the activity becomes instrumental for achieving the goal. Thus, the activity itself becomes perceived as a controlling feature over one's choice. The instrumentality can lead to the decrease in one's engagement with the activity (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Lepper et al., 1973). The instrumentality is a necessary condition for control of the interaction, thus the rewards and other incentives tend to impose a control over the behavior of the recipient (Ryan, Deci, 1985). As a result, the recipients of the rewards often become externally controlled from EPLOC by the incentives and those who reward them. The rewards have controlling as well as informational meaning and the potential of instrumental support. The actual nature of the incentives for the recipient thus depends on the interactional context of the event (Cutrona, 2000; Cutrona, Russell, 1990; Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000).

2) **Evaluation of people** tends to imply control and pressure upon how the people should perform. Hence, the evaluation of behavior is often perceived as controlling in an interpersonal context (Ryan, Deci, 1985). For instance, Jang, Deci and Reeve (2010: 589) highlighted that teachers with a controlling approach use language imbued with evaluative, pressuring, or rigidly coercive messages.

3) **Expectation of behavior** that is consequently rewarded with emotional affection or other incentives implies a control on the person's regulation. As a result, the person's actions become an object of someone else's purposes and intentions rather than being respected as a spontaneous expression of activity and behavior (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Ryan, 1991:234, 1993).
Controlling Events

CET argues that social interactions can also thwart intrinsic motivation in children. Thus, it defines the controlling aspects and events that undermine autonomous regulations and intrinsic motivation in children. In particular, the controlling aspects of events are defined as “those that are experienced as pressure to think, feel, or behave in specific ways” (Ryan, Deci, 1985:95).

The controlling aspects of events facilitate behavioural regulations from EPLOC. They undermine intrinsic motivation with the expectations and pressure on compliance to external controls. As a result, the reactions to the experience of controlling events are compliance with or defiance of the control receiver (Ryan, Deci, 1985:64).

Amotivating Events

Amotivating events are those that are characterized by the following features (Deci et al., 1994, Ryan, Deci, 1985: 96):

1) **Consistent negative feedback** on activities that one performs, or activities in which one repeatedly fails to achieve the outcomes, promotes amotivation.

2) **The lack of feedback** for either perceived competence or self-determination in the social environment leads an individual towards amotivation. The event is evaluated as unmasterable, as one feels incompetent of achieving the desired outcomes.

3) **A permissive environment** that lacks structure and feedback leads to amotivation as it contains neither controlling effects nor guiding actions. As a result, a permissive social environment is non-responsive to one's needs and results in feelings of amotivation and neglect (Ibid).

Controlling Relationships

Research on controlling and autonomy-supportive styles of significant adults further specifies the details of controlling characteristics. For instance, Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman and Ryan (1981) measured teachers' support of children in autonomous or controlling behaviour. The study concluded that more controlling teachers were characterized by a lack of emphasis on taking the
child's frame of reference into consideration, defining the outcomes to be achieved, and using controls for assuring compliance.

Ryan (1991: 210, Ryan, Solky, 1989, Ryan, Deci, 1985) argues that in controlling relationships, the experience of relatedness is in a direct subordination in which the maintenance of esteem, acknowledgement, support, or personal ties are achieved through the relinquishing of autonomy. Hence, a conflict between striving for relatedness and autonomy moderates the dynamics (Ibid).

2.4.5. SUMMARY OF CET

In sum, CET defines and further explores the quality of developmental relationships between children and significant adults. In particular, it argues that the quality of developmental relationships facilitates the degree to which children's development occurs with autonomous internalization of social rules and intrinsic motivation in their activity. CET identifies the impact of significant adults on a child's optimal development. It specifies the quality features that are found in developmental relationships. Thus, it divides developmental relationships on the basis of their quality into autonomy-supportive and controlling relationships. In the following chapters V, VI and VII, I use the framework of CET in order to explore the quality and risk features of FYMRs.

2.5. SUMMARY OF THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In summary, the theoretical framework of the study used the perspective of SDT that argues for a different quality of motivation in human actions. Consequently, SDT shows how the quality of initial motivation impacts on the quality of interaction developed between significant adults and children. Thus, the theoretical framework of SDT builds the rationale for the analysis of the impact of mentors' initial motivation on the consequent characteristics, and qualities in mentoring relationships that mentors developed over 1 year of their involvement.

In particular, SDT builds its research and theoretical stance on the concept of perceived locus of causality; that is, the degree of autonomy in different regulations of human behaviour. Thus, it explains motivational processes and their impact on human behaviour and relationships. In particular, it uses the
The construct of PLOC as an empirical representation of the degree to which the actions and behaviours of an individual are autonomous or self-determined (Ryan, Deci, 1985). As a result, SDT proposes a variety of behavioural regulations that differ in the level of self-determination and control that regulate the activity.

SDT defines the autonomous and controlling quality of motivation in human behaviour. Autonomous and controlled motivations in the framework of SDT are distinguished along the continuum of intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation. Autonomous regulatory styles of behaviour are those that are intrinsically motivated, or well-internalized extrinsically motivated. Controlled motivations are those that are regulated with external regulations or that are introjected. The motivations of mentors for volunteering in mentoring relationships were explored in this research study according to the SDT types (scale) of motivation.

In addition, SDT highlights the socio-cultural conditions that facilitate or thwart the positive development and well-being in children. In particular, research on CET has explored how differences in the styles of significant adults impact on self-determination and intrinsic motivation in children. In other words, it argues that the quality features of social interactions impact on children’s intrinsic motivation, and thus on their autonomously regulated socialization. Consequently, it argues that autonomy support and emotional acceptance in developmental relationships are central components that enhance the intrinsic motivation, creativity, self-determination, and well-being of children (Ryan, 1991, 1993, Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000).

I argue that SDT specifies the characteristics and quality of developmental relationships and thus conceptualizes quality features of mentors’ approach styles in the context of FYMRs. In particular, I argue that a mentor from the CET perspective is an adult who facilitates the interactions with qualities of amotivating, controlling, or autonomy-supportive behaviour in the mentee’s development, and who becomes significant in the child’s development if the social interactions they facilitate have a quality of autonomy support.

I argue that SDT is a useful theory for exploring the impact the mentors’ understanding of the mentoring role and their approach to mentees has on the mentee’s positive development. In particular, I predict with CET that the mentors with a more informational approach will facilitate more internalized
external behavioural regulations and intrinsic motivation in children in FYMRs. On the other hand, the mentors with a more controlling approach will facilitate more external regulations of perceived challenging behaviour of children in mentoring interactions, which will lead to compliance or defiance in mentees’ involvement.

The following chapters present the results of the analysis. In examining the common characteristic features of experience of mentoring phenomena in the role of a mentor, I found that all ten relationships studied shared the main themes of:

1) Initial motivation for mentoring involvement and its quality;
2) Characteristics of coping styles arising from initial motivation, challenges in the mentoring role, and their risks to the quality of the mentoring bond
3) Characteristics of mentors’ helping styles and their efficacy in supporting children

Characteristics of closeness in the mentoring bond, perceived relational satisfaction, and resultant dynamics of formal mentoring relationships.

Following this analysis, I applied SDT (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000) to these themes. I argue that the dynamics and quality of mentoring involvement experienced by mentors can be divided according to the type of initial motivation for the mentoring involvement. Thus, I argue that the controlling and autonomous quality of mentors' initial motivations (Ibid) mediated the quality and dynamics of FYMRs over 12 months of mentoring involvement.

I argue that the initial motivation significantly moderated the initial helping attitudes of mentors and consequent characteristics of provided social supports, dynamics, and quality of mentoring experience in developing a mentoring bond. Following the initial quality of motivation, I argue that mentors developed relationships with qualities defined in CET as **autonomy supportive** and **controlling relationships**. As a result, the findings are explained and discussed using SDT. In particular, the results are presented in the following chapters:

1) Chapter III presents the methodology and methods of the research study.
2) Chapter IV presents results on the characteristics of initial controlling and autonomous motivations of mentors for volunteering.
3) Chapter V presents results on the characteristics of perceived challenges, perceived competence in mentoring skills, and the characteristics of resulted styles in coping with challenges, including characteristics of limit setting on children’s challenging behaviour.

4) Chapter VI presents results on the characteristics of helping attitudes and provided social supports in mentoring interactions.

5) Finally, in Chapter VIII the findings are discussed in relation to previous research, and concluded on with recommendations for future research and evidence-based practice of mentoring interventions.
CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH METHODS

3.0. INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER III

Chapter I and II illustrated how this thesis aims to build on previous studies into the knowledge claims that can be generalized and shared; and it thus contributes to evidence-based practice in formal youth mentoring interventions. Chapter II showed that researchers argued that not all formal mentoring relationships are beneficial for children, and some of them impose risk on children (Rhodes et al, 2009, Spencer et al, 2006, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010, Spencer, 2007, Zand, Thomson, 2009, Morrow and Styles, 1993, Grossman, Rhodes, 2002). In addition, the principles of helping processes in FYMRs have not been identified sufficiently to date (Zand, Thomson, 2009, Liang et al., 2009). In particular, the quality of initial motivation of mentors and its impact on quality and dynamics of FYMRs have not been explored to date. This study aims to contribute to bridging the current gap in knowledge on processes that mediate the quality and benefits of FYMRs.

Therefore, the thesis is an exploratory longitudinal qualitative research study with a phenomenological approach to data collection and analysis. The qualitative approach was chosen as a suitable methodology for in-depth exploration of relational processes in FYMRs. The phenomenological approach to research design was deemed suitable for the exploration of mentoring experiences regarding the initial motivation and consequent approaches of mentors to children that developed characteristic features of FYMRs. In addition, the longitudinal design of the study was suitable for the exploration of the characteristics and dynamics in FYMRs that mentors developed over
The longitudinal approach was especially useful for exploring the impact of the initial motivation on consequent characteristics and dynamics of FYMRs developed by mentors over 1 year of mentoring involvement. Thus, the longitudinal qualitative approach was deemed a suitable research approach for in-depth exploration of relational processes and their characteristic features in FYMRs.

The field work and data collection took place in the BBBS CZ programme in Prague and Ústí nad Labem in North Bohemia. It followed 11 matches for 12 months of their involvement in the programme. Qualitative in-depth interviews were undertaken to explore the experiences of mentors, children, and parents during the first months and after five and ten months of their mentoring involvement. Subsequently, an in-depth Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) was carried out in several hermeneutic cycles (Smith et al., 2012). The details on the research methodology, implementation of the study, ethics, validity and reliability are outlined in this chapter.

Chapter III begins by outlining the rationale and objectives of the research study and details of the organization and operation of the BBBS programme in the Czech Republic in order to inform the background to the research study. The chapter argues for a choice of social constructivism as an interpretive framework giving the ontological stance the study was conducted on. It also includes my axiological position to inform the research study about the values and attitudes the qualitative study is based on.

Following that, the chapter describes and discusses the research design, methods, and implementation of the study. In general, the study chose a phenomenological methodology to answer the research aims and objectives. In particular, the study used an explorative longitudinal qualitative research design with in-depth semi-structured interviews collected in 11 case studies three times over 12 months of mentoring involvement. Case studies were composed of mentors, mentees, and parents. The research design with field work preparation, research sample, and methods of data collection is described in detail. Following that, the analysis was led in hermeneutic cycles with the use of NVivo software followed the IPA methods. Thus, the IPA method that was applied to data analysis is described in detail.
Finally, this chapter discusses the ethical norms and challenges of the study, as well as the validity, reliability, and generalizability of the methodology and research results; and it concludes by summarizing the highlights of the research methodology and design.

3.1. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The thesis is an exploratory qualitative study which argues that the understanding of the mentoring role impacts on the quality of the helping relational style of formal mentors. It also impacts on the quality of mentoring experiences and benefits and the dynamics of FYMRs.

Thus, the thesis explores mentors’ understanding and experiences of mentoring phenomena in FYMRs, as well as their impact on the quality and dynamics of the FYMR. Specifically, the aim of the study is to explore how formal mentors become/don’t become mediators and informal significant adults of mentees in FYMRs. The main aim was translated into the following three objectives of the thesis:

1. To explore the impact of initial motivation on the quality and dynamics of the FYMR during 1 year of mentoring involvement:
   The initial motivation of mentors is a factor that impacts on the consequent dynamics and quality of the FYMR (Weinstein, Ryan, 2010). I explore the characteristics and dynamics of two types of mentoring relationships according to 1) the controlling, and 2) the autonomous quality of their initial motivations for volunteering. Thus, in order to generalize the experiences of participants with mentoring phenomena, self-determination theory (SDT, Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000) was applied for explanation and discussion of the research results.18

2. To explore the characteristics and dynamics of risk factors in FYMRs: The comparison of mentors’ experiences identifies risks in FYMRs, along with characteristics features of their experiences. The pathways through which risk factors of FYMRs were developed in relationships are identified and discussed.

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18 As SDT has not been applied in this context before, the thesis tests the viability of the theory for mentoring research and evidence-based practice.
3. To explore the factors in FYMRs that develop the experiences of quality, benefits, and dynamics of the informal mentoring bond:

The comparison of mentors’ experiences identifies the features of quality in FYMRs along with their characteristics features. The pathways through which quality factors were developed in relationships are identified and discussed.

I address these aims and objectives throughout the analysis chapters, Chapters IV–VII, and finally discuss them in the Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations in the final chapter, Chapter VIII.

3.2. Methodological Rationale for the Study

This study explores the impact of the initial motivation of mentors on the characteristics and dynamics in formal youth mentoring relationships. It was conducted with a longitudinal qualitative research approach for several reasons. Firstly, the study aims to explore experiences of mentoring participants in the BBBS CZ programme and the impact of the experiences and understanding on the quality of FYMRs. Qualitative methods are used to study thoughts, beliefs, and feelings relevant to personal experience of the important phenomenon (Smith et al., 2012). Thus, conducting qualitative research means to embrace the idea of multiple realities of individuals, and the intent to report on these multiple realities19 (Ibid).

In addition, a longitudinal approach was previously deemed to be valuable in studies of relational and helping processes in FYMRs (Spencer et al., 2014, Brady et al., 2017, Weinstein, Ryan, 2010). Nevertheless, an in-depth longitudinal study that explores the quality of the initial motivation and consequent relational processes has not been conducted in the field of mentoring to date (Thomson, Zand, 2009). A longitudinal qualitative approach is suitable for the exploration of the impact of initial motivation on the consequent characteristics and dynamics in mentoring relationships.

19 Evidence of multiple realities includes multiple forms of evidence in themes with the authentic language of individuals, and the presenting of different perspectives (and experiences) that are explored in the qualitative research inquiry (Creswell, 2013).
As such, the longitudinal qualitative approach is a suitable methodology to explore the experience of mentoring phenomena. The qualitative phenomenological methodology and research methods used in the study are described in the following chapter. The IPA approach to the research design and analysis provides a framework for an in-depth analysis of mentoring processes through exploring the experiences of mentoring involvement. As this approach has not been used before in youth mentoring research, I argue that the IPA approach makes an original contribution to the methodological approaches in this field.

3.3. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY: STRUCTURE AND OPERATION OF THE BBBS CZ PROGRAMME

The field work and data collection of the study took place in the BBBS programme in the Czech Republic from 2010–2012. Affiliates of BBBS CZ at the time recruited, trained, matched, and supervised voluntary mentors in line with the practices of BBBS International in order to develop mentoring matches. Volunteers, children, and parents in BBBS CZ agreed to be involved and support regular one-to-one meetings for at least 10 months of mentoring experience. The BBBS CZ programme at the time operated through approximately 20 affiliates that were part of different statutory and voluntary organizations, but mainly under Voluntary Centers (civic associations for promoting volunteering and civic engagement in society); or SVP – Centers for Special Education, Support, and Care that aim to provide services to disadvantaged children and families in prevention and early intervention. Two BBBS CZ affiliates in Prague and Ústí nad Labem took part in the research study.

Moreover, the umbrella organization called Association of BBBS/Pět P programme operated as a steering committee of the programme. The leaders

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20 The BBBS CZ programme was implemented in 1996 in Prague as Programme Pět P by the president of BBBS International, Dagmar McGill, and her Czech partners. It follows the organizational structure and practices of BBBS International: The mentors are recruited, screened, and trained in order to be matched with socially disadvantaged children and young people (6-15 years) for regular meetings once a week that are ongoing for at least 10 months. The aim of the meetings is to facilitate benefits of the mentoring relationship.
of the steering committee were the 5 funding members of BBBS CZ. The committee did not have an impact on the quality of delivery of the service through the independent BBBS affiliates, but instead only recommended good practice, delivered the manual of standards of practice adapted in accordance with BBBS International, and organized networking events for case-workers. Thus, the umbrella organization of BBBS functioned rather as a guarantor of the programme in the Czech Republic as well as a group of expert advisors. In addition, the members of the steering committee were the gatekeepers of the access to research participants. For that reason, my first aim during the field work was to establish an agreement on good research cooperation with the steering committee of BBBS CZ with Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) that stated the terms and objectives of cooperation in the research study (See Appendix 2: MoU).

Mentors are the volunteers who can be seen by the mentoring programme in different roles relative to the programme’s mission, aims, and objectives (Frič, Pospíšilová, 2010). The two BBBS CZ affiliates where the research study was conducted operated as 1) a service for the promotion of civic engagement, and 2) a support service for children and families. Thus, mentors in the two BBBS CZ affiliates were seen as promoters of values of civic engagement (Affiliate in Prague), and as supporters of disadvantaged families (Affiliate in Ústí nad Labem).

Firstly, literature on volunteering argues that voluntary mentors can be seen as promoters of civic engagement in society. Thus, the mentoring programme serves as a tool for disseminating the benefits of volunteering in society (Ibid). BBBS CZ was implemented in the Czech Republic, after the fall of the Iron curtain, in 1996 with funding by the Open Society Fund of G. Soros21. The original mission was to promote the rejuvenation of civil society in a post-communist country through mentoring volunteering (Frič, Pospíšilová et al., 2010; Sozanská, Tošner, 2003). Thus, mentors in the BBBS CZ affiliates were originally seen as volunteers who promoted benefits of civic engagement and thus rejuvenated the Czech civil society (Ibid, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010). The BBBS CZ affiliates with this view were mainly funded under the Act on Volunteering 2002, and the affiliate in Prague in

\[21\] Open Society Fund in the 1990s funded activities of NGOs in CZ that aimed at the rejuvenation of the values and benefits of civil society after the period of communism.
particular had this view on the function of mentoring volunteering and volunteers in Czech society. It has operated the programme under the Act on Volunteering and funding for promoting civic engagement under the Center for Volunteering Hestia since 1996 (Ibid).

Secondly, as the provision of community services was re-established in Czech society, the new mission of BBBS CZ affiliates became to promote family support and positive youth development through the benefits of mentoring experience. Thus, the BBBS CZ affiliates were funded as community social services run by local NGOs that supplement the role of the state in the provision of social services for vulnerable children, young people, and families (Muller, 2002). These affiliates are accredited as supportive and preventative services for children and families within the Act on Social Services 118/2006 Sb. and primarily aim to support disadvantaged children and young people through positive mentoring relationships. The second affiliate that took part in the research study was based in Ústí nad Labem and adopted this mission on function of the mentoring programme and mentors in society. The BBBS CZ programme in Ústí nad Labem was operated under the Center for Volunteering and Civic Engagement, and was funded as a programme for supporting socially disadvantaged children and families. In addition, from 2010–2012, the affiliate in Prague was also partly funded as a family support intervention for children from disadvantaged families.

3.4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY: INTERPRETIVE FRAMEWORK OF SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIVISM

The aim of this research study is to explore the moderators and mediators that facilitate the quality and benefits of the natural mentoring bond in FYMRs. To answer research aims and objectives, and following the theoretical framework, I applied the methods of qualitative research methodology in a social constructivist interpretive framework. Conducting qualitative research means that the researcher intends to get as close to the participants being

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22 Ústí nad Labem is a city of 95,000 inhabitants, the center of North Bohemia, and the 7th biggest city in the Czech Republic. It is particularly distinguished for the large Roma minority that lives there, and the related socio-economic issues of poverty, high unemployment, poor school attendance of children etc., as well as advanced social awareness and developed social services that tackle the local issues.
studied as possible. Thus, it is important to understand the context of experience and to conduct a study in the “field” where individuals live the experience of the phenomena. For this reason, the qualitative interpretive framework of the study is that of social constructivism. In particular, the goal of the research in a constructivist worldview is to explore the subjectivity of experiences and meanings in their historical context of culture and society of individuals (Creswell, 2013: 23). In other words, it seeks understanding of the lived world of individuals and their experience with particular phenomena. It addresses the processes of interaction among individuals, and it aims to explore the subjective meanings of experiences directed towards understanding of phenomena in their complexity (Creswell, 2013, Smith et al, 2012). Thus, the researcher aims to interpret the experience of phenomena and context that shape the experiences, and aims to understand what meanings the phenomena as in individuals. Thus, the research inquiry is generated inductively with the aim of developing theory or patterns of meaning in subjective experiences (Creswell, 2013: 23-25).

I conducted longitudinal in-depth semi-structured interviews that are particularly suited for studying people's understanding of meanings in the lived world and describing their experiences (Kvale, 1996: 105). Interviews were conducted with participants who had a direct experience with mentoring phenomena (Smith et al., 2012). I analyzed the data with the IPA method that takes the direct experiences of phenomena into account. The IPA interprets experiences as both individuals' accounts that are socially constructed relative to the individuality of human beings, as well as experiences that are generalizable as lived phenomena. Thus, it is a suitable methodology for in-depth exploration of experiences with mentoring phenomena.

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23 Epistemological assumptions concern what counts as a knowledge and the knowledge claims are gained and justified. Thus, it claims the relationship between a researcher and what is being researched (Creswell, 2013:20).

24 With conducting the study in the field, the researcher intends to minimize the “distance” between them and the research participants. As a result, knowledge is gained with the individual's subjective views of the experience that create subjective evidence (Creswell, 2013).

25 Creswell (2013: 23) argues that the interpretive framework consists of the ontology, epistemology, axiology, and methodology of the research study.
3.4.1. Axiological Assumptions of the Researcher

I was personally involved as a voluntary mentor with a BBBS programme from 2000–2003 and subsequently undertook research on mentoring experiences (Brumovská, 2003, 2007, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2008, 2010). Thus, due to my experience I had previous knowledge on youth mentoring phenomena. I selected a phenomenological approach to the study of mentoring phenomena and tried to reflect on these experiences, but bracketing the biases (Smith, 2012, Kvale, 1996). Thus, I could approach research participants with a fresh ear to their own experiences (Kvale, 1996). However, as the interviews with mentors provided the most complex information about the experiences with mentoring phenomena, I presume that my own personal experience with mentoring helped me to identify with mentors during the interviews in greater depth than with participants in other mentoring roles. As a result, the analysis eventually focused on the exploration of the mentoring experiences of mentors only. Thus, the interviewer bias (Kvale, 1996) was useful for the in-depth insight and inquiry on the experiences of mentors, as well as the theorization of the characteristics and dynamics of their helping behaviour in the mentoring role with SDT. Nevertheless, I aim to explore mentoring phenomena from the mentees’ and parents’ perspectives in future research.

3.4.2. Research Design

A constructivist worldview is manifested in a phenomenological approach to research inquiry that methodologically describes and explores an individual’s experiences of phenomena (Creswell, 2013). It is compatible with an Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis (IPA, Smith et al., 2012) approach to the qualitative study of experiences with the phenomena of mentoring.

A phenomenological approach to research study describes the lived experiences of individuals in relation to a particular phenomenon (Creswell, 2013). In particular, a phenomenological study describes “what” the individuals experienced in respect to the phenomenon under study, and “how” they experienced it. In addition, it compares and contrasts the experiences of

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26 Axiological assumptions admit that the qualitative research study is value-laden and the biases are present (Creswell, 2013: 20). At the same time, the axiological assumption of the qualitative study admits and actively reflects the values and biases of the research inquiry and the value-laden nature of information gathered from the database (Ibid).
phenomena among individuals. Thus, it selects and collects the data from individuals who have different experiences with the given phenomena in order to attempt to describe the “universal essence” of the phenomena (Ibid).

This study aims to explore the experiences and understandings of mentoring phenomena as mentoring participants experienced them. Thus, the phenomenological approach is suitable for the research methodology (Ibid). I adopted a hermeneutical phenomenology with an IPA qualitative approach given my aim to explore and interpret the lived experience and understanding of mentoring phenomena and its impact on the quality and dynamics of formal mentoring relationships (Smith, 2011, Smith et al., 2012).

3.4.2.1. Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis (IPA)

IPA is a qualitative research approach committed to the examination of how people make sense of their major life experiences. (Smith et al., 2012)

IPA is phenomenological as it explores the experience of phenomena and its everyday lived flow: “Experience” is anything that presents itself in a flow of time because of its unitary meaning. Thus, any comprehensive unit of life that is linked with a common meaning is called an experience (Smith et al., 2012:2). In this sense, the flow of involvement in BBBS relationships can be called an experience of mentoring phenomena. Mentoring involvement, and the reflection of participants in relation to it, is an experience that is suitable for exploration with an IPA approach (Ibid). In particular, IPA is committed to exploration of experience within three major theoretical backgrounds: Hermeneutics, Idiography, and Phenomenology.

Firstly, the emphasis on understanding the person’s perspective in IPA stems from the Heideggerian concept of Dasein (“being there”): “a phenomenological stance that directs attention to the manner in which experience is contextualized by language, past experience, socialization, and culture” (Larkin, Watts, & Clifton, 2006: 103-4). Thus, the individual is the unit of analysis in IPA, and so findings can be based on a small number of cross-sectional, semi-structured interviews (Smith, 2011, Smith et al., 2012).

Secondly, an IPA is informed by the Heideggerian concept of the hermeneutic circle (Smith, 2011, Smith et al., 2012). It argues for the inevitability of participants and researchers engaging in an interpretive process in a conscious, productive manner. Thus, an IPA methodology involves
several rounds of interpretation - from inductive, data-driven theme-building, to later integration of findings with existing theoretical frameworks (Ibid)27.

Thirdly, an IPA is influenced by idiography. Idiography concerns the study of the particular. IPA’s commitment to the particular is realized in two levels: It is committed to in-depth qualitative analysis of the data, and it is committed to understanding the lived experience of an important phenomena in particular people and in particular contexts where the experience is uniquely embodied. Thus, it analyzes small, purposively selected, and carefully situated samples for analysis (Smith et al., 2012: 29). It uses analytical induction, and ideally derives theoretical explanation from a set of cases and thus moves to more general statements upon research results with the claims of lived experience of individuals (Ibid).

3.4.3. IMPLEMENTATION OF THE STUDY
Following the selected methodology, the IPA research methods were applied during the data collection and data analysis. The following section illustrates in detail the methods of selection of the research sample, data collection and analysis. In addition, it informs about the details of the field work management and data analysis methods. Finally, it discusses the general ethical considerations and ethical issues I dealt with during the field work.

The field work period (September 2010–December 2011) consisted of two stages:

1) Preparation of the field
2) Data collection

3.4.3.1. PREPARATION OF THE FIELD WORK
The preparation period took place in the Czech Republic and consisted of 1) the negotiation of the research design and the data collection with the BBBS CZ programme, and 2) gaining approval from NUI Galway’s Research Ethics Committee (REC) for the research proposal.

Ethical approval was granted by the REC at NUI Galway in November 2010. The research project was proposed as a longitudinal qualitative research study designed in qualitative case-studies exploring the impact of

27 IPA was developed by J. Smith in the early 1990s “to explore in detail how participants are making sense of their personal and social world” (Smith & Osborn, 2008, p. 53).
mentoring understanding and experiences of participants on the quality and dynamics of FYMRs in the BBBS CZ programme.

See Appendix 3: REC
I negotiated the cooperation on the research study with the BBBS CZ management, who were the gate keepers of potential research respondents. I contacted the steering committee of the BBBS CZ programme and asked them about their interest in agreeing upon the Memorandum of Understanding that presented 1) the aims and objectives of the research study, 2) the benefits and outcomes of the research study for BBBS CZ, and 3) the terms and objectives of cooperation\textsuperscript{28}. The MoU was signed in November 2010 following the ethical approval of the research proposal.

See Appendix 2: MoU

3.4.3.2. Purposive Research Sample and Ethics of Informant Consents
Due to its idiographic focus, the IPA approach explores the similarities and differences of the experiences of phenomena between cases in great detail. It thus aims to find a relatively small and homogenous sample\textsuperscript{29}. As a result, the experience of phenomena can be explored and compared both within the sample and between the cases (Smith et al., 2012).

Thus, the aim of the selection of the research sample was to recruit participants who shared a common experience of mentoring phenomena. Possible variations in characteristics of experience based on different mentoring roles were methodologically permitted (Smith et al., 2012) and included. I focused on selection of the matches that were recruited, trained, and matched in autumn 2010 in two BBBS affiliates who had agreed to participate in the research study. These matches consisted of mentors,

\textsuperscript{28}The MoU was not supported by some members of the BBBS CZ steering committee as they did not accept my name and signature as a leading researcher of the research project. Thus, to deal with this issue, Dr. Gabriela Seidlová Málková from the School of Liberal Arts and Humanities, who supervised the research study during the field work period, met with the BBBS CZ steering committee and advocated for their cooperation. In addition, Prof. Pat Dolan and Dr. Bernadine Brady, who supervised the research at NUI Galway, travelled to Prague to support the research cooperation with BBBS CZ. I finally managed to agree on cooperation with two independent BBBS CZ affiliates based in Prague and in Ústí nad Labem.

\textsuperscript{29}Homogeneity of the sample in the research study consisted of the experience of research participants with the mentoring in the BBBS CZ programme, even though they experienced mentoring in different roles.
children, and parents, and were due to start mentoring meetings in December 2010–January 2011. Consequently, I intended to follow and interview them from January 2011–January 2012.

Information about the research study was given in oral presentations and in informant consent sheets. I collected the informant consent forms in cooperation with the BBBS CZ case workers. I attended three BBBS CZ training courses of mentors and met 18 potential future mentors – the participants of the research study. During the training, I introduced myself, explained to them the aims of the research study, and gave them the informant consent sheets to let them decide if they were interested in participating in the research study. As the training lasted for two days, the potential respondents had 24 hours to decide on their participation in the research. Most of the 18 participants agreed to participate.

Potential respondents among children and parents were proposed and contacted by the BBBS CZ case workers. The parents of children who were found suitable for a match with volunteers at the time were contacted by the case workers. Following that, a meeting with parents and children was organized by the BBBS case workers as a part of the matching process. During these meetings, they were informed about the terms of participation in the BBBS CZ programme. In addition, the case workers informed them about the research study, explained the role of respondents, and offered participation in the research study with the written information sheet and consent form. Subsequently, potential participants had more than 24 hours to decide on their participation in the study. As a result, ten parents and 11 children returned the signed informant consent forms during the second planned visit to the BBBS affiliate. Following that, the 11 matches that consented to participate in the research study were formed, and the 11 case-studies consisting of mentors, children, and parents who agreed to participate in the research study were selected as a purposive research sample.

**Mentors**

Mentors were aged between 18 and 28 years. There were nine females and two males. Mentors were either high school students (1), college students (4), or employed (6). They had come mostly from other parts of the Czech Republic to live in the city of Prague or Ústí nad Labem (6), or came originally from Prague (3), or Ústí nad Labem (2).
Children and young people

There were two age groups of mentees in the research sample. One group consisted of children from 6–10 years (6). The second group consisted of youths from 11–14 years (5). The children were referred to BBBS from mental health hospitals by social workers, special educators at schools, psychologists etc. The main issues for mentees were socio-economic disadvantage with related issues in academic performance, peer and family relationships etc. Most of the mentees were primarily diagnosed in terms of mental health diagnosis or referred by social services or psychologists due to difficulties in school performance, anti-social behavior, relationships in their family etc. At the same time, some of the mentees came to BBBS CZ from wealthy families because they would benefit from the support of an adult mentor (4 mentees). These mentees had difficulties, especially with peers at school, or grew up in one-parent families.

Parents

There was one father, one grandfather, and eight mothers taking part in the research interviews. One parent was a mother of two boys (11 and 14 years) who both took part in the research study. Parents mostly came from socio-economically disadvantaged backgrounds such as working in low paid jobs, having low level of education, being a one-parent families, or having unemployment in their family. These difficulties were linked to other social problems the families were exposed to, such as living in public housing for families, personal insolvency, and alcohol and substance abuse. Their major common need that was supposed to be met in the BBBS mentoring relationships was to connect the children with a significant adult from a different socio-economic background, and to help parents to care for children in their leisure time.

Case Workers

Three case workers of two affiliates of the BBBS programme where the research study took place participated in the interviews.
3.4.3.2. **Method of Data Collection: In-Depth Semi-Structured Interviews**

Data in the IPA approach is usually collected using semi-structured interviews (Smith et al., 2012). The in-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted with a phenomenological approach to interviewing in accordance with the method argued by Kvale (1996). Kvale views the interview as facilitating empathetic access to the world of the interviewee (Kvale, 1996: 125). Thus, the interviews with mentors and parents followed an interview guide that contained:

...the sequence of themes to be covered about the explored experience as well as suggested questions. At the same time, there is an openness to changes of sequence and forms of questions in order to follow up the answers given and the stories told by the subject. (Kvale, 1996: 124)

Thus, the themes of interviews were focused on exploring the experiences and understanding of mentoring in different roles and ages, and characteristics and dynamics of developed mentoring relationships in different relational phases.

**Interview Design**

The interview design followed the interviews I previously conducted with case workers, volunteers, and mentees for my International Master of Science in Social Work at Gothenburg University in Sweden. In that Master thesis, I explored experiences of mentors and mentees in two Swedish and one Czech mentoring programme. The results of the thesis were consequently published (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2008, 2010). Thus, I had piloted the interview guides in the Masters thesis.

Using that, in-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted with mentors, mentees, parents, and case workers associated with the 11 BBBS matches. The interviews were undertaken in longitudinal design in three rounds over one year of mentoring involvement in Prague (eight matches) and Ústí nad Labem (three matches)\(^{30}\). The location of the interviews was selected according to the preference of respondents and included BBBS meeting rooms, public places like cafés, or the homes of respondents. Parents, children,

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\(^{30}\) The first round was conducted during January and February 2011, the second round in May and June 2011, and third round of from November 2011 to January 2012.
Interviews with Mentors and Parents

The first round of interviews took place in January and February 2011 when mentors and mentees started the meetings. They explored the initial understanding of the mentoring role and early experiences of mentoring involvement. Similarly, parents talked about their understanding of the benefits of mentoring for children and families, along with their first experiences with the matching process and mentoring meetings.

The second round of interviews took place between May and June 2011 when matches had been meeting for between four to six months. According to the literature, at this stage the dynamics of relationships are established and the regular patterns of interaction are explorable (Rhodes, 2002, 2005, Grossman, Rhodes, 2002, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010). The interviews followed participants’ experiences, understanding, and approach to mentoring roles as well as the characteristics and dynamics of relationships.

Finally, the third round of interviews took place between November 2011 and January 2012, and followed the relationships after ten months duration. It followed similar topics to the first and second rounds of interviews in line with the research aims and objectives.

Interviews with children and young people

The interviews with children explored the themes of experiences, perceptions, and satisfaction with mentoring from the mentee’s point of view. However, as the children were mostly between the ages of six and ten (6), a narrative approach with visual methods was applied. I presumed children would more easily project their experiences with mentors while drawing on templates about mentoring themes or playing with mentoring themes. Thus, the interviews with children had several stages:

It was important to “tune in” to the children and build a rapport with them through communication in child-friendly language. I led the interviews with the pictures I prepared for them to draw and narrate about images. In
general, drawing eased children into talking with me and to narrating based on my questions in a descriptive, age-related way.31

The interviews with teenagers (four 12 to 14-year-old mentees) were youth-friendly and used different language to the interviews with children. Firstly, I “tuned in” to teenagers in teen-friendly language, talking about how they were doing and what were they interested in at the time. Following that, I let them speak about their perceptions and experiences with their mentor and mentoring meetings. They mostly described activities they did together with mentors during the meetings, the best things about mentors and meetings, and the things they didn’t like or were bored with. I also asked them about their background and daily routines, relationships with family and peers, and experience with school. Thus, I gained their views on their mentoring experience, satisfaction, and perceived benefits.32

Interviews with Case workers
In addition to all three rounds of interviews with match participants, two rounds of interviews were conducted with case workers. The first round of interviews (Spring 2011) concerned background information on the children, their reason for referral to BBBS CZ, their expectations and needs, and the reason for matching them with their particular mentors. The background information about mentors was also included. During the second round of interviews (Winter 2011) with case workers, the development of relationships, the issues that came up, satisfaction of mentoring participants, supervision of matches, and other themes were explored (see Appendix 4: Interview Guides).

31 For instance, I invited children to draw the mentor on the template of a “ginger-bread-man”. Similarly, I invited children to draw and talk about their best experiences on a template of a thermometer. Thus, the children spoke about their mentors and their experiences with mentoring meetings; their background, family, and daily routines; and significant adults and peers and their relationships with them, while they were drawing in templates about these themes [sounds like that phrasal verb again] as they associated the narrative with the play with templates I prepared for them.

32 During the third round of interviews, two boys, the brothers, were placed in a children’s home due to a family crisis. Hence, I visited them in the children’s home. The interviews had a character of crisis intervention. The boys were quite concerned about their situation at the time. I interviewed them about their mentoring experiences, but also tried to give them emotional support and encouragement due to their crisis situation.
3.4.3.3. **Ethics of the Research Study**

Kvale (1996) argues that ethical guidelines and issues in different stages of the research study should be considered in order to conduct ethically responsible research: "An interview is a moral enterprise. The personal interaction in the interview affects the interviewee, and the knowledge produced by the interview affects our understanding of the human situation" (Kvale, 1996: 109).

Firstly, Kvale (Ibid) suggests that an ethical research proposal, beyond the scientific value, aims to improve the human situation investigated. The presented study was proposed with the aim of improving the quality of FYMRs and thus the experiences and benefits that mentees receive from participation in formal youth mentoring interventions. The study was proposed with the consideration of ethical guidelines in Children First research policy. In particular, I was trained in Children First guidelines for researchers by the HSE in Galway in Ireland in 2010 before the field work commenced. The research proposal was approved by the NUIG’s Research Ethics Committee (REC) in November 2010 and followed the child protection policy of Children First at NUI Galway.

Secondly, Kvale (Ibid) argues that an ethical study includes information about the aims of the research and role of the respondents, securing confidentiality and considering possible consequences of the study for the subjects. The written informed consents were provided and returned by all respondents of the study. The consents were written in a children-friendly version for children and young people. The consents followed an oral presentation on the aims and objectives of the study. They included information about the overall purpose of the research study and benefits of the participation. The participation was voluntary and gave participants the right to withdraw from the study at any time. The informant consent sheets were part of the research proposal approved by the REC committee at NUIG.

Furthermore, confidentiality of the study was considered and secured with anonymization of the data. All names and personal information that could potentially identify the respondents were changed or removed in interview transcripts. Following that, the data were handled confidentially among the members of the research team, that is, between the supervisors of the research study and myself.
In addition, the confidentiality of the respondents’ reports was clarified and the consequences of the interview interaction such as stress were taken into account following the experience of the interviews. I asked respondents at the end of each interview about their feelings and overall impression of the interviewing experience. The responses were clarified during each interview. The opportunity to summarize and clarify the interview topics and responses was also given to participants at the end of each interview.

Moreover, the potential risk of the participation in in-depth interviews was considered and ethically handled. One group of research respondents was children and young people under the age of 18 who were at risk of experiencing consequences of poverty and socio-economic disadvantage. In addition, as the interviews reflected on the mentoring experience, the interview could potentially trigger emotionally traumatic memories from the past in research participants. To handle the potential risks of participation, the Children First policy was applied as an ethical conduct of the study. In particular, the respondents were informed that the interviews followed the Children First policy of child protection. I informed respondents that the disclosure of information that would be potentially harmful for children and young people would have to be forwarded to the supervisors of the research study in a written report.

Finally, the confidentiality of the written research report was taken into account. The data were anonymized and generalized for the research proposes. As such, the research study reports on the common themes that mentors experienced during their mentoring involvement. It consciously avoids statements and information personalized to the extent that could identify and potentially harm the particular respondents (see Appendix 5: Informant consents).

**Ethical Issues during the Fieldwork**

During the third round of interviews, one respondent reported his over-involvement in the mentoring match; he was thus found to be posing a risk to the child. As a result, following the protocol of Ethical Research Conduct of

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33 As the mentoring relationship is an interpersonal one-to-one caring connection often compared with the therapeutic relationship (Rhodes, 2002, Spencer, Rhodes, 2014), emotions of different intensity and character can be experienced in the mentoring bond, including experiences of emotional trauma that is triggered in the mentoring interactions (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010).
NUI Galway and Children First Ethical Research Policy, the case had to be reported to the Child Protection Office in Galway. Thus, due to the confidentiality and other potential risks for the participants, I did not include the case study in the analysis.

3.4.4. Method of Data Analysis: Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis (IPA)

Smith et al. (2012) argue that the IPA literature does not present a prescribed single method of analysis, but recommends being flexible in developing an analytical focus on experience of the explored phenomena. At the same time, the analysis follows an iterative and inductive cycle (Ibid).

In general, the researcher's role in analyzing the data after the interviews is to lead a comparative analysis in order to merge individualized interpretations into larger themes. Findings are reported in a theme-based account that synthesizes individual accounts of the focal area of interest, drawing attention to participant commonalities and divergences. A theoretical interpretation takes place subsequent to the inductive phase, situating the findings in terms of relevant research and theory (Smith, 2011, Smith et al., 2012).

The analysis was carried out in the rounds of a hermeneutical circle (Ibid). The following Figure 4 illustrates the hermeneutical cycles of analysis that were undertaken.
Figure 4: Hermeneutic Cycles of Analysis

AIM: To Explore the Experience and Understanding of Mentoring Roles and their Impact on FYMR

Research Objectives and Main Research Question:

Step 1: Interpretive Description of Mentoring Experiences by Mentoring Participants (Mentors, Children, Parents) and Clarified by the Researcher in Interviews

Analysis of Transcripts

Step 2: Open Coding on Mentoring Experiences and Understandings of Research Respondents: Analytical Memos and Open Codes

Step 3: Developing and Generating Emergent Themes – Idiographic In-Depth Analysis

Step 4: Searching for Connecting Themes of Mentors’ Experiences – 10 Main Themes of Mentors Selected

Step 5: Comparing and Contrasting Themes of Mentoring Experience – Two types of Mentoring Relationships Identified: Controlling and Autonomy Supportive

Step 6: Write-Up: SDT Applied and Discussed against the Research Findings. Data Reduced to Quotes that were Most Representative
1) Analysis of Experience with Mentoring by Interview Participants

Smith et al. (2012) argue that participants themselves, who give subjective and descriptive accounts of their experience of the explored phenomena, offer the first interpretation. At the same time, the researcher’s active role in knowledge construction during the first circle of interpretation occurs through choosing interview questions and interpreting each participant’s account. The researcher then interprets participants’ interpretations of the experience of the phenomena (Ibid).

The first phase of analysis started during the interviews with the research participants. The interviews with mentors were analyzed perceptively by the researcher during the interview meetings and thus followed the themes on mentoring experiences the mentors chose. The interview questions I chose supported respondents in providing detailed descriptive narration about the topics that followed their own understanding and experience of mentoring phenomena (Smith et al., 2012). During their monologue, I listened and noted what themes were chosen so I could ask additional questions in order to further explore the research area. As a result, the order of the research questions followed the flow of the topics according to the respondent and offered the first round of analysis of the mentoring phenomena given with the description of participants’ experiences (Kvale, 1996, Smith et al., 2012). The themes of respondents also varied according to the phase of the mentoring relationships that mentors were involved in. The mentors, when talking about the mentoring experience and understanding of the mentoring role during the first round of interviews, focused on the common topics of: 1) Initial motivation for mentoring involvement; 2) Expectations about the mentoring role; 3) First experiences and satisfaction with mentoring meetings; and 4) Expectations for the future.

Following that, the second round of interviews with mentors covered the topics of: 1) Mentoring experiences with children; 2) Perception of children and understanding of the mentoring role; 3) Perception of challenges and coping strategies; 4) Approach to cooperation with children; and 5) Expectations for the future.

Finally, the last round of interviews identified the following themes of mentors’ experiences: 1) Mentors’ understanding of the mentoring role;
2) Experiences with mentoring involvement; 3) Character of mentoring interactions; 4) Dynamics of relationships; and 5) Perceived satisfaction and benefits of mentoring involvement.

**2) Open Coding of the Transcripts**

In the second stage of analysis, the data was transcribed verbatim. There were 98 interviews undertaken with mentors, parents, and children on their mentoring experience over 12 months. I initially included everything in the analysis and divided it into ten case studies. Each case study was composed of three interviews with a mentor, a mentee, and a parent.

The transcripts were firstly listened to and read repeatedly in hard copy. In accordance with the IPA, the focus was on developing analytical memos for preliminary understanding of the experiential claims, concerns, and understandings of mentoring participants. In particular, the understanding of how the sections of interviews were bound together was sought. For instance, the chronological structure of interviews and their themes were noticed (Smith et al., 2012).

Following that, the transcripts of the ten case study interviews were downloaded into NVivo software. The first round of analysis in NVivo consisted of generating the non-hierarchical open codes for all case interviews in case studies. The aim was to deconstruct the original chronology of interviews and produce a comprehensive and detailed set of codes that described the things that mattered to respondents and their meanings for the participants (Smith et al., 2012). The three types of codes identified by Smith et al. (Ibid) were used in the analysis:

1) **Descriptive Codes** described the contents of the interviews in terms of respondents’ concerns, interests, key objects, and events and experiences they talked about, interpreted in my own words. It illuminated the objects that constructed participants’ thoughts and experiences (Ibid).

2) **Linguistic Codes** focused on the specifics of individuals’ language and expressions that were used for describing the experiences. It highlighted the emotional and other contexts of individual’s experiences in participants’ own words.

3) **Conceptual Codes** highlighted the pieces of interviews that took the analyst's special attention. These parts were commented on with
thoughts on meanings, preliminary understanding, and contextual notes on interviews and additional questions.

As a result, the main themes, repetitive words, and general dynamics of case studies on mentoring experiences in relationships were recorded.

3) Managing Codes and Developing Emergent Themes:

Idiographic Analysis of 10 Case Studies

After the initial open coding, management of the open codes was employed. This involved categorization of open codes with the renaming, distilling, clustering and merging of related codes into broader categories, that is, into the emergent themes of case studies (Bazeley, 2007; Smith et al., 2012). Following the commitment to an idiographic approach, each interview was divided into parts and described in its own categories, that is, emergent themes (Ibid). Following that, I produced the first draft of analysis that described each case study in its themes of mentoring experiences and their chronological order. Thus, the characteristics and dynamics of ten mentoring relationships, as well as the themes of mentoring experiences, were revealed.

4) Searching for Connections among Emergent Themes across Case Studies

As a result of in-depth analysis of the case studies, I could compare the emergent themes among cases and select those that were common for all mentoring relationships. The fourth round focused on the detailed idiographic thematic analysis of each participant's account on mentoring experience that was made feasible by recruiting a small sample (Smith et al., 2012). Thus, in this stage, I reduced the analysis to the data of 33 interviews with mentors only. Ten themes emerged as common to mentoring experience from the mentors’ perspective, and each theme contained the parts of interviews of ten mentors which described the theme. These themes were:

1) Initial motivation of mentors for volunteering;

2) Perceived competence and expectations about mentoring involvement;

3) First impressions on mentoring meetings;

4) Perceived characteristics of the role;
5) Perceived characteristics of the child and their needs;

6) Selection of mentoring activities;

7) Experiences of mentoring interactions;

8) Perceived characteristics of mentoring relationship and involvement;

9) Perceived satisfaction in the mentoring role;

10) Perceived benefits of mentoring involvement

5) Comparing and Contrasting the Themes on Mentoring Experience across Mentors and Application of SDT Theory

The emergent common themes of the mentoring experience from the mentors' accounts were further compared and contrasted. In commitment to the hermeneutic circle, I compared and contrasted both the chronological order of the themes and dynamics of case studies in general and the particular experiences of mentors in relation to the themes. I also compared the particular accounts on themes chronologically across three phases of mentoring involvement (Smith et al., 2012). This involved developing sub-codes on selected themes, re-coding them, and re-ordering them in the new order of their chronology. Thus, a better understanding of the differences in experiences, meanings, and dynamics of mentoring involvement were described as embedded under these common themes (Bazeley, 2007, Smith et al., 2012).

Under the comparison of experiences of mentoring themes, two distinctive types of mentoring experience were identified and described. I reported on these two types of mentoring experience that created the two dynamics of mentoring relationships described in SDT. The characteristics and dynamics of relationships were described as controlling and autonomy-supportive relationships (Ryan, Solicy, 1997, Deci et al., 1994, Weinstein, Ryan, 2010) following the super-ordinate themes of:

1) Initial motivation for volunteering;

2) Understanding of the mentoring role and cooperation with the child;
3) Resultant characteristics and dynamics of mentoring relationships.

The patterns of relationships were compared in terms of mentors’ involvement experienced under these themes. The relational features that developed characteristics of mentoring experiences and the impact of developed characteristics on resulted satisfaction and dynamics of mentoring experience were identified in two types of matches: Controlling and Autonomy-Supportive Relationships

The ten previously identified common themes of mentoring experiences were further analyzed under the three major super-ordinate themes, and the characteristics and dynamics of mentoring processes were revealed in chronological order.

