

The Influence of Mentor Personality Traits and Attachment Style on Youth Mentoring Relationship Quality

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Sydney Taylor Younginer
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ABSTRACT

The quality of the relationship between a mentor and mentee is considered an influential mechanism linking youth mentoring to positive developmental outcomes (Rhodes, 2005). As such, it is important to understand the factors that promote the development of a high-quality youth mentoring relationship in order to maximize youth outcomes. Previous literature notes that personality characteristics and attachment style influence the quality of dyadic relationships (Asendorpf & Wilpers, 1998; Nettle & Shaver, 2006). The present study sought to examine whether dimensions of mentor personality and attachment style influenced the quality of the youth mentoring relationship. This study also examined whether mentor attachment style moderated the relationship between mentor personality and youth mentoring relationship quality. Participants were 55 elementary school children and 62 college student mentors who were participating in a randomized trial of a school-based mentoring program for children showing early signs of aggressive behavior. Children were mentored for two semesters and received a different mentor each semester, resulting in 104 unique mentoring relationships. Mentor personality and attachment were assessed through mentor self-report, and measures of youth mentoring relationship quality were assessed through both mentor- and mentee-report. Results suggest the personality dimensions of Extraversion and Openness are significantly associated with mentoring relationship quality. Furthermore, mentor attachment style moderated the relationship between certain dimensions of mentor personality and mentoring relationship quality. This study informs our understanding of the unique influence of mentor personality and attachment on youth mentoring relationship quality within the context of a mentoring program embedded in an important social context at school.

Keywords: youth mentoring, relationship quality, personality, attachment style

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Youth mentoring is a widely accepted, low-cost intervention for at-risk youth experiencing an array of difficulties (Blakeslee & Keller 2012; DuBois, Holloway, Valentine, & Cooper, 2002; Cavell, Elledge, Malcolm, Faith, & Hughes, 2009). Children who participate in formal youth mentoring programs often experience benefits that cut across a wide range of adjustment outcomes (for a review see Raposa et al., 2019; DuBois, Portillo, Rhodes, Silverthorn & Valentine, 2011). However, despite the widespread appeal of youth mentoring and evidence supporting the efficacy of youth mentoring for improving many youth developmental outcomes, most studies reveal modest effects (DuBois et al., 2011). The quality of the youth mentoring relationship is considered a key mechanism linking youth mentoring to positive youth outcomes (Karcher & Nakkula, 2010; Rhodes, 2005; Rhodes & DuBois, 2008). As a result, youth mentoring programs often recognize the value of supporting the development of a high-quality relationship between a mentor and youth as a way to maximize the outcomes associated with mentoring. Therefore, it is important to identify factors which influence the propensity for youth and their mentors to develop a high-quality relationship. One area that warrants further investigation is whether there are characteristics of a mentor that make them better suited to build relationships with vulnerable youth. The goal of the current study is to examine whether mentor personality or attachment style, characteristics often linked to interpersonal functioning in other relationships (Asendorpf & Wilpers, 1998; Nofle & Shaver, 2006), influence the quality of youth mentoring relationships for children exhibiting elevated levels of aggressive behavior who are participating in a lunchtime mentoring program.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Mentor Characteristics and Youth Mentoring Outcomes

Scholars have identified several mentor characteristics associated with positive youth mentoring outcomes. There is evidence that youth benefit more from mentoring when they are paired with mentors who occupy helping roles or professions (DuBois et al., 2002) or when they are matched with older mentors as opposed to younger mentors volunteering through high school or college programs (Herrera, Kauh, Cooney, Grossman, & McMaken, 2008; Grossman, Chan, Schwartz, & Rhodes, 2012). Furthermore, youth mentoring appears to have greater impact when the mentor and mentee share common interests (DuBois et al., 2011). Interestingly, despite many programs matching youth with mentors of the same race, ethnicity, or gender, the majority of studies suggest program effects do not vary based on the gender or race/ethnicity of the mentor.

There is some evidence which points to specific characteristics and skills of the mentor (e.g., humor, sensitivity, positive attitude, enthusiasm, kindness, patience, adaptability, empathy, and listening skills) that are associated with developing and maintaining positive mentoring relationships (Hilgard & Moore, 1968; Whitehead & Nokes, 1990; Nicola, 1990; Raposa, Rhodes, & Herrera, 2016). For example, one study found mentor self-efficacy was positively associated with mentor-reported mentoring relationship quality (Raposa, et al., 2016). Beyond this, it remains unknown whether characteristics of the mentor are associated with mentoring relationship quality, which is surprising given that program effects are thought to arise only from relationships of sufficient quality (Rhodes, 2005; Rhodes & DuBois, 2008).

Mentor Personality Traits as a Predictor of Relationship Quality

The Big Five Personality traits are often used as a descriptive model of the broadest levels of personality (John & Srivastava, 1999), describing personality variation across five

dimensions: Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, and Neuroticism. Agreeableness refers to one's concern and sympathetic regard for others, and may manifest as someone who is cooperative, considerate, and forgiving. Conscientiousness describes patterns of orderly, responsible, and dependable behavior, which likely presents as someone who is thorough, efficient, and reliable. Extraversion refers to preferences in social interaction, and often manifests as warmth, high activity level, gregariousness, and assertiveness. Openness to Experience concerns one's receptivity to novel situations, feelings, and ideas and so may manifest as someone who is inventive, cognitively flexible, and curious. Lastly, Neuroticism reflects one's degree of emotional reactivity and experience of emotions such as anger, anxiety, depression, in which a high degree of neuroticism may present as someone who worries a lot, is tense, and is easily upset (Costa & McCrae, 1985; John & Srivastava, 1999).

How individuals score on particular dimensions of personality is thought to promote or hinder interpersonal functioning (Asendorpf & Wilpers, 1998). For example, the personality traits Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Openness to Experience are identified as important predictors in friendship selection (Selfhout, et al., 2010). Similarly, Extraversion has emerged as a positive predictor of number of peer relationships, rates of peer interaction, and support from peers (Asendorpf & Wilpers, 1998). Furthermore, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness predicted lower amounts of peer conflict and higher frequency of contact with family (Asendorpf & Wilpers, 1998). The influence of personality on interpersonal functioning also extends to romantic relationships. Studies have found that low levels of Neuroticism and high levels of Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Extraversion were associated with higher levels of romantic partner relationship satisfaction (Malouff, Thorsteinsson, Schutte, Bhullar, & Rooke, 2010; Nettle & Shaver, 2006).

In light of evidence linking personality traits to interpersonal functioning, it is probable that dimensions of mentor personality influence children's relationships with their mentors (Menges, 2016). Additionally, understanding the influence of mentor personality traits may be particularly relevant when working with a high-risk population such as aggressive or socially-isolated children as past research suggests it can be challenging to develop a positive relationship with youth who experience interpersonal difficulties (Bauldry & Hatmann, 2004; Cavell & Henrie, 2010; Faith, Fiala, Cavell, & Hughes, 2011).

Research regarding the influence of personality traits on mentoring relationships is limited. Past investigations have assessed the influence of mentee personality traits on mentoring relationship quality and found high levels of Neuroticism were associated with low expectations and benefits from the relationship, whereas high levels of Extraversion were associated with high expectations and benefits from the mentoring relationship (for a review, see Goldner, 2016). In regard to mentor personality traits specifically, in a sample of college age mentors working with aggressive, elementary school children, Faith and colleagues (2011) found mentors who perceived their relationships as supportive experienced increases in the personality dimensions of Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Extraversion and a decrease in attachment-related avoidance at post-intervention. However, based on a review of the literature, no known study has examined the unique influence of mentor personality traits on mentor- or mentee perceptions of relationship quality.

Mentor Attachment Style as a Predictor of Relationship Quality

Children's early attachment with caregivers has been conceptualized as a working model for their adult relationships with teachers, peers, and even their mentors (Schwartz, Rhodes, Chan, & Herrera, 2011; Goldner & Scharf, 2014; Cavell & Hughes, 2000). Individuals with

secure attachment are prototypically low on both the Anxious and Avoidant attachment style. Individuals with an Anxious Attachment style experience worry and fear about rejection or abandonment in close relationships whereas individuals with an Avoidant Attachment style experience greater discomfort with depending on and being close with their partner (Shaver & Brennan, 1992). However, both the Anxious and Avoidant attachment style consistently emerge as negative predictors of relationship quality with romantic partners (Nofle & Shaver, 2006; Shaver & Brennan, 1992). Past research demonstrated anxiously attached individuals perceive greater conflict frequency and less relationship satisfaction, especially during times of conflict or not feeling supported by their romantic partner (Campbell, Simpson, Boldry, Kashy, & 2005). Furthermore, some research has found that Avoidant attachment style is negatively associated with establishing strong bonds with peers or romantic partners (Fraley & Davis, 1997). Finally, there is also evidence from the psychotherapy literature that therapist insecure attachment, both Anxious and Avoidant attachment, is negatively associated with both therapist- and client-reported therapeutic alliance (Degnan, Seymour-Hyde, Harris, & Berry, 2016; Diener & Monroe, 2011).

