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Insights into Recruiting Male Mentors: Motivations, Concerns, and the Role of Payment

Final Report

Prepared for

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Executive Summary

Matching young people with adult mentors is one of the oldest strategies employed in community-based interventions designed to prevent youth problem behaviors and promote positive youth development (Blakeslee & Keller, 2012). Youth mentoring programs serve more than 2 million youth in the United States, most of whom are at risk because of their disadvantaged social and economic backgrounds (Cavell et al., 2009). Mentors have the opportunity to make a significant impact on the developmental outcomes of these youth (Cavell et al., 2009); however, mentoring programs across the country face a significant challenge in their need to identify ways to successfully recruit mentors to work with the youth in their programs or retain the mentors they already have. RTI International and Big Brothers Big Sisters of the Triangle (BBBS-T) collaborated to conduct a comprehensive process evaluation exploring male mentor recruitment and mentor motivation and the potential role of payment to mentors.

The study design included seven components including; focus groups, interviews with mentoring agencies, a study of mentor recruitment, analyses of BBBS-T youth outcomes and strength of relationship administrative data, mentor motivation and concerns survey, a national telephone survey of men and an economic study. Only four of these seven components were implemented successfully enough to provide insight into recruiting male mentors. These components include; (1) analyses of BBBS-T youth outcomes and strength of relationship administrative data, (2) mentor motivation and concerns survey, (3) a national telephone survey of men, and (4) an economic study. These 4 components are the basis of this final report.

BBBS-T youth outcomes and strength of relationship administrative data. The analyses of BBBS-T administrative data facilitated the exploration of several evaluation questions.

1. Are longer mentoring relationships associated with better youth outcomes?

The findings from this study suggest the response to this research question is not clear. The mentoring literature established the benefits of mentoring when a mentoring relationship is sustained for at least one year and this study showed similar findings. However exploring outcomes in mentoring relationships that persisted between 1 and 4 years, revealed some positive and some non-positive outcomes. For example, changes in outcomes were generally not found in the post 1 year period, suggesting benefits were maintained. However, there were some exceptions. Truancy showed significant increase from 1 year to 4 year follow-up and the overall Grades measure and the specific measure of Science grades showed decreases in this timeframe. In terms of the youth's perspective on the strength of the mentoring relationship, there was little change in the post one year period. One exception was the reported decrease in youth disappointment from one to four year follow-up. Mentors reported significant change on all individual outcomes. They reported a decrease in connection and frustration and increases in confidence and closeness in the first year. The overall measures showed no change, likely a result of the contrasting changes in the four component items. Unlike youth SOR measures, the mentor items continued to show significant change from 1 to 4 years post match. All items showed increases over this timespan.

2. Is the relationship between mentoring length and positive youth outcomes weaker/stronger for youths with higher needs (e.g., single parent household)?

Findings revealed in general, there was little evidence for the impact of youth needs as qualifiers of the effects of mentoring outcomes. There were two exceptions to this, both occurring in the post first year period and both for youth with single parents. For science grades and social acceptance, youth with one parent reported significant increases from the 1st to 4th

year. Change over time for SOR measures did not significantly vary by any of the youth needs items.

3. Are the positive effects of mentoring relationship on positive youth outcomes moderated by youth gender, age of child / age of mentor / gap in ages between child and mentor?

Findings revealed child gender was associated with differential change for several youth outcomes. Male youth has significantly lower changes on overall Educational expectations as well as their perceived likelihood to go to college. However, males did report significantly greater increases relative to females about their likelihood to finish high school. Child age was associated with less improvement over time in the post first year period for Truancy and lateness, as well as Juvenile Justice Involvement. There was a single significant difference by youth race, in that white youth showed more acceptance of breaking school rules in the initial year of the match. Volunteer age also had little effect, with youth with mentors aged 26-35 showing less improvement on attitudes about hitting in the baseline to 12 month period.

Similar to the youth outcomes, demographics had relatively little impact on changes over time in the strength of the mentoring relationship. Some of the changes observed include; Mentors that were between the ages of 26 and 35 experienced an increase in their reported frustration relative to younger or older mentors. Also, greater differences in mentor and youth age were associated with more positive changes over time in both the 3 month to 1 year and year 1 to year 4 periods.

4. Are the effects of mentoring relationship on positive youth outcomes moderated by mentor motivations or concerns about mentoring?

Findings revealed youth who had mentors expressing higher child-oriented motivations showed greater increases in science grades. Greater concerns about mentoring were associated with more negative changes (more acceptance) of hitting by youth.

5. Is match length associated with child or mentor characteristics such as age or gender or needs of youth?

Findings revealed the average match length for unique mentor/youth matches (N=1388) in the administrative data was 21.5 months. Older youth were significantly more likely to have longer matches. Age of mentor was also influential, with mentors who fell into either the 26-35 or 36+ age brackets belonging to longer lasting matches. The age difference between mentor and youth was significant as a predictor of match length. Greater differences were associated with longer matches. Youth who were not eligible for/enrolled in free/reduced lunch had significantly longer matches (by approximately 5 months). Interestingly, paid status of mentor was not associated with match length. Higher career-centered motivations were significantly associated with shorter match length.

Mentor motivation and concerns survey. As mentoring agencies strive to increase successful recruitment and retention of male mentors, knowledge of the factors that motivate people to become mentors and the concerns they have about being mentors may be beneficial. Findings presented in this report are based on surveys conducted of potential mentors who attended the mentor orientation, a requirement for becoming a mentor with BBBST. Therefore, findings discussed in this section should be viewed in that light: the data came from people who were sufficiently interested in mentoring to attend an orientation session but not yet matched or accepted in the BBBST program to become a mentor. Motivations related to values (e.g., feeling it is important to help others), mentee-focused motivations (e.g. making a difference in a young person's life), and a single, newly created item on exposing a young person to new activities were uniformly rated as very important. At the other end of the rank ordering, respondents uniformly gave low mean ratings of importance to motivations related to self-protection, career, social considerations, having had a mentor and wanting to give back, and not having a child at home.

The analyses identified differences in importance ratings between respondent groups. Most striking was that nonwhite respondents rated all but one motivation as more important than did white respondents. These differences appeared not

only in the bivariate relationships between respondent characteristic and each type of motivation, but also in the multivariate models—that is, the relationships persisted, net of relationships between other respondent characteristics and a given type of motivation. The largest difference was on the rating for the single item "I had a mentor growing up and now want to give back" (mean ratings of 2.68 versus 1.99). Even for nonwhite respondents, this motivation was not among the most important (it was seventh of 12 types of motivations queried) but it was substantially more important to nonwhite respondents than white respondents.

Respondents ages 18-25 rated four categories of motivations as more important than did respondents ages 26-35 or 36+: mentee-focused motivations, understanding-related motivations, career-related motivations, and self-protective motivations. The youngest age group placed especially greater importance on career-related motivations, relative to the two older age groups. For respondents ages 18-25, not having a child at home was substantially less important as a motivation to mentor than it was for the two older age groups. The 26-35 age group place more importance on two types of motivations (career- and understanding-related motivations) than the 36+ age group, but the differences were not as large as those between the 18-25 age group and the two older age groups. The relative importance the age groups placed on these two motivations increased with age: they were most important to the youngest age group and least important to the oldest group, with the middle age group falling in-between in mean importance ratings.

Bivariate models found significant differences involving marital status on three types of motivations, with single respondents in all three instances placing more importance on the indicated motivations than married respondents. However, none of these differences was significant in the multivariate models. Marital status was strongly related to age group: 47% of respondents in the 36+ age group were married, compared to 21% of respondents in the 26-35 age group and 1% of respondents (2 respondents) in the 18-25 age group. Apparently age group accounted for much of differences in importance ratings for these motivations, leaving gender-based differences non-significant. Marital status was also related to race in our sample (25% of white respondents were married, compared with 15%

of nonwhite respondents) which may have also weakened the observed relationships between marital status and these importance ratings, after accounting for the relationships due to race.

A similar dynamic appears to have also applied to bivariate gender differences in importance of motivations. Bivariate models found that in four of the five statistically significant gender differences, females placed more importance than males on the motivation in question. Of these four bivariate differences, three were non-significant in the multivariate models. These changes to non-significance were likely due in part because gender was related to age (38% of females and 31% of males were in the 18-25 age group; 42 % of females and 36% of males were in the 26-35 age group; and 20% of females and 33% of males were in the 36+ age group). Gender was much more weakly related to race in our sample (51% of females and 55% of males were white), suggesting that the overlap between gender and age was more likely to underlie the changes to non-significance.

Regarding respondent concerns about mentoring, there were both similarities to and difference from the patterns of findings observed on motivations for mentoring. One main similarity was the uniformity of rank orderings of concerns across different groupings of respondents. The two main concerns expressed by all but one respondent groups were a) not knowing what activities to do as a mentor and b) not being sure how much one might have to pay out of pocket. (The one exception was that married respondents were not as concerned about how much they might have to pay.) On the other end of the concern rankings, all respondent groupings expressed very low concerns—almost non-existent—about having health issues that limit getting around, not thinking that mentoring would be fun, or not being a good age to be a mentor. Most respondents also expressed very low concerns about being able to make better use of their time by working, studying or doing other activities; students expressed the most concern on this topic, but their rating was still very low (mean rating 1.26). This very low concern about being able to make better use of one's time may seem somewhat at odds with the finding that the third largest concern was having too much going on to add another responsibility. However, even though it was the third largest concern, the mean rating was 1.62 and the highest mean for

any respondent group was 1.71, for white respondents. Respondents were not very concerned about having too much going on to add another responsibility, and even less concerned about being able to make better use of their time with other activities.

These low levels of concerns were part of the main area of difference between motivations for mentoring and concerns about mentoring: many motivations were rated as very important, and even the motivations that were rated the least important received higher importance ratings than the ratings for almost all the potential concerns. As noted earlier, all of the findings discussed in this section should be viewed in light of the fact that the data came from people who were sufficiently interested in mentoring to attend an orientation session but not yet matched or accepted in the BBBST program to become a mentor.

National Telephone survey of men. The telephone survey of men in the general population included 547 available for analyses. All descriptive and analytical models have been weighted to adjust for nonresponse and to ensure that estimates are representative of the larger population in regards to household size, number of landlines, and demographic characteristics. Missing data was minimal on survey responses; the majority of items contained 98% or more complete data. Below we summarize the knowledge gained from the results.

Committing to mentoring for twelve months or more is a major concern among men from the general population who do not have previous mentoring experience. Commitment was the most important concern for respondents from all racial categories, marital status types, education and income groups, and age brackets. Mentoring organizations must be cognizant that this concern not only exceeds other types of concerns, it is relatively stable across individuals with different types of characteristics. Unfortunately, our analysis of concerns and their correlations with potential incentives for mentoring did not identify any positive correlations between concerns about commitment and particular incentivizing situations. Hence, not only is the concern related to commitment widespread, it is also unclear how it can be alleviated. However, although the survey addressed numerous potential incentives, it did not contain an exhaustive list and therefore there may be situations that could

assuage concerns about commitment that we did not cover. Researchers and mentoring organizations should continue to investigate ways in which apprehension for mentoring commitments could be lessened.

Having to pay out of pocket and knowing what activities to do with mentees are also common concerns among men without mentoring experience. Our analysis of concerns among the overall sample of men without mentoring experience also indicated that respondents were generally concerned about out-of-pocket expenses and the types of activities they would engage in with mentees. Mentoring organizations may leverage this information in their recruitment efforts. Specifically, attempts to recruit men for mentoring should be accompanied with illustrations of the types of activities mentors and mentees can do with one another. Because money is a concern, recruiters should highlight low- or no-cost activities that mentors and mentees can do with one another or when possible reassure potential candidates that activities will be paid for by the organization or that money spent by mentors on mentor-mentee activities will be reimbursed.

Concerns about mentoring are not exactly the same across different demographic groups. Although our analysis does suggest that many concerns, such as those related to commitment, money, and activities are relatively common across all demographic groups, some concerns are unique to specific types of men. For example, unlike other racial categories, African American men and older men viewed their health as a potential barrier to becoming a mentor in that it could possibly limit the types of activities they could do with their mentees. Mentoring organizations must be sensitive to these differences and customize recruitment efforts whenever possible. For example, using this information, recruiters may also make the case to potential candidates that there are numerous activities mentors and mentees can do with one another that do not require a lot of physical activity. Likewise, our analysis also indicated that transportation issues were more of a concern for African American men and unmarried than men from other racial categories or for married men. When possible, mentoring organizations should inform potential candidates that transportation support services are available to facilitate mentor-mentee relationships.

Thinking one would not be good at being a mentor is a concern, but only for some men. The concern about not being a good mentor was one of top three concerns for men with less than a high school education as well as for men between the ages of 18 and 35. In a similar vein, respondents with a college education or greater were concerned about potential cultural and racial differences with mentees. Recruitment efforts should communicate to potential candidates that all mentors have something unique and valuable to offer their mentees as well as make attempts to help candidates identify those qualities that would make them valuable mentors.

The potential to make a difference in a child's life is a major incentive for men in the general population. Analysis of the entire sample of men without mentoring experience revealed that the possibility of making a difference in a child's life is a prominent incentive for becoming a mentor. Mentoring organizations should leverage this information and incorporate "success stories" that describe real-world mentoring relationships that enhanced mentees' wellbeing or life experiences into their recruiting curriculum.

Finding a mentoring opportunity with an organization whose philosophy and mission is consistent with the potential mentor is an important incentive for becoming a mentor. Respondents viewed mentoring opportunities as more attractive when they agreed with the philosophy and general mission of the organization. Accordingly, organizations should devise a clear and effective communication strategy for informing potential candidates about the organization, its mission, and its orientation towards community service and activities.

Being able to mentor during convenient hours was perceived as important by several groups of men. Many groups of men, such as White men, Hispanic men, and men from other racial categories viewed convenient hours as an important incentive to mentoring, as did men from middle and upper income categories. Acknowledging this and when possible, mentoring organizations should inform potential candidates that many mentor-mentee activities can be held on weekends or in the evenings. If possible, candidates who work nonstandard work schedules should be reassured that mentor-mentee activities can be structured during times that are available for both the mentor and mentee.

The promise of reimbursement is only effective in particular situations. Interestingly, although having to pay out of pocket to mentor was a common concern among men, reimbursement was not scored among the most important incentives for becoming a mentor. However, subgroup analysis did suggest that reimbursement was relatively more important to African American men. Unmarried men also viewed reimbursement as more important than married men and the appeal of reimbursement generally decreased as education level increased. African American men and unmarried men were more likely to report that they would be more likely to mentor if provided a stipend. Likewise, correlation analysis between concerns and incentives indicated that respondents concerned about having to pay out of pocket also tended to score higher on the item measuring the appeal of reimbursement as an incentive. Similarly, our analysis also indicated that on average, respondents who were concerned about transportation scored higher on the item measuring the appeal of reimbursement as an incentive. Given that reimbursement is not shown to be a meaningful incentive for all types of men, this strategy should perhaps be reserved for recruitment attempts of African American men, men with lower levels of education, and men who have previously expressed concern about transportation or having to pay out of pocket to become a mentor.

Many men with busy lives engage in mentoring. Our analysis of men with mentoring experience showed that the vast majority (81%) were employed fulltime during their first mentoring experience, 40% were students, and about half had children or other dependents at the time. Hence, mentoring organizations should communicate to candidates that it is normal for them to have other obligations and that mentors typically have very busy lives. They should also make the case that on average, mentors do not have to spend a substantial amount of time with their mentees to have an impact on their lives. For instance, in the current study, mentors on average reported spending about 4 hours per week with their mentees.

About half of mentors reported that their first mentee had one more special need. Although almost half of the sample of men with mentoring experience reported that their first mentee did not have special needs, the remaining men reported that their first mentees had one or more special needs. Mentoring agencies should be transparent about the potential for mentees

to have special needs, and when possible offer mentors support services that train them on how to mentor in such a way that is sensitive to these needs.

*Overall, mentor and mentee characteristics do not have a substantial impact on the length of the relationship, amount of time spent per month, whether or not contact is sustained after the mentoring relationship is terminated, or lifetime number of mentees***.** Few statistically significant effects were identified in models predicting length of relationship, time spent per month, or whether or not contact was sustained after the mentoring relationship terminated. A few exceptions are that mentors and mentees of the same race tended to have longer relationships than those of different races from one another, and that more special needs among mentees was associated with more time spent per month. Organizations should attempt to match mentors and mentees by race. Additionally, candidates should be informed that if they are matched with a special needs child, it is possible they will spend more time per month with their mentee. It is also noteworthy that respondents who reported receiving a stipend to mentor at some point in their lives reported a higher number of lifetime mentees. This latter finding lends support for the notion that offering mentors some form of stipend may help facilitate a positive mentoring experience and therefore encourage men to seek out future mentoring opportunities.

Economic study. Findings revealed the average monthly cost is $226. The annualized cost of $2,720 are quite similar to the costs of volunteer time presented in Anton & Temple, which are approximately $2,660 when adjusted to 2012 dollars. This finding by itself provides a benchmark for mentoring and other organizations that may wish to either establish monetary incentives to attract more mentors or retain existing mentors.

The findings suggest that the mentoring costs are driven by time costs, and this in turn may help mentoring organizations structure their incentives appropriately. The results in the current study indicate that over 80% of the mentor cost of supporting a mentoring relationship is accounted for by the value of the mentor's time. The existing literature suggests that mentor time may be worth at least 50% of the mentor cost (Anton & Temple, 2007). However, these prior conclusions on the relative breakdown of mentoring cost by its components

appear to be speculative and based on budgeting assumptions. The findings in the current study are based on data collected from staff discussions with mentors, and thus are likely derived from a more accurate methodology.

Results from multivariate regressions indicated some differences by core mentor characteristics. Given the importance of time costs to overall costs, perhaps most meaningful were significant differences by gender in time. Over the course of 30 days, male mentors spent 75% more time meeting or preparing for meetings with Littles than female mentors.

Although the study contributes to the literature on the resources used to support mentoring, it faces a number of important limitations. Perhaps most important is that the findings are from a select sample of 133 respondents. The field of mentoring in general does not have a large evidence base of economic studies. Even though mentoring is frequently a volunteer activity, candidate mentors make conscious decisions on how to use their time and spend their income. Mentoring organizations need data to understand the trade-offs that people contemplating mentoring face and future studies should be conducted on understanding what those trade-offs are and quantifying them.

Conclusions. Several insights into recruiting male mentors can be gleaned from this study. The one that stands out most prominently is that the offer of a stipend for mentoring is not an effective strategy, alone, for recruiting male mentors. There were aspects of implementation failure for some components of this study that could have led to greater insights on the role of payment; however even our national telephone survey of men found the promise of some type of payment (even in the form of a reimbursement) was only effective in particular situations. Another insight is that mentoring agencies mining their own administrative data can be a valuable tool for recruitment. For example, this study used administrative data from Big Brothers Big Sisters of the Triangle and found the age difference between mentors and youth was a significant predictor of match length (i.e. greater age difference was associated with longer matches). Although this is true, the administrative data also found significant changes in youth outcomes were generally not found in the

post 1 year period of the mentoring relationship. With this information, mentoring agencies can be strategic in how they build partnerships and make mentoring matches. Building a university-based mentoring partnership may work well given many students may only be able to commit to one year of mentoring; however, for youth whose families want a long term mentoring relationship, the chances of this are greater when there is a greater age difference between the mentor and mentee. A final insight into recruiting male mentors includes the assessment of mentor motivation and concerns. Understanding what motivates men to become a mentor in a given mentoring organization or what some of their concerns regarding mentoring are can facilitate targeted recruitment based on what is known to motivate men and targeted mitigation of the concerns mentors have identified.

The recruitment of male mentors is a challenge experienced by mentoring agencies across the country. Our national telephone survey revealed that a major incentive for men to become mentors is the potential to make a difference in a child's life. This insight along with others found in this study is a move in the right direction for understanding how more male mentors can be recruited.

1 Introduction and Study Overview

Matching young people with adult mentors is one of the oldest strategies employed in community-based interventions designed to prevent youth problem behaviors and promote positive youth development (Blakeslee & Keller, 2012). Youth mentoring has its origins in the juvenile justice system; the nation's first juvenile court, established in 1899 in Chicago, assigned probation officers to provide guidance and support to their young charges (Baker & Maguire, 2005). Mentoring is still being used as a prevention strategy for youth who are at risk or already involved in the juvenile justice system. Youth mentoring programs serve more than 2 million youth in the United States, most of whom are at risk because of their disadvantaged social and economic backgrounds (Cavell et al., 2009). Children growing up in disadvantaged neighborhoods characterized by poverty, crime, low-achieving schools, and low levels of social organization and cohesion are at increased risk for many negative outcomes, including involvement in the juvenile justice system (Leventhal & Brooks-Gunn, 2000, Sampson, Raudenbush & Earls, 1997, Keating, Tomishima, Foster, & Alessandri, 2002). Fortunately, youth mentoring programs have shown promise in preventing delinquency and other risk behaviors and promoting positive youth development (DuBois et al., 2011; DuBois & Karcher, 2005; Beier et al., 2000; Tierney et al., 2000; Johnson, 1999). Yet an estimated 8.5 million youth do not have caring adults in their lives. Mentors have the opportunity to make a significant impact on the developmental outcomes of these youth (Cavell et al., 2009); however, mentoring programs across the country face a significant challenge in their need to identify ways to successfully recruit mentors to work with the youth in their programs or retain the mentors they already have.

1.1 MENTOR RECRUITMENT

The success of any mentoring program hinges first on the ability to recruit mentors; however, mentor recruitment practices have been largely ignored by researchers (DuBois, 2007; Stukas et al., in press). Contributing to the dearth of information available on mentor recruitment practices is the fact that different mentoring programs use different strategies to recruit mentors (Rhodes & DuBois, 2006). Some of the more common recruitment strategies include marketing campaigns, posters, community presentations, or use of Web sites. It is not known how effective any of these practices are and whether certain practices may be more effective for particular mentoring programs.

1.2 MENTOR MOTIVATION

To date, research on volunteerism, namely the motivations of volunteers, has guided some of the established recruitment practices within the field of youth mentoring. Examining the motivations of people who volunteer first emerged in the early 1970s (Pitterman, 1973; Tapp & Spanier, 1973). Since that time, research has persistently focused on understanding the motivations of those who volunteer (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Clary, Snyder & Ridge, 1992; McCurley & Lynch, 1994; Esmond, 2001; Vineyard, 2001; Esmond & Dunlop, 2004; Stukas & Tanti, 2005; Gebauer et al., 2008; Finkelstein, 2009; Stukas et al., 2009; Stukas et al., in press). This body of research has been used to inform volunteer recruitment, selection, placement, and ultimate retention of volunteers as well as to develop inventories used to assess the motivations of volunteers (Stukas, Snyder, & Clary, 2008). Recent work conducted by Stukas and colleagues (in press) suggests that, for youth mentoring, the underlying motivations of mentors may not be the most important factor for recruitment. A mentor's self-efficacy for working with youth who may come from very different, and even difficult, backgrounds may be the driving force behind his or her decision to become a mentor. This difference has very important implications for identifying the type of person who may be best suited to become a mentor to youth at risk for or involved in the juvenile justice system.

1.3 STUDY OVERVIEW

RTI International and Big Brothers Big Sisters of the Triangle (BBBS-T) collaborated to conduct a comprehensive randomized controlled trial of paid versus volunteer mentoring in 2009. The project was designed to add a paid mentoring component to BBBST's well-established program and randomly assign youth to one of three groups: (1) paid mentor, (2) volunteer mentor, or (3) control group. When the project was awarded, one of the early decisions that was made between RTI and BBBST was all mentor recruitment and payment would be the responsibility of BBBST. RTI would manage all study design and data collection processes with a focus on minimizing changes to BBBST's established mentor match process. Another early decision was to set the mentor payment to $10/hr. BBBST thought this amount was sufficient for payment to mentors and an amount that mentor organizations may be able to manage on their own should study findings suggest payment to mentors is an effective strategy. Last, it was decided to focus on boys since this was the population that experienced the greatest wait time before being matched with a mentor.