6) Abstraction and Writing Up

Following the comparison of themes on mentoring experiences, I applied SDT to the data for explanation and discussion of the research results. I identified the features of controlling and autonomy supportive mentors according to CET. Consequently, following the aims and objectives of the thesis, I explained and discussed the impact of difference in the mentoring approach to resultant quality and dynamics of developed FYMRs. As such, the experience of mentoring phenomena from the mentors’ perspective was generalized and discussed according to the theoretical framework of SDT.

Smith et al. (2012) argued that the capacity to notice particularly resonant parts of interviews develops with the depth of analysis. These extracts then represent whole interviews and illuminate the analysis of the whole (Ibid). During the abstraction and write-up of the thesis, the data was reduced into the quotes and extracts that best represented the research results. I analyzed them with analytical comments and discussed them in relation to the literature in the final draft of the thesis. As a result, the Initial Motivation of Mentors and its Impact on Characteristics of Mentoring Approach, as well as on Quality and Dynamics of FYMRs, were revealed and concluded (See the results chapters and discussion with conclusions chapter below).
3.5. Adaptation of Vocabulary in the Research Analysis

The IPA method argues that phenomena are contextualized by language, past experience, socialization, and culture (Larkin, Watts, & Clifton, 2006: 103-4). Thus, following the theoretical concept of Dasein (Ibid), I paid particular attention to the language of research participants in the analysis. I compared and contrasted the expressions and tone of the mentors in describing their mentoring experiences with children. For instance, their expressions regarding their initial motivation differed in the focus on “self” and expectations of concrete benefits with the particular child versus motivation focused on more generally enjoyable experiences that mentors expected to receive in the volunteering role with children. Their views of children and their competencies, and their expectations of challenge in children's behavior during the mentoring meetings was also varied in terms of the positive and negative tone (Smith et al., 2012) the mentors used when speaking of these experiences. The mentors were similarly positive or negative in terms of satisfaction in their mentoring role and in their relationships with the children after 5 months and 10 months of mentoring involvement. As such, the language the mentors used was considered in the analysis, especially in the first analytical phases. As a result, the categorisation of mentoring experiences and the expressions that mentors used matched with the characteristics described in SDT in terms of controlling and autonomy-supportive relationships. The language and expressions mentors used thus differed significantly according to their initial motivations and subsequent approach to relationships they created with children. The categories of analysis were thus built on the differences in expressions about mentoring experience. I applied SDT to the data to generalize the categories of mentoring experiences with the relevant literature.
3.6. RELIABILITY

Reliability pertains to the consistency of the research study (Kvale, 1996: 235). Kvale (Ibid) emphasized the importance of high reliability of the interviews, transcriptions, and analysis of the research study. I will discuss the reliability of the study in these three main phases of the data management.

The reliability of the interviewer as a research instrument in the interviewing process is enhanced by an interviewer who is knowledgeable of the topic investigated, a master of conversation skills, and is proficient in language listening. A reliable interviewer also has a sense for story and facilitates the unfolding of narratives in respondents (Kvale, 1996). In addition, a reliable interviewer facilitates a structure in interviews; poses clear, simple and short questions; and is empathetic. S/he knows the purpose of the interview and steers its course and listens actively, but with the critical lens to question the reliability and validity of the information obtained. Thus, the interviewer interprets and questions the answers in addition to the questions of interviews (Kvale, 1996: 148-9).

I argue that I was a reliable interviewer in relation to these qualities. I enjoy interactions with people and especially interviewing on the topics in which we both shared an interest. I posed the questions on topics and themes and let the interviewees talk about their own experiences. I was empathetic with atonement to the respondents, tolerant to their own pace of speech, and easy-going. I also remembered the earlier statements of respondents and connected them with the questions on the similar information given. I encouraged respondents to talk about even their unconventional opinions and experiences. Thus, the interviews were smooth; interviews unfolded in the flow and were enjoyable as well as insightful experiences for both the interview respondents and me.

The reliability of transcripts was facilitated by transcribing all interviews in verbatim. Thus, even if more than one person conducted the transcription, I argue that transcription in verbatim enhanced the reliability of the records. In addition, the transcripts were listened to repeatedly by me, together with the written transcripts, before the analysis in NVivo commenced.

Finally, the reliability of the analysis was enhanced by following the IPA method of analysis. The analysis was conducted by me and regularly supervised and revised by two academic supervisors. The supervisors made
comments on the names of categories, content of analysis, and especially the comprehension of the research reports where the analysis was presented. As such, I argue that the reliability of the analysis is evident in the flow of the research thesis where the findings are presented.

3.7. VALIDITY

Kvale (1996: 238) argues that validity pertains to the degree to which the research methodology enables the reflection and observation of phenomena of interest. Thus, he argues that construct validity is a concept in which the validity of the qualitative phenomenological research study can be argued (Ibid). Smith et al. (2012:27) argues that valid understanding in hermeneutics means primarily understanding of what is being said before understanding of the context. In addition, Kvale argues (Ibid) that validity consists of continual checking, questioning, and theorizing the findings in the research process. Thus, he argues for the concept of validity as craftsmanship. As a result, validity as craftsmanship is crucial for the evaluation of the scientific knowledge produced (1996: 242).

Kvale (Ibid) argues that checking the validity of interpretation involves checking the empirical data for and against the interpretation, and examining the theoretical coherence and critically evaluating the relative plausibility of different interpretations of the same act. The validity of the data interpretation was checked in these terms continually throughout the process of analysis and write-up of the thesis in cooperation with research supervisors.

Kvale (Ibid) also reminded that the content and purpose of the research must precede the process of research. Kvale (Ibid) argues that in hermeneutics interpretation, the question posed at the beginning of the research process is crucial for validity of data collection and analysis. The presented study was proposed as a qualitative longitudinal research study to explore experiences of mentoring participants with mentoring and led with this aim throughout the research stages.

Furthermore, the validity of research interviews is often questioned with the argument that the respondent does not state a truth (Ibid). I argue that the social constructivist framework with phenomenological methodology
validates the different statements about the experiences of the phenomena of interest.

The validity of methodology is questioned in deciding whether the methodology investigates what is intended to be explored. I argue that the phenomenological methodology with methods of IPA (Smith et al., 2012) and phenomenological interviewing (Kvale, 1996) is suitable for the investigation of experiences of mentoring participants with mentoring phenomena. In addition, Kvale (Ibid) argues that validation of the research process generates theoretical questions about the phenomena investigated. I argue that theoretical knowledge grasped in the previous research on mentoring and in the theory and research on significant adults in children’s positive development was deemed a suitable theoretical framework that explains, theorizes, and validates the knowledge generated in the research.

3.8. GENERALIZABILITY
IPA argues that the idiographic commitment applies the inductive approach in analysis of the data. Data analysis contains the step of generalization of the data when research results from individual experiences of the explored phenomena are discussed with the theory that explains and generalizes the experience. I argue that the presented research study applied Self-Determination Theory (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000) to explain and discuss the processes in FYMRs that moderated with mentors’ experiences and understandings in their mentoring role. Thus, the individuals’ experiences, perceptions, and understandings were explained in a deeper and broader context with SDT. Thus, the application of SDT generalized the research results.

3.9. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY
The study has a few limitations that I want to identify, reflect on, and discuss:
Firstly, the research results present the mentoring experiences of mentors only. I initially interviewed and analyzed mentees, their parents, and case workers, but did not include them in the final analysis. I used the views of all mentoring participants in the initial stages of analysis for exploring the broader context of themes in mentoring matches. However, I concluded that
the data in interviews with mentors contained the most enriching information. And as I argued that mentors have a crucial impact on the quality of FYMRs, and as a qualitative longitudinal in-depth study on helping processes facilitated by mentors in FYMRs has not been conducted to date, I argue that the focus on mentors only enriches the current literature and knowledge. It adds to the original in-depth study on mentors and characteristics of their approach to children in the mentoring bond. In addition, it discusses the impact of the mentors’ approach on satisfaction and benefits of mentoring for children. Thus, children are considered in the research indirectly as recipients of analyzed mentors’ approaches.

Secondly, the qualitative design of the study is limited in the size of the research sample. I did not use any quantitative research method to validate the research findings. However, I argue that the qualitative analysis I conducted is in-depth to the extent to which the qualitatively analyzed data validated itself in the results of the research study. I analyzed the interviews in the way I re-constructed the data in the new context that shows deeper complex processes, characteristics, and dynamics of FYMRs that were not revealed in the research to date. Due to the depth of analysis, the research results showed new complexity, context, processes, and themes of FYMRs mediated by mentors. As the study of this research design and depth of analysis had not been conducted to date, I argue that study can be limited to qualitative design only as it contributes to the knowledge in its original way.

Finally, the study was conducted longitudinally three times over 12 months of mentoring involvement. While it would be useful and interesting if the study continued in data collection during the second year of mentoring experience, I was limited in time for the field work in the research study and a second year of tracking the matches was not possible to organize. However, it is possible that I may track the research participants again in the future following their post-mentoring experiences.
3.10. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER III

In sum, the methodology of the research study aimed to follow the research aims and objectives in exploration of the helping processes of FYMRs. Thus, the study was designed in qualitative approach with phenomenological methodology in a constructivist interpretive framework. In particular, 96 longitudinal in-depth semi-structured interviews on experiences of mentoring participants with mentoring in BBBS CZ were conducted with two case workers, ten parents, and 11 children and mentors three times over 12 months of mentoring involvement. The interviews were transcribed in verbatim and analyzed in NVivo software following the method of IPA. This chapter also discussed the ethics of the study; along with reliability, validity, and generalizability of the research methodology.

I found the research design of a qualitative longitudinal tracking study following the formal mentoring relationships to be a very suitable research design for exploring helping processes in FYMRs. It is one of the few studies that qualitatively tracked matches over an extended period of time. The three rounds of interviews showed that the longitudinal research design captured the data that concerns the so-far unknown depth of information about the helping processes in FYMRs. The IPA analysis proved suitable to qualitative research in formal youth mentoring interventions, especially due to its focus on analysis of experiences with lived phenomena.

As a result, following the theoretical framework and designed research methodology, the findings are presented in the following four chapters. Firstly, the quality of initial motivations of mentors for volunteering is analyzed in Chapter IV. Chapter V discusses how the quality of initial motivation impacts on the coping skills of mentors with perceived mentoring challenges. Furthermore, Chapter VI similarly discusses the impact of quality of initial motivation on helping attitudes and quality of provided social supports in developed mentoring bonds. Finally, Chapter VII argues the characteristics, quality, and dynamics of the mentoring bonds that developed over 11 months following the quality of initial motivation. All results of the thesis are subsequently discussed and concluded in Chapter VIII.
CHAPTER IV: INITIAL MOTIVATIONS OF MENTORS FOR MENTORING INVOLVEMENT

4.0. INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER IV

The previous chapters outlined the theoretical framework and research methodology for exploring the impact of initial motivation on quality and dynamics of FYMRs developed over 11 months of mentoring involvement. Following that, the first analysis Chapter IV argues that initial motivation of mentors had autonomous and controlling quality (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000). In particular, experiences of mentoring involvement differed according to volunteers’ motivations for becoming mentors in the BBBS programme. All mentors mentioned their expectations regarding what they would like to gain from the mentoring involvement. Their expectations were then analyzed as initial motivations and discussed according to the perspective of SDT and theory on functions of social relationships (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Weiss, 1973). As a result, the initial motivations for mentoring involvement were divided to controlling and autonomous following the theoretical framework of the thesis (Ibid).
4.1. **Mentors with Initial Controlling Motivations**

Firstly, data showed that six volunteers expected to satisfy their BHN by becoming mentors. They expected to gain extrinsic rewards and experience satisfaction from their mentoring involvement sourced out of EPLOC (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000). In addition, one mentor had serious doubts about getting involved in the mentoring relationship. Mentors with controlling motivations (Ibid) expected to feel emotionally supported by the other volunteers, attest to their own competence in the mentoring role, and to feel needed, helpful, and useful by/for the child (Ibid).

4.1.1. **Initial Amotivation for the Mentoring Role**

One mentor was amotivated for starting the mentoring role as she recalled her initial hesitation and doubts about the purpose and enjoyment of her future mentoring role. She contrasted her mentoring involvement with her personal relationships and was deciding which of these relationships would provide her with a better opportunity to experience her need for relatedness (Ibid):

L: I had several doubts (in the beginning)....initially when I came to the BBBS training I saw the other girls how much excited they were about it...I wasn´t excited about it at all....I was almost about to leave, to say: 'Look, I am sorry but I don't want to be here, I am going back home, I don't want it anymore...'...I was thinking about starting my own family and having a baby that time, my own child, so I wouldn't have that much time to give it....I asked myself what was I doing there actually?....well, and then I stayed and started to look forward to it....and another phase I doubted then was when they found and offered me a match with Denisa...I was deciding if I actually really want it....if I am able to commit to it for that 1 year at least...

T: And you decided that you were (able to commit to it)?
L: I realized that it didn’t look like I’m going to have a baby yet.

*(Luisa, January, 2011)*
4.1.2. **CONTROLLING MOTIVATIONS WITH EXTERNAL REGULATIONS**

Secondly, two mentors were motivated to initiate involvement in the mentoring relationship by the extrinsic benefits of the certificate that is provided by the BBBS programme at the end of the mentoring contract. These mentors said that they intended to use the formal certificate to help them to pursue their future profession. Hence, I argue that the achievement of the certificate was an external regulation with which the mentors initiated the mentoring commitment (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000):

*M: My first motivation was simply to gain an experience in this NGO because I was thinking about my future studies at college in psychology where they require previous experience so it was my first motivation and that’s how I got the idea to seek and become involved in something like that otherwise, to be honest, I would not think about anything like that at all (laughs).*

(Marta, December, 2011)

*M: …I’d kind of need…the paper from the BBBS that certifies that I went through the training and can work (elsewhere).*

(Matylda, January, 2011)

4.1.3. **INTROJECTIONS**

Moreover, mentors were motivated from EPLOC with introjections, and I argue that the data shows evidence of ego-involvement in mentors’ initial motivations (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000, Ryan, 1991, 1993).

4.1.3.1. **INTROJECTION WITH EGO – INVOLVEMENT: THE NEED IN REASSURANCE OF WORTH**

Firstly, controlling mentors were motivated to initiate volunteering with the motivation of attesting to their competence in the different roles they expected to encounter in the mentoring relationship. For instance, Marta, besides the external regulation, was regulated by the expectation of attesting to her competence for a future professional role. She chose volunteering for BBBS as she presumed the programme would provide her with an opportunity

34 Weiss (1974) argued that reassurance of worth occurs in relationships that provide an opportunity for attesting individual’s competence in relationship’s role.
to experience the need for competence. Consequently, through the experience of competence in the mentoring role, she also expected to improve her sense of self-worth (Weiss, 1973, Ryan, Deci, 2000):

M: ...you don’t really know what you can give the child (without experience) ...
T: What do you mean in particular?
M: (You see) if you have any skills or any particular views on life that you can show and interpret to the child...so I wanted to prove it mainly to find out if I am into the work with people, into the contact with them you know ...so I log on to the internet and then it went fast...NGO’s with BBBS/5P on the list. I intentionally wanted to work with children or people without physical disability.

(Marta, January, 2011)

Another volunteer, Květa, initiated mentoring involvement with the expectation that she be seen as a female role model for the child, and hence mediate her female attitudes and experiences to the mentee. In other words, Květa became involved as a mentor in order to satisfy the need for competence and re-assurance of her worth in the specific female roles she constructed in the relationship. I argue that Květa was motivated by introjected regulation of ego-involvement to fulfil her need for reassurance of worth (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000, Weiss, 1973) through the experience of a mentoring relationship. Thus, her need for reassurance of worth functioned as the extrinsic regulation that controlled her mentoring involvement from EPLOC (Ryan Deci, 1985, 2000, Weiss, 1973):

K: The idea that you can inspire someone with your own example...so I thought that I’m not that entirely bad and that it could work out.....and I became interested in her because I felt that there would be a need for, well, I am always saying the female role model even though I am no superwoman at all (Laugh)...but as she misses her mum I thought...it is kind of good here that the girl would be meeting with a female and that I could show her how things work from the female perspectives.

(Květa, January, 2011)

Similarly, Luisa intended to be reassured about her worth as the respected role model she expected to be in the mentoring relationship. In particular, she expected to be appreciated by the child for her involvement that would, in turn, reinforce her own self-esteem. I argue that the controlling ego-involvement that regulated Luisa’s involvement in the mentoring relationship
from EPLOC was expressed in the expectation of positive development in the child:

L: I expect to feel good that she will be able to see something new thanks to me, she will learn new things, she will enjoy the time thanks to me…otherwise she would only be sitting at home by her computer or stuff.

(Luisa, January, 2011)

4.1.3.2. INTROJECTIONS WITH EGO – INVOLVEMENT: THE NEED FOR OPPORTUNITY FOR NURTURANCE\(^\text{35}\)

Secondly, mentors’ involvement was also motivated by intentions to feel needed, useful, and responsible for the child. There was an expectation that this in turn would mentors feel good about themselves. I argue that these mentors were regulated by an introjected controlling motivation with ego-involvement driven towards the need for relatedness, specified as a need for opportunity for nurturance (Ryan, Deci, 2000, LaGuardía, 2009, Weiss, 1973).

Matylda expected to help someone in need who would in turn appreciate her support. She felt sympathy for the children in need that she would volunteer with and help. She expressed a hope of “saving” at least one child in need in the mentoring role would make her feel good about herself. Similarly, Viki expected that the feeling of being needed by the child in the mentoring relationship would make her feel good about herself:

T: How would you describe what the volunteer is doing? What would you expect?
M: They are helping the people who are in need and who appreciate it. They don’t do it out of obligation but out of their good will and for the good feeling they gain…they would not expect anything for it such as gratitude or money. They just have a feeling that they want to help someone…. you know….I felt kind of sorry for those kids in some ways….I know I won’t save the world but I hope I can help at least one child…. if it was one child only it would still be better than no one.

(Matylda, January, 2011)

V: I thought I would spend my time meaningfully and that I would help someone…and that it will help me at the same time...
T: And can you say in what ways for instance?

\(^{35}\) Weiss (1973: 109) argues that the need for opportunity for nurturance is fulfilled in relationships where an adult takes responsibility for the well-being of the child, and so can develop a sense of being needed. Weiss (1973) argued that the lack in opportunity for nurturance leads to feelings of pointlessness.
V: That feeling of someone’s need; that someone knows that I am here for him, that I am doing something meaningful.

(Viki, January, 2011)

Barbel also felt she could be helpful for someone in her mentoring role. I argue that her statements are expressions of ego-involvement regulations motivated by an expectation to satisfy her need for relatedness in the mentoring role. Similarly, Luisa mentioned that a lack of opportunity for nurturance with her partner caused her feelings of emptiness (Weiss, 1973) and led to her involvement in the BBBS programme. Thus she was motivated by a need for relatedness and nurturance (Ryan, Deci, 2000, Weiss, 1973) whereby she expected to feel useful by taking responsibility for a mentee’s care and well-being:

T: What is your motivation for volunteering? Why do you volunteer?
B: I can help someone. I can be useful

(Barbel, January, 2011)

L: I thought I would spend more time with my boyfriend, I felt I did not dedicate him enough time...however it turned out that he was not interested in it that much so I was looking for something else that would be meaningful...someone who would be interested (in my time)....so I thought it would be interesting to try to be useful for someone, helpful...as one can feel kind of useful with doing something

(Luisa, January, 2011)

4.1.3.2. INTROJECTIONS WITH EGO – INVOLVEMENT: THE NEED FOR SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL INTEGRATION

Finally, some mentors initiated a mentoring relationship out of their relational needs for the friendship and emotional support they expected to experience in the mentoring role. Barbel initiated her mentoring relationship with the intention of sharing social events, interests, and experiences with the child. She expected to be better integrated into her new place of living. However, even though the primary goal of the BBBS programme is to create a match in

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36 Weiss (1973) argued that the need for social integration is fulfilled in relationships where sharing concerns, situations, interests, similar objectives, etc. occurs.
which interests and experiences can be shared, the intention is that social integration is primarily facilitated for children. Hence, I argue that Barbel’s initial motivation to volunteer was driven from EPLOC, in particular because the mentoring relationship was expected to become an instrument for the satisfaction of her need (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000, Weiss, 1973):

B: When I was looking for a job online I found this by the way and decided I wanted to try it because I like these opportunities...in particular, I can have a friend here because I’m new in this place not even here for 3 months.

(Barbel, January, 2011)

Similarly, Luisa was motivated by the expectation of experiencing emotional support she had previously gained from other volunteers. She expected that her involvement in the BBBS supervision meetings would fulfil her needs for emotional integration (Weiss, 1973)\(^{37}\). Thus, she expected to benefit from involvement in the BBBS programme rather than from involvement in the mentoring relationship with the child. In other words, I argue that she was motivated from EPLOC with the need for relatedness she expected to experience in the group of volunteers:

L: As I am employed in IT, we don’t communicate between our peers, this is something special for me...it’s like giving a candy to the kid.... You suddenly have a space to talk about what you’re worried about...which is something I don’t normally have available that much in my life.

(Luisa, January, 2011)

### 4.2. Mentors with Initial Autonomous Motivations

On the contrary, mentors with initial autonomous motivations got involved in the programme due to their autonomous interest in volunteering. Their involvement was based on their pro-social values and attitudes that matched with the mission of the BBBS programme and the mentoring role. They expected that their autonomous values and attitudes could be experienced in the mentoring involvement with children. Thus, they became involved as they identified with the value of the mentoring programme.

\(^{37}\) “Emotional integration is provided in relationships that offer the stabilization of emotions through acceptance and supportive interactions” (Weiss, 1973).
In addition, they were intrinsically motivated to build a nurturing relationship with the child. Their mentoring involvement was driven intrinsically by the interest, enjoyment, and excitement they felt about the prospect of a relationship with children. Thus, there was an expectation that the nature of the mentoring relationship itself would be inherently satisfying for autonomously motivated mentors (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000). As such, I argue that their statements about their motivation for mentoring involvement had a more general character in comparison to the particular expectations and focus on “me” of controlling mentors. In addition, their motivations were stated clearly and expressed without hesitation.

For instance, Tina mentioned that the mission of the programme made her participate voluntarily in BBBS CZ as it reflected her pro-social values. Similarly, Ivan felt that as a volunteer he could contribute to the community and “give back” to society in return for the social benefits he had received in the past. In general, he valued the social interaction of volunteering in BBBS as he felt that the experience of volunteering was in congruence with his pro-social attitudes. Hence, the role of mentor in BBBS was autonomously satisfying as it was fulfilling the general values and attitudes they identified with:

T: and what was your motivation for applying for volunteering in this programme?
T: …I got interested in it due to its mission, the theme it dedicates the services to….  
(Tina, December, 2011)

I: I am a volunteer…I am not sure if since 2004 or 2006…. but my motivation is still the same…. I don’t wanna go to hell (Laughs) …and I feel that….as I’ve received many social benefits from the society I think it is necessary to give back …  
(Ivan, December, 2011)

Moreover, similar to controlling mentors, Sára and Nina expected to experience an opportunity for nurturance in the mentoring role. However, contrary to the controlling mentors, they expected that the satisfaction of the need would be inherently experienced due to the nature of the relationship with the child. They had experienced mentoring relationships informally before and expected to repeat the experience, as they perceived it inherently satisfying.
Sára became interested in the programme when she saw her friend volunteering with a mentee. She liked the general idea of a mentoring relationship and the BBBS programme because she felt her participation in it would be in congruence with her pro-social values and attitudes. Thus, Sára identified with the mission of the mentoring role. In addition, she had experienced a similar mentoring relationship as a childcare worker before, and expected to experience the inherent value of the relationship. Hence, I argue that her involvement was autonomously regulated by identification with the pro-social values of the mentoring role and out of the intrinsic enjoyment of the relationship with the child she expected the mentoring role would offer her.

Moreover, Nina also expected to be satisfied in her involvement due to the nature of the mentoring relationship. She chose the BBBS programme because she valued its focus on children, and especially the role of volunteer. She expected to find the role of mentor intrinsically satisfying due to the enjoyment and fun she would experience with the mentee. Like Sára, Nina also expected that the perceived value of the mentoring experience would be inherently satisfying for her. She based her expectation on previous experiences of enjoyable relationships with children:

T: How did you get to know about the programme?
S: From Martina, the volunteer in here (BBBS)….I got information on it from her and I liked it….I liked the idea of it in general….I thought it was all a great idea….One wants to do something to feel that apart from work and duties there is still something else I do for someone else, not for myself only; and at the same time I do it for myself because it is satisfying….It is a meaningful activity and I like children in general….and especially the relationship with them….do silly things with them, and it is a different dimension of love, I mean the dimension of some kind of emotion the adult keeps towards the child….I worked as an au-pair before so I experienced something similar….so I applied for it.

(Sára, January, 2011)

N:…I always wanted to volunteer, I only didn’t know exactly in what but I was sure I wanted to do something on my own so I would feel good that I am doing something useful….I wanted to do something I could have a satisfying feeling with and even have fun and get to know many new things….and I think it changes you, for sure it does….Just the relationship as it is special, different from those I have with my peers or you know….I really like children, I always did childminding on our family parties and stuff…but we are all girls in our family so it was a kind of big change for me (the
BBBS mentoring relationship because I don’t know any boy this age, I don’t know how they act, the games they like and stuff so it is a change for me, and a very beneficial thing that I can experience ...

(Nina, January, 2011).

4.3. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER IV

The data analysis clearly showed that six out of ten mentors were initially amotivated, or regulated for mentoring involvement from EPLOC with controlling external or introjected regulations (Ryan, Deci, 1985). In addition, I argued that mentors with initial controlling motivations were regulated by an expectation of satisfying basic human needs in the mentoring role.

In particular, mentors with controlling motivations expected to attest to their competence and experience satisfaction of the need in reassurance of worth (Weiss, 1973), or in relatedness as an opportunity for nurturance when they intended to experience feelings of being needed by children in mentoring relationships (Weiss, 1973). In addition, the need for social and emotional integration (Ibid) also controlled mentors’ involvement. In other words, mentors were motivated by intentions to satisfy their own basic human needs (Deci, Ryan, 2000), and were thus involved in the mentoring relationship with controlling introjected motivations regulated out of EPLOC with ego-involvement (Ibid). Finally, the data showed that amotivation also regulated mentors’ involvement and complemented the initial controlling motivations (Ryan, Deci, 2000, 1985, LaGuardía, 2009, Ryan, 1991, 1993).

On the contrary, all autonomously motivated mentors mentioned that they volunteered because they identified their own values and attitudes with the mission of the BBBS programme and saw the value of mentoring relationships. At the same time, they emphasized that they became involved because they expected to experience enjoyment, interest, and/or excitement in the relationship with the child. In other words, they recognized the intrinsically satisfying nature of mentoring relationships, and presumed that the experience of the mentoring activity itself would provide them with the opportunity to experience satisfaction of BHN (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000) as their interests were in congruence mentoring role. As such, I argue that mentors saw the mentoring role as congruent with their own values, attitudes,
and authentic self. Their mentoring involvement was thus driven autonomously with self-determination from IPLOC.

In conclusion, according to SDT theory applied to the data, the initial motivations were divided into two major groups: Controlling and Autonomous. The motivations of mentors were expressed with the experiences summarized in the Table 1 (See below).

Table 1: Summary of Initial Motivations for Mentoring Involvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality of Motivation</th>
<th>Type of Motivation</th>
<th>Summary of Particular Expectations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AMOTIVATION</td>
<td></td>
<td>Hesitation about the future mentoring involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONTROLLING MOTIVATIONS</td>
<td>External Regulations</td>
<td>Expected awards from BBBS for voluntary involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introjections</td>
<td>To feeling good for being needed, useful and/or responsible for the child</td>
<td>To attest and confirm once competence as a role model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>To integrate socially into a group of mentors/community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>To experience emotional integration - share one’s feelings with other mentors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUTONOMOUS MOTIVATIONS:Identification</td>
<td>Recognized value of the mission of the mentoring programme</td>
<td>Recognized value of the volunteering in giving back to the society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Motivation</td>
<td>Expected enjoyment of the play in one-to-one relationship with the child</td>
<td>Expected inherent satisfaction from the experience of the relationship with the child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interest in children</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Consequently, the results showed clearly that the quality of mentors’ initial motivation impacted on:

1. quality of established styles in coping with mentoring challenges and limit setting on children’s behavior;
2. the quality of social supports provided in mentoring interactions;
3. the level of satisfaction in the mentoring role and the dynamics of the mentoring bond.

I now move on to demonstrate how, in keeping CET (Solky, Ryan, 1989, Ryan, 1991, 1993, Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000, Deci et al., 1994), the initial motivations of volunteers led to the development of two distinct types of formal mentoring relationships over 11 months of mentoring involvement: 1) Controlling relationships and 2) Autonomy Supportive Relationships. I discuss these results on characteristics, quality, and dynamics of these two types of FYMR in the following three analysis chapters. The following Chapter V presents findings on the mediators of coping with perceived mentoring challenges, and
their impact on the dynamics of developed mentoring bonds following the quality of initial motivation for volunteering.
CHAPTER V: COPING WITH

PERCEIVED CHALLENGES IN THE
MENTORING ROLE

5.0. INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER V

I argued in Chapter II that the emotional engagement of mentors in the mentoring bond can trigger challenges. All mentors need to deal with the emotional dilemmas that their involvement in relationships with children involves (Štech, 1999, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010). However, the experience of a perceived challenge in the mentoring role can trigger memories of earlier life experiences which may lead to uncomfortable feelings and emotions (Ibid). The nature of the mentoring bond challenges the mentors to cope with these relational dilemmas that are inherent in the mentoring role (Ibid). Two major challenges of mentoring involvement were identified in the literature on youth mentoring and teaching (Ibid):

1. **Challenge of emotional acceptance vs. non-acceptance of the mentor in the mentoring bond:** The mentor wants to experience relatedness with the child. Thus, s/he needs to feel that their emotional investment in the mentoring relationship is meaningful. In other words, s/he needs to feel that their interest in the child is accepted and appreciated by the mentee. As such, the mentor needs to cope with the challenge of the need for feedback from the child (Štech, 1999, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková 2010).

2. **Challenge of distance versus closeness in the mentoring role:** The formal mentoring relationship is characterized by a natural asymmetry between an older, wiser, and more experienced adult
supervised by programme professionals and a mentee with his or her identified needs for the mentoring intervention. At the same time, the mentor aims to develop a close, trusting, and informal supportive bond with the mentee. Thus, the mentor must cope with the distance arising from the nature of the mentoring role. In particular, mentors can experience the dilemma of how to approach children despite the differences between them. To develop a supportive mentoring bond, mentors must negotiate a balance between emotional distance and closeness in the mentoring roles.

This chapter analyzes how mentors coped with these challenges. In particular, from the outset of the mentoring relationships, the nature of involvement of mentors was characterized by differences in coping style that mentors employed when they experienced a perceived challenge in the mentoring role. As a result, the analysis showed clearly that the style of coping with the perceived challenge in the mentoring role was a significant mediator of the further characteristics, quality, and dynamics of the FYMR. The following chapter explores experiences of challenge and characteristics of coping styles under the following themes:

1) Perceived initial challenges in the mentoring role
2) Characteristics of coping with perceived challenge
3) Characteristics of the limit setting on children’s perceived challenging behavior
4) Resulted dynamics of coping with perceived mentoring challenge

In the following chapter, I argue that the difference between mentors’ style of coping with perceived mentoring challenges was mediated by the controlling and autonomous quality of initial motivations for the mentoring involvement. The data showed that the initial motivation mediated mentors’ perceived competence in the mentoring role. Consequently, mentors’ style in limit setting on children’s challenging behavior in mentoring interactions was moderated by their perceived competence in coping with challenges. As a result, mentors perceived mentoring challenges differently, and consequently
developed different ways of coping with the challenges they faced in the mentoring role.

5.1. Controlling Mentors

We will see in this section that controlling mentors were challenged to accept the perceived distance between them and the children from the early stage of their mentoring involvement. In particular, they expected the children to display negative characteristics, and as a result, they experienced a discrepancy between their negative expectations regarding children’s risk behavior and their actual positive experiences with children during the first mentoring meetings. Mentors were thus challenged by this discrepancy between their initial expectations arising from their initial controlling motivations and the emotional experiences of the first mentoring meetings with the children. As they identified with their negative expectations about the children, they found it challenging to change their initial attitudes. Thus, they were resistant to accept the real and positive experiences they had with children from the outset of the relationship. The ego-involvement controlled mentors from EPLOC and prevented them from accepting the reality they experienced with children as it conflicted with their intentions.

Controlling mentors described their acceptance of children in terms of initial positive involvement and emotional availability for the meetings with the children. At the same time, they also expressed the feeling that they were sacrificing their own enjoyment to meet the mentees needs. Mentors thus positive feedback from children on their involvement in return for their sacrifice. Controlling mentors were also challenged to cope with the experiences of intense emotional closeness expressed through emotional over involvement and co-dependence of children from the outset of relationships. Due to their initial ego-involvement with the intention to feel needed or/and useful, the emotional over-involvement in the mentoring bond was satisfying for mentors.

Mentors developed controlling styles in limit setting (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Deci et al., 1994) that were designed to limit the expected challenges in mentoring interactions with children. Firstly, controlling mentors set strict rules that the children were required to follow from the outset of relationships and delineated the aspects of children’s behavior that they were not willing to
accept. Secondly, controlling mentors intended to control perceived challenges by expressing positive regard for children’s obedience and compliance to their expectations. A direct link between children’s compliance and mentors’ positive involvement was evident in the analysis. Mentors’ involvement was contingent on children’s acceptance of their authority in the mentoring bond. Thus, the children were rewarded and accepted with the mentors’ positive involvement only when they complied with their rules. In this way, mentors could limit the expected challenges in children’s behavior with controls established according to their initial motivations.

Controlling mentors developed two dynamics of control in the mentoring bonds from the outset of their mentoring involvement. Firstly, mentors challenged by the dilemma of acceptance vs. non-acceptance (Štech, 1999, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010) of the child became involved in relationships slowly and hesitantly from the outset. Their initial involvement in the mentoring bond was contingent on the children’s explicit positive feedback. In addition, their strict initial expectations of children’s behavior imposed control and evoked tension and conflict in the mentoring dynamic from the outset of relationships. For example, they expressed disappointment and initiated conflict when children’s behavior differed from their expectations. Following that, the initial coping style of control continued after five months of involvement.

Secondly, other controlling mentors who were challenged to cope with the dilemma of emotional closeness in the mentoring bond (Ibid) became involved to the mentoring relationship quickly. However, they perceived that the initial connection was emotionally closer and more intense than they expected. As such, they felt that they had low competence to cope with the challenge of emotional closeness they experienced and expected to be challenged by the same issues in the future.

The challenges faced in coping with these challenges continued and were raised by controlling mentors repeatedly after five and ten months. Thus, mentors’ styles of coping with unresolved mentoring challenges became a core underlying dynamic of controlling relationships. These issues are now explored in greater detail.
5.1.1. **INITIAL PERCEIVED CHALLENGE**

Initially, mentors with controlling motivations experienced two mentoring challenges: 1) A Challenge of Acceptance vs. Non-Acceptance of the Child and 2) A Challenge of Closeness vs. Distance in the Mentoring Bond. The following part of the chapter shows clearly that mentors did not cope with the challenges successfully but instead initiated dynamics of challenge from the outset of mentoring involvement.

### 5.1.1.1. **CHALLENGE OF ACCEPTANCE VS. NON-ACCEPTANCE OF THE CHILD**

Firstly, controlling mentors were challenged to accept the perceived distance between them and the children that occurred at the early stage of the relationships. They initially received information about children from BBBS with negative or concrete expectations about the children. Consequently, they expected challenging behavior throughout the mentoring relationship:

L: They told me she likes to keep things that she doesn’t own because she just likes them...she would not take anything in the shop but here (BBBS clubroom) where she feels safe she might just take something and keep it. So I think we will come across it at some point.

*(Luisa, January, 2011)*

I argue that mentors were challenged to accept the discrepancy between their initial expectations about the functions of the mentoring meetings for their own needs expressed in their initial motivations and the emotional experiences of the first mentoring meetings with the children. In particular, I argue that, as they identified (Ryan, Deci, 1985) with their negative expectations about the children in congruence with their initial controlling motivations, they were rather slow to change these attitudes and thus resistant to accepting the reality of the child’s positive characteristics as experienced during the first mentoring meetings.

As such, I argue that the expectations of challenge in children’s behavior and consequent expectations on children’s performance in the mentoring role arose from the initial negative expectations of the children. This, in turn, created a dynamic of tension in the mentoring relationship. In particular, mentors had to cope with the challenging emotions they experienced arising
from the discrepancy between their initial negative expectations and their actual experiences with mentees:

M: Firstly I was worried as I was told before I met her that she lived in a children’s home, in a special diagnostic children’s institution, and that she was probably abused…so I was quite worried about what kind of a kid she is, what kind of issues she might have….but I am realizing that she is grand, she had friends and I wouldn’t see any issue with her on first impression. So I feel like…my worries were unnecessary…it was actually surprising for me to see that…she is well-behaved, brought up well......she has a similar world perspectives, she is very sensitive....I thought she would be like, not to say bad mannered but that she would lack the basic rules etc....but I see that she has a moral sense. She does not cheat, she would never steal anything...I expected some kind of issues in this way but it looks like she is from an easy family....but she´s not because she´s here (in BBBS). It is quite a contradiction for me. I don´t know what to think about it.

(Marta, February, 2011)

L: We spent one hour together...I expected to spend two hours with her...so I was thinking what happened, you know...I had mixed feelings then....I was thinking again and again what I did, how I acted, and if it was right or not, if I was nice enough and if she´d be willing to go out with me again...

(Luisa, December, 2011)

Controlling mentors described their acceptance of children in terms of initial positive involvement and emotional availability for the meetings with the children. For instance, they often described their intention to organize a meeting after they had to cancel for health reasons. They also adopted the interests of the children as their own interests and were willing to include these activities in the mentoring meetings. Nevertheless, at the same time they expressed the feeling that they sacrificed their own enjoyment to meet the mentees and their needs. For instance, Matylda emphasized that she would tolerate the child’s choice of activity even if she did not particularly fancy it. In addition, their approach was based on negative expectations about children and their challenging behavior before the mentoring meetings started.

I argue that the feeling of endurance of the activity was a part of the controlling ego-involvement style that expected positive feedback as a contingent reward from the mentee in return for their sacrifice in the mentoring role. Thus, I argue that the mentors’ approach of sacrifice in their acceptance of children put pressure on the child to appreciate the mentors’
commitment to the relationship in the way the mentor expected according to their initial motivation. Thus, I argue that they intended to manipulate children to comply with the role in the way that was satisfying for mentors controlling ego-involvement:

M: I haven´t had the experienced of going to the shop with him and seeing him stealing the things there or something...no way it happened to me with him...he would like to go to Větruše where I´ve never been before...or he wants to go to see the hockey which I don´t particularly fancy but would endure it for him for sure...and as I promised that we will do arts & crafts with the candle sticks, I would come to meet him because I had to cancel it last time...I wouldn´t cancel the meeting even if I felt very sick now...

(Matylda, January, 2011)

5.1.1.2. CHALLENGE OF CLOSENESS VS. DISTANCE IN RELATIONAL BOUNDARIES

Controlling mentors were challenged in coping with the experiences of emotional closeness expressed with emotional co-dependence of children and mentors on the mentoring bond from the outset of relationships. I argue that the perceived challenge in closeness and emotional co-dependency in the mentoring bond emerged because of mentors´ initial controlling motivation for volunteering. On the one hand, controlling mentors intended to maintain the boundaries of their mentoring role at the beginning of the relationship. On the other hand, due to their initial ego-involvement, they intended to feel needed by and/or useful for children. Thus, I argue that the experience of closeness with mentors´ over-involvement and developed emotional co-dependency of children in the mentoring bond was satisfying for mentors´ initial controlling motivations.

For instance, Viki mentioned her experience of the challenge of closeness during the very first meeting. She mentioned that the child trusted her with his personal issues. However, Viki did not expect this issue and felt overwhelmed by the intensity of the child´s expressed emotional openness. She felt that the intense openness of the child was not healthy either for the child or herself. Nevertheless, she accepted it but felt that she needed to negotiate emotional boundaries with the child. At the same time, she gave up responsibility for active negotiation and setting limits on the child´s perceived
challenging behavior. She allowed the child to express his emotional needs and began to take responsibility for his general emotional well-being outside the mentoring match. As a result, she recognized that her own desire for fulfilment of the child’s needs satisfied her initial controlling motivation to feel needed by the child (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Weiss, 1973). Nevertheless, at the same time she felt genuinely overwhelmed and consequently exhausted by the approach in which she did not cope with the perceived mentoring challenge in her role:

V: He started to be open on the very first meeting we had, I don’t think it’s good for him, I don’t know if he told me that because he didn’t have anyone else to talk to or to make me aware of how things are but he told me how things are with him...The first meeting was nice...I didn’t expect he would be so open as he was on the very first meeting...he opened up to me with some issues...I didn’t expect that he would tell me that so early...I would leave it for later when we knew each other better...but I am happy for it because I am pleased he did it and I know that he can be open with me with other issues as well, he will know I accept him and he can tell me things.

(Viki, January, 2011)

Similarly, Květa described how her competence to negotiate healthy emotional boundaries in the relationship was in contradiction with her ego-involvement and need for opportunity for nurturance and re-assurance of worth (Weiss, 1973) she started the volunteering with. Květa’s relationship also displayed signs of over-involvement from the outset. She mentioned the initial child’s emotional dependence on the bond with her and described how she tolerated and reinforced a close emotional interaction with the child without setting limits on it. Thus, the interaction involved both physical hugging as well as intense emotional contacts with the child outside regular mentoring meetings.

As a result, this mentor spoke of her worries that the mentee could become emotionally co-dependent on her in the relationship. However, as Květa needed to fulfil her need for opportunity for nurturance and feel needed

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38 I argue that her feelings of being overwhelmed were the authentic response to her involvement controlled out of EPLOC with her ego needs. Thus, she experienced the discrepancy of her involvement style when she intended to be responsible for the child’s needs in discrepancy with her own capability and competence in the mentoring role. Because of this, she could not provide safe emotional boundaries on the perceived challenging behavior of the child in the mentoring bond.
by the child as well as being re-assured about her self-worth (Weiss, 1973), she interpreted the extensive emotional interactions as the ordinary friendly interaction in a mentoring relationship. In other words, Květa expressed that the lack of intention to set up relational boundaries for the child were embedded in the introjected motivations (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000) she was controlled by:

**K:** I was worried in the beginning about her reactions, that she could be bonded with me too closely and act like I would be her foster mother as she did in the beginning...but then we arranged the meetings within a short period of time so I managed to postpone the next meeting so it was more easy-going then...we chatted together, and the personal contact has been more intimate between us, she needs to cuddle, she needs to stroke, she initiates it on her own...so we play together, there is physical touch included which I didn't experience with the boys (previous mentees)...you could see that they received enough love and care from their mums...

(Květa, January, 2011)

In sum, I argue that mentors did not cope with perceived mentoring challenges autonomously with self-direction, reflection, and responsibility, but instead blamed children for challenging them. They intended to control children’s challenging behavior and thus cope with the challenge instrumentally from EPLOC. Children’s behavior regarded as a source of a challenge was intended to be controlled as external regulation of mentors’ coping.

### 5.1.2. Characteristics of Coping with Perceived Challenges: Controlling Limit Setting on Children’s Behavior

Following the experience of an uncoped mentoring challenge, controlling mentors, in congruence with their initial controlling motivations, had further concrete expectations regarding how the children should behave and perform in mentoring relationships from the early stages. Firstly, controlling mentors established strict rules that the children were required to follow and highlighted the features of children’s behavior that they were not willing to accept. They thus described how the children’s interests and needs expressed in mentoring interactions clashed with their ego-involvement and consequent initial expectations. As a result, they developed conflict over the negotiation of
relational boundaries in mentoring interactions from the outset of relationships. In addition, they expressed disappointment and initiated conflict when children’s behavior differed to their expectations. In other words, controlling mentors described how their strict initial expectations on children’s behavior imposed control and evoked tension and conflict in mentoring dynamics from the outset of relationships. In addition, the initial dynamics of control in coping with mentoring challenges continued after five months of involvement.

For instance, Marta and Luisa expressed their worries that the children would not be compliant with their expressed opinions and expectations. Marta demanded the child’s respect and acceptance of her authority in the mentoring role. Similarly, Luisa expected the child’s compliance to her prescribed rules on the mentee’s behavior. Thus, they were willing to accept the children only according to their initial expectations. They expressed dissatisfaction and expected potential conflict in cases where the children would not comply with their rules:

M: I’ve realized that these kids are mostly grateful for their mentors, they are grateful for it…I don’t see any issues so far but I believe it can be difficult…if the child get stuck and doesn’t want to say something or just doesn’t want to let you closer it can make it difficult…or if you principally don’t agree with something and just can’t accept it, it can cause trouble

(Marta, February, 2011)

L: it happened with money on the very first meeting…she had 15 CZK in coins and she didn’t know how much she had exactly and she wanted to buy something…she told me she wanted crisps and that she only had 15 crowns…and she didn’t ask me if I would buy it for her or if I would give her 5 crowns….she didn’t say anything like that and I was obviously shocked because I didn’t expect we would be in such a situation immediately, and when she didn’t ask me if I would lend it to her or buy it for her that I told her to buy what she had enough money for…so she bought the chocolate snack…I had to help her, I had to ask the lady what they had for 15 crowns there.

(Luisa June, 2011)

In addition, Květa demonstrated how her initial expectations set up rigid boundaries of expression for the child and initiated a conflict when she focused on her hygiene needs. In particular, she insisted directly that the mentee comply with her expectations and satisfy her with improvements in
perceived personal hygiene issues. I argue that her expectations were set intentionally to confirm the mentor’s competence in the mentoring role. As a result, she experienced the dynamics of conflict from the outset of the mentoring bond when the child refused to comply with her expectations. Similarly, Luisa talked about the child’s defiance of the mentor’s controlling demands on her behavior. As a result, her dissatisfaction with the child’s behavior was in contradiction with her expectations and the initial experience of conflict in the mentoring interactions:

**K:** …she goes out (with me) extremely dirty, you can see it from a distance, her feet are dirty, her cap is filthy and it is very visible, and when you come closer to her, you can even smell it… and I don’t know how to address it… if I tell her about it… I told her: “Carol, how come you don’t have your stuff washed again? You are dirty again”… not that I was upset with her just told her in this way… and she always thinks up an excuse: “My daddy didn’t have time for washing, he comes back home after 13 hours at work and he’s tired, doesn’t have time for washing”… So it’s probably the kind of stuff she hears from her father… so it’s kind of awkward… if I should ask her father directly to at least send her to the mentoring meetings clean…

(Květa, January, 2011)

**L:** I know she has fantasies but she doesn’t have any objective reasons… if she only fantasizes about things in the way that makes sense… or she says she is hungry and she’d like to eat but she won’t ask you: “Would you give me something? Would you maybe invite me?”… or she could ask me to lend her money even though it’s clear she wouldn’t pay it back… she’s not doing this… she just only comes and says: “I am hungry.” And she’s waiting for what will happen. Just like that… I always tell her to take her snack she used to have with her… because I am not here for buying food for her… if we were about to go for a day-long trip and stopped somewhere to eat, I’d invite her for lunch, I take that for granted… but when she has a snack with her and we meet up for two hours only and she still demands to go for food with me… I take it almost as a bullying (blackmailing) from her.

(Luisa, January, 2011)

Secondly, controlling mentors coped with the perceived mentoring challenges with positive regard for the children’s expressions of obedience and

39Following the mentor’s approach, the match interrupted regular meetings after two months. Nevertheless, it was renewed after eight months of agreed formal mentoring involvement as the mentor insisted on not closing it officially in BBBS after three months’ break in mentoring meetings. During the BBBS summer camp, the match met again after four months’ break and agreed to renew the mentoring meetings. Hence, as Květa outlined, the relationship continued under similar dynamics with insecure relational boundaries after 11 months of mentoring involvement into the second year under BBBS supervision.
compliance. They expressed how their involvement was contingent on children’s acceptance of their authority in the mentoring role. They intended to control perceived challenges in children with the initial expectations on mentees’ compliance to mentors’ rules. Thus, the children were rewarded with the mentors’ positive involvement only when they complied with their rules and thus re-assured them about their competence in the mentoring role (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000, Ryan, 1991, 1993, Weiss, 1973).

As a result, controlling mentors expressed how their involvement in the relationship was contingent on the children’s acceptance of their authority in the mentoring role. They expressed a direct link between children’s compliance and their reward of it with their positive involvement into the relationship. They emphasized and supported the children’s compliant nature. Thus, they could limit expected challenges in children’s behavior with a control of the compliant behavior that was set up in accordance with their perceived mentoring skills and competence regulated from EPLOC of their initial motivations:

M: Miles is a super child, a million-dollar kid...he is very nice...obedient...I don’t have any single thing to...he’s obedient, he looks both sides at the crossroads, he doesn’t run anywhere, he doesn’t swear, he’s not naughty.... he’s really very nice...I couldn’t get a better child

(Matylda, January, 2011)

V: I clicked with him especially because he’s so humble....when I saw him sitting there somehow worried, holding back in the chair (at BBBS during the first meeting), I thought he’ll be nice....and the communication was better then....thanks to him being very humble, it is not necessary to kind of run around him and organize sophisticated activities to fascinate him......I think he is rather humble, he appreciates a little...there is a need to think up the activities that are financially affordable....I think he will be happy with everything I’d propose, for the activity.