A limited number of studies have investigated the link between mentoring relationship quality and attachment style. In a study of elementary school children, Goldner & Scharf (2014) found a positive mentoring relationship was more beneficial to mentees with secure rather than insecure (e.g., Anxious, Avoidant) attachment styles. Within a sample of college student mentees and college professor mentors, mentee-reported Anxious attachment style reduced the positive association between mentee-reported mentoring relationship security and perception of mentoring relationship quality and satisfaction, while mentee-reported Avoidant attachment style

strengthened the association between mentee-reported relationship security and quality of interactions with teachers (Larose, Bernier, & Soucy, 2005).

Less is known, however, about the influence of the mentor's attachment style on mentoring relationship quality. One study examined the effect of the mentoring relationship quality on mentor attachment style and found that college-age mentors who perceived the relationship as supportive rated themselves as less avoidant after completing three semesters of mentoring (Faith et al., 2011). Curiously, although past research emphasizes the importance of attending to the child's attachment style when considering mentoring interventions (Prasad-Gaur, Hughes, & Cavell, 2001), there are no studies to date which measure the influence of the mentor's attachment style on mentoring relationship quality. Since mentoring is a relationship-based intervention, it seems important to understand whether mentor attachment style influence the quality of youth mentoring relationships (Thomson & Zand, 2010).

Personality and Attachment in Context

The influence of personality and attachment style on youth mentoring relationship quality does not occur in a vacuum. Instead, the context and goals of a mentoring intervention may shape whether and to what extent these factors play an important role in establishing positive relationships between youth and their mentors. The current study uses data from a randomized trial of a mentoring program for children showing heightened levels of aggressive behavior. Lunch Buddy mentoring is a school-based, lunchtime mentoring intervention that has shown promise for aggressive (Cavell & Henrie, 2010; Hughes, Cavell, Meehan, Zhang, & Collie, 2005) and bullied children (Cavell & Elledge, 2013; Elledge et al., 2010). Lunch Buddy mentors visit children twice weekly during regularly scheduled lunch times and sit with target children and peers at their normal lunch table. Mentors are tasked with a number of goals, but two goals

of primary focus are a) promoting positive interactions between mentees and nearby lunchmates and b) enhancing mentees' social reputation. The pursuit of these goals often involves mentors actively engaging the peer group at the lunch table in a way that creates opportunities for their mentee to interact with lunchtime peers more frequently and in prosocial ways. By guiding social interactions at the lunch table, the mentors' goal is to assist in re-shaping the social patterns which influence how lunchtime peers, and the larger peer group, interact with and perceive the mentored child.

Mentors are likely to vary in their capacity to engage in the interpersonal behaviors which promote positive interactions between mentees and lunchtime peers. When mentors are lacking in this capacity, their interactions with children at the lunch table may appear unnatural or forced. It is possible that the relationship between the mentor and mentee may suffer under these conditions. Mentor personality and attachment style are two factors which may influence the extent to which Lunch Buddy mentors can effectively pursue the goals of the intervention. For example, a mentor whose attachment style is characterized by worry or fear of abandonment (Anxious attachment) and whose personality is anxious and affectively reactive (Neuroticism) may be reluctant to encourage lunchtime peer interactions for fear of damaging their relationship with their mentee if these interactions go differently than expected or end poorly. In contrast, a mentor with an Anxious attachment style who endorses high levels of Extraversion may be concerned about their mentee liking them, but are able to successfully engage their mentee and lunch time peers in order to develop a satisfactory relationship with their mentee and encourage prosocial connections between the mentee and lunchtime peers. The goal of the present study is to understand whether dimensions of mentor personality or attachment influence the quality of mentoring relationships for children participating in the Lunch Buddy mentoring intervention.

Assessment of Mentoring Relationship Quality

If the mentoring relationship is a key mechanism that links youth mentoring to positive youth outcomes (Rhodes, 2005), then researchers measuring youth mentoring relationship quality should assess both mentor and mentee perceptions of the relationship. There is some evidence suggesting qualitative experience of the mentoring relationship may vary between the mentor and mentee (Spencer, Drew, Walsh, & Kanchewa, 2018). Quantitative studies also suggest that the correlation between mentor and mentee report of relationship quality is only moderate (Cavell, Elledge, Malcolm, Faith, & Hughes, 2009; Cavell & Hughes, 2000; Rhodes, Schwartz, Willis, & Wu, 2017). This is not surprising given that mentors do not have direct access to the youth's internal experience of mentoring and are instead basing their judgments of relationship quality on observable behaviors of the youth. A complete understanding of the factors that influence youth mentoring relationship quality requires the consideration of the subjective experience of both the mentee and the mentor.

There is evidence that mentoring relationship support and conflict are unique dimensions of relationship quality rather than the opposite end of a single continuum. The correlation between conflict and support is often negative, but only small to moderate in size (Cavell et al., 2009). There is also evidence that negative aspects of mentoring relationships are a stronger predictor of developmental outcomes than mentoring relationships support (Cavell et al., 2009; Rhodes, Reddy, Roffman, & Grossman, 2005). Thus, it is not only important to assess both child- and mentor-perceptions of relationship quality, but also the positive and negative aspects of the relationship.

Purpose and Hypotheses

The present study examines whether dimensions of mentor personality and attachment style are associated with child and mentor perceptions of relationship quality. First, it was hypothesized the personality dimensions of Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion and Openness to Experience would be positively associated with relationship quality post-mentoring, whereas the personality dimension of Neuroticism would be negatively associated with relationship quality post-intervention. Second, it was hypothesized that mentors with Anxious and Avoidant attachment styles would experience lower quality relationships with mentored youth (Shaver & Brennan, 1992; Faith et al., 2011). It seems plausible that a mentor's attachment style may interact with dimensions of personality in a way that influences their ability to successfully engage with their mentee. For example, a mentor who scores high on Extraversion (i.e. energetic, assertive, and enthusiastic) (John & Srivastava, 1999) and has an Anxious attachment style characterized by worry and fear around rejection or abandonment in relationships (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998) may manifest as a mentor who is bold, outgoing, exciting, and cares a great deal about developing and maintaining a positive relationship with their mentee. Thus, an Anxious attachment style may strengthen the positive association between Extraversion and youth mentoring relationship quality. Alternatively, mentors who score high on Neuroticism and report an Anxious attachment style may manifest in a mentor who is excessively fearful about their ability to maintain a youth mentoring relationship. In this case, an Anxious attachment style may strengthen the negative association between Neuroticism and youth mentoring relationship quality. Therefore, an exploratory goal of this study was to examine whether the relationship between mentor personality and mentoring relationship quality was moderated by mentor attachment style. This study is novel in at least two ways. The current

study is the first to assess if mentor personality dimensions and mentor attachment style are associated with mentoring relationship quality. Additionally, this study uses both mentor and mentee report of the quality of the mentoring relationship where most studies have relied only on one report source (Dubois, et al., 2002; Parra, DuBois, Neville, Pugh-Lilly, & Pavinelli, 2002).

CHAPTER THREE: METHOD

Participants

Participants were 55 (40% female) second-, third-, and fourth-grade children recruited from eight elementary schools and 62 college student mentors from a university located in the Midwestern United States. Children were enrolled in a randomized control trial assessing the efficacy of a school-based, lunchtime mentoring intervention for children exhibiting heightened levels of aggressive behaviors at school. A multi-gated screening procedure was used to identify children eligible for the intervention. First-, second-, and third-grade teachers were encouraged to nominate at least two boys and two girls from their classroom who exhibited either physical, verbal, or relational aggression (Hughes, et al., 2005). Of the 84 nominated children, 78.8% received parental consent to participate in the randomized trial. Eligible for the intervention were 55 teacher-nominated children who scored at or above 60 T on the Aggressive Behavior subscale of the of the Teacher or Parent Report Form of the Child Behavior Checklist (Achenbach, 1991). Twenty-seven children were randomly assigned to the Lunch Buddy Condition and twenty-eight children were assigned to a waitlist control condition. Waitlist control children were mentored during the fall and spring of year two.

The sample included children between the ages of six and eleven (M age at consent = 8.38 years, SD = .80 years). The sample was primarily White (61.8%), with 14.5% Bi- or Multi-racial, 12.7% Black, 5.5% American Indian, and 1.8% Spanish/Hispanic. The median reported family income fell between \$25,000-\$35,000, with 50.9% receiving free lunch. All participants spoke primarily English in the home.

Mentors were 62 undergraduate students (77.4% female) enrolled in a course focused on the mentoring of at-risk youth and received course credit for their participation. Approximately

half (51.6%) of the students were in their senior year of college. The sample identified primarily as White (87.1%) and English-speaking (96.8%), with 8.1% identifying as Black, 1.6% as Asian, 1.6% as Bi-/Multi-Racial, or 1.6% as Other-Race. The majority of the mentors (85.5%) endorsed having formal (e.g. mentoring program) or informal (e.g. babysitting, siblings) experience working with children, and approximately one-third (32.3%) of the mentors specifically endorse having experience working with children identified as “aggressive.”