All boys aged between 8 and 12 years participating in BBBS-T community-based mentoring program who become eligible for a match with a mentor will be eligible to participate in the study. This age range includes the majority of youth in the community-based mentoring program. During the parent/youth enrollment interview, parents will be informed of the opportunity to participate in a study being conducted by RTI in partnership with BBBS-T. The parents will be asked if they consent to an RTI study team member contacting them to discuss details of the study and assess their interest in participating. If a parent agrees, BBBS-T will provide contact information to an RTI Field Interviewer (FI) who will arrange to meet with the parent to describe the study and obtain consent for participating. If a parent does not agree to speak with an RTI FI, they will not be contacted nor included in the study. There will be no adverse consequences to this decision for the parent or child and the youth's application will be processed and they will be matched according to BBBS-T standard practice if a mentor match is available.

Since the start of the study, Big Brothers Big Sisters confronted several challenges. The main challenges include

- A significant decrease in the number of boys on Big Brother Big Sister's ready to be matched list
- Protracted development of partnerships with organizations from which the recruitment of targeted (paid) mentors would take place.
- The need for multiple trainings with BBBS-T staff by RTI research team members on the most effective ways to describe the study to eligible BBBS-T families while maintaining fidelity to the study protocol and IRB restrictions.

With approval from OJJDP, this study design was changed in 2012. The current study design is a comprehensive process evaluation exploring mentor recruitment and mentor motivation and the potential role of payment to mentors.

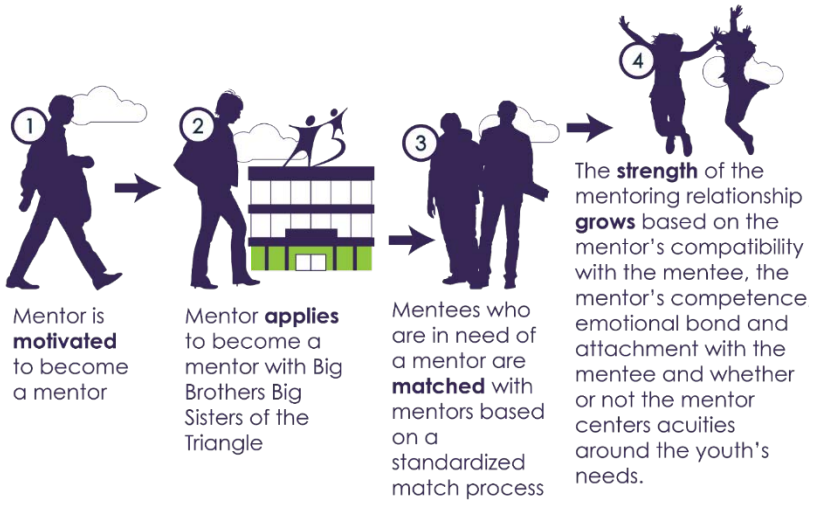
1.3.1 Big Brothers Big Sisters of the Triangle (BBBST)

To better serve the youth of the growing Triangle NC region, in 2005 the long- standing individual programs - Big Brothers Big Sisters of Durham and Orange Counties and the YMCA Big Brothers Big Sisters of Wake County merged into Big Brothers Big Sisters of the Triangle (BBBS-T). BBBS-T offers community-based and school-based mentoring. This study focused on community-based mentoring, which serves 75% of BBBS-T youth. Community-based mentoring provides children ages 6 to 14 from single parent homes or other children in need of adult role models with a one-to-one mentor relationship with an adult in the community.

Mentors in BBBS-T are expected to commit at least one year to be a Big Brother or Big Sister. The application process for becoming a mentor involves several steps, including: an orientation session, submission of personal references, a criminal background check, a driving record check, insurance verification, and an individual interview. For applicants who pass the screening, a careful process is then followed to make a match between youth and mentors. Mentors, parents, and the youth are extensively involved in this process, with their preferences (including age, gender, race, religious affiliation, sexual orientation, geography, and interests) being among the most important items to consider when making a match.

1.4 STUDY DESIGN

The revised study design included five components designed to understand mentor recruitment. They study is predicated on the belief that understanding and responding to a mentor's motivation is the first step in the recruitment process (see Figure below).



The components of the revised study design included:

1.4.1 Focus Groups

RTI conducted several focus groups to deepen the understanding of the motivations, benefits, and challenges related to becoming a mentor. The focus group methodology was chosen because of its ability to take advantage of group dynamics and allow for the discovery of new information that enables participants to explore issues in greater depth than often is reached through single-person interviews. We planned to conduct focus groups with participants in each of the following groups: (1) mentors who are or were in a matched relationship with mentees that lasted 18 months or longer; (2) mentors who were in matched relationships that ended before 12 months; (3) men who expressed an interest in becoming mentors but dropped out before completing an application; (4) men who expressed an interest in becoming mentors but dropped out after submitting an application; and (5) paid mentors in a current matched relationship.

1.4.2 Interviews With Mentoring Agencies

To understand the types of recruitment practices employed by mentoring agencies using one-to-one mentoring, RTI planned to conduct semi-structured telephone interviews with a convenience sample of 30 mentoring agencies. The semi-structured interviews included the following topics:

- number of matches made annually
- percentage of male mentors in program
- recruitment challenges
- successful recruitment practices for male mentors
- use of payment or other incentives
- description of mentoring program
- number of full- and part-time staff
- annual operating budget

1.4.3 Enhanced Study of BBBS-T Mentor Recruitment

The enhanced study of BBBST mentor recruitment included two aspects: (1) recruiting paid mentors at targeted locations and (2) offering payment to a random sample of potential mentors who had submitted an inquiry but did not follow through to complete an application (referred to as "drop-outs"). Both components of the mentor recruitment study included a detailed study of the mentoring process after application, as described below.

Sub-Study 1: Recruitment at Targeted Locations

BBBS-T staff recruited mentors from targeted locations that held promise as a source of male mentors but where BBBS-T has not had great success. These sites included 4 colleges and universities in the North Carolina Research Triangle region. Recruited mentors were offered $15/hour for up to 8 hours per month of mentoring.

Sub-Study 2: Drop-Out Conversion

A large number of men who inquire about becoming a mentor with BBBST drop out of the process before submitting an application. Over the course of this project, the number of men who have made inquiries about becoming a mentor have fluctuated (see ***Exhibit 1***). Inquiries submitted through BBBST's website or through in-person recruitment events generate an inquiry record in BBBS-T's enrollment database. BBBST submitted this list to RTI to be randomly assigned into one of two groups: half were assigned to be offered payment for mentoring at a rate of $15/hour for up to 8 hours per month

for as long as 12 months and half were not offered payment. The random assignment of potential mentors offered the opportunity to provide a strong test of whether payment influences male drop-outs to submit an application.

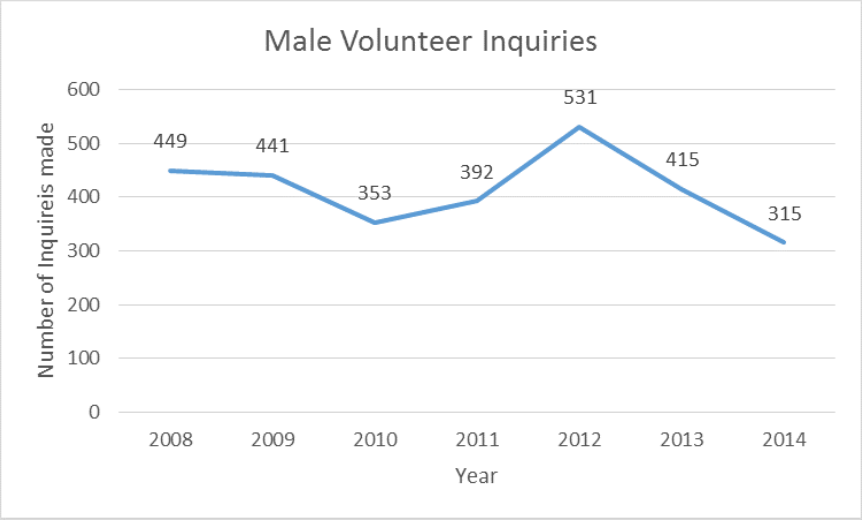
1.4.4 BBBST Administrative Data

BBBS-T collects administrative data that can inform the relationship between the mentoring relationship and youth outcomes. This study will use the BBBST Youth Outcome Survey (YOS) and the Strength of Relationship survey (SOR). The Youth Outcome Survey (YOS) is one of the key components of the Big Brothers Big Sisters of America Outcomes Evaluation System and used by BBBST to measure the length, strength, and outcomes of each match. The BBBS Strength of Relationship (SOR) surveys are used by BBBST to provide an early indicator for the overall quality of their matches by assessing the strength of relationships between children and volunteers.

1.4.5 Survey of Mentor Motivations

With the shift of the focus of the study to a better understanding of mentor recruitment and retention, the RTI team added designed a mentor motivation survey that BBBS-T staff administered during the standard orientation for mentors. The BBBST mentor orientation is designed to provide information to mentor applicants on the enrollment process and the expectations for being a mentor. The Mentor Motivation survey is completed when mentor applicants arrive at the orientation but before the discussion about mentor roles and responsibilities begin.

Exhibit 1. Male Inquiries to become a mentor, 2008-2014



1.4.6 Telephone Survey of Men in General Population

Although there is widespread agreement in the mentoring field about the need to recruit more male mentors, limited information is available about men in the general population and their perceptions of mentoring. To address this issue, RTI conducted a telephone survey of men across the United States to explore perceptions of mentoring or generally volunteering with youth; barriers to volunteering and potential solutions; and perceptions of payment and its influence on likelihood of volunteering. We used a probability sample of men aged 18–65 years.

1.4.7 Advisory Group Members

The study design was guided by a team of researchers and practitioners who provided critical input at the start of the project and ongoing support throughout the project. The first advisory group meeting took place at the RTI Washington DC office and included the CEO of BBBST, Kimberly Breeden and our first OJJDP project officer, Dr. Michael Shader. Subsequent to the first meeting,, the advisor participated in a conference call and then provided feedback to project related requests via email. The advisors included:

Ginger Lockhart, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
Utah State University

Jean Grossman, Ph.D.
Lecturer of Public and International Affairs, Princeton University, Woodrow Wilson School

Michael J. Karcher, EdD, Ph.D.
Professor, The University of Texas, San Antonio

Jean E. Rhodes, PhD
Frank L. Boyden Professor of Psychology
University of Massachusetts Boston

Richard A. Rowe
Director of Programs and Administration
Baltimore Mentoring Partnership

Judy Vredenburgh
President and CEO
Girls Inc.

Brian Yates, Ph.D.
Professor
American University

2 Data Sources, Analyses & Findings

2.1 FOCUS GROUPS

We prioritized the paid mentors and the long-term mentors as the first focus groups to conduct. BBBST was not successful in recruiting paid mentors to participate; however they were successful in recruiting long-term mentors for a focus group. Six male long-term mentors attended a focus group held on Sept 4, 2013 at BBBS-T headquarters. A summary of the focus group discussion is below.

The reasons the focus group participants shared they became a mentor with Big Brothers Big Sisters of the Triangle included wanting to prepare for eventual fatherhood, missing the interaction with children; seeing peers who serve as mentors. All of the respondents had previous mentoring experiences. The mentors believed their mentoring relationships lasted for a range of reasons; the mentee's caretaker is supporting of the mentoring relationship; the mentor has the financial resources and time to serve as a mentor; mentor is closer in age to the mentee than many of the other mentor's he's seen; mentor feels a sense of responsibility. It is noteworthy that several of the mentors could not understand why a mentor would want to end a mentoring relationship after the initial year commitment. When asked what the mentor's thoughts are about why some men don't want to become mentors. The focus group participants said, Men are not as inherently caring on the surface; more women volunteer than men. Some men have a fear of commitment or they don't want to give up free time. They may be self-conscious to spend time with kids or may think it's not "cool". Many men might not realize there is a need. Last, one mentor shared it may be the case that the

man's wife or partner may not be supportive. The majority of the participants had a mentor or positive role model growing up and could speak first hand of the impact it had on their lives. When asked about barrier to becoming a mentor again, the participants identified the following

- Partner / spouse not committed / understanding
- Time
- Mentor's stability (moving often etc)
- Little's stability (moving often)
- Money/cost
- Communication issues:
  - Caregiver does not communicate
  - Organizational issues (e.g. staff turnover or staff not well trained)

When asked about the mentor's level of preparedness for being a mentor, all of the participants acknowledged they did not think they were prepared when they agreed to serve as a mentor. One person noted the agency orientation helped and another added they thought mentoring came naturally to them. Interestingly, one mentor said he found talking with other mentors very helpful and it also recharges him as a mentor. Last, we asked the mentors if they have changed personally as a result of their experience being a mentor. Responses ranged from they matured a lot to the experience is what you make it. One respondent said he knows he was fortunate [growing up] and it feels good being part of a solution. Similarly, another respondent said he knows he is blessed to be where he is today and is blessed to be able to give back to his community.

BBBST was not successful in recruiting the remaining categories of mentors.

2.2 INTERVIEWS WITH MENTORING AGENCIES

2.2.1 Rationale

The mentor agency telephone interviews were designed to gather information on the strategies organizations use to recruit mentors, the ways in which mentoring organizations use incentives or stipends with their mentors, and the challenges mentoring agencies confront with the recruitment of mentors. As one of 5 components in this study, the telephone interviews were designed to inform the types of questions that would be used in the focus group component of the study.

2.2.2 Implementation

Information from over 600 mentoring agencies were identified and a convenience sample of 43 agencies were selected for interviews. These agencies were selected based on geographic location and whether or not it focused on a specific populations (e.g. males, foster care youth; reentry). The project directors wanted to have representation from mentoring agencies across the country as well as agencies that have specialized programs for which it might be challenging to recruit mentors. Of the 43 selected, 35 were still operational and a request to conduct a telephone interview was made in January 2013.

Two mentor agency interviews were completed in January 2013. Several follow-up attempts were made to schedule additional interviews. Despite these attempts, no additional interviews were scheduled. The project team decided to shift the focus to other study components and discontinued this task.

2.3 ENHANCED STUDY OF BBBST MENTOR RECRUITMENT

2.3.1 Targeted Recruitment

BBBST focused their recruitment efforts on 4 colleges/ universities; two historically black colleges and universities and two technical colleges. Over the course of a year, BBBST was only able to successfully recruit 8 paid mentor. The low recruitment numbers led the study team to discontinued this task although we continued to monitor the paid mentors that were matched with a mentee.

2.3.2 Drop Out Conversion

RTI trained BBBST staff participating in the mentor conversion task on telephone recruitment strategies in October 2013. Between October and December 2013, 106 men were contacted; 23 men said they were still interested in becoming a mentor and would like to receive an application and 83 men said they were not interested in becoming a mentor Some of the reasons offered for why they do not want to mentor include; already doing other volunteer work; cannot commit to the one year timeframe; moved out of area; and does not have transportation. In 2014, staff turnover at BBBST impacted the recruitment phone calls associated with this task and the task was discontinued.

2.4 YOUTH OUTCOMES AND STRENGTH OF RELATIONSHIPS

The BBBS-T administrative data consisted of two components used for this study. First is the Youth Outcome Survey (YOS). The Youth Outcome Survey (YOS) is one of the key components of the Big Brothers Big Sisters of America Outcomes Evaluation System and used by BBBST to measure the length, strength, and outcomes of each match. The YOS is a set of 32 questions taken mainly from surveys used in the public domain and from the P/PV studies where reliability and validity have been established (BBBSA, 2013). The questions cover youth attitudes in 3 strategic outcome areas: educational success, risky behaviors, and socio-emotional competence. The survey is administered to youth aged 9 and older in pre and post test formats – before the youth is matched, then at milestone intervals after a year of mentoring. There are 9 key areas in the YOS which include: (1) Social Acceptance; (2) Scholastic Competency; (3) Educational Expectations; (4) Grades; (5) Risk Attitudes; (6) Parental Trust; (7) Truancy; (8) Special Adult; and (9) Juvenile Justice Involvement.

The second data source is the Strength of Relationship Survey (SOR). The BBBS Strength of Relationship (SOR) surveys are used by BBBST to provide an early indicator for the overall quality of their matches by assessing the strength of relationships between children and volunteers. These surveys help to inform BBBST how they can improve the quality of their services to matches in their agency and help bring them closer to having longer, stronger matches. There are 2 distinct

surveys, Child SOR and Volunteer SOR, which are administered 3 months after a match is made and then at 12 months post match and annually after that as long as the match remains active. The SOR survey captures data on one of the nine relationship qualities that have been found to lead to the development of a match and predict the strength of a child and volunteer's relationship. For the Mentee, these qualities include; (1) Coping; (2) Disappointment; (3) Safety; (4) Importance; and (5) Closeness. For the Mentor, these qualities include; (1) Connectedness; (2) Frustration; (3) Confidence; and (4) Closeness.

The YOS and SOR facilitated exploration of several relevant evaluation questions (EQ). These were:

6. Are longer mentoring relationships associated with better youth outcomes?
7. Is the relationship between mentoring length and positive youth outcomes weaker/stronger for youths with higher needs (e.g., single parent household)?
8. Are the positive effects of mentoring relationship on positive youth outcomes moderated by youth gender, age of child / age of mentor / gap in ages between child and mentor?
9. Are the effects of mentoring relationship on positive youth outcomes moderated by mentor motivations or concerns about mentoring?
10. Is match length associated with child or mentor characteristics such as age or gender or needs of youth?

2.4.1 EQ 1. Are longer mentoring relationships associated with better youth outcomes?

Evaluation question 1 was investigated with a series of longitudinal growth models (LGM). This modeling framework allowed us to model length of relationship flexibly and used all available data. The focus of the LGM was estimation of change over time in YOS and SOR outcome measures. Data were available from calendar years 2010 through 2014. Preliminary analyses determined the pattern of response and sample sizes across all available YOS data. Assessment of Youth Outcomes ranged from baseline (at match) to follow-up surveys at the 9th year of a match. Table 1 displays the frequency of each assessment interval.

Change Over Time, Youth Outcome Survey Measures

Table 1. Frequency of YOS assessment

Measurement	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Baseline	600	42.31	600	42.31
1 Year follow-up	426	30.04	1,026	72.36
2 Year follow-up	183	12.91	1,209	85.26
3 Year follow-up	104	7.33	1,313	92.60
4 Year follow-up	51	3.60	1,364	96.19
5 Year follow-up	23	1.62	1,387	97.81
6 Year follow-up	13	0.92	1,400	98.73
7 Year follow-up	10	0.71	1,410	99.44
8 Year follow-up	4	0.28	1,414	99.72
9 Year follow-up	4	0.28	1,418	100.00

Out of the total pool of YOS surveys, 600 corresponded to baseline assessment, 426 were for the first yearly follow-up, and so on. The vast majority – over 95% - of YOS were collected between baseline and the 4th yearly follow-up. Given the scarcity of data past this time modeling of change over time used only data for matches that had a baseline assessment and any follow-up data through the 4th yearly follow-up.

Although Table X above suggests a robust sample for examining change over time, the actual pattern of responses or linkages of surveys across years is more limited. The patterns of response for this subsample of 600 with baseline data are shown below in Table 2.

Table 2. Pattern of YOS response, baseline to 4 year follow-up.

Baseline	Follow-up 1	Follow-up 2	Follow-up 3	Follow-up 4	Frequency	Percent
Yes	No	No	No	No	342	57.0
Yes	Yes	No	No	No	173	28.8
Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	2	0.3
Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	1	0.2
Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	54	9.0
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	24	4.0
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	4	0.7

Out of the 600 matches for which there is a baseline assessment over half (57%) have only that initial YOS. About 29% of matches have at least baseline and the first yearly follow-up. In light of the pattern of data and substantive

relevance of the importance of a match lasting at least one year, the LGM adopted a piecewise approach in which two separate linear segments of rates of change were estimated. The first corresponded to change from baseline to the first year follow-up. The second estimated change from that first year across the subsequent assessments through the 4th yearly assessment. In this way we estimated the impact of a year's worth of mentoring distinct from continued change or maintenance of benefits after that year.

Demographics of the YOS analysis sample correspond to the baseline assessment. The majority of mentors were female (330, 55%) and single (454, 76%). Most mentors were either White (341, 57%) or African American (215, 22%). Students comprised about one fifth (131, 21%) of the mentor pool while 75% (452) reported being employed and 1% (6) were retired. Mentor age ranged from 19 to 74. Twenty-four percent (146) were 18 to 25, 46% (277) were aged 26-35, and 30% (177) were 36 or older.

Results of the piecewise LGM for YOS are shown in Table 3 below. Slope estimates correspond to the yearly change in the outcome measure. Means are model-based estimates based on the two linear slopes.

Table 3. Piecewise LGM estimates of change and model estimated means.

	Slopes		Models-based means				
YOS	Baseline to 1 year	1 year to 4 year follow-up	Baseline	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4
Social acceptance	0.21***	-0.04	3.01	3.22	3.18	3.14	3.10
Scholastic competence	0.12**	0.00	2.89	3.01	3.01	3.00	3.00
Educational expectations	0.00	0.02	3.71	3.71	3.72	3.74	3.75
Finish high school	0.02	0.00	3.76	3.78	3.78	3.77	3.77
Go to college	-0.04	0.05	3.70	3.66	3.71	3.75	3.80
Finish college	0.03	0.00	3.66	3.69	3.68	3.68	3.68
Grades	0.09	-0.17*	3.56	3.65	3.48	3.32	3.15
Math	0.12	-0.15	3.56	3.68	3.52	3.37	3.21
Reading/LA	0.07	-0.09	3.59	3.67	3.58	3.49	3.40
Social studies	0.02	-0.15	3.51	3.53	3.38	3.23	3.08
Science	0.11	-0.27*	3.59	3.70	3.43	3.16	2.88
Risk Attitudes	0.04	0.00	3.80	3.85	3.85	3.85	3.85
Tobacco	0.08	-0.03	3.85	3.93	3.90	3.87	3.84
Drugs	0.09*	0.00	3.86	3.95	3.95	3.95	3.96
Alcohol	0.04	0.00	3.91	3.95	3.95	3.95	3.95
Skipping School	0.04	0.03	3.88	3.92	3.95	3.98	4.01
Hitting	0.05	-0.02	3.76	3.81	3.79	3.78	3.76
Break school rules	0.05	-0.08	3.84	3.89	3.82	3.74	3.67
Late for school	0.00	0.08	3.48	3.48	3.57	3.65	3.74
Parental Trust	0.07	0.03	3.52	3.59	3.62	3.64	3.67
Truancy	-0.24***	0.19*	2.93	2.69	2.88	3.07	3.26
Absenteeism	-0.24**	0.19	2.86	2.62	2.81	3.01	3.20
Lateness	-0.22*	0.18	2.99	2.77	2.95	3.14	3.32
Special adult	0.28	-0.01	1.60	1.88	1.87	1.86	1.85
Juvenile justice involvement	-0.01	0.02	3.99	3.98	4.00	4.01	4.03

Multiple YOS measures showed improvement over time, particularly in the first year. Youth reported increased social acceptance and scholastic competence. Attitudes about the risk of drug use also increased in the first year of the mentoring relationship. Improvements in Truancy overall and in the specific measures of absenteeism and lateness were observed as well.

Changes in outcomes were generally not found in the post 1 year period, suggesting benefits were maintained. An exception was Truancy, which showed significant increase from 1 year to 4 year follow-up. The overall Grades measure and the specific measure of Science grades also showed decrease in this time.

Change Over Time, Strength of Relationship Survey Measures

SOR records were more numerous than YOS. A total of 1062 SOR assessments corresponded to the initial measurement of relationship at 3 months. A total of 2391 SOR assessments were included in the data. Like YOS, analyses focused on the first 4 years of data.

Table 4. Frequency of SOR assessment.