T: Did you experience any conflict between you so far?
V: No, not at all, I think something will come up like that but he might be a conformist, he might also perceive me being older than him.... I hope he doesn’t see me as an authority, I wouldn’t like it but I think if I said something or if we had any conflict between us, he would hold back, become quiet, wouldn’t complain. He wouldn’t dare.

(Viki, January, 2011)
5.1.3. **RESULTED DYNAMICS OF UNRESOLVED CHALLENGE IN MENTORING BOND**

As a result, the dynamics of control, and conflict or compliance of children to mentors’ expectations, were evident in the mentoring dynamics from the outset of relationships. It further developed and deepened after five months of mentoring involvement.

5.1.3.1. **INITIAL DYNAMICS: LOW PERCEIVED COMPETENCE AND NEGATIVE EXPECTATIONS FOR THE FUTURE INVOLVEMENT**

Regarding mentoring dynamics, mentors challenged by the need to accept the distance between them and the children (Štech, 1999, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010) became involved in relationships slowly and hesitantly. Their involvement was moderated by the child’s positive feedback during the first mentoring meetings. They recalled that the positive initial feedback of children convinced them that their own initial involvement in the mentoring relationship with mentees was justified. They let the children be active and lead the initial involvement in the relationship. The child’s activity and consequently the game the matches shared functioned as an initial icebreaker. Thus, mentors’ initial satisfaction in the mentoring role was contingent on the children’s explicit positive feedback on their acceptance of the mentors from the very first meetings.

On the contrary, mentors who were challenged with balancing the closeness in emotional boundaries in the mentoring bond (Ibid) got involved with children quickly. Nevertheless, they perceived the initial connection during the first month of mentoring involvement as more intense and close than they expected. However, they justified the close nature of the initial involvement.

Following the experiences of initial mentoring challenges, controlling mentors expected to face the same challenges in the future. For instance, Luisa expected that she might feel more close and trusting with the child over time in contrast to the present perceived emotional distance and lack of trust in the
mentoring bond. She expected that the child would become a close friend to her:

L: Even though it is required for 10 months I’d like to stay in it longer...The relationship is simply in the beginning, and I wouldn’t take her to my place now...I might invite her for a visit over the time when we befriend more, when we’ll be meeting more like friends...I think that those ten months are a very short time...that the real relationship will start after these ten months when it’s not the artificial matching programme anymore...

(Luisa, January, 2011)

Similarly, Marta expected concrete issues in planning the mentoring activities in the future mentoring interactions. I argue that her expectation was in congruence with her initial motivation to attest to her competence in the mentoring role. Hence, she expected her competence would be proven during organizing the mentoring activities, but she felt preoccupied with the potential difficulties at the same time as her competence was regulated from EPLOC. Consequently, Marta also expected a decrease in child’s interest in the mentoring meetings and activities with her. She was worried that the child would defy her suggestions, and her authority as a mentor in general. I argue that her insecurity is linked to her initial motivation with introjection of ego-involvement that controlled her competence from EPLOC with the need to prove it (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000). Thus, her perceived competence in the mentoring role was low.

Moreover, Matylda expected that the relationship would continue as long as the child accepted mutual responsibility for her involvement in the mentoring relationship. Thus, in congruence with the initial mentoring approach, she emphasized that the continuation of her mentoring involvement in the future was contingent on the fulfilment of her expectations regarding the child’s behavior:

M:...there is a little problem with money...and also I might be short of ideas....I don’t know about the future now but I am little bit afraid that she would become bored, it would become a routine for her...it is all new for her now and she is excited, she is

40 Interestingly, Luisa also presumed that her initial motivation for volunteering would change after the ten months of required commitment. In particular, she expected herself to be involved autonomously in the relationship after the obligatory commitment of ten months with the BBBS programme. In other words, she presumed that her motivation for volunteering would become more internalized and autonomous after the compulsory commitment that functioned as controlling contingency in her motivation for volunteering (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000).
12 now, but I can expect that as she grows 13, going to adolescence, it might change things...she can think I am bringing her up too much, which I hope she won’t...but I am afraid that the initial enthusiasm will decrease but I can’t see another way, anyway...

(Marta, February, 2011)

M:...I think we can keep meeting up even after the programme’s finished cause there is no reason why we wouldn’t talk together when we understand each other

(Matylda, January, 2011)

Finally, the initial experience of an unresolved challenge in setting emotional boundaries in the mentoring bond was also linked to the expectations of a long-term relationship with the mentee. Viki expected that the relationship with her new mentee would continue informally after ten months of compulsory commitment. I argue that the initial experience of an unresolved challenge in emotional closeness which gave rise to loose relational boundaries created anxiety for the mentor regarding emotional co-dependency in relational dynamics. As a result, Viki expected that the emotional co-dependency in the relationship would be experienced mutually in the future. However, as the relationship was satisfying for her initial introjected motivation, she was resistant to address her challenging expectation. She mentioned that she didn’t feel competent to actively cope with the perceived challenge in emotional closeness and address the issue of relational boundaries. I argue that her expectations clearly expressed the discrepancy between the ego-involvement and her authentic need for autonomous involvement regulated with autonomous self from IPLOC. In other words, she was aware of the challenge she experienced but was unable to cope with it:

V: I think it will last more than one year with Aaron because I really like it...I think I clicked with him too, it is difficult to put time limits on it, the time is fast, but...I’d be happy if it would work out for me as well...I think it would be good to have an experience with other children as well so I’d like to get know other types of kids but if I like Aaron I wouldn’t like to finish it with him...I’d try to meet up both kids, the new one and keep up the meetings with Aaron as well...and I think that there will be a problem at the time we stay together for longer period...there will be some form of co-dependency developed in the relationship...he will get used to me and I will get used to him and I think that with Aaron especially, I will like him so much that it
might be quite bad in this way...that when we’d want to finish the relationship in the future, it will be more difficult...

(Viki, January, 2011)

5.1.3.2. Dynamics of Unresolved Mentoring Challenge after 5 Months of Mentoring Involvement

The dynamics of uncoped experiences of challenge in the mentoring role continued and deepened in this way. Thus, the perceptions of mentoring challenges were highlighted by controlling mentors repeatedly after five and ten months of involvement. Firstly, Luisa, after five months of mentoring experience, emphasized doubts about her competence with communication skills. She was unsure about the extent to which she should accept the mentee and her needs. In particular, especially challenging situations were perceived as those that, according to her, were in contradiction to the personal needs that underlie her controlling involvement. In addition, she expected that the child would accept her needs equally to the degree she accepted the child in the relationship.

L: ...what the training did not prepare me for fully and I am still not sure about is...how do I recognize that the child is only too demanding or to what extent you can push her into things...how do I know if she just doesn’t want to do the things or has some small worries that you can uproot in her, or if she really doesn’t want to do it or is really worried for some objective reasons such as health issues...this is something I still don’t know how to react to...I am not sure to what extent I am supposed to accept that she doesn’t feel well and wants to leave...I am there too and I am interested in it and want to see it...it’s like: “I go with you to the playground so you can stay here with me now.”...I don’t know where the boundary is when she feels really sick and we have to leave, or when she is only exaggerating because she doesn’t like it there and wants to leave...

(Luisa, December, 2011)

Similarly, Marta mentioned that the challenge for her was the “fun factor” in the activities that the child was interested in. In general, she said that she found it difficult to accept the child’s interests that were in contradiction with her desire to prove her leadership skills in the mentoring role. In other words, Marta sought the opportunity to attest to her own competence, that is, an
opportunity to fulfil her controlling motivations for volunteering (Weiss, 1973, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010). Thus, she was challenged to accept and be involved in activities that were not reinforcing her own controlling motivations for mentoring involvement:

M: ...when we go to the cinema, I have to choose a kid’s movie ...I pay for something I don’t enjoy much...so I think it is not easy to pretend that we are the equal companions.... I have to have it planned, once I give choice to her, the other time it’s my turn...it is a kind of constant fight for me...

(Marta, June, 2011)

Moreover, controlling mentors were challenged by feelings of responsibility for the children in the mentoring role. For instance, Barbel experienced responsibility for the child during mentoring meetings. She highlighted that the experience of responsibility was the emotionally most remarkable aspect of her involvement. At the same time, she realized that the experience of responsibility was in contradiction with her personal needs. Thus, I argue that Barbel was challenged to accept the responsibility that was part of the mentoring role because it was in contradiction with her involvement which was regulated with introjections from EPLOC:

B: ...I realized that I don’t want my own child yet when I experienced that...you know...responsibility...I mean I realized that I can’t just leave her and go to the swimming pool for the adults...I realized that I stayed there for 2 or 3 hours in the kid’s pool and couldn’t move away from there...and imagine if I had my own child I would be very annoyed that I couldn’t do my own stuff and would feel just stuck with them...I realized that in that moment

(Barbel, December, 2011)

In sum, Figure 5 illustrates pathways of developed dynamics of coping with perceived mentoring challenges following initial controlling motivations (See below).
Figure 5: Summary Scheme I - Pathways of Coping with Perceived Initial Challenge following Initial Controlling Motivations

Initial Involvement Controlled with Ego-Involvement from EPLOC

Responsibility for a Challenge Placed on Children: 1) Expectations of Negative Characteristics in Children; 2) Expected Challenging Behaviour in Children’s Involvement

Experience of Challenge of Acceptance vs. Non-Acceptance of the Child

Experience of Discrepancy between Mentors’ Expectations and Reality of the Meetings

Experience of Challenging Emotions in the Mentoring Role

Coping with the Perceived Challenges with Initial Intention to Control (Challenge in) Children:
1) Prescribed Roles and Expectations on Children’s Behavior; 2) Reinforcement of Compliance and Obedience in Children; 3) Expressed Dissatisfaction with Defiance of Mentor’s Rules

Developed Dynamics of Dilemmas: 1) Experience of Conflict,
2) Compliance of Children to Mentors’ Rules – from the Outset of Mentoring Meetings

Exp. of Challenge of Closeness vs. Distance in Emotional Boundaries

Experience of Dilemma in Intention to Maintain Emotional Boundaries

Over-Responsibility and Over-Involvement in the Child’s Well-Being outside the Mentoring Match

Perceived Low Incompetence to Cope with the Challenge
5.2. **AUTONOMY SUPPORTIVE MENTORS**

Similar to controlling mentors, mentors with initial autonomous motivations were challenged by the need to establish secure relational boundaries over uncomfortable feelings that followed children’s challenging behavior. In addition, they also recognized personal challenges in the nature of the mentoring involvement. Nevertheless, contrary to controlling mentors, they firstly recognized and coped with the perceived challenge of acceptance of responsibility in the mentoring role.

Autonomously motivated mentors identified challenging feelings about the mentoring role, and they accepted responsibility for coping with challenges autonomously, that is, in congruence with their authentic self. Consequently, they expressed positive beliefs in their mentoring skills, and proceeded to employ these skills to help them to cope with the challenge. They thus coped with the perceived challenge autonomously and authentically.

Because of the accepted responsibility in a mentoring role, the perceived mentoring challenges were coped with using optimally matched mentoring skills. Thus, the children’s challenging behavior was negotiated securely with children. They felt responsible, secure, and competent to inform children about their authentic uncomfortable feelings and so provided feedback on children’s challenging behavior (Deci, et al., 1994). They also often used a sense of humor when feedback was provided. In addition, they negotiated the boundaries of children’s behavior with information on their attitudes towards the mentees’ challenging behavior. They also provided children with a choice in terms of reaction to the information they gave them.

I argue that this informative coping style facilitated children’s autonomous integration of mentors’ behavioral regulations (Deci et al., 1994, Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000). They established secure boundaries that allowed them to respond to the perceived challenges in the mentoring role using an informative approach (Deci et al., 1994). Contrary to controlling mentors, they did not presume and set the limits in advance, but reacted to the challenging behavior of children as it was expressed and experienced. Thus, they let children express themselves autonomously but also let children know about their own boundaries and the consequences of children’s behavior with the autonomy supportive informative approach they developed (Deci et al., 1994,

As a result, the informative limit setting (Ibid) on perceived mentoring challenges became the underlying core dynamic of mentoring bonds with children from the outset of their mentoring involvement. I argue that mentors’ recognition and acceptance of responsibility for challenges autonomously mediated their ability to cope with the perceived challenges with an authentic (autonomous) mentoring approach. In particular, autonomously motivated mentors intended to develop involvement that reflected their autonomous selves. Thus, they approached the perceived challenges in interactions with children with the intention of being authentic, an approach they felt competent in.

I argue that their approach to dealing with perceived challenges was mediated by the autonomous quality of their initial motivations; in particular the autonomous motivation for mentoring engagement driven in congruence with their authentic self from IPLOC mediated mentors’ acceptance and the internalization of responsibility for recognized challenges. As they were motivated to enjoy the mentoring role with children, they were motivated to establish interaction with mentees securely in congruence with their authentic skills. Consequently, the accepted responsibility mediated their perceived positive competence in dealing authentically with challenges faced in the mentoring role. Thus, I argue that accepted responsibility was a key factor that mediated coping skills with perceived mentoring challenge.

5.2.1. Perceived Initial Challenge and Characteristics of Coping in the Mentoring Role

Firstly, the data showed that mentors with initial autonomous motivations perceived similar challenges to controlling mentors. Nevertheless, as they accepted the challenge of responsibility to cope with perceived mentoring challenges, I argue that they coped with the challenges autonomously and authentically.
5.2.1.1. Recognized and Accepted Mentoring Challenges with Responsibility in the Mentoring Role

Firstly, Sára was aware that setting up secure emotional boundaries in a relationship could be challenging for her. Nevertheless, she emphasized the link between her motivation to enjoy the mentoring role, her acceptance of responsibility for the challenge, and her coping skills. Sára demonstrated how she coped with the challenge of potentially being over-involved in the mentoring role. Contrary to controlling mentors, she did not feel the need to satisfy her own need for opportunity for nurturance (Weiss, 1973) through an extended responsibility for the child’s needs outside the mentoring relationship. As a result, she developed secure boundaries from the outset of the relationship. I argue that the initial autonomous motivation moderated mentors’ perceived competence to accept responsibility for and cope with the perceived mentoring challenge. Thus, autonomously motivated mentors consequently dealt with experiences of optimal challenge (Cziksentmihalyi, 2013):

S: I originally thought that a volunteer is someone who is supposed to lead (direct) the child...that they foster if the family is not working as it should so I felt I would be bringing the child up...however I realized that it is much less responsible...I am not his mum and so we can have fun together and do other kind of stuff as he’d be my friend as anyone else...on the other hand I recognized a challenge which I wouldn’t admit before....I was thinking about the over-dependency of the child on me...I had worries concerning to...that he could become very dependent on me...and I would have issues finishing the relationship...and also the challenge could be if he’d went too hyper....to set up a control over him so he wouldn’t be over too much...and it was very important for me to admit that I don’t have to do everything the child wants from me...it was a ground-breaking point for me to realize it, just telling him: „Don’t do this because why would you...I don’t like it”...it was very important for me (to realize that)...it is up to me to find my own boundaries and admit to myself what is ok and what is not ok and then make him to feel that too somehow...I think it is kind of my own responsibility, I kind of had an issue with it in the past...but I think I am fine with it now. I am aware of it so I don’t do everything the other person wants me to do...find some kind of limits and just give it to him too...I don’t feel any issue with it now. I feel I am easy with it.

(Sára, January, 2011)

Similarly, Nina and Tina also experienced the challenge of responsibility in the mentoring role. They recognized the need to accept responsibility for the

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child. They experienced challenging feelings concerning balancing an acceptance of responsibility with its boundaries in the mentoring role.

Nina described how she became aware of her responsibility for the child as a mentor. She realized that she could tend to be overprotective towards her new mentee, so she felt that she would only be suited as a mentor for a child without the issues that were triggering her overprotective approach. As a result, she accepted responsibility for the limits to her mentoring skills. Consequently, she limited her involvement in the mentoring relationship to a level she felt competent with. In other words, unlike controlling mentors, she did not intend to attest to her competence (Weiss, 1973) by posing herself a challenge. On the contrary, she aimed to enjoy the mentoring role with the abilities and skills she knew she had, and autonomously match her skills with her mentoring role. I argue that her autonomous motivation mediated her acceptance of responsibility and ensured that she could cope with the challenge in congruence with her skills. As a result, she had positive expectations about her mentoring role, including her competence to cope with potential challenges in the future:

N: I probably went into it quite light hearted...I was thinking it is volunteering, sure it’s easy but then when I heard the cases of clients, their background and their issues...I wouldn’t mind any bigger issue they could have but I realized I would probably feel very sorry for them, everything they had to experience and stuff...so I was bit worried that if I got such a child who was taken from the children’s home and given back again and then taken from there...I think it would be evident in my approach to them in a way...I would probably tend to be overprotective of them...so I wouldn’t think that it’s not that simple in the beginning but it wouldn’t scare me that much that I would give it up, no, on contrary, I became rather more curious and started to think about it more and stuff...

(Nina, December, 2011)

Furthermore, Tina described how her original expectations regarding the responsibility attached to the mentoring role made her worry about her ability to cope. During the first mentoring meetings, she realized that responsibility is a natural part of the mentoring role. Tina further mentioned how her worries about being responsible dissolved during the first meetings. Following enjoyable meetings with the child, she felt competent to autonomously accept the responsibility she faced. As a result, she coped with
her experience of the mentoring challenge in congruence with her self and experiences of enjoyment in the mentoring role:

T: ...In the beginning I was quite worried that it might be 1000x worse...the responsibility thing and stuff...I was quite worried about the responsibility in it...how it’d work, I couldn’t imagine it at all how it would be organized when we go somewhere...because Tom was introduced to me as the kid with quite a serious issues and he is still quite a young boy...however it was on the first meeting only and hasn’t happened since then again so I stopped being worried then...it is not too complicated at the end...it is easy...it is actually kind of very right and natural (to be responsible for him) in reality at the end...

(Tina, June and December, 2011)

Mentors with autonomous motivations recognized their responsibility to develop a mentoring role that was in congruence with their selves, that is, self-determined and authentic (Ryan, 1991, 1993, Ryan, Deci, 1985, Ryan, 1991, 1993). For instance, Ivan saw the need to be authentic in his interactions with the child in order to cope with mentoring challenges and felt competent to do so. He mentioned that authentic communication was a skill that helped him to set up boundaries in his personal relationships. In addition, following his personal experiences in relationships, he mentioned his willingness to be authentic with his mentee from the outset of the relationship. In other words, Ivan accepted responsibility for establishing relational boundaries using the authentic communication he was committed to. He summarized the common approach of supportive mentors who perceived that being authentic in mentoring interactions with the children was a key feature of the mentoring role:

I: I chose the programme (BBBS) because there’s kind of nothing to fail...because your aim is just to be yourself, to be a good friend for the child so you don’t have to pretend anything, you don’t need any special skills...it is a very usual kind of work based on one-to-one (interactions) so it’s easy...you are as you are...and that’s the best thing...I think to be honest and don’t pretend anything in front of the child...when you mind something he’s doing, just tell him directly or on the other hand if you are bored with something so say it....the honesty, it is extraordinary but I am using it in all my life now...because if you don’t like something what the other’s doing, he doesn’t know that you don’t feel well about what he’s doing, so it is useful to tell him about immediately and then talk about it more...

(Ivan, January and December, 2011)
I argue that the process of acceptance of responsibility for dealing with a perceived challenge in the mentoring role of supportive mentors and consequent recognized competence to cope were mediated by the initial autonomous motivation for mentoring involvement. The autonomous motivation for mentoring engagement driven with authentic self from IPLOC mediated mentors’ acceptance and internalization of responsibility for a recognized challenge. Consequently, accepted responsibility mediated the perceived positive competence in dealing with a challenge in the mentoring role. Contrary to controlling mentors, supportive mentors expressed positive expectations regarding their competence to cope with challenges in the future. In particular, supportive mentors generally did not control children’s behavior directly, but instead limited mentees’ behavior with the offer of options they could choose from. Hence, they developed boundaries that were autonomously accepted by both mentors and mentees. In addition, contrary to controlling mentors, they emphasized to the children that all the feedback they provided to them were their own feelings and attitudes, not general rules that they would expect the children to follow. As a result, they achieved a non-judgmental informative approach with the children, while controlling the boundaries of challenging events. In addition, they suggested that their informative approach (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Deci et al, 1994) was perhaps the core feature that mediated the benefits of their mentoring role in the children’s development. I argue that they managed to motivate children to internalize the limits on the challenging behaviors autonomously out of the mentee's own choice, that is, out of IPLOC (Ibid):

5.2.2. CHARACTERISTICS OF COPING WITH PERCEIVED CHALLENGING BEHAVIOR OF CHILDREN: INFORMATIVE LIMIT SETTING

As a result of accepted responsibility for the mentoring role at the outset, mentoring challenges were addressed with competence after 5 months of mentoring involvement. In particular, autonomously motivated mentors negotiated children’s challenging behavior with the informative coping style that facilitated children to autonomously integrate the mentor’s behavioral regulations (Deci et al, 1994, Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000). Their approach to coping with challenging events had the following characteristic features:
1) Mentors set limits on mentees’ challenging behavior by providing authentic feedback on their feelings about the children’s behavior. They also often used a sense of humor when the feedback was provided.

2) Mentors also negotiated boundaries in children’s behavior with information on mentors’ attitudes towards the mentees’ challenging behavior.

3) Finally, mentors provided children with choice about their next steps in mentoring interactions.

In order to cope with the perceived mentoring challenges, supportive mentors engaged in autonomy supportive negotiation of challenge in communication with the mentees from the outset of their mentoring involvement. In particular, mentors dealt with the challenging behavior of children with authentic negotiation on boundaries as soon as children expressed it. Contrary to controlling mentors, they did not presume and set the limits in advance but reacted to the challenging behavior of children as it was expressed and experienced. Thus, they let children express themselves autonomously, but also let children know about their own boundaries and the consequences of children’s behavior with the autonomy supportive informative approach they developed (Deci et al., 1994, Ryan, Deci, 1985, Solky, Ryan, 1996). As a result, the informative limit setting (Ibid) on perceived mentoring challenges became a core dynamic of mentoring interactions with children.

Ivan described how he was dealing with the child’s challenging behavior that occurred during their board games when the child felt aggrieved while he was losing the game. In particular, Ivan described his reactions to the child. He described how he perceived there to be a challenging pattern in the child’s reactions, so he challenged this behavior through rational arguments and discussion:

T: What is his reaction when he’s losing a game?
I: He’s saying that it’s not fair play...he often says that it’s not fair play and stuff, you know, and he says it in very illogical situations...I don’t know if it is his pattern which is always triggered in these situations...or if it is a phrase that he says with no deeper meaning, but it is possible that there is something more substantial behind it, his perception of the world being unjust to him when he’s not winning...and I feel that it’s something to work on with him because...it’s not the way that everything is
against him and unfair to him and that everyone wants to cheat on him, you know....so every time he mentions it I always discuss it with him in detail, I give him feedback on it because I don’t find it cool, he doesn’t need to say that...

(Ivan, June, 2011)

Ivan provided feedback with information about his own feelings on the child’s behavior. In addition, he used his sense of humour and provided the feedback playfully. Thus, Ivan presumed that the provision of feedback would challenge the child’s patterns by making him aware of it. Moreover, he also perceived that there might be a deeper reason for such unconscious behavior, and he was willing to support the child should this be further revealed in mentoring interactions. Ivan also summarized the attitudes of supportive mentors in setting the limits on children’s behavior when he explained that his style in control of child’s challenging behavior contained the provision of information together with the option for the child to decide whether to accept the information autonomously or not:

I: ... ...at least verbalizing it could suggest to him that it wouldn’t be a good way to act, you know...if he takes something out of it or not I probably hardly influence on my own, anyway...

(Ivan, May and December, 2011)

Supportive mentors in general did not control children’s behavior directly but limited it with the offer of options they could choose from. Hence, they developed boundaries that were autonomously accepted by both mentors and mentees. Contrary to controlling mentors, they emphasized to the children that all the feedback they provided to them was their own feelings and attitudes; not the general rules that they would expect the children to follow. As a result, they achieved a non-judgemental informing approach to the children while controlling the boundaries of challenging events. They suggested that their informative approach (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Deci et al, 1994) was presumably the basis of the benefits of their mentoring role in children’s development. I argue that they managed to motivate children to internalize

41 In addition, Ivan emphasized that the informational approach together with the provision of options were linked to the feelings of uncertainty about the impact of his behavior on the child. Thus, his style of limit setting was free of controlling intentions to satisfy one’s feelings of efficacy, and instead took the child’s frame of reference into consideration (Deci et al., 1994).
the limits on their challenging behavior autonomously out of their own choice, that is, out of IPLOC (Ibid).

For instance, Sára described in detail how she managed to control challenging interactions with the child with support for the child’s autonomy. She described that the provision of feedback with her feelings and attitudes was a tool she used when she intended to place boundaries on what she perceived as the child’s challenging behavior. In addition, she felt that the challenging behavior occurred always when the child needed to get boundaries on his behavior, so she provided him with information and autonomy support in her feedback:

S: …I am a different role model for him to someone he has for instance at home…when he sometimes comments on some things around, I don’t tend to tell him: Don’t do this. “But: I wouldn’t do that…” …and it applies to many situations…I want to let him know that these are my attitudes…I always tell him non-directly, going more like around it that to tell him directly what to do…so I am just expressing my own opinion about things…for instance when he starts to be euphoric, everything is funny for him, then one has to (control) him a bit because it is not good for anyone around…he acts and shows off too much then but…he’s just searching the boundaries, the limits, he needs someone to tell him: “This is already too much…” so I told him it is not good to shout in public among many strangers around…I told him I don’t like this because it is already too much or because it is not good to do that…I certainly don’t intend to forbid him anything but… I try to get his attention in that moment…and he reacts positively on that…and (I give him a choice) when we’re handling money, when he doesn’t have any pocket money and I also have a limited amount I can give him…and he tends to…you know, he doesn’t have much since his childhood and so these kids as I experienced them before would like to have everything when they have money for it…so he’s trying…he wants this and that and I tell him to choose one thing only we buy for him…and he’s trying to get more but he won’t get more than that…

(Sára, June and December, 2011)

Similarly, Nina also mentioned how she negotiated the challenging behavior with her mentee with a non-directive informational provision of feedback on the child’s challenging behavior. Nina acknowledged and discussed the conflictual situation with the mentee. She provided feedback by informing the child about her authentic feelings and worries regarding consequences of his challenging behavior. She also acknowledged the personal value the relationship with the child had for her. As a result, she managed to control the
conflictual situation and to turn the conflict into deeper stabilized dynamics of the mentoring bond:

N: ...and so I went to catch him and asked him: “What’s the matter? You are offended because I broke your stick? We can find a new one, no?” but he said he won’t talk to me...and I told him: If you don’t want to talk with me, I am leaving home then.” And he said: “well, go home then.” ...and it surprised me a little bit but told him: “Well, I am leaving then...” and then he was like: “No, don’t, I was just testing you...” And I said: “Well, it wasn’t very nice of you, I felt quite sorry about it because I was startled that we won’t talk together anymore over such a little silly thing”...and he said he was just testing me to see if I recognize when he’s lying.... ...and I think he was really just kidding....

(Nina, June, 2011)

Tina maintained control over the child’s challenging behavior when she decided to set up a boundary around the topic she felt challenged with. In particular, as she expected to be challenged with the child’s potential personal and relational issues with his dad, she decided to control the risk of the challenge by avoiding the problematic topic in mentoring interactions:

T: I intend to...well, avoid the topic of his dad...I sometimes has it almost slipped from my tongue that we were on the trip with my dad and brother but decided better not to (talk about it)...because I am not sure about his reactions, you know...but luckily we didn’t come across the issue so far. He only mentioned very briefly something about his dad, said that he’s funny or something...

(Tina, June, 2011)

Finally, supportive mentors described that they had to cope with children’s lack of interest and conflict in mentoring meetings. In particular, supportive mentors mentioned that searching for mutuality and consensus in the mentoring relationship was sometimes perceived as a challenge to their communication with the children. Nevertheless, their skills for coping with the children’s expressions of temporary aloofness, detachment, or defiance were supported with autonomous motivation and an autonomy supportive approach to children. Thus, supportive mentors were able to accept and cope with these challenging feelings. Supportive mentors responded to children’s emotional distance in relationships with empathy and understanding. The challenge of emotional distance was perceived as a natural part of the relationship with children. Contrary to controlling mentors, autonomy
supportive mentors did not feel discouraged, demotivated, or offended by the expressions of emotional distance in mentoring interactions, as they understood these challenges to be a part of the child’s nature and part of the nature of a mentoring relationship. As a result, as they accepted the children in their nature and character, they understood the lack of interest in mentoring interactions as the occasional moods of the child. Hence, they were able to provide the mentees with choice and options, even in challenging mentoring experiences:

T: ...once or twice when I picked him up at school, we walked together and he was quiet....so I asked him what’s the matter and he replied nothing and then he started to talk...I don’t know...he is this way sometimes, when he doesn’t feel like talking, he expresses himself with this that he doesn’t talk much, and when I ask him he replies in one word or not at all....but I think I know when he’s this way and it’s not often, anyway...
T: ...and is there something he wouldn’t share with you?
T: well, I don’t know...sometimes he’s not very keen on doing anything...I can suggest ten different options on what we could do together and he doesn’t agree with anything and says no to everything and just wants to go home...so these are probably the only ones but nothing major, anyway....

(Tina, December, 2011)

5.2.3. Initial Dynamics of Perceived Positive Satisfaction in the Mentoring Role and Positive Expectations for the Future Involvement

Autonomy supportive mentors generally perceived mutual satisfaction in the mentoring bond from the outset. In addition, they described how their sensitivity to children’s feedback in satisfaction mediated their positive initial connection in the mentoring relationship. They recognized the initial satisfaction of the mentees in the subtle autonomous feedback they gave. Consequently, the perceived autonomous satisfaction of the children in turn mediated the initial satisfaction of the mentors in their mentoring role, as well as the autonomy supportive mentoring bond with secure relational boundaries.

For instance, Sára described how experiences of mutual fun and enjoyment mediated satisfaction and initial relational connection. She highlighted that her initial satisfaction was better than she had expected before the mentoring meetings. Similarly, Nina mentioned how seeing the
child’s enjoyment gave her great satisfaction, which in turn mediated the initial relational connection:

S: I wouldn’t expect that it would be such a nice thing as it actually is...It is quite early to evaluate it now in general, but I was bit worried at the beginning that we wouldn’t click, but it was really good from first sight...We met three or four times...we played monopoly and he was quite cheerful since the very beginning so we laughed well together. Simply it was fun.

(Sára, January, 2011)

N: ...Leny is quite (great)...I can experience things with him I’ve never done before, for instance I never played with little soldiers...
T: And how was the first meeting for you?
N: Oh, I was really very positively surprised actually...I couldn’t wish for a better mentee than him...I was really excited with all his ideas, the incredible imagination he has...and I just simply think it was brilliant...

(Nina, February, 2011)

Finally, Tina also described her experience with the child as exceeding her initial expectations. Tina’s initial expectations about potential challenges were somewhat present during the first mentoring meetings. However, the initial relational connection was mediated by her autonomously motivated sensitive perception of the mentee during the first mentoring meetings. Contrary to controlling mentors, Tina recognized and accepted the child’s authentic involvement and positive communication and established a supportive connection based on her experience:

T: I was thinking he’s a little boy so the communication with him might be bit more difficult...but he’s quite smart for his young age of seven years...he’s very chatty, always talking, the communication with him is quite easy, no problem with him...so the positive thing about it is that we don’t have any problems so far and all is going well...

(Tina, February, 2011)

Finally, Figure 6 illustrates the key factors that mediated dynamics of resolved mentoring challenges in FYMRs following the initial autonomous motivations (See below).
Figure 6: Summary Scheme 2 – Pathways of Dynamics of Resolved Mentoring Challenges Developed by Supportive Mentors

Reflection on a Perceived Mentoring Challenge

Accepted Responsibility to Cope with Perceived Challenge in a Mentoring Role from IPLOC in Congruence with Autonomous and Authentic Self

Perceived High Competence and Optimally Matched Skills in Dealing with Mentoring Challenges

1) Set Up of Secure Relational Boundaries in Dealing with a Challenge from the Outset of Relationships; 2) Positive Expectations on Coping with Challenges in the Future of Relationships

Informative Approach in Dealing with Children’s Challenging Behaviour:
1) Feedback on Challenging Behaviour with Humour, 2) Authentic Info about Mentors’ Feelings on a Challenge, 3) Provision of Choice to Children to Decide about Further Behaviour
5.3. Summary of Chapter V

In Chapter V, I argued that mentors developed two different coping styles following the reflections or experiences of perceived mentoring challenges. I argued that the developed coping styles were mediated by the initial quality of motivation for mentoring involvement. In particular, mentors’ perceived competence and ability to employ optimally matched mentoring skills in coping with perceived mentoring challenges were mediated by mentors’ acceptance/non-acceptance of responsibility for autonomous coping with a recognized challenge.

Firstly, autonomously motivated mentors accepted responsibility for reflecting on the challenge, coping with the challenge in congruence with their recognized authentic mentoring skills, and thus employing the skills with perceived competence. As a result, they established secure boundaries in their mentoring role. Following that, they developed an autonomy supportive style in setting limits on children’s challenging behavior. In particular, they provided authentic feedback with information and choice on children’s challenging behavior. Thus, they negotiated and maintained the dynamics of secure emotional boundaries with authentic approach, feedback, information, and autonomy support provided to children in challenging mentoring interactions. Because of this, the characteristics of autonomy supportive relationships (Ryan, 1991, 1993, Ryan, Solky, 1996, Ryan, Deci, 1985) with the quality and dynamics of natural mentoring relationships were evident in the analysis.

Secondly, mentors with initial controlling ego-involvement were reluctant to reflect on the challenges inherent in mentoring relationships. On the contrary, they labelled the mentees as the sources of the challenge they had to cope with. In particular, as they intended to attest to their competence and fulfil their own needs from EPLOC in the mentoring involvement, they did not accept responsibility for reflecting on these controlling motivations and dealing with them autonomously. On the contrary, they made children responsible for the experiences of the mentoring challenge. As a result, they intended to impose controls on children’s perceived challenging behaviors. In particular, they had concrete expectations regarding children’s involvement, children’s obedience, and the compliance of mentees with the mentors’ rules. They expressed low competence for dealing with the challenges in the future.
As a result, two major dynamics of experienced unresolved mentoring challenges in mentoring bonds were developed: 1) The challenge of acceptance of distance in the mentoring roles; and 2) The challenge of emotional over-involvement in the mentoring bond. The initial dynamics of unresolved mentoring challenges were further developed and deepened in the relationships after five months of mentoring involvement. As a result, the characteristics of controlling relationships (Ibid) were evident in analysis. Further details regarding the controlling and autonomy supportive processes in mentoring relationships that emerged from the initial dynamics of coping with mentoring challenges are elaborated on and discussed in the following chapters.
CHAPTER VI: CHARACTERISTICS AND QUALITY OF HELPING ATTITUDES AND PROVIDED SOCIAL SUPPORTS

6.0. INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER VI

The previous two chapters on research analysis and findings highlighted that the quality of initial motivations of mentors mediated the perceived challenges in the mentoring role; and importantly, the acceptance of responsibility and perceived competence to deal with these challenges. We saw that mentors with initial controlling motivations emphasized their low competence to deal with the challenges. Consequently, they tried to manage the perceived challenges from EPLOC by controlling children’s behavior.

By contrast, autonomously motivated mentors accepted responsibility for coping with the challenges autonomously, that is, out of IPLOC in congruence with their authentic selves. They accepted children and their authentic behavior and set up secure informative limits on its challenges from the outset of relationships. They informed children about their authentic feelings and attitudes. Thus, they regulated challenges in children’s behavior in congruence with their authentic selves in an approach of limit setting they developed.

I argue, based on the analysis undertaken as part of this research, that the quality of initial motivation, the experiences of perceived mentoring challenges, and the coping styles used in dealing with them fostered the underlying dynamics in mentoring relationships from the outset. These factors also predicted the controlling and autonomy supportive quality of mentoring relationships after five months of mentoring experience.

Mentors with initial controlling motivations expressed controlling attitudes in helping and provision of social supports. Therefore, mentoring interactions with children had controlling characteristics (Ryan, Solky, 1996,
Deci et al., 1994). On the contrary, mentors with initial autonomous motivations had autonomy supportive attitudes towards children and helping; and they thus developed mentoring interactions with autonomy supportive characteristics (Ibid). It can be argued that they provided optimally matched (Cutrona, 2000, Cutrona, Russell, 1990) enactment of social and autonomy supports to meet children’s needs.

Furthermore, the initial attitudes of mentors to their helping role in the mentoring bond and their perceived impact on children’s well-being predicted further controlling and autonomy supportive characteristics of mentoring interactions developed after five months of mentoring involvement (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Ryan, Solky, 1996). I argue that the mentors with initial controlling motivations developed mentoring interactions with features of controlling and amotivating qualities. On the contrary, mentors with initial autonomous motivations developed autonomy supportive mentoring interactions (Ryan, Solky, 1996, Ryan, Deci, 1985, Deci et al., 1994). As such, I argue that the quality of initial motivation, coping style, and helping attitudes in the mentoring role further mediated quality of mentoring interactions after five months of mentoring involvement in:

1) Perception of children’s autonomy and competence;
2) Quality of cooperation and provided autonomy supports;
3) Quality of provided enactment supports.

In this chapter, I compare the characteristics of mentors’ helping attitudes in cooperation with children in mentoring interactions. I review and compare the characteristics of mentors’ initial helping attitudes and the consequent quality of provided social supports in mentoring interactions with children. Firstly, I discuss the results regarding characteristics of mentors’ perceived role in children’s well-being and their related perceptions of children’s needs. Following that, I review characteristics of social supports with controlling and autonomy supportive qualities provided after five months of mentoring involvement. Finally, the graphical summary schemes of findings and summary of the chapter are presented.
6.1. Controlling Mentors

Controlling mentors emphasized that a mentor is someone who is needed by the child, and that their role was to facilitate the child’s social and emotional needs. They understood the mentor as someone who overcomes the social boundaries. In addition, they expected to be beneficial as someone who significantly contributes to mentees’ well-being with their skills and knowledge. As a result, they developed the approach of constant comparisons of the “good” background and skills they had with the “deficit” background and lack of skills in children. They constructed and emphasized the needs of the children as consequences of their deficient social background, and intended to achieve a direct visible change in children’s well-being. In other words, they perceived themselves as role models for social norms in response to perceived children’s background needs. In addition, they considered an achievement of a direct change in children’s deficits and needs to be evidence of mentors’ efficacy in the mentoring role. I argue that controlling mentors developed the role of “an intentional role model.”

After five months of mentoring involvement, they developed an approach with strong controlling features (Ryan, Solky, 1996, Deci et al., 1994). Firstly, the activities in controlling relationships were directly focused on fulfilment of children’s needs as perceived by them. In addition, the enjoyment of activities was denied from the outset of relationships. Thus, the enjoyability of the mentoring meetings was described as limited. In addition, controlling mentors evaluated the autonomy and competence of children rather negatively. Children were perceived as lacking in autonomy when facing social risks in their background environment. Mentors’ emphasized perceived low skills in different activities.

Finally, after five months the mentoring interactions developed strong controlling features. In particular, these mentors took control over decision-making when negotiating activities with children. Thus, the major decision-making rested upon mentors. They organized the mentoring activities around their own interests or their mentees’ needs. Children were not actively supported in giving their ideas on the activities. When children expressed their wishes or interests, mentors tended to reject them. Finally, controlling mentors controlled children in cooperation with children’s parents/guardians.
6.1.1. Helping Attitudes of Mentors
Firstly, the data analysis showed strongly that initial quality of motivation had impact on the quality of mentors’ helping attitudes. In particular, the helping attitudes of mentors were revealed in their perception of children’s needs and in their perceived efficient mentoring role and its characteristics.

6.1.1.1. Initial Perceptions of Children’s Needs
Firstly, I argue that the perception of children’s background needs reflected mentors’ initial controlling motivations that regulated them for mentoring involvement. Hence, I argue that controlling mentors illustrated how the perception of the efficacy of their role in children’s well-being was an instrument of satisfaction of their initial controlling introjected motivations (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000, Weinstein, Ryan, 2010, Weiss, 1973, Ryan, 1991, 1993). I argue that the initial intention of controlling mentors to improve their self-esteem was followed with comparison of the mentees’ and their own family background with their conclusions about the deficient background of the children and its consequences. In particular, controlling mentors perceived children’s original background as dysfunctional towards children’s needs and well-being. Thus, they constructed the expected background needs of the children out of the prior information received from BBBS in the way that matched with their initial introjected motivation with ego-involvement (Weiss, 1973, Ryan, Deci, 1985). They emphasized that the needs of the children were consequences of the deficient social background the children came from. Thus, they interpreted the children’s family background as insufficient for the fulfilment of their needs in comparison with their own competence to facilitate children’s well-being:

K: ...it wasn’t my expectation that the child with many hobbies and leisure-time groups, his parents taking care of him and him having friends, that he would need another extra friend? It is surely good for him but I think there are children who really need it more...I thought it is focused on kids from socially weak families who don’t have much contacts...the kid who doesn’t have many friends and needs someone who would go out with him and have fun with him...I expected children who are very introverted, with issues...kind of that they will be fat, with glasses, lisping (laughs), others will be laughing at them and they won’t have any friends....the kid who would like to have a friend but is unable to meet
one...excluded somehow...not the child who has everything and I’d only be there to help his mum with upbringing?...no, not at all.

(Květa, January, 2011)

V: The programme is great in the way that he gets out of the family, I think both boys need that...just living among the people in (name of the place), the communication with these people around them influence them and impact on them...If he had been growing up among people who live a normal life, who are normally polite and have normal manners and stuff, he wouldn’t have any issues.

(Viki, January, 2011)

M:...when I thought about the aims (of BBBS), I came to the conclusion that I want to fulfil their mission, that is, to cross the boundaries between us and offer the help...it doesn’t mean to change the whole life of the mentee but I offer him advice and help if I can...I’ll be their role model as an older person so they can see some other role model than they see at home and among their peers...so I give her a different point of view about life when I talk with her about my experiences...so she doesn’t live between her school, mum and her brother only but there is someone from a third party who shows her something above her frame of reference. I think she knows it and she appreciates it...

(Marta, February, 2011)

T: What did you know about her before you started the mentoring meetings with her?

K: The line of her life story was outlined in the way...I knew about her family background...she lives with her dad only and they have an intellectually disabled neighbor who helps take care of Caroline...and (I knew) some things are really not working out there...She doesn’t have a mum, her dad doesn’t have enough to care for her or he doesn’t want to care for her, she is from a socially disadvantaged or broken family and there are things that I think would be good for her to have a chance to discuss with a woman, I mean with an adult girl...so it is kind of nice for her that she can be matched with a female mentor and so I can show her how things work from the female point of view...

(Květa, January, 2011)
6.1.1.2. **PERCEIVED EFFICACY OF MENTORS: MENTOR AS INTENTIONAL ROLE MODEL:**

In congruence with their initial controlling motivations, these mentors perceived that their function was to meet the child’s social and emotional needs as adult role models. They expected to be beneficial for the child as someone who significantly contributes to mentees’ general development with their skills and knowledge as they intended to attest to their competence (Weiss, 1973). Thus, I argue they intended to achieve the direct change in the mentees’ perceived unfulfilled needs.

For instance, Květa intended to change the mentee’s hygiene routines in a direct way, expressing her intention to attest to her competence as a role model. Similarly, Luisa perceived that her contribution to the child’s well-being was to provide the child with leisure time experiences as she would be otherwise socially isolated within her natural social networks. Furthermore, Matylda and Marta understood their mentoring role as that of a role model who guides the mentee in their leisure time so that the child spends her time in a safe and secure environment. At the same time, they emphasized the negative influence of the mentee’s original social background in contrast to their potential positive impact on the mentee. Finally, Viki intended to facilitate her mentee’s perceived general lack of care as well as a shift in the child’s attitudes towards school:

*K: I’d wish to tell her things that she wouldn’t find easily, she wouldn’t come across otherwise...I was thinking that it would be good to show her how it works in partnership so I want to introduce her to my boyfriend and go on trips around castles together with him...on the weekends, I don’t mean to be like a family but I want her to be aware of how a partnership works...and I feel sorry for her that she is so dirty and stinky and you can spot a smell of cigarettes from the flat...which is absolutely inadequate for the child...so I decided that I am going to tell her that it is not normal to be that dirty...*

* (Květa, January, 2011)

*L: I think my major contribution and support is that I will spend leisure time with her...because she is living with her grandparents who wouldn’t go out with her that often I presume...so I kind of take her out.*

* (Luisa, January, 2011)
T: What is your role, your mission in it?

M: Certainly, it is to help him...it is better for him to spend time with me... I think it is important to be able to communicate with the child, to talk with him in case he’s sad...take trips so he can experience something new he likes, not that he spends time with the groups of the street kids, smoke on the benches and do naughty things...

(Matylda, January, 2011)

V: ...to have someone to tell him what to do next because he doesn’t have those friends, or because he is somehow disadvantaged...he tends to look for friends among the kids who are skipping school...so it is good for him to see the good sides. There are, on the contrary, kids who like to go to school....and to make sure he won’t have any emotional problems, to make him feel like he can trust me and talk to me...

(Viki, January, 2011)

For instance we discussed the interesting question (in BBBS supervision)...when you’re talking with the child and you know she is from a problem family and that she doesn’t have that much good luck in life, if it is OK that I am very well and don’t have any issues, if I can tell that kid about it...not to make her sad or jealous as a result...We discussed the contradiction (with the BBBS supervisor) of the question if it’s good to make the child aware of the things or if we should refrain from the sensitive themes and support the child saying: “That’s good, you can do it”....and the psychologist (BBBS supervisor) told us that children live in it and that a) they won’t break down...that we always feel sorry for them but they live in it and they on the contrary need to hear that the world is good somewhere else and what it is supposed to look like so they can internalize the models of how it should be...that it is not all right that the dad is an alcoholic and beats the mum but on the contrary that somewhere else the dad goes to work and doesn’t do anything like that...so I realized something fundamental about my role...if I can kind of show off in front of Manon, or kind of talk the way it is...I realized it is all right because she won’t break down because of it.

(Marta, February, 2011)
6.1.2. **RESULTED CHARACTERISTICS OF CONTROL IN CONTROLLING RELATIONSHIPS AFTER FIVE MONTHS OF MENTORING INVOLVEMENT**

Following their helping attitudes and dynamics of unresolved mentoring challenges in mentoring interactions with children, mentors developed strong features of control over children’s choice in mentoring cooperation. In particular, after five months of mentoring experience, mentors with initial controlling motivations developed features of controlling interactions with children in congruence with those identified by CET. Controlling features in cooperation with children were evident in perceptions of children’s autonomy and competence and in the selection of mentoring activities. In addition, the provided enactment supports were not matched with children’s needs but provided intentionally according to mentors’ initial motivations; this thus developed further control and tension in mentoring dynamics.

6.1.2.1. **CHARACTERISTICS OF ENACTMENT SOCIAL SUPPORTS**

Firstly, after five months of mentoring involvement, the controlling mentors emphasized that their perceived role in the mentoring relationship was to be a role model in the social norms in response to perceived children’s socio-emotional needs. In particular, controlling mentors perceived themselves as introducing the child to the “normal” world they compared with the child’s deficient social background. In other words, controlling mentors emphasized the intentional character of their support with emphasis on the children’s deficient socio-emotional development they aimed to improve with enactment supports.

They developed the approach of constant comparisons of the “good” background they came from, with the “deficit” background of the mentees’ families. Thus, I argue that they developed the strong sense of differences and distance between them and mentees. Moreover, as they developed the mentoring role in response to perceived children’s issues, I argue that they provided constant negative feedback to children (Deci et al., 1994).
Finally, I argue that the support was developed intentionally to satisfy mentors’ initial motivations to improve their own self-esteem (Weiss, 1973). As they focused on the achievement of the visible improvements in the children’s life, they could experience their own self-efficacy in the mentoring role. Thus, they referred to their efficacy in terms of their initial motivations:

M: ...and actually when you really see that the kid doesn’t do anything all the days but just sits at home and watches TV alone, or just flies from school to school, and how she hangs out with some dicey friends on the streets around her place...you think that she would appreciate if she went here and there and could see something new...so it was motivating me in that (relationship), I saw the point of meaning there and could contribute to her life somehow, you know ...and she didn’t have the opinions or order in her relationships neither much friends around... She comes from the family, the background that is completely diametrically different from where I come from, so she could be in touch with how the people live elsewhere...she couldn’t see before that not everyone is living in such a broken, not really functional family and has such issues so I intended to give her my opinions which I think are right...of course I know that the mentor should not influence the child that much...but I think that I gave her a different perspective on certain things.....and I think she was glad she could talk about things....And realized that what happened to her was not normal really but that she did not become edged out of society that much...and that she can still have a normal life...and I think that would be a kind of support for her....