College students had the opportunity to serve as a mentor for four semesters over the length of the randomized trial, although most mentors (61.3%) only participated for 1 semester. College students who chose to mentor for multiple semesters were assigned to mentor a child at a different school from their previous mentee(s). Over the course of the trial, there were 104 unique mentoring relationships as 22 mentors mentored for two semesters and 2 mentors mentored for three semesters.

Lunch Buddy Intervention

The Lunch Buddy mentoring program is a stand-alone mentoring intervention that spanned two semesters across a single academic year (Elledge, et al., 2010). Children were paired with a different college student mentor each semester, mentors visited twice weekly during scheduled lunch times, and mentors joined target children and peers at their assigned table. Mentored children were told mentoring is a way to help kids feel good about who they are and to get along with other kids, and that mentors are “special friends” who will talk with them and take a special interest in them (following procedures used by Hughes et al., 2005). All mentors enrolled in a field experience class in the Department of Psychology and all passed a criminal background check. To reduce the risk of harm from mentoring that is inconsistent or that ends prematurely (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002), mentors’ visits were monitored and used to

assign course grades (Cavell & Smith, 2005; Hughes et al., 2005). The majority (85%) of college students who volunteer to be Lunch Buddy mentors are women (Hughes et al., 2005); therefore, female mentors were paired with girls and boys, but male mentors were only paired with boys (Elledge, et al., 2010).

Lunch Buddy mentors participated in a 4-day (1.25 hours per day) training session and received handouts that covered a) preliminary paperwork, b) issues of safety and proper dress and behavior in an elementary school, c) instructions for completing weekly log sheets, d) procedures for handling critical events (e.g., highly disruptive behavior, disclosure of maltreatment), and e) guidelines for how and when to begin the process of ending the mentoring relationship (Cavell & Smith, 2005). Lunch Buddy mentors also received a copy of a training manual that outlined the goals of mentoring and described procedures for accomplishing these goals. Mentoring goals included 1) promoting positive interactions among lunch mates, 2) reporting and discouraging deviant behavior, 3) deflecting or correcting negative peer interactions, 4) modeling and reinforcing appropriate lunchtime behavior, and 5) identifying and challenging children's biased perceptions toward lunchtime peers. Finally, mentors met as a group each week with a supervisor who collected weekly log sheets, monitored mentor visits, and trouble-shoot any difficulties that arose during that week of mentor.

Procedures

The University Institutional Review Board approved this project. An informational parental consent form and demographic questionnaire were sent home with the children in their weekly folders. Written parental consent and child assent were obtained for all mentees prior to participation. Written consent and demographic information were collected from the mentors prior to participation. Eligible children were randomized to the intervention ($n = 27$) or the

waitlist control (n = 28) condition. Children assigned to the intervention condition received mentoring during the first year of the trial while children in the waitlist control condition received mentoring during the second year of the trial. Data was collected at the beginning and end of each semester across two academic years. Mentors completed measures of personality and attachment style at the beginning of each semester. Mentors and mentees completed measures of mentoring alliance and relationship quality at the end of each semester.

Measures

Personality Characteristics.

Mentor personality characteristics were assessed via the Big Five Inventory (BFI; John & Srivastava, 1999; John, Donahue, & Kentle, 1991). The measure consists of 44 items rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1- *Disagree Strongly* to 5- *Agree Strongly*) Items correspond to five personality factors: Extraversion (“Is outgoing, sociable”), Agreeableness (“Likes to cooperate with others”), Conscientiousness (“Makes plans and follows through with them”), Neuroticism (“Gets nervous easily”), and Openness to Experience (“Is original, comes up with new ideas”). John & Srivastava (1999) used nested CFA models to estimate latent factors representing the Big Five factors, with standardized validity coefficients ranging from .90 to .94 with a validity mean coefficient value of .92. Prior investigations have established reliability for this measure, with estimates of internal consistency ranging from .79 to .88 across all five factors (John & Srivastava, 1999). In the present study, alpha coefficients for the five factors range from .80 to .85.

Attachment Style.

Mentor attachment style was assessed using the Experience in Close Relationships Inventory (ECR; Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998). This measure consists of 36 items which

form two 18-item subscales, Avoidance and Anxiety. The Anxiety subscale measures an individual's worry and fear around rejection and abandonment by their partner. The Avoidance subscale measures one's discomfort with depending on and being close with their partner. Participants responded to statements about their experience in romantic relationships on a 7-point Likert scale (1- *Disagree Strongly* to 7- *Agree Strongly*). Responses were aggregated across subscale items with higher scores indicating greater self-reported Anxiety or Avoidance in relationships. Reliability for this measure has been established in prior investigations (Brennan, et al., 1998; Wei, Russell, Mallinckrodt, & Vogel, 2007; Fraley, Heffernan, Vicary, & Brumbaugh, 2011) with the reliability for the avoidance domain being $\alpha = .94$ and anxiety $\alpha = .91$. In the present investigation, internal consistency for both the avoidance and anxiety subscales was $\alpha = .94$. Attachment style is often conceptualized as a trait-level construct which traverses relational contexts. While using global measures of relational attachment style has been criticized for not adequately accounting for within-person variability (Fraley, et al., 2011; Baldwin, Keelan, Fehr, Enns, & Koh-Rangarojoo, 1996), existing research suggests children's attachment with caregivers creates an internal working model which influences their relationships with teachers, peers, and even their mentors (Schwartz, et al., 2011; Goldner & Scharf, 2014; Cavell & Hughes, 2000).

Mentoring Relationship Quality.

Two measures were administered to assess the strength and quality of the mentoring relationship. A modified version of the Therapeutic Alliance Scale (TAS; Shirk & Saiz, 1992), originally designed to assess the strength of the alliance between a therapist and client, was utilized to measure both the mentors' and the mentees' perception of the strength of the mentoring relationship (Cavell & Hughes, 2000). Specifically, the mentors completed a thirteen-

item measure (Mentor Alliance Scale; MAS) in which they responded to items about their perception of the relationship (e.g., “My mentee looks forward to our visits”) on a 6-point Likert scale ($0 = \text{Not like my mentee}$; $5 = \text{Very much like my mentee}$). Similarly, the mentees completed a parallel twelve-item measure (Child Mentor Alliance Scale; CMAS) in which they rated their experience with their mentor on a 4-point Likert scale ($1 = \text{Not like you}$; $4 = \text{Very much like you}$). The MAS and CMAS are complimentary measures; however, the MAS includes one additional item which assesses the mentors’ perception of whether their mentee would be interested in continuing mentoring in the future. Coefficient alphas were .86 and .83 for the MAS and CMAS, respectively, based on data from the present sample.

Additionally, a modified version of The Network of Relationships Inventory- Social Provision Version (NRI-SPV; Furman & Buhrmester, 1985) was administered to both mentors and mentees to assess their perception of the mentoring relationship. The mentor- and child-reported versions of this measure consisted of 22 items which assessed perceptions of the mentoring relationship using a 6-point Likert scale ($0 = \text{Not true at all}$; $5 = \text{Very true}$). Items corresponding to the Negative Interactions subscale (described below) and the Support subscale of the NRI were used in the current study. The Support subscale was formed by aggregating across sixteen items (“I look forward to spending time with this child”). The estimate of internal consistency was .93 for both the mentor- and child-reported Support subscale. Due to the strong correlation between the MAS and mentor-reported Support subscale ($r(92) = .710, p < .01$) and the CMAS and child-reported Support subscale ($r(93) = .806, p < .01$), these two measures of youth mentoring relationship quality were averaged for each report source to create one score assessing mentor-reported relationship quality (MRQ) and child-reported relationship quality (CRQ).

Negative Interactions.

The Negative Interaction Subscale of the NRI was formed by averaging across six items (“This child and I often argue or get upset with each other”). Internal consistency for the Negative interaction subscale was .79, suggesting good reliability. As there was little to no variability in response on the child-reported items corresponding to the Negative Interaction subscale (almost no child endorsed items comprising the negative interaction scale), the child-reported Negative Interactions subscale was not included in the analyses.

Demographic Variables.

Mentors and parents of mentees completed demographic information surveys which asked participants to identify information such as age, ethnicity, race, sex, and year in school. Parents were also asked to indicate their family income, as well as if their child received free or reduced-price lunch.

Data Analytic Strategy

Descriptive statistics, correlations among study variables, and path models were computed using Mplus version 8.1 (Muthén and Muthén, 1998-2017). Path models were estimated with maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors (MLR) which is robust to multivariate non-normality. Full information maximum likelihood (FIML) estimation, an estimation technique shown to produce less biased estimates than alternative methods for managing missing data such as listwise or pairwise deletion (Kline, 2016), was used to estimate model parameters. Across variables, the percentage of missing values ranged from 8.4% to 42.1%. The highest percentage of missing data was for the demographic variable mentor age, which was the only variable with a percentage of missing values greater than 26.2%. Little’s MCAR analysis was used to assess if there was a systematic reason for missing data or if it was

missing completely at random. The results confirmed data were missing completely at random, $\chi^2(368) = 290.399, p = .999$.