Measurement	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
3 month	1,062	44.4	1,062	44.4
1 Year follow-up	676	28.3	1,738	72.7
2 Year follow-up	299	12.5	2,037	85.2
3 Year follow-up	180	7.5	2,217	92.7
4 Year follow-up	78	3.3	2,295	96.0
5 Year follow-up	42	1.8	2,337	97.7
6 Year follow-up	20	0.8	2,357	98.6
7 Year follow-up	17	0.7	2,374	99.3
8 Year follow-up	10	0.4	2,384	99.7
9 Year follow-up	4	0.2	2,388	99.9
10 year follow-up	3	0.1	2,391	100.0

There were more patterns of SOR response across the 5 assessments but many corresponded to a single match or very few matches. 470 matches reported only the 3 month SOR. About a third, 373, had 3 month and the first annual follow-up.

Table 5. Pattern of SOR response, baseline to 4 year follow-up.

Baseline	Follow-up 1	Follow-up 2	Follow-up 3	Follow-up 4	Frequency	Percent
Yes	No	No	No	No	470	44.3
Yes	No	No	Yes	No	2	0.2
Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	1	0.1
Yes	No	Yes	No	No	14	1.3
Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	1	0.1
Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	5	0.5
Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	1	0.1
Yes	Yes	No	No	No	373	35.1
Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	6	0.6
Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	119	11.2
Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	3	0.3
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	48	4.5
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	19	1.8

Table 6 below shows the change over time from the initial 3 month measurement to one year and then the period from 1 to 4 years post match.

Table 6. Piecewise LGM estimates of change and model estimated means, SOR youth measures.

	Slopes		Models-based means				
SOR – Child	3 mos. to 1 year	1 year to 4 year follow-up	Initial (3 mos.)	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4
Coping	0.16***	-0.04	4.61	4.73	4.69	4.65	4.62
Disappointment	-0.16	-0.24*	3.34	3.22	2.97	2.73	2.48
Safety	0.01	-0.03	4.94	4.95	4.92	4.89	4.86
Importance	0.06	-0.03	4.81	4.86	4.83	4.81	4.78
Closeness	0.11***	0.00	4.78	4.86	4.87	4.87	4.87
Overall	0.07**	-0.02	4.82	4.87	4.84	4.82	4.80

Youth reported improvement in their mentor relationship over the course of the first year. Child coping, closeness, and the overall SOR measure all increased significantly. There was little change in the post one year period, suggesting maintenance of effects. One exception was significant decrease in

disappointment, which showed a decline across the four years from one to four year follow-up.

Table 7. Piecewise LGM estimates of change and model estimated means, SOR mentor measures.

	Slopes		Models-based means				
SOR – Mentor	3 mos. to 1 year	1 year to 4 year follow-up	Initial (3 mos.)	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4
Connected	-0.09**	0.06*	3.92	3.85	3.91	3.96	4.02
Frustration	-0.18***	0.05*	3.89	3.76	3.81	3.86	3.92
Confidence	0.10***	0.06**	4.25	4.33	4.39	4.45	4.52
Closeness	0.28***	0.17***	3.91	4.11	4.29	4.46	4.64
Overall	0.01	0.08	4.00	4.01	4.09	4.18	4.26

Mentors reported significant change on all individual outcomes. They reported a decrease in connection and frustration and increases in confidence and closeness in the first year. The overall measures showed no change, likely a result of the contrasting changes in the four component items. Unlike youth SOR measures, the mentor items continued to show significant change f omr1 to 4 years post match. All items showed increases over this timespan.

2.4.2 EQ2. Is the relationship between mentoring length and positive youth outcomes weaker/stronger for youths with higher needs (e.g., single parent household)?

The next series of LGM examined if youth need characteristics moderated the change over time in YOS and SOR outcomes. Youth need measures were:

1. single vs two parent household
2. being eligible for free/reduced lunch
3. having an incarcerated parent

Each of these were binary yes/no indicators and were entered as predictors and in interaction with the time effects from the LGM above. Table 8 below displays the positive or negative impact of these moderators on change over time for YOS outcomes.

Table 8. Moderation of YOS change over time by youth need indicators.

	Single parent home		Free/reduced lunch		Incarcerated parent	
YOS	Baseline to 1 year	1 year to 4 year follow-up	Baseline to 1 year	1 year to 4 year follow-up	Baseline to 1 year	1 year to 4 year follow-up
Social acceptance		+				
Scholastic competence						
Educational expectations						
Finish high school						
Go to college						
Finish college						
Grades						
Math						
Reading/LA						
Social studies						
Science		+				
Risk Attitudes						
Tobacco						
Drugs						
Alcohol						
Skipping School						
Hitting						
Break school rules						
Late for school						
Parental Trust						
Truancy						
Absenteeism						
Lateness						
Special adult						
Juvenile justice involvement						

In general, there was little evidence for the impact of youth needs as qualifiers of the effects of mentoring outcomes. There were two exceptions to this, both occurring in the post first year period and both for youth with single parents. For science grades and social acceptance, youth with one parent reported significant increases from the 1st to 4th year.

Change over time for SOR measures did not significantly vary by any of the youth needs items.

2.4.3 EQ 3. Are the positive effects of mentoring relationship on positive youth outcomes moderated by youth gender, age of child / age of mentor / gap in ages between child and mentor?

Evaluation questions 3 examines the extent to which changes in youth outcomes are conditional on demographic characteristics such as age and gender of youth. Demographics examined were child gender, child age, mentor age, child race/ethnicity (dichotomized as white non Hispanic vs other), discrepancy in age between mentor and youth, and mentor student/employment status. Discrepancy in match of child to mentor gender was initially a candidate as a predictor variable but in all but two matches the gender of the child and mentor were the same.

Table 9 shows the demographics for all matches in the YOS/SOR administrative data as well as for each of the subsamples used for YOS and SOR models.

Table 9. Demographic characteristics of all matches in YOS/SOR data.

Characteristic		All YOS/SOR matches (N=1388)	YOS LGM data (N=600)	SOR LGM data (N=1062)
Child gender	Male	610 (44%)	270 (45%)	461 (43%)
Mentor age	18-25	343 (25%)	146 (24%)	296 (28%)
	26-35	620 (45%)	277 (46%)	453 (43%)
	35+	425 (31%)	177 (30%)	313 (29%)
Mentor marital status	Single	1011 (73%)	454 (76%)	808 (76%))
	Married	318 (23%)	134 (22%)	230 (22%)
	missing	59 (4%)	12 (2%)	24 (2%)
Mentor Race/Ethnicity	White	851 (61%)	341 (57%)	644 (60%)
	African American	422 (30%)	215 (36%)	326 (31%)
	Other/Multiple/Unknown	115 (8%)	44 (7%)	92 (9%)
Mentor employment status	Student	380 (27%)	131 (22%)	300 (28%)
	Working	963 (69%)	452 (75%)	733 (69%)
	Retired	11 (1%)	6 (1%)	9 (1%)
	Missing	34 (2%))	11 (2%)	20 (2%)

Differences in change by demographics characteristics

Table 10 shows the moderator effects for demographics on YOS outcomes. Green shaded cells indicate that the change over time was significantly better for the demographic group, red cells indicate a significantly worse rate of change over time for a group.

Table 10. Moderator effects for demographics on YOS outcomes.

	Child gender (Male)		Child age (Older)		Child minority (White)		Mentor age (older)	
YOS	**Baseline to 1 year**	**1 year to 4 year follow-up**	**Baseline to 1 year**	**1 year to 4 year follow-up**	**Baseline to 1 year**	**1 year to 4 year follow-up**	**Baseline to 1 year**	**1 year to 4 year follow-up**
Social acceptance								
Scholastic competence								
Educational expectations	-							
Finish high school		+						
Go to college	-							
Finish college								
Grades								
Math								
Reading/LA								
Social studies						+		
Science								
Risk Attitudes								
Tobacco								
Drugs								
Alcohol								
Skipping School								
Hitting							- (age 26-35)	
Break school rules					-			
Late for school								
Parental Trust								
Truancy			-					
Absenteeism								
Lateness			-					
Special adult								
Juvenile justice involvement			-					

Child gender was associated with differential change for several YOS outcomes. Male youth has significantly lower changes on overall Educational expectations as well as their perceived likelihood to go to college. However, males did report significantly greater increases relative to females about their likelihood to finish high school.

Child age was associated with less improvement over time in the post first year period for Truancy and lateness, as well as Juvenile Justice Involvement.

There was a single significant difference by youth race, in that white youth showed more acceptance of breaking school rules in the initial year of the match. Volunteer age also had little effect, with youth with mentors aged 26-35 showing less improvement on attitudes about hitting in the baseline to 12 month period.

Age difference between the mentor and child were also explored as it relates to youth outcomes; however difference in mentor and youth age had no impact on how YOS outcomes changed over time.

Table 11. Moderation of SOR change over time by youth need indicators.

	Child gender (Male)		Child age (Older)		Child minority (White)		Mentor age (older)	
SOR	3 mos. to 1 year	1 year to 4 year follow-up	3 mos. to 1 year	1 year to 4 year follow-up	3 mos. to 1 year	1 year to 4 year follow-up	3 mos. to 1 year	1 year to 4 year follow-up
Child								
Coping				-				
Disappointment								
Safety								(age 26-35)
Importance								
Closeness								
Overall								
Mentor								
Connected								
Frustration								(age 26-35)
Confidence								
Closeness								
Overall		-						

Similar to the YOS, demographics had relatively little impact on changes over time in SOR measures. All significant effects were in the post one year period of the match. Mentors of male youth reported less positive change from year 1 to 4 on their overall score. Older youth had less positive coping while those with mentors aged 26-35 reported less beneficial change for safety. Mentors that were between the ages of 26 and 35 experienced an increase in their reported frustration relative to younger or older mentors.

Ages difference between the mentor and child were also explored as it relates to the strength of the mentoring relationship. Greater differences in mentor and youth age were associated with more positive changes over time in both the 3 month to 1 year and year 1 to year 4 periods. Greater age differences were also associated with significantly less increases in confidence from 3 months to 1 year and the overall mentor score in the same period.

2.4.4 EQ 4. Are the effects of mentoring relationship on positive youth outcomes moderated by mentor motivations or concerns about mentoring?

The possible impact of motivations to mentor and concerns about mentoring were also examined with conditional LGM similar to those used to explore how change over time varied by demographic characteristics. Sample size was severely restricted due to a lack of motivation survey data that corresponded to BBBS-T administrative data for SOR and YOS survey. Conditional models for YOS items were limited to 119 matches at baseline while SOR models had 153 baseline matches. These conditional models were limited to examining change from baseline (3 months for SOR) to the first annual follow-up since very few cases had data past this time.

The three primary scales of self-oriented motivations, child-oriented motivations, and concerns about mentoring had few relationships with YOS measures. Youth who had mentors expressing higher child-oriented motivations showed greater increases in science grades. Greater concerns about mentoring were associated with more negative changes (more acceptance) of hitting by youth. Child and mentor SOR outcomes did not differ by these three scales.

Models with the motivation and concerns subscales did not complete estimation successfully for approximately a third of the YOS and SOR outcomes, primarily due to computation

difficulties with the small samples. None of these models are presented.

2.4.5 EQ 5. Is match length associated with child or mentor characteristics such as age or gender or needs of youth?

To examine how youth or mentor characteristics might influence the length of a match we estimated a series of multiple predictor regression models in which match length (in # of months) was the dependent variable. Models entered distinct sets of variables as predictors as follows:

- Model 1. Demographics: Child age, Mentor age (18-25, 26-35, 36+), child gender, child minority race/ethnicity
- Model 2. Demographics focused on discrepancy in age of youth and mentor, with child gender, child minority race/ethnicity.
- Model 3. Factors associated with youth need: single vs two parent home, incarcerated parent, child free or reduced lunch, control demographics (Model 1 predictors).
- Model 4. Paid vs unpaid mentor status, control demographics (Model 1 predictors).
- Model 5. Mentor self- and youth-oriented motivations, mentor concerns, control demographics (Model 1 predictors).
- Model 6. Mentor specific subscales about motivations and concerns, control demographics (Model 1 predictors).

Results

The average match length for unique mentor/youth matches (N=1388) in the YOS/SOR data was 21.5 months. Matches ranged from a few days to a maximum of 120 months. The standard deviation was approximately 18 months.

Model 1. Child age, was associated with match length. Older youth were significantly more likely to have longer matches. Age of mentor was also influential, with mentors who fell into either the 26-35 or 36+ age brackets belonging to longer lasting matches.

Model 2. The age difference between mentor and youth was significant as a predictor of match length. Greater differences were associated with longer matches.

Model 3. All three measures of child need showed some degree of impact on relationship length. Youth who were not eligible for/enrolled in free/reduced lunch had significantly longer matches (by approximately 5 months). Although not conventionally significant (*p* values were .06), youth from

single parent homes had longer matches (3 months) whereas youth with an incarcerated parent had matches about 2 months shorter than those without that indicator.

Model 4. Paid status of mentor was not associated with match length.

Model 5. Neither of the primary motivation scales (self or youth focused) were significant predictors of match length. The concerns scale also did not predict length of match. Sample size for this model was attenuated by the sparse YOS/SOR to Mentoring Motivation survey merge and was limited to 180 youth/mentor matches. Average length of match for this subsample was only 10.4 months, which restricted the range and predictive power of the model.

Model 6. The specific motivation or concerns subscales did not predict match length with the exception of one. Higher career-centered motivations were significantly associated with shorter match length. Sample limitations were the same as those noted in Model 4.

2.5 MENTOR MOTIVATIONS AND CONCERNS

As mentoring agencies strive to increase successful recruitment and retention of male mentors, knowledge of the factors that motivate people to become mentors and the concerns they have about being mentors may be beneficial. There is a small literature on what motivates people to volunteer generally, but information on motivations for mentoring youth is even more limited. Moreover, we wanted to go beyond motivations for mentoring to also measure concerns and considerations that might limit people's interest in mentoring, in the hope that this information might help mentoring agencies to anticipate and address such concerns.

This chapter first describes our methodology, including instrument development, data collection, and respondents. We then look at differences in ratings of importance of motivations and concerns in two ways: by forming groups of respondents on the basis of a) their characteristics (e.g. gender), and b) their ratings of the importance of the queried motivations for, and concerns about, mentoring (using latent class analysis). We hope that this exploration of differences between groups of respondents regarding their motivations and concerns will be

useful to mentoring agencies as they seek to recruit and retain mentors, in particular male mentors.

Findings presented in this chapter are based on surveys conducted of potential mentors who attended mentor orientation, a requirement for becoming a mentor with BBBST. Therefore, findings discussed in this section should be viewed in that light: the data came from people who were sufficiently interested in mentoring to attend an orientation session but not yet matched or accepted in the BBBST program to become a mentor. (To explore whether these findings extended beyond this particular sample, we later adapted items from the instrument for use in a telephone survey of men in the general population, as discussed in ***Section 2.6***.

2.5.1 Instrument Development

We created the ***Mentoring Motivations and Concerns Survey*** from several complementary sources. First, from a search of the literature we identified an instrument developed specifically to measure motivations for volunteering, the ***Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI)***. (Clary et at., 1998) That instrument included 30 items that measured six separate functional motives (i.e., factors):

1. Protective Motives – a way of protecting the ego from the difficulties of life.
2. Values – a way to express ones altruistic and humanitarian values.
3. Career –a way to improve career prospects.
4. Social –a way to develop and strengthen social ties.
5. Understanding –a way to gain knowledge, skills, and abilities.
6. Enhancement –a way to help the ego grow and develop.

We drew 2 items from each subscale and revised the item to be specific to mentoring youths. Our revised items, the original item on which each was based, and the functional motive label (for the item pairs) are shown in the following table:

Function Label	Original Item	Our Revised Item
Values	I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.	I am genuinely concerned about children and youths.
	I feel it is important to help others.	I feel it is important to help others.
Understanding	Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.	Mentoring allows me to gain a new perspective on things.
	I can explore my own strengths.	By mentoring, I can explore my own strengths.
Enhancement	Volunteering makes me feel needed.	Mentoring makes me feel needed.
	Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.	Mentoring makes me feel better about myself.
Career	Volunteering will help me succeed in my chosen profession.	Mentoring will help me succeed in my job or profession.
	Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.	Mentoring experience will look good on my resume.
Social	My friends volunteer.	My friends mentor.
	People I'm close to want me to volunteer.	People I'm close to want me to mentor.
Protective	No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.	No matter how bad I've been feeling, mentoring helps me to forget about it.
	Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.	Mentoring relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.

Second, a noted researcher in the mentoring field, David Dubois, provided us with an instrument that he developed for use in one of his ongoing studies to measure motivations for mentoring. From that instrument, we drew the following items which we felt would complement those items we had adapted from the VFI.

Items Provided by Dubois	Our revision
I want to teach a young person values important for success.	I want to teach a young person values important for success.
I want to influence a young person's success in school.	I want to influence a young person's success in school.
I am concerned about helping young persons reach their full potential.	I am concerned about helping a young person reach his or her full potential.
Volunteering will give me the opportunity to make an important difference in a young person's life.	Mentoring will give me the opportunity to make an important difference in a young person's life.
By volunteering, I can form a relationship with a young person that enriches my life.	By mentoring, I can form a relationship with a young person that enriches my life.

Finally, we asked the BBBST staff to review a draft of the mentor motivation survey and provide feedback. Based on the BBBST staff review, we created three new items that reflect concepts the BBBST staff thought were key to mentor motivation and not captured in the items described above.

- By mentoring, I can expose a young person to new activities.
- I don't have kids of my own (or have kids who are grown and living on their own).
- Growing up, I had a mentor and now want to give back.

In addition, we created original items about concerns that people might have about mentoring. We wanted to go beyond reasons that might draw people to mentoring (i.e. motivations) to also measure concerns and considerations that might limit people's interest in mentoring, in the hope that this information might help mentoring agencies to anticipate and address such concerns. We were not able to find an appropriate extant instrument or items and therefore created our own items, as follows:

1. I am not sure how much I might have to pay out of my own pocket.
2. I would not know what activities to do as a mentor.
3. I would have to go places where I might not be safe.
4. I have too much going on to add another responsibility.
5. I am not sure I can commit for 12 months or longer.
6. I don't want to take time away from my other relationships.
7. I am not sure I would make a good mentor.
8. Cultural or racial differences might be a problem.
9. I have health issues that limit my ability to get around or interact with others.
10. I don't think I am a good age to be a mentor.
11. I don't think being a mentor would be fun.
12. I can make better use of my time by working, studying, or doing other activities.

2.5.2 Data Collection

We formatted the *Mentoring Motivations and Concerns Survey* to fit on one page. Instructions for the self-administered survey were as follows. Regarding motivations for mentoring, instructions were *"The statements below are possible reasons that people mentor. Using a scale of 1 to 5, please indicate how important each item was to you as you considered becoming a mentor. A higher score means that the item was a more important reason for you."* The response options were labelled as follows:

- 1 = Not at all
- 2 = Somewhat unimportant
- 3 = Neutral
- 4 = Somewhat important
- 5 = Extremely

The form also include three spaces for respondents to briefly describe other important reasons not included in the list.

Regarding concerns about mentoring, instructions were *"The statements below are possible concerns people might have about mentoring. Using a scale of 1 to 5, please indicate how much of a concern each item was for you as you considered becoming a mentor now. A higher score means that the item was more of a concern for you."*

The response options were labelled as follows:

- 1 = Not at all
- 2 = A little concerned
- 3 = Neutral
- 4 = Somewhat concerned
- 5 – Extremely

The form also include three spaces for respondents to briefly describe other important concerns not included in the list.

BBBS-T included the instrument in the packet that was given to potential mentors who attended a mentor orientation, a requirement for becoming a mentor with BBBST. Therefore, all of the findings discussed in this section should be viewed in that light: the data came from people who were sufficiently interested in mentoring to attend an orientation session but not yet matched or accepted in the BBBST program to become a mentor. We later adapted items from the instrument for use in the telephone survey of men in the general population, as discussed in ***Section 2.6***.

BBBS-T administered the survey from September 2012 to December 2014, resulting in 549 completed surveys. BBBS-T provided the completed survey forms to RTI for data processing. Each form included the potential mentor's name, allowing the survey data to later be linked with administrative data on the potential mentors.

2.5.3 Respondents

Demographic characteristics of respondents to the Mentoring Motivations and Concerns Survey are summarized in ***Table 11***.

The exhibit also provides information on whether respondents were matched as of December 2014.

Table 11. Respondent Demographic Characteristics and Match Status

Gender		Race		Age			Marital Status		Work Status		Match Status	
Female	Male	White	Non-white	18-25	26-35	36+	Single	Married	Student	Working	Matched	Not Matched
274 (50%)	275 (50%)	292 (53%)	257 (47%)	182 (34%)	207 (39%)	140 (26%)	396 (79%)	104 (21%)	145 (30%)	336 (70%)	274 (50%)	275 (50%)

NOTE: Percentages are based on respondents with data on that characteristic.

Regarding gender, race, and match status, respondents were quite complete and almost evenly balanced between the two categories of each dimension. (We combined racial groups into white and non-white.) Regarding age, 34% of respondents were in the 18-25 age group, 39% in the 26-35 age group, and 26% ages 36 or older. Single people out-numbered married people almost 4-to-1. Also, 70% of respondents were working and 30% were students (9 retirees were not included in the analysis).

We also examined the combination of respondent characteristics; see ***Exhibit CROSSTABS***. Females and males were distributed in roughly the same proportion of white and nonwhite respondents and of single and married respondents. Male respondents were more likely to be in the 36+ age group (33%) than female respondents (20%). Respondents in the 18-25 age group were overwhelmingly single (99%), those in the 36+ age group were the most likely to be married (53%), and those in the 26-35 age group fell in between (79% single). White respondents were more likely to be married (25%) than were nonwhite respondents (15%). White respondents were also more likely to be in the 26-35 age group (44%) than nonwhite respondents (34%).