(Marta, December, 2011)

V: I know that he is an amazing kid who deserves something better
T: What do you think would be different in his life if he wasn’t meeting you?
V: I think he wouldn’t have the motivation to look forward to something once a week. He would be only sitting and watching the TV or he would lie in bed and sleep. So at least on Fridays he has something to look forward to.

(Viki, June, 2011)

In sum, I argue that controlling mentors developed the role of “an intentional role model” (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Weiss, 1974) who compared and contrasted social differences and responded to the perceived background needs out of introjected controlling motivations (Weiss, 1974). They intended to provide better experiences for children in comparison with children’s background and thus to achieve a direct explicit change in children’s well-being. Thus, the change would be evidence of the mentors’ efficacy in the mentoring role. In other words, for mentors with initial controlling motivations, their
perceptions of mentees’ needs and constructed mentoring role became instruments for the fulfilment of their initial controlling expectations.

6.1.2.2. **RESULTED CONTROLLING FEATURES IN COOPERATION WITH CHILDREN**

Secondly, mentors developed controlling features in interactions over mentoring activities. I argue that mentors controlled children’s autonomy during the organization, negotiation, and experience of mentoring activities. The nature of activities was decided and activities organized by mentors, and their selection followed their initial controlling motivations (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Deci et al., 1994, Solky, Ryan, 1989). In particular, I argue that controlling mentors developed the features of control and amotivation in mentoring interactions in:

1) Control of Choice in Selection of Activities
2) Negative Evaluation of Children’s Autonomy and Competence in Mentoring Interactions
3) Control of Choice in Mentoring Interactions

I will now proceed to outline the resulted characteristics of control in mentoring interactions in greater detail:

1) **Control of Choice in Selection of Mentoring Activities**

Because the financial resources of children were limited, mentors often said that the range of choice in mentoring activities was limited accordingly. Thus, they focused on low-cost leisure time activities such as walks around the city’s historical sites or in nature, or meetings in the BBBS club room. The controlling matches also frequently attended events organized by the BBBS programme for the mentoring matches. Thus, after five months of mentoring meetings, they occasionally visited exhibitions on different themes, or spent time in swimming pools organized by the BBBS programme on the budget. Controlling mentors also complained about the lack of low-cost leisure-time opportunities for mentoring meetings and organized meetings in public places repetitively without changes, for instance in the public library. Moreover, the mentoring meetings were frequently selected by mentors intentionally as being good for children’s development and needs. Thus, controlling mentors
said that activities were directly focused on the fulfilment of children’s needs as perceived by them. Furthermore, the enjoyability of the mentoring meetings was described as limited due to the lack of opportunities, their repetitive nature, and the intentionality of the selected activities.

Finally, some controlling mentors expected the children to organize mentoring activities and in so doing express their interest in the meetings. As a result, they described the mentoring meetings in terms of hanging around the child’s community without providing a structure (and hence promoting amotivation in children for further meetings) (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Deci et al., 1994).

In sum, the patterns of activities provided by the controlling mentors were distinguished by the following characteristic features:

1) The matches frequently joined *group activities organized by the BBBS programme*;
2) The activities were selected with *repetitive patterns*;
3) Mentors selected activities with an *intentional focus on benefits for children*;
4) Mentors described mentoring *activities as having a limited enjoyability*; and
5) Mentor’s *did not provide a structure to activities but expected children to organize* and lead the mentoring meetings and so show their interest.

2) **Negative Evaluation of Children’s Autonomy and Competence**

After five months of mentoring meetings, controlling mentors evaluated the autonomy and competence of children with rather ambivalent and negative perceptions. In particular, mentors perceived children as relatively autonomous. However, in line with the mentor’s initial perceptions of children’s compliant nature, their needs, and the challenging nature of their social background, the children themselves were perceived as easily influenced towards antisocial behavior. In other words, children were perceived as lacking autonomy when facing social risks in their environment.

Viki on the one hand mentioned the child’s awareness of the value of money. She emphasized the child’s caring approach towards other people. On the other hand, Viki valued the child’s submissiveness in the relationship. She
felt that the child’s submissiveness was due to his naturally lower cognitive skills. Hence, I argue that Viki did not value the child’s autonomy, but valued the child’s relatedness style with its features of submissiveness and emotional co-dependence on the mentor (Ryan, 1991, 1993, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010). Moreover, Viki perceived the child as lacking the autonomy and skills to face the risks presented by his social environment:

V: ...I think he knows the value of money...and he is just a really nice guy...very nice, he would do anything for other people...I wouldn’t know any kid more humble than him...even though he’s not really a smart kid, he would do first and last (for others), he would give himself away...when I talk to him and tell him that some things are not right, such as smoking on the bench or so, he replies that he knows that and he wouldn’t like to do it, he is not interested in it but I think that if he found a group to hang out with he would let them influence him...even though he knows it is not right.

(Viki, June and December, 2011)

Controlling mentors also perceived the children as lacking in autonomy when it came to critical thinking about their social environment. For instance, Marta expressed the view that her mentee did not have her own attitudes and opinions. She perceived her personality as being easily influenced by her deficit social environment.

M: ...she is quite talkative but when she’s shy, you need to push her to express some things, you need to be able to direct that kid...I don’t have any doubts (about my approach), I am aloof, reserved to her...she is a 12-year old kid so I approach her accordingly and take her into account accordingly too. I think I rather take her like a kid who needs help...

T: Do you think that Manon would hold back from sharing some opinions with you? Did she express it somehow to you?

M: I think she wouldn’t express anything like that explicitly, she was a flexible person, she was easy to influence and convince, so I think that she at the age of 12 was a kid who didn’t have any real kind of opinions.

(Marta, June and December 2011)

Furthermore, Luisa was negative towards Denisa and the rich imagination she expressed in mentoring interactions. Luisa’s evaluation of the child’s autonomy and competence was twofold: Firstly, she did recognize the child’s skills in autonomy and competence, but in connection with what she perceived to be a rather negative moral character. Luisa described the child as
not being very smart, non-autonomous, and incompetent in communication skills. She talked about the mentee’s low level of autonomy and competence being due to a lack of intelligence. Luisa also mentioned the child’s lack of competence in travelling around Prague city by public transport:

L: ... she went there to buy crisps, and I saw she had 20 and heard the shop assistant saying it was 30 crowns...and then she came back and said: “I told them I only have 20 for it.” ... So she makes it her way how to get it...she just acted out a sad look, said she only had 20 crowns and she just got it. Sometimes it works, sometimes it doesn’t...so on the one hand she is somewhat smart and foxy, or she rather tries what she can get away with...it is quite unbelievable for me that she can’t count it herself. We came across it several times already...she has some change but she doesn’t know how much she has got...if she has more or less 50 or 10 crowns...she’s kind of not very talkative, they say she’s not a smart girl....for instance she told me she is not able to travel even to this place (BBBS club room) even though she was here million times before...

(Luisa, June, 2011)

On the contrary, Barbel spoke of her mentee’s autonomy and creativity from the beginning of the relationship. In particular, she emphasized the child’s communication skills, interest in drawing, and creativity in her approach. In addition, Barbel recognized the child’s ability to become autonomously persistent in activities that were interesting for her. In other words, she mentioned the child’s ability to concentrate in activities that were of intrinsic interest of her. Barbel also mentioned her perception of the child’s autonomy in basic mentoring interactions, as she perceived Agnes as smart and autonomous. However, after five months of mentoring, Barbel expressed reservations about the child’s autonomy and competence. Even though Barbel admitted that the child did know the city, she dismissed it at the same time with disbelief in Agnes´ competence due to her age. Thus, she didn’t let the child express her autonomy outside the pre-agreed activities she felt comfortable with:

B: She is quite independent, quite smart, she doesn´t need any support in this way, she can make things on her own. I only agree or disagree with (the activity of the child) ...She is very talkative.... she likes to draw and she is kind of creative... when she likes something, she can stay quite persistent with it. ...so you say you feel like you are obliged to make up the programme for the meetings and don´t have any ideas for it?
B: I have that feeling. Sometimes I have no idea where to go because I am not from here so I don’t know it here and she’s so little, she says she knows it here but I am not sure how well she would know it to take me around...

(Barbel, January and June, 2011)

In sum, I argue that controlling mentors emphasized their perceptions of children’s autonomy and competence in activities they liked and felt competent in. In other words, they perceived the positive autonomy in the children they themselves developed to a more advanced level and felt competent in. Thus, they limited children’s autonomy to pre-agreed activities only. I argue that when the children’s autonomy was expressed in ways other than through pre-agreed activities, that is, spontaneously, controlling mentors felt the burden of the perceived mentoring challenges in: 1) responsibility for the child, and 2) doubts about their own competence that the spontaneous experiences with children triggered in them. Hence, controlling mentors perceived and supported the autonomy of the children in the style they felt competent and secure with. In other words, they controlled the expressions of children’s spontaneous interests and competence.

Controlling mentors demonstrated that the perceived lack of autonomy and competence in the children were evaluated: 1) in comparison with their own needs and initial motivations; and 2) with expectations on the children’s behavior in the relationship that followed initial controlling motivations (Deci et al., 1994, Morrow, Styles, 1995).

3) Control of Choice in Cooperation with Children

Following the negative evaluation of children, these mentors further controlled children’s autonomy with control of children’s choice in mentoring activities (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Deci et al., 1998). In particular, they developed several features of control of choice in cooperation with children:

1) Intentional choice of activities according to mentors’ initial motivations and helping attitudes in the mentoring role;
2) Selection of activities based on mentors’ own interests;
3) Control of the selection of activities in cooperation with the child’s parent/carer;
4) Control of children’s interests in selection of activities.
I discuss these identified characteristics of control in the following part of the chapter:

*Intentionality in Cooperation*

Controlling mentors intentionally focused the selection of mentoring activities on the satisfaction of the children´s background needs they had identified before the initiation of mentoring meetings. In general, controlling mentors denied the involvement of the “fun factor” in the activities. On the contrary, they addressed the child’s needs as a part of their prescribed perceived mentoring role. The mentoring activities became intentionally focused on fulfilment of goals prescribed by mentors. While the “fun factor” in controlling relationships was described as present, the mentoring activities were primarily used as a means towards fulfilment of the mentoring goals.

For instance, Luisa and Marta described how they focused on the children’s needs and perceived lack of autonomy and skills. I argue that the mentoring activities were intentionally chosen to address the children’s perceived needs they had constructed following the intention to satisfy their own initial motivations (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000, Weiss, 1973):

L: …when we were paying for the entrance, I wanted to show her, to make her know...and I found out that she has serious issues...I think it is quite serious...the fact she can’t count fractions...she can miss it in her life but she can’t live without this (counting the money for payments)...

   (Luisa, January, 2011)

M: Sometimes I have a plan so I simply order her and we do what I want because I need it that way and have it planned so...She clings on you and waits for you to act so you need a good organizational spirit, be able to go through different situations independently when we don’t know what to do, be able to suggest something quickly...when she’s shy, you need to push her to express some things, you need to be able to direct that kid...so for instance I tell her: ”Manon, look, I think you’ve got a little issue with your reading skills. If you want to learn English you need to know how to read well in Czech first” ...and she was like: “Well, ok, let’s read some book then.” ...so she just reacted well with it,

   (Marta, February, 2011)
Selection of Activities of Mentors’ Interest

Controlling mentors also organized mentoring activities around their own interests. The levels of mentors’ control over decision-making about activities as well as control over children’s autonomy was high in these events.

For instance, Barbel mentioned that at the beginning of the mentoring relationship, she organized arts and crafts activities with the child around a commercial project she had taken part in. Barbel describes how the autonomy and competence of the child were potentially supported in the activity as the child had a chance to express herself for a financial reward and feelings of usefulness. Nevertheless, the activity was intentionally organized in favor of the mentor’s private activities. As illustrated in the quote below, the mentor also expressed the contingent involvement that functioned as a reward for child’s activity in this event.

Similarly, Matylda mentioned how her style in selecting activities of her own interests put her in control over the child’s autonomy in the relationship and excluded the provision of choice in decision making process (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Deci et al., 1994). She expressed how her own interest took precedence over the child’s choice. Moreover, she expected the child’s compliance with her suggestions, and her personal interests:

B: …I draw pictures for the website that is supposed to be the esoteric portal where the images have the healing character and stuff…so because she likes to draw I asked her if she wanted to draw something for them…because the children’s drawings help the - the child makes the image and it’s healing and someone actually wished it so I asked her if she would like to draw something and she did and so she got some money for it too.

(Matbel, January, 2011)

M:…when I visited him four days ago I told him that I have to go to the BBBS center on Thursday from 2 to 3pm and that we can go from 3 to 5 to Klíš by the local train so I don’t have to drive the car in the traffic….so I suggested going to (name of the place) or going swimming somewhere…that I’d go to buy the swimming suit and take him to the swimming pool.

(Matylda, June, 2011)
Control of Children’s Interest and Choice

Furthermore, controlling mentors described how they dismissed children’s autonomy when mentees expressed their own opinions or interests in mentoring interactions. In particular, their dismissive attitudes towards children’s autonomy and competence were evident in their lack of respect towards child’s expressed autonomous selves (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Ryan, Solky, 1996, Ryan, 1991, 1993). They also indicated that negotiation with children took a short course as children were not actively supported in giving their ideas on the activities. In other words, they took control over the organization of pre-agreed mentoring activities while negotiating the nature of the particular mentoring activities. As a result, they described how their interest was preferred to children’s spontaneous choice and enjoyment:

L: …when I ask Denisa what she would like to do, she for instance suggests that she wants to go to the club room and so I persuaded her because it’s a nice day outside and I spent all day indoors so I don’t want to be indoors again…so I tell her we’ll go there in winter and she replies that she lets me decide what I want to choose…so it mostly depends on my decision.

(Luisa, June, 2011)

T: How do you organize the activities?

B: Mostly I do it myself. We don’t think it up but when we’re finishing the meeting, we say let’s go there and there next time and then I think about it during the week, or think something up the day before the next meeting and when we meet up again I tell her what I thought up and ask her if she agrees with it or not…she usually doesn’t have any ideas of her own…but she mostly agrees and enjoys what I suggest…

(Barbel, June and December, 2011)

M: The time I spend with her is challenging for me and I think up something to do regarding the lack of money and the age difference. Things I’d like to do she wouldn’t enjoy…so I have to subordinate everything to her needs…the activities are suggested mostly by me…I ask her if she agrees with it or not but I decide about it to a large extent…when I don’t know what to do with her …It is a kind of emergency situation…so I try to allow it minimally only when the programme doesn’t work out…then she says what she wants.

(Marta, June, 2011)
Control in Cooperation with the Parent/Guardian

In addition to control of choice in the selection and cooperation in mentoring activities, this group of mentors controlled children in cooperation with children’s parents/guardians. I argue that this was done to impose even stronger control over the child’s autonomous behavior in mentoring activities. For example, Luisa’s interactions with the child’s guardian developed into close cooperation about mentoring activities. As Luisa engaged in communication about the activities with child’s grandmother, she at the same time excluded the child from decision-making over the planning of mentoring activities. As a result, Denisa was controlled by the decisions of Luisa and her guardian.

I argue that Luisa sought to satisfy her needs for re-assurance of worth and attest to her competence (Weiss, 1973) in communication with her child’s carer. I argue that the cooperation with the carer facilitated the mentor’s initial introjected motivations from EPLOC. In particular, as the child’s carer controlled Luisa’s mentoring performance from EPLOC with emotional approval, the cooperation satisfied Luisa’s initial motivations:

L: ...usually I am organizing the activities....at the last minute normally, then I call them and manage the meeting with her granny ...when I call she’s usually gone to school so I usually talk to her granny and manage meetings with her because she is reliable...or it is important for me to manage the meetings with her granny...we also talk with Denisa, of course, if her granny gives her the phone, we manage it together but she’s kind of...it is me talking only and Denisa only replies yes or no...and with her granny it works well....I feel she relies on me and she trusts me more or less because she doesn’t insist on asking what time we will get back and on letting her know where we are - not at all. She puts Denisa on the bus and sends her to me and then I talk with her next week...I feel she trusts me in this...

(Luisa, December, 2011)

In sum, controlling mentors in general highlighted that the major decision-making about the place and nature of activities rested upon their mentoring role. The pre-agreed activities provided the structure for the mentoring meetings. They were unwilling to negotiate the mentoring activities with children but insisted on the relational activities within their control that they developed as a part of their mentoring approach. I argue that the controlling features in cooperation with children during the mentoring meetings mediated the consequent dynamics of: 1) conflict with mentees, or 2)
compliance of children to mentors’ control with consequent withdrawal from the relationships.\textsuperscript{42} These dynamics will be explored in the next chapter.

\textsuperscript{42} As described in the part IV of the analysis.
Figure 7: Summary Scheme 3 – Pathways of Characteristics of Control in Mentoring Interactions and Enactment Social Supports

Children Needs seen as Consequences of the Deficient Family Background of Children

**Intentional Role Model:** Perceived Role of a Mentor was Someone who: 1) Is needed by the child, 2) Helps the child; 3) Fosters Children’s Needs instead of Parents, 4) Achieves Direct Visible Change in Children’s Perceived Needs and General Well-Being, 5) Compares his “right” and mentees “wrong” social background

**Characteristics of Control of Choice in Mentoring Interactions**

**Mentoring Activities:** 1) Pre-Agreed Repetitive Activities with Perceived Low Enjoyability, 2) Selected Intentionally for Children’s Good, 3) Provided with Intention to improve Children or 4) Provided without Structure

**Control in Cooperation with Children:**

**A) Negative Perception of Children’s Autonomy and Competence,**

**B) Control of Choice in activities with:** 1) Intentional Choice of Activities for the Children’s Good, 2) Activities of Mentors’ Interest, 3) Dismissed Children’s Suggestions on Activities, 4) Mentors’ Decisive Power Used without Negotiation on Activities with Children, 5) Cooperation with Parent / Guardian in the Selection of Activities

**Characteristics of Provided Enactment Supports**

Provided with a Negative Feedback on Children and their Background. Comparison of Mentors’ and Mentees’ Social Background. Aimed at Achievement of Visible Change in Children

Children in Cooperation described as rarely suggesting their own ideas on activities but agreed, appreciated and enjoyed mentors’ arrangements.
6.2. Autonomy Supportive Mentors

Supportive mentors perceived that the mentoring relationship itself in general, and the enjoyability of the mentoring activities in particular, added to children’s positive development and well-being. Contrary to controlling mentors, they emphasized the benefits of the mentoring activity itself as an additional choice and support to mentees’ leisure time in daily life. They understood that the facilitation of enjoyment in mentoring meetings was how they contributed to children’s well-being. In particular, they emphasized that the experience of play with children mediated the benefits of the mentoring bond. Thus, the enjoyment of activities with children became the main focus of the mentoring interactions they developed.

Autonomously motivated mentors emphasized that addressing children’s needs was not part of their role unless they perceived that children expressed particular needs in mentoring interactions. Contrary to controlling mentors, they were not focused on meeting children’s “prescribed” needs constructed before the mentoring meetings, but instead waited until mentees themselves expressed their needs during the mentoring interactions. In particular, they primarily focused on creating a secure relationship in order to make children feel free to express their needs, and they were ready to support them further.

As a result, I argue that mentors provided high quality optimally matched (Cutrona, 2000, Cutrona, Russell, 1990) enactment social supports.

Supportive mentors tended to emphasize the children’s autonomy and competence. Firstly, all autonomy supportive mentors emphasized children’s positive characteristics, strong autonomy, and high levels of various skills as they experienced them from the outset of the mentoring relationships. They suggested meeting at child-friendly places in the children’s community rather than prioritizing certain activities. The organization of meetings around familiar places in the mentees’ community supported children’s spontaneity to express their interests and share them with the mentors.

Supportive mentors provided children with structure to make choices about activities they were interested in, and established a youth-led approach in cooperation in mentoring activities. Their approach was characterized by:

1) Provision of Structure in Regular Mentoring Meetings; 2) Provision of...
Options AND Choice in Negotiation on Mentoring Activities; 3) Focus on Activities of Mentees’ Interests; 4) Mutual Involvement in the Activities; 5) Provision of Positive Feedback; and 6) Provision of Optimal Challenge.

The mentors clearly supported the children’s socio-emotional needs, as well as their autonomy and competence with different skills. In this way, the children felt free to express their own suggestions, initiate activities, and try out their skills in the play they shared with mentors.

6.2.1. Helping Attitudes of Mentors

Similarly to controlling mentors, autonomously motivated mentors strongly expressed their helping values and attitudes. Nevertheless, supportive mentors differed in perception of children’s needs, autonomy, and competence from the outset of the involvement, and so they also perceived the efficacy of the mentoring role in children’s well-being with significant differences.

6.2.1.1. Initial Perceived Children’s Needs Based on Experiences with Children in Initial Mentoring Interactions

In contrast to mentors with controlling motivations, autonomy supportive mentors did not emphasize the background needs of children they were told about by case workers and parents before the mentoring meetings. Autonomy supportive mentors interpreted and reacted to the children as they perceived them in personal interactions rather than based on their presumptions made prior to the mentoring interactions. Hence, they were not focused on facilitating children’s needs “prescribed” before the match, but rather waited until the mentees themselves expressed their needs during the mentoring meetings. They sensitively responded to children’s autonomous interactions and expressions of needs in the mentoring relationships.

For example, Ivan emphasized that interpretation of the child’s needs before the meetings and at the beginning of the mentoring relationship was not a part of his role as mentor in the programme. Hence, in contrast to

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44 In addition, analysis showed evidence that mentees trusted mentors, confided in them with personal matters, and turned to them with their needs. Thus, the dynamics of mentoring relationships developed benefits of closeness and trust in the mentoring bond that had a quality of natural mentoring. The details of the resulted dynamics of autonomy supportive relationships will follow in the next chapter.
controlling mentors, Ivan perceived that the primary focus of his role in the mentoring relationship was not to facilitate children´s needs:

T: What do you think his needs are? Why is he in the BBBS programme?
I: ...you never know how it would be for the kid if he didn´t have a volunteer available for the meetings...it is possible that he would get into drugs overnight or stuff but he won´t be because I am helping him (laughs)...no, no, no, I don´t have this messiah complex, no, but at the same time I can´t say why he´s in the programme.
   (Ivan, January, 2011)

Similarly, Sára emphasized that she respected the child´s autonomous expressions of his needs in the mentoring interactions and would be ready to perceive and respond to them sensitively. In other words, from the beginning of the mentoring relationship, Sára was willing and ready to follow the child´s expressed themes as they were experienced in the mentoring relationship over time. However, at the beginning of the relationship, Sára emphasized that the child had so far expressed himself as a cheerful boy. Hence, she perceived the mentee to be without major deficits in his needs caused by his social background:

S: I feel like he´s a boy like anyone else, from any normal family ....he gives the impression that he is happy and doesn´t have any big issues...I don´t think we should be focused on the issues, and that I should push him to talk about how he´s doing at home and stuff....so far we didn´t come across any issues, so it doesn´t seem he would have any problems...he doesn´t talk about anything like that, what would be happening at home or stuff and I don´t ask him about it, I don´t feel a need to if he doesn´t talk about it on his own...so it´s like going out for a coffee with a friend.
   (Sára, January, 2011)

Similarly, Tina mentioned that the information about the child´s background issues with the mentee´s dad she received prior to mentoring meetings was not relevant for the mentoring relationship unless the issue was raised directly by the mentee himself. Hence, she was aware of the child´s issue and would rather avoid the subject unless the child started talking about it on his own. She perceived the information about the child´s hyperactivity as the child´s autonomous expression of his temperament and thus felt competent to deal with it in the mentoring interactions:
T: ...I feel like he’s quite a happy child, he doesn’t seem to need to participate in BBBS/5P...even at school, as far as I asked him he talked about friends who he meets after school too...I think he’s not doing bad...except for the issue with his dad, he’s anxious about him...firstly I didn’t know how to deal with it...but I don’t think it is that serious of an issue unless it comes up as a theme in the meetings...he doesn’t talk about it on his own that often... Otherwise he doesn’t have any special health conditions. He had ADHD diagnosed but I don’t think it is an issue at the moment...he’s kind of very energetic, lively but I wouldn’t call it hyperactivity...

(Tina, February, 2011)

Finally, Nina also perceived her mentee as having only minor issues with self-confidence concerning social relationships with peers due to his disability. In general, Nina perceived the child and his issues with empathy, understanding, and willingness to support his confidence. In addition, she presumed that the child’s experience of bullying she was informed about was a past issue that the child had already coped with:

N: ...I think they are doing quite well, easy, totally normal family, he probably has just a few friends so they applied for BBBS for him to make him kind of...less shy...he doesn’t have any specific issues, he’s just deaf in one ear and has lower self-confidence due to that, it’s harder for him to make social contacts...and he was bullied at the summer camp once...but it is two years ago or so and he didn’t have any further issues since then...

(Nina, February, 2011)

6.2.1.2. Perceived Neutral Efficacy of Supportive Mentors in Facilitating Children’s Needs after Five Months of Mentoring Involvement
As a result, autonomy supportive mentors perceived the children’s background (they were referred to BBBS with) to be of minor significance, as they experienced that children in general did not express these needs during the initial mentoring interactions. Contrary to controlling mentors, supportive mentors did not perceive themselves as primarily efficient in the facilitation of children’s needs, and instead thought their impact on children’s needs and well-being to be rather neutral. Mentors even emphasized that facilitating children’s needs was not part of their mentoring role (unless they perceived children expressed their needs on their own). However, in terms of supporting children, supportive mentors were perceptive to the children’s social background and considered themselves to be a part of the children’s available
positive supports. Thus, they considered the mentoring role to be beneficial for children as far as the children considered mentors to be a part of their natural social networks.

For instance, Tina mentioned that her mentee did not need her as a helper and supporter of his needs. Similarly, Ivan perceived that the needs of the child referred to BBBS were well managed by the mentee in mentoring meetings. He emphasized that he did not consider his impact on the child’s needs and general well-being as a part of his mentoring role. Similarly to Ivan and Tina, Sára refrained from making presumptions about her general impact on the child’s needs and well-being. Finally, Nina also perceived that her role would not have a significant impact on the facilitation of the child’s needs and general development. On the contrary, she thought that the experience the child could access in the mentoring relationship she facilitated would support his skills in other parts of his life. In other words, she specified her role as a part of the child’s social networks that supported his positive development.

As illustrated below, Ivan summed up the approach of supportive mentors towards facilitating children’s needs. He believed that the supportive part of the mentoring role was the authentic approach of mentors in which mentors became significant adults in children’s social networks. Thus, they felt they could support children as they expressed their needs in the mentoring relationship:

T: I am not sure about a help…I don’t really think, in comparison to other kids I’ve heard about…he had some issues with his daddy but I only heard today, after such a long time since the last interview, him mentioning something quickly about it…he wouldn’t mention anything over all that past time…so I think he doesn’t really need help as such

(Tina, June, 2011)

I: I don’t think I should have the potential to change something…it is needed to accept things, his acting and behavior and the activities and fun as it comes and act naturally, not to push anything anywhere of stuff…for me, what I think, he’s not….in such troubles or in such issues in communication situations to need significant support or particular help in this way….it is possible that the programme is ok even for kids who only need to see a kind of older guy because he doesn’t have this…even though he goes to play football regularly or has his grandad, it is beneficial for him

In addition, they were perceptive to child’s autonomous expressions of needs during the mentoring interactions.
to meet up with him. Surely it is... how much he will benefit from that I won’t judge. I strongly believe that he will - a lot (laughs)....

(Ivan, December, 2011)

T: What do you think would be different in Tom’s life if he wasn’t meeting up with you?
S: Well, I feel that he just wouldn’t experience those things we do together and the fun we have... and if there is anything else in it for him I can’t presume or judge here so I don’t know.

(Sára, December, 2011)

N: I don’t know if I really change him in anything (particular)... it might (only) be that if he can experience another kind of relationship, another kind of company, it might help him to be less shy, but I don’t think it would be anything significant for him, he would probably cope without it, anyway....it would just take him longer because he wouldn’t have this experience...

(Nina, June, 2011)

6.2.1.3. PERCEIVED POSITIVE EFFICACY OF SUPPORTIVE MENTORS IN FACILITATING FUN MENTORING ACTIVITIES FOR CHILDREN
Supportive mentors recognized the beneficial nature of the mentoring relationships and interactions. They considered the positive social interactions experienced in mentoring relationships through enjoyable activities to be the major benefits the mentors could facilitate in the mentoring role. Thus, they considered that the facilitation of enjoyment in mentoring meetings was their main contribution to the child’s development and well-being. As such, the facilitation of enjoyable mentoring activities and interactions with children became the main aim of the mentoring interactions they developed.

I argue that their autonomous motivations empowered mentors’ beliefs in the intrinsic efficacy of their role. In particular, as supportive mentors were autonomously motivated for volunteering and intrinsically satisfied in the mentoring role, they believed in their competence to positively support children’s development. Contrary to controlling mentors, supportive mentors perceived the intrinsic benefits of mentoring relationships in general, and the intrinsic benefits of the enjoyability of the mentoring meetings in particular. These mentors were also sensitive to children’s autonomous expressions of satisfaction, and were able to cope with the insecurity regarding the efficacy of
their mentoring role due to the intrinsic satisfaction they experienced in the mentoring role:

T: ...and what do you think you bring to Jan?
S: I think it is an overall relaxation, easiness and.... I think it is mostly about relaxation and more like fun, it’s mostly fun for him....the fact that we laugh together a lot, we have fun together and I think he’s doing things he wouldn’t do otherwise...he can switch off from everything he’s experiencing in daily life......it is like seeing someone you like...so I think that he can relax for a while and that he can enjoy his childhood in this way... and me with him (Laughs).

(Sára, December, 2011)

N: ...he doesn’t have any issues, he doesn’t really need this but it is a plus for him for sure because just the fact that he doesn’t do the same things or that he can go somewhere else or do different activities with different people...he doesn’t have any siblings so he really only has his peers so I think it is interesting for him to spend time with someone older who talks with him...and if he didn’t have a mentor...he would cope well, anyway, he has his own interests, he has friends...he doesn’t really need a mentor but it is a plus for him that he has one....I think he mostly needs some add-on activities so he doesn’t stay on his own all the time or kind of wouldn’t spend all his time with PC games or the TV...he spends all his time with the PC, as much as he can if they don’t watch him...he sometimes goes out with friends, but this is an add-on for him...taking him out of sitting behind his computer......and he is kind of bored at home on his own so he can have fun...so I think he likes it, he can talk about anything with me, and no one interrupts him, so he can talk as much as he wants...it is probably important for him to get out of it (his routine) you know...

(Nina, December, 2011)

T: I think it is an add-on activity to his school, better for him than if he only went home straight away and spent his time with his granny or waited for his mum to come back home...he even has enough friends at school and activities out of school, different aunties and stuff...so I think that when we meet once a week and go somewhere, it is an add-on option for him...we can spend two hours together, I play with him and stuff...we can get out too... it’s more about the fact that he looks forward to the meetings, and it is time out for him from the daily routines, from his regular group activities and from the school and other interests...we can ‘chill’ together, we don’t need to go out when he wants to stay at his place, so we stay and play with something together...so I think he could somehow gain from the games we play, from the Frisbee we used to play which he didn’t know before...

(Tina, June and December, 2011)
I: I feel that...even though he has football and mates, he spends lots of time at home on his own playing PC games or watching TV, so he can go out at least once a week and we play separate games he wouldn’t do with anyone else I guess...
T: And what do you think would be different in his life if he wasn’t meeting you?
I: Well, no one can say that. I don’t know...he probably wouldn’t...know how to play the game (Osadníci) that well, he would never go to aqua park in Barrandov, he wouldn’t get paintball for his birthday...so I hope that I change his stereotypes a little as he can get out of his neighborhood....

(Ivan, December, 2011).

6.2.2. RESULTED QUALITY OF PROVIDED SOCIAL SUPPORTS

Following their helping attitudes, the supportive mentors further provided optimally matched enactment social supports to children. In addition, they supported children’s autonomy and competence. Detailed characteristics of developed provided supports are discussed in the following part of the chapter.

6.2.2.1. CHARACTERISTICS OF ENACTMENT SOCIAL SUPPORTS IN SUPPORTIVE RELATIONSHIPS

With their approach, supportive mentors experienced particular needs of mentees that they further supported during the mentoring meetings. Contrary to controlling mentors, autonomy supportive mentors interpreted children’s needs based on their experience rather than based on the information they received on children from BBBS. As such, they highlighted the needs of the children as they experienced them after five months of the duration of the relationship.

For instance, Ivan mentioned the child’s lower resilience to stress that was expressed when the child was losing in a game. Sára mentioned the mentee’s emotional needs she perceived as being expressed in mentoring interactions. In general, she mentioned the tendency of the child to be physically close to the mentor and the child’s anxiety during the mentoring meetings. Similarly, Nina connected with the child’s emotional needs when she talked with her mentee about his expectations for the future concerning his partners and future profession:
Mentors also spoke of their perceptions of children’s relational needs. They were perceptive to children’s reactions (anxious or avoiding) on themes related to other people and realized that the children would probably need support with relationships in different ways. In addition, they perceived children’s relational needs experienced during the interactions with the mentee following talks with the child. At the same time, they perceived mentees’ sensitivity in discussions about particular relationships. Thus, contrary to controlling mentors, they perceived that the topic could be emotional for the mentees, and they did not pursue it unless the children expressed a desire to do so. In this way they respected the children’s attitude and approached difficult topics sensitively.

T: Is there something you would be aware of and make sure you avoid in your conversation during the meetings?
S: I don’t think there is...there are things in his family that were only briefly mentioned but we never talked about it more, and we had no problems or issues...because we don’t talk simply about any heavy stuff, or it’s just...he’s always having new ideas and wants to play, he’s still quite childish, so these kind of things (we do).

(Sára, December, 2011)

I: He doesn’t talk or he’s avoiding talking about his biological father...he only mentioned something once or twice...And I don’t ask him about it so...I feel like there might be a barrier, a block, he simply doesn’t want to talk about him much...

(Ivan, December, 2011)

N: He has friends, he’s happy he has them, but if he minds something about them he doesn’t tell them because they could stop being friendly with him. He might talk with me about it, but I think he acts very different at school. Just the fact that he wants to fit among them so he doesn’t say back anything but rather he has been worried that when he goes to secondary school from the elementary, he might have a little shock, it might be a problem for him...if he went to high school now, he would be in it, it would probably be hard for him... but at the moment he fits somehow...

(Nina, June, 2011)
Resulted Provided Enactment Social Supports by Mentors

I argue that mentors reported evidence of optimally matched (Cutrona, 2000, Cutrona, Russell, 1990) enactment social supports. In general, they approached the support of the children by establishing and providing themselves as reliable steady adults in the mentees’ lives:

S: ...and the support, to make him feel he has someone to rely on... that’s what I was focused on from the very beginning...when I promise something, make it really happen...when I promised him that I’ll have something for him or do something for him, make him feel that it will really happen that way...

(Sára, June, 2011)

Furthermore, they also mentioned that they intended to make themselves available to discuss topics with the children that mentees expressed an interest in. In this way, supportive mentors suggested that they intended to become a part of the mentee's life in the role of older, wiser, supportive, and close significant adult who the children could perceive as their informal supporter, and who they could share their experiences with in the long-term. Thus, contrary to controlling mentors, supportive mentors did not focus on sharing their own values and experiences in the first instance, but primarily focused on creating a secure relationship in which they could respond to the children’s needs, and in which the children would feel free to express themselves.

Ivan in general compared the efficacy of his mentoring role to the role of Jon’s grandad. While he was aware of the significance of the role of the child’s grandad in Jon’s life, Ivan did not intend to become the authority of the significant adult for the child. On the contrary, he was aware of the role of the child’s grandad as well as of the contribution he would make if he became a similarly informal significant supporter for the child in the mentoring role. In other words, autonomy supportive mentors were aware of the nature of the role of informally supportive close adults in children’s lives. Their awareness about the nature of this role influenced their approach in supporting children and their needs:

I: I would be very pleased, if I could be at least a little bit closer to the category of his Grandad, you know, because he is a very nice authority figure for him, Jon kind of respects him for how he can do things, he showed him many things around fishing
and stuff... and even though I don’t think it will happen to me, I’d like to belong to the category of his grandad at least a little bit, it is nice, or it would be nice...

(Ivan, December, 2011)

They described the emotional, informational, and esteem supports they provided. In addition, they supported children as youth advocates with the children’s care workers. Firstly, supportive mentors described how they provided emotional support to mentees by supporting their emotional needs during conversations. As they built up trust with their optimally matched supports (Cutrona, 2000, Cutrona, Russell, 1990), the children confided in them about sensitive emotional issues. Thus, mentors could provide emotional support in response. For instance, Nina mentioned how she calmed the child’s anxieties about his future:

N: ...for instance, we talked together even about the future, what he wants to do and what are his worries for the future... I always tell him he doesn’t have to imagine it now because as he grows older he will see it will be very different from now. I wasn’t sure at that moment what to say, but I hope I always calm him down a little bit... or he’s sad due to some things around him, he’s sad about his girlfriend...(he told me that) he couldn’t hold her hand (last time) so he was sad about it... I told him it is absolutely normal, that girls are shy and that she likes him for sure but I understand that the girl (at this age) are this way... and when he grows up a little bit, he’ll be able to visit her on his own... and stuff like that...

(Nina, June and December, 2011)

Secondly, mentors gave examples of how they supported children’s self-esteem while responding to their expressed needs by using examples from their own life experiences as well as giving feedback:

T: ...and you mentioned you told about him your own experiences... Can you tell me more about it?

N: It concerned my experiences in my class at elementary school... he told me that the boys only talk with boys, and girls tease them and I told him we had it the same way too, when the boys were chasing us... because he told me he liked a girl or she sent him a short letter but nothing came of that at the end and stuff... so I told him we used to do the same, pretending that we care a lot and then argued who gets the most attention from boys... but these are just little things, very insignificant...

(Nina, December, 2011)

I: ... I was happy because something worked out for us... he has a new phone Nokia with a touch screen and he said he needed a stylus, the kind of stick you tick it with
and it is quite expensive and he couldn´t find any around...and I told him we can try it out together, we can check the shops...because here in Anděl there is a mobile emergency shop and so they sell used mobile phones and other stuff here...and he was thinking of buying a stylus stick....and we arrived at the shop and asked and I said we need a budget option...and she gave it to us for free! It was a second-hand stick, used already but you don’t mind it about the stick if it’s used or not...so we got it for free, greeeeaaat achievement, you know?

T: Was he happy about it?

I: ...and me too. We immediately tried to tap with it when we left

(Ivan, May, 2011)

Thirdly, supportive mentors provided the child with information support by providing details and options in response to the child’s questions or concerns. For instance, Nina recalled how she supported the child’s well-being by discussing future educational options when the child was preoccupied with the issue:

N: ...he was very preoccupied that he wasn’t sure how to decide about what will be next in terms of what school he is about to study in the future or what he will do in the future...he didn’t know about the system of secondary and third level education, he didn’t know that there is a secondary school and then a college so we talked about it together....we talked about what is coming after elementary school, what he would do when he´s finished there....and I explained it to him (the options) and he was thinking about where he could go to study, what he’d actually like to do, what he’d be interested in and stuff...he’d love to design and make models from paper, that’s what he loves to do.....so he asked me what to study to have a job like that in the future....but these are really very little things...

(Nina, December, 2011)

Finally, supportive mentors also functioned as youth advocates for their mentees. For instance, Sára got a chance to advocate for her mentee and his abilities, strengths, and competence as well as for the relationship with his mum when she was invited to a meeting with social services professionals. In particular, as Sára perceived the child’s positive autonomy, she was willing to advocate for the mentee and his competence in front of the professional carers. She presented particular examples of the child’s coping skills and competence that she had experienced in the mentoring relationship. Thus, Sára supported her mentee and his autonomous personality in the role of
advocate in order to improve and personalize the professional social care services for him:\footnote{In addition, even though Sára perceived certain issues with mentee’s mother, she had respect for the parent and the relationship the child had with the mum. On the contrary to controlling mentors, she did not intend to emphasize the issues on the mentee’s mum’s side in contrast to her “better” example for the mentee. Instead, she supported the relationship of her mentee with his mum as she perceived it a significant relationship for the child’s healthy development. Hence, she advocated for the mentee’s relationship with his mum in front of professional care workers in the child’s best interest.}

T: What do you mean exactly when you mention “the case meeting”?
S: It was a meeting of people who have contact with Jan – his teacher from elementary school, his social worker, his mum, the worker from the asylum home where they stay now, and the family support worker, and us from BBBS/SP....I was surprised when they described him as very autonomous in some ways but very incompetent in some other ways, I haven’t found anything like that...I don’t think, as they talked about him, that he’s insufficient in any ways, I don’t feel it like that at all...in general he’s got a very good sense of orientation, he can manage different situations, that’s actually something I wanted to write to the social worker too...she sent us the paper, the conclusions....I don’t agree with...when I organized the meetings with him I feel I can rely on him coming more than if I organized it with his mum, it is more complicated with her...they were thinking about taking him from her....I am against it, I wouldn’t do it even though I know there are risks but....I am sure it would be very traumatic for Jan...I think it would really cause many difficulties for him....he loves her I think.

(Sára, June, 2011)

6.2.2.2. \textit{RESULTED CHARACTERISTICS OF PROVIDED AUTONOMY SUPPORTS IN COOPERATION WITH CHILDREN}

In addition, the analysis clearly showed that the youth-led approach of autonomy supportive mentors in cooperation with children supported children’s autonomy and competence with:

1) \textit{Provision of Structure for Regularity of Mentoring Meetings};
2) \textit{Provision of Options AND Choice in Negotiation of Mentoring Activities};
3) \textit{Focus on Activities of Interest to Mentees};
4) \textit{Mutual Involvement in the Activities of Mentees` Preferences};
5) \textit{Provision of Positive Feedback}; and
6) \textit{Provision of Challenge}. 
I discuss all these characteristics in detail in the following section.

1) Perceived Positive Autonomy and Competence in Children

In general, all autonomy supportive mentors emphasized the children’s strengths they had experienced in mentoring interactions. In particular, they perceived the children’s autonomy and high levels of skills. Initially, autonomy supportive mentors emphasized children’s positive characteristics, abilities, and skills. In contrast to controlling mentors, supportive mentors did not mention the weaknesses of children when talking about their autonomy and abilities, but instead emphasized the children’s positive traits consistently from the outset of the mentoring relationships, and continued to mention the children’s positive skills, interests, and talents as positive traits as they experienced them during the mentoring interactions.

In particular, they emphasized mentees’ pleasant and lively natures and strengths of character such as perceived resilience and coping skills, as well as their intelligence and communication skills. For instance, they mentioned the children’s ability to travel independently by public city transport, their sense of direction in public spaces, or mentees’ special ability to focus and concentrate during the mentoring activities among others:

T: How would you describe him to someone who doesn’t know him?
S: …that he’s a very cheerful boy, energetic, hyperactive...he likes everything, but just for a short while...but actually it depends, when he likes something, he stays with it longer...well, he’s friendly, nice...very lively, open so he had no problems with communication from the very beginning...

(Sára, June, 2011)

I: He is cheerful, lively and sporty, and a very intelligent good fun boy (laugh)...it’s fun with him, he is reliable for his age which I appreciate in him, I like it (laugh)....I mean for instance when I lend him money, he brings it back and I don’t have to remind him or only in a fun way and he even jokes with me...I am not sure if he would do something bad to me...no, not at all, he’s easy...I think he has very good social intelligence...

(Ivan, May, 2011)

N: Well, Leny is a ten-year-old boy who is smart, very witty, has a huge imagination, he is insecure in some ways but when you get him on your side, he is friendly, open...and more importantly, he is a boy of action, he’s good fun, he is able to talk
about things with engagement, he has interesting opinions, discoveries, unusual ideas...I think he is more intelligent than his peers. I like that even though he has a disability he doesn’t see it as an issue, it’s the way it is...and he’s a very easy and nice boy and it’s fun with him....he is very creative, a thinker...he’s constantly creating new ideas about technical things, he likes planning or constructing machines or plans for them....and more importantly I like the way he’s talking about it, with such engagement....he’s very articulate, he has a very good vocabulary for his age I think, he’s really intelligent....I am always again and again surprised with the abilities of such a young boy, what he’s capable of, I never stop being surprised...

(Nina, June and December, 2011)

S: He is a very lively child. He has an angelic face so one would think he’d be calm but nope...he is very nice but...just lively, you know...but he’s not naughty, he’s quite a normal boy, very lively but he wouldn’t do anything bad, not at all...

(Tina, June, 2011)

Following that, I argue that the characteristics of autonomy supports were evident in the described cooperation style of supportive mentors in interactions with children.

2) Provision of Structure
Firstly, autonomy supportive mentors considered mentoring meetings as quality time that they facilitated for children. They suggested child-friendly places for the mentoring meetings rather than specific mentoring activities. Thus, they provided children with a structure for choice consisting of activities of interest to children. Autonomy supportive mentors also suggested child-friendly activities that took place in the child’s community. This was to avoid complications with travelling and to maintain the regularity of mentoring meetings. They explained how this simplified the organization and logistics of the activities.

Contrary to controlling mentors, who tended to rely on the suggestions of the BBBS case workers, autonomy supportive mentors actively searched for child-friendly resources close to the mentees’ homes, and so they intentionally structured mentoring meetings around the child’s community. They did not hesitate in travelling, even a significant distance, to the child’s community, but instead highlighted how much the mentoring meetings in the children’s place were enjoyable for both the mentee and themselves.
In this way they could overcome any issues around the organization of meetings that arose in the relationships, and they were successful in organizing mentoring meetings with high rates of regularity. Moreover, they introduced children to community resources offered for children and young people close to their own homes. The mentoring meetings organized around the children’s community thus supported children’s autonomy and intrinsic motivation in mentoring activities.

Supportive mentors also organized meetings outside the children’s communities in different child-friendly places. For instance, they mentioned playgrounds, parks, and historical sites of Prague that they perceived the mentees would enjoy. However, I argue that the organization of meetings in the children’s community was significant in establishing a regular structure to mentoring meetings:

S: …so the children’s cinema was nearby so we went there, then we visited the scary forest also over there by his place, because it’s all somehow very well-reachable there….because the communication with his mum has been complicated and so he sometimes didn’t arrive at the meeting point we arranged and stuff so I thought I would come to his place and pick him up….so for our last meetings I used to go to his place and pick him up and so we arranged the activities around his place so we could avoid complicated travelling by public transport….

(Sára, December, 2011)

T: He actually lives in (place of child’s living) and there is a house for children and youth close to their place and they have a leisure time club there…with different leisure time games and activities available, so we go there kind of often now…and in summer we used to go to the park nearby and do outdoor activities …we mostly go to the park (name of the place), take the Frisbee or badminton with us…and there are different playgrounds for kids, so the time goes fast……so I most often adjust to him, we build something, play together, through the ball….I try to adjust to him with this play, he’s still a little boy so…I simply try to match with what he’s playing with, or I also suggest something that I think he would like and stuff…

(Tina, December, 2011)
3) Provision of Choice in Negotiation on Activities

In addition, autonomy supportive mentors supported children’s autonomy with their strong focus on negotiation of activities with children. They made sure to give children options and choice when they suggested mentoring activities. Importantly, they listened to children, and so provided them an opportunity to express their interests and wishes about the mentoring meetings.

Supportive mentors treated children as partners in discussion about mentoring activities. Moreover, they also respected children’s expressions of dislike about activities they suggested. Thus, they authentically included children in decision-making on activities and supported their autonomy by respecting their wishes and interests.

As a result, I argue that mentors built up a mentoring bond with children who were included as equal partners in decision-making. In other words, in these negotiation events, mentors supported children’s frames of reference, that is, their autonomy and competence (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Deci et al, 1994). They provided choice to their mentees by giving them information about activities and then involving them in the decision-making process. In other words, mentors allowed children participate in decision-making regarding mentoring activities.

4) Support of Autonomy in Youth-Led Activities

Finally, when autonomy supportive mentors suggested activities for mentoring meetings, there was a *strong focus on activities that were enjoyable for children*. The suggestions of activities ware led by the mentees’ interests. Contrary to controlling mentors, cooperation on the selection of activities was youth-driven and prioritized children’s interests before the mentors’ intentions. The general attitude of autonomy supportive mentors primarily focused on the enjoyability of mentoring meetings for children. Thus, supportive mentors facilitated activities that were both driven by children’s interests and the enjoyability of the meetings for children. In addition, autonomy supportive mentors shared common interests with children, and did not hesitate in changing activities according to children’s perceived enjoyment or perceived
S: I don’t tend to push him into anything, we try to talk about everything and solve things together...be it about where we’re going in particular, or in general, anyway.

(Sára, January, 2011)

N: ...when he’s bored with something, it is visible that he’s not interested, that he’s bored so I am not interested either then, why should I be? ...and we stop it then...

(Nina, December, 2011)

Moreover, the children were encouraged by mentors to increase and develop their autonomous expressions of their interests. As a result, after five months of mentoring involvement, supportive mentors reported that they allowed children lead the mentoring activities according to their own interests. They outlined how they supported children’s interests in activities with empathy and understanding of the child and his or her choices:

T: How do you select the activities?
I: After mutual negotiation. I think I usually suggest something with him being excited about it and agreeing on it or adding on and suggesting something on his own....for instance skating was his idea...because I didn’t know that you could borrow the skates and skate for free there so he organized everything on his own, or more likely he chose it and negotiated...or negotiated...he told me that and we negotiated it together...and I surely have some ideas too so we discuss it together.