Nine path models were estimated in total: Three models examined the association between personality and youth mentoring relationships quality (i.e., child-reported relationship quality, mentor-reported relationship quality, and mentor-reported negative interactions), three models examined the association between attachment style and youth mentoring relationship quality, and three models simultaneously examined the association between personality, attachment style, and the interaction between personality and attachment and youth mentoring relationship quality. Mentor sex (dummy code 1= male), child sex (dummy code 1= male), mentor ethnicity (dummy code 1=minority), and child ethnicity (dummy code 1= minority) were included as control variables in each model. First order predictors that comprised the interaction terms were mean centered prior to computing interactions. Preacher's interaction utility was used to probe significant interactions (Preacher, Curran, & Bauer, 2006). All nine models were fully saturated. The full model results for the path models are presented in Table 4. Significant interaction effects are presented in Figures 1-3. Standardized values for regression weights and standard errors are reported in text and in Table 4. Unstandardized regression weights, standard errors, and confidence intervals for model parameters are presented in Table 4.

Because approximately 39% of participating college students mentored for multiple semesters and children received two mentors over the course of the academic year, the data were nested. Specifically, there were instances in which 1) multiple children were mentored by the same college student (i.e. students nested within mentor) and 2) multiple college students mentored the same child (i.e. mentors nested within student). Intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC) were calculated to determine the extent to which the effects of clustering were ignorable or

needed to be addressed in the models. The ICC values are presented in Table 3. When ICCs were calculated for children clustered within mentor, ICCs ranged from .01-.09 with the majority of values no higher than .02. When the ICC were calculated for mentors clustered within child, the ICC range was from .01-.35 with two values above .25. Due to the fact that a much larger percentage of the variance in dependent measures is explained by the fact that mentors are nested within child rather than children nested within mentor, the decision was made to control for child as the clustering variable. To control for the nested data structure, models were estimated using TYPE = COMPLEX and the hierarchical nature of the data was accounted for using the CLUSTER function in Mplus.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

Means and standard deviations for the primary study variables are presented in Table 1. Correlations among primary study variables are presented in Table 2. Agreeableness was significantly positively correlated with Conscientiousness and Extraversion and significantly negatively correlated with Neuroticism and avoidant attachment style. Conscientiousness was significantly negatively correlated with Openness to Experience and Avoidant attachment style. Extraversion was significantly positively correlated with child-reported mentoring relationship quality. Neuroticism was significantly positively correlated with both Anxious and Avoidant attachment style. Anxious and Avoidant attachment style were not significantly correlated. Mentor-reported mentoring relationship quality was significantly positively correlated with child-reported relationship quality.

Influence of Mentor Personality

Three models estimated the unique influence of dimensions of mentor personality on child- and mentor-reported mentoring relationship quality and mentor-reported negative interactions. A significant positive association emerged between Extraversion and child-reported mentoring relationship quality ($\beta = .254$, $SE = .097$, $p < .05$), such that when mentors scored higher on the personality dimension Extraversion mentees perceived their mentoring relationship quality as more positive. A significant negative association emerged between child sex and child-reported mentoring relationship quality when controlling for mentor personality, such that male children perceived their mentoring relationship quality less positively than female children ($\beta = -.321$, $SE = .117$, $p < .05$).

A significant positive association emerged between Openness to Experience and mentor-reported mentoring relationship quality ($\beta = .234$, $SE = .116$, $p < .05$), such that when mentors

scored higher on the personality dimension Openness to Experience, they perceived their mentoring relationship quality as more positive.

No significant relationships emerged between mentor personality dimensions and mentor-reported negative interactions. However, a significant positive association emerged between child sex and mentor-reported negative interactions ($\beta = .204$, $SE = .103$, $p < .05$), such that when mentors were paired with a male mentee, they perceived their mentoring relationship as having more negative interactions than when mentors were paired with a female mentee.

Influence of Mentor Attachment Style

Next, three models estimated the unique influence of dimensions of mentor attachment style on child- and mentor-reported mentoring relationship quality and mentor-reported negative interactions. Mentor Anxious and Avoidant attachment style was not associated with child-reported relationships quality, mentor-reported relationship quality, or mentor-reported negative interactions. However, a significant sex effect emerged in the model examining whether mentor attachment was associated with child-reported mentoring relationship quality. Child sex was negatively associated with child-reported mentoring relationship quality ($\beta = -.312$, $SE = .110$, $p < .05$), such that male mentees perceived their mentoring relationship quality as less positive than female mentees.

Interaction of Mentor Personality and Attachment

Lastly, three models simultaneously examined whether mentor personality, mentor attachment, and the interaction between the two were associated with child- and mentor-reported mentoring relationship quality and mentor-reported negative interactions. A significant positive association emerged between Extraversion and child-reported mentoring relationship quality ($\beta = .253$, $SE = .111$, $p < .05$). Children perceived their relationship with their mentor as more

positive when mentors scored higher on Extraversion. The mentor Openness to Experience X Avoidant attachment style interaction was significantly associated with child-reported mentoring relationship quality ($\beta = .284, SE = .103, p < .05$). Probing this interaction revealed that Openness to Experience was significantly negatively associated with child-reported relationship quality when mentors scored $-1SD$ below the mean on Avoidant attachment ($b = -.279, p = .041$) and significantly positively associated with child-reported relationship quality when mentors scored $+1SD$ above the mean on Avoidant attachment ($b = .295, p = .027$). More specifically, examination of regions of significance suggested that Openness to Experience was significantly associated with child-reported relationship quality when values of Avoidant attachment style were below 1.761 and above 3.646, which were .960 standard deviations below the mean and .866 standard deviations above the mean of Avoidant attachment style, respectively. The pattern of findings suggests that at low values of Avoidant attachment style, Openness to Experience was negatively associated with child-reported relationship quality and that at high values of Avoidant attachment style, Openness to Experience was positively associated with child-reported relationship quality.

In the model with mentor-reported mentoring relationship quality as the dependent variable, Openness to Experience emerged as a significant positive predictor of mentor-reported relationship quality ($\beta = .249, SE = .102, p < .05$). Two significant interaction effects emerged as predictors of mentor-reported relationship quality. First, the Neuroticism X Anxious attachment style interaction was significantly associated with mentor-reported relationship quality ($\beta = -.235, SE = .120, p < .05$). Probing this interaction revealed that the relationship between Neuroticism and mentor-reported relationship quality was not significant when participant scores on Anxious attachment style were $-1SD$ below ($b = .066, p = .612$), at the mean ($b = -.068, p =$

.531), or +1SD above ($b = -.201, p = .102$) the mean. Regions of significance analysis revealed that the moderation effect was only significant at values of attachment style that fell outside the range of possible values. Second, the relationship between Openness to Experience X Anxious attachment style interaction was significantly associated with mentor-reported relationship quality ($\beta = .231, SE = .120, p < .05$). After probing the interaction, Openness to Experience was significantly positively associated with mentor-reported relationship quality when the mentor scored at the mean ($b = .248, p = .032$) and at +1SD above the mean ($b = .559, p = .007$) of Anxious attachment style. Examination of the regions of significance suggested that Openness to Experience was significantly associated with mentor-reported relationship quality when mentor attachment style was between 2.856 and 25.026, which were .060 standard deviations below the mean and 19.664 standard deviations above the mean, respectively. Of note, the upper bound of this region is an impossible value of attachment. Overall, however, the pattern of findings suggests that Openness to Experience was positively associated with mentor-reported relationship quality when values of Anxious attachment style range from average through very high values of Anxious attachment style.

Finally, for the model examining associations with mentor-reported negative interactions, the mentor Neuroticism X Anxious attachment style interaction was associated with mentor-reported negative interactions ($\beta = .231, SE = .129, p = .074$) at the non-significant trend level. Simple slopes analysis revealed mentor Neuroticism was significantly positively related to mentor-reported negative interactions when then the mentors scored at high levels of Anxious attachment style ($b = .293, p = .035$). More specifically, examination of the regions of significance suggested that Neuroticism was significantly positively associated with mentor-reported negative interactions when values of Anxious attachment style were above 3.897, which

was .866 standard deviations above the mean. This suggests that at high levels of anxious attachment, Neuroticism was positively associated with mentor-reported negative interactions. Additionally, child sex was significantly positively associated with mentor reported negative interactions when controlling for mentor personality and attachment style ($\beta = .254$, $SE = .109$, $p < .05$), such that mentors of male mentees endorsed higher levels of negative interactions than mentors paired with female mentees. Additionally, a significant negative association emerged between mentor ethnicity and mentor-reported negative interactions when controlling for personality and attachment, ($\beta = -.277$, $SE = .115$, $p < .05$), such that mentors paired with children who do not identify as White endorsed less negative interactions than those with White mentees.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

The primary goal of the study was to examine the influence of dimensions of mentor personality and mentor attachment style on both the child- and mentor-reported mentoring relationship quality. It was hypothesized that the personality dimensions of Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, and Openness to Experience would be positively associated with relationship quality post-mentoring while the personality dimension of Neuroticism would be negatively associated with relationship quality post-intervention. Furthermore, it was hypothesized that having an Anxious or Avoidant attachment style would be negatively associated with relationship quality post-intervention. Additionally, exploratory analyses were conducted to determine if the relationship between mentor personality and youth mentoring relationship quality was moderated by mentor attachment style.