Exhibit CROSSTABS. Cross-tabulation of Respondent Characteristics

Respondent Gender by Race

Frequency Percent Row Percent Column Percent	White	Nonwhite	Total
Female	139 25% 51% 48%	134 24% 49% 52%	273 50%
Male	153 28% 55% 52%	123 22% 45% 48%	276 50%
Total	292 53%	257 47%	549 100%

Respondent Gender by Age

Frequency Percent Row Percent Column Percent	18-25	26-35	36+	Total
Female	99 19% 38% 54%	111 21% 42% 54%	53 10% 20% 38%	263 50%
Male	83 16% 31% 46%	96 18% 36% 46%	87 16% 33% 62%	266 50%
Total	182 34%	207 39%	140 27%	529 100%

Respondent Gender by Marital Status

Frequency Percent Row Percent Column Percent	Single	Married	Total
Female	206 41% 82% 52%	44 9% 18% 42%	250 50%
Male	190 38% 76% 48%	60 12% 24% 58%	250 50%
Total	396 79%	104 21%	500 100%

Respondent Marital Status by Age

Frequency Percent Row Percent Column Percent	18-25	26-35	36+	Total
Single	171 34% 43% 99%	155 31% 39% 79%	69 14% 17% 53%	395 79%
Married	2 .4% 2% 1%	42 8% 40% 21%	60 12% 58% 47%	104 21%
Total	173 35%	197 49%	129 26%	499 100%

Respondent Race by Marital Status

Frequency Percent Row Percent Column Percent	Single	Married	Total
White	215 43% 75% 54%	71 14% 25% 68%	286 57%
Nonwhite	181 36% 85% 46%	33 7% 15% 32%	214 43%
Total	396 79%	104 21%	500 100%

Respondent Race by Age

Frequency Percent Row Percent Column Percent	18-25	26-35	36+	Total
White	91 17% 31% 50%	127 24% 44% 61%	73 14% 25% 52%	291 55%
Nonwhite	91 17% 38% 50%	80 15% 34% 39%	67 13% 28% 48%	238 45%
Total	182 34%	207 39%	140 26%	529 100%

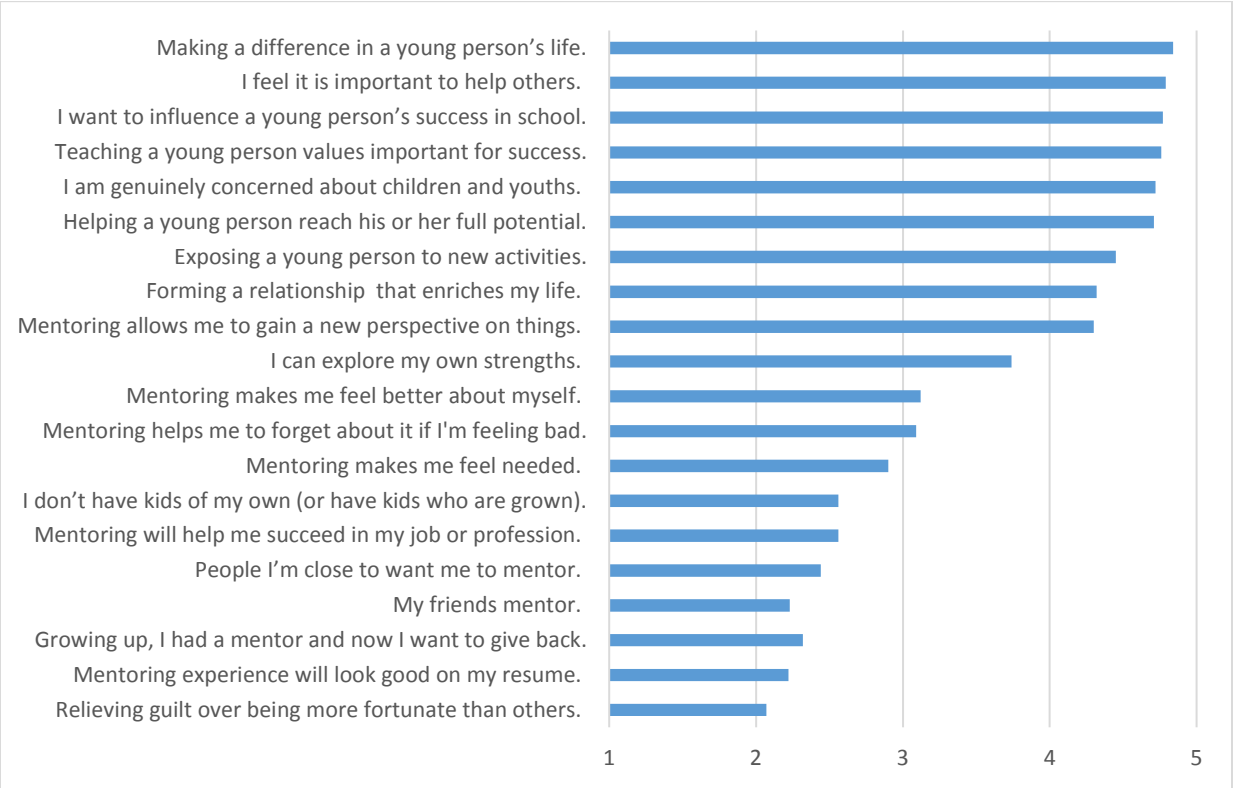
2.5.4 Results

Motivations for Mentoring

Motivations, Overall

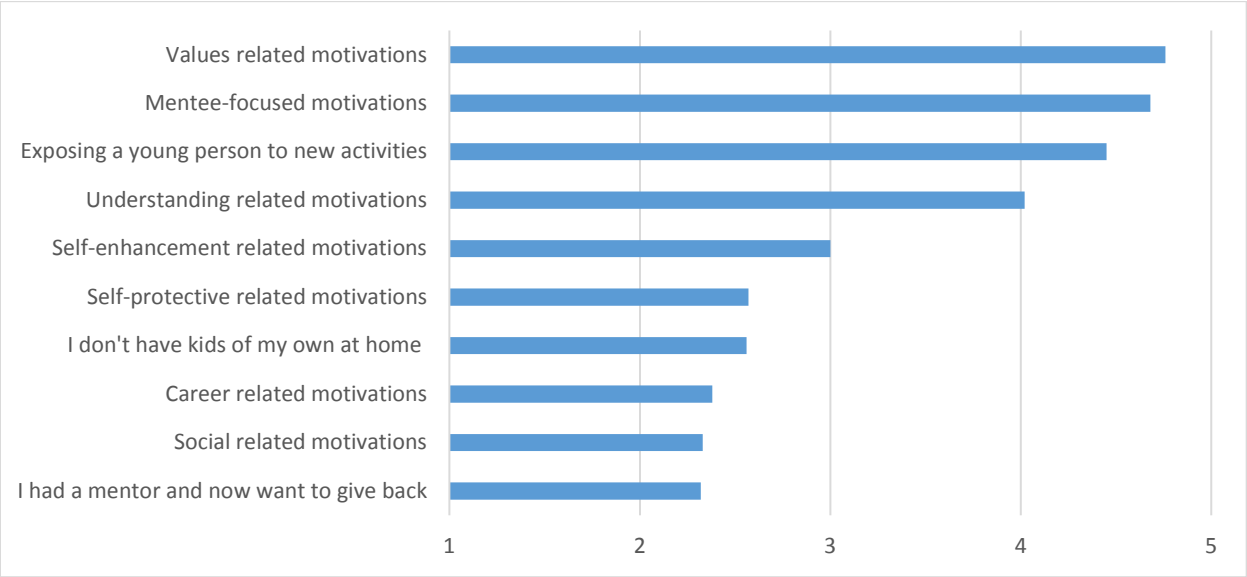
Respondent ratings of how important each possible motivation was to them as they considered becoming a mentor varied considerably, ranging from 4.84 (of a possible maximum of 5, "extremely" important) to 2.07 (with 2 labeled "somewhat unimportant"); see ***Exhibit MM-OVERALL***. The motivations rated as most important were those a) explicitly focused on helping a young person, and b) expressing the values of helping others and being concerned about children and youths. Motivations related to improved understanding (i.e. gaining a new perspective on things and exploring one's strengths) were also rated as quite important. Motivations related to feeling better about oneself, helping to forget about things if feeling bad, or feeling needed were rated approximately in the middle of the scale. Rated as less important were motivations related to not having children at home; social considerations (people close to me want me to mentor; my friend mentor); career aspirations; or having a mentor when growing up and wanting to give back. The motivation rated as least important was relieving guilt over being more fortunate than others.

Exhibit MM_OVERALL. Motivations for Mentoring



With the individual items placed into the "volunteering function" pairs and the mentee-focused motivations (the set of items from Dubois), respondents rated as most important those motivations related to values (m=4.76 of a possible 5) and mentee-focused motivations (m=4.68); see ***Exhibit MM_OVERALL_FUNCTIONS***. Motivations related to increasing understanding (m=4.02) and to self-enhancement (m=3.00) were also rated as fairly important, while motivations related to self-protection (m=2.57), career (m=2.38), and social connectedness (m=2.33) were rated as less important. Of the motivation items created for this study, exposing a young person to new activities was rated as important (4.45) whereas not having children at home (2.56) and having had a mentor and now wanting to give back (2.32) were rated as less important.

Exhibit MM_OVERALL_FUNCTIONS Motivations for Mentoring



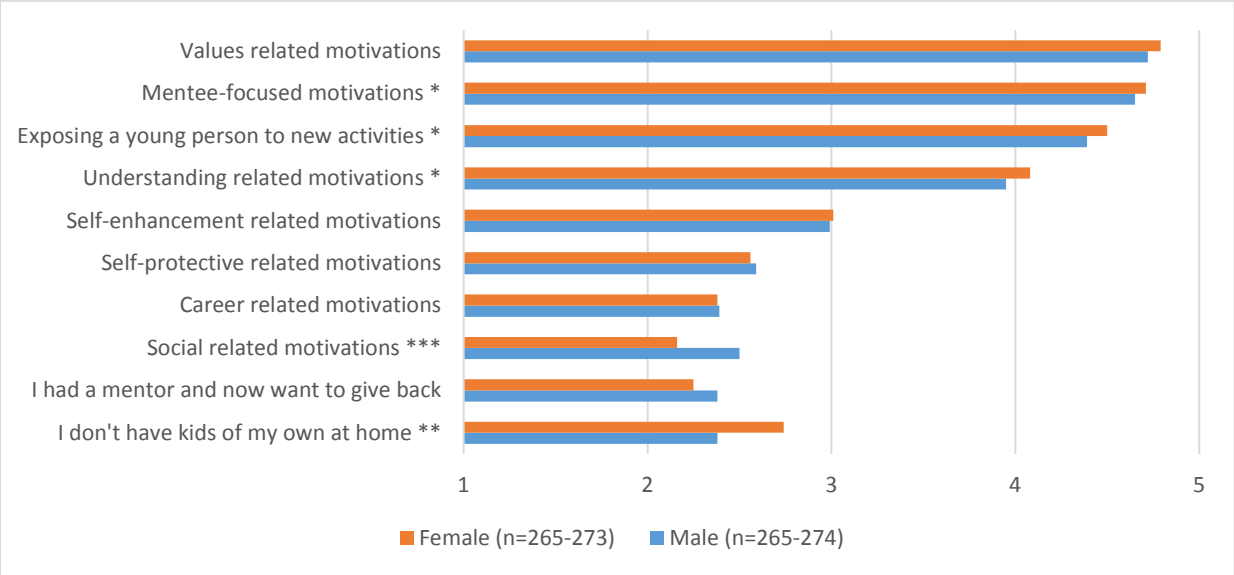
The sections that follow explore differences in in ratings of importance of motivations among different groups based on respondent characteristics such as demographics, life situation (e.g. marital status), and mentor status (e.g., whether the respondent was later matched with a mentee). Discussion focuses first on bivariate relationships between each respondent characteristic and motivations for mentoring; later discussions introduce multivariate models that explore relationships between each respondent characteristic and a motivation, net of the relationships between the other characteristics and the motivation.

Motivations, by Gender

Examinations of gender differences in motivations for mentoring indicated that ratings of importance by males and females followed the same general pattern: motivations related to values and mentee-focused motivations were the most important, with those related to social connectedness, career, and self-protection the least important; see ***Exhibit MM_GENDER_FUNCTIONS.*** This general pattern notwithstanding, males and females did differ somewhat on how important they rated several motivations – the differences were statistically significant though relatively small. Females rated as more important than males mentee-focused motivations (4.71 versus 4.65), exposing a young person to

new activities (4.71 versus 4.65), and motivations related to improving understanding (4.08 versus 3.95), all of which were rated as important by both genders. Males rated motivations related to social considerations (e.g. people close to me want me to mentor) higher than females (2.5 versus 2.16), though it was not a very important motivation for either gender. Finally, not having a child at home was rated as a substantially more important motivation for females than for males (2.74 versus 2.38).

Exhibit MM_GENDER_FUNCTIONS. Motivations for Mentoring, by Gender

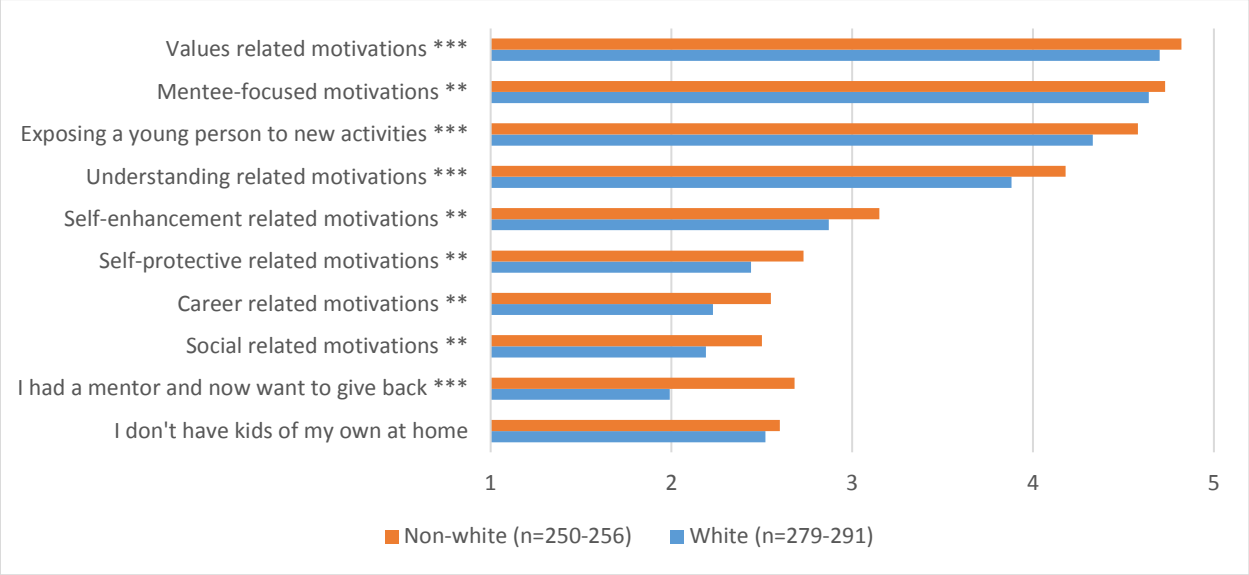


Note: * significant at p<.05, ** significant at p<.01, and *** significant at p<.001.

Motivations, by Race

Similar to the findings on gender differences just discussed, examination of racial differences in motivations to mentor indicated that ratings of importance by white respondents and non-white respondents followed the same general pattern: motivations related to values and mentee-focused motivations were the most important, with those related to social connectedness, career, and self-protection the least important; see ***Exhibit MM_RACE_FUNCTIONS***. However, for *all* of the categories of motivations for mentoring except one, non-white respondents rated each category of motivations as more important than did white respondents. For each category, the differences were statistically significant though relatively small. Only for the item on not having a child at home was there no statistically significant difference.

Exhibit MM_RACE_FUNCTIONS. Motivations for Mentoring, by Race



Note: * significant at p<.05, ** significant at p<.01, and *** significant at p<.001.

Motivations, by Age

Examination of differences between age groups in motivations to mentor indicated that to a large extent, ratings of importance followed the same general pattern as previously reported: motivations related to values and mentee-focused motivations were the most important, with those related to social connectedness, career, and self-protection the least important; see ***Exhibit MM_AGE_FUNCTIONS***. Some exceptions are noted below with regard to differences in importance ratings among the age groups.

Respondents ages 18-25 rated four categories of motivations as more important than did respondents ages 26-35 or 36+: mentee-focused motivations (4.76 versus 4.65 and 4.63, respectively), understanding-related motivations (4.24 versus 4.02 and 3.73, respectively) career-related motivations (2.91 versus 2.23 and 1.94, respectively), and self-protective motivations (2.80 versus 2.50 and 2.38, respectively). For understanding- and career related motivations, ratings by respondents ages 26-35 were significantly higher than those by respondents ages 36+; ratings of mentee-focused and self-protection motivations did not significantly differ between respondents ages 26-35 and ages 36+.

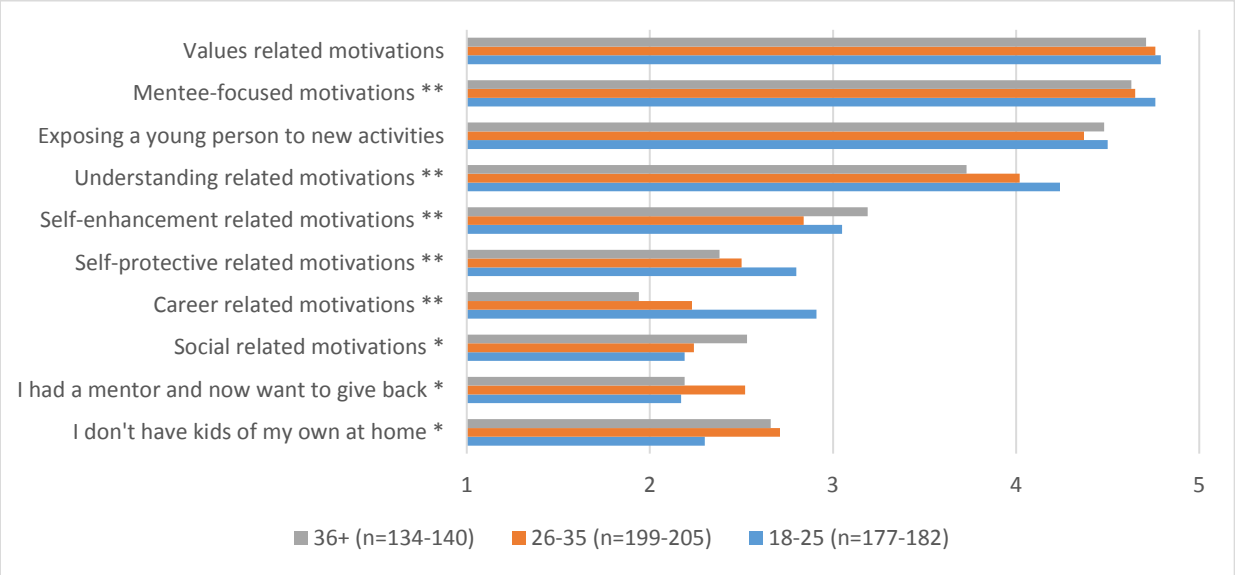
Respondents ages 36+ gave higher ratings of importance than respondents ages 26-35 to two categories of motivations:

motivations related to self-enhancement (3.19 versus 2.84) and motivations related to social considerations (2.53 versus 2.24). For these categories of motivations, ratings of importance did not significantly differ between respondents 18-25 and ages 26-35 or between respondents ages 18-25 and ages 36+.

Not having a child at home was a less important motivation for respondents ages 18-25 (2.3) than those ages 26-35 (2.71) or 36+ (2.66).

Having had a mentor and wanting to now give back was a more important motivation for respondents ages 26-35 (2.52) than those ages 18-25 (2.17) or 36+ (2.19).

Exhibit MM_AGE_ FUNCTIONS. Motivations for Mentoring, by Age



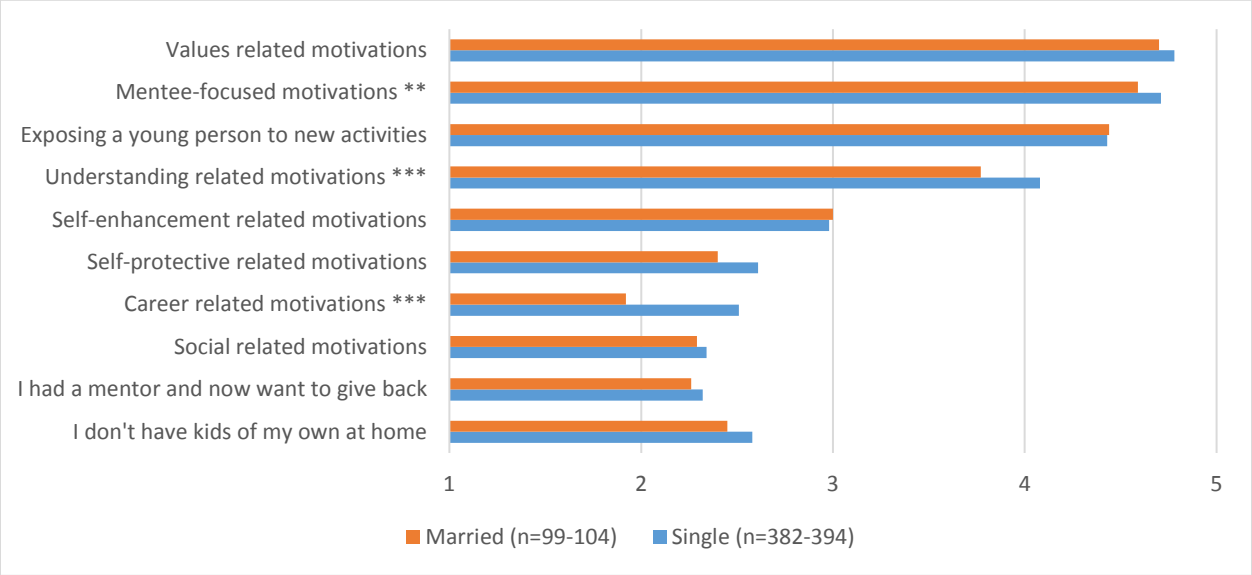
Note: * significant at p<.05, ** significant at p<.01, and *** significant at p<.001.

Motivations, by Marital Status

Similar to the findings on gender and racial differences discussed above, examinations of differences between married and single respondents in motivations to mentor indicated that ratings of importance by followed the same general pattern: motivations related to values and mentee-focused motivations were the most important, with those related to social connectedness, career, and self-protection the least important; see ***Exhibit MM_MARITAL_FUNCTIONS***.

This general pattern notwithstanding, single and married respondents did differ somewhat on how important they rated several motivations. Single respondents rated mentee-focused motivations as slightly more important than married respondents (4.71 versus 4.59), somewhat higher ratings on understanding-related motivation (4.08 versus 3.77), and substantially higher ratings on career-related motivations (2.51 versus 1.92). The latter difference may be due at least in part to single respondents being younger and earlier in their careers than married respondents; the relative influence of each demographic characteristic net of the influence of the other characteristics will be discussed later when we present results of comprehensive models that included all of the characteristics as independent variables to explain ratings for each of the motivation categories.

Exhibit MM_MARITAL_FUNCTIONS. Motivations for Mentoring, by Marital Status



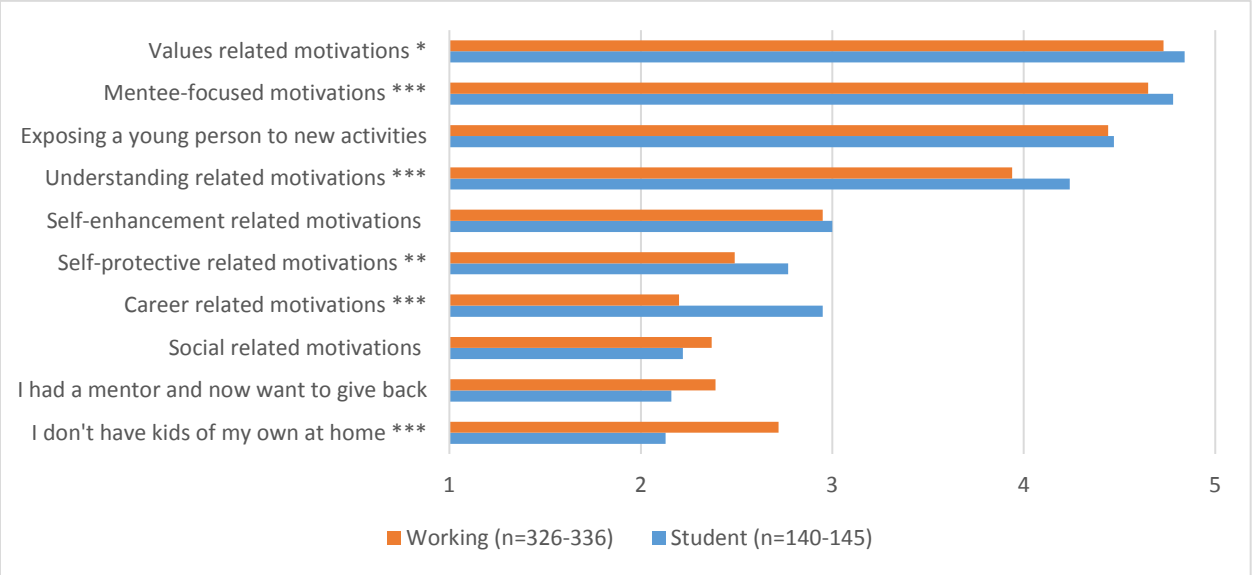
Note: * significant at p<.05, ** significant at p<.01, and *** significant at p<.001.