(Ivan, May, 2011)

T: How do you choose your mentoring activities?
S: Together in some way...usually I suggest something he might like or stuff...but recently he came up with his own suggestion, he said he wanted to go to the theatre...well, I was surprised and said we’ll find something for sure ...he always...as he remembers the last thing we did together, where he was and stuff, so when I call him, he’s always like: “Sára, I know where we could go this time...” and he always mentions where we were the last time, or what he has in the mind at the moment or stuff (Laughs)...

(Sára, January and June, 2011)

T: ...well, last time I suggested badminton, and he was interested and said yep, let’s go throwing...and eventually we were building kind of tree houses...we played badminton for a while and then did something else...so I’d tell him that if the weather was bad we could stay at home or go the club room, and if it was sunny outside, we could go out and take his monobike or something with us...and he’d be like: ‘yep, yep, all right.”... and I suggested the children’s club I’d found (around his place) and he liked it...so he wants to go there quite often now......and now in winter I am not against staying at home if he wants to, you know, I kind of understand him,
he has lots of leisure time activities all week so I am not surprised he wants to stay at home sometimes too.

(Tina, January, June and December, 2011)

6.2.2.3. Resulted Support of Competence Provided in Shared Youth-Led Activities

Finally, supportive mentors mentioned that the shared mentee’s interests supported children in their autonomy and competence during mentoring meetings. They described how they got engaged and shared mentoring activities led by children and their interests from the outset of relationships. In addition, mentors described how they shared a conversation about the children’s favorite activities and the fun that resulted from the play with the children. For instance, Tina perceived her mentee to have a great imagination that she connected with during their mutual play:

S: …we went to Petřín…into the labyrinth there, and then we played at the playground, which was awesome because he started to play on the things there, some x factor or stuff…I don’t follow these much…but the point was the people doing different tasks and stuff so we were jumping around over crocodiles, played “run and catch me” etc.…

(Sára, January, 2011)

T: …he has a kind of great imagination and he likes to tell me incredible stories when we play together…when we’re in his place and I ask him what he’d like to do, he always mentions what he’d like to play with and wants me to play with him and he can just watch me and I’m like well, if he wants it this way, I support him in it…

(Tina, December, 2011)

Following the autonomy supportive approach, supportive mentors showed strongly that they provided competence and enactment support to children in mentoring interactions. Firstly, they sensitively supported children’s spontaneous expressions with positive feedback on the children’s strengths that they experienced in the mentoring interactions. In particular, supportive mentors focused on supporting children’s confidence, self-esteem, creativity, and skills. They gave the mentees a chance to express their own abilities that they mutually shared, and they reflected with positive reinforcement. Thus, they provided children with positive feedback on their skills, interests, and abilities and hence supported the mentees’ self-esteem and competence.
For instance, Sára and Ivan illustrated their general approach and examples of events when they provided positive feedback and encouragement to children. Furthermore, Tina showed that she supported the child’s competence in his imagination during play. She gave an example of play she was involved in with the child, where she supported him in his autonomous expressions as well as with his cognitive skills, when Tom played with stories. Similarly, Nina described how she supported Leny’s imagination and ideas when she provided positive feedback to him and encouraged him to further develop the ideas he had shared with her. She emphasized her focus on positive feedback in relation to the child’s expressed autonomous skills and abilities. Hence, her positive and authentic supportive attitude to the child’s interests and skills helped her to build the confidence, self-esteem, and skills of her mentees.

S: I think that what he needs is exactly someone who encourages him about everything he can do, because he can do many things. I don’t know if this is the time when he’s gaining this feeling but...you can see it when he takes the menu and starts to read it aloud intentionally and he just waits for me to tell him: “Yes, great, you’re very good.” ...and it is great, (I mean it)...so I simply want him to feel that he is good, he is able to do many things and that’s what I think, anyway......when he’s doing something well or stuff, I am always with him, I always cheer him in it, support him in it....the positive feedback, the appraisal....I see how much he always likes and appreciates this kind of thing....

(Sára, June and December, 2011)

I: ...and I’m not sure...but I am always ready to admire him...for instance his sports achievements in ice skating, his rotations and stuff...that’s something I can’t do, apparently, so I think it is about the praise...and I don’t know if he likes it or not, or if someone else praised him or stuff, but I do it because I couldn’t do the same activity myself...

(Ivan, January, 2011)

T: He’s got a great imagination, so I am trying to support him in it, encourage him in it... The thing he likes most is to build from Lego, that’s something he can do for a good while....always when we build together, we do both, houses or ships...and he’s telling different stories with it...and he tells them to me and shows me what he’s building and stuff...and then he tells me: „You do this now...and we build this...”...and today he praised me for how nice the ship I built was (Laughs)

(Tina, June, 2011)
N: We talked about what he likes to do...and he told me that he likes to draw the plans of different machines...and his mum tells him that it’s nonsense...and I tell him that I like it and that when he grows older and becomes an engineer...constructing something, it might help him then, he’s got great imagination and he can use it in the future when he constructs something...and that it’s certainly not wrong and to continue in it...he’s got special ideas and I actually tell him that it sounds good and how would he do it in detail...and as I actually don’t know anything about all those airplanes, tanks, and stuff, I always get to know something new and interesting...when he’s interested in something, he reads about it or he talks about it with his dad and I look at it and admire him about all that stuff he knows, and many times I let him teach me in it...and I like it and enjoy it, you know...

(Nina, December, 2011)

Finally, supportive mentors supported children’s competence in events in which they challenged children’s skills. They believed that children could further develop their skills and abilities when they are optimally challenged (Csikzentmihalyi, 2013). Thus, they provided mentees with activities that challenged them to test their skills. Mentors provided children with a chance to experience the need for competence intrinsically from IPLOC when challenge was created around activities of interest to the children. As a result, mentees got a chance to experience and further develop competence in skills they employed in these activities.

Thus, I argue that supportive mentors facilitated optimal challenges, and thus helped to satisfy children's needs for competence when they followed children’s interests through play. In particular, supportive mentors facilitated the child’s need to feel competent when they noticed a particular skill the child used in play and created an optimal challenge for it. I argue that the experience of flow in this play further provided opportunities for the children to experience feelings of competence.

Ivan in general presumed that the experience of success in the challenge he provided to the mentee supported the child’s competence and self-esteem. Thus, Ivan identified his role of mentor as supporting the child to experience optimal challenge in enjoyable mentoring activities. In particular, Ivan mentioned the child’s skills in sports and fishing that he shared and challenged during mentoring meetings. Ivan described how he supported the child’s competence and self-esteem through challenging him when he agreed...
to play the child’s favorite board games regularly even if he was usually losing the game.

Sára described how she optimally challenged the child with the use of positive verbal supports. Interestingly, Sára emphasized the authentic nature of the event when she described how it developed by chance in response to her attunement to the child’s interests and needs.

I: He’s quite tolerant when I am not very good at football...he’s kind of a pro player, he shows me some tricks...he’s very good at all sports...lastly he showed me how to throw Frisbee behind the back correctly...and he wins at chess all the time...he was quite surprised that I still wanted to play with him....because no one else wants to play it with him as they always lose which I don’t really mind at all...

T: He mentioned he’s into fishing I reckon...He goes fishing with his grandad?

I: He goes with his grandad fishing quite often and then talks with me about his catches...well, it is his interest so he’s got a good chance to train me in it because I don’t know anything about it at all...so it might make him feel good that he can (train) such an older (guy)...and then he always wins in any competitive matches we play together...be it table tennis or board games or football...he’s always simply better, more skilled...and I think that he can see that he can do well in these activities...and that’s something that is probably very good for him...

(Ivan, May and December, 2011)

S: ...he can’t say R and Ř separately even though he is able to pronounce it in speech it’s only not very clear sometimes...but there are times when he says it very clearly and well...and it surprised me once because he often can’t say it and then he says it easily just by the way....so I don’t intend to push him anywhere but I tell him: ‘Now, you said it, it was very good, let’s try it again’....and it was an amazing story...we went roller blading to Letná and he really couldn’t say R and there was a dog around called Klára...and as he’s crazy about dogs, he was calling her: “Klálo, Klálo...” and I told him: “Jan, see, she won’t come because it’s just simply not her name, her name is Klára.” ...and he was trying really hard, and eventually he really called her KLáRa, he said it and what happened was the dog really came to him...and I was so thankful that it worked out, it was amazing and I was really happy for it, you know...

(Sára, June and December, 2011)

As a result of the mentors’ approach, the children became more active in talking about their interests and initiating activities with their mentors. Supportive mentors described children’s increasing autonomy in terms of higher confidence and openness in mentoring interactions. Nina mentioned that she noticed the child’s decreased shyness and increased easiness, closeness, and trust during mentoring meetings. Supportive mentors also
shared the development of increased autonomy in their mentees during youth-led mentoring activities:

T: And what does he talk about with you?
N: He talks very often about computer games because, as he puts it, he’s a maniac about computers ...he loves to play PC games for hours, he’s kind of a bit addicted to it and he can spend hours talking about it...he also shows me what’s new in it, how many levels he’s achieved already and what it all contains...and in terms of his interests...he used to talk for quite a good while about it... and I used to suggest the activities mostly myself but he’s more active in it now in the way that when he finds or comes across something he’s interested in he suggests that simply, he has no issues with that...

(Nina, December, 2011)

In sum, Figure 8 summarizes the pathways of developed characteristics of social supports provided by mentors in supportive relationships. In particular, Scheme 4 shows how the helping attitudes of autonomously motivated mentors further developed into autonomy and competence supports of children. In addition, they provided optimally matched enactment social supports (See below).
Figure 8: Summary Scheme 4 – Pathways of Provided Autonomy
Enactment Social Supports

Perceived Children’s Needs: Identified from Interactions with Children. Initial Info about Needs taken with Minor Importance

Perceived Role of Mentors: 1) Positive Available Add-On Activity to Daily Routines of Kids, 2) Primarily Not for Facilitating Children’s Needs, 3) Supportive Adults who are Part of Mentees’ Natural Social Networks, 4) Emphasis on Facilitation of Enjoyment of Activities, 5) Benefits for Children Seen as Subtle and Implicit only, 6) Positive Interaction in Experiences of Fun in Activities seen as Major Benefit

Characteristics of Provided Supports in Autonomy and Competence


Support of Competence in Play with: 1) Provided Positive Feedback on Children’s Strengths in Activities, 2) Provided Optimal Challenge on Children’s Interests

Evidence of Increased Autonomy in Interactions with Children: Decreased Shyness, Increased Confidence, Easiness and Openness.

Characteristics of Provided Enactment Supports

1) Provided as a Response to Expressed Needs of Children in Interactions, 2) Perceived as: Lower Coping Skills in Stress, Socio-Emotional Needs, 3) Perceived Needs of Children Treated Sensitively with Respect to the Child, 4) Supports Followed Child’s Pace
Table 2: Summary of Chapter VI - Comparison of Characteristic Features of Control and Supports in Mentoring Cooperation

In the following table I compare the main characteristic features of cooperation in relationships arising from the initial quality of motivations for volunteering and initial coping styles and the consequent dynamics of mentoring bonds. The features of controlling and supportive relationships are compared in terms of helping attitudes of mentors and cooperation in mentoring interactions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Helping Attitudes</th>
<th>Initial Controlling Motivations</th>
<th>Initial Autonomous Motivations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perceived Role of Mentor:</td>
<td>Significant Adult and Informal Supporter: Non-Judgemental Authentic Approach with Acceptance and Provided Social Supports in Information, Socio-Emotional Integration, Self-Esteem, Autonomy, and Competence; and Advocacy for Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intentional Role Model:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Judgemental Approach with</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-Acceptance of Children</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Efficacy in Children’s Well-Being</td>
<td>Children’s needs presumed on the basis of background info.</td>
<td>Non-Judgemental regarding mentees’ background needs: Can’t say why the mentee is in the programme. Does not want to make judgement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Constant comparison of</td>
<td>Benefits of mentors seen in facilitation of relaxation, fun, enjoyment, and positive interactions with children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mentors’ right (normal) and</td>
<td>Mentor seen as a positive add-on to children’s daily routines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>children’s wrong (excluded)</td>
<td>No presumptions on mentors’ efficacy in children’s general well-being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>social background</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intention to help children</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Children seen as in need of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mentors’ help</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Enactment Social Supports

<p>| Supports provided according to presumed needs. | Mentors saw themselves as older, wiser, supportive, and close significant |
| Supports did not match |                               |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cooperation in Mentoring Interactions</th>
<th>Nature of Mentoring Activities</th>
<th>Control/Support of Autonomy in Cooperation with Children</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Activities selected intentionally to meet children’s needs, as “good-for-children”</td>
<td>Children’s Autonomy and competence seen as weak or in terms of negative characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Repetitive</td>
<td>Control of children’s choice in the negotiation and selection of activities</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perceived as limited in enjoyability</td>
<td>Activities of mentors’ interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Activities instrumental to satisfaction of mentors’ initial motivations</td>
<td>Activities agreed in cooperation with mentees’ parents/guardian</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Activities pre-agreed before the mentoring meetings commenced</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Children expected to show interest and be responsible for organizing the meetings and activities</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Matches often joined and emphasized the group activities organized by BBBS</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mentors’ emphasized children’s autonomy and skills in various activities</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Selection of activities supported children’s autonomy</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Provided structure on activities of children’s interests</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Provided options and choice to children in negotiation of activities</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Focus on facilitation of activities of mentees’ interests</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mutual involvement in activities of mentees’ preferences</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- children’s needs in real time Supports emphasized children’s perceived needs and deficits.
- adults who were available to discuss topics of mentees’ interest
- Aimed to develop a secure and trustful mentoring bond
- Perceptive and sensitive to children’s needs expressed in mentoring interactions
- Provided optimally matched enactment social supports
| **Support of Competence** | No Significant Evidence | Optimal challenge for mentees’ skills provided in play based on mentees’ interests  
Provided positive feedback on mentees’ skills |
|--------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| **Resulted Evidence of Support/Control in Children** | Children rarely suggested their own ideas  
Children complied with mentors’ choices | Children were active in suggesting activities and interests to mentors  
Children initiated activities  
Children sought advice and support from mentors  
Mentors perceived decreased shyness and increased confidence and openness in cooperation with children |
CHAPTER VII: CHARACTERISTICS OF SATISFACTION AND RESULTED DYNAMICS OF MENTORING BONDS

7.0. INTRODUCTION

The previous three chapters of analysis showed how the initial quality of motivation impacted on characteristics and quality of developed mentoring bonds. Chapter VII will argue that the quality of initial motivation had an impact on relational satisfaction; and resulted in 1) dynamics of decline and dissolution in controlling relationships; and 2) dynamics of supportive natural mentoring bonds in supportive relationships.

After five months of mentoring involvement, the dynamics of controlling and supportive relationships developed differently. Controlling relationships were characterized by perceived relational dissatisfaction, emotional distance, and conflict. Contrary to supportive relationships, the dynamics in controlling relationships was moderated by a two-month summer break in meetings, and they were not very successful at renewing the mentoring bond after the summer break. Thus, the controlling relationships entered a phase of decline and dissolution before/after eight months of mentoring involvement. In total, five out of six controlling relationships terminated their regular meetings in the BBBS programme before or shortly after ten months of meetings.

By contrast, strong qualities of mutuality, trust, and durability of relationships were evident in autonomy supportive relationships. In particular, the supportive relationships were characterized by closeness. I argue that the focus on children’s interests in activities facilitated their enjoyment of meetings and their general satisfaction with the mentoring relationship. As a result, supportive relationships developed into mentoring bonds with long-term durability and the qualities of informal (natural) mentoring relationships.
7.1. CONTROLLING MENTORS

As we saw in previous chapters, controlling mentors’ expectations of the children’s behavior were related to their initial controlling motivation for mentoring involvement. Children’s explicit feedback on mentors’ efficacy in the mentoring role was crucial for their mentoring satisfaction and involvement in the mentoring bond. Firstly, I argue that mentors with initial controlling motivations made children responsible for the quality of the mentoring experience and their relational satisfaction. Thus, the children experienced conditional acceptance in return for their compliance with the mentor’s expectations. Secondly, I argue that the developed closeness had loose relational boundaries and imposed risks of emotional overinvolvement of mentors. As a result, five out of seven controlling relationships had dissolved by 12 months of mentoring involvement. Two relationships continued meetings with controlling dynamics evident in the mentoring bond.

7.1.1. Resulted Satisfaction in the Mentoring Role

The Chapter V argued that mentors with initial controlling motivations left their mentoring challenges unresolved. In addition, they tended to control and prevent the experiences of perceived challenge by controlling children’s behavior; satisfaction in the mentoring role was similarly contingent on children’s behavior. Mentors expected explicit positive feedback on their efficacy to make them feel satisfied in the mentoring activity. Mentors’ sources of satisfaction were thus regulated from EPLOC in children’s behavior, and so children’s positive feedback became instrumental to mentors’ positive involvement in the mentoring interactions. This dynamic led to the development of risks in mentoring interactions imposed on children. The following part of the chapter will discuss the characteristics of mentors’ satisfaction in controlling relationships.
7.1.1.1. Conditional Satisfaction and Involvement of Controlling Mentors

I argued in Chapter V that expectations regarding the involvement of children were aimed at the fulfilment of mentors’ initial controlling motivations from EPLOC. Thus, perceived explicit positive feedback from children facilitated mentors’ feelings of efficacy and acceptance, and thus their perceived satisfaction in the mentoring role. Controlling mentors were satisfied with the explicit feedback of children that expressed their appreciation of their attention during the mentoring meetings. After five months of mentoring involvement, controlling mentors interpreted children’s satisfaction as relatively high. This satisfaction was perceived as children’s active involvement with explicit positive feedback on the mentor’s performance.

For instance, Marta and Luisa expressed how the children’s feedback on their efficacy in the mentoring role was crucial to their satisfaction and involvement. The children’s explicit feedback satisfied mentors’ initial controlling motivations from EPLOC and thus mediated their satisfaction in the mentoring role:

M: …basically there are times when one is annoyed and bored with it. It only costs time and seemingly there is nothing in return, but then the feedback comes and those are the nice moments....when she suddenly runs to me and tells me that she likes me a lot and that she was looking forward to meeting me, that’s something that warms my heart...these are the moments when I don’t regret doing it...so I think it is very important to keep up the regularity of meetings and share activities where we mutually confirm our satisfaction....

(Marta, June, 2011)

L: We got lost together during a meeting, and we had to walk a long way before we found our direction....and she didn’t complain...it was nice that she didn’t tell me off for it...and we went shopping together once and I bought her a hoodie and she always wears it since then...so it was a good experience for me – to go shopping with her (Laughs)

(Luisa, June and December, 2011)

Children’s explicit acceptance of the mentor expressed with closeness towards them moderated mentors’ involvement in a mentoring bond. Thus, I argue that mentors with initial controlling motivations made children responsible for the quality of their mentoring involvement and experience in the
mentoring bond. They emphasized that the explicit feedback of joy was perceived as evidence that the needs of the mentees had been satisfied. These feelings, in turn, were relevant to mentors’ initial motivations and thus their satisfaction that mediated their involvement into the bond from EPLOC:

M: There certainly are moments when she is happy enjoying things, that kid then opens up and says something from her past and then I feel the bond is strong...at the same time I like it, as I am pushing myself to do something...I think it is time meaningfully spent for me and I have a good feeling that I am doing something that needed for society...We certainly spent time together that was amazing...I took her on a trip and she was excited....and it was clear that she wasn’t used to someone paying this kind of attention to her...it was the time when I realized that these kids need the attention of the mentor.

(Marta, December, 2011)

V: For me the best thing is that what I’m doing is not pointless...that when I am with Aaron he lets me know why I do it...that I bring him joy.

(Viki, June, 2011)

K: I was thinking it was clear that she doesn’t have enough impulses and that it is good that, not that she appreciates it, but how she was discovering new things...she told me she knew many things from classes they had about Prague but that she was only seeing it in reality with me...she took photos of everything and we had fun...it was nice...

(Květa, June, 2011)

In other words, mentors’ involvement was mediated by the perceived fulfilment of their expectations by children from EPLOC. They were willing to become involved, accept, and support the children as far as the children complied with their expectations and satisfied their initial needs. In this way, controlling mentors emphasized the features of the children’s role they expected the children to perform that would fulfil them in their mentoring role.

Controlling mentors expected mentees to share responsibility for organizing mentoring meetings. For instance, Barbel and Matylda expected the children to organize the mentoring meetings and supply ideas for mentoring activities. Luisa also expected the child to become a relationally equal partner, sharing responsibility and supporting the mentor with her personal issues, and thus to fulfil her initial motivation around need for emotional integration.
(Weiss, 1973). In other words, the child was expected to provide emotional support to the mentor and thus facilitate satisfaction in the mentoring involvement:

L: T: What would be the ideal relationship for you?
L: To make her talk more...to be able to talk about what makes us worried, etc...if this could change, she would be more chatty and would come to me and ask me how am I doing or what I was doing...she doesn't have to come up with the questions, but when I ask her, she could ask the same, it would be significantly different then (I'd be happier with her)...for instance I have a friend, she is 18 but no one would guess she is that age...she is practically blind and she has other issues...I meet her occasionally...she is still very childish...and we talk together...I ask her about her boyfriend and she asks me about mine and...I told her last time that I moved to his place and she replied how romantic it was...so if it was something similar with Denisa it would be perfect...

(Luisa, June, 2011)

M: I told him to make an effort, that I won't meet him unless he makes some effort to show that he wants to go somewhere... I told him: "If you want to go to the view tower...there is a Planetarium nearby there...you only need to text me that you want to go there....and we'll go...."

(Matylda, May, 2011)

T: Have you ever felt emotional distance, or some issue or been annoyed with her or similar?
B: I did...It was in winter. We agreed where she would wait for me, but she came here (to the BBBS club room) as her mum told her to, but I was looking for her, and I was little bit annoyed. It wasn't her fault, but she should remember what I told her...I didn't even hear her apology, she wasn't bothered that I was looking for her there...

(Barbel, June, 2011)

7.1.1.2. Satisfaction Mediated with Over-Involvement of Mentors: Compulsive Helping

I argue that mentors regulated from EPLOC needed to satisfy their initial motivations through mentoring interactions. They intentionally created mentoring interactions as an instrument for their own satisfaction. To satisfy their initial introjected motivations, some of them became instrumentally or emotionally over-involved in the children's well-being. I argue that the experience of over-involvement for the children was developed from EPLOC to
satisfy the initial controlling motivations for volunteering of mentors. Thus, I argue that they developed emotional and instrumental over-involvement in the well-being of the child and their family, outside of the mentoring match, with the aim of satisfying these initial introjected motivations.

For instance, Luisa felt her needs were satisfied by taking responsibility for her mentee’s care and well-being, thus showing how controlling mentors got satisfaction from caring for mentees’ material needs, such as buying them expensive gifts. They became responsible for the child’s well-being outside the mentoring match to get external approval for their mentoring involvement:

L: ...I take care of someone, I mean I have a responsibility for someone...and when I told my mum a bit about Denisa, she started to accept the idea that I can be important for her, that it is not just childminding, that it can have an impact on her...I wanted to do something for her so she could become at least as wealthy as you, you know...but you have limited options, time...I only have one afternoon a week, and I can’t make her life the same as most peoples’...you just don’t live with them...so I originally thought...I could take up the role of her parents and go to her school and talk with her teachers...but I know it should be her decision, shouldn’t it?...and they don’t recommend it to me, anyway (BBBS case workers)

(Luisa, December, 2011)

The over-responsibility they developed consisted of an intention to facilitate and satisfy children’s emotional needs as perceived by them. Nevertheless, mentors who were over-involved in children’s emotional well-being soon began to feel the burden of emotional over-responsibility in the mentoring role. As their over-involvement was regulated from introjections, they were unable to balance the challenge of emotional boundaries in the mentoring bond, and as a result, as the mentors could not impact directly on children’s general well-being outside the mentoring match, they began to experience the mentoring role as a burden and with feelings of frustration. In other words, the emotional over-involvement directly developed from the dynamics of the initial perceived challenges around closeness that were not resolved. The initial inability to establish secure emotional boundaries in the mentoring bond was followed by the emotional over-involvement of the mentor:
T: What do you think would be the biggest challenge for you?
V: I think of the situation in Aaron’s family, it makes me worried. I’d like to help him somehow, but don’t know how...can’t do much with it...and when he’s sometimes unhappy at home, or when it’s not the way it should be...it is his situation in general (that is difficult for me)...because I like him, and I know that he’s a lovely kid who deserves something better...so I often wonder if he’s doing well, if he’s getting what he needs, and if there’s any physical violence in his family....

(Viki, June and December, 2011)

7.1.2. Resulted Experiences of Closeness with Dynamics of Relational Dissatisfaction and Distance, Decline and Dissolution of the Mentoring Bonds

As we will see in the following section, the closeness in the controlling mentoring dynamics imposed several risks on children. Firstly, the mentees experienced a lack of boundaries in the mentoring roles, and thus the insecurity of their involvement was ethically questionable (Rhodes et al., 2009, Spencer et al., 2006, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010). The closeness in controlling relationships was based on similarities in background and interests. In addition, mentors developed emotional over-involvement in the mentoring bond. Secondly, the emotional bond was experienced with dissatisfaction; the emotional and physical distance of mentors and mentees; experiences of boredom and detachment; and decline of involvement in the mentoring bond. As a result, four out of six controlling relationships dissolved during the first 11 months of mentoring involvement.

7.1.2.1. Closeness in Similar Background of Children and Controlling Mentors

In general, controlling mentors identified with background experiences that they shared with children ranging from childhood experiences to shared interests. For example, they mentioned that they shared experiences with the children that they were familiar with from their own experiences of childhood. For instance, Barbel identified how the child’s issue with reading reminded her own childhood experiences:
T: What do you have in common?
B: Drawing, and maybe shyness to some extent...maybe I’d also say that the challenge of reading she has, she makes lots of effort...when I think of myself in her age I also had issues with it (reading) and I remember I also read a lot the same way.
(Barbel, June, 2011)

Experiences of Mutuality in Shared Mentoring Events

Controlling mentors highlighted the fact that experiences of closeness did occur when mentors took part in activities that the children actively enjoyed. They described mutual involvement in events that spontaneously evolved from mentoring activity into play as experiences of relational closeness and flow (Csikzenmihalyi, 2013).

The mentoring meetings that were facilitated with spontaneity around children’s interests, that is, outside of the usual routine structure prescribed by controlling mentors, were experienced with mutual involvement and enjoyment. Consequently, the activity developed a flow of play that mediated feelings of mutuality and relational closeness. In other words, similarly to supportive relationships, the mutually shared enjoyment, interest, and/or excitement of children in mentoring activities mediated the experiences of quality relational closeness. This mutuality can be described in terms of the autonomous genuine involvement of mentors who shared children’s enjoyment of activities. However, these experiences were mentioned as exceptional, and occurred only rarely in controlling relationships:

L: ...when we run together to catch the bus or metro there are times when I feel no difference between us. I told her: “Look, there is a metro waiting...” and I caught her hand and we both wanted to catch it so we ran together...and then I told her: “Look, there’s a tram waiting, do we want to catch it?” ...and I really meant: Do we want to run to catch it? ...and she caught my hand and let me lead her, and we ran together ...that was a time I felt close to her.
(Luisa, June, 2011)

M: ...when we were in the labyrinth, he was running around; he likes to go up with the funicular, there are simply things he likes to do...
T: And what did you do when he was enjoying the activities?
M: We did silly things together, we were naughty together...it wasn’t that he was all alone in it...
(Matylda, May, 2011)
T: Is there some experience or period of time that would be best of all of it?
B: The visit to the swimming-pool. That process of getting to know what it is because she had never been there before...so I had an experience, thanks to her, because she had never been in such a huge swimming-pool before, she had only ever played in the children’s pools. That moment before she went in, it was the best.

(Barbel, June, 2011)

Mutuality and Physical Closeness

Moreover, I argue that in controlling relationships, three out of seven initially tracked mentors did not provide secure experiences of closeness in the mentoring bond due to unresolved dilemmas of mentoring involvement (Deci et al., 1994, Ryan, Solky, 1986, Bowlby, 2010, Brumovská, Seidlova Málková, 2010). In general, children in mentoring relationships expressed their engagement with mentors with physical touches, such as hugs and cuddles. Controlling mentors recalled experiences of physical contacts in close interactions with children. In particular, physical touches were emphasized as experiences of closeness with children in interactions by controlling mentors only.

I argue that the physical and emotional closeness in relationships was linked to mentors’ initial introjected motivations, as well as with the initial dynamics of unresolved challenges in the mentoring role. Physical closeness was an instrument that regulated mentors’ satisfaction from EPLOC, and I argue that the high degree of emotional closeness and physical contact in mentoring interactions was satisfying for mentors as the instrument for experiencing their initial introjected motivations for volunteering.

Firstly, controlling mentors highlighted that they perceived physical touch to be the spontaneous expression of the children’s character, needs, and involvement in the mentoring match. They recalled that the children were emotional towards them in mentoring interactions, and that they occasionally hugged the children to respond to their needs as they perceived them. They also interpreted children’s hugs as a sign of trust towards them:

47In general, physical touch, such as hugs, are acceptable by the rules of the BBBS Czech Republic programme. According to the BBBS CZ programme’s policy, physical contact supports children’s positive development and satisfies their needs in mentoring interactions. In addition, mentors are encouraged to dedicate more than three hours a week to children in occasional activities such as sleeping over in mentors’ places, and these activities occur often among BBBS CZ matches.
L: …we occasionally do that when we meet up or when we say good bye, we hug each other…it’s not a rule really… but she needs physical contact too.

(Luisa, December, 2011)

T: Do you ever feel close to her? Why would you feel that way?
B: I am thinking about her running to me when we meet up and saying “hi,” and she hugs me many times when she sees me, when we meet up, which wouldn’t be usual with everyone.

(Barbel, June, 2011)

M: Very, very emotional…she likes physical touch, and she’s like:”You’re kind of like my sister”…very sensitive, really…and cuddling…she likes to talk, she likes to cuddle…

(Marta, December, 2011)

Secondly, I argue that the patterns of physical closeness breached the secure boundaries of the mentoring bond and posed emotional risks to children (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010). For instance, Květa described the characteristics of mutuality in mentoring interactions with an emphasis on physical contact as a significant feature of quality and satisfaction in her mentoring bond. She described her understanding of the mentoring role in terms of the parenting role, and emphasized that she was fostering the role of mother in relation to the child during the mentoring meetings. Hence, she intended to respond to the child’s emotional needs by taking on a mothering role (Ryan, Deci, 2000, Ryan, 1991, 1993).

Furthermore, Viki mentioned how she let the mentee kiss her briefly when giving her birthday greetings. Following that, as the mentee continued with the same expressions of closeness on other occasions, Viki concluded that the mentee was becoming more close and intimate with her. In fact, it seemed that Viki had not reflected on the possibility of crossing emotional boundaries towards intimacy in her mentoring relationship before talking about it in the research interview:

K…she missed the experience of the mothering bond, and so I think that my role is half friendly, that I’m kind of a close friend to her, but at the same time she sees the adult woman in me so she tends to cuddle and hug and says that she’s my baby…so it is not just a friendship between us…it is natural and with the spark of motherhood…she’s interested in me as well, and she knows I care for her, so it is not just about picking her up and going swimming together and then bringing her back…we also chat together, the interaction is personal and more intimate as she
needs to cuddle, hug ...so we play together and it involves physical touch which I haven’t experienced with boys before...

(Květa, December, 2011)

V: ...the only thing I am aware of is that he gives me a kiss on his own...he’s not ashamed anymore, and he knows he can do it...so when we were in his current place, he came to me, stood next to me and said: “I looked forward to seeing you so much.” ...and kissed me, yep, it happens...even when I had my birthday in July, he congratulated me and gave a kiss...so I think that, in this way, it is visible that he really...that he likes me more and more....

(Viki, December, 2011)

Therefore, the characteristics of closeness in three controlling relationships developed features of intimacy with dynamics of lack of respect of and control over emotional boundaries (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Weiss, 1973, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010, Ryan, Solky, 1996, Deci et al., 1994). Viki and Aaron maintained regular meetings with the deeply close involvement of both parties. Hence, after five months of mentoring experience, Viki had positive expectations for the future of the relationship. However, after the summer break the situation in Aaron’s home became serious. Viki stayed involved in the relationship and remained supportive to the mentee during that time. The situation was emotionally overwhelming for Viki as she was challenged with maintaining healthy boundaries, and so after 11 months of mentoring experience, she reported feeling significant stress due to the responsibility she had taken on for his support and well-being:

V: ...I am very worried about how he is going to end up...if they are separated, I’d be worried he’d not end up well...because I would be able to help him anymore if he moved away from me...I probably wouldn’t know what to do in such a situation, and I’d be very sorry about it because I really, really like him a lot.

(Viki, December, 2011)

Květa and Caroline’s meetings were interrupted after the first three months, but renewed again after eight months. I argue that the break in the relationship was part of the controlling dynamics of closeness vs. distance in the mentoring bond that Květa developed. Květa neither reflected on the level of closeness and intimacy in the relationship, nor the possible reasons for the interruption in the mentoring meetings. On the contrary, she remained active in her mentoring role as it was satisfying her controlling motivations.
instrumentally from EPLOC. Květa expected that the mentoring relationship would endure in spite of the unresolved dilemma of closeness in the mentoring bond:

K:…even though we were not meeting regularly for a while, because Caroline had another friend and had lost interest in meeting up with her older friend (a mentor), we started to meet up again regularly, and it was evident that the bond was still there and it was quite strong, so we could start to meet up again and continue with what had already been initiated but interrupted…it’s just like we go on as if nothing had happened…it’s not that anything was wrong.

T: How long do you think you’ll be meeting up?
K: I’d like it to be for as long as possible…and I would really like to see her adolescent years (laughs)...I hope the relationship deepens into a friendship outside of the BBBS/SP programme...and I’d like our cooperation to last longer so I could see how she’s doing, how she’s growing up, it would be nice...

(Květa, December, 2011)

Finally, the third relationship with the dynamic of emotional overinvolvement had to be reported to child protection services due to the consideration of potential harm to the child. Thus, the match was not included in the analysis and reporting of research results due to ethical considerations.

7.1.2.2. RELATIONAL DISSATISFACTION, DECLINE AND DISSOLUTION OF CONTROLLING RELATIONSHIPS

In addition, the data showed strongly the characteristics of resulted dynamics of relational dissatisfaction, decline, and dissolution in controlling relationships. I discuss the details in characteristics in the following part.

1) Dissatisfaction in Mentors’ Unfulfilled Expectations for Children’s Involvement

Firstly, controlling mentors reported significant dissatisfaction in the mentoring role and in the relationships. They developed features of emotional distance in the mentoring bond in reaction to the unfulfilled expectations they had about their and the children’s involvement. They emphasized the expectation that children were responsible for providing positive feedback as part of their active involvement in the mentoring relationship. In other words, they were unwilling to become involved in and share mentoring activities with mentees unless the children behaved according to their expectations.
Controlling mentors mentioned how the lack of fulfillment of their initial controlling motivations mediated their own low commitment to further involvement. They emphasized that the lack of positive feedback from children on their mentoring activity mediated their dissatisfaction and consequent emotional distance and withdrawal from the mentoring relationship. Controlling mentors felt they were not benefiting from the mentoring experience with the children any longer. Furthermore, they specified that the mentoring experience did not provide the satisfaction they initially expected. They described how the communication with the children and the overall experience became rather frustrating and dissatisfying for them.

I argue that the reasons for mentors’ dissatisfaction and consequent distance towards children in the mentoring bond developed due to their inability to accept children’s autonomous natures and styles of involvement, as these conflicted with mentors’ initial expectations. Thus, mentors confirmed that their initial controlling motivations remained unsatisfied by children’s mode of involvement in the mentoring bond. Consequently, they concluded, in congruence with their initial motivations, that the perceived distance and consequent decline and dissolution of the mentoring relationships was caused by the mentees’ character, their lack of interest, and their inappropriate involvement in the mentoring bond. In other words, children’s natural characteristics were given as the reasons for the mentors’ dissatisfaction and emotional distance in controlling matches. In this way, they could still attest to their own competence in the mentoring role when the relationship dissolved:

B: ...I think the year with her brought me experience. But I think if I had stayed another year, I wouldn’t have gained anything from it as we know each other now...even if it’s better the more we know each other, I would not have the challenge; so the fact is that it doesn’t bring me anything new anymore...It just feels like I am only giving to her now, I am teaching her...but she can’t give me anything like that because she is a little kid...kids can give a lot but this is just not enough...

(Barbel, December, 2011)

M: ...now he comes, smiles, and keeps quiet...before he was a bit chatty, but now, when I don’t ask him, he can go all the way to the viewing point without saying a word...he’s old enough and quite capable ...so he should be willing to show an interest!
T: And how do you feel about seeing him once a month only?
M: I always ask him where he wants to go or what he wants to do. He replies that he
doesn’t know, he doesn’t care. I ask him then: “Do you want to go to the swimming
pool?” and he replies: “Yeah, we could go there.” …but ultimately he says he doesn´t
care.
T: And what do you think about it?
M: I kind of don’t care now either where I go with him since he doesn’t
care…Meeting up once a month and being bored, having no plans where to go - I
don’t like that.

(Matylda, May, 2011)

M: …she got used to things and adapted to the common routines and lived at home
again and I felt like she liked me, she enjoyed the time spent with me, but on the
other hand she didn’t directly need me...and I felt like I didn’t have that much to
give her because, to be honest, I am not her peer ...so it was more like the way I
organized some activity, she liked to take part in it, but it wasn’t that she needed me
and took things from me directly...even though she surely liked to talk about certain
issues with me more than with her peers.

(Marta, December, 2011)

L: Well, I often feel like the adult, not exactly a parent but I don’t feel we are on the
same level...
...because the level and tastes of Denisa...this family functions completely
differently, and they live differently...I could not imagine living there, you know
...she just gets on better with kids like M. who is 6...they enjoy farting on their hands
and that kind of thing, and laugh at the silliest things, and I just simply can’t lower
myself to this primitive kind of level if I say it in a mean way...I just can’t laugh with
her at these things, or enjoy such things...and I just can’t make myself like her...if I
was in her skin, I would feel like I was just hanging around from nothing to nothing,
I would be bored, but she just seems to be happy in it...and this is my general
impression actually...she draws some kind of signs on paper...if I was in her skin, I
would feel like...drawing something ugly ...but she is evidently happy in it...she’s just
unpretentious, very simple in some ways...

(Luisa, December, 2011)
2) Distance and Disconnection of Mentors in Children’s Play

Mentors reported that they perceived feelings of distance due to differences in the mentoring match. These feelings of emotional distance in relationships were mediated by perceived differences in backgrounds, characteristics, and interests between controlling mentors and their mentees. In particular, controlling mentors emphasized the age and background differences between them and the children. They also described feeling emotional distance in mentoring interactions.

Controlling mentors argued that, because of this, they could not accept children as equal partners in the mentoring bond. They considered their adult status to be the reason for the perceived emotional distance in the mentoring bond. Thus, the distance in the relationship developed due to mentors’ decreased involvement in the mentees’ interests. In particular, controlling mentors mentioned the distance and detachment in terms of their own lack of willingness to communicate with mentees, to become involved in mentees’ interests and play, and to provide support in response to mentees’ expressed desires.

For instance, mentors mentioned how they spent time on their own in activities they were interested in while the children were doing another activity that they enjoyed more alongside them. In other events, even though mentors shared an interest in the activity with the child, they did not participate in the activity in a way that the mentee would prefer and enjoy. Finally, mentors also mentioned spending time in activities that children were interested in, but not being actively involved in the events. As a result, the mentors and mentees did not share activities in such a way as to be two individuals engaged in activities in parallel. Thus, controlling mentors were challenged by regular feelings of emotional distance and detachment in interactions with the children they felt dissatisfied with.

Luisa and Marta, for example, emphasized both the difference between them and the children in the general enjoyment of the activities, as well as their inability to get involved in play because they did not accept it due to the
perceived differences. They even concluded that the mentees’ enjoyment of play was not acceptable to them:

M: I certainly feel bored sometimes…you can’t avoid it, the kid is younger, she is 12. We don’t share an interest in animals for sure…she can talk about dogs for hours which is something I’m not in to much…and then sometimes I don’t like to listen to what the boys are doing…she’s very busy with childish love affairs, so I have to talk to her about it to some extent to fulfil our obligations to talk about everything but these childish views I don’t share any longer…I am surely a few years older already (than her) ...

(Marta, June, 2011)

I perceive it like I am the older, wiser, and more responsible one, we are not on the same level...I am just kind of an adult in it, you know...when she goes to swing at the playground, I sit on the bench and wait for her and start to look at my phone or stuff...and Denisa is swinging there and then she stops and says: “let’s go.”...to be honest I don’t enjoy swimming with her...I like swimming, I used to like going swimming on my own...but the way I do it is to get into the pool and really swim...but I don’t like doing silly things, but with Denisa we spend the time separately there...I could be swimming around, she’d be trying her water hand-stands and other silly stuff...I kind of expected that during the time we spent together we would become closer but...I don’t feel like we are there together...we are just two separate individuals...

(Luisa, June and December, 2011)

3) Experiences of Boredom; Physical Distance of Children and Dissolution of Relationships

As a result of controlling characteristics, experiences of emotional distance and dissatisfaction in the mentoring bond, it appeared that children themselves became amotivated for mentoring meetings. Thus, after 3-8 months of mentoring involvement, the experiences of boredom marked a phase of decline (Keller, 2005) in controlling relationships.

In particular, mentees themselves started to express their lack of interest in mentoring activities, expressed boredom, and finally withdrew from mentoring meetings. Controlling mentors described the relational distance in terms of the perceived boredom they experienced during the mentoring activities. They mentioned that the children expressed boredom as they disliked the nature of mentoring meetings. In addition, the perceived distance

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48 I argue that the EPLOC regulation of their involvement prevented them from having empathy with children, and thus from authentic interactions with the mentees.
in mentoring interactions was caused by the rigid routine of the mentoring meetings, perceived as boring by children, as well as by the low level of mentors’ involvement in the activities:

M: Of course when she dislikes something, or when she’s already bored, she becomes silent and a bit bored with things…but that would be occasionally only…there must be something to make her really bored…otherwise she’s always the same...it certainly depends, one meeting is good, another not so good…but in general the meetings are all the same…we walk somewhere, go to the park, take a walk etc....I felt for sure the distance during the summer holidays, and then after summer I felt the distance was there…and it was strong with her....she expressed the explicit view that she didn’t want to keep the meetings ongoing...you know she was the kind of person who would cling to you quickly, but quickly become distant too...

(Marta, June and December, 2011)

V: The library is always the same...it is always about the same thing...we have to adjust the meetings taking into account that there is no money available for us...so when we go to the library three times in a row, I think it is kind of boring and routine for him...so when I suggest it a fourth time again, even though he says yes, let’s go there, I feel he’s not enthusiastic, he’d like something else...

(Viki, June, 2011)

Consequently, controlling mentors highlighted that the feelings of distance in relationships deepen when the children start to express their dissatisfaction and withdraw from the relationships by cancelling meetings. Thus, the controlling relationships finally moved into dissolution and closure during the first year of mentoring involvement.

Barbel firstly recalled feelings of distance with the child when she compared the mentee’s physical contact with other adults and with herself. The experience challenged her to reflect on her feelings of emotional distance. Following that, Barbel and Agnes’s match did not successfully maintain regular meetings after the summer break. On the contrary, the mentee started to cancel meetings and withdraw from the relationship, and Barbel became dissatisfied. Thus, at the time of the third interview, the case worker was

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49 In particular, three controlling relationships (Luisa, Viki, Barbel) were still ongoing with irregular meetings after 11 months. I argue that these relationships were at the stage of decline and dissolution (Keller, 2005) at the time. In particular, controlling mentors described the experiences of conflict with the children due to children’s intentions to withdraw from the mentoring bond. In addition, one relationship was renewed after 5 months’ break. Finally, the relationships of Marta and Matylda were officially closed by BBBS at the time of the third round of interviews.
supporting the match to organize regular mentoring meetings every two weeks. Barbel expected the match to break down soon under the new arrangement:

B: on the trip to the Valley...I was challenged by the fact that she ran to get attention from M. (the BBBS case worker) and wasn’t with me much...then she came, but at the beginning of it...I felt like...after ¾ of the year spent together, we’ve always done arts & crafts activities, and it’s true that she doesn’t want to hold my hand at the crossroads, or we don’t have any cuddling contact like the other matches would have as far as I know...I know when she sees her mum she cuddles with her immediately, which is something we never did together...she’d long for physical touch in different ways (but with other people)...
T: Are you worried about the future?
B: well, I have just been worried that I will keep coming to the meetings and she won’t show up again, that’s all...

(Barbel, December, 2011)

Similarly, Marta and Manon’s matches dissolved shortly after the summer break. The slow decline of the relationship started with irregular meetings before the summer break, and continued until the dissolution of the relationship after nine months duration. Marta confirmed that her mentee explicitly expressed dissatisfaction and withdrew from meetings. She intended to stay in touch with her in the future, as she felt responsible for the child as a result of her mentoring involvement:

T: And what do you expect for the future, would you meet up again?
M: Yep, I’d definitely like to meet up again, but I’d like to meet up after some time now because I more or less know how she is doing now and so it wouldn’t be that interesting for me now, and so I think it would be more interesting to meet up in six months to see if anything is different.

(Marta, December, 2011)

Finally, Luisa highlighted that after 11 months of involvement, the match showed signs of decline, with both strong feelings of detachment and physical distance on the part of the child during the mentoring meetings. The mentee appeared to prefer to seek support from other people and peers and to become defiant with Luisa. Conflict emerged between the child and the mentor when the mentee attempted to withdraw from the bond. Luisa explained that her involvement in the mentoring bond had grown gradually
over the 11 months, and expected that it would continue to grow deeper over the second year of the mentoring match:

L: We could be closer in the relationship...I wish it were more evident from her that she likes being with me and stuff...and I could be more important for her...she could stop running away from me when we arrive somewhere together and stuff...

T: How long do you think you’ll keep meeting up?

L: Well, I think for a long time yet, easily...we are not together for that long...even though the contract is for ten months minimum but it is expected that you might end after that...but I was planning to stay in it for two years or so from the beginning....

(Luisa, December, 2011)

7.1.3. SUMMARY OF DYNAMICS OF DISSATISFACTION, DECLINE AND DISSOLUTION IN CONTROLLING RELATIONSHIPS

In sum, two dynamics of closeness and satisfaction were developed in the controlling relationships following the initial dynamics of coping with the perceived mentoring challenges.

Firstly, the initial dynamics of unresolved challenge of **closeness vs. distance** (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010, Štech, 1997) developed into relationships with experiences of closeness in physical contact and emotional co-dependence between the mentor and mentee. Thus, the analysis showed clearly that the initial introjected motivations of mentors developed into risks that were imposed on children and their positive socio-emotional development (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010, Weinstein, Ryan, 2010, Ryan, 1991, 1993, Ryan,Solky, 1996). In particular, the characteristics of closeness developed in these mentoring relationships lacked a secure structure and emotional boundaries (Deci et al., 1994, Ryan, 1991, 1993, Ryan, Solky, 1996). I argue that introjected ego-involvement in the mentoring role gave rise to ethical issues in the mentoring role (Rhodes, et al., 2009, Spencer et al., 2006, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010).

Secondly, controlling mentors described how the initial dynamics of unresolved challenges in terms of acceptance vs non-acceptance of the child (Ibid) developed into dynamics of emotional distance that were evident after five months of mentoring involvement. Besides some rare experiences of mutuality and relational closeness, controlling mentors mostly experienced significant dissatisfaction in the mentoring role and emotional distance in
their interactions with children. The emotional distance manifested as disconnection in the mentoring bond with experiences of boredom.

I argue that they were challenged to provide unconditional emotional involvement in the mentoring bond. They were not emotionally involved with children in the mentoring interactions unless they felt that their own initial introjected motivations were satisfied in some way. As a result of mentors’ dissatisfied controlling motivations, mentors felt dissatisfaction in the mentoring role and developed emotional distance in the mentoring bond with children. Thus, I argue that the experiences of relational dissatisfaction, emotional distance, detachment, and dissolution developed as regular patterns for controlling relationships. In addition, I argue that these characteristics stemmed from mentors’ initial introjected motivations and the consequent controlling characteristics of their involvement in the mentoring bond. Finally, Figure 9 summarizes pathways of moderators of dissatisfaction, decline, and dissolution in controlling relationships.
Figure 9: Summary Scheme 5 – Pathways of Dynamics of Dissatisfaction, Decline and Dissolution

**Conditional Satisfaction of Mentors after 5 Months**

- **Mediated with:**
  1) children’s compliance with mentors’ expectations,
  2) children’s explicit expressions of compliance interpreted as their satisfaction.

- **Controlled with:**
  1) Negative Feedback that Prevented or Dismissed Children’s Spontaneous Expressions,
  2) Responsibility for Mentors’ Satisfaction Placed on Children

**Experiences of Closeness in the Mentoring Bond with Controlling Dynamics**

- **Emotional and Instrumental Over-Involvement in Child’s Well-Being with Feelings of Dissatisfaction and Burden in the Mentoring Role**
- **1) Closeness and Mutuality Experienced Exceptionally only, 2) Experiences of Closeness in Physical Contact, and 3) in Emotionally Loose Boundaries in the Mentoring**

- **Experiences of Emotional Distance and Disconnection in:**
  1) Perceived Relational Dissatisfaction, 2) Perceived Emotional Disconnection with the Child with Often Experiences of Boredom, and 3) Children’s Emotional and Physical Withdrawal from the Bond.