Consistent with prior research, the personality dimensions of Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Extraversion were significantly positively correlated (Nofle & Shaver, 2006). Agreeableness was significantly negatively correlated with Neuroticism (Nofle & Shaver, 2006) and Conscientiousness was significantly negatively correlated with Openness to Experience (Menges, 2016). In line with previous research, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness were significantly negatively associated with Avoidant attachment style whereas Neuroticism was significantly positively associated with both Anxious and Avoidant attachment style (Nofle & Shaver, 2006). Furthermore, the correlation between child- and mentor-reported relationship quality was positive and moderate in size, suggesting agreement between the mentees and mentors regarding the quality of their relationship.

The current investigation provides partial support for hypothesis one. Extraversion and Openness to Experience were positively associated with post-intervention mentoring relationship

quality. Interestingly, the salience of the specific personality dimension varied based on the report source. Mentees perceived mentoring relationships as more positive when their mentor scored higher on Extraversion. In the context of a school lunchroom where children are often engaging in conversation and play, youth may find it easier to establish a relationship with mentors who are talkative, energetic, and outgoing. These personality qualities align well with children's social goals at the lunch table. Youth may view the mentoring relationship more positively when an extroverted mentor creates a fun and supportive environment for their mentee. Alternatively, and consistent with previous research, mentors were more likely to report a positive relationship with their mentee when they scored higher on Openness to Experience (Menges, 2016). Mentors who score higher on this dimension of personality are curious, imaginative, and open-minded. It is possible that mentors who possess these personality qualities are more flexible in their approach to mentoring and less likely to view mentor-mentee differences as obstacles to establishing a positive relationship with a youth mentee.

Inconsistent with hypothesis one and two were the findings that the personality dimensions of Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, as well as the Anxious and Avoidant dimensions of attachment style, were not associated with child- or mentor-reported mentoring relationship quality. It is possible that a smaller sample size resulted in inadequate power to detect smaller associations between constructs. Replicating this study with a larger sample may reveal a different pattern of significant associations compared to the ones reported in the current study. In addition, most mentors in the sample scored near the scale mean for each personality dimension with little variability in the scores (Table 1). It is possible that associations between personality and mentoring relationships quality and negative interactions would have emerged in a sample of mentors with more heterogeneity in their personality scores. One

consideration regarding hypothesis two and the effects of attachment is that a measure of romantic attachment was used as the measure of attachment style for mentors. While a large literature exists suggesting that a child's attachment to their caregiver creates an internal working model that influences their close relationships later in life (Goldner & Scharf, 2014), it is possible that within this sample of college student mentors, their internal experience within romantic relationships did not generalize to their interpersonal experience within the mentoring relationship. Future studies may consider using a more general measure of attachment to further understand the influence of attachment style on mentoring relationship quality.

There was evidence to support the prediction that the relationship between dimensions of mentor personality and perceptions of youth mentoring relationship quality was moderated by the attachment style of the mentor. The relationship between Openness to Experience and child-reported relationship quality was moderated by the extent to which a mentor endorsed an Avoidant attachment style. At high levels of Avoidant attachment style, Openness to Experience was significantly positively associated with child-reported relationship quality. This finding suggests that mentees perceive mentoring relationships more positively when mentors are curious, inventive, open-minded and imaginative, but only when the mentor endorses feeling uncomfortable with dependence and closeness in intimate relationships. This may suggest the mentee experiences the mentoring relationship more positively when a mentor is able to creatively engage the mentee and their lunchtime peers while still maintaining boundaries around their degree of emotional closeness with their mentee. Conversely, at low levels of Avoidant attachment style, mentor Openness to Experience was significantly negatively associated with child-reported relationship quality. This indicates that when mentors score low on Avoidant attachment style (i.e. low on discomfort with dependence or closeness with a partner), mentees

perceive the mentoring relationship less positively when mentors are curious, inventive, and imaginative (scoring high on Openness to Experience). It is possible that the value of Openness to Experience for youth mentoring relationships is lost when mentors focus too much on or are overly concerned with their emotional connection with their mentee, particular when mentoring is embedded in a social context like the lunchroom. Fulfilling this emotional need may take precedence over engaging in conversations or activities that foster fun and enjoyable interactions in the lunchroom.

There was also evidence that the relation between dimensions of personality and mentoring relationship quality was moderated by the extent to which mentors endorsed an Anxious attachment style. First, the relationship between Neuroticism and mentor-reported relationship quality was moderated by Anxious attachment style. However, probing this interaction revealed that Neuroticism was not significantly related to mentor-reported relationship quality at any legitimate value of Anxious attachment style. Additionally, there was also evidence that the relationship between Neuroticism and mentor-reported negative interaction was moderated by Anxious attachment style of the mentor, but this effect was at the level of a non-significant trend. Neuroticism was significantly positively related to mentor-reported negative interactions when mentors endorsed higher levels of Anxious attachment. Although this finding should be interpreted with caution, it suggests that mentors whose personality style is characterized by a tendency toward affective reactivity and anxiety are more likely to perceive the mentoring relationship as conflictual in the context of an attachment style that is characterized by fears of abandonment and rejection. What is unclear is whether the mentoring relationships of mentors with both a Neurotic personality style and Anxious attachment style are objectively more conflictual or whether mentors with these attributes have a perceptual bias that

leads them to perceive more negative interactions in their relationship with their mentee. The latter interpretation is consistent with some past research (Campbell, et al., 2005; Nofle & Shaver, 2006). Finally, the relationship between Openness to Experience and mentor-reported relationship quality was moderated by Anxious attachment style. Mentor Openness to Experience was significantly positively associated with mentor-reported relationship quality when mentors endorsed average to high levels of Anxious attachment style. When a mentor is curious, inventive, and imaginative, they perceive their mentoring relationship positively, but only when they are prone to worry or are highly concerned about rejection or abandonment in an intimate relationship. This mix of personality and attachment style may manifest as a mentor who works particularly hard at maintaining a positive relationship with a mentee through finding novel and imaginative ways to engage with their mentee and lunchtime peers.

An anxious or avoidant attachment style is often associated with negative interpersonal functioning (Nofle & Shaver, 2006; Shaver & Brennan, 1992; Campbell et al., 2005; Fraley & Davis, 1997; Degnan et al., 2016; Diener & Monroe, 2011). However, the findings from the current study suggest that there may be adaptive levels of both anxious and avoidant attachment style that promote relationship building in particular contexts. This idea parallels the work of Larose and colleagues (2005) who found that mentee Avoidant attachment style strengthened the relationship between mentee-reported security and perceived interaction quality with teachers in a sample of college student mentees. The present study provides evidence that, within the context of a lunchtime mentoring program, the influence of mentor personality on both the mentee's and the mentor's perception of the mentoring relationship quality varied depending on attachment style of the mentor. For example, when a mentor endorsed high levels of Openness to Experience, the mentee perceived their mentoring relationship more positively but only when

their mentor also endorsed high levels of avoidance in their close relationships. It is possible that, especially for an elementary school age child, having a mentor who is more uncomfortable with closeness and does not seek dependency within the mentoring relationship is positively experienced as an appropriate, comfortable boundary given the social nature of the lunchroom. Furthermore, it is likely that this distance in the relationship allows the mentor to focus largely on engaging the peer group, rather than solely attending to developing a close relationship with the mentee, thus allowing more opportunities for the mentee to successfully interact with their lunchtime peers. This experience would create a positive social environment for the mentee and their lunchtime peers while also aligning with the objectives of the mentoring intervention. Another example of an adaptive level of attachment style, mentors who endorsed high levels of Openness to Experience perceived the mentoring relationship more positively when they also endorsed higher levels of Anxious attachment style. This may suggest that when mentors are concerned with being rejected or abandoned in close relationships, this kindles motivation to better attend to the wants and needs of their mentee which in turn results in an internal experience of being a good mentor or having a positive relationship with the child. While these findings require replication, they provide preliminary evidence to suggest there may adaptive levels of anxious and avoidant attachment styles that, under certain circumstances, enhance youth mentoring relationship quality.