Motivations, by Work Status

Again, examinations of differences between student and working respondents in motivations to mentor indicated that ratings of importance followed the same general pattern: motivations related to values and mentee-focused motivations were the most important, with those related to social connectedness, career, and self-protection the least important; see ***Exhibit MM_MATCH_FUNCTIONS***. For five of the ten categories of motivations, students rated each of the

motivations as more important than did working respondents; in particular, students rated career-related motivations as substantially more important than did working respondents (2.95 versus 2.20). Working respondents reported that not having a child at home was a more important motivation to mentor than did students (2.72 versus 2.13). As noted above regarding marital status, differences between students and working respondents may be, in part, related to age.

Exhibit MM_MATCH. Motivations for Mentoring, by Work Status FUNCTIONS



Note: * significant at p<.05, ** significant at p<.01, and *** significant at p<.001.

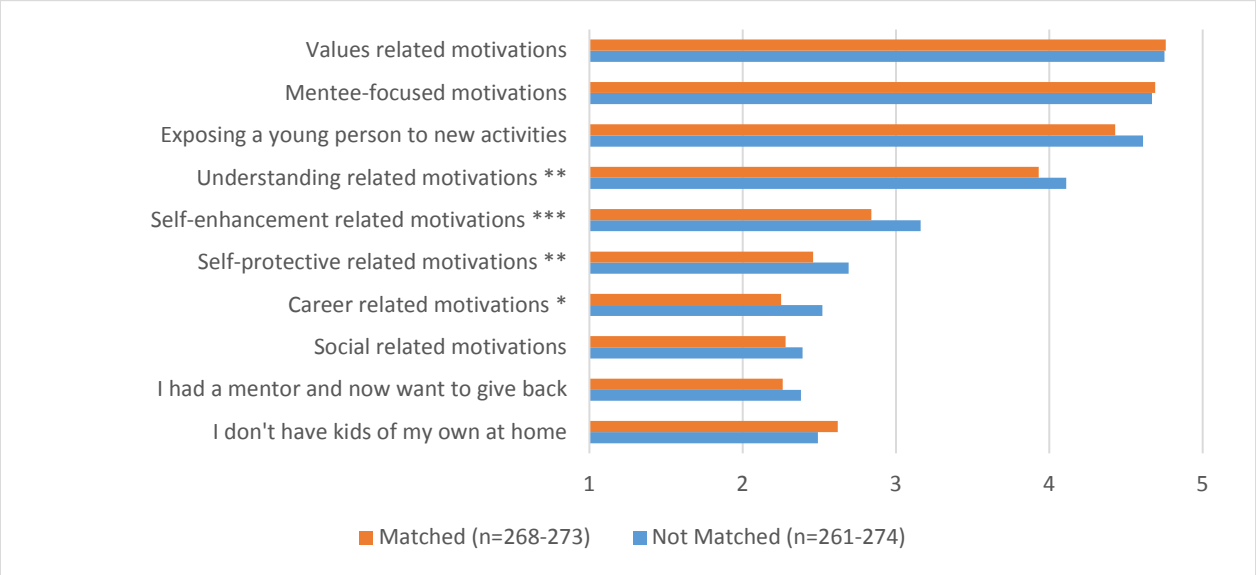
Motivations, by Match Status

As noted earlier, the ***Mentoring Motivations and Concerns Survey*** was completed by potential mentors during an orientation to BBBST. At that point, potential mentors had not been accepted into the mentoring program; some would go on to be matched with a mentee and others would not. Therefore, we compared ratings of motivations by respondents who were subsequently matched with a mentee to those by respondents who, for a variety of reasons, were not matched. In considering these findings, it is important to keep in mind that being matched came *after* providing ratings; match status did not cause or influence ratings of importance of the various motivations for mentoring. This approach allowed for exploration of the relationship between the importance that respondents placed on various motivations for mentoring or

concerns about mentoring and their likelihood of later being matched.

Respondents who were later matched had, in fact, placed less importance on several categories of motivations than respondents who were not matched; see ***Exhibit MM_MATCH_FUNCTIONS.*** Respondents who were later matched placed less importance on motivations related to understanding (3.93 versus 4.11), self-enhancement (2.84 versus 3.16), self-protection (2.46 versus 2.69), and career (2.25 versus 2.52).

Exhibit MM_MATCH_FUNCTIONS. Motivations for Mentoring, by Match Status

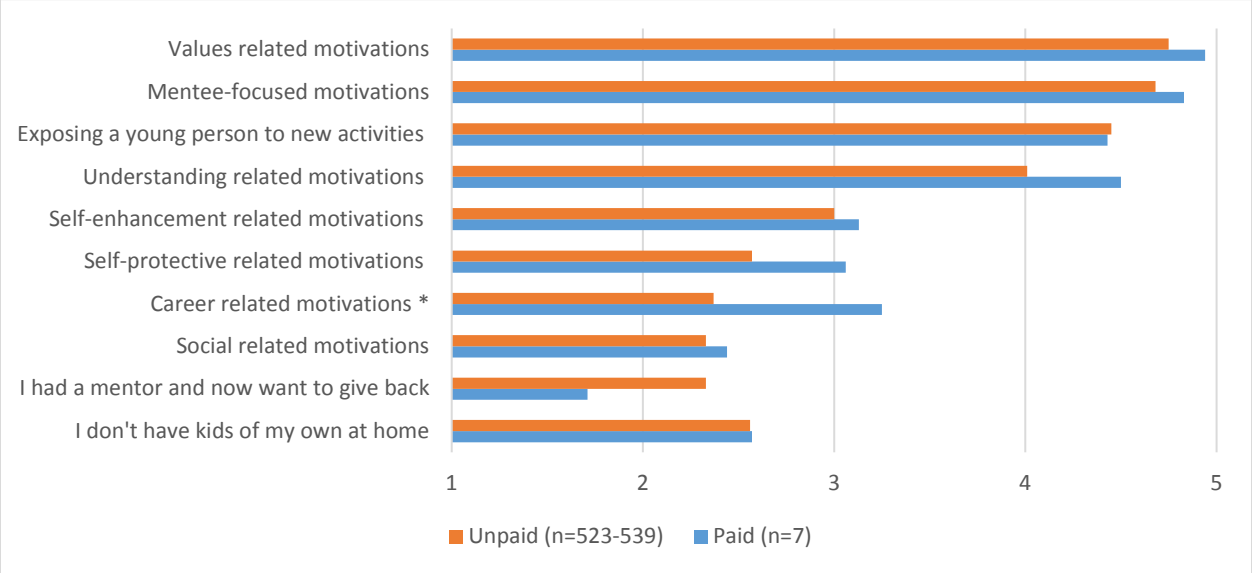


Note: * significant at p<.05, ** significant at p<.01, and *** significant at p<.001.

Motivations, by Paid Status

We compared motivations for mentoring between respondents who received payment—a very small group, for reasons discussed elsewhere in this report—and those who did not. Statistically significant differences were found for only one category of motivations: respondents who were paid rated career-related motivations as substantially more important than did respondents who were not paid (3.25 versus 2.37); see ***Exhibit MM_PAID_FUNCTIONS***. Other apparent differences were not statistically significant, which may be due in part to the very small number of respondents who were paid to mentor.

Exhibit MM_PAID_FUNCTIONS. Motivations for Mentoring, by Paid Status



Note: * significant at p<.05, ** significant at p<.01, and *** significant at p<.001.

Exhibit BV_MOTIVES. Summary of Bivariate Models of Motivations for about Mentoring

	Gender	Race	Age	Marital Status
Career-related Motivations		Nonwhite > White	18-25 > 26-35 18-25 > 36+ 26-35 > 36+	Single > Married
Social-related motivations	Male > Female	Nonwhite > White	26-35 < 36+	
Values-related motivations		Nonwhite > White		
Understanding-related motivations	Male < Female	Nonwhite > White	18-25 > 26-35 18-25 > 36+ 26-35 > 36+	Single > Married
Enhancement-related motivations		Nonwhite > White	26-35 < 36+	
Self-protection motivations		Nonwhite > White	18-25 > 26-35 18-25 > 36+	
Mentee-focused motivations	Male < Female	Nonwhite > White	18-25 > 26-35 18-25 > 36+	Single > Married
Expose youth to new activities	Male < Female	Nonwhite > White		
Don't have kids at home	Male < Female		18-25 <26-35 18-25 < 36+	
Had mentor, want to give back		Nonwhite > White	18-25 <26-35 18-25 > 36+	

Note: "Male > Female" indicates that males rated the motivation as more important than females.
"Male < Female" indicates that males rated the motivation as less important than females.
The same coding scheme is used for the other motivations.

Exhibit BV_MOTIVES summarizes findings on the bivariate relationships between each respondent characteristic and motivations for mentoring. (Exhibit BV_MOTIVES focuses on the respondent characteristics that were used in multivariate models discussed later, excluding student/work status, match status, and paid status.)

The exhibit brings into focus the array of findings discussed above:

- A strong pattern of nonwhite respondents rated all but one of the queried motivations as more important than their white counterparts
- Female respondents rated four motivation categories as more important than male respondents-- including three of the four categories rated as most important
- Respondents ages 18-25 rated many motivations as more important than older respondents—though respondents ages 36+ rated motivations related to social considerations and to improving understanding as more important than respondents 26-35
- Single respondents rated mentee-focused motivations and motivations related to improving understanding as more important than married respondents—as well as career-related motivations, which may be in part a function of single respondents tending to be younger than married respondents.

Concerns About Mentoring

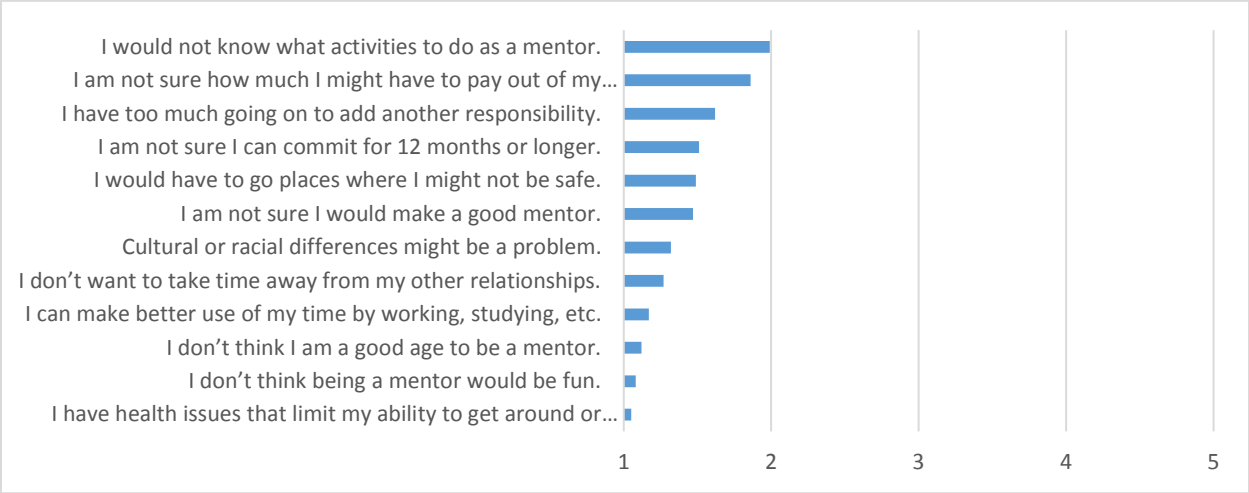
To study concerns that people might have about mentoring, we asked survey respondents to indicate how much of a concern each item was for them as they considered becoming a mentor. Ratings were gathered using a scale of 1 (not at all concerned) to 5 (extremely concerned); a higher score indicated that that the item was more of a concern. As noted above, all of these findings should be viewed in light of the fact that the data came from people who were sufficiently interested in mentoring to attend an orientation session.

Concerns, Overall

Looking at overall mean ratings of how concerned respondents were about a number of possible concerns, the most striking finding is how low the ratings of concerns were; see ***Exhibit C_OVERALL***. The highest rated concern was that the respondent would not know what activities to do as a mentor, but the mean was only 1.99, with the response option 2 equivalent to “a little concerned.” Of 12 possible concerns

queried, 8 received mean ratings of less than 1.5, with the response option 1 equivalent to "not at all concerned." Again, these low levels of concern were reported by respondents who were sufficiently interested in mentoring to attend an orientation session.

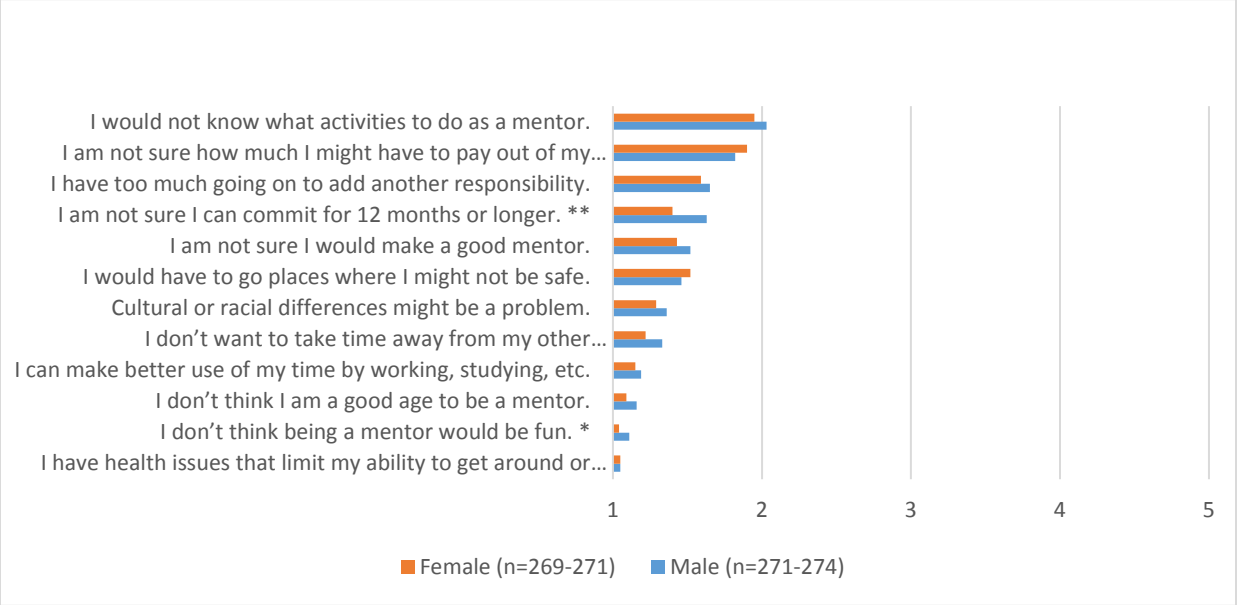
Exhibit C_OVERALL. Concerns about Mentoring



Concerns, by Gender

Males expressed larger concerns than females about 3 types of concerns: not being sure about being able to commit for 12 months or longer (1.63 versus 1.4); not wanting to take time away from other relationships (1.33 versus 1.22); and not thinking that being a mentor would be fun (1.11 versus 1.04); see ***Exhibit C_GENDER***. These statistically significant differences notwithstanding, these concerns, particularly the last one, are not a large concern for either gender.

Exhibit C_GENDER. Concerns about Mentoring, by Gender

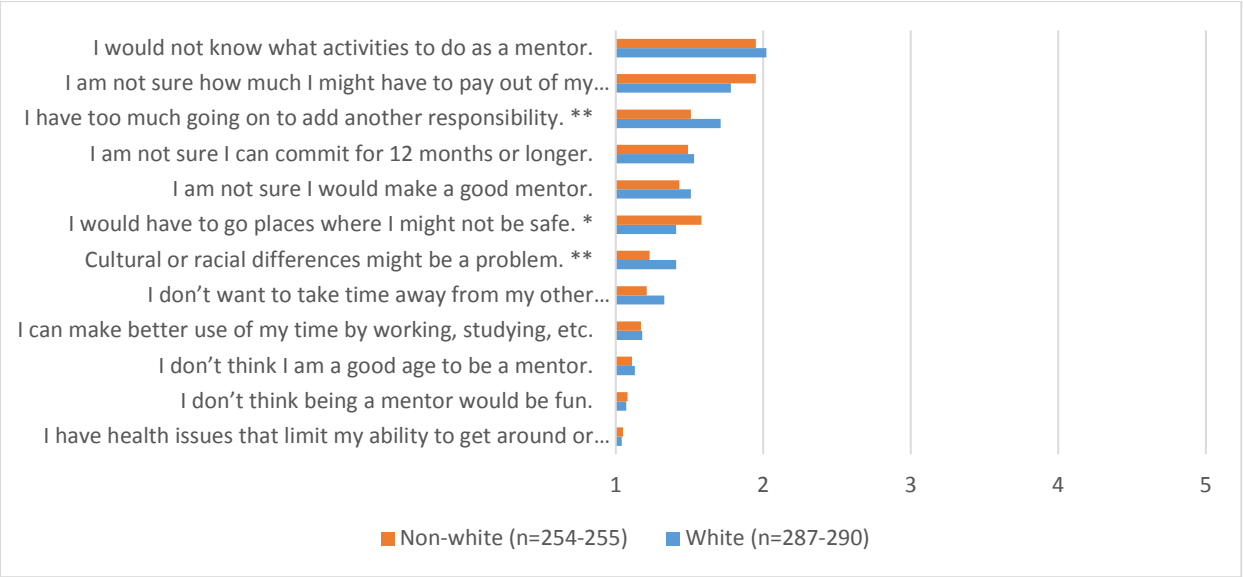


Note: * significant at p<.05, ** significant at p<.01, and *** significant at p<.001.

Concerns, by Race

Regarding differences in concerns between white and non-white respondents, white respondents reported being more concerned about having too much going on to add another responsibility (1.71 versus 1.51), that cultural or racial differences might be a problem (1.41 versus 1.23), and not wanting to take time away from other relationships (1.33 versus 1.21); see ***Exhibit C_RACE***. Non-white respondents reported a higher level of concern about having to go places where they might not be safe (1.58 versus 1.41). Because this study is interested in part on payment of mentors, it may be worth noting that the difference between white and non-white respondent ratings of concern over not being sure how much they might have to pay out of their own pocket approached statistical significance, p = 0.058, with non-whites tending to be more concerned (1.95 versus 1.78).

Exhibit C_RACE. Concerns about Mentoring, by Race



Note: * significant at p<.05, ** significant at p<.01, and *** significant at p<.001.

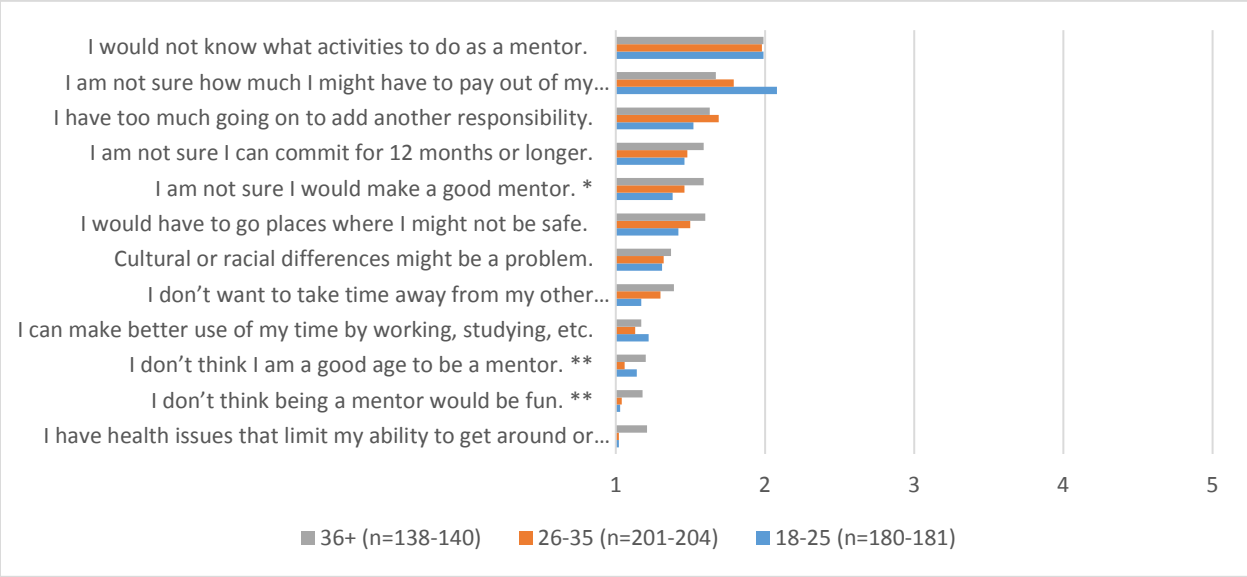
Concerns, by Age

Regarding different levels of concerns among the age groups, respondents ages 36+ expressed higher levels of concern than younger respondents in five areas; see ***Exhibit C_AGE***. Respondents ages 36+ reported higher levels of concern than both respondents ages 18-25 and respondents ages 26-35 on a) not thinking that being a mentor would be fun (1.18 versus 1.04 and 1.3, respectively) and b) having health issues that limit their ability to get around or interact (1.21 versus 1.02 and 1.02, respectively). Respondents ages 36+ were also more concerned than respondents ages 18-25 on not wanting to take time away from other relationships (1.39 versus 1.17); respondents ages 26-35 were also more concerned on this item (1.3) than the younger respondents. Respondents ages 36+ expressed more concern than respondents ages 18-25 about not being sure they would make good mentors (1.59 versus 1.46). Respondents ages 36+ were also more concerned than respondents ages 26-35 that there are not a good age to be a mentor (1.20 versus 1.06).

In only one area did the youngest respondents express more concern than older respondents. Respondents ages 18-25 reported more concern about not being sure how much they might have to pay out of their own pocket (2.08) than

respondents ages 26-35 (1.79) and respondents ages 36+ (1.67).

Exhibit C_AGE. Concerns about Mentoring, by Age



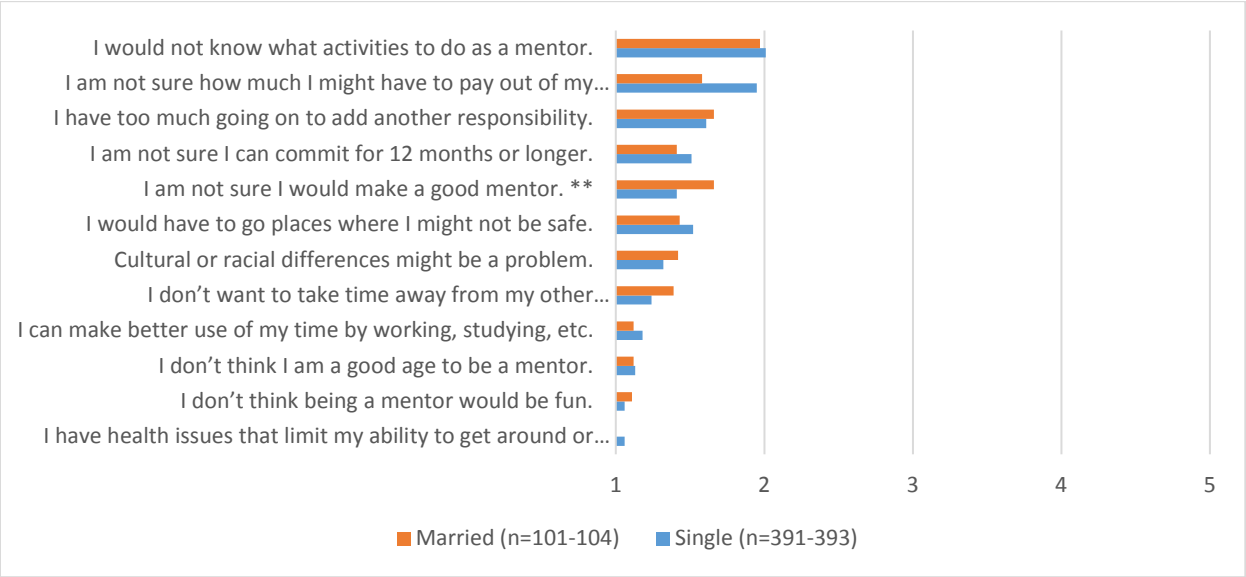
Note: * significant at p<.05, ** significant at p<.01, and *** significant at p<.001.