**Resulted Dynamics: Decline and Dissolution of Relationships between 3 – 12 Months of Mentoring Experience**
7.2. Autonomy Supportive Mentors

Autonomously motivated mentors identified with the mentoring activity they developed in congruence with their authentic selves. Thus, they experienced interactions with children as inherently satisfying whereby the mentoring activity itself became a source of intrinsic satisfaction. They emphasized experiences of relaxation, enjoyment, and fun in play with children as major benefits of their involvement and a source of their satisfaction in the mentoring role. Furthermore, mentors were perceptive to the inherent benefits of mentoring for children. In addition, they were perceptive to subtle intrinsic signs of mentees’ satisfaction, such as mutual enjoyment and mentees’ autonomous activity.

As a result, the relationships were experienced with a high mutual satisfaction that further mediated the quality experiences of closeness, mutuality, and trust. In particular, mentors described feelings of closeness with high mutual relational satisfaction and perceived benefits of flow. They experienced trust expressed by children in mentoring interactions as follows:

1) Subtle physical closeness by mentees;
2) Deepened communication on personalized topics of children’s interest;
3) Higher autonomous activity of children;
4) Children sought instrumental, emotional, and advice supports from mentors during the meetings progressively especially after eight months of mentoring involvement.

As a result, the relationships developed characteristics of highly beneficial supportive and long-term mentoring bonds with qualities of natural mentoring relationships.

7.2.1. Perceived Satisfaction in Supportive Relationships

Firstly, the data showed that, following their initial autonomous motivations, the supportive mentors were highly intrinsically satisfied with the mentoring role they developed in interactions with children. Following that, they could perceive signs of intrinsic satisfaction in children. Thus, they supported children’s authentic expressions of satisfaction, and thus their development of
authentic self. As a result, the supportive relationships reported experiences of high mutual relational satisfaction.

7.2.1.1. **PERCEIVED POSITIVE INTRINSIC SATISFACTION OF MENTORS**

I argue that the sources of mentors’ perceived satisfaction in the mentoring relationship were linked to their initial autonomous motivation for volunteering. Contrary to controlling mentors, **they were aware of the difference between a sense of obligation and the enjoyment of the mentoring role.** Thus, they emphasized that the opportunity to enjoy the relationship itself made them satisfied. I argue that they identified with their mentoring role to the extent that their activity was internalized in congruence with their authentic selves. The mentoring activity itself became an inherent source of intrinsic satisfaction in the mentoring role. As a result, being active as a mentor made them feel good in the mentoring relationships they created. Their autonomous mentoring activity emanating from IPLOC was a source of their satisfaction. They mentioned experiences of enjoyment of the relationships and emphasized the lack of any sense of obligation in their role.

For instance, Sára, Tina, and Ivan mentioned that the source of their satisfaction in the mentoring role was the experience of the mentoring relationship itself. In particular, the friendly close bond they developed with their mentees was the source of their satisfaction. Similarly, Nina mentioned the benefits of the new experience of the relationship with her mentee for her socio-emotional and personal development. In particular, she emphasized the enrichment she gained from the experience of mentoring that was different to other relationships she had experienced in her social networks so far:

_S: The best of it? Well, the relationship itself that it is of this good nature, I enjoy it and...it’s a kind of fulfilment for me...that it’s just nice, he is a very nice boy, so I look forward to meetings as with meeting a friend, so there’s nothing I would take as my obligation or stuff....  
(Sára, December, 2011)_

_N: ...The fact that I don’t know kids his age...we have all girls in our family...so I had no experience with such a young boy, so it’s new for me, very different to my daily experiences...completely different to the relationships I have with my friends and peers...I don’t take it as volunteering, I go to enjoy it, I really take it as a part of my leisure time...  
(Nina, June, 2011)_
T: In the first interview, you mentioned your primary motivation. Can you remind me what it was?
T: Well, I was interested in it because I wanted to help kind of for my own inner good feeling...
T: And is it still the same or has anything changed since then?
T: Well, I think it is going well, I feel really good about it, it is nice that it has developed this easily and nicely

(Tina, June, 2011)

I: I don’t need to tick the box that I am doing good or stuff...but I am pleased inside that I can help someone even though the help is very unspecified, non-materialized, abstract...it is nothing difficult for me, but I can still can feel good about doing something even though it is a minimum. More like fun, nothing too complicated...Sure (there are benefits in it for me) ...I really enjoy social interactions with people...and the more unusual and variable they are the more fun I have.

(Ivan, May, 2011)

The experiences of satisfaction in the mentoring role were described as the interest, enjoyment, relaxation, and excitement experienced during the interactions with the children. All autonomously motivated mentors emphasized experiences of enjoyment, relaxation, and fun in mentoring relationships that were in turn personally valuable, enriching, and satisfactory for them. Thus, supportive mentors emphasized the particular experiences of relaxation, enjoyment, and interest experienced in play with children as major benefits of the mentoring commitment. I argue that they identified with the mentoring role to the degree that they could experience enjoyment, interest, and excitement in the mentoring activities due to congruence with their authentic selves. These in turn became a source of their intrinsic satisfaction. As a result, after 11 months the mentoring experience became more authentic for them and mentors perceived the inherent benefits of their activity.

For instance, Sára emphasized that the experiences of mutual enjoyment further evoked the positive feelings of satisfaction in the mentoring interactions for her. Similarly, Nina and Tina mentioned the experiences of general relaxation, enjoyment, and fun as major benefits of their involvement.

Finally, Nina summarized how the experience of shared play became mutually interesting for both mentor and mentee. She also especially valued the experience of play with the child for the new interests she came across, the
connection with the child in fun, and the feeling of being back in her childhood:

T: The best thing about it is the relaxation, letting go. Those two hours we spend together are very relaxing, so I think we enjoy it together...

(Tina, December, 2011)

T: ...and what is your source that makes you continue in it?
S: Well, probably the fun we have together (laughs)...it’s simply that when we experience something, I feel like he likes it, and I like it too....these are the feelings I have with him (that satisfy me)...on the one hand it’s a fulfilment for me, but I also enjoy being with him....it’s simply fun, we’re both enjoying it....

(Sára, December, 2011)

N: Well, the best or easiest thing about it are the meetings themselves...when I started meetings with him, I wasn’t interested in snails farms or computers, I am just not the technical type and he is interested in tanks and airplanes...I wouldn’t have come across that stuff before, but as we started meetings, and because of the way he talks about it, I became interested in it too....I probably wouldn’t be interested in this stuff on my own, but as we have been meeting in this way for some time now....It is a kind of relaxation, I don’t have to be worried about anything. Even though when we are together I watch him, of course, it is still really relaxing, a kind of total relaxation and release......in summer we climbed trees together, and it was so different that it took me back to my childhood years, you know...and I also tell him about me, what I like to do, and he also becomes interested in my bits and pieces...so we find common themes in this way...and climbing the trees was definitely lots of fun, anyway (laughs).

(Nina, June and December, 2011)

7.2.1.2. Perceived Positive Relational Satisfaction in Supportive Relationships

Autonomously motivated mentors perceived children’s and relational satisfaction as highly positive. Contrary to controlling mentors, supportive mentors did not expect to receive explicit expressions of children’s satisfaction in the mentoring bond. They emphasized the link between their personal positive feelings in mentoring involvement and thus perceived children’s satisfaction. In particular, they perceived the similar intrinsic benefits of relationships for children as they experienced on their own. Thus, they were perceptive to subtle intrinsic benefits of mentoring experiences for children as they experienced them on their own. In particular, autonomously
motivated mentors valued the experiences of relaxation, play, and new experiences of mentoring activities, and presumed that the children would benefit from experiences of these as they did.

For instance, Nina and Sára mentioned the difference between the signs of satisfaction autonomously expressed by a mentee in mentoring interactions and the explicit feedback on satisfaction in the meetings (expected by controlling mentors). Nina emphasized how autonomy supportive mentors were perceptive to autonomous expressions of satisfaction in children. In addition, she mentioned how strong and surprising the explicit feedback on satisfaction was for her in comparison to subtle perception of satisfaction in mentoring interactions. The explicit feedback added to her good feelings about the mentoring role, but was not an instrument that mediated her satisfaction in the mentoring involvement. In addition, contrary to controlling mentors, Sára mentioned the difference between the subtle perception of child’s enjoyment she shared and the explicit outcomes of the enjoyable mentoring activities as an add-on to her perceptions of relational satisfaction:

N: I feel that he likes it, and his mum even sent the message after the meetings …when we’re going to meet, he’s waves from a long distance at me and laughs…so even though I have a good feeling about it, I am always surprised that he’s looking forward to meeting me that much…so I even have a better feeling after that…

(Sina, June, 2011)

S: Well, it’s simply when we experience something together and I feel that he enjoyed it and I enjoyed it with him…and in addition when we did some arts and crafts…he can have something from it to brings back home that he likes…

(Sára, December, 2011)

In other words, autonomously motivated mentors were sensitive to children’s autonomous feedback and could perceive subtle signs of children’s authentic (dis)satisfaction in their enjoyment of mentoring activities. In particular, they perceived mentees’ autonomous willingness to participate in activities. In addition, they perceived children’s enjoyment and happiness during the activities. Perceived mutual enjoyment of activities was in turn interpreted as an experience of relational satisfaction. Thus, they were not afraid to let children express autonomously and authentically their feelings of (dis)satisfaction in mentoring interactions. As a result, mentors’ intrinsic
satisfaction with the ability to perceive children’s authentic enjoyment created high perceived satisfaction in the relationships.

For instance, Tina and Sára perceived children’s enjoyment and satisfaction in the mentoring bond that gave sense to their own involvement. In addition, Ivan perceived child’s satisfaction in his autonomous activity and interest:

T: I feel back from it that he likes to see me, he is glad that we do things together...I am glad that he probably likes it...and those two hours I spend with him are no big deal...

(Tina, June, 2011)

S: I just like it in general. I look forward to meeting him and that enthusiasm, his eyes when we’re laughing together, I think it’s the best thing about it...his shining face...when I see the fun he’s having...and the more I see he’s happy, the better it is for me...I revisit it later in my thoughts when I get home from the meeting...I think he likes it, he’s looks forward to our activities as he feels that something’s going to happen and it will be fun...and for me - the feeling, when I see that he is happy, he’s enjoying it, he’s laughing, it is a kind of reward for me...when I leave the meeting with a good feeling, it actually makes me happy too...

(Sára, June and December, 2011)

I: He showed me recently throw to a Frisbee behind my back, so I was happy that we shared our skills and knowledge on things...and I am also very glad that he also enjoys playing board games...
T: How do you know he likes it?
I: Well...for instance, we finish all the games we play, you know...and if I compare it with Luke (previous mentee), he sometimes just stopped in the middle of the game, it wasn’t fun for him or stuff...and I am enjoying it with Jon at almost every meeting. He’s never bored or complaining about the activities I suggest, and he’s always easy about them, happy about them, and so then I enjoy it too with him, you know...

(Ivan, May and December, 2011)

In sum, the autonomous motivation for the mentoring involvement was salient for perceived intrinsic satisfaction and perceived benefits in the mentoring role of mentors. Mentors emphasized that the enjoyment of the shared activities with the children were sources of relational satisfaction in the mentoring bond. As a result, they mentioned that their mentoring activity became integrated into their daily routines as a natural part of their leisure time.
7.2.2. Resulted Quality and Dynamics of Supportive Mentoring Bond

The perceived mutual satisfaction further created experiences of closeness experienced with mutuality and trust. Contrary to controlling mentors, supportive mentors were actively involved in mentoring activities selected according to children’s interests; and thus they connected equally with children. In addition, they shared the activities and their enjoyment with children from the outset of relationships. As a result, supportive mentors talked about the experiences of enjoyable play in the present moment, and feelings of mutuality and trust that were shared in mentoring activities in play and were perceived as experiences of closeness in the mentoring bond.

7.2.2.1. Resulted Quality: Closeness in Mutuality and Trust Mediated in Play

As a result, the supportive mentoring relationships developed features of quality in experiences of closeness. In particular, the closeness in supportive bonds was experienced in mutuality and enjoyment of flow of play with children. The data strongly showed that play with children mediated quality of mentoring bond in mutuality, consequent trust, and further benefits of mentoring interactions.

1) Closeness in Experience of Mutuality Mediated in Play

After five months of mentoring involvement, supportive mentors mentioned that shared enthusiasm and enjoyment in mentoring activities became a leading feature that mediated closeness in the mentoring interactions. They described experiences of enjoyable play with children. The experiences of shared enjoyable play, where both the mentor and the mentee were equally involved in the activity, mediated the feelings of closeness experienced as mutual enjoyment of the mentoring meetings.

I argue that the experiences of play facilitated intrinsic motivation in children (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Deci, 1975, 1980) and their satisfaction in the supportive mentoring relationships. In particular I argue that the experiences of enjoyable shared play in activities of children’s interests have the qualities and benefits of flow experience (Csikzentmihalyi, 2013). Thus, the supportive mentors described the experiences of closeness in terms of mutual enjoyment...
mediated in shared play in mentoring interactions. In addition, I argue that mentoring benefits were mediated in the flow achieved through play. Thus, mentors described the benefits of the mentoring bond for children as benefits of flow experience (Ibid).

For instance, Sára generally described how the feelings of closeness were mediated with the mutually shared experiences of play with the mentee. In addition, she explained how the experience of play had the qualities and benefits of flow experience. Similarly, Nina mentioned that she felt close to the child when she shared the enthusiasm and enjoyment of play with the mentee during the mentoring meetings. Finally, Ivan and Tina also emphasized that the initial mutual involvement developed into the feelings of closeness when the matches shared the experiences of play50.

T: What do you feel you share together?
S: ...I just look forward to meeting him, and when I see him in the distance we wave to each other and I think in that moment we tune into the same wavelength, if I can call this a sharing, because we don’t have stories or strong experiences to share....they are moments that are difficult to describe in some way...I think it’s that we share the moment at those moments. We share similar feelings when we do things together, we are both in it together....I think it is about the play...the kind of playfulness, because I kind of get into the position of the child with him (in play)....we just play together...like when we go up the stairs and he acts like he can’t make it and it’s fun...it is kind of inventive, creative...the child’s reality where things look different than they are (Laughs)...

(Sára, June, 2011)

N: ...I think he can be enthusiastic about things, that’s what we have in common...for instance there is a playground for kids with a large slide close to here, it was great there, we played there and both enjoyed it...or when we were climbing the tree, I loved climbing...when I was little we played in the trees constantly, so I was happy to climb trees with him again after years...we played, waved the branches, and pretended we were falling...silly things and I quite liked it...

(Nina, June, 2011)

I: I am happy that he also likes and enjoys board games...I was happy last time because we finally had time to play the game for two...it’s a card game. I play the one for 3-4 players. It is not simple with the rules this one for two people. And last time

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50 Similarly, controlling mentors described the experiences of quality closeness in mutuality in the activities that had the nature of play (and a flow experience).
we learnt it, well, I showed him the game and he liked it and he won in it...so it was nice (laughs).

(Ivan, May, 2011)

T: Do you remember an experience that would be extraordinary?
T: I think there is something about every meeting. For instance, Matějská (annual carousel park) was nice, we went to an exhibition after that. Today was nice too. It is kind of the more we know each other, the more we just meet, go somewhere, he tells me his stories and stuff...

(Tina, June, 2011)

2) Resulted Trust and Benefits of Play
Consequently, an experience of play with children mediated the synchronicity and higher creativity in cooperation in mentoring interactions. Thus, after 11 months of mentoring involvement, supportive mentors described that the emotional experiences of closeness mediated in mutually enjoyable play deepened and developed into regular, steady, and synchronized patterns of mentoring interactions. In particular, they mentioned that the range of mentoring activities was reduced, and that the activities became enjoyable in more subtle interactions during the play the mentoring match knew they liked to share. Thus, the feelings of closeness became regular, and after 11 months of involvement, developed into a steady trustful bond between supportive mentors and their mentees:

S: ...that kind of thinking about what to do is no longer there. We always think up something together...in the last meeting we were doing arts & crafts at his place...and I was laughing quite sincerely myself in that meeting because we were playing, doing arts & crafts, and it was really very pleasant...

(Sára, December, 2011)

N: ...it is kind of calmer now, we like to go for walks and he just chats and chats so it is kind of calmer but there is something about it on every meeting, I always laugh because of his ideas...or we make fun of ourselves, of each other and we are witty...so there`s always something about it...

(Nina, December, 2011)

T: What do you think you have in common?
I: Osadníci z Katanu (name of the board game), I mean an interest in board games. We like some things in common...swimming, we played paintball together and he liked that too, we have a shared interest in eating in McDonalds. We go there sometimes once a week together...so we are not too busy with thinking up activities...
any more, it doesn’t need to be especially entertaining to make him interested in it. We can simply stay with board games and even that’s enough, and I think he is hopefully enjoying it….  

(Ivan, December, 2011)

As a result, the data showed clearly that experiences of mutually enjoyable flow experienced through play mediated the feelings of trust expressed by children towards mentors in mentoring interactions. In particular, supportive mentors described that the trust of children developed continually over the 11 months of mentoring involvement. After 11 months of mentoring experience, they described trust as the subtle expressions of 1) children’s comfort; 2) subtle physical closeness with secure boundaries with mentors; 3) mentees’ sharing of personal topics with interest in mentors’ views; and 4) children’s support seeking expressed in the mentoring bond.

Supportive mentors firstly felt that the children trusted them when the mentees spontaneously expressed their subtle physical affections to mentors. Thus, contrary to controlling relationships, trust was spontaneously expressed by the children and accepted as a subtle physical closeness with the authentic involvement of mentors. I argue that it was expressed and accepted non-instrumentally and thus without imposing the risks of loose relational boundaries on children. For instance, Tina described how the mutually shared enjoyable activity invoked the feelings of closeness and trust in the child expressed with subtle physical closeness towards a mentor.51

T: Do you feel that Tom is close to you or that he trusts you?  
T: Well, sometimes I do...when he sees me or when we walk on the street and he catches my hand or when we cross the road he catches my hand...or when the weather was bad, we watched TV together and he came to me, sat by me and we watched it together...so, sometimes he has this kind of moment...  

(Tina, June, 2011)

Secondly, after 11 months, supportive mentors described trust in terms of progress in communication and more autonomous activity of the children at the mentoring meetings. They noticed that the trust of children emerged when the themes of the conversation developed from general topics into personal

51 Contrary to controlling mentors, she recognized and accepted it as the child’s subtle expression of comfort and trust, and thus shared it sensitively by facilitating the secure boundary on the child’s spontaneous expression.
topics on mentees’ personal interests that were important to them. In addition, supportive mentors described that the trust emergent in the personalized topics of conversation further developed into talk on children’s personal and intimate feelings, interests, and topics that children initiated and wanted to share with their mentors:

T: Tom looked forward to it and told me everything immediately…so I think that we progressed from the very beginning when I had to ask him to talk to now when he always comes and starts to tell me things on his own…so I think we have progressed well in this way…

(Tina, December, 2011)

N: ...he talks about himself more now. In the beginning, when I asked him about his peers, he replied very briefly only, didn’t add anything else to it but now he talks about it much more...and I know that he wouldn’t talk about his peer relationships with his mum in this way, so I think it means he trusts me and stuff...and I think that we have become better friends, closer now...last meeting we wouldn’t play that much, we also talked a lot about everything, he was quite chatty and I was surprised that he wanted to talk that much...and I had a good feeling about it...

(Nina, June, 2011)

I:...I think our relationship changed for the better in terms of trust because he told me about his intimate things...or intimate...I mean his relationship with his girlfriend which I think is a big deal at his age, there needs to be good trust towards the person he talks with because it is a fragile topic, you know, one could make fun of him about it, and it wouldn’t be good...and he took me fishing with him so...

(Ivan, December, 2011)

Thirdly, I argue that the trust of the children towards the mentors was expressed when the mentees were open to talking about personal issues and dilemmas and asked the mentors for support and advice. Following that, mentors mentioned how they provided their supports for these children’s expressed needs that they sensitively perceived and optimally matched (Cutrona, 2000; Cutrona, Russell, 1990, see Chapter V). In addition, they recalled that children’s support seeking became more regular over the time:

52 In contrast, Ivan mentioned earlier that the personal topics were not part of conversation during the mentoring meetings after five months of relationship duration: “I: Well, we don’t talk about girls together at all...even though when we were ice-skating there were girls who fancied him...who were grabbing his hat which I think is the sign of interest but he didn’t want to talk about it and stuff...so I don’t know how it will be in the future...” (Ivan, May, 2011).
N: Leny loves to walk and he talks and talks when we walk through the streets of Prague and he talks and talks and I almost can’t get a word in (laughs)…and he can tell me about his worries or when he’s sad of something, he can tell me that, and he wants to talk about it more now, so he is well again after that…

(Nina, December, 2011)

I: …and he also borrowed my cell phone to contact her (mentee’s girlfriend) which I considered as a good sign of trust from him…

(Ivan, December, 2011)

7.2.2.2. Resulted Dynamics: Long-Term Supportive Informal Mentoring Bond

After 11 months of mentoring experience, autonomously involved supportive mentors were generally motivated for further commitment in mentoring relationships for the long-term perspective. In particular, after 11 months, the supportive mentors were interested in keeping the meetings with children going, and they expected that the relationships would continue naturally under the same relational dynamics in the long-term future. In addition, they hoped that the mentoring bond with the mentee would never definitively end.

At the same time, they were aware of the factors in children’s changing social environments that could become a challenge for keeping the meetings ongoing in the future. In particular, they predicted that if the interruptions in relationships occurred in the long-term future, it would be as a result of children’s changed interests during their adolescence. Thus, mentors presumed that the regularity of mentoring meetings could be challenged with them. Nevertheless, based on their experience of 11-months-involvement, supportive mentors believed that their youth-oriented approach and the stability and durability of the mentoring bonds they developed with children during the 11 months would endure the potential risks they presumed. Thus, they planned to accompany mentees for as long as possible:

N: I am actually really interested in how he will be in the high school, what he will decide to do and stuff…I just really look forward to it…I hope it will never definitely finish, we may keep meeting up occasionally, and it might become outside the programme…but I think it would be his suggestion…and I hope he will trust me more and take me as his friend, that at least it will stay the way it is, and when he becomes older, the relationship will last…

(Nina, December, 2011)
I: I think he will grow into puberty more. And it’s grand, it is feasible…
T: You are not worried about it?
I: No, why would I? It is a normal part of human development…I don’t think he would change to the extent he would become annoying for me and I’d lose interest in meeting him...It is possible that he might lose the interest in meetings over the time...but I am willing to adjust the activities for him and his age and mode so...

(Ivan, December, 2011)

S: ...I’d definitely like to keep in touch with him permanently somehow...but sure there are factors that can become a challenge...he could move out of Prague, which is a real possibility, so we’ll see...

(Sára, December, 2011)

In sum, Figure 10 summarizes the pathways of developed quality of closeness in mutuality mediated in play, and resulted dynamics of long-term supportive natural mentoring relationships with developed trust and benefits of experiences of flow in play (See below).
Figure 10: Summary Scheme 6 – Pathways of Resulted Quality and Dynamics of Supportive Relationships

Sources of Satisfaction of Supportive Mentors: 1) The Nature of Experience of Relationship with the Child Itself, 2) Perceived Inherent Benefits of Relaxation, Enjoyment, Play with the Child

Experiences of SHARED PLAY mediated:

Perceived High Relational Satisfaction Experienced as:
1) Mentees’ Spontaneous Activity and Interest Perceived by Mentors
2) Mutual Enjoyment of Mentoring Activities and Experience

Benefits of FLOW Experience

Perceived Higher Emotional Closeness in Higher Synchronicity and Creativity in Cooperation with Children

Resulted Dynamics: Informal Mentoring Bonds with Quality and Benefits of Informal Mentoring Relationships in:

Regular and Steady and Synchronized Patterns of the Mentoring Bond

Expressed Trust by Children to Mentors in: 1) Subtle Expressions of Comfort, 2) Expressions of Subtle Physical Closeness, 3) Sharing Personal Topics with Mentors, 4) Support Seeking from Mentors

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CHAPTER VIII: DISCUSSION,
CONCLUSIONS, AND
RECOMMENDATIONS

8.0. INTRODUCTION

Following the initial aims and objectives, the final chapter discusses, highlights, and integrates the most important arguments of the thesis with the current literature. It reflects on the implications of the research results for future research and evidence-based practice of formal youth mentoring interventions.

The overall aim of the thesis was to explore how formal mentors become/don’t become mediators (Feuerstein, 1988, Málková, 2009), informal supporters, and significant adults of children over one year of mentoring involvement. Thus, the thesis had three main objectives:

1. To explore the impact of initial motivation on the quality and dynamics of FYMR during one year of mentoring involvement.
2. To explore the characteristics and dynamics of risk factors in FYMRs.
3. To explore the characteristics features in FYMRs that develop the experiences of quality, benefits, and dynamics of the informal mentoring bond.

I will now review the objectives and demonstrate how they were addressed in the research study.
8.1. Discussion of Objective 1: Impact of Initial Motivation on Quality and Dynamics of FYMRs

The first objective was to explore whether the initial motivation of mentors for volunteering impacts on quality of formal mentoring relationships over one year of mentoring involvement. In particular, the objective was to explore whether the motivation of mentors to volunteer during the one year of the mentoring relationship is a factor that predicts the quality of the helping processes in the mentoring relationship and the resulted relational quality of the formal mentoring bond.

I argue that experiences of mentoring involvement firstly differed according to motivations of the volunteers to become mentors in the BBBS programme. The results showed clearly that six out of ten mentors were initially amotivated, or regulated for mentoring involvement, from EPLOC with controlling external or introjected regulations (Ryan, Deci, 1985). In addition, four mentors were motivated with expectations of experiencing satisfaction with mentoring involvement for its nature, enjoyment of the mentoring bond with children, and good feeling from giving back to society. In other words, they were motivated from IPLOC in congruence with their pro-social values and attitudes (Ibid) and with intrinsic motivation (Ibid).

Following the initial motivations of volunteers, two distinct types of formal mentoring relationships were developed during 11 months of mentoring involvement: 1) Controlling relationships; and 2) Autonomy supportive relationships (Ryan, Solky, 1996, Ryan, 1991, 1993, Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000, Deci et al., 1994). The results showed clearly that the quality of mentors’ initial motivation impacted on the characteristics and quality of mentoring involvement in common mentoring themes. Firstly, styles of coping with mentoring challenges and limit setting on children’s behavior differed significantly in quality following the initial motivations. Following that, quality of helping attitudes of mentors, and cooperation and support in mentoring interactions also differed significantly according to initial motivations for volunteering. Furthermore, the satisfaction in the mentoring role and bond subsequently followed the quality of mentors’ approach. Finally, dynamics of the mentoring bond resulted from characteristics developed by mentors following the initial quality of motivations. The involvement of mentors was
characterized by differences in coping style that mentors employed when they experienced a perceived challenge in the mentoring role.

I argue that the emerging coping styles with mentoring challenge were mediated with the initial quality of motivation for mentoring involvement. Mentors perceived mentoring challenges differently and, consequently, they developed different ways of coping with the challenges in the mentoring role. I argued that mentors’ perceived competence and ability to employ optimally matched mentoring skills (Csikzentmihalyi, 2013) and cope with perceived mentoring challenges were mediated with mentors’ acceptance/non-acceptance of responsibility for coping with a mentoring challenge in congruence with the authentic self. As a result, following the experiences of coping with the perceived mentoring challenge, I argued that mentors developed three dynamics of coping with three major dilemmas/challenges in the mentoring role (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010). In particular, I argued that autonomously motivated mentors accepted responsibility for recognizing, reflecting, and employing autonomous mentoring skills to deal with the perceived mentoring challenge. Autonomously motivated mentors were motivated to deal with perceived challenges in congruence with their skills (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000, Deci, 1980). They reflected on and accepted both their mentoring skills and their limits. As a result, they felt competent to deal with the perceived challenges in the mentoring role. Following that, they accepted children and their authentic behavior. In addition, they developed an informative style in limit setting (Deci et al., 1994) on perceived children’s challenging behavior. As they accepted responsibility for coping with the mentoring challenge in congruence with their authentic self, they in turn provided authentic feedback with information and choice on children’s challenging behavior. In this way, they negotiated and maintained the dynamics of secure emotional boundaries with an authentic approach, feedback, and information on challenging behavior provided to children.

On the contrary, mentors with initial controlling motivations did not successfully face up to the perceived challenges of the mentoring role. In particular, as they intended to attest to their mentoring skills in the future, they did not accept responsibility for reflecting on their skills and limits in the mentoring role. On the contrary, in congruence with their initial controlling
motivations, they labeled children as the source of the mentoring challenges they were afraid to cope with. Following that, they tended to impose controls on children’s expected challenging behaviors with limit setting (Deci et al., 1994) in advance of experiencing it. They put expectations on children’s involvement, and so tried to control the perceived mentoring challenges from EPLOC. As a result, they expected the experience of unresolved challenge to be repetitive in the mentoring bond in the future.

The initial dynamics of experienced challenges further developed and deepened in the relationships after five months of mentoring involvement in three dynamics of satisfaction in the mentoring bonds under two types of mentoring relationships: controlling and autonomy supportive (Ryan, Solky, 1996, Deci et al., 1994).

Firstly, after five months of mentoring experience, the controlling relationships reported a low relational satisfaction, experiences of emotional distance (detachment), and conflict or a slow dissolution during the first year of mentoring involvement. As a result, five out of six controlling relationships analyzed had terminated mentoring meetings by 11 months of mentoring involvement.

On the contrary, the relationships with initial autonomous motivation of mentors reported experiences of closeness described in terms of mutuality, trust, and durability of relationships. Closeness was experienced as mutually shared enjoyment of the mentoring activities in the flow of play (Csikzentmihalyi, 2013). I argue that the focus on children’s interests in the activities facilitated enjoyment of mentoring meetings by children, and thus general satisfaction in the mentoring match. As a result, the supportive relationships developed into a mentoring bond with long-term durability and the qualities of informal (natural) mentoring relationships.

In addition, I argued that the initial motivation of mentors further developed the quality of helping attitudes, quality of cooperation with children, and resulted quality of provided social supports.

Mentors with initial controlling motivations expressed controlling attitudes in helping and provision of social supports (Ryan, Solky, 1996, Deci et al., 1994). Following that, the mentoring interactions with children had controlling characteristics (Ibid). On the contrary, mentors with initial autonomous motivations had autonomy supportive attitudes towards children.
and the provision of support to them, and developed mentoring interactions with autonomy supportive characteristics (Ibid). They provided optimally matched enactment of social and autonomy supports (Cutrona, 2000; Cutrona, Russel, 1990; Csikzentmihalyi, 2013) to children while matching their needs authentically expressed during the mentoring meetings.

The results showed clearly that mentors’ initial perceived efficacy in facilitating benefits of mentoring to children mediated the quality of provided social supports in cooperation with mentees after five months of mentoring involvement. I argued that the quality of initial motivation and perceived competence in coping with experiences of mentoring challenge further mediated the initial helping attitudes of mentors in: Initial perceptions of children’s needs, strengths, and abilities; Mentors’ helping attitudes in the perceived role of mentors and its benefits in children’s well-being; Perception of children’s autonomy and competence; Quality of cooperation and provided autonomy supports; Quality of provided enactment supports; and Resulted satisfaction and dynamics of mentoring bond.

In the following part of this chapter, I review in detail the resulted characteristics of controlling and supportive FYMRs, and the pathways of their development following the quality of initial motivations. I discuss the findings together with the current research literature. The risks of FYMRs are reviewed in the dynamics and characteristics of controlling relationships. Similarly, the findings are summarized in the graphical scheme and discussed with the current literature. Secondly, the review of dynamics and characteristics of autonomy supportive relationships is presented and followed with the graphic summary scheme on features of quality in dynamics of FYMRs.
Figure 11: Summary Scheme VII: Features of Quality in FYMRs over 11 Months of Mentoring Involvement

Quality of Initial Motivation

- Controlling Motivation
- Autonomous

Coping Style with Perceived Mentoring Challenge

- Dynamics of Unresolved Mentoring Dilemmas/Challenges with Controlling Limit Setting
- Dynamics of Accepted Responsibility and Competence to Autonomous Coping with a Challenge with Informational Limit Setting

Helping Attitudes of Mentors

- Role of Intentional Role Model
- Role of Facilitator of Positive Social Interactions and Enjoyable Activities

Quality of Provided Social Supports and Cooperation with Children

- No Evidence of Optimally Matched Social Supports
  - Control of Choice in Cooperation
- Evidence of Optimally matched Provided Enactment
  - Autonomy Supports Evident in Provision of Choice and Structure in Cooperation with Children

Resulted Quality and Dynamics

- Bond Developed with Risks of FYMRs and Dynamics of Relational Dissatisfaction, Decline, and Dissolution
- Quality of Informal Mentoring Bond with High Relational Satisfaction and Long-Term Steady Dynamics
8.2. Discussion of Objective 2: Characteristics and Dynamics of Risks in Formal Youth Mentoring Relationships

The literature on youth mentoring previously argued that not all formal mentoring relationships develop quality features and benefits associated with an informal mentoring bond for children (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010, Spencer, 2007, Spencer et al., 2006, Rhodes et al., 2009). In particular, the research literature on youth mentoring relationships highlights that the formal mentoring bond brings inherent dilemmas and risks (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010, Štech, 1997).

Ryan, (1991, 1993, Ryan, Deci, 1985, Ryan, Solky, 1996) argued that relationships where one relates to the other as to a social object (e.g. when one’s value or worth is measured as possessing some attribute or enacting a particular script) widen the gap between authentic self and social-psychological persona. In particular, in controlling relationships, one becomes more preoccupied with the external feedback in contact with the other to the extent to which one is concerned with approval and evaluation. One is less likely to expose oneself in an authentic manner to the degree that one is vulnerable to rejection (Ryan 1991:231). As a result, the difference between authentic self and social-psychological persona creates alienation, emotional distance, and detachment to the extent to which social roles and personal values are incompletely internalized and assimilated (Ibid).

Research on mentoring identified several features that predict risks of developed formal mentoring bonds for children. The research proved that mentors’ helping behavior differs in quality that is influenced by mentors’ intentions to stay in the relationship (Grossman, Rhodes, 2002). The intention of the mentor in turn impacts on the quality of the relational bond that the mentor creates with a mentee (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2008, 2010). Madia and Lutz (2004) found a correlation between a discrepancy in the expected and actual role of mentor in the relationship and the quality of formal mentoring relationships. In particular, a higher discrepancy between the mentor’s expected role and his or her actual role in the relationship predicted a lower intention on the part of the mentor to remain volunteering.
The discrepancy in expectations of mentors was found to be a cause of premature termination of the mentoring relationship. Similarly, Brumovská and Seidlová Málková (2009, 2010) found that the congruence between the mentor’s expectations and the role a mentor performed in the real mentoring relationship positively influenced the character and quality of the relationship. In addition, Grossman and Rhodes (2002) showed that mentees in formal mentoring relationships that terminated within three months reported decreased self-worth and perceived scholastic competence. The risk factors of FYMRs were also identified in terms of external mediators in the environment of the mentoring participants.

Nevertheless, researchers in youth mentoring emphasized that the details of principles and pathways that mediate the risks and benefits in formal mentoring relationships have not been studied sufficiently to date (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010, Štech, 1999, Ryan, 1991, 1993, Spencer, 2006, Spencer et al., 2006, Rhodes et al., 2009, Zand, Thomson, 2009).

This research study identified risks in FYMRs with controlling dynamics. I identified the pathways of developed risks in formal youth mentoring bonds following the qualities of initial motivations for volunteering (See Figure 12). In particular, I argue that the initial motivation of mentors impacted on their ability to cope with dilemmas in the mentoring bond. Consequently, the seven mentors in the research study developed a controlling style and dynamics (Ryan, Solky, 1996, Deci et al., 1994, Ryan, 1991, 1993) that imposed risks on children.

Figure 12 shows the pathways of risk factors developed in FYMR arising from the initial controlling motivations of mentors. Following that, the risk features developed in FYMR over 11 months of mentoring involvement are summarized in detail below.
Figure 12: Summary Scheme VIII: Pathways of Risk Factors in FYMRs

Initial Controlling Motivations

Experiences of Unresolved Perceived Mentoring Challenge

Perceived Low Competence in the Mentoring Role

Controlling Limit Settings on Expected Children’s Challenging Behaviour

Judgemental Helping Attitudes: Role of Intentional Role Model

Initial Dynamics of Control and Risks in Unresolved Mentoring Challenge

AFTER FIVE MONTHS OF MENTORING INVOLVEMENT

Control of Choice in Cooperation with Children

Perceived Dissatisfaction in the Mentoring Role

Dynamics of Risks of Unresolved Mentoring Challenge and Control

Perceived High Relational Dissatisfaction

Decline and Dissolution of Relationships during the First Year
8.2.2. Initial Controlling Motivations

Following the theory on controlling motivations (Ibid), I argued that six out of ten mentors were motivated with controlling motivations and subsequently developed mentoring bonds with the qualities and risks of controlling relationships (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000). In particular, they were firstly motivated with controlling motivation to initiate mentoring involvement. For instance, they expected to gain extrinsic rewards, and to feel emotionally supported by the peer volunteers, and to attest to their own competence in different roles in the mentoring role.

Secondly, I argue that these mentors were regulated with an introjected controlling motivation with ego-involvement driven towards the experience of relatedness need specified as a need in opportunity for nurturance (Ryan, Deci, 2000, LaGuardía, 2009, Weiss, 1973). In particular, they intended to feel needed, useful, and responsible for the child. That in turn was expected to make mentors feel good about them. Thus, the expressed hope to “save” or be needed by at least one child in need in the mentoring role that would make a mentor feel good about them was evident.

Thirdly, I argued that controlling mentors expected to experience social and emotional integration (Ibid) in the mentoring role (Ibid). Finally, one mentor was amotivated with serious doubts about becoming involved in the relationship with the child (Ibid).

8.2.3. Unresolved Perceived Challenges in the Mentoring Role

Following the initial expectations that motivated them for mentoring involvement, controlling mentors were firstly challenged to accept the perceived distance in differences between them and the children from the early stage of the mentoring involvement. They expected negative characteristics of children. Following that, they experienced contradictions between their negative expectations on children’s risk behavior and positive experiences with children during the first mentoring meetings. Thus, mentors were challenged by the discrepancy between their initial expectations and the emotional experiences of the first mentoring meetings with the children. As they identified with the negative expectations about the children, they were resistant to accepting the real positive experiences with children from the outset of relationships. In other words, the ego-involvement of initial
motivations challenged mentors to accept the reality they experienced with children in discrepancy to their expectations from the outset of their involvement (Ibid).

Controlling mentors described their acceptance of children in terms of initial positive involvement and emotional availability for the meetings with the children. Nevertheless, they expressed feelings of sacrificing enjoyment in order to meet the mentees and their needs. As a result, mentors expected positive feedback from children on their involvement as a contingent reward in return for their sacrifice in the mentoring role. Thus, they put pressure on the child to appreciate the mentors’ commitment in the relationship in the way a mentor expected according to the initial motivation.

As a result, mentors challenged with the dilemma of acceptance of the child, (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010, Štech, 1997) developed initial dynamics of the mentoring bond with several characteristic features. In particular, mentors challenged with the dilemma of acceptance of the child became involved in relationships slowly and hesitantly from the outset of mentoring meetings. Their involvement was moderated with the child’s positive feedback and enthusiasm for involvement during the first mentoring meetings. They let the children be active and lead the initial involvement in the mentoring bond. Thus, their initial involvement in a mentoring bond was contingent on the children’s explicit positive feedback on children’s acceptance of mentors.

Secondly, in line with initial motivations, controlling mentors were challenged to cope with the experiences of intense emotional closeness expressed with emotional overinvolvement and co-dependence of children from the outset of relationships. In particular, I argued that due to their initial ego-involvement with the intention to feel needed and/or useful, the emotional over-involvement in the mentoring bond was satisfying for mentors (Weiss, 1973, Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000, Deci et al., 1994).

As a result, mentors who were challenged to cope with the dilemma of closeness (Ibid) became involved in the mentoring bond quickly. In addition, they perceived the initial connection during the first month of mentoring involvement to be more intense and close than they expected. At the same time, they justified the close nature of the initial involvement. As a result, they perceived they had low competence to cope with the perceived mentoring
challenge and expected to be challenged with the same experiences in the future of the mentoring involvement.

**8.2.4. CONTROLLING LIMIT SETTING ON CHILDREN’S BEHAVIOR IN MENTORING INTERACTIONS**

Following the initial unresolved experiences of a challenge in the mentoring role, controlling mentors developed a controlling style in limit setting on children’s expected challenging behavior. In particular, the controlling style in limit setting (Deci et al., 1994) was intended to limit the experiences of challenge in children’s behavior in advance in line with their expectations. They set up strict rules that the children were required to follow from the outset of relationships. In particular, in advance of the experience, they delimited the features in children’s behavior that they were not willing to accept in mentoring interactions.

Controlling mentors intended to control perceived challenges in children with the positive regards on the children’s expressions of obedience and compliance to their expectations. Thus, the children were contingently rewarded and accepted with mentors’ positive involvement only when mentees complied with their rules. Mentors’ involvement was contingent on children’s acceptance of their authority in the mentoring bond. As a result, they could limit expected challenges in children’s behavior from EPLOC (Deci et al., 1994, Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000) with the control of children’s behavior that was set up in accordance with their initial motivations.

**8.2.5. INITIAL HELPING ATTITUDES: ROLE OF INTENTIONAL ROLE MODEL**

Finally, the quality of initial motivation mediated the characteristics of mentors’ initial helping attitudes in the mentoring role. In particular, I argued that mentors developed the role of an intentional role model.

Following their initial controlling motivations, controlling mentors emphasized that a mentor is someone who is needed by the child, and that their role for the child was to help the child’s social and emotional needs. In particular, they approached the role of a mentor as someone who crosses social differences and overcomes the social boundaries in society. They
expected to be beneficial for the child by acting as someone who significantly contributes to mentees’ well-being with their skills and knowledge.

As a result, they developed the approach of constant comparisons of the “good” background they came from, with the “deficit” background of the mentees’ families. They constructed and emphasized the needs of the children as the consequences of the deficient social background, and intended to achieve a direct visible change in children’s well-being. In other words, they perceived themselves as role models in the social norms in response to perceived children’s background’s deficits and consequent children’s needs. Following that, they intended to achieve a direct change in helping children’s deficits and needs. An achievement of a direct change in the prescribed goal would be in turn considered as evidence of mentors’ efficacy in the mentoring role. I argue that the identified characteristics of controlling helping attitudes of mentors are similar to characteristics of Dissatisfied and Prescriptive FYMRs (Morrow, Styles, 1992, 1995).

As a result, controlling mentors developed two dynamics of control in the mentoring bonds from the outset of mentoring involvement. Firstly, they developed conflicts over the negotiations of relational boundaries in the mentoring interactions from the outset of relationships. Their strict initial expectations on children’s behavior imposed control and evoked tension and conflict in mentoring dynamics from the outset of relationships. In particular, they expressed disappointment and initiated conflict when children’s behavior differed to their expectations; they thus dismissed children’s autonomous relatedness (Ryan, 1991, 1993). Secondly, encouragement of compliance in children limited their autonomy, developed their compliance and emotional co-dependence in the mentoring bond (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Ryan, 1991, 1993, Ryan, Solky, 1996).

I argued that the initial dynamics of unresolved mentoring challenges in the mentoring bond were further developed and deepened after five months of involvement. Thus, the experiences of perceived mentoring challenges were mentioned by controlling mentors repeatedly after five and 10 months of their involvement and underlay the dynamics of controlling relationships. In addition, the mentors developed a strong control of mentees’ choice in mentoring interactions.
8.2.6. Control of Choice in Cooperation with Children after Five Months of Mentoring Experience

Spencer (2006) identified collaboration in the mentoring bond as one of the features of quality FYMRs. She argued that the experiences of cooperation developed mentees’ skills. In addition, Ryan (1991, 1993) argued that provision of choice and structure mediate benefits of cooperation in supporting children’s autonomy and competence. Similarly, Brumovská and Seidlová Málková (2010) argued for a particular quality feature in cooperation with children in mentoring relationships. I argue that the cooperation with children in controlling relationships controlled a choice in children’s options. Thus, I argue that their cooperation in mentoring interactions did not support the development of mentees’ skills but rather amotivated them (Ibid).

In particular, after five months of mentoring involvement, controlling mentors developed an approach with strong controlling features (Ryan, Solky, 1996; Deci et al., 1994). The enjoyability of the mentoring meetings was described as limited. The mentoring activities were frequently selected by mentors intentionally as good for children and directly focused on facilitating of children’s perceived background needs.

As a result, I argue that controlling mentors developed the features of control and amotivation in mentoring interactions that dominated the overall children’s experience of cooperation with mentors in the mentoring bond. Controlling mentors evaluated the autonomy and competence of children with rather ambivalent and negative perceptions of these qualities in children. Children were especially perceived as lacking autonomy when facing the social risks in their background environment.

In addition, controlling mentors developed features of control of choice in cooperation with children. They followed the perceived child’s background needs in activities; organized the mentoring activities around their own interests; and dismissed children’s autonomy when mentees expressed their own interests in mentoring interactions. Mentors took control over decision-making when negotiating mentoring activities. Thus, children were not actively supported in giving their ideas on activities. Finally, I argued that controlling mentors controlled children’s choice and options in decision-making in cooperation with children’s parents/carers.

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As a result, dynamics of relational dissatisfaction and decline and dissolution of relationships developed strongly in the controlling mentoring bond after five months of mentoring involvement.

8.2.7. **DISCUSSION OF RISKS AND ETHICAL DILEMMAS OF OVERINVOLVEMENT AND RESPONSIBILITY IMPOSED ON CHILDREN**

I argue that the perceived satisfaction of controlling mentors followed the initial quality of motivation. In particular, controlling mentors emphasized that their expectations on children’s behavior were salient to their initial controlling motivation and consequent satisfaction in mentoring involvement. In particular, perceived explicit feedback from children facilitated mentors’ feelings of efficacy and acceptance, and thus their perceived satisfaction in the mentoring role.

Moreover, children’s explicit satisfaction and enjoyment mediated the experiences of closeness in the mentoring bond. In particular, children’s explicit acceptance of a mentor, expressed with closeness towards a mentor, mediated mentors’ involvement in a mentoring bond. They emphasized that the explicit feedback of joy was perceived as satisfied needs of the mentees. These in turn were salient to mentors initial motivations, and thus their satisfaction. I argued that the explicit feedback the children provided in congruence with their expectations was crucial for their mentoring satisfaction and involvement in the mentoring bond. Mentors involvement was mediated with the perceived fulfilment of their expectations by children from EPLOC (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000).

Furthermore, I argued that controlling mentors developed emotional and instrumental over-involvement in the well-being of the child outside the mentoring match to satisfy the initial introjected motivations. In particular, controlling mentors got satisfaction from care of mentees’ material needs, such as buying the mentees expensive gifts. Thus, in order to receive the external approvals for their mentoring involvement, they became compulsively responsible for the child’s well-being outside the mentoring match.

The over-responsibility they developed consisted of the intention to facilitate and satisfy perceived children’s emotional needs. Mentors who were over-involved in children’s emotional well-being soon started to feel a burden
of emotional over-responsibility in the mentoring role. As the mentors could not impact directly on children’s general well-being, they started to feel dissatisfaction and a burden in the mentoring role with feelings of frustration.

As a result, the developed closeness in the controlling mentoring bond had several features of risks imposed on children. In addition, the perceived relational satisfaction was low. Firstly, the mentees experienced a lack of boundaries in the mentoring roles, and thus an insecurity of their involvement that I argue was ethically questionable (Rhodes et al., 2009; Spencer et al., 2006; Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010). Secondly, the mentees’ experienced the burden of responsibility for the mentors’ satisfaction and enjoyment.

In general, the closeness in controlling relationships was based on the perceived similarities in the background and interests, and on emotional over-involvement of mentors in the mentoring bond. Moreover, the controlling mentoring relationships were experienced with high relational dissatisfaction; emotional and physical distance of mentors and mentees; and detachment; decline and dissolution by 11 months of mentoring involvement.

The relationships imposed a risk of closeness with insecure relational boundaries and blurred mentoring roles. I argue that the physical and emotional closeness in relationships was linked with mentors’ initial introjected motivations; and with the initial dynamics of unresolved mentoring challenges in the mentoring role (Deci et al., 1994, Ryan, Solky, 1996, Bowlby, 2010, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010). In particular, physical closeness was an instrument that regulated mentors’ motivation to be needed by the child from EPLOC (Ibid). Thus, children in mentoring relationships were encouraged to express their engagement with mentors with physical touches such as hugs and cuddles.