Although not hypothesized in the original purpose of the study, child sex consistently emerged a significant negative predictor of child-reported relationship quality and a significant positive predictor of mentor-reported negative interactions. These findings suggest that male mentees perceived their mentoring relationships less positively than female mentees, and that mentors of male mentees endorsed higher rates of negative interactions than the mentors of

female mentees. The current sample was comprised of predominantly female mentors and male mentees. While the extant literature is inconclusive about the effect of matching mentors and mentees based on sex (Raposa et al., 2019), it is possible that within the context of a lunchtime mentoring program with an objective of promoting positive peer interactions a mismatch in sex between mentor and mentee may be a salient indicator of relationship quality. For example, since past research suggests that youth mentoring may be more beneficial when the mentor and mentee share common interests (DuBois et al., 2011), it is possible that male mentees did not find as many shared interests with their mentors, or furthermore, may have found their mentor did not have as much in common with their lunchtime peers which may impede on their ability to meet program objectives.

Limitations

The present study has several limitations that are worth noting. The study is under powered to detect small effects due to the small sample size. It is possible that other dimensions of personality or attachment might have emerged significant in an adequately powered sample. In addition, the fact that participants were aggressive youth participating in a lunchtime mentoring intervention may limit the generalizability of these findings. It is unclear whether findings from the current investigation would generalize to mentoring programs designed to target a different population of youth or to programs that operate in a different setting or with a different focus. Furthermore, the study utilized a narrow measure of attachment style that specifically measured attachment in regard to a romantic partner. While most research posits adult attachment is based on a relatively general working model, some investigations argue that people develop relationship-specific attachment representations which yield differentiation in one's general attachment model (e.g., individual is securely attached to partner but insecure to

caregiver; Fraley et al., 2011). Therefore, it would be useful for future studies to utilize context-specific measures of attachment style to offer a more nuanced understanding of the influence of attachment on youth mentoring relationship quality.

Conclusions

This study is the first to specifically measure the influence of both mentor personality and attachment style on the quality of the youth mentoring relationships. Additionally, the study uniquely contributes to the literature by measuring both child- and mentor-reported relationship quality. Findings from the current study suggest that within the context of a lunchtime mentoring program, two dimensions of mentor personality, Extraversion and Openness to Experience, are important for both mentee and mentor perceptions of mentoring relationship quality. The Lunch Buddy intervention is designed to promote positive interactions between mentees and their nearby lunchmates and enhance mentees' social reputations. Given the context of the intervention and the extant literature surrounding the influence of personality on interpersonal functioning, it follows that elementary school children would react positively to mentors who are talkative, energetic, assertive, and enthusiastic (i.e., Extraversion) while they are sitting with their peers at the lunch table (Selfhout et al., 2010). Findings from the current study also suggest that it bodes well for a mentor to be curious, inventive, playful, and imaginative (i.e., Open to Experience) when tasked with the goal of creating ways to improve children's peer interactions at the lunch table, particularly in an environment that is often loud and rambunctious (Goldner, 2016). Finally, the present study suggests that the influence of certain dimensions of mentor personality on relationship quality depends on the attachment style of the mentor, as well as report source. Children perceive mentoring relationships more positively when mentors score high on Openness to Experience and are not comfortable with closeness and dependency in

relationships. Alternatively, mentors perceive the mentoring relationship more positively when they score high on Openness to Experience and tend to be concerned with rejection and abandonment in relationships. In sum these findings suggest that the relative value of the personality dimension of Openness to Experience in promoting high quality mentoring relationships is nuanced and depends on the attachment style of the mentor. Finally, it appears that mentors who are high in Neuroticism and have fears of abandonment and rejection have challenging relationships with mentees or tend to perceive mentoring relationships more negatively.

Overall, findings from the current study suggest that there may be value in assessing mentor personality and attachment as part of an initial screening procedure prior to the matching process. Information gleaned from this assessment could be used to inform mentor training activities designed to align mentor behaviors with the context of the intervention and goals of the program. For example, after completing measures of attachment and personality, mentors could receive assessment feedback and engage in training activities in which they reflect on how aspects of their personality might help or hinder the development of their mentoring relationship in the context of the program in which they are participating. Similarly, providing information to mentors about their attachment style allows for reflection on how this influences how they engage with others in close relationships. Importantly, mentor training activities should acknowledge that qualitative differences may exist between what mentees and mentors perceive as most positive within the context of the mentoring relationship. Intervention trainings should offer a space to reflect on the types of interactions a mentee is likely to enjoy and benefit from, the ability of the mentor to provide particular types of interactions, and the behaviors that are most likely to aid the mentor in meeting the objectives of the intervention. Incorporating

information about mentor personality and attachment style, as well as potential differences between the mentors' and mentees' internal experience of the relationship, into mentor training has the potential to better prepare mentors to successfully develop a positive mentoring relationship with their mentee and pursue intervention objectives.

Compliance with Ethical Standards

All procedures involving human participants were performed in accordance with the ethical guidelines of the institutional research committee.

Informed Consent

Written teacher, mentor, and parental consent, as well as child assent were obtained from all participants prior to study participation.

Conflict of Interest

The author declares they have no conflicts of interest.

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APPENDIX

Tables

Table 1. *Means and Standard Deviations of Study Variables*

Variables	M (SD)
Agreeableness	4.315 (.530)
Conscientiousness	4.040 (.581)
Extraversion	3.603 (.706)
Neuroticism	2.349 (.653)
Openness	3.589 (.561)
Anxious	2.924 (1.124)
Avoidant	2.752 (1.032)
Child RQ	3.626 (.612)
Mentor RQ	3.727 (.610)
Mentor Neg Int	1.653 (.705)
Child Age	8.387 (.795)
Child Male	.630 (.485)
Child Minority	.357 (.482)
Mentor Age	22.758 (3.962)
Mentor Male	.190 (.395)
Mentor Minority	.122 (.329)

Note. RQ = Relationship Quality; Neg Int = Negative Interactions. Male dummy coded as 1 Minority dummy coded as 1.

Table 2. *Correlations Among Study Variables*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Agreeableness	-															
2. Conscientiousness	.325**	-														
3. Extraversion	.211*	.063	-													
4. Neuroticism	-.346**	-.056	-.195	-												
5. Openness	-.060	-.261*	-.024	.018	-											
6. Anxious	-.070	-.207	-.103	.293**	.202	-										
7. Avoidant	-.240*	-.343**	-.020	.253*	.023	.147	-									
8. Child RQ	-.069	-.078	.235*	.042	.010	-.096	.105	-								
9. Mentor RQ	.016	.031	.127	.030	.149	.106	-.028	.431**	-							
10. Mentor Neg Int	-.089	-.101	.008	.053	.112	.046	.213	.003	-.147	-						
11. Child Age	-.045	.024	-.061	.125	-.007	-.070	.073	.057	.167	.023	-					
12. Child Male	-.057	-.090	-.078	-.176	-.052	.032	.057	-.341**	-.101	.187	-.036	-				
13. Child Minority	-.258*	-.074	.038	.136	.010	.047	.119	.085	-.068	.129	-.127	.126	-			
14. Mentor Age	-.021	.048	.044	-.226	.016	-.157	-.181	-.022	.085	.031	.052	-.112	-.182	-		
15. Mentor Male	-.096	-.294*	.002	-.242*	.281*	-.083	.053	-.159	-.090	.124	-.026	.367**	-.081	.205	-	
16. Mentor Minority	-.106	.187	.003	.001	.102	.104	.027	-.053	-.017	-.096	-.099	.124	.242*	-.008	.010	-

Note. RQ = Relationship Quality; Neg Int = Negative Interactions. Male dummy coded as 1; Minority dummy coded as 1. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 3. *Intraclass correlation coefficients*

	ICC	Avg Cluster Size	Design Effect
Clustering Variable: Mentor ID			
CMAS	0.012	1.274	1.003
CSupp	0.051	1.274	1.014
MAS	0.021	1.263	1.006
MSupp	0.015	1.243	1.004
Mneg	0.088	1.250	1.022
Clustering Variable: Child ID			
CMAS	0.358	1.824	1.295
CSupp	0.290	1.824	1.239
MAS	0.021	1.263	1.006
MSupp	0.015	1.243	1.004
MNeg	0.088	1.250	1.022

Note. C/MAS = Child/mentor alliance scale; C/MSupp= Support subscale of child/mentor relationship perception questionnaire; MNeg = Negative interaction subscale of mentor relationship perception questionnaire.