Concerns, by Marital Status

Single respondents were more concerned than married respondents about not being sure how much they might have to pay out of pocket (1.95 versus 1.58); see ***Exhibit C_MARITAL***. As noted earlier, this may be related to single respondents being younger, on average, than married respondents.

Married respondents expressed more concern than single respondents about a) not being sure they would be a good mentor (1.66 versus 1.41) and b) not wanting to take time away from other relationships (1.39 versus 1.24).

Exhibit C_MARITAL. Concerns about Mentoring, by Marital Status

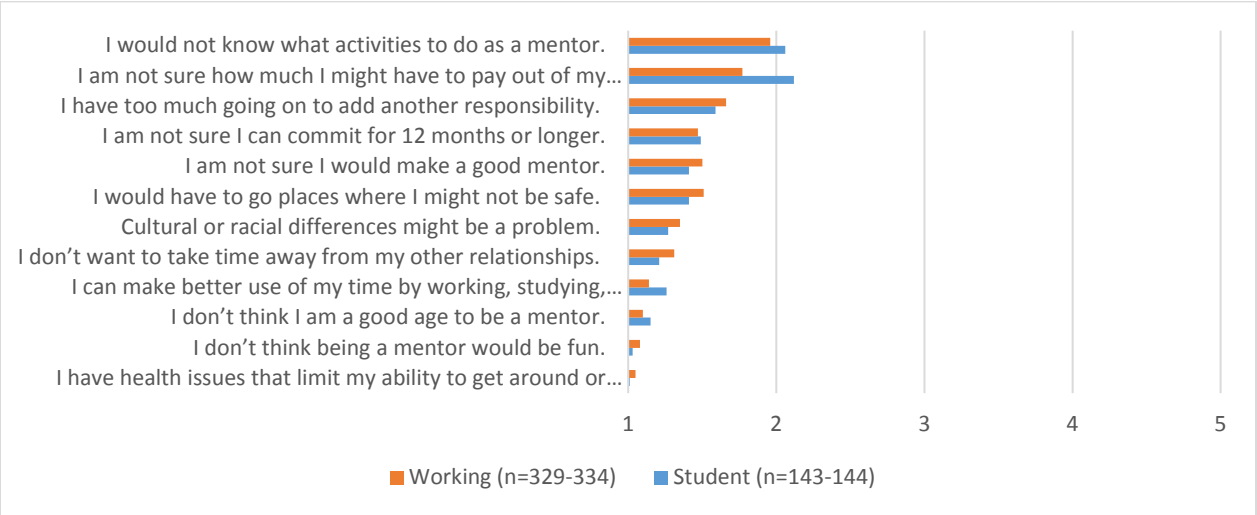


Note: * significant at p<.05, ** significant at p<.01, and *** significant at p<.001.

Concerns, by Work Status

Students reported higher levels of concern than working respondents in two areas; see ***Exhibit C_WORK***. First, student were more concerned about not being sure how much they might have to pay out of pocket (2.12 versus 1.77). Second, students were more likely to report that they could make better use of their time by working, studying or doing other activities (1.26 versus 1.14). Given that many students are short on time and money, these findings are not surprising.

Exhibit C_WORK. Concerns about Mentoring, by Work Status

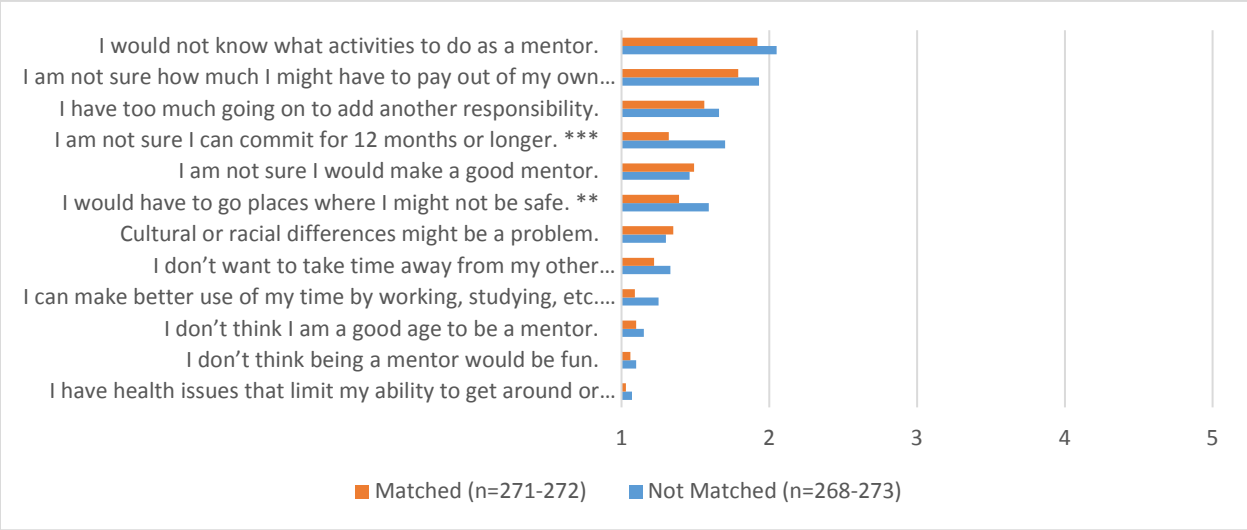


Note: * significant at p<.05, ** significant at p<.01, and *** significant at p<.001.

Concerns, by Match Status

Respondents who were subsequently matched with a mentee reported lower levels of concern in several areas, compared with respondents who were not later matched. Those who were matched reported less concern over a) not being sure they could commit for 12 months or longer (1.32 versus 1.70), b) having to go places where they might not be safe (1.39 versus 1.59), c) not wanting to take time away from other relationships (1.22 versus 1.33), and d) being able to make better use of their time (1.09 versus 1.25); see ***Exhibit C_MATCH***.

Exhibit C_MATCH. Concerns about Mentoring, by Match Status



Note: * significant at p<.05, ** significant at p<.01, and *** significant at p<.001.

Concerns, by Paid Status

There was only one statistically significant difference in level of concern between respondents who were paid versus those who were not (including those who were not matched). Those who were paid were substantially more concerned about not being sure how much they might have to pay out of pocket (2.75 versus 1.85); see ***Exhibit C_PAID***.

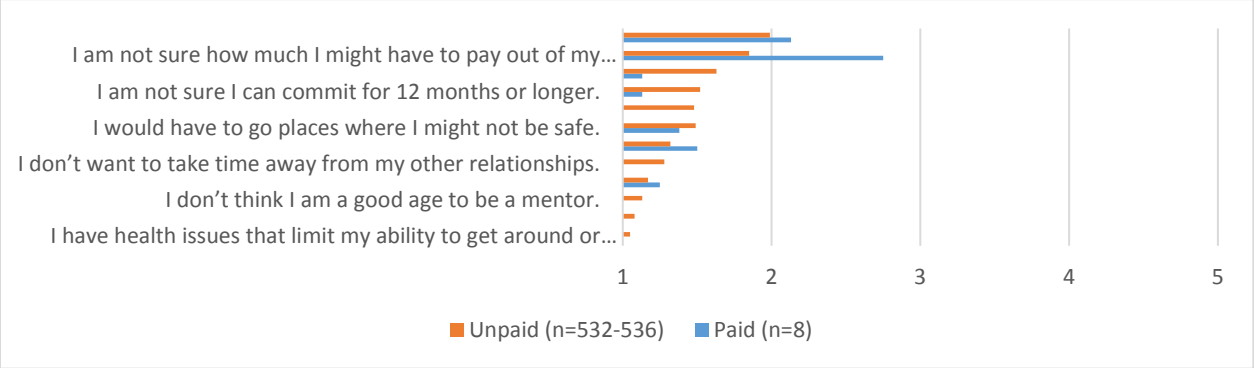
Exhibit C_PAID. Concerns about Mentoring, by Paid Status

	Gender	Race	Age	Marital Status
I am not sure how much I might have to pay out of my own pocket.			18-25 > 26-35 18-25 > 36+	Single > Married
I would not know what activities to do as a mentor.				
I would have to go places where I might not be safe.		Nonwhite > White		
I have too much going on to add another responsibility.		Nonwhite < White		
I am not sure I can commit for 12 months or longer.	Male > Female			
I don't want to take time away from my other relationships.	Male > Female	Nonwhite < White	18-25 < 26-35 18-25 < 36+	Single < Married
I am not sure I would make a good mentor.			18-25 < 36+	Single < Married
Cultural or racial differences might be a problem.		Nonwhite < White		
I have health issues that limit my ability to get around or interact.			18-25 < 36+ 26-35 < 36+	
I don't think I am a good age to be a mentor.			26-35 < 36+	
I don't think being a mentor would be fun.	Male > Female		18-25 < 36+ 26-35 < 36+	
I can make better use of my time by working, studying, etc.				

Note: * significant at p<.05, ** significant at p<.01, and *** significant at p<.001.

Exhibit BV_CONCERNS summarizes findings on the bivariate relationships between each respondent characteristic and possible concerns about mentoring. (As with the previous exhibit on differences in motivations, Exhibit BV_CONCERNS focuses on the respondent characteristics that were used in multivariate models discussed later, excluding student/work status, match status, and paid status.)

Exhibit BV_CONCERNS. Summary of Bivariate Models of Concerns about Mentoring



Note: "Male > Female" indicates that males rated the issue as more of a concern than females. "Male < Female" indicates that males rated the issue as less of a concern than females. The same coding scheme is used for the other concern.

The exhibit brings into focus the pattern of findings discussed above:

- Male respondents expressed greater concerns than female respondents in three areas (committing for 12 months or longer; taking time away from other relationships; and mentoring not being fun)
- White respondents expressed greater concerns than nonwhite respondents in three areas (taking on another responsibility; culture or racial differences possibly being a problem; and taking time away from other relationships) whereas nonwhite respondents expressed more concern about having to go places where they might not be safe)
- Younger respondents expressed less concern than older respondents in a number of areas, but more concern about not being sure how much they might have to pay out of pocket
- Single respondents expressed less concern about taking time away from other relationships or not being sure they would be a good mentor, but more concern about not being sure how much they might have to pay out of pocket

Multivariate Models

This section presents multivariate models that explore relationships between each respondent characteristic and a motivation, net of the relationships between the other characteristics and the motivation. Results of the multivariate models on motivations for mentoring are summarized in ***Exhibit MV_MOTIVES***; the exhibit puts the multivariate findings into the context of the previously discussed findings on the bivariate relationships between each respondent characteristic and motivations for mentoring. Differences

between respondent characteristics in ratings of motivations that were statistically significant in both the bivariate and multivariate models are shown in black type. In some instances, differences that were significant in the bivariate models were no longer significant in the multivariate models; these associations are shown in red type and placed into braces.

Exhibit MV_MOTIVES. Summary of Multivariate Models of Motivations for about Mentoring

	Gender	Race	Age	Marital Status
Career-related Motivations		Nonwhite > White	18-25 > 26-35 18-25 > 36+ 26-35 > 36+	[Single > Married]
Social-related motivations	Male > Female	Nonwhite > White	[26-35 < 36+]	
Values-related motivations		Nonwhite > White		
Understanding-related motivations	[Male < Female]	Nonwhite > White	18-25 > 26-35 18-25 > 36+ 26-35 > 36+	[Single > Married]
Enhancement-related motivations		Nonwhite > White	26-35 < 36+	
Self-protection motivations		Nonwhite > White	18-25 > 26-35 18-25 > 36+	
Mentee-focused motivations	[Male < Female]	Nonwhite > White	18-25 > 26-35 18-25 > 36+	[Single > Married]
Expose youth to new activities	[Male < Female]	Nonwhite > White		
Don't have kids at home	Male < Female		18-25 <26-35 18-25 < 36+	
Had mentor, want to give back		Nonwhite > White	18-25 <26-35 18-25 > 36+	

Note: "Male > Female" indicates that males rated the motivation as more important than females.

"Male < Female" indicates that males rated the motivation as less important than females.

The same coding scheme is used for the other motivations.

As shown in Exhibit MV_MOTIVES, many of the bivariate differences involving gender or marital status were no longer statistically significant in the multivariate models. Concerning gender, females had rated three of the most important motivations as slightly more important than had males; in the multivariate models, these differences were no longer statistically significant. In the multivariate models, the only gender difference that remained significant were that females

rated it more important than males that they did not have children at home, and males rated motivations related to social considerations (e.g. people I'm close to want me to mentor) as more important.

Regarding marital status, in the bivariate models single respondents had rated three types of motivations as more important than married respondents. In the multivariate models, none of these differences remained statistically significant. In each case, in the bivariate models there had also been differences between the age groups; age and marital status were themselves related, and it is likely that age explained the differences in ratings that were also found for marital status.

We also ran multivariate models that explored relationships between each respondent characteristic and a possible concern about mentoring, net of the relationships between the other characteristics and the possible concern; results are summarized in ***Exhibit MV_CONCERNS.*** As with the previous exhibit, Exhibit MV_CONCERNS puts the multivariate findings into the context of the previously discussed findings on the bivariate relationships between each respondent characteristic and concerns about mentoring. In addition to some previously observed differences becoming non-significant, one difference that had not been significant was now significant in the multivariate model; that effect is shown in green type and italics.

Exhibit MV_CONCERNS. Summary of Multivariate Models of Concerns about Mentoring

	Gender	Race	Age	Marital Status
I am not sure how much I might have to pay out of my own pocket.			18-25 > 26-35 18-25 > 36+	[Single > Married]
I would not know what activities to do as a mentor.				
I would have to go places where I might not be safe.		Nonwhite > White	*18-25 < 36+*	
I have too much going on to add another responsibility.		Nonwhite < White		
I am not sure I can commit for 12 months or longer.	Male > Female			
I don't want to take time away from my other relationships.	[Male > Female]	[Nonwhite < White]	[18-25 < 26-35] 18-25 < 36+	Single < Married
I am not sure I would make a good mentor.			[18-25 < 36+]	[Single < Married]
Cultural or racial differences might be a problem.		Nonwhite < White		
I have health issues that limit my ability to get around or interact.			18-25 < 36+ 26-35 < 36+	
I don't think I am a good age to be a mentor.			26-35 < 36+	
I don't think being a mentor would be fun.	[Male > Female]		18-25 < 36+ 26-35 < 36+	
I can make better use of my time by working, studying, or doing other activities.				

Note: "Male > Female" indicates that males rated the issue as more of a concern than females.

"Male < Female" indicates that males rated the issue as less of a concern than females.

The same coding scheme is used for the other concern.

As was previously seen regarding motivations for mentoring, in the multivariate models of concerns about mentoring, some differences between respondent groups that were statistically significant in the bivariate models were no longer significant in the multivariate models:

Regarding gender, two of the three bivariate differences in which males expressed more concern than females were not significant in the multivariate models

- One of bivariate differences in which white respondents expressed more concern than nonwhite respondents was not significant in the multivariate model

- Regarding age, two bivariate differences in which respondents ages 18-25 expressed more concern than older respondents were not significant in the multivariate models
- Regarding marital status, two of the three bivariate differences were not significant in the multivariate models; one of these differences fell just below the level of statistical significance (p=.057)

One difference was statistically significant in the multivariate models that was not significant in the bivariate models: respondents ages 18-25 were less concerned than respondents ages 36+ about having to go places where they might not be safe. However, in the bivariate model this difference fell just short of statistical significance (p = .08); it being significant in the multivariate model was not a major change.

Similarly, in the multivariate model for the concern about not being sure about being able to commit for 12 months or longer, there was a difference that fell just short of statistical significance (p=0.055): the trend was for single respondents to express more concern than married respondents.

Analyses of Motivation and Concern Factors and Respondent Classes

To better understand respondent motivations for mentoring (and concerns about mentoring) and whether there were informative patterns and relationships among them, we conducted a series of complementary analyses:

a) correlations between types of motivations,
b) exploratory factor analyses to identify underlying factors, and
c) latent class analysis to identify groups of respondents with similar patterns of motivations.

Correlations between Motivations for Mentoring

Correlations between the types of motivations ranged from r = .12 to r = .55; see ***Exhibit CORR***. Given the relatively large number of respondents for whom data on motivations were available (sample sizes for each correlation were between 545 and 547), all of the correlations shown in Exhibit CORR are statistically significant. Of more interest is the finding that the values motivations function was quite strongly correlated with the mentee-focused motivations (r = .46) and not highly correlated with the other motivation functions (r's ranged from .11 to .19). The other functions that we adapted from the VFI

instrument (i.e., excluding the mentee-focused motivations) were quite strongly correlated, with r ranging from .31 to .55. These patterns are reflected in the findings from the exploratory factor analysis that follows.

Exhibit CORR. Correlations between Motivations for Mentoring

Pearson's r Probability	Career	Social	Values	Under-stand	Enhance-ment	Protect	Mentee-Focused
Career		0.35932 <.0001	0.11821 0.0057	0.52329 <.0001	0.47484 <.0001	0.54730 <.0001	0.24639 <.0001
Social			0.12308 0.0040	0.30533 <.0001	0.34985 <.0001	0.43677 <.0001	0.20212 <.0001
Values				0.19024 <.0001	0.11166 0.0090	0.13172 0.0020	0.45727 <.0001
Understanding					0.43899 <.0001	0.48128 <.0001	0.35574 <.0001
Enhancement						0.54886 <.0001	0.26722 <.0001
Protect							0.27804 <.0001
Mentee-Focused							

Dimensionality of Motivations and Concerns

We used factor analysis to determine if there was an underlying structure or dimensionality to respondent motivations for mentoring or, separately, concerns about mentoring. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was initially used to suggest the number and structure of factors which were then examined for fit on a variety of common indices using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). All latent variable models were estimated using Mplus version 7.2 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2014). EFA were conducted using geomin rotation.

Exhibit M_LOADINGS. EFA factor loadings, motivations for mentoring

	Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
1.	I want to teach a young person values important for success.	**0.734**	-0.010
2.	I want to influence a young person's success in school.	**0.727**	-0.002
3.	My friends mentor.	0.076	**0.399**
4.	People I'm close to want me to mentor.	0.042	**0.536**
5.	No matter how bad I've been feeling, mentoring helps me to forget about it.	0.050	**0.691**
6.	I am concerned about helping a young person reach his or her full potential.	**0.349**	0.044
7.	I am genuinely concerned about children and youths.	**0.420**	0.066
8.	Mentoring relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.	-0.099	**0.534**
9.	Mentoring will give me the opportunity to make an important difference in a young person's life.	**0.313**	0.053
10.	Mentoring allows me to gain a new perspective on things.	0.106	**0.498**
11.	I feel it is important to help others.	0.261	0.143
12.	Mentoring will help me succeed in my job or profession.	0.038	**0.651**
13.	By mentoring, I can form a relationship with a young person that enriches my life.	0.156	**0.517**
14.	Mentoring makes me feel needed.	-0.075	**0.709**
15.	Mentoring makes me feel better about myself.	-0.068	**0.725**
16.	Mentoring experience will look good on my resume.	-0.048	**0.658**
17.	By mentoring, I can explore my own strengths.	0.000	**0.607**
18.	By mentoring, I can expose a young person to new activities.	0.308	0.243
19.	I don't have kids of my own (or have kids who are grown and living on their own).	-0.032	**0.295**
20.	Growing up, I had a mentor and now I want to give back.	0.126	0.184

Motivation Factors. The scree plot of eigenvalues for the 20 motivation items strongly suggested that two factors were sufficient. Rotated loadings are displayed below in ***Exhibit M_LOADINGS***. Factors strongly associated with a single factor are bolded to denote the implied factor structure.

The two factors were correlated at r = 0.196 (p<.05). Although significant, this correlation is fairly low and suggests that the two dimensions that motivate a person to mentor youth are largely independent.

Substantively, the two factors captured motivations to mentor for two reasons: benefits to the mentee (items 1, 2, 6, 7, 9) and benefits to oneself (items 3, 4, 5, 8, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16,

17, 19). Items 11, 18, and 20 were not assigned to either factor as these items had overall low loadings and did not load cleanly on a single factor (i.e., loadings of the item were comparable for both factors). Reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of the youth-focused items was fair: α=0.64. Reliability was better for the self-focused motivations: α =0.84.

Additional EFA results with more than two factors and modification indices from confirmatory factor analysis models were inspected to determine if these two dimensions could be improved and if items 11, 18, and 20 could be assigned to a factor. Improvements to the dimensions could not be made and these three items remained unassigned.

Concerns Factors. The EFA for concerns about mentoring indicated one factor/dimension was sufficient and that all 12 items loaded adequately on this single factor. EFA factor loadings from the single factor solution are shown in ***Exhibit C_LOADINGS***.

Exhibit C_LOADINGS. EFA factor loadings, concerns about mentoring.

Item	Loading
1. I am not sure how much I might have to pay out of my own pocket to mentor.	0.305
2. I would not know what activities to do as a mentor.	0.391
3. I would have to go places where I might not be safe.	0.310
4. I have too much going on to add another responsibility.	0.493
5. I am not sure I can commit for 12 months or longer.	0.439
6. I don't want to take time away from my other relationships.	0.582
7. I am not sure I would make a good mentor.	0.583
8. Cultural or racial differences might be a problem.	0.458
9. I have health issues that limit my ability to get around or interact with others.	0.409
10. I don't think I am a good age to be a mentor.	0.591
11. I don't think being a mentor would be fun.	0.641
12. I can make better use of my time by working, studying, or doing other activities.	0.600

EFA solutions with two or more factors resulted in multiple cross-loadings and indefinite factor structures hence the single dimension was retained. Reliability for concerns was adequate, α=0.75.

Conclusions Regarding Factors. Review of the motivations factors and the single concern factor suggested three patterns:

- The motivation factor related to the dimension of providing benefits to the mentee (items 1, 2, 6, 7, 9) was virtually synonymous with the mentee-focused cluster of items that we adapted from the Dubois instrument (items 1, 2, 6, 9 and 13).
- All of the other items from the VFI except one loaded on the motivation factor related to benefits to oneself; the remaining item (I feel it is important to help others) did not load on either factor.
- Two of the three items we created for our survey did not load onto either factor.

Results of the factor analyses did not substantially contribute new information. Moreover, it seemed that greater information and insights could be gained from studying the types of motivations as adapted from the VFI and from the instrument that Dubois provided, rather than aggregating the data into a very small number of factors (two for motivations, one for concerns). Therefore, we decided to use the motivations and concerns data as described previously, rather than the factors.

Profiles of Respondent Mentoring Motivations and Concerns

We used latent class analysis (LCA) to explore unobserved but distinct patterns of mentoring motivation and concern in the sample, to identify groups of respondents that shared similar response profiles. These analyses used the seven motivations functions and the single concerns scale as model indicators. LCA were estimated in Mplus 7.2 and varied the number of classes extracted from 2 to when computational difficulties in further classes arose, typically about 7 classes. The optimal number of classes was determined using comparative fit indices, primarily the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC). Criteria indicated that 5 classes were sufficient.