Moreover, the patterns of physical closeness overstepped the secure boundaries of the mentoring bond and posed emotional risks for children (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010, Spencer et al., 2006, Rhodes et al., 2009). In particular, three out of seven initially tracked matches’ mentors did not provide the experiences of secure emotional boundaries in experience of closeness. The relationships developed features of intimacy with the dynamics of lack of control over the emotional boundaries together with the strong controlling features in mentoring interactions (Ryan, Deci, 1985, Weiss, 1973,
Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010; Ryan, Solky, 1996; Deci et al., 1994). In particular, controlling mentors with unresolved challenges of closeness (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010; Štech, 1997) developed the experience of closeness with the features of intense physical contact, over-involvement in the child’s well-being outside the mentoring match, and meetings with overnight stays in the mentor’s place or more frequent than once a week. In addition, mentors regarded these signs in the mentoring bond as significant features of quality and relational satisfaction in the mentoring bond. Moreover, mentors avoided reflection and responsibility for establishing secure emotional boundaries in the mentoring bond even if they felt overwhelmed with the intensity of the mentoring contact. I argue that the overinvolvement of mentors, together with their lack of reflection and control over their involvement, created an ethical issue of involvement in FYMRs (Rhodes et al., 2009, Spencer et al., 2006, Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010).

Mentors imposed the risk of burden of responsibility for mentors’ satisfaction and conditional involvement on children. I argue that mentors with initial controlling motivations made children responsible for the quality of their mentoring involvement and relational satisfaction in the mentoring bond they developed. They were willing to become involved, accept, and support the children as far as the children complied with their expectations and satisfied their initial needs. In addition, controlling mentors expected the mentees to share the responsibility for organizing the mentoring meetings as a part of the mentee’s role. For instance, they expected the children to organize the mentoring meetings and supply the resources for the mentoring activities. Thus, the children experienced conditional acceptance for their compliance to the mentor’s expectations. They expected the children to be responsible for successful communication on engaging mentors into the mentoring activities.
8.2.8. Resulted Dynamics of Relational Dissatisfaction and Decline and Dissolution of Controlling Relationships

As a result, controlling relationships reported high relational dissatisfaction. Firstly, following their unfulfilled expectations, controlling mentors felt dissatisfied in the mentoring role. In particular, they emphasized that the lack of children’s positive feedback on their mentoring activity mediated their dissatisfaction, and they felt they were not benefiting from the mentoring experience with the children any longer. Furthermore, they specified that the mentoring experience did not provide them the satisfaction they initially expected. On the contrary, they described how the communication with children and all the mentoring experience became rather frustrating and dissatisfying for them.

Controlling mentors developed the features of relational emotional distance and detachment in the mentoring bond. They were unwilling to get involved and share mentoring activities with mentees unless the children behaved according to their expectations. Controlling mentors mentioned distance and detachment in terms of lack of willingness to get involved with mentees’ interests and play, and to provide support in reaction to children’s expressed desires.

As a result of controlling characteristics, experiences of emotional distance and dissatisfaction developed in relationships. The mentors and mentees did not share time in activities but as two individuals doing activities parallel to each other. Children themselves became amotivated for mentoring meetings. In addition, mentors explained that the perceived distance and dissatisfaction in relationships developed due to the perceived differences in backgrounds, characteristics, age, and interests between controlling mentors and their mentees. Following the perceived mentoring challenge and consequent differences in the match, controlling mentors argued they could not accept children as equal partners in the mentoring bond. They concluded in congruence with initial motivations that the perceived distance and consequent decline and dissolution of the mentoring relationship were caused by the mentee’s character, their insufficient interest, and inappropriate way of involvement in the mentoring bond. In other words, children’s natural characteristics and way of involvement were given as the reasons for the
mentors’ dissatisfaction and emotional distance, and the decline and dissolution in the controlling matches.

As a result, after 3-8 months of mentoring involvement, the relational dissatisfaction was expressed as experiences of boredom that marked the phase of decline (Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010; Keller, 2005) of controlling relationships. In particular, mentees themselves started to express their dissatisfaction with a lack of interest in mentoring activities, expressed boredom, and finally withdrawal from mentoring meetings. Thus, boredom was experienced as a consequence of the rigid routine of mentoring meetings with the low level of mentor involvement in the activities. The mentoring meetings were generally perceived as boring by children. Consequently, the feelings of distance, boredom, and dissatisfaction in controlling relationships strengthened when the children started to express their dissatisfaction physically and withdraw from the relationships by cancelling the mentoring meetings. Thus, the controlling relationships finally developed into dissolution and closure during the first year of mentoring involvement.

I argue that the experiences of relational dissatisfaction, emotional distance, detachment, and dissolution developed as the regular patterns specific to the controlling relationships. In addition, I argue that the characteristics and dynamics of relational dissatisfaction, experiences of emotional distance in boredom, and consequent decline and dissolution of relationships, followed mentors’ initial introjected motivations and consequent controlling characteristics of their involvement in the mentoring bond.
8.3. DISCUSSION OF OBJECTIVE 3: PATHWAYS OF THE KEY MEDIATORS OF QUALITY IN FYMRs

The current model on pathways of helping processes in FYMRs (Rhodes, 2002, 2005) and the qualities of mentoring bonds are experiences of mutuality, trust, and empathy. According to the model (Ibid), these qualities further mediate the benefits of mentoring relationships described in terms of socio-emotional, cognitive, and individual development (Ibid). Following that, Spencer (2006) identified the features of authenticity, mutuality, companionship, and collaboration that she argued mediated the benefits of FYMRs. In addition, researchers in both formal and informal youth mentoring relationships identified factors of enjoyment, fun, and relaxation (Liang et al., 2009); closeness (Rhodes, 2005); and a sense of emotional connection (Spencer, 2006) as the features of quality in mentoring bond. Finally, research studies in FYMRs also identified characteristics of quality and risk types of FYMRs (Morrow, Styles, 1992, 1995; Brumovská, Seidlová Málková, 2010).

Furthermore, Ryan (1991) argued that the experience of autonomy is mediated with the quality experiences of relatedness in social relationships (Ryan, 1991: 210; Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000; Ryan, 1993). The experience of a secure relationship that satisfies the need in relatedness further facilitates satisfaction of needs relating to autonomy and competence. Central to the need for relatedness is the individual’s (child’s) experience of the other (adult) as accepting and supporting their core autonomous self in the relationship (Ryan, 1993: 6). Such relationships facilitate positive development and organization (Ibid). Furthermore, Ryan (1991: 224-231) argues as follows:

Support of autonomy and healthy individuation involves negotiation of one’s authentic tendencies towards greater autonomy and self-direction while maintaining one’s connectedness with the significant other. Such relationship affords openness and trust that in turn allows a mutuality of autonomy and dialogue. Thus, the more the relationship is characterized with mutuality and acceptance of what is authentic in each, the more the one’s self is developed in an authentic way and the relationship facilitates the experiences in needs of autonomy and relatedness. One can freely experience greater spontaneity and self-revelation, and attest and confirm aspects of self as well as share the experience of the relationship with another. As a result, these characteristics promote integration within the relationship as well as within the self of the individuals. One
learns to create meaningful relationships with others expressing one’s autonomy (Ryan, 1991:224-231).

I argue that supportive mentors develop mentoring bonds with the quality of authentic autonomy supportive relationships with the benefits for children described and discussed by Ryan (Ibid). Nevertheless, a complex study on pathways of quality features in FYMRs has not been carried out to date (Zand, Thomson, 2009). Following this, the results of this study showed that the quality and benefits in FYMRs were mediated by several factors previously omitted by mentoring researchers. In particular, it showed that the quality of FYMRs is congruent with the quality of autonomy supportive relationships (Ryan, Solky, 1996; Deci et al., 1994), and it adds the details in dynamics of quality in FYMRs to the previous studies.

In the following part, I summarize and discuss the pathways of quality features in FYMRs developed over 11 months. In particular, Figure 13 shows the identified features of quality and how they developed over 11 months of mentoring involvement (See below). Following that, I summarize and discuss the features of quality in FYMR identified in the study in the following part.
Figure 13: Scheme IX: Dynamics of Quality FYMRs with Key Mediators developed over 11 Months of Mentoring Involvement

First Month of Mentoring Involvement

Initial Autonomous Motivation

Accepted Responsibility for Autonomous Coping with Perceived Challenge

Authenticity

Informative Limit Setting

Empathy

Non-Judgemental Helping Attitudes

Mentors Intrinsic Satisfaction in the Mentoring

Provision of Choice and Structure in Cooperation

Experiences of Enjoyment and Mutuality in Play

After Five Months of Mentoring Involvement

Qualities of Developed Trust

Dynamics and Benefits of the Mentoring Bond

After 11 Months of Mentoring Involvement

Optimally Matched Enactment Social Supports

Support of Autonomy and Competence

Benefits of Play Experienced in Flow

Steady Long-Term Informal Mentoring Bond
8.3.1. **Initial Autonomous Motivation**

Mentors with initial autonomous motivations became involved in the match due to their autonomous interest in volunteering. Data showed that mentors with autonomous motivations (Ryan, Deci, 2000) identified the mentoring role with their own values, attitudes, and authentic autonomous self. Thus, their mentoring involvement was driven autonomously from IPLOC (Ibid). In particular, their involvement was based on their pro-social values and attitudes that matched with the mission of the BBBS programme and its mentoring role. They identified their own values and attitudes with the mission of the BBBS programme and the value of the mentoring relationship they recognized. Thus, they expected to experience their autonomous values and attitudes in the mentoring involvement with children.

In addition, they were intrinsically motivated to build a nurturing relationship with the child. They initiated mentoring involvement out of the interest, enjoyment, and excitement they felt about the experience of the relationship with children. They recognized the intrinsically satisfying nature of mentoring relationships and so expected the nature of the mentoring relationship itself to be inherently satisfying (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000). Thus, the data showed that their statements about motivation for mentoring involvement had a more general character and were expressed in terms of values, attitudes, and general expected experiences.

8.3.2. **Acceptance of Responsibility to Cope with the Perceived Mentoring Challenge Autonomously and Authentically**

Similarly to controlling mentors, mentors with initial autonomous motivations were challenged with the need to establish secure relational boundaries around the uncomfortable feelings that followed children’s challenging behavior. In addition, they recognized the personal challenges of the mentoring involvement. Contrary to controlling mentors, they firstly recognized and coped with the perceived challenge of responsibility in the mentoring role.

I argue that autonomously motivated mentors importantly recognized and coped with the perceived mentoring challenges because they accepted responsibility for coping with them autonomously, that is, in congruence with their authentic self (Ryan, 1991, 1993). They reflected on challenging feelings.
arising from the mentoring role and accepted responsibility for coping with these challenges autonomously. Following this, they expressed positive beliefs in their skills and employed the mentoring skills they believed would help them to cope with the challenges. As a result, I argue that they coped with the perceived challenges authentically. As they were motivated to enjoy the mentoring role with children, they were motivated to establish the interaction with mentees securely and in congruence with the authentic skills they perceived themselves to have for coping with challenges in the role. Consequently, accepted responsibility mediated the perceived positive competence in dealing with a challenge in the mentoring role. Thus, contrary to controlling mentors, autonomously motivated mentors dealt with experiences of optimal challenge (Csikzentmihalyi, 2013). I argued that the autonomous motivation for mentoring engagement driven in congruence with authentic self from IPLOC mediated mentors’ acceptance and internalization of responsibility for recognized challenge.

8.3.3. AUTHENTICITY

Spencer (2006) identified authenticity as one of the key features of quality FYMRs. I argue that authenticity in the approach of mentors followed their autonomous motivations and competent coping with perceived mentoring challenges with accepted responsibility. In particular, mentors intended to develop involvement that reflected their autonomous selves in order to enjoy the mentoring role as they were motivated. Thus, they approached perceived challenges in interactions with children with the intention to be authentic. Authenticity was a key feature they felt competent in and responsible for in maintaining a good mentoring relationship, and experiencing enjoyment in their mentoring involvement.

8.3.4. INFORMATIVE LIMIT SETTING ON CHILDREN´S CHALLENGING BEHAVIOR

I argue that the accepted responsibility in a mentoring role led to the challenging behavior perceived in children being negotiated with an informational limit setting style (Deci et al., 1994). The informative limit setting they developed was mediated by the intention to be authentic in the mentoring role. Supportive mentors felt secure and competent to inform
children about their authentic uncomfortable feelings, and so they provided authentic feedback on children’s challenging behavior (Deci, et al., 1994). They often used a sense of humor when providing feedback. In addition, they negotiated boundaries relating to children’s behavior with information on mentors’ attitudes towards the mentees’ challenging behavior. They also provided children with a choice in terms of reaction to the information they gave them. The informative coping style facilitated children’s autonomous integration of the mentor’s behavioral regulations (Deci et al., 1994; Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000; Ryan, Solky, 1996). As a result, they allowed children express themselves autonomously, but also let them know about their own boundaries and the consequences of the children’s behavior with the autonomy supportive informative approach they developed (Ibid). Following that, the informative limit setting on perceived mentoring challenges became an underlying root dynamic of mentoring interactions with children from the outset of the mentoring involvement.

8.3.5. EMPATHY IN MENTORS’ PERCEPTION OF INTRINSIC SATISFACTION OF CHILDREN

Autonomously motivated mentors perceived children’s and relational satisfaction as highly positive. They emphasized the link between their own positive feelings in the mentoring involvement and perceived similar intrinsic benefits of the relationship for the child. Thus, just as they experienced the intrinsic benefits of mentoring, they were perceptive to the subtle intrinsic benefits of the mentoring experience for the child from the outset of the relationship. Autonomously motivated mentors valued the relaxation, play, and new experiences provided by the mentoring activities, and they presumed that the children would benefit similarly. Thus, I argue that autonomously motivated mentors were empathetic to children’s autonomous feedback and were able to perceive subtle signs of children’s authentic (dis)satisfaction and needs in mentees’ enjoyment of mentoring activities. Following that, mentors were perceptive to the inherent benefits of mentoring for children. In addition, they were perceptive to the subtle intrinsic signs of mentees’ satisfaction, such as willingness to participate, enjoyment, happiness, and mentees’ autonomous activity in the mentoring interactions. I argue that mentors’ intrinsic satisfaction mediated their ability to perceive children’s authentic enjoyment.
and high perceived intrinsic satisfaction and benefits of mentoring in the relationships. As a result, the relationships experienced high mutual satisfaction that further mediated the relational quality features of closeness in mutuality and trust.

8.3.6. Helping Attitudes: Role of Facilitator of Positive Social Interactions, Enjoyment, and Play

Following their autonomous motivations, supportive mentors considered themselves to be one of the children’s available supportive significant adults, and considered their direct impact on children’s well-being to be rather neutral. In addition, they perceived that the supportive part of the mentoring role was their authentic approach to children. They perceived the enjoyment of the mentoring activities to be a value that added to children’s positive development and well-being. Thus, they emphasized that the benefits of mentoring for children consisted of mentoring experiences that differed from children’s routines and presented an additional option in mentees’ daily lives. They understood that the facilitation of enjoyment in mentoring meetings was their main contribution to the child’s well-being. Thus, they perceived that the facilitation of positive social interactions experienced in mentoring relationships through enjoyable activities with children was the main benefit of their mentoring role for mentees. As a result, the enjoyment of activities with children became the main focus of the mentoring interactions they developed.

In addition, from the outset of the mentoring involvement, autonomously motivated mentors emphasized that facilitating children’s needs was not part of their role unless they perceived that children expressed the needs on their own in mentoring interactions. Thus, autonomy supportive mentors interpreted children’s background needs based on their experience in the mentoring bond. In particular, they were not focused on facilitating children’s needs “prescribed” before the match, but rather waited until mentees themselves expressed their needs during the mentoring meetings. Following that, they were able to sensibly respond to children’s autonomous expressions of needs in the relationship. They primarily focused on creating a secure relationship in which children felt free to express their authentic needs and mentors were ready to follow and support them. Thus, they interpreted
children’s needs and reacted to them as they experienced them in mentoring interactions.

**8.3.7. Intrinsic Satisfaction of Mentors in the Mentoring Role**

After five months of mentoring involvement, autonomously motivated mentors experienced interactions with children as inherently satisfying. The mentoring activity itself became a source of intrinsic satisfaction. I argue that the sources of mentors’ perceived satisfaction were linked with their initial autonomous motivations for volunteering that further developed during their mentoring role. They emphasized that the opportunity to enjoy the relationship itself satisfied them, as their activity was internalized in congruence with their authentic selves (Ryan, Deci, 1985). Thus, mentoring activity itself became an inherent source of intrinsic satisfaction in the mentoring role.

As a result, being active as a mentor made them feel good in the mentoring relationships they created. Their autonomous mentoring activity emanating from IPLOC was the source of their satisfaction. In particular, they emphasized experiences of relaxation, enjoyment, and fun facilitated in play with children as major benefits of their involvement and the source of their satisfaction in the mentoring role. Thus, experiences of enjoyment, relaxation, and fun in mentoring relationships in turn were personally valuable, enriching, and satisfactory for them and became major benefits of their mentoring commitment. These in turn became the source of their intrinsic satisfaction and involvement.

**8.3.8. Support of Autonomy and Competence in Cooperation with Children**

After five months of mentoring involvement, the supportive mentors developed autonomy supportive interactions in cooperation with children in mentoring activities (Ryan, 1991, 1993; Ryan, Solky, 1996). In particular, supportive mentors, during the cooperation in mentoring interactions, provided supports in autonomy and competence with the provision of choice, structure, and positive belief in children.

Firstly, all autonomy supportive mentors emphasized children’s positive characteristics, strengths in autonomy, and high level of various skills from the
outset of mentoring involvement. Following that, autonomy supportive mentors considered the mentoring meetings to be a quality time spent with children that they facilitated for them and suggested the children-friendly places in children’s community for the mentoring meetings rather than the particular mentoring activities. As a result, the meetings were established on a regular basis. In addition, the organization of meetings in mentees’ community supported children in their spontaneous expressions in activities they shared with the mentors.

Following that, supportive mentors established an autonomy supportive youth-led approach in cooperation in mentoring activities with: 1) Provision of Options AND Choice in Negotiation on Mentoring Activities; 2) Focus on Activities of Mentees’ Interests; 3) Mutual Involvement in the Activities of Mentees’ Preferences; 4) Provision of Positive Feedback; and 5) Provision of Optimal Challenge (Deci et al., 1994; Ryan, Solky, 1996). I argue that the mentors’ approach was congruent with the identified characteristics of Developmental relationships (Morrow, Styles, 1995) and autonomy supportive relationships (Ryan, Solky, 1996).

8.3.9. Optimally Matched Enactment Social Supports

After five months of mentoring involvement, supportive mentors experienced particular needs of mentees that they further supported during the mentoring meetings. They perceived emotional needs, needs in resilience to stress, and socio-relational needs of children as they experienced them after five months of mentoring involvement. Thus, I argue that mentors provided optimally matched enactment social supports (Cutrona, 2000; Cutrona, Russell, 1990).

8.3.10. Mutuality and Satisfaction Mediated in Play with Children

Mentors described the feelings of closeness as perceived mutual attunement with high mutual relational satisfaction, and the perceived the benefits of play with children that the mentoring bond facilitated. In particular, supportive mentors were actively involved in mentoring activities selected according to children’s interests; and they thus connected with children on an equal level. In addition, they shared the activities and their enjoyment with children from the outset of the relationship. I argue that shared play mediated enthusiasm
for and enjoyment of mentoring activities, intrinsic motivation, and satisfaction of children, as well as the benefits of mentoring relationships. In other words, I argue that play is a key feature that mediated the quality and benefits of FYMRs.

In particular, when mentors described experiences of enjoyable play with children, they talked about the experiences of enjoyable play in the present moment and feelings of mutuality and trust that were shared in play. The experiences of shared enjoyable play, where both the mentor and the mentee were equally involved in the activity, mediated the feelings of closeness experienced as mutual enjoyment of the mentoring meetings. Thus, play with children was experienced as mutual closeness and mediated intrinsic relational satisfaction in the mentoring bond.

I argue that the experiences of enjoyable shared play in activities based on children’s interests mediated the quality and benefits of flow experience in the mentoring bond (Csikzentmihalyi, 2013)53. In particular, data showed that experience of play with children mediated the synchronicity and higher creativity in cooperation in mentoring interactions. In addition, mutually shared play in mentoring activities revealed the needs of children that mentors consequently supported. Thus, after 11 months of mentoring involvement, the data showed that experiences of mutually enjoyable play deepened and developed into regular, steady, and synchronized patterns of mentoring interactions. Mentoring activities became enjoyable in subtle interactions during the play the mentoring match knew they liked to share. In addition, children started to trust mentors and to seek support from them.

53 Furthermore, controlling mentors mentioned that the experiences of closeness in the mutually shared enjoyable mentoring events did occur in controlling relationships when mentors joined the children in the activities that the mentees were experiencing with active enjoyment. In particular, mentors described the mutual involvement in the events that spontaneously evolved from a mentoring activity into a play that the matches mutually shared as the experiences of relational closeness and flow (Csikzentmihalyi, 2013). In other words, the mentoring meetings that were facilitated with spontaneity around children’s interests, that is out of the usual routine structure prescribed by controlling mentors, were experienced with the mutual involvement and enjoyment of the mentoring activities. Consequently, the activity developed into a flow of play that mediated the feelings of mutuality and relational closeness. In other words, similarly to supportive relationships, mutually shared enjoyment, interest and/or excitement of children in mentoring activities mediated the experiences of quality relational closeness in mutuality in relationships. Thus, the mutuality was described in terms of autonomous genuine involvement of mentors who shared children’s enjoyment of the activities.
8.3.11. Developed Trust

The data showed clearly that the experiences of mutually enjoyable play in flow mediated the feelings of trust expressed by children towards mentors in mentoring interactions. In particular, supportive mentors described that the trust of children developed continually over the 11 months of mentoring involvement. After 11 months of mentoring experience they described trust as the subtle expressions of 1) children’s comfort; 2) subtle physical closeness with secure boundaries with mentors; 3) mentees’ sharing of personal topics with interest in mentors’ views; and 4) children’s support seeking expressed in the mentoring bond.

Supportive mentors primarily felt that the children trusted them when they spontaneously expressed affection in subtle physical acts. I argue that, contrary to controlling relationships, trust was spontaneously expressed by the children and accepted as subtle physical closeness with the authentic and secure involvement of mentors.

After 11 months, supportive mentors described trust in terms of progress in communication and more autonomous activity of the children at the mentoring meetings. They noticed that the trust of children was apparent when the conversation moved from general topics to issues of personal interest to mentees. In addition, supportive mentors described that the trust that was apparent in the personalized topics of conversation further developed into conversation about children’s personal and intimate feelings, interests, and other issues that children initiated and wished to share with their mentors.

I argue that the trust of the children towards the mentors was expressed when the mentees were open to talking about personal issues and dilemmas, and to asking the mentors for support and advice. Following that, mentors mentioned that children’s support seeking became more regular over time. Children felt free to make their own suggestions and initiate activities, and to try out their skills in shared play with mentors. In addition, they trusted mentors and confided in them about personal issues. Finally, they turned to mentors with their needs.
8.3.12. Resulted Dynamics of Supportive Informal Mentoring Bond

The feelings of closeness and satisfaction in relationships mediated steady and regular mentoring interactions. After 11 months of involvement, the relationships developed into steady and trustful mentoring bonds. As a result, autonomously involved supportive mentors were generally motivated for further long-term commitment to mentoring relationships. In particular, the supportive mentors were interested in keeping the meetings with children going, and they expected the relationships to continue naturally under the same relational dynamics in the long-term. In addition, they hoped that the mentoring bond would be indefinite. I argue that formal mentoring relationships with supportive mentors developed the dynamics of mentoring bonds with the same qualities and benefits as natural mentoring relationships. The analysis clearly showed evidence of support of children’s socio-emotional needs, and of their autonomy and skills. Thus, I argue that autonomously motivated mentors became a part of the children’s social networks as supportive significant adults and positive role models who supported children’s positive development and well-being.

8.4. Discussion: Can Initial Motivation for Mentoring Involvement Be Conceptualized as a Continuum?

It can be argued that the initial motivation of mentors is a dynamic feature that changes in quality over time. Thus, the mentors’ approach and the consequent quality of mentoring relationships develop and change overtime. As such, it can be argued that initial motivation of mentors for mentoring involvement can be displayed as a continuum that tracks the change in its quality over time (Ryan, Deci, 1985).

Nevertheless, I argue according to the data analysis that the initial quality of mentors’ motivation has a clearly controlling or clearly autonomous character (Ryan, Deci, 1985, 2000). The initial motivation in mentors was composed of more than one reason for mentoring involvement. Nevertheless, the quality of motivation mentioned clearly had the features of an autonomous or controlling quality (Ryan, Deci, 1985). According to the research results, I
did not find the qualities of initial motivation mentioned by mentors that would have both autonomous and controlling features when starting mentoring involvement.

Initial controlling motivations of mentors were expressed as expectations of experiences and benefits the mentors would gain for themselves through performing the mentoring role. The mentoring role was expected to be an instrument for the fulfillment of their initial expectations that motivated them for mentoring involvement. On the contrary, initial autonomous motivation was expressed in terms of values, attitudes, and expected experiences of enjoyment that mentors perceived could be experienced in the mentoring role due to the nature of the mentoring role and mentoring relationship with the child.

Following that, I argue that the initial motivation impacted on the perceived satisfaction the mentors expressed in the mentoring role after 5 and 10 months of mentoring involvement. In particular, I argue that the initial quality of motivation consequently impacted on the perceived satisfaction of mentors in the mentoring role and perceived benefits in mentoring involvement.

As such, the relationships with initial controlling motivations—controlling relationships—reported in general high dissatisfaction of one or both mentoring participants. Thus, controlling relationships tended to dissolve rather than bring about a change in mentors’ motivation and consequent change in relational satisfaction and dynamics towards more quality relationships. Due to high dissatisfaction, 4 out of 6 of the tracked controlling relationships dissolved before 12 months of mentoring involvement. On the contrary, the autonomous motivation in supportive relationships developed in quality towards more integrated types of motivation.

As a result, I argue that the initial motivation can be tracked in the continuum that develops in its autonomous quality only. The initial autonomous motivation of mentors expressed in terms of identifications developed into more integrated and qualitatively higher motivations of integration. In addition, autonomy supportive mentors, initially motivated with an intrinsic quality of motivation, perceived high satisfaction in the mentoring role that deepened over time. The relationships developed into
long-term steady and supportive mentoring bonds. These changes in quality of autonomous motivation tracked over 12 months of mentoring involvement can be displayed as a continuum as follows:

8.5. DISCUSSION: IMPACT OF SOCIAL AND CULTURAL CONTEXT ON QUALITY OF FORMAL YOUTH MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

The impact of the cultural context of the mentoring intervention on the quality of mentors’ initial motivation, and consequent approach and quality of relationships that mentors developed with children, should not be omitted. Nevertheless, as the thesis has a qualitative social-psychological perspective on the quality of mentoring relationships, the social and cultural contexts were not the subjects of the presented research study. The data collected in the field work and consequent analysis do not provide sufficient evidence for the analysis of the impact of social and cultural context on the results of the study. In conclusion, it is a limitation of the study in social-psychological perspective on the quality of mentoring relationships. Nevertheless, the impact of cultural and social context on quality of FYMRs and FYMIs could be addressed, explored and discussed in future studies. In addition, I argue that the patterns of controlling and autonomy supportive relationships would match with the
theory of secure and insecure attachment styles. I did not question the
attachment theory in the analysis and suggest that could be done in future
research. However, I argue that regardless of the cultural context, the same
identified features and dynamics of relationships I analysed would be found in
other one-to-one youth mentoring relationships in different countries and
mentoring organisations as the characteristics of attachment appear
universally in human relationships across cultures. For instance, the prevalent
attachment styles in different European cultures and societies, and the
consequent measures of characteristics of supportive relationships that are
deemed quality features according to the cultural perspectives and social
structures would be valuable to explore in a future comparative study.

8.6. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY
The limitations of the study will be acknowledged according to several
perspectives: methodological limitations, limitations of theoretical framework,
and limitations in social-psychological theoretical perspective in the
exploration of the initial motivation and its impact on the quality and
dynamics in FYMRs.

Firstly, the methodological limitations of the study are discussed in detail
in Chapter III. The analysis is focused on mentors' experiences only, omitting
the perspectives of children; the qualitative limitations focus without
subsequent validation of research results, on a larger quantitative perspective
on mentoring experiences; and the limitations in the longitudinal design, in
which the mentoring matches could not be tracked for more than 12 months,
were mentioned.

Secondly, I wish to acknowledge the limitations of the theoretical
framework that was used in the study. The SDT framework was deemed
suitable in analysis of mentoring experiences. In particular, the themes of
mentoring experiences matched well and were generalizable with SDT
concepts of quality of motivation in human behavior and with the perspective
on quality of approach of significant adults in developmental relationships
with children and youth. Nevertheless, the concepts of SDT describe the
characteristics of relationships in a rather static, non-dynamic perspective. On
the contrary, the longitudinal qualitative approach to the exploration of
characteristics and quality of formal youth mentoring relationships revealed
the dynamics in which the relationships were developed following the quality of initial motivation. In particular, the dynamics of controlling relationships showed that there was more than one controlling dynamic in the development of these relationships. Thus, I argue that SDT limits the analysis of initial motivation and its impact on the quality and dynamics in FYMRs to rather non-dynamic perspective. As a result, I recommend the use of the theoretical concept that considers the relationships not only in their characteristics but also in the dynamics that develop over time. For instance, I recommend the use of attachment theory (Bowlby, 2010) in future in-depth qualitative studies with longitudinal research design.

Thirdly, the limitations of social-psychological perspective in exploration of quality and dynamics of FYMRs that omits the impact factors of cultural and social context were also mentioned above.

8.6. CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, this thesis brings new original knowledge on the principles of the archetypal mentoring relationship formed in formal youth mentoring interventions. The thesis articulates the benefits and risk factors of the formal mentoring bond. In addition, it highlights the dynamics in which these factors were linked in mentoring bonds developed over 11 months. In particular, the thesis contributes to the research and knowledge on formal youth mentoring relationships in several key areas.

Firstly, the thesis is the first in-depth study on the motivation of volunteers and its impact on the quality and dynamics of FYMR. It identifies the pathways and mediators of risks and quality through an in-depth analysis that illuminates the relational dynamics of FYMR. As such, the thesis has the potential to contribute significantly to the quality of future mentoring relationships and interventions; and to the research on processes on benefits in mentoring relationships.

Secondly, the thesis used the theoretical framework of SDT, an in-depth longitudinal methodology and a phenomenological approach for the first time in the context of a qualitative study on FYMRs. As such, it contributes to the body of knowledge in both theoretical and methodological terms.

Finally, the study identified the features of risks of FYMR. As such, it brings attention to the ethical dilemmas of mentoring volunteering in FYMI.
Importantly, it also enlights the characteristics of supportive processes in FYMR, and detailed pathways in which formal mentors become informal supportive significant adults available for children and youth during their transition to adulthood. It particularly draws attention to the phenomena of play as a mediator of children’s communication and subsequently a mediator of mentoring benefits. As such, it makes an important contribution to the theory of formal mentoring as well as to the better practice in formal youth mentoring interventions. Thus, it will potentially bring more people who are genuinely interested in volunteering with children into playful and supportive mentoring relationships. Ultimately, it has the potential to reduce or eliminate the risks, while increasing the benefits of mentoring for the more vulnerable children in our post-modern societies.
8.7. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH AND EVIDENCE-BASED PRACTICE

The following and final part of the thesis offers recommendations for the mentoring practice of mentors and professional case workers, as well as for future research on mentoring relationships and interventions.

8.7.1. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR MENTORING PROFESSIONALS

The research results showed that seven out of 11 formal mentoring matches became controlling and potentially harmful for children. Nevertheless, I argue that the risks of the controlling approach can be minimized through the professional approach of case-workers.

Firstly, I strongly recommend working with the mentors’ awareness and ability to reflect on their approach, both in the phase of recruitment and in the course of the mentoring involvement. During the recruitment and screening process, the case-workers should carefully check the initial motivations of mentors and consequent ability to reflect on the potential challenges they perceive in the mentoring role. In this way, case-workers can assess potential risks for the future mentoring bond accordingly.

Secondly, the data showed that mentors with initial autonomous motivations have the ability to reflect on the skills they feel competent to employ in dealing with perceived mentoring challenges. Thus, they accept responsibility for establishing authentic limits in the mentoring role and the mentoring bond with children. On the contrary, as controlling mentors intend to fulfil their own personal needs instrumentally through the mentoring role and are not willing to reflect on the challenges and limits in their own skills. They do not accept responsibility for authentic involvement. On the contrary, they impose control and consequent risks on children in order to deal with mentoring challenges.

Because of this, I recommend that mentoring professionals be made aware of the features of risks associated with mentors’ involvement from the beginning of the recruitment process. In this way they can develop and support supportive mentoring relationships, and so avoid the ethical dilemmas that the controlling involvement of mentors can give rise to. Thus, I recommend that mentoring professionals be trained in their practice to the
point that they can recognize the characteristics and dynamics of controlling mentoring relationships, as well as the features of quality in mentoring bonds. Thus, they will be able to support children and avoid the risks inherent in formal mentoring.

In addition, I recommend that mentor training and supervision screen mentors' motivations and consequent satisfaction in the mentoring role regularly, as these are predictors of mentoring quality and risks for children. Professional case-workers should be aware of the differences in mentoring approaches. Importantly, they should be familiar with and capable of recognizing the signs in a mentor's language and attitudes that indicate the risks. Furthermore, professional case-workers should be responsible for facilitating the relationships based on best knowledge of mentoring qualities, with a high awareness of the warning signs of potential risks to mentees, and with the responsibility for and competence to deal with the mentoring challenges ethically and in the best interest of the child.

The present thesis clearly shows that a mentor's ability to reflect on their approach to children and accept responsibility for this approach is crucial for the development of a quality beneficial mentoring bond, and as such, it should be a core theme of mentoring training and supervision. In addition, mentoring professionals should question the motivation of mentors, as well as their willingness to approach children with responsibility and authentic mentoring skills they feel competent in. Mentors' ability to reflect on the limitations of their mentoring skills, and to develop their approach accordingly, also predicts the future quality of the mentoring bond and should be considered in the mentoring training. For instance, I recommend employing experiential methods - creative therapies that can reveal mentors' deeper motivations, helping values, and attitudes, along with the ability to accept responsibility in the mentoring role and the talent to develop playful activities with children.

Thirdly, based on the study, I recommend improving the practice of quality management of mentoring matches in BBBS CZ. In particular, the organization should be aware and reflect deeply and honestly on the helping values and attitudes it is based on, and that are thus reproduced in the mentoring matches. I recommend mentoring professionals to reflect on their own helping motivations, attitudes, and values, and revise them according to ethical mentoring practice: with the value in service for children always first.
and foremost aimed at making children secure and allowing them to benefit from the mentoring bond.

Finally, as the controlling attitudes of mentors were not reflected on and supervised, but instead supported by mentoring professionals, it is essential that a clear policy on what the organization values ethically and aims to produce in the mentoring programme needs to be developed with authentic and honest reflection by BBBS CZ management and case-workers, and stated accordingly in a written document. In this way, the socially-disadvantaged children, as the clients of the programme, and their parents can have a clear image of the kind of service and support they can expect to receive in the BBBS CZ mentoring intervention.

Similarly, mentoring policy makers and funders should reflect on what and who they intend to support with funding in the youth mentoring programmes. I recommend they would require independent evaluations of the quality of mentoring services in the Czech Republic. The funding of mentoring services should be available to only those programmes that reflect, and consciously and responsibly follow, the ethical values of social service for socially-disadvantaged vulnerable children and young people that they have established in practice.

Clear ethical values and helping attitudes of mentoring organizations are crucial for ethical practice with vulnerable children. I recommend adapting the Children First policies to include clear ethical statements and guidelines on ethical mentoring practice in Czech formal youth mentoring policy and practice. The majority of the potential risks of formal mentoring for vulnerable children can be avoided in this way.

8.7.2. Recommendations for Mentors
Firstly, I recommend each potential voluntary mentor reflect on their motivations for volunteering in an individual relationship with a disadvantaged child. In addition, it would be a healthy exercise for each mentor to reflect to their helping values and attitudes, and the reasons behind them. Such reflection could be facilitated by the mentoring professional or group of peer-volunteers. Alternatively, potential mentors could address these themes honestly in self-reflection. Thus, mentors could avoid many personal difficulties, disappointments, and frustrations in their future mentoring role.
The research results showed that formal mentoring naturally triggers dilemmas and challenges in the mentoring role for all mentors. However, the difference between mentors lies in their skills in coping with mentoring challenges. I recommend mentors self-reflect honestly on the mentoring challenges they perceive in the mentoring role. Acceptance of the challenge with responsibility leads to recognition of personal resources that can be deployed to cope with the challenge. Mentors would consequently have the courage to deal with mentoring challenges authentically, in congruence with their authentic mentoring skills. Thus secure mentoring relationships are established, and mentors, as well as mentees, report high satisfaction and intrinsic benefits in their mentoring involvement. I recommend future mentors reflect on this process, and inquire with honesty if they are willing to accept the process of coping with mentoring challenges.

The research showed that the mentors who enjoyed the mentoring role most and were most beneficial for children were those who enjoy the nature of the relationship with children. They emphasized the enjoyment and excitement they felt playing with children. Their talent and ability to play motivated them for the mentoring role with children. Thus, I recommend all adults, who enjoy playing and relationships with children intrinsically out of the enjoyment of playing with the child, become voluntary mentors, as they can gain strong intrinsic satisfaction from involvement in the mentoring role.

**8.7.3. Recommendations for Future Research and Evaluation**

Finally, the mediators of quality following the initial quality of motivation for volunteering have not previously been identified in the literature on FYMRs. Thus, I recommend that the mediators of risks and quality identified in the thesis will be used in future surveys and evaluation studies on FYMIs.

Secondly, the thesis concluded that play is a mediator of mentoring benefits in FYMRs. I recommend exploring and incorporating phenomena of play into FYMR research and practice. For instance, future research could explore the nature and themes of mentoring play in a participatory action research, with mentoring matches incorporating creative activities and facilitating play for the next research study. As a result, the ability of mentors to play and the benefits of mentoring mediated through play for children
would be explored closely. Thus, I recommend conducting a research study that explores play in mentoring interactions.

In addition, I recommend exploring the potential of training in play and improvisation skills in mentors for the practice of mentoring interventions. For instance, the methods of Child-Centered Play Therapy or Expressive Arts Therapies could be suitable and very useful for the training and supervision of mentors in order to facilitate better play in the mentoring bond for children. Mentors can be trained in understanding the play of children, and thus develop their ability to facilitate play for mentees. I recommend exploring these themes in future research.

In particular, I recommend for the future research to follow the in-depth longitudinal qualitative research design with phenomenological approach to exploration phenomena of play in mentoring interactions with children. The study showed that SDT framework is useful for explaining mentoring characteristics and dynamics. Following the results of the presented study I think that attachment theory (Bowlby, 2002) would be useful theoretical framework for the future in-depth qualitative studies especially on mentoring interactions when exploring play. Attachment theory could offer complex in-depth theoretical framework for the work with mentors in mentoring interactions in play.

Finally, I recommend exploring the natural mentoring relationships in the social networks of children in future research. An in-depth qualitative study on natural mentoring relationships of children and young people would be beneficial for future mentoring practice. For instance, the mentoring programmes where mentees identify their potential natural mentors, and are consequently matched with them by the mentoring programme, have good potential and I recommend further research on this theme. In addition, I recommend research on natural mentoring relationships in social institutions such as youth clubs that children and youth attend and use. As such, I recommend the participatory research approach in which children and young people would explore the natural mentors in social networks through creative methods. I think this approach would identify more positive mentors that could contribute to children’s positive development more naturally.
REFERENCES


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LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Previous research in detail

Appendix 2: Memorandum of Understanding

Appendix 3: Ethical Approval from REC NUI Galway: Approving Email from REC

Appendix 4: Information and consents for children, parents and mentors

Appendix 5: Interview guides for mentors, children and parents
APPENDIX 1: PREVIOUS RESEARCH IN DETAILS

Brumovská and Seidlová Málková (2008, 2010) studied the development of 12 mentoring matches during 10 months of mentoring engagement formed under the Big Brothers Big Sisters programme in the Czech Republic. In particular, the case workers’ notes on mentors’ regular reports on the mentoring experience were taken regularly during the group supervision meetings for 10 months, and consequently analysed. As a result, the data showed that the different stages of relationships were distinguished with themes of mentoring experience that were shared by all mentors at the time. As a result, three types of formal mentoring relationships were described according to the differences in characteristics of the shared themes on mentoring experience:

1. The Relationships with a Quality Friendly – Equal Approach
2. Relationships with Dilemmas of Mentors in Mentoring Role,
3. Relationships with Authoritative-Intentional Approach of Mentors

The Stage Before the Match: The Expectations of Mentors expressed before the initiation of mentoring relationships:

1. Friendly – Equal volunteers felt confident about the mentoring role and did have positive expectations towards the personality of mentee and the future relationships
2. Mentors with Dilemmas expressed insecurity concerning to the acceptance of them by the future mentee.
3. Mentors with the Authoritative-Intentional Approach had concrete ideas about the character of mentees. Thus, they had an expectation of the results of the relationships for mentees after 10 months of commitment.

The Stage between 1st – 2nd Months: First Meetings of the Matches: The initial phase of the match differed in the way in which mentors developed the first connection with mentees:

1. Mentors with the Friendly – Equal Approach described the immediate connection with mentees maintained during the first meeting of the match when the mentor and mentee “clicked” very fast?.
2. Mentors with Dilemmas described a slow initial connection that was developed during the first 4 meetings of the match.
3. Mentors with an Authoritative – Intentional Approach expressed a negative impression from the first connection and insecurity towards the issue of their acceptance by the mentee.

The Stage between 2nd – 4th Months: Mentoring Role in the Match: The middle stages of mentoring relationships concerned “getting to know each other” in mentoring activities, interactions and roles. In particular, the perceived experiences were influenced by the manner of involvement of mentors in the mentoring role. In addition, some children at this stage exhibited testing behavior and challenged mentors. As a result, the way mentors negotiated their mentoring role, coped with challenging behavior and got attached to children differed. The analysis recognized three roles of mentors in relation to children:

1. Mentors with the Equal – Friendly Approach developed a role of a friend had equal friendly approach towards mentees, were involved mutually into activities and shared experiences together with children.
2. Mentors with Dilemmas developed two variations of mentoring role: In the role of rescuer they intended to save the child from the “evil” of his environment putting the emphasis
preferably on mentees’ needs regardless of their own enjoyment of the mentoring meetings. On the other hand, mentors in the role of observer facilitated activities but observed children’s play without getting involved and sharing the mentoring activities and experiences.

3. Mentors with the Authoritative – Intentional Approach developed the role of a strict parent in which they were authoritative to children and tried to discipline mentees towards the norms they respected.

The Stage of between 5-8 Months: Satisfaction in Relationships: After 5 months of relationship experience the level of satisfaction was strongly evident and differed according to the previous approaches in mentoring interactions and consequent mentoring experiences:

1. Mentors with the Equal – Friendly Approach were satisfied with the development of the bond they maintained with the children, and reported that the children exhibited non-problematic and engaged behavior. Their contact was maintained on the regular basis at this stage.

2. Mentors with Dilemmas reported that they would be satisfied with the course of the relationship but children started to skip the meetings un/intentionally and were perceived as unengaged. Thus, they had to deal with personal dilemmas and dissatisfaction with the nature of the bond they developed with the children. They doubted whether the children appreciated their effort and the support they tried to offer and felt dissatisfied as they didn’t perceive enough appreciation from the mentees. They also had an issue in getting connected with children emotionally and looked for ways they could develop deeper closeness in relationships.

3. The Relationships with Authoritative – Intentional Mentors finished pre-maturely and did not reach this stage of the relationship.

Further development beyond the 8 months: Expectations for the Future: After 8 Months of mentoring experience the dynamics of relationships developed in different directions:

1. Relationships with Equal – Friendly Approach of Mentors continued beyond the formal contract with BBBS programme. They appeared to develop into more informal long-term supportive relationships that would foster the functions of natural mentoring.

2. Most of the relationships with the Mentors with Dilemmas terminated upon the end of formal contract and mentors’ feedback on the experience was reminded as controversial. In addition, mentors who continued into the second year showed intentions to change the character of their mentoring involvement in order to be satisfied in the mentoring role.

3. Relationships with the Authoritative – Intentional Mentors mentors terminated pre-maturely. In particular, 2 relationships terminated pre-maturely by the 5th month of mentoring involvement.

Similarly, the research on dynamics of formal mentoring relationships were reported by Bogat, Liang and Rigol – Dahn (2008). Bogat at al. (2008) analyzed the mentors’ experiences (n=42) of their participation in a formal school-based mentoring programme with pregnant adolescent women. Mentors were asked by the mentoring scheme to report in detail each contact with mentees. They also participated in both, individual and group supervision meetings that were noted by case-workers each month. The length of reported matches were from 1 – 9 months (M length = 6.8 months). The results of the analysis concluded that during the 9 months of formal mentoring duration three main phases were observable in development of relationships:

Initial Stage (Months 1 - 3): was described as the most difficult stage for both mentor and mentees due to experiences of mentees’ challenging behavior the mentors had to cope with:

2. Mentors who were challenged, often responded to mentees’ ambivalence and avoidance with reducing the interest in contact with them. In addition, they also withdrew from
mentors’ support group meetings more often. As a result, they were less likely to develop a close bond in the mentoring relationship.

3. Mentors who recognized mentees’ challenging behavior as a way to test acceptance of the mentor and to establish the security in relationship were more likely to progress into regular meetings and succeeded in establishing a close bond. In addition, they perceived the support meetings as a useful opportunity to reflect on their experiences, compare them with other matches and as a result not to take the challenges the mentees’ expressed too personally.

Middle stage (Months 4-6): During the middle stage of relationships, mentors and mentees got to know each other and decided whether or not they further continue in forming the close relationship. The conflicts in the match were most often during the 9 months. Thus, a risk of premature termination was higher at this stage. Mentees started to address their needs and to rely on mentors for support. Mentors in turn 1) felt both, overwhelmed by mentees requirements and feared from the intensity of mentees’ needs, or 2) they were able to negotiate the boundaries of mentees needs and mentors role in helping them to satisfy them. The conflict most often arose when mentors started to set the boundaries of their support:

1. Mentors who felt overwhelmed tended to reduce contact with mentees. In addition, mentors who felt obliged to fulfill all mentees’ requirements, became dissatisfied in the mentoring relationship. As a result, they tended to withdraw from the relationship. In addition, mentees in these relationships tended to express excessive dependency as a response to the ambivalent feelings of mentors.

2. Mentors who were able to regulate the amount of assistance for mentees while providing a range of support according to mentee’s needs and at the same time encouraging the mentee’s individual abilities for self-help were found as those who developed the relationships towards deeper level of closeness.

Final Stage (7 – 9 months): At the last stage of the relationships, patterns of more realistic awareness of each other and less frequent contact, gradual distancing from each other and negotiation of formal separation were observed. The formal end of relationships under the mentoring scheme was a source of anxiety and difficult feelings that both mentees and mentors had to face:

Mentees tended to meet mentors less often excusing themselves with different reasons. As mentees tended to avoid the meetings increasingly, mentors faced the challenge to communicate the formal end of relationship with them. Similarly, mentors reinforced mentees tendency to dissolve the relationships with less attendance and involvement into it.

As a result, the level of closeness and intimacy developed over the previous stage became less intense during this period. Some mentors expressed their intention to continue informally beyond the 9 months but expected mentees who meanwhile withdrew from meetings to make an initial contact that would assure mentors regarding their interest in continuing:

1. Those who were not successful in negotiation of the relationship end felt frustrated and unsure about their contribution to the mentees life at the end of their mentoring engagement.

2. Mentors who successfully communicated the further way of contact with mentees kept meeting them and often became a part of mentee’s informal social network.

I mention the results of the studies in greater details as the first one was published in the Czech language only; and they form an important base of the current research study.
APPENDIX 2: MEMORANDUM OF UNDERSTANDING

1) A MEMORANDUM OF UNDERSTANDING BETWEEN:

The UNESCO Chair on Children, Youth and Civic Engagement at the National University of Ireland at Galway,

and

Faculty of Humanities, Charles University in Prague, Czech Republic

SUGGESTED TITLE: International Comparative Research on Youth Mentoring Relationship in program Big Brothers Big Sisters/5P in the Czech Republic and Republic of Ireland.

1. Joint mission –

1.1 This memorandum of understanding intends to contribute to improving children and young people’s outcomes for children and young people globally by building knowledge regarding the role of mentoring intervention in wellbeing.

1.2 Mentoring represents one of the core domains of interest of the Chair and this Partnership is central to realising the Chair’s intentions in this regard.

1.3 It is intended to give effect to the UNESCO Chair on Children, Youth and Civic Engagement’s Mission statement:

To promote civic engagement for children and youth by providing relevant expertise in research, teaching, policy and good practice and establishing national and international networks.

1.4 The partners to this memorandum have made a particular commitment to contributing knowledge concerning building mentoring relationships among children and young people and develop quality mentoring interventions in post conflict and fragile states and countries in development and/or transition and more specifically have made a commitment to capacity build in these nations.

1.5 This MOU establishes a Partnership with the UNESCO Chair on Children, Youth and Civic Engagement with the explicit purpose of securing UNITWIN network status for partners.

1.6 The MOU records the partners’ intentions to secure an enduring and sustaining relationship that will allow them to maximise the value that can be obtained by pooling resources and working together in ways that are mutually beneficial.