Table 4. *Model Results*

Child-reported Relationship Quality						
Variable	B	S.E.	95% CI		β	S.E.
			Lower	Upper		
Personality						
BFA → CRQ	-.171	.151	-.467	.125	-.148	.125
BFC → CRQ	-.082	.117	-.312	.148	-.078	.110
BFE → CRQ	.219*	.089	.046	.393	.254**	.097
BFN → CRQ	-.063	.122	-.302	.176	-.067	.129
BFO → CRQ	-.009	.126	-.257	.238	-.009	.116
C Age → CRQ	.039	.064	-.087	.164	.050	.081
C Male → CRQ	.407**	.149	-.698	-.116	-.321**	.117
C Minor → CRQ	.073	.146	-.212	.359	-.058	.116
M Age → CRQ	-.002	.015	-.032	.028	-.014	.099
M Male → CRQ	.108	.251	-.601	.384	-.071	.162
M Minor → CRQ	-.090	.250	-.581	.401	-.049	.135
Attachment						
Anx → CRQ	-.052	.048	-.146	.041	-.096	.087
Avd → CRQ	.068	.068	-.066	.202	.115	.113
C Age → CRQ	.016	.072	-.124	.157	.021	.093
C Male → CRQ	-.395**	.140	-.669	-.121	-.312**	.110
C Minor → CRQ	.134	.139	-.138	.406	.106	.110
M Age → CRQ	.000	.014	-.028	.027	-.002	.092
M Male → CRQ	-.088	.236	-.551	.375	-.057	.151
M Minor → CRQ	-.088	.261	-.599	.423	-.048	.140
Personality X Attachment						
BFA → CRQ	-.124	.166	-.450	.202	-.107	.139
BFC → CRQ	-.093	.112	-.313	.127	-.087	.105
BFE → CRQ	.220*	.100	.024	.416	.253*	.111
BFN → CRQ	.060	.156	-.245	.366	.064	.165
BFO → CRQ	.019	.108	-.192	.231	.018	.098
Anx → CRQ	-.056	.053	-.161	.049	-.102	.101
Avd → CRQ	.097	.070	-.040	.234	.163	.117
BFAxAnx → CRQ	.016	.147	-.272	.304	.014	.132
BFAxAvd → CRQ	-.029	.168	-.359	.301	-.031	.182
BFCxAnx → CRQ	-.079	.114	-.304	.145	-.081	.116
BFCxAvd → CRQ	-.055	.107	-.265	.155	-.053	.104
BFExAnx → CRQ	-.061	.070	-.197	.076	-.076	.087
BFExAvd → CRQ	.143	.113	-.079	.365	.132	.110
BFNxAnx → CRQ	.008	.108	-.203	.219	.011	.139

Table 4 Continued

Variable	B	S.E.	95% CI		β	S.E.
			Lower	Upper		
BFNxAvd $\rightarrow$ CRQ	.008	.134	-.255	.271	.010	.175
BFOxAnx $\rightarrow$ CRQ	-.024	.140	-.298	.250	-.020	.116
BFOxAvd $\rightarrow$ CRQ	.276**	.093	.094	.458	.284**	.103
C Age $\rightarrow$ CRQ	-.017	.067	-.147	.114	-.022	.086
C Male $\rightarrow$ CRQ	-.322	.182	-.678	.035	-.252	.140
C Minor $\rightarrow$ CRQ	.045	.173	-.295	.384	.036	.139
M Age $\rightarrow$ CRQ	.003	.016	-.029	.035	.020	.111
M Male $\rightarrow$ CRQ	-.136	.225	-.576	.304	-.090	.147
M Minor $\rightarrow$ CRQ	-.019	.292	-.591	.553	-.010	.156
Mentor-reported Relationship Quality						
Variable	B	S.E.	95% CI		β	S.E.
			Lower	Upper		
Personality						
BFA $\rightarrow$ MRQ	-.079	.177	-.425	.267	-.069	.153
BFC $\rightarrow$ MRQ	.036	.124	-.207	.279	.034	.117
BFE $\rightarrow$ MRQ	.118	.110	-.097	.334	.137	.129
BFN $\rightarrow$ MRQ	-.012	.130	-.267	.244	-.013	.140
BFO $\rightarrow$ MRQ	.254	.136	-.012	.520	.234*	.116
C Age $\rightarrow$ MRQ	.113	.069	-.023	.250	.148	.087
C Male $\rightarrow$ MRQ	.050	.153	-.249	.349	.040	.121
C Minor $\rightarrow$ MRQ	-.081	.153	-.381	.219	-.064	.121
M Age $\rightarrow$ MRQ	.010	.017	-.024	.043	.065	.121
M Male $\rightarrow$ MRQ	-.360	.211	-.773	.053	-.240	.137
M Minor $\rightarrow$ MRQ	-.116	.212	-.532	.300	-.063	.116
Attachment						
Anx $\rightarrow$ MRQ	.074	.050	-.024	.172	.136	.093
Avd $\rightarrow$ MRQ	-.018	.069	-.153	.118	-.030	.117
C Age $\rightarrow$ MRQ	.121	.072	-.019	.262	.158	.089
C Male $\rightarrow$ MRQ	-.084	.151	-.380	.213	-.066	.118
C Minor $\rightarrow$ MRQ	-.041	.148	-.331	.250	-.032	.117
M Age $\rightarrow$ MRQ	.012	.018	-.024	.048	.078	.122
M Male $\rightarrow$ MRQ	-.095	.202	-.491	.301	-.062	.130
M Minor $\rightarrow$ MRQ	-.041	.211	-.455	.374	-.022	.115
Personality X Attachment						
BFA $\rightarrow$ MRQ	-.021	.158	-.330	.288	-.018	.137

Table 4 Continued

Variable	B	S.E.	95% CI		β	S.E.
			Lower	Upper		
BFC → MRQ	-.035	.152	-.332	.262	-.033	.145
BFE → MRQ	.130	.116	-.097	.357	.151	.136
BFN → MRQ	.061	.128	-.189	.311	.066	.137
BFO → MRQ	.270*	.119	.036	.503	.249*	.102
Anx → MRQ	.078	.067	-.053	.210	.145	.124
Avd → MRQ	-.055	.074	-.200	.090	-.093	.127
BFAxAnx → MRQ	-.149	.140	-.423	.126	-.135	.128
BFAxAvd → MRQ	-.012	.141	-.287	.264	-.013	.153
BFCxAnx → MRQ	.040	.143	-.240	.319	.041	.148
BFCxAvd → MRQ	-.161	.110	-.377	.054	-.158	.108
BFExAnx → MRQ	.066	.090	-.111	.243	.084	.112
BFExAvd → MRQ	.007	.135	-.257	.272	.007	.126
BFNxAnx → MRQ	-.180*	.088	-.353	-.007	-.235*	.120
BFNxAvd → MRQ	.031	.119	-.202	.265	.042	.157
BFOxAnx → MRQ	.273*	.135	.009	.537	.231*	.120
BFOxAvd → MRQ	.070	.103	-.131	.271	.074	.111
C Age → MRQ	.108	.077	-.042	.258	.141	.099
C Male → MRQ	.074	.150	-.221	.368	.058	.120
C Minor → MRQ	-.148	.165	-.473	.176	-.121	.134
M Age → MRQ	.020	.018	-.015	.055	.143	.135
M Male → MRQ	-.368	.213	-.786	.050	-.248	.144
M Minor → MRQ	.015	.247	-.470	.500	.008	.134

Mentor-reported Negative Interactions

Variable	B	S.E.	95% CI		β	S.E.
			Lower	Upper		
Personality						
BFA $\rightarrow$ MNeg	-.019	.186	-.384	.345	-.014	.140
BFC $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.015	.157	-.293	.323	.012	.085
BFE $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.050	.085	-.116	.217	.050	.085
BFN $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.148	.149	-.144	.440	.138	.145
BFO $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.132	.126	-.116	.379	.105	.100
C Age $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.016	.083	-.148	.179	.018	.093
C Male $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.299	.160	-.015	.612	.204*	.103
C Minor $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.190	.148	-.101	.481	.130	.102
M Age $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.018	.014	-.009	.044	.102	.072

Table 4 Continued

Variable	B	S.E.	95% CI		β	S.E.
			Lower	Upper		
M Male $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.137	.335	-.519	.793	.078	.191
M Minor $\rightarrow$ MNeg	-.324	.190	-.696	.047	-.151	.087
Attachment						
Anx $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.022	.067	-.110	.153	.034	.107
Avd $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.141	.081	-.018	.299	.205	.120
C Age $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.025	.085	-.142	.192	.028	.095
C Male $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.255	.166	-.070	.579	.174	.105
C Minor $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.225	.158	-.084	.534	.153	.108
M Age $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.016	.012	-.007	.039	.089	.062
M Male $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.067	.283	-.487	.622	.038	.158
M Minor $\rightarrow$ MNeg	-.335	.178	-.683	.014	-.156	.083
Personality X Attachment						
BFA $\rightarrow$ MNeg	-.078	.189	-.448	.292	-.058	.142
BFC $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.152	.175	-.191	.495	.124	.143
BFE $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.040	.086	-.128	.208	.040	.084
BFN $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.111	.168	-.219	.441	.102	.155
BFO $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.223	.127	-.025	.472	.176	.100
Anx $\rightarrow$ MNeg	-.013	.073	-.156	.131	-.020	.116
Avd $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.168	.091	-.011	.347	.242	.138
BFAxAnx $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.122	.171	-.212	.457	.095	.136
BFAxAvd $\rightarrow$ MNeg	-.059	.163	-.379	.262	-.054	.147
BFCxAnx $\rightarrow$ MNeg	-.093	.135	-.358	.172	-.082	.122
BFCxAvd $\rightarrow$ MNeg	-.158	.219	-.587	.270	-.132	.183
BFExAnx $\rightarrow$ MNeg	-.005	.072	-.145	.136	-.005	.078
BFExAvd $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.047	.134	-.216	.309	.037	.108
BFNxAnx $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.207	.114	-.016	.430	.231	.129
BFNxAvd $\rightarrow$ MNeg	-.003	.126	-.251	.244	-.004	.142
BFOxAnx $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.028	.187	-.339	.394	.020	.135
BFOxAvd $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.013	.107	-.197	.223	.012	.098
C Age $\rightarrow$ MNeg	-.022	.081	-.181	.136	-.025	.090
C Male $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.374*	.174	.033	.716	.254*	.109
C Minor $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.180	.148	-.111	.471	.125	.103
M Age $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.020	.022	-.023	.063	.121	.111
M Male $\rightarrow$ MNeg	.066	.352	-.624	.756	.038	.200
M Minor $\rightarrow$ MNeg	-.599*	.273	-1.134	-.064	-.277*	.115