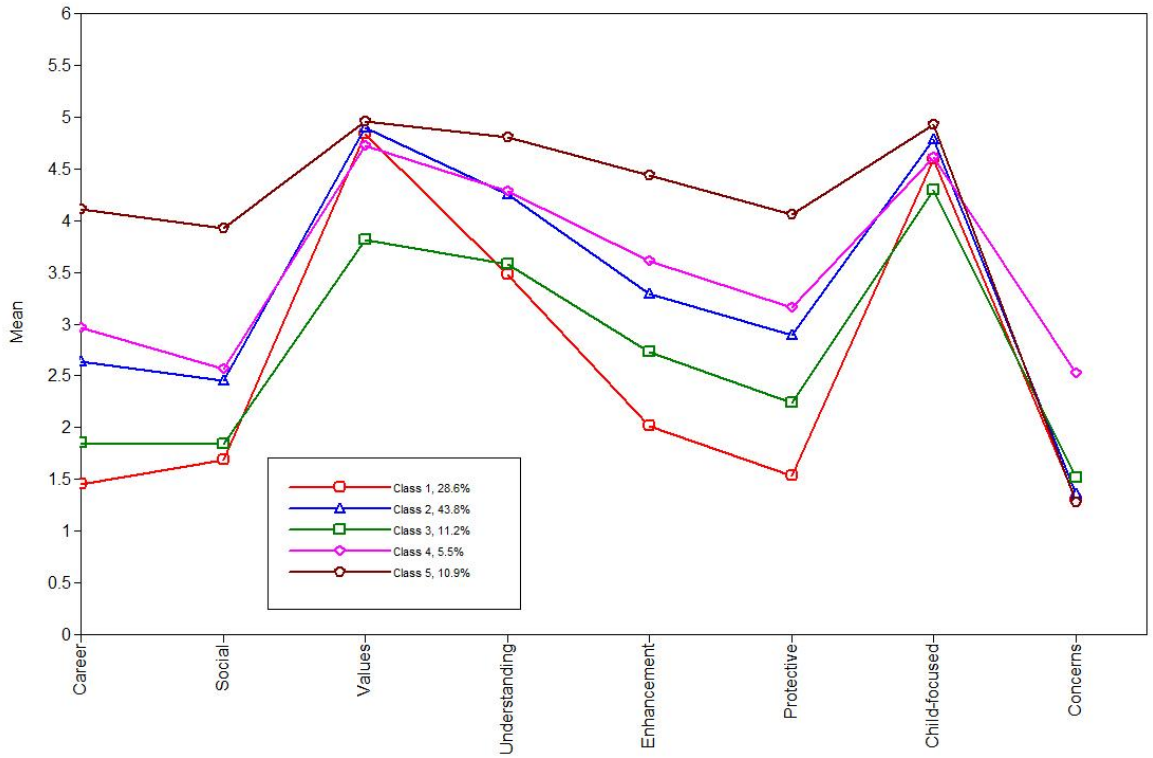
Exhibit LCAplot. shows the plots of the mean scores on each of the motivations functions and the concern scale, for each of the five identified classes or groups of respondents. Child-focused motivations did not vary much across classes. The five respondent classes are as follows:

- ***Class 2*** (44% of respondents) reported high values-based and child-based motivations and moderate self-interested motivations such as career- and social-related motivations.
- ***Class 1*** (29% of respondents) was characterized by low self-interested motivations (career, social, understanding,

enhancement and protective) and high value and child-focused motives.

- ***Class 3*** (11% of respondents) showed low motivations to mentor on all functions, most notably on the value function.
- ***Class 5*** (11% of respondents) was characterized by high scores on all types of motivations and low concerns.
- ***Class 4*** (6% of respondents) was similar to Class 2 with high values-based and child-based motivations and moderate self-interested motivations; Class 4 differed from Class 2 mainly in expressing higher levels of concerns about mentoring.

Exhibit LCAplot. Model predicted means, five-class model of motivation subscales and concerns.



Discussion

Findings presented in this section provide a variety of insights regarding motivations for mentoring and concerns about mentoring, among potential mentors who attended BBBST orientations but were not yet matched with a mentee (and some were not subsequently matched).

We looked at differences in ratings of importance of motivations and concerns in 2 ways: by forming groups of respondents on the basis of a) their characteristics (e.g. gender), and b) their

ratings of the importance of the queried motivations for, and concerns about, mentoring (using latent class analysis).

With very few exceptions, the same rank ordering of motivations' importance was observed, regardless of which characteristic was used to stratify respondent groups. Motivations related to values (e.g., feeling it is important to help others), mentee-focused motivations (e.g. making a difference in a young person's life), and a single, newly created item on exposing a young person to new activities were uniformly rated as very important. Mean ratings for these motivation ranged from 4.33 to 4.84 on a scale of 1 to 5. At the other end of the rank ordering, respondents uniformly gave low mean ratings of importance to motivations related to self-protection, career, social considerations, having had a mentor and wanting to give back, and not having a child at home. Mean ratings for these motivations were below 2.8 for all respondent groups, except for student ratings of career-related motivations, for which the mean rating was 2.95.

Several aspects of this uniformity in rank orderings are noteworthy:

a) It was observed across a fairly sizable sample of respondents (the overall sample size was 549).
b) It was not a given: the relative importance of various types of motivations could certainly have differed widely between different respondent groups.
c) For the cluster of motivations ranked high in importance, the uniformity held to a large extent even when respondent groups were formed on the basis of their importance ratings: for only one group did these mean ratings dip below 4, on value-related motivations.
d) Conversely, for the motivations that were uniformly rated as less important across groups of respondents formed on the basis of respondent characteristics, when groups were formed on the basis of importance ratings, there was substantial variability among the different classes of respondents.

The latter two points can be seen as reflecting the differing levels of variability observed for the highest-rated and lowest-rated type of motivations. For the highest-rated types, variability was quite low—as seen in the very high mean scores—and few respondents rated these motivations as not important, and therefore the LCA did not identify classes of respondents with low ratings on these motivation types. In contrast, greater variability was observed for the lowest-rated

motivations, and the LCA was able to form different classes of respondents on the basis of their ratings of these motivation types. In other words, respondents differed more in their ratings of the less-important motivations than in their ratings of the more-important ratings, and the groups of respondents identified in the LCA differed more on the ratings of less-important motivations.

The uniformity of rank orderings notwithstanding, the analyses identified differences in importance ratings between respondent groups. Most striking was that nonwhite respondents rated all but one motivation as more important than did white respondents. These differences appeared not only in the bivariate relationships between respondent characteristic and each type of motivation, but also in the multivariate models—that is, the relationships persisted, net of relationships between other respondent characteristics and a given type of motivation. The largest difference was on the rating for the single item "I had a mentor growing up and now want to give back" (mean ratings of 2.68 versus 1.99). Even for nonwhite respondents, this motivation was not among the most important (it was seventh of 12 types of motivations queried) but it was substantially more important to nonwhite respondents than white respondents.

The multivariate models also retained all but one of the bivariate relationships between respondent age groups and ratings of importance of various motivations. Respondents ages 18-25 rated four categories of motivations as more important than did respondents ages 26-35 or 36+: mentee-focused motivations, understanding-related motivations, career-related motivations, and self-protective motivations. The youngest age group placed especially greater importance on career-related motivations, relative to the two older age groups. For respondents ages 18-25, not having a child at home was substantially less important as a motivation to mentor than it was for the two older age groups. The 26-35 age group place more importance on two types of motivations (career- and understanding-related motivations) than the 36+ age group, but the differences were not as large as those between the 18-25 age group and the two older age groups. The relative importance the age groups placed on these two motivations increased with age: they were most important to the youngest age group and least important to the oldest group, with the

middle age group falling in-between in mean importance ratings.

Bivariate models found significant differences involving marital status on three types of motivations, with single respondents in all three instances placing more importance on the indicated motivations than married respondents. However, none of these differences was significant in the multivariate models. Marital status was strongly related to age group: 47% of respondents in the 36+ age group were married, compared to 21% of respondents in the 26-35 age group and 1% of respondents (2 respondents) in the 18-25 age group. Apparently age group accounted for much of differences in importance ratings for these motivations, leaving gender-based differences non-significant. Marital status was also related to race in our sample (25% of white respondents were married, compared with 15% of nonwhite respondents) which may have also weakened the observed relationships between marital status and these importance ratings, after accounting for the relationships due to race.

A similar dynamic appears to have also applied to bivariate gender differences in importance of motivations. Bivariate models found that in four of the five statistically significant gender differences, females placed more importance than males on the motivation in question. Of these four bivariate differences, three were non-significant in the multivariate models. These changes to non-significance were likely due in part because gender was related to age (38% of females and 31% of males were in the 18-25 age group; 42 % of females and 36% of males were in the 26-35 age group; and 20% of females and 33% of males were in the 36+ age group). Gender was much more weakly related to race in our sample (51% of females and 55% of males were white), suggesting that the overlap between gender and age was more likely to underlie the changes to non-significance.

Regarding respondent concerns about mentoring, there were both similarities to and difference from the patterns of findings observed on motivations for mentoring. One main similarity was the uniformity of rank orderings of concerns across different groupings of respondents. The two main concerns expressed by all but one respondent groups were a) not knowing what activities to do as a mentor and b) not being sure

how much one might have to pay out of pocket. (The one exception was that married respondents were not as concerned about how much they might have to pay.) On the other end of the concern rankings, all respondent groupings expressed very low concerns—almost non-existent—about having health issues that limit getting around, not thinking that mentoring would be fun, or not being a good age to be a mentor. Most respondents also expressed very low concerns about being able to make better use of their time by working, studying or doing other activities; students expressed the most concern on this topic, but their rating was still very low (mean rating 1.26).

This very low concern about being able to make better use of one's time may seem somewhat at odds with the finding that the third largest concern was having too much going on to add another responsibility. However, even though it was the third largest concern, the mean rating was 1.62 and the highest mean for any respondent group was 1.71, for white respondents. Respondents were not very concerned about having too much going on to add another responsibility, and even less concerned about being able to make better use of their time with other activities.

These low levels of concerns were part of the main area of difference between motivations for mentoring and concerns about mentoring: many motivations were rated as very important, and even the motivations that were rated the least important received higher importance ratings than the ratings for almost all the potential concerns. As noted earlier, all of the findings discussed in this section should be viewed in light of the fact that the data came from people who were sufficiently interested in mentoring to attend an orientation session but not yet matched or accepted in the BBBST program to become a mentor. To explore whether these findings extended beyond this particular sample, we adapted items from the instrument for use in the telephone survey of men in the general population, as discussed in ***Section 2.6***.

A final area of similarity between ratings of motivations for mentoring and concerns about mentoring emerges in comparing results of bivariate and multivariate models. As previously discussed regarding motivations, some of the differences in concerns between respondent groups that were statistically significant in the bivariate models were non-

significant in the multivariate models. Again, bivariate differences in concerns between males and females and between single and married respondents often were non-significant in the multivariate models, whereas most of the bivariate differences between white and nonwhite respondents and among the age groups remained significant. These changes in significance are again likely due to the overlap (that is, collinearity) between marital status and age group, between marital status and race (to a lesser extent), and between gender and age group.

2.6 NATIONAL TELEPHONE SURVEY FOR MEN

In this section of the report, we present results from a telephone survey of men in the general population (n=547). All descriptive and analytical models have been weighted to adjust for nonresponse and to ensure that estimates are representative of the larger population in regards to household size, number of landlines, and demographic characteristics. Missing data was minimal on survey responses; the majority of items contained 98% or more complete data. Multiple imputation was used to replace each missing value with a series of plausible values, and the data was then analyzed using standard procedures and the combination of results from the imputations.

2.6.1 Non-Mentors

Respondents were asked whether they had ever served as a mentor to a child who was sixteen years old or younger whom they were not related to. Of 587 respondents, 391 men (67%) reported they had not served as a mentor before. Table 12 displays descriptive statistics for non-mentors. Forty-three percent are under age 35, the remaining fifty-seven percent are between the ages of 36 and 78. Fifteen percent of non-mentors are Hispanic. Among non-Hispanics, 68% are white, and the remaining seventeen percent is almost evenly split between African Americans and individuals of other races. The majority (80%) have at least a high school education, and about 77% earn at least $25,000 per year. Slightly more than half of non-mentors are married.

Table 12: Descriptive Statistics for Non-Mentors (n=391)

	Mean	SD
Age		
18-25	.21	.41
26-35	.22	.41
36-64	.55	.50
65+	.02	.13
Race		
Non-Hispanic White	.68	.47
Non-Hispanic Black	.08	.28
Non-Hispanic Other	.09	.28
Hispanic	.15	.36
Education		
Less than high school	.20	.40
High school/some college	.62	.49
BA or higher	.18	.38
Income		
<25,000	.23	.42
25-50,000	.26	.44
50+	.51	.50
Marital Status		
Married	.53	.50
Not Married	.47	.50

2.6.2 Results

Part I: Concerns About Mentoring

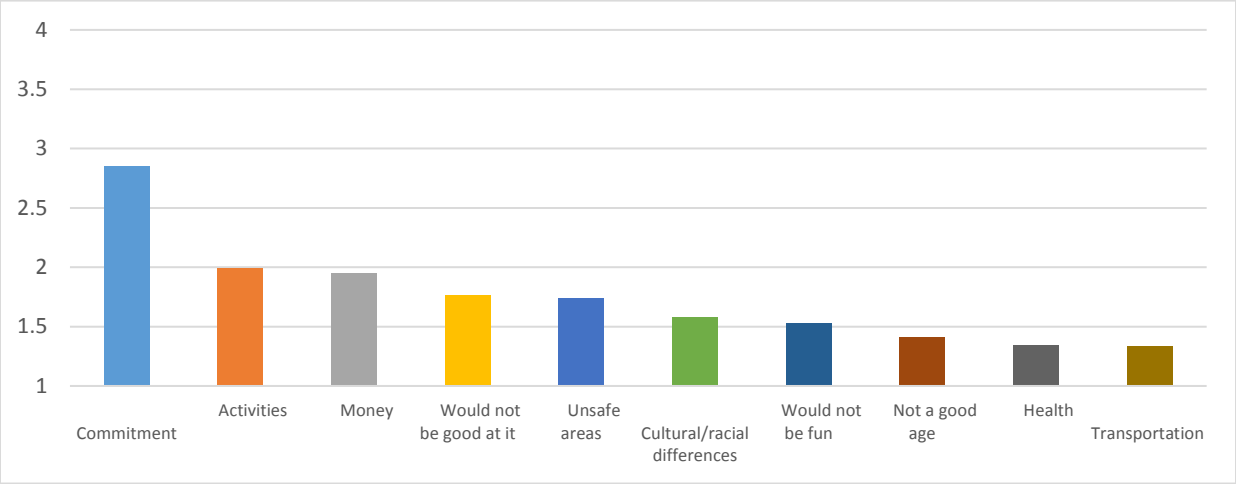
Respondents from the non-mentor subsample were asked a series of questions that provide information about common concerns as they pertain to mentoring. Respondents indicated on a scale of 1 (*not at all a concern*) to 4 (*a great concern*) the extent to which various issues are of concern. The issues raised by these questions include: having to pay out of pocket to mentor; not knowing what activities to do as a mentor; having to go to places that might not be safe; committing to be a mentor for at least twelve months; not being sure he would make a good mentor; cultural or racial differences with the young person he is mentoring; having health issues that limit his ability to get around or interact with others; thinking he is not a good age to be a mentor; thinking that being a mentor would not be fun; hot having reliable transportation.

Table 14: Concerns about Mentoring (non-mentors only, n=391)

Table 14 displays means and standard deviations for items measuring concerns. Figure 1 presents average scores on each item graphically, ranked from high to low. As shown, committing to being a mentor for at least twelve months is the number one concern. Concerns about knowing what activities to do as a mentor and having to pay out of pocket were ranked second and third, respectively. Generally speaking, respondents were not highly concerned about transportation, health issues, or being the wrong age to mentor.

Concerns about mentoring	Mean	SD
Money	1.95	.97
Activities	1.99	.98
Unsafe areas	1.74	.96
Commitment	2.85	1.04
Would not be good at it	1.76	.93
Cultural/racial differences	1.58	.82
Health	1.34	.79
Not a good age	1.41	.77
Would not be fun	1.53	.84
Transportation	1.33	.83

Figure 1: Concerns about Mentoring, average scores

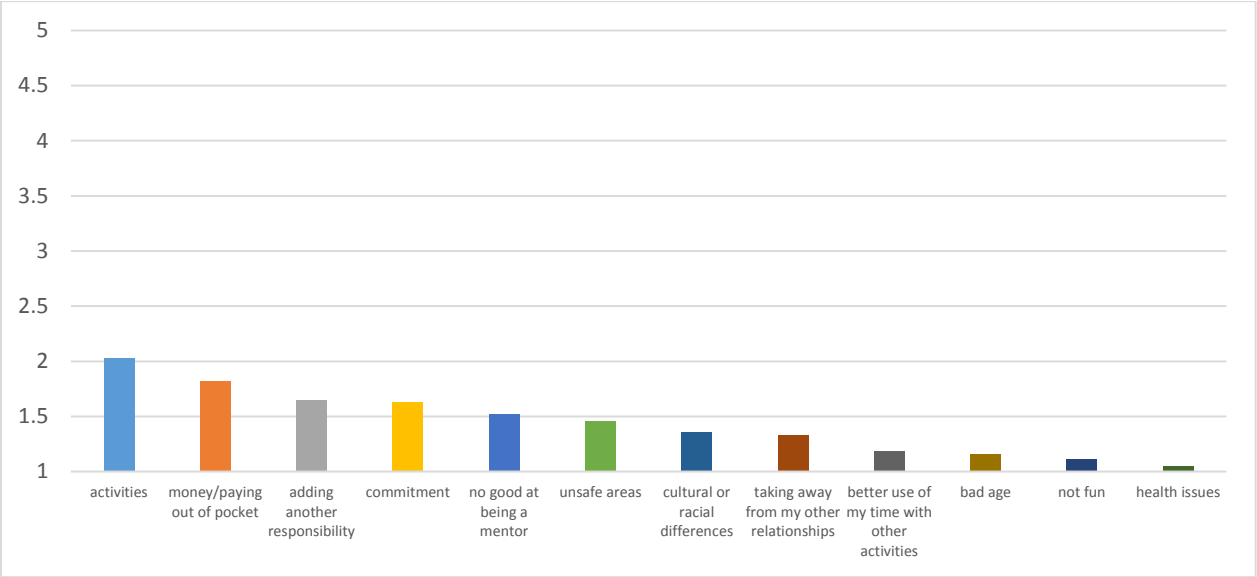


How do concerns among men in the general population compare to men from the Mentor Motivations Survey?

We wondered to what extent the primary concerns among non-mentors in the telephone survey overlapped or differed with those of men who participated in the Mentor Motivations Survey. It should be noted that the questions asked in each study were not identical to one another, nor were they scaled the same way; however, comparing top concerns among the two samples is useful and provides information regarding the similarities between men without mentoring experience in the general population and those who have expressed interest in mentoring through a formal organization.

Figure 1a displays mean estimates for the concerns items in the Mentor Motivation Survey for men only (n=274). As shown, concerns about knowing what activities to do with a mentee had the highest average score, followed by concerns of having to pay out of pocket, adding another responsibility, making a commitment for at least twelve months, and worries about not being good at mentoring. Recall from figure 1 that the top concerns among men from the telephone survey were commitment, knowing what activities to do with the mentee, having to pay out of pocket, worries about not being good at mentoring, and having to go to unsafe areas. Hence, there is a considerable amount of overlap in the most salient concerns among both groups of men, and it is clear that men are generally concerned about activities to do with mentees, out of pocket expenses, and commitment-related issues. One important difference in the two groups is that although commitment ranks as a top concern in both groups, it appears to be considerably more concerning for men in the general population. Thus, it is possible that a relatively lower level of concern regarding the commitment and obligation it takes to mentor is one of the most important deciding factors for determining who does and does not approach a formal agency with an interest in mentoring.

Figure 1a: Mean scores on Concerns for Men in the Mentor Motivation Survey



Groups Differences on Concerns

It is likely that overall mean estimates mask heterogeneity on concerns across different demographic groups. Accordingly, efforts to placate concerns by mentoring organizations may be misguided if they are based on overall estimates and insensitive to key group differences. Table 14 disaggregates average scores on each concern by race, marital status, education, income, and age.[1] We began by conducting analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests to determine whether the means of various concerns were equal across different demographic groups. For statistically significant tests, we then conducted t-tests for all groups within each characteristic to identify heterogeneity. Figures 2-6 display group averages graphically. For each figure, an asterisk following the label of a specific concern indicates a statistically significant ANOVA test for that item and that there are meaningful differences between two or more groups on that item (i.e., statistically significant at $p<.05$). Table 3 shows that regardless of race, marital status, education, income, or age, commitment is the highest rated concern as it pertains to mentoring. Despite this, partitioning concerns by demographic

[1] Although it would have been ideal to assess concerns for individuals 65 years of age and older, there was an insufficient number of respondents in this age group to stand alone as its own group. Therefore, the 65+ age group was combined with the 36-64 age group to generate one 36+ group.

categories shows a number of important differences across subgroups.

Race

Identifying the top three concerns by racial category helps to illuminate key differences between the groups and to understand the unique barriers to mentoring perceived by individuals from different racial categories. Mirroring the overall sample, the top three concerns among White respondents relate to commitment, not knowing what activities to do with mentees, and having to pay out of pocket to mentor. Top concerns among African Americans are commitment, having to pay out of pocket, and having health issues that limit abilities to interact with the child. Individuals from the other race category are most concerned about the commitment, having to go to unsafe areas, and not knowing what activities to do with the child. Similar to White respondents, Hispanics are most concerned about the commitment, having to pay out of pocket, and activities.

ANOVA tests identified statistically significant differences between racial groups on four concerns: unsafe areas, commitment, health, and transportation. Respondents from the other race category expressed more concern about having to go unsafe areas compared to white respondents. Although both groups scored commitment highest out of all concerns, the average score among African Americans was about .86 points lower than White respondents. Hispanics also expressed less concern about commitment than whites. African Americans were more concerned about their health than Whites and Hispanics. Finally, the average score for transportation-related concerns were about .55 points higher among African Americans than Whites. It is also notable that while Whites, Hispanics, and respondents of other races ranked transportation among the least concerning of issues, this was the 5th highest ranked concern among African Americans.