1.7 This is a working Partnership the members of which have made a commitment to actively advance the interests articulated in the UNESCO Chair on Children, Youth and Civic Engagement’s Strategic Plan and this requires demonstration of ongoing work in the key areas of the work programme. This reflects past work in this area and ongoing commitment to work together actively in the future.

2. Value statement

2.1 The Partnership established in this MOU is based upon the following key values:

2.1.1 The parties share a common strong commitment to using their work to contribute to practice development both in their own countries and internationally.

V
2.1.2 The parties recognise and have a commitment to the participation of children and young people in their work and in particular to Article 12 of the United Nations Convention of the Rights of the Child

2.1.3 The parties are committed to making the best possible use of the resources they already have in their networks for benefit of children and young people.

2.1.4 The parties are committed to sharing information and reciprocal respect for each others’ work, intellectual property and relationships locally and internationally and to working together on in-country projects.

2.1.5 The parties are committed to capacity building for resilience research and practice in post conflict and fragile states and countries in development and/or transition.

2.1.6 The parties are committed to working within the Guiding Principles of the UNESCO Global Strategy on Youth and with the five Guiding Principles contained in the UNESCO Chair on Children, Youth and Civic Engagement’s Strategic Plan:

- A human rights based approach
- Participation of children and youth
- A particular focus on vulnerable children and youth
- Non-discrimination and gender equality
- Co-operation and dialogue among partners and concerned stakeholders

3. Fields of activity.

3.1 The partners have determined a joint work programme and a schedule of activities which is attached to this MOU. It details work which is aligned with the UNESCO Chair on Children, Youth and Civic Engagement’s Strategic Plan in the areas of research, teaching, advocacy/policy and programme development.

3.2 The partners will keep each other informed of their work programme in these areas and will consult with each other in relationship to the development of mentoring project work.

4. Cost and budget issues

4.1 In principle:

4.1.1 The partners recognise the need to capacity build in post conflict and fragile states and countries in development and/or transition. In this regard their primary commitment is that resources be applied to these states in the first instance.

4.1.2 The partners agree to pay for their own travel and costs. Where a partner has difficulty the network will try to provide for this.

4.1.3 The workplan identifies a range of activities the partners agree together will enable them to begin work towards the central mission in this MOU. This agreement is based upon a high level of goodwill between the partners and a joint commitment to work collaboratively to achieve the mission. Wherever possible costs of partners’ work in terms of cost of time will be absorbed by partners within their existing capacity. However there are a number of major activities identified within the workplan that will require significant additional external resources. Here the UNESCO Chair holder, Child and Family Research Centre agrees to fund relevant pre-agreed costs of the project up to 1000 Euro according to the agreed budget.

5. Work programme

5.1 The work programme is attached to this MOU. It is planned across 3 phases. Phases of the project broadly align with the three year life of the project.
6. Governance

6.1 The UNESCO Chair governs this Partnership and will work with partners to secure UNITWIN network status for the Partnership.

6.2 The Partnership is not exclusive and future partners may be brought into the network by mutual agreement of all parties.

7. Life of agreement and review

7.1 The life of agreement covers the period from January 2010- March 2013.

7.2 This MOU will be reviewed as part of the responsibilities of the UNESCO Chair on Children, Youth and Civic Engagement.

8. Resolving Disagreements

8.1 This MOU is based upon a high level of goodwill and a clear intention to work collaboratively to achieve the mission. Our intention is to work on the basis of respect and openness and we expect to raise and discuss issues with each other. We have agreed the following steps that will be taken in the event of disagreements:

   Step 1: Try to resolve the issue through open discussion (the expectation is that all issues will be able to be resolved at this step). If this is not successful;

   Step 2: Use an agreed third party to assist in resolution; if this is not successful;

   Step 3: Decide to disagree; if this is not successful;

   Step 4: Suspend the agreement with a view to resolving the issue at a later point; if this is not successful;

   Step 5: Disband the agreement.

9. Minimum contact requirements

9.1 It has been agreed that a minimum of three meetings per year will be held between the parties. Pre-existing meetings or conferences will be used in order to keep costs to a minimum and to maximise opportunities for face to face contact. Where this is not possible, electronic media and video conferencing will be used to facilitate contact.
2) DOHODA O SPOLUPRÁCI

MEZI PROGRAMEM BIG BROTHERS BIG SISTERS/PĚT P V ČESKÉ REPUBLICE A VÝZKUMNÝM CENTREM PRO RODINY A DĚTI PŘI NÁRODNÍ IRSKÉ UNIVERZITĚ V GALWAY V RÁMCI VÝZKUMNÉHO PROGRAMU UNESCO CHAIR PRO DĚTI, MLÁDEŽ A OBCANSKOU ANGAŽOVANOST VE SPOLUPRÁCI S FAKULTOU HUMANITÁRNÍCH STUDIÍ UK V PRAZE NA VÝZKUMNÉM PROJEKTU S NÁZVEM:

MEZINÁRODNÍ SROVNÁVACÍ VÝZKUM MENTORINGU V PROGRAMU BBBS/PĚT P V IRSKU A ČESKÉ REPUBLICE

Supervizoři projektu:
Prof. Pat Dolan, PhD.
Mgr. Gabriela Seidlová-Málková, PhD.
Bernadine Brady, M.A., PhD.
Zástupci Asociace program Pět P v ČR
PhDr. Dagmar Cruzová
PhDr. Jiří Tošner
Mgr. Lenka Černá
Mgr. Hana Neubargerová
Mgr. Bohdana Břízová
NÁVRH PROJEKTU

Cílem projektu je porovnání procesů přínosů mentoringu ve formálním mentorských vztazích, zprostředkovaných programem BBBS/Pět P v Irsku a České republice.

VÝZKUMNÁ OTÁZKA:

Co dobrovolníci ve vztahu dělají, že zprostředkovávají přínosy mentoringu dětem?
Jaké charakteristické rysy mají ne/přínosné vztahy v programu BBBS/Pět P?

METODOLOGIE VÝZKUMU

Metodologie výzkumu bude vysvětlena v několika bodech:

VÝZKUMNÝ DESIGN STUDIE

Studie bude provedena formou kvalitativních případových studií, které budou porovnány s podobnými případovými studiemi z irského programu Big Brothers Big Sisters.

VÝZKUMNÝ VZOREK:

V rámci 12 případových studií se výzkumný vzorek bude skládat z: dětí, jejich rodičů, dobrovolníků a koordinátorů Asociace programu Pět P.

Děti: Ve věku 9-18 let, z ekonomicko-sociálně znevýhodněného prostředí, s komunikačními obtížemi, poruchami pozornosti nebo učení, z etnických monorit apod. Ne děti s psychiatrikovou diagnózou nebo medikací. Nejlépe polovina chlapců a polovina dívek. Charakteristika zájemců z řad dětí bude zvážena v jednotlivých případech po konzultaci s koordinátory vybraných poboček Asociace programu Pět P v ČR.

Rodiče: Vzorek respondentů z řad rodičů by měl naplňovat následující znaky: Rodiče z úplných nebo neúplných rodin, se sociálním znevýhodněním, zaměstnání nebo nezaměstnání, s komunikačními obtížemi s dětmi apod. Charakteristika zájemců z řad rodičů bude zvážena v jednotlivých případech po konzultaci s koordinátory vybraných poboček Asociace programu Pět P v ČR.

Dobrovolníci: Dobrovolníci program Pět P od 20 do 60 let s malou nebo žádnou předchozí zkušeností v práci s dětmi. Charakteristika zájemců z řad dobrovolníků bude zvážena v jednotlivých případech po konzultaci s koordinátory vybraných poboček Asociace programu Pět P v ČR.

Pobočky Asociace programu Pět P: Ústí nad Labem, Praha, a další vybrané pobočky Asociace Pět P v ČR. Koordinátorka poboček Asociace Pět P v ČR se účastní rozhovorů o jednotlivých
dvojicích program, které budou vybrány do studie a které koordinátoři vedou a supervidují.

ČASOVÝ HARMONOGRAM
Případové studie začnou na podzim 2010 s novými dvojicemi sestavenými ve vybraných pobočkách Asociace programu Pět P v ČR. Sběr dat bude mít 4 fáze:

V čase 0 – před nebo těsně po zahájení vztahů (podzim 2010)
Po 6 měsících trvání vztahů – Jaro 2011
Proběhnou polo-strukturované a strukturované rozhovory.
Po 10-12 měsících trvání vztahů – Podzim 2011
Proběhnou polo-strukturované a strukturované rozhovory.
V mezíčase sběru dat pomocí rozhovorů bude probíhat analýza dokumentů na základě dat z případových složek dvojic – v průběhu roku 2011.

METODY SBĚRU DAT
Budou využity tři metody kvalitativního výzkumu: Polo-strukturované rozhovory, strukturované rozhovory s využitím dotazníků a analýza dokumentů

1) Polo-Strukturované rozhovory

V čase 0 na podzim 2010 proběhnou úvodní rozhovory s dobrovolníky, dětmi, rodiči a koordinátoři programu. Témata rozhovorů: Očekávání účastníků programu, motivace pro zapojení se do programu. Koordinátoři – proces vytváření konkrétních dvojic.
Po 6 měsících na jaře 2011 proběhnou rozhovory s dobrovolníky, koordinátoři, rodiči a dětmi o dosavadním průběhu vztahů. Koordinátoři budou komentovat průběh jednotlivých vztahů ze svého pohledu.
Po 10-12 měsících na podzim 2011 proběhnou závěrečné rozhovory s dobrovolníky, dětmi, rodiči a koordinátoři o zkušenosti ve vztahu v programu Pět P. Koordinátoři budou komentovat průběh jednotlivých vztahů ze svého pohledu.

2) Strukturované rozhovory s využitím dotazníků

V čase 0 na podzim 2010 proběhnou strukturované rozhovory s dětmi a rodiči o jejich očekávání od programu Pět P a o potřebách dětí s využitím dotazníků
Po 6 měsících na jaře 2011 proběhnou strukturované rozhovory s dětmi, rodiči a dobrovolníky – o vývoji vztahu a vnímání jeho přínosů
Po 10-12 měsících na podzim 2011 proběhnou strukturované rozhovory s dětmi, dobrovolníky a rodiči o přínosech programu Pět P pro jeho účastníky

3) Analýza dokumentů

PŘÍNOS STUDIE PRO PROGRAM BBBS/PĚT P

Studie si kladne za cíl osvětlit proces přínosů mentoringu ve formálních mentorských vztazích.

Tento proces není v oblasti výzkumu mentoringu dodnes zcela popsán a proto hlavním přínosem studie bude přispění k teorii mentoringu a k praxi formálních mentoringových intervencí.

Pro praxi programu Pět P znamená zapojení do výzkumu přístup k nejnovějším odborným poznatkům v oblasti formálního mentoringu, k výsledkům výzkumu a k závěrům o dobré praxi na výsledcích výzkumů založené. Program Pět P má tak možnost přístupovat ke svým klientům na základě nejnovějších informací a doporučení, což je součást profesionálního poskytování sociálních služeb. Výsledky výzkumu umožní programu Pět P reflektovat přímo na vlastní praxi a přístupy, což je v profesionální praxi sociálních služeb žádoucí.

Realizátři studie nabízejí, že výsledky výzkumu mohou být prezentovány ve formě praktického workshopu pro koordinátory programu Pět P. Asociace programu Pět P dostane k dispozici kopie publikací, ve kterých budou výsledky výzkumu prezentovány. Angličtina je pracovní jazyk výzkumu. Publikace budou poskytnuty v angličtině nebo v jiném jazyce, ve kterém budou výsledky původně publikovány.

PŘEDMĚT SPOLUPRÁCE PROGRAMU PĚT P NA VÝZKUMNÉ STUDII

- Asociace Pět P v České republice souhlasí s navrženou podobou výzkumu a bude aktivně podporovat realizaci výzkumu zejména ve fázi sběru dat.
- Asociace Pět P v České republice se zavazuje, že hlavní badatelce Mgr. Tereze Brumovské, M.Sc. zprostředkuje kontakty na účastníky nejméně 12 nových dvojic a umožní jejich oslovění realizátory výzkumu.
- Harmonogram sběru dat bude naplánován a realizován ve spolupráci s koordinátorů vybraných dvojic programu Pět P v závislosti na běžný harmonogram poboček Asociace programu Pět P v ČR. Koordinátoři zprostředkují kontakty na účastníky výzkumu, popř. osloví potenciální účastnici k účast výzkumu – podle dohody. Koordinátoři programu Pět P budou podle dohody aktivně spolupracovat při informování potenciálních účastníků výzkumu o cích a o předmětu jejich případné spolupráce v výzkumné studii. Individuální plán spolupráce bude dodržovat s každou spolupracující pobočkou Asociace programu Pět P v ČR.
- Hlavní badatelka výzkumu se zavazuje, že studie bude probíhat podle mezinárodních etických norem výzkumu sociálních věd. Návrh výzkumu bude schválen Etickou výzkumnou komisí, sídlící na Národní irské univerzitě v Galway v Irsku.
- Hlavní badatelka ve spolupráci s koordinátorov vybraných regionálních center Asociace programu Pět P v ČR dodá informované souhlasné pro možné respondenty výzkumu. Koordinátoři poté pomohou získat aktivní souhlas účastníků výzkumu – rodičů, dětí a dobrovolníků podle etických zásad.
- Vybraní koordinátoři sami souhlasí účastníci se rozhovorů v průběhu sběru dat coby součást vzorku respondentů, a to podle individuálního dohodnutého harmonogramu.
- Asociace programu Pět P v ČR a vybraná regionální centrum souhlasí s účastí hlavní badatelky výzkumu na výcvicích nových mentorů programu na podzim 2010 za účelem výběru a oslovění dobrovolníků pro účast v případových studiích.
- Data sebraná od respondentů v Mezinárodním srovnávacím výzkumu mentoringu budou použita pouze pro účely této studie. Další selekcionní analýzy dat pro účely dalšího výzkumu budou možné jen s informovaným souhlasem respondentů studie.
- Nakládání s výsledky studie a jejich publikování podléhá pravidlům stanoveným v odstavci Autorská práva na publikaci výsledků výzkumu.

AUTorská práva na publikaSe výSLeDků výZKumu

Prohlášení:

V________dne____________

Podpis hlavní badatelky_______________________________

Podpis zástupce Výboru programu Pět P_____________________

Podpis Koordinátora vybraného centra programu Pět P____________

Podpis supervizora výzkumného projektu_____________________

XI
APPENDIX 3: ETHICAL APPROVAL FROM REC NUI GALWAY: APPROVING EMAIL FROM REC

From: O’Connell, Eithne [mailto:eithne.oconnell@nuigalway.ie]
Sent: Monday, December 06, 2010 3:37 PM
To: BRUMOVSKÁ, TEREZA
Cc: Dolan, Patrick; nic Gabhaínn, Saoirse
Subject: Ethics Reference: 10/SEP/13 - Full approval

Dear Ms Brumovska

RE: Ethical Approval for “International Comparative Study on Youth Mentoring Relationships in the Big Brothers Big Sisters Programme in Ireland and the Czech Republic”

I write to you regarding the above proposal which was submitted for Ethical review. Having reviewed your response to my letter, I am pleased to inform you that your proposal has been granted APPROVAL.

All NUI Galway Research Ethic Committee approval is given subject to the Principal Investigator submitting an annual report to the Committee. The first report is due on or before 30th September 2011. Please see section 7 of the REC’s Standard Operating Procedures for further details which also includes other instances where you are required to report to the REC.

Yours Sincerely
Dr Saoirse NicGabhainn
Chairperson
Research Ethics Committee
APPENDIX 4: INFORMANT CONSENTS - CHILDREN

Mezinárodní srovnávací výzkum mentoringu
v programu Pět P
Informace o dotaznicích a rozhovorech pro děti programu Pět P
Program Pět P

Souhlas s vyplněním dotazníku a s účastí v rozhovorech o programu Pět P

Chci se účastnit výzkumu v programu Pět P

Budu si povídat s výzkumníkem v rozhovorech o mém velkém kamarádovi – dobrovolníkovi Pět P a o tom, jak se mi v programu s dobrovolníkem líbí.

Vyplním dotazníky, které mi dá můj koordinátor Pět P

Vím, že to, co sdělím o mě a o mém kamarádovi z program Pět P výzkumníkům je tajné a chráněné proti prozrazení další lidem.

Vím, že když nebudu chtít pokračovat v dalších rozhovorech nebo ve vyplňování dotazníků, tak nemusím.

O vyplnění dotazníků mě můj koordinátor poprosí třikrát během mého scházení se s dobrovolníkem. Rozhovory o mém kamarádovi budu dělat s výzkumníky také třikrát během mé účasti v programu Pět P. Rozhovory i dotazníky mi nezaberou víc než hodinu času. Souhlasím s tím, že se rozhovorů i vyplnění dotazníků účastním.

Podpis:_________________________Litlilik program Pět P

Podpis:_________________________Rodič litlíka program Pět P

Podpis:_________________________Koordinátor Pět P

Datum:__________________________
APPENDIX 4: INFORMANT CONSENT – PARENTS

Mezinárodní srovnávací výzkum mentoringu v mentoringovém programu Big Brothers Big Sisters – Pět P v České republice a v Irsku

Případové studie
Informace pro rodiče a děti
a informovaný souhlas o účasti ve výzkumu programu Pět P

POMŮŽETE NÁM ZJISTIT JAK ZLEPŠIT SLUŽBY PROGRAMU PĚT P A PODPOROVAT DĚTI JEŠTĚ LÉPĚ?

Milá/ý rodiči/opatrovníku littlíka Pět P,

Chtěli bychom vás nyní informovat o Mezinárodním srovnávacím výzkumu mentoringu, který v současné době probíhá v programu Pět P. Dovolte nám, abychom vás informovali o pozadí a cílech výzkumu před tím, než vás požádáme o souhlas s vaší účastí a s účastí vašeho dítěte v této studii:

1. Cíl výzkumu

Cílem studie je zjistit, čím je program BBBS/Pět P pro vaše dítě přínosný. Ptáme se, jaké typy vztahů dobrovolníci s dětmi v programu rozvíjejí, a čím dospělí kamarádi dětem přínosy vztahu dětem zprostředkovávájí. Pro zjištění odpovědí na tyto otázky nás zajímá vaše zkušenost a zkušenost vašeho dítěte s programem Pět P. Budeme se vás obou ptát, jak účast v programu ovlivnila vztahy vašeho dítěte s kamarády, jak je dítě spokojené s jeho dobrovolníkem a jak se mu líbí chodit na schůzky s ním. Zajímá nás zkušenost vaše a vašeho dítěte s programem Pět P a jeho vztahem s dobrovolníkem a to, jak tento vztah ovlivnil kvalitu života vašeho dítěte v dalších oblastech. Výsledky výzkumu pomohou zlepšit praxi programu Pět P, umožní stejným programům lépe naplňovat potřeby dětí a podporovat jejich pozitivním růst a dospívání. Všechny účastníky studie také na konci čeká malé překvapení.

2. Pozadí výzkumu


3. Účast dětí ve výzkumném studii – Polostrukturované rozhovory

Mezinárodní výzkum mentoringu se skládá ze dvou částí – z dotazníkového šetření a z případových studií. Obě části výzkumu mají za cíl studovat principy mentorského vztahu, díky nimž program Pět P (a zejména dobrovolníci) zprostředkovávají dětem své přínosy.

O co vás tedy vtéto chvíli žádáme? Nedávno jste už souhlasil/a s vaší účastí a s účastí vašeho dítěte na dotazníkovém šetření, které je první částí našeho mezinárodního výzkumu. Pro vás a
vaše dítě to znamená vyplnění předložené dotazníky po 6 a 12 měsících trvání vztahu dobrovolník a vás váš dítě. Předání a vybírání dotazníků bude zorganizováno vaším koordinátorem.

Rozhovory, kterých se nyní vy a vaše dítě účastníte, budou sledovat vývoj vztahu s jeho dospělým kamarádem. Zeptáme se také vás obou také na vaši zkušenost s programem Pět P po dobu trvání jeho vztahu, a to detailněji. Doplní se tak data, získaná v dotazníkovém šetření. Pro vás a vaše dítě bude účast na rozhovorech konkrétně znamenat následující:


B) Rozhovory dále doplní Případové složky dvojice, což jsou koordinátorovy zápisy o vývoji vztahu vašeho dítěte s dobrovolníkem v programu Pět P. Případová složka doplní rozhovory a dovytvoří celistvý obraz vývoje účasti vašeho dítěte v programu Pět P. My vás proto nyní žádáme, aby získané informace byly získány v době dění v programu Pět P jako zdroj dat pro výzkum UNESCO Chair pro děti, mládež, mladičky a občanskou angažovanost. Případové složky dále doplňují rozhovory a dovytvoří celistvý obraz vývoje účasti vašeho dítěte v programu Pět P jako zdroj dat pro výzkum UNESCO Chair pro děti, mládež, mladičky a občanskou angažovanost.

Jestliže souhlasíte s účasti vašeho dítěte na popsaném výzkumu, podepište s ním, prosím, předložený souhlas o jeho/její účasti ve výzkumné studii.

Jestliže souhlasíte s vaší účasti ve výzkumu, podepište, prosím předložený informovaný souhlas o vaší účasti.

Účast na výzkumu je naprosto dobrovolná a vy nebo vaše dítě od ní můžete kdykoliv odstoupit. Veškeré získané informace budou uchovány striktně důvěrně, přístup k nim bude kódovaný a nikdo jiný kromě vedoucí badatelky a výzkumného týmu k nim nebude mít přístup. Získaná data v této studii budou uchována a použita anonymně tak, aby bylo zaručeno vaše soukromí a ochrana osobního identita. Výsledky studie budou uveřejněny ve formě skupinových dat nebo v podobě anonymizovaných případových studiích a v žádném případě nebude možné identifikovat jednotlivé účastníky studie. Data budou použita s respektem k soukromí všech zúčastněných osob v souladu se zásadami etického výzkumu, které přísně dodržujeme.

Děkujeme vám za Vaš čas strávený při čtení těchto informací. Jestliže souhlasíte s výše uvedenými informacemi a chcete se vy a vaše dítě účastnit mezinárodního srovnávacího výzkumu mentoringu v programu Pět P, podepište, prosím, následující formulář. Poté obdržíte kopii tohoto informačního letáku a kopii podepsaného formuláře s vaším souhlasem. O další spolupráci na výzkumu bude informovat váš koordinátor Pět P.

Další informace: V případě dalších dotazů prosím kontaktujte prosím svého koordinátora Pět P nebo vedoucí badatelku výzkumu: t.brumovska1@nuigalway.ie

Informovaný souhlas rodiče o účasti na rozhovorech rámci Mezinárodního srovnávacího výzkumu mentoringu v programu BBBS/Pět P

- Potvrzuji, že jsem četl/a informační leták pro rodiče týkající se účasti v případových studiích v rámci mezinárodního srovnávacího výzkumu mentoringu
- Prohlašuji, že dostatečně rozumím poskytnutým informacím a měl/a jsem dostatek času zvážit svou účast ve výzkumné studii

XVI
- Rozumím tomu, že moje účast ve studii je dobrovolná a že spolupráci na výzkumu
  mohu kdykoliv přerušit.
- Souhlasím s tím, že se účastním rozhovorů, který povede hlavní badatelka nebo
  výzkumný asistent/ka

X
____________________
Rodič/Opatrovník dítěte programu Pět P

X
____________________
Koordinátor Pět P

X
____________________
Datum
APPENDIX 4: INFORMANT CONSENT – MENTORS

Mězinárodní srovnávací výzkum mentoringu v mentoringovém programu Big Brothers Big Sisters – Pět P v České republice a v Irsku

Případové studie

Informace pro mentory

a informovaný souhlas o účasti ve studii

PODĚLÍTE SE S NÁMI O SVOU ZKUŠENOST S PROGRAMEM PĚT P?

Milý/á ________________,

Obracíme se na vás s prosbou účasti v mezinárodním výzkumu. Program Pět P se v současné době účastní Mezinárodního srovnávacího výzkumu mentoringu, který se odehrává v programu Big Brothers Big Sisters v Irsku a v programu Pět P v České republice. Dovolte, abychom vás informovali o pozadí a cílech výzkumu před tím, než vás požádáme o souhlas s vaší účastí a s účastí vašeho dítěte v této studii:

1. Pozadí výzkumu

Výzkum je zašitěn výzkumným programem UNESCO Chair pro děti, mládež a občanskou angažovanost, který rozvíjí Výzkumné centrum pro děti a rodiny při Národní irské univerzitě v Galwayi v Irsku ve spolupráci s Karlovou univerzitou v Praze. Výzkumná studie navazuje na závěry předchozího výzkumu v programu Pět P, konkrétně na výzkum Typologie dynamiky mentorského vztahu v mentoringovém programu Big Brothers Big Sisters/Pět P (Brunovská, Máliková, 2008).


2. Cíl výzkumu

Cílem naší studie je zjistit, jak mentorský vztah přesně funguje, že zprostředkovává vašim dětem své přínosy. Výsledky výzkumu umožní programu Pět P větší profesionální profesionální jeho služeb, pomocou programu rozvíjet kvalitní praxi, která bude přínosná pro vás, vaše děti i pro dobrovolníky.

O co vás žádáme?

Mezinárodní výzkum mentoringu se skládá z případových studií. Případové studie, kterých se možná účastníte, budou sledovat vývoj vztahu vašeho dítěte s jeho dobrovolníkem od jeho počátku. Zajímají nás také vaše očekávání od programu a vaše zkušenost s programem Pět P po dobu jednoho roku. Konkrétně účast na případových studiích bude znamenat následující:

C) Polo-strukturované rozhovory: Případové studie sledují zpětnou vazbu na vztah vašeho dítěte s dobrovolníkem, a to formou rozhovorů. Rozhovory budou trvat vždy maximálně 1 hodinu a povedeme je s vami a vaším dítětem odděleně, o to na začátku před zahájením vztahu (podzim 2010) po 3 měsících (zima 2011, jenom s dítětem), po 6 měsících (jaro 2011) a po 12 měsících (podzim 2011) trvání vaší účasti v programu Pět P. Zeptáme se vás i vašeho dítěte na vaši zkušenost a spokojenost s programem Pět P.

D) Strukturované rozhovory se budou odehrávat ve stejnou dobu jako polo-strukturované rozhovory, ale budou se týkat jiných údajů a budou mít předem dané odpovědi. Strukturované rozhovory povedeme po 6 měsících (jaro 2011) a po 12
měsících (podzim 2011) trvání vaší účasti v programu Pět P, a to s vámi a vaším dítětem. Rozhovory budou převážně na téma přínosů programu Pět P pro vaše dítě.


Souhlasíte-li s vaší účastí a s účastí vašeho dítěte na zmíněné části mezinárodního výzkumu mentoringu, podepište, prosím, přiložený informovaný souhlas o účasti. Vaše účast na výzkumu je naprosto dobrovolná a vy nebo vaše dítě od ní můžete kdykoliv odstoupit. Veškeré získané informace, které nám poskytnete, budou uchovávány striktně důvěrně, přístup k nim bude kódovaný a nikdo jiný kromě vedoucí badatelky a některých strukturálních účastníků v souladu se zásadami etického výzkumu, které přísně dodržujeme. Studie je prováděna podle přísných etických kritérií výzkumu sociálních věd a její postupy jsou schváleny etickou komisí která působí na Národní irské univerzitě v Galway v Irsku.

Děkujeme vám za váš čas strávený při čtení těchto informací. Jestliže souhlasíte s výše uvedenými informacemi a chcete se vy a vaše dítě účastnit Mezinárodního srovnávacího výzkumu mentoringu v programu Pět P, podepište, prosím, následující formulář. Sami poté obdržíte kopii tohoto informačního letáku a kopii odpovídajícím formulářem s vaším souhlasem o účasti. Vedoucí badatelka vás poté bude kontaktovat a s vami a vaším dítětem dohodnout schůzku na první rozhovor.

Další informace: V případě dalších dotazů prosím kontaktujte svého koordinátora programu Pět P nebo vedoucí badatelku výzkumu Terezu Brumovskou na: t.brumovska1@nuigalway.ie

Informovaný souhlas dobrovolníka o účasti na případových studiích v rámci Mezinárodního srovnávacího výzkumu mentoringu v programu BBBS/Pět P

- Potvrzuji, že jsem četl/a informační leták pro dobrovolníky týkající se účasti v případových studiích v rámci mezinárodního srovnávacího výzkumu mentoringu
- Prohlašuji, že dostatečně rozumím poskytnutým informacím a měl/a jsem dostatek času zvážit svou účast ve výzkumném studiu
- Rozumím tomu, že moje účast ve studii je dobrovolná a že spolupráci na výzkumu mohu kdykoliv přerušit.
Dobrovolník/Dobrovolnice Pět P

Koordinátor Pět P
APPENDIX 5: INTERVIEW GUIDES

Rozhovory - Mentoři
Projděte si zápisy a poznamenejte si klíčové body pro další diskusi. Začněte všeobecným úvodem a pak se soustřeďte na vztah v mentoringu.

Vztah mentora a dítěte

1) Můžeš mi říct, jak se vyvíjí vztah s tým svěřencem ________? Můžeš to popsat?

2) Jakým činnostem se spolu věnujete? Jak plánujete schůzky? Jak vybíráte aktivity? Jak se snažíš dítě zaujmout?

3) Jaká je tvoje role ve vztahu k tvému dítěti, co mu přinášíš?

4) Jak bys popsal dítě někomu, kdo ho nezná? Jak by dítě popsalo tebe?

5) Co máte společného?

6) Co vztah dítěti podle tebe přináší? Pozoruješ, že se dítě od tebe něco naučilo? Používá např. znalosti nebo dovednosti, které jsi mu řekl nebo ho naučil i v nových situacích?


10) Jaký je teď tvůj největší přínos pro dítě a proč? Můžeš mi říct, jaká podpora je podle tebe pro dítě teď největší? Co dělal/a? Co dělal/a ________? Jaký jsi z toho měl/a pocit?


13) Co na činnost dobrovolníka v Pět P vidíš jako nejlepší?

14) Co považuješ za největší výzvu nebo za nejtěžší na tvém dobrovolnictví s dítětem?

15) Je něco ve vašem vztahu, co bys chtěl/a změnit?

16) Je něco (nějaké názory a pocit), co podle tebe nemůžeš dítěti říci – sdílet s ním?

Příklad?
17) Je něco, co podle tebe dítě nesdílí s tebou? (Názory, pocitky)?

18) Máte nějaká tématy, kterým se vyhýbáte?

19) Jaký je vztah s rodinou tvého chráněnce?

20) Jaký má na tebe vztah s dítětem vliv? Co tě ve vztahu drží, abys v něm pokračoval? Jaký má vztah pro tebe přínos?

21) V čem myslíš, že by byl život tvého svěřence jiný, kdyby se s tebou nescházel a neměl by tě za dobrovolníka?

22) Myslíš si, že tvůj vztah s dítětem ovlivňuje tvoje další vztahy? Jak?

23) Při prvním pohovoru jsi mi řekl, že vaší motivací pro práci mentora bylo_________, platí to tak i nadále?


Dítě a jeho temperament, kontrola a samostatnost

1) Jak dítě reaguje, když mu něco nejde, např. prohraje nějakou hru? Mění se to?

2) Umí se soustředit na jednu věc nebo mění často činností?

3) Stane se, že dítě nad sebou ztratí kontrolu?

4) Jaká je běžná nálada dítěte?

5) Umí dítě vyjadřit své pocitky? Stane se, že je vyjadřuje až příliš? Mění se to?

6) Umí nacházet řešení a více možných cest na řešení nějakého problému? Jak ho v tom podporujsi? Příklad řešení situace?

7) Umí dítě rozhodovat o svých možnostech (např. aktivitách)? Jak ho v tom podporujsi?

Program Pět P a koordinátorka

1) Máš se svým koordinátorem programu pravidelný kontakt? Kdo koho kontaktuje? O jakých věcech diskutujete?

2) Řekl/a bys, že ti vztah s koordinátorkou_________ poskytuje podporu? Pokud ano, proč, jak?

3) Máš pocit, že koordinátorky Pět P umí dobře vytvořit dvojice dobrovolníků a dětí? Existují nějaké změny, které bys doporučil/a, a které by v budoucnu mohly být užitně pro nové dobrovolníky?

4) Jak na tebe působí setkání s ostatními dobrovolníky?


6) Bylo vám poskytnuto nějaké další školení? Rád/a byste prošel/prošla dalším školením?

7) Podíváš-li se zpětné na výcvik dobrovolníků, myslíš, že tě připravil na tvou roli dobrovolníka v Pět P? Co jsi očekával od své role dobrovolníka? Jak se tato představa nyní líší?


Témata:

1) Přístup mentorů:

Podporující:
Podpora autonomie, zaměřenost a vzájemnost, angažovanost ve vztahu, autenticitu, spolupráci, respekt, vyladění na dítě, empatie – citlivost.

XXII
Sebeodhalení, podpora vyjádřování pocitů a emocí, podpora reflektivního rozhodování a voleb dítěte, spolupráce, podpora iniciativy dítěte.

Podpora toho, aby dítě bylo samo sebou, vyjadřovalo pocity a emoce, rozhodovalo se samo. Vzájemnost – vyladění na dítě, vysvětlování a komunikace tak, aby to chápálo. (taky v pojmu „Sensitivity“)


Jak plánuješ schůzky? Jak vybíráš aktivity? Jak se snažíš dítě zaujmout? Jaká je tvoje role ve vztahu k tvému dítěti, co mu přinášíš?

Přenos:

Význam: Jak se dítě snaží zaujmout k nějaké aktivitě? Snažíš se mu při aktivitách sdělit i něco ze svých zkušeností? Jak máte nějaké společné aktivity, při kterých se např. smějete, rozcházejete, bavíte, co vás oba zajímá? Jak se vylučuje společný zájem k takovým aktivitám?

Autentický kontakt. Podporuje vyjádřování pravých pocitů a voleb, blízkost a bezpečí (nurturance).


Svěřuje se dítě se svými tajnostmi? Příklad? Jak jsi reagoval? Pocit? Vliv na vztah?

Cítiš, že ve vašem vztahu pocit blízkosti?

Dilemata:
Je něco, čeho se do budoucnosti obáváš, že by mohl být pro vás zdroj konfliktu – problému?

Jaká témata jsi řešil/a na supervizích?
Co je na tvé roli dobrovolníka nejtěžší?
Jak bys popsal/a dítě někomu, kdo ho nezná?

Ovlivňuje vztah s tvým svěřencem jiné vztahy ve tvořném okolí?


Motivace mentorů, spokojenost.

Vnější – uznání od společnosti, kamarádů, povinnost ze školy apod.
Instrumentální – potkávání nových vztahů mezi dobrovolníky, výhody, které program poskytuje, výhody, které poskytuje scházení se s dítětem,

Vnitřní – Vlastní dobrý pocit z radosti dítěte, rozvoje dítěte apod.

Průběh a charakter vztahu – řešení konfliktů, dosavadní průběh, změny
Způsob poskytování opory, blízkost, důvěra, otevřenost, autenticita, očekávání do budoucnou
Jak dítě podporuješ? Jakou podporu potřebuje nejvíce? Jak – příklad?

Co sdílíš? Existuje něco, o čem s dítětem nemluvíš? Je něco, o čem dítě nemluví s tebou? Jsou témata, o kterých nemluvíte záměrně?
Rozhovory – Děti

Než zahájíte pohovor, přečtěte si klíčové body, o nichž se mladý člověk zmínil při prvním pohovoru, abyste se seznámili/a s jejich situací. Znovu je ujistěte, že nemusí odpovídat na otázky, na které nechtějí (při seznámení se záznamem z předchozího pohovoru si všimněte, jestli nebyly problémy související s používáním způsobu mluvy dětí, úrovní chápání atd.) .

Cílem druhého pohovoru je navázat na informace získané během prvního setkání a hlavně se snažit ověřit, jak se mentorský vztah vyvíjí (pokud vztah skončil předčasně, pak použijte zvláštní seznam otázek, uvedený na konci).

Začněte všeobecným úvodem.

1. Dítě a jeho/její rodina a domov
   
   • Jak jdou věci doma s tvojí rodinou a sourozenci ?
   • Když máš nějaký průběh problém, komu to řekněš? Co děláš? Jak ti pomůže?
   • Kdo má největší radost, když se ti něco povede? Komu to běží říct jako prvnímu? Co se ti předčalo naposled? Komu jsi to řekl? Jak reagoval?
   • Když jsi rozlobený nebo smutný nebo te něco trápí, jak to dáš najevo? Komu to řekněš?
   • Jak to _______pozná? Co děláš?
   • Myslíš, že na tebe tvoje mama/táta/babička/děda mají dost času? Chtěla bys s nimi trávit více času? Změnilo se něco za poslední dobu?

2. Temperament, sebekontrola, samostatnost
   
   • Když ti něco nejde, např. Když prohraješ nějakou hru, získáš to dlouho rozčiřený/a a nesvůj/nesvá nebo tě to rychle přejde a za chvíli ti to nevadí?
   • Když té pozdraví nějaký cizí člověk (např. Cizí učitel nebo vzdálený příbuzný), jak se cítíš? (např. stydíš se, máš radost, jsi nervózní, začneš si s ním povídáš...)?
   • Umíš si dělat srandu? Jaký druh srandy máš rád? (často vtipkuješ, vymýšlíš srandovní hry, rozesmíváš ostatní, směješ se vtipům druhých?) Příklad?
   • Bojiš se někdy toho, že uděláš nějakou věc, kterou neumíš ovládat? Stane se ti někdy, že uhodíš jiné děti, aniž bys o tom přemýšlel – třeba proto, že jsi rozčiřený?
   • Myslíš, že někdy neumíš vyjádřit, jak se cítíš? Myslíš, že někdy projevujiš své pocity příliš?
   • Jsi rád, když můžeš rozhodnout sám o tom, co budeš dělat? Např. Co si vezmeš na sebe, jak utratíš své kapesné, co budete dělat s dobrovolníkem atd.
   • Umíš se soustředit, když něco dělají? Vyrážíš u nějaké věci, dokud není hotová?

3. Škola:
   
   • Co se ti ve škole líbí ? V čem jsi dobrý/a ? Když něčemu nerozumíš v__________, kdo ti to vysvětlil?
   • Proč myslíš, že děti chodí do školy?
   • Existuje něco co se ti tak moc nelíbí ? Nebo věci, které jsou pro tebe těžké nebo obtížné ?
   • Když něčemu nerozumíš v __________, koho se zeptáš?
   • Je něco ve škole lepší než dřív ? Kdybys mohl, co by jsi na škole změnil?
   • Jak se cítíš, když ráno přijdeš do školy, do třídy?

XXIV
• Máš ve škole kamarády? Kdo je nejlepší kamarád? Jaké jsou děti ve třídě? Máš je rád/a?
• Obecně, jak se ti v teď celkově daří?

4. Kamarádi:
• Kolik máš kamarádů? Jak se jmenuji?
• Vidíš se s dětmi ze školy i po škole? Mají tě ostatní děti rádi? Chtěl bys je videt víc? Co spolu děláte? Je to jiné od počátku scházění se s dobrovolníkem_____?
• Kdo je to tvůj nejlepší kamarád? Co spolu děláte? Jaké spolu hrajete hry? Co je na něm nejlepší?
• Máš někdy starč, že s tebou ostatní děti nebudou mluvit nebo budou naštvané? Proč?
• Jak? Stalo se to někdy?
• Jak si hledáš nové kamarády – co dělám řešit nebo co uděláš, když se s nimi chceš kamarádit? Stane se ti někdy, že si chceš hrát s ostatními, ale oni tě nenechají?
• Kdo je to kamarád – někdo, ským si hraješ, s kým je zábava, kdo bydlí kousek od tebe.....?
• Když tě něco trápí nebo seš naštvaný, máš nějakého kamaráda, kterému to může říct?
• Kdybys tě něco trápilo, co by řekl tvůj kamarád?
• Pozoruješ nějaký rozdíl za dobu, co se scházíš s dobrovolníkem? (Záleží na délce vztahu. Máš více kamarádů – lepší kamarády?)

5. Zájmy a talenty dítěte
• Jaké koníčky, aktivity a činnosti tě zrovna baví nejvíc? Co děláš, když máš volno?
• Jsou nějaké aktivity, ve kterých jsi dobrý – víš, že ti jdou lépe než ostatním dětem?
• Jsou nějaké aktivity, ve kterých by sis přál být dobrý? (kreslení, tancování, angličtina, sport - jaký, ruční práce jako korálky apod., hudba atd.)? Pomáhá ti někdo, aby jsi je mohl dělat? (Mentor?)

6. Dítě a jeho dobrovolník
• Jaká je tvoje dobrovolnice? Jak bys o něm řekl kamarádovi?
• Co spolu děláte? Kam spolu chodíte?
• Naučil/a ses něco nového? Co? Jak tě to naučila?
• Máte něco, co vás baví společně? Co?
• Co tě s vní baví nejvíc?
• Jaká je tvoje dobrovolnice? Jak bys mi jí popsal/a (Tvém kamarádovi – tvé kamarádce)? Jak vypadá? Jak dlouho se znáte? Co je na ní nejlepší? (Obrázek postavy, kde popíšou dobrovolníka)
• Jaká byl/a někdy, když jsi ho/ji viděl/a poprvé? Změnila se od té doby? Jak?
• Jak často se scházíte? Je to dosta často, nebo bys chtěl/a se scházet častěji /ne tak často?
• Jak plánujete schůzky? Kdo komu zavolá? Vadi ti jí/mu volat?
• Jak vybíráte aktivity? Kdo rozhoduje, co se bude dělat? Je to jednoduché nebo těžké rozhodnutí?
• Jak vypadá? Jak dlouho se znáte? Co je na ní nejlepší? (Obrázek postavy, kde popíšou dobrovolníka)
• Jaká byl/a někdy, když jsi ho/ji viděl/a poprvé? Změnila se od té doby? Jak?
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• Jaká byl/a někdy, když jsi ho/ji viděl/a poprvé? Změnila se od té doby? Jak?

• Bylo něco s čim jsi potřeboval pomoc a zeptal ses______________? Co to bylo? Co udělal/a? Pomohla ti? Jak jsi se cítit/a, když ti pomáhala? Jak jsi se cítit/a potom? Máš jí od té doby ráda stejně, víc nebo méně? Zeptal/a by ses jí zas?

• Jak myslíš, že by ___________ popsal/a tebe? Co by mi o tobě řekl/a, jaký jsi? Chtěla by na tobě něco změnit? Zlobí jí/ho v něčem?

• Myslíš, že je _________________ s tebou spojený a rám. Jak to poznáš? Příklad?

• Můžěš mi říct, kdy jsi se s_________cítíš opravdu dobře? Kdy to bylo? Co dělal/a_________dobrovolnice? Jak jsi se cítíš a sám? Jak jsi se cítí s ___________dobounderscore;volníkem?

• Kdybys uměla čarovat, začarovala jakou dobrovolnici by sis vyčarovala? Jaká by byla? Byla by v něčem jiná než_________? (Obrázek ruky s hůlkou – 5 věcí)

• Kdybys mohla začarovat (pan Tau)______________, byla by v něčem jiná? V čem?


• Je někdy doba, kdy se musíš chovat tak, jak chce__________,když by ses chtěl chovat jinak? Co dělal? Říká ti někdy, jak se může chovat nebo tě nechá být?

• Hrajete si spolu? Nebo si hraješ sám? Kdy? Příklad?

• Je něco, co bys mu/nechkl/a? Je něco, co by ti něči dobrovolník může předtebe nejlepší tajemství, o kterém nechce mluvit? A ty před ním?

• Vyneschal/a jsi někdy scházku se svým dobrovolníkem? Co se přihodilo?

• Změnilo se něco od té doby, co máš dobrovolníci mezi tvými kamarády nebo sourozenci (rodicici)? Co? A jak? Máš víc/lepší kamarády? Je máma/brácha/segra lepší než byli?

• Když jsi se svým dobrovolníkem, je to stejně, nebo jiné než s jinými dospělými? V čem?

• Jak dlouho myslíš, že se budeš scházet s ________________?

• Myslíš, že jiné děti tého věku by tak měli mít svého dobrovolníka? Proč?

• Co bys jim o tom řekl/a? Které věci jsou na tom ty nejlepší / které jsou ty nejméně dobré?

• Jaké další dospělé lidí máš kolem sebe?

• V čem se liší dobrovolník od ostatních dospělých? Je stejný nebo jiný? V čem?

7. Dítě a program BBBS

• Jak vycházíš se svojí koordinátorkou Pět P______________?

• Jak často se s ní vídiš?

• O jakých věcech spolu mluvite? (Prosím, uveď příklad)

• Máš pocit, že s ní můžeš mluvit o svém dobrovolníkovi?

• Co je na ___________tvé koordinátorce nejlepší?

• Existuje u nich něco, co by sis přál/a, aby na ní bylo jiné?

Témata:
1) Důležití lidé, vztah s rodiči a sourozenci
2) Škola

XXVI
Rozhovory - Rodič/opatrovník dítěte Big Brother Big Sister (BBBS)

Projděte si záznam z první schůzky a zvýrazněte veškeré klíčové body, které se vyskytly. Začněte obecným úvodem.

1. Mentorský vztah
   • Jak myslíte, že váš syn/vaše dcera vychází se svým mentorem? Je spokojená? Jak to projevuje?
   • Scházejí se pravidelně?
   • Bavíte se o dobrovolníkovi a aktivitách na schůzkách? O čem všem si povídáte?
   • Musel/a jste někdy do schůzek zasahovat? Např. pobízet, aby šel/šla na schůzku?
   • Kontaktovat koordinátorku 5P? Proč? Co se stalo?
   • Máte kontakt s dobrovolníkem? Jak to probíhá?
   • Co si myslíte, že se dítěti na schůzkách líbí nejvíc? Existuje něco, co se mu/jí nelíbí?

2. Program BBBS a koordinátorky
   • Informoval vás zpracovatel akce pravidelně o tom, jak to probíhá? Jak to prováděl?
   • Můžete mi něco říct o průzkumech? Co se v nich děje? Jsou užitečné/k ničemu?
   • Odpovídá skutečnost, že vaše dítě má mentora, vašemu očekávání? Je něco jiné, než jste očekával/a?
   • Cítíte se zapojen/a do dění? Existuje něco, o čem byste chtěli/a být lépe informován/a?
   • Musel/a jste někdy kontaktovat zpracovatele akce kvůli něčemu, co souviselo s programem? Můžete mi o tom říct, a k čemu došlo?

3. Rodič/opatrovník a jejich syn/dcera
   • Jaký byl váš vztah s vaším synem/vaší dcerou za posledních několik měsíců? Jak byste vztah popsala? Je něco, co vás znepokojuje/dělá starosti?
   • Jak se dítěti obecně daří doma? S jejich sourozenci? S dalšími členy rodiny?
   • Vidíte nějakou změnu od doby kdy se začali vidat se svým mentorem?
   • Co dělá, když se rozzlobí/vzteká? Jak se projevuje a jak se uklidní? Jak ho uklidníte? Co funguje?
   • Jak dítě reaguje, když se od vás vzdáli – odpoji?
   • Máte na dítě dostatek času?
   • Změnilo se něco ve vašem vztahu od počátku vztahu s mentorem?

4. Dítě a jeho důležité vztahy
   • Kdo jsou důležití lidé kolem vašeho dítěte?
   • Jak dítě dává najevo svou přízně?
   • Je někdo, kdo je pro dítě důležitý, ale nevidí se s ním? Myslíte, že by na tom chtěl něco změnit?
   • Je aktivní ve zkoumání nových věcí/míst/aktivit? Jak se to projevuje?
5. Škola a vrstevníci
   • A co škola, jak mu/jí jde škola?
   • Jaký má ke škole vztah? Jaký pro něj má chození do školy smysl?
   • Umí se soustředit na práci ve škole? Úkoly doma?
   • Co mu jde, v čem je dobrý?
   • Jaké byste chtěla, aby měl vysvědčení?
   • Kdo s ním dělá úkoly? Kdo chodí na třídní schůzky? Pomáhá mu s učením? Jak mu to jde?
   • Co bylo jeho/jejím posledním úspěchem? Jak jste ho/jí pochválila?
   • Jak vychází s ostatními dětmi? Jak s nimi navazuje kontakt? Umí s nimi hrát? Víte, jak se dítě zapojuje do her ostatních dětí? Má o ně zájem? Musíte ho třeba někdy v chování k dětem usměrňovat?
   • Schází se se svými spolužáky i po škole? Změnilo se na tom něco od začátku vztahu s dobrovolníkem?
   • Existuje nějaký učitel, který má k dítěti speciálně podporující vztah? Na koho se můžete obrátit? Změnilo se na tom něco do počátku vztahu s mentorem – vztah s učiteli a dětmi ve škole?

6. Dítě a jeho temperament, kontrola a samostatnost
   • Jak dítě reaguje, když mu něco nejde, např. prohraje nějakou hru? Mění se to?
   • Umí se soustředit na jednu věc nebo mění často činnosti?
   • Stane se, že dítě nad sebou ztratí kontrolu?
   • Jaká je běžná nálada dítěte?
   • Umí dítě vyjádřit své pocit? Stane se, že je vyjadřuje až příliš? Mění se to?
   • Umí nacházet řešení a více možných cest na řešení nějakého problému? Jak ho v tom podporujiš? Příklad řešení situace?
   • Umí dítě rozhodovat o svých možnostech (např. aktivitách)? Jak ho v tom podporujete?