Note. BFA = Agreeableness; BFC = Conscientiousness; BFE = Extraversion; BFO = Openness to Experience; BFN = Neuroticism; Anx = Anxious attachment; Avd = Avoidant attachment; C/MRQ = Child/Mentor-reported relationship quality; MNeg = Mentor-reported negative interactions; C/M Male = child/mentor sex, male dummy coded as 1; C/M Minor = child/mentor race, minority status dummy coded as 1. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Figures

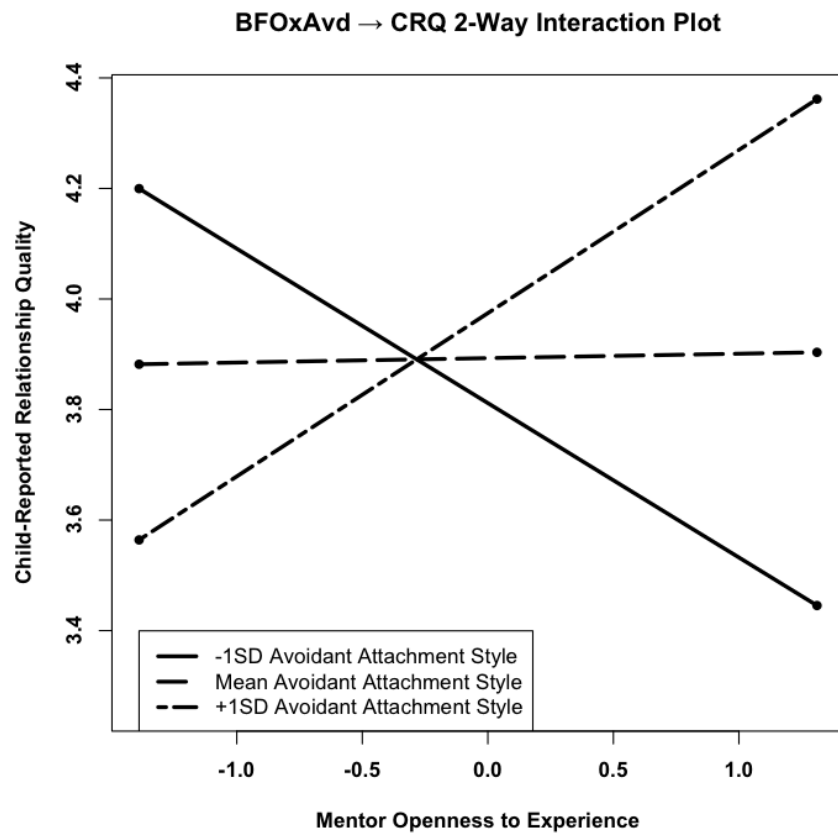


Figure 1. *Openness to Experience X Avoidant Attachment Style with Child-reported Relationship Quality*

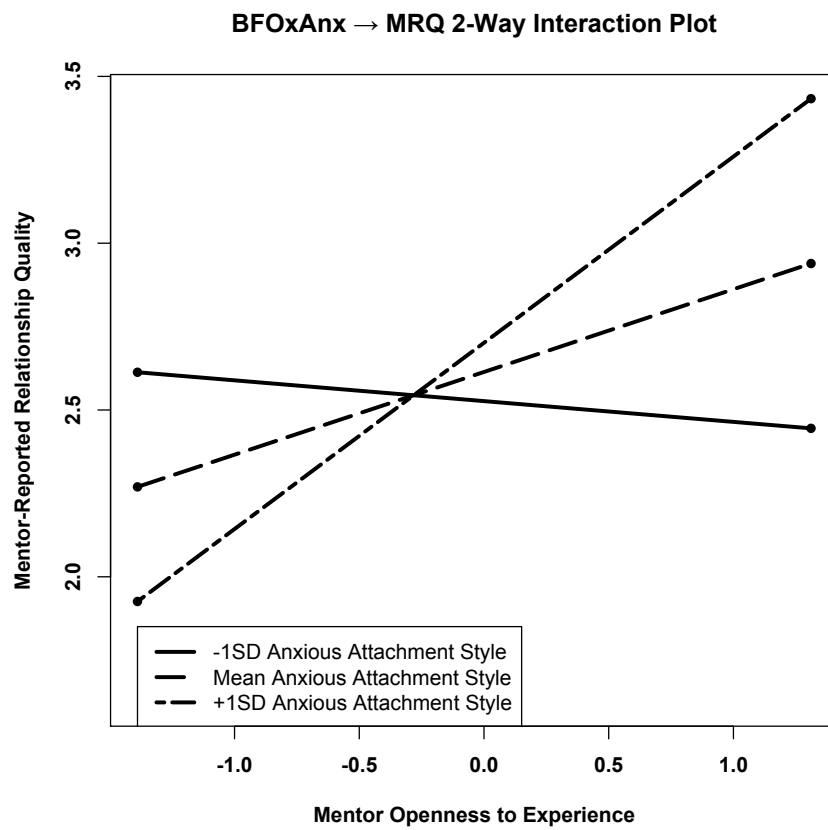


Figure 2. *Openness to Experience X Anxious Attachment Style with Mentor-reported Relationship Quality*

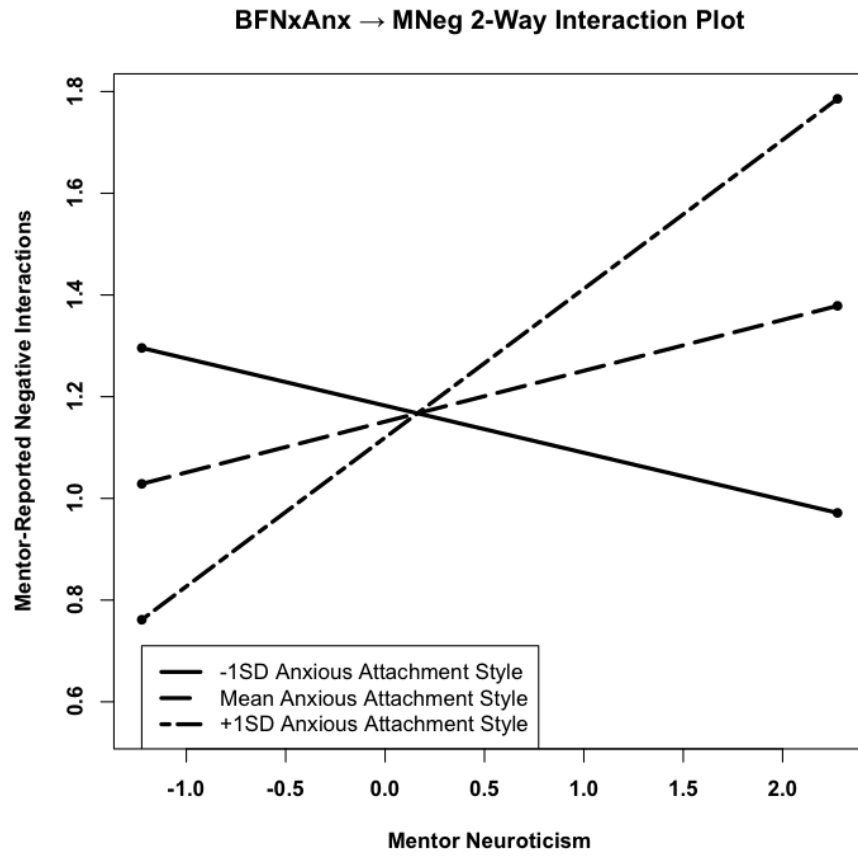


Figure 3. *Neuroticism X Anxious Attachment Style with Mentor-reported Negative Interactions*

VITA

S. Taylor Younginer graduated from the University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa in 2017 where she earned a Bachelor of Science degree in Psychology and Spanish, with a minor in Social Innovation and Leadership. Taylor was admitted to the doctoral program in Clinical Psychology at the University of Tennessee in 2017. She anticipates earning her Master of Arts degree from the University of Tennessee in December 2019 and her doctoral degree in 2023.