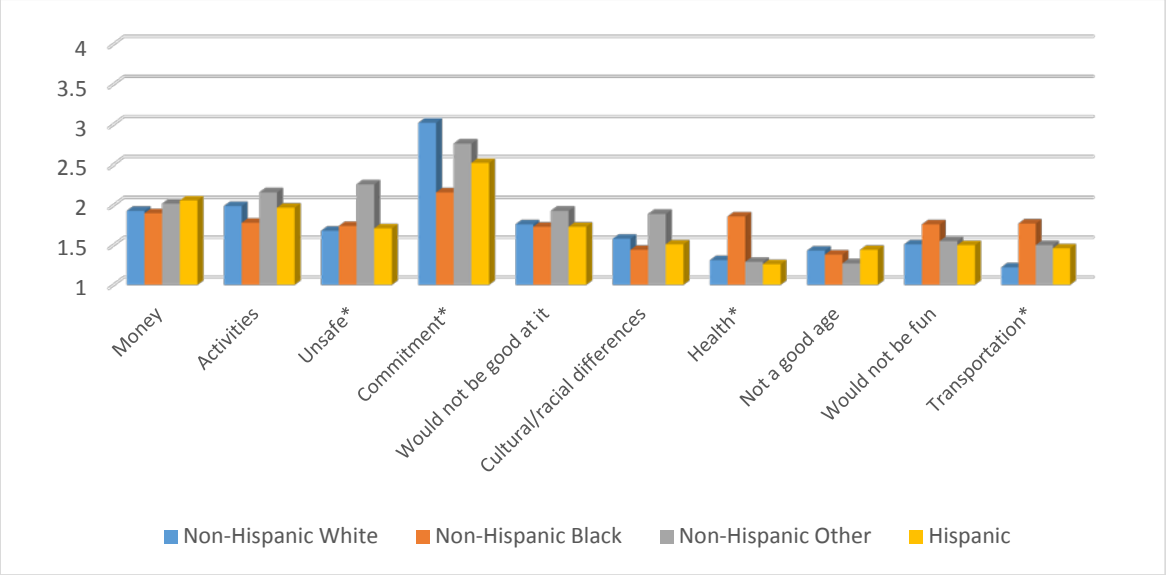
Table 14: T-Tests on Concerns and Incentives by Key Demographics (non-mentors only, n=391)

Concerns	race										marital status		
	NH White	NH Black	NH Other	Hispanic	Δ Black: White	Δ Other: White	Δ Hispanic: White	Δ Hispanic: Black	Δ Hispanic: Other	Δ Black: Other	married	unmarried	unmarried
Money	1.93	1.90	2.02	2.06	-0.03	0.09	0.13	0.16	0.04	-0.12	1.75	2.18	-.43**
Activities	1.99	1.78	2.16	1.97	-0.21	0.17	-0.02	0.19	-0.19	-0.38	1.91	2.07	-.16
Unsafe	1.68	1.74	2.26	1.71	0.06	0.58*	0.03	-0.03	-0.55	-0.52	1.65	1.85	-.20
Commitment	3.02	2.16	2.76	2.52	-0.86**	-0.26	-0.5*	0.36	-0.24	-0.6*	2.86	2.84	.02
Would not be good at it	1.76	1.73	1.93	1.73	-0.03	0.17	-0.03	0	-0.2	-0.2	1.71	1.84	-.14
Cultural/racial differences	1.58	1.44	1.89	1.51	-0.14	0.31	-0.07	0.07	-0.38	-0.45	1.62	1.54	.08
Health	1.31	1.86	1.29	1.26	0.55*	-0.02	-0.05	-0.6*	-0.03	0.57	1.26	1.44	-.18
Not a good age	1.43	1.38	1.27	1.44	-0.05	-0.16	0.01	0.06	0.17	0.11	1.36	1.47	-.11
Would not be fun	1.51	1.76	1.55	1.50	0.25	0.04	-0.01	-0.26	-0.05	0.21	1.50	1.57	-.07
Transportation	1.22	1.77	1.50	1.46	0.55*	0.28	0.24	-0.31	-0.04	0.27	1.11	1.57	-.46***

Concerns	education						income					
	(1) Less than High school	(2) High school /some college	(3) Bachelors or higher	Δ 2:1	Δ 3:1	Δ 3:2	(1) <$25k	(2) $25k to $50k	(3) $50k+	Δ 2:1	Δ 3:1	Δ 3:2
Money	2.37	1.91	1.62	-.46**	-.75**	-.30	2.34	2.06	1.71	-.28	-.63**	-.34*
Activities	2.04	2.00	1.87	-.04	-.17	-.13	2.12	1.98	1.93	-.14	-.19	-.05
Unsafe	1.85	1.77	1.50	-.08	-.35	-.27	1.78	1.80	1.70	.02	-.08	-.10
Commitment	2.77	2.90	2.77	.13	0	-.13	2.72	2.80	2.89	.08	.17	.09
Would not be good at it	2.05	1.69	1.71	-.36*	-.34	.02	1.81	1.74	1.75	-.07	-.06	.01
Cultural/racial differences	1.50	1.58	1.72	.08	.22	.14	1.60	1.52	1.61	-.08	.01	.09
Health	1.57	1.31	1.19	-.26*	-.38*	-.12	1.49	1.22	1.34	-.27*	-.15	.12
Not a good age	1.75	1.27	1.53	-.48***	-.22	.26	1.53	1.51	1.30	-.02	-.23	-.21
Would not be fun	1.46	1.57	1.46	.11	0	-.11	1.60	1.58	1.47	-.02	-.13	-.11
Transportation	1.88	1.17	1.26	-.71***	-.62**	.09	1.72	1.39	1.12	-.33	-.60***	-.27*

	Age					
Concerns	**18-25**	**26-35**	**36+**	**Δ 26-35: 18-25**	**Δ 36+: 18-25**	**Δ 36+: 26-35**
Money	2.29	1.74	1.91	-.55**	-.38*	.17
Activities	2.41	1.81	1.90	-.60**	-.52**	.09
Unsafe	1.82	1.52	1.79	-.30	-.05	.27
Commitment	3.01	2.48	2.93	-.53*	-.08	.45*
Would not be good at it	1.89	1.84	1.70	-.05	-.19	-.14
Cultural/racial differences	1.74	1.62	1.51	-.12	-.25	-.11
Health	1.14	1.24	1.46	.10	.31**	.22
Not a good age	1.54	1.28	1.42	-.26	-.13	.14
Would not be fun	1.66	1.33	1.56	-.33	-.13	.23
Transportation	1.50	1.18	1.32	-.32	-.19	.14

Figure 2: Concerns by Racial Category

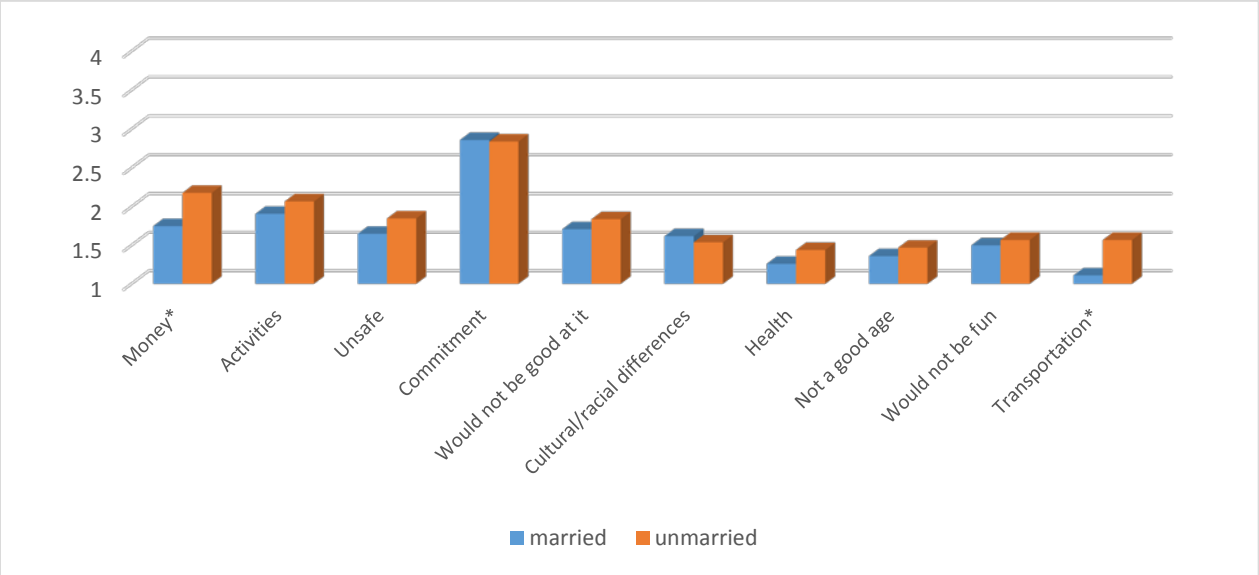


Marital Status

Few differences were identified between married and unmarried persons on concerns about mentoring. Both subgroups ranked commitment, activities, and money-related issues as their top three concerns. ANOVA tests were statistically significant for only two concerns, money and transportation. The average score for money-related concerns (i.e., having to pay out of pocket) was about .43 units higher among unmarried

respondents compared to married respondents. Similarly, the average score for transportation-related concerns was about .46 units higher among unmarried respondents than married respondents.

Figure 3: Concerns by Marital Status



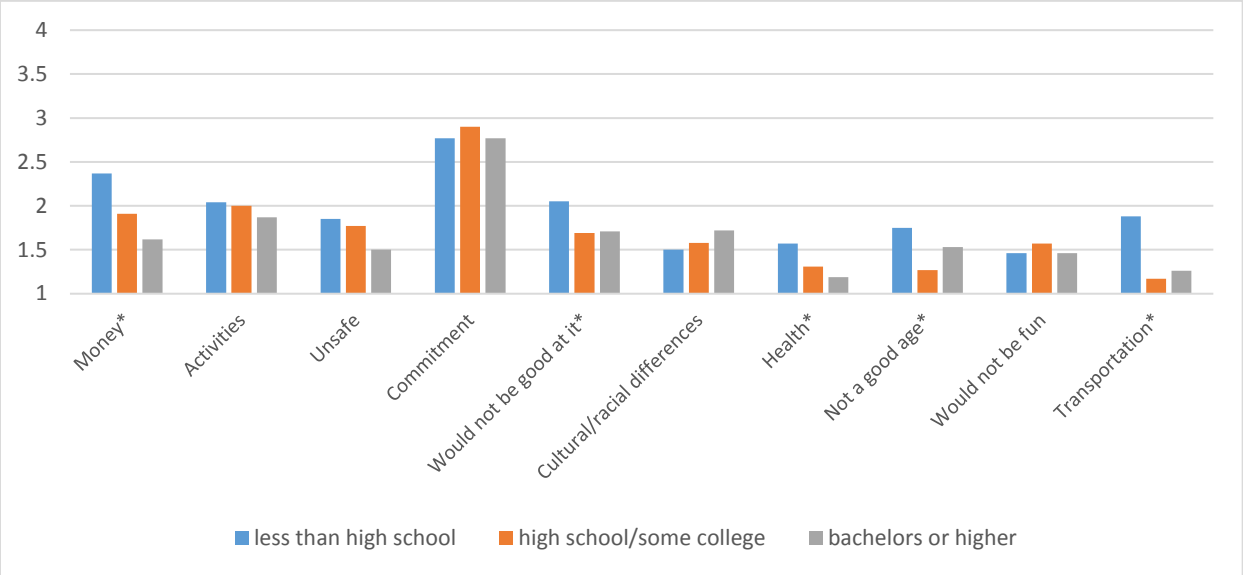
Education

Table 15 indicates that concerns about mentoring vary with level of educational attainment. The top three concerns among respondents with less than a high school education are commitment, money, and thinking that he would not be good at being a mentor. Respondents who have completed high school but have not finished college are most concerned about the commitment, activities to do with the mentee, and having to pay out of pocket. Interestingly, in addition to being concerned about the commitment and activities to do with the child, respondents with a college education or greater are concerned about potential cultural and racial differences with mentees.

ANOVA tests show statistically significant differences between education subgroups on five concerns: money, thinking he would not be good at being a mentor, and health, age, and transportation-related concerns. In general, concerns about money decrease with greater levels of education, as respondents with a high school or college education are less

concerned about having to pay out of pocket than respondents with less than a high school education. Similarly, higher levels of education generally translate to fewer health and transportation-related concerns. The average scores for concerns related to thinking he would not be good at mentoring and thinking he is not the right age to mentor are significantly higher among respondents with less than a high school education than those with a high school education but no college degree.

Figure 4: Concerns by Education

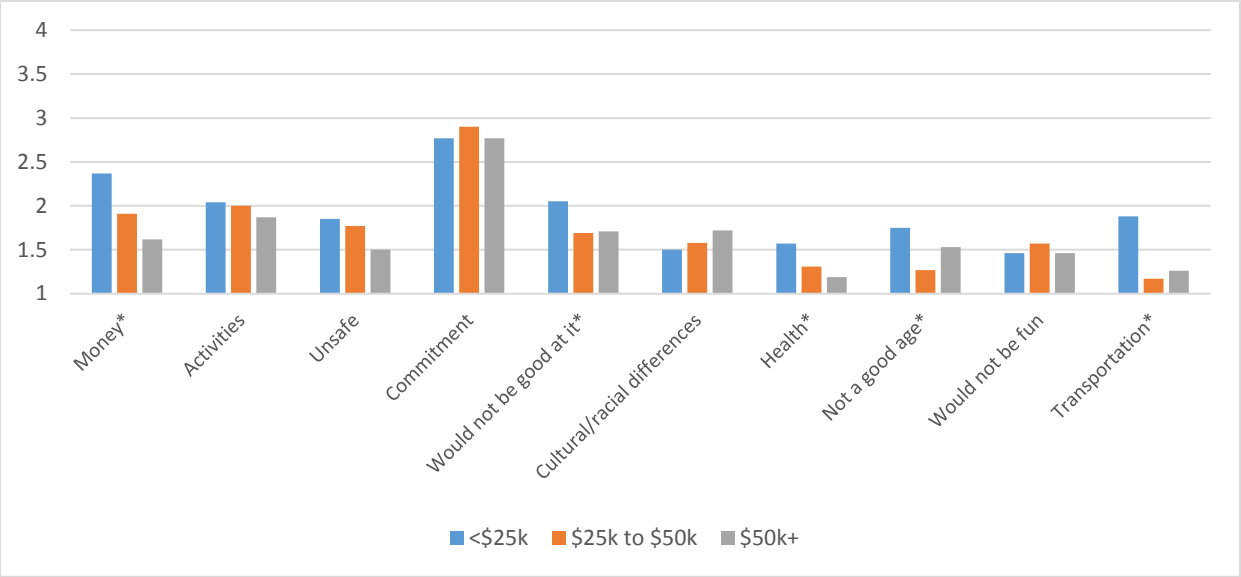


Income

Similar, although not identical patterns were identified for income categories as for educational attainment. The top three concerns among respondents from both the less than $25,000 and $25,000-50,000 income categories were the commitment, having to pay out of pocket, and knowing what activities to do with the child. In addition to the commitment and activities, respondents earning $50,000 or more ranked the concern of thinking he would not be good at mentoring among the top three. Money and transportation-related concerns had statistically significant differences between the groups. Respondents in the highest income category were less concerned about having to pay out of pocket and transportation issues than respondents from the low and medium income

categories, although the differences between the medium and low income groups were not statistically significant.

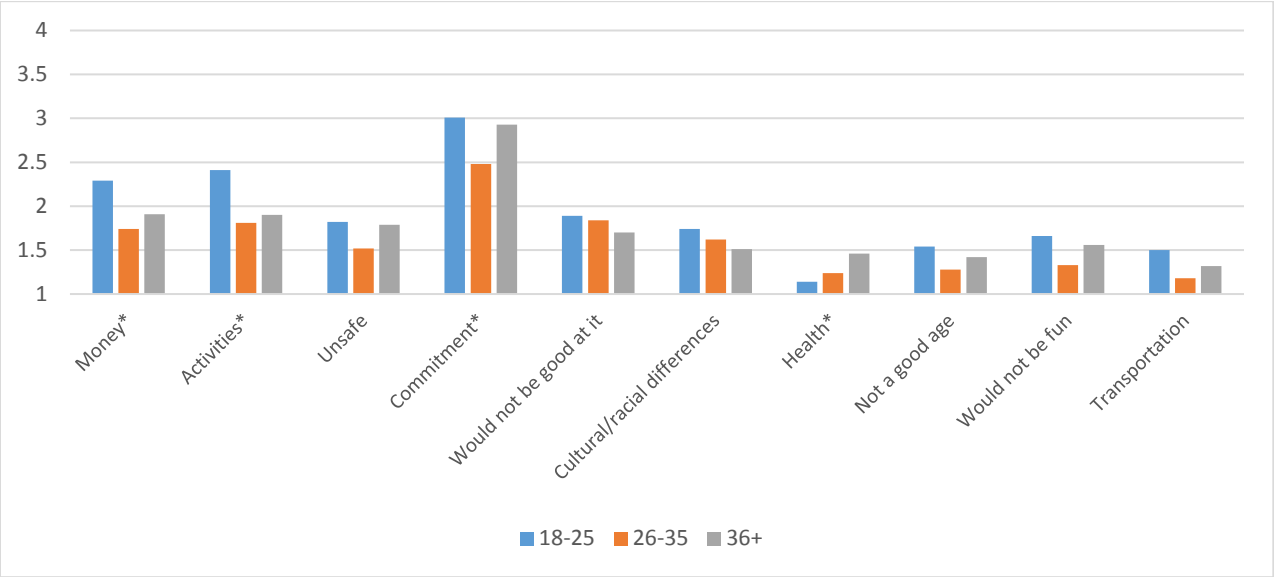
Figure 5: Concerns by Income Category



Age

Commitment, activities, and money-related concerns were all ranked within the top four concerns for each age group. Concerns related to thinking he would not be good at mentoring ranked in the top four for the 18-25 and 26-35 age groups, while the concern about having to go to unsafe areas ranked in the top four among the 36+ age group. Concerns about money, activities, commitment, and health had statistically significant differences between the age groups. Concerns about money generally decline with age, as do concerns about what activities to do with the child. The relationship between commitment and age is nonlinear. Respondents in the 26-35 age bracket are less concerned about the commitment than respondents in the youngest age category, while respondents in the 36+ category are more concerned than those in the middle bracket. Finally, individuals in the oldest age bracket have more concerns about their health than those from the youngest group.

Figure 6: Concerns by Age Group



Part II: Incentives for Mentoring

Respondents from the non-mentor subsample were also asked a series of questions that measure the potential effectiveness of various incentives for recruiting mentors. Respondents indicated on a scale of 1 (*not at all more likely*) to 4 (*a great deal more likely*) to what extent a range of situations would make them more likely to become a mentor. These situations included knowing that mentoring could make a difference in the youth's life, finding an organization whose philosophy and mission he believed in, finding a mentoring opportunity from an organization he already belonged to, mentoring during convenient hours, getting more information about mentoring, meeting interesting people, being personally asked to be a mentor, being recognized and appreciated for being a mentor, receiving training, knowing someone else who was a mentor, and receiving some form of reimbursement for time and service as a mentor.

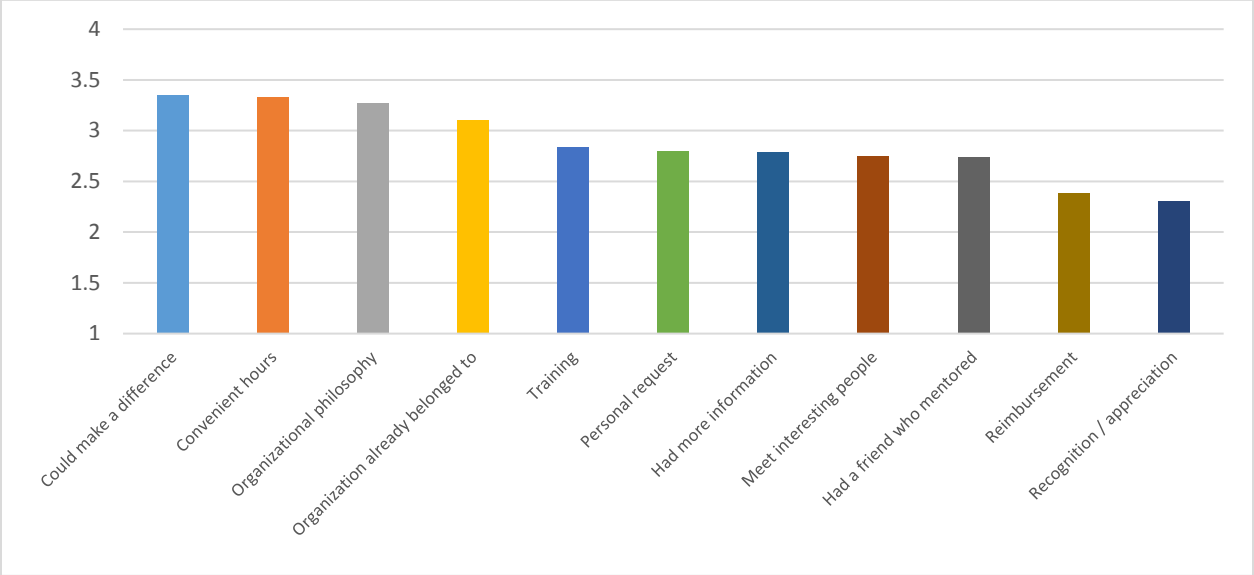
Table 16 displays means and standard deviations for items measuring incentives. Figure 7 presents average scores on each item graphically, ranked from high to low. Results presented show that the potential to make a difference in the child's life, agreeing with the mentoring organization's philosophy and mission, and finding an opportunity with an organization one already belongs to are the top three prospective incentives.

Interestingly, reimbursement and recognition/appreciation are scored the lowest.

Table 16: Concerns and Incentives (non-mentors only)

Incentives	Mean	SD
Could make a difference	3.35	.81
Organizational philosophy	3.27	.80
Organization already belonged to	3.10	.85
Convenient hours	3.33	.81
Had more information	2.79	.92
Meet interesting people	2.75	.99
Personal request	2.80	.99
Recognition / appreciation	2.31	1.16
Training	2.84	.94
Had a friend who mentored	2.74	.98
Reimbursement	2.38	1.09

Figure 7: Incentives for Mentoring, average scores

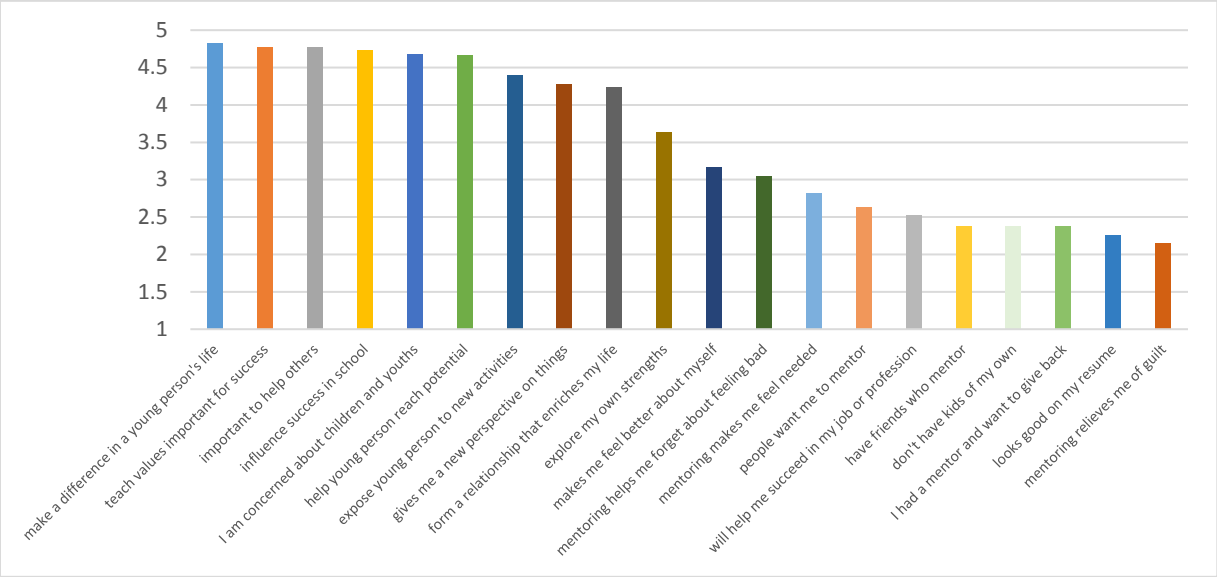


How do incentives for mentoring among men from the general population compare to men from the Mentor Motivations Survey?

As with concerns, we were interested in the compatibility between common incentivizing situations from the telephone survey and key motivations uncovered for men from the Mentor

Motivations Survey. Direct comparisons cannot be made between the two datasets because very few situations were asked about in both studies, nor are these items scaled the same way; however, it is possible to draw some generalizations based on the highest ranking motivations/incentives from the two studies. Figure 7a displays average scores from the Mentor Motivations Survey on all items measuring motivations. Comparing the highest scores from both samples, it is interesting that the potential to make a difference in the child's life is the top motivation/incentive in both studies. In fact, the top six motivations from the Mentor Motivations Survey all relate to the potential to have a positive impact on a child's life (make a difference in a young person's life; teach values important for success; it is important to help others; influence a young person's success in school; general concern about children and youths; helping young person to reach their full potential; exposing young person to new activities). Thus, although many of these items were not addressed in the telephone survey, it is noteworthy that the one item from the telephone survey having to do with the enrichment of a child's life was ranked as the most appealing incentive for becoming a mentor among the entire sample. Hence there is reason to believe that had these items been addressed in the telephone survey, they also would have been ranked among the most important incentives.

Figure 7b: Average scores on motivations among men from the Mentor Motivation Survey



Group Differences on Incentives

Attempts to incentivize men from the general population to become mentors may be better informed when they are customized to specific groups. Table 17 partitions average scores on the incentives items by key demographic characteristics. As with the analysis of concerns, we conducted ANOVA tests to identify statistically significant difference between two or more groups on specific incentives, followed by t-tests to better understand the nature of these differences. Figures 8 through 12 display group means graphically for race, marital status, education, income, and age.

Table 17: T-Tests on Incentives by Key Demographics (non-mentors only, n=391)

		Race									marital status		
Incentives	***NH White***	***NH Black***	***NH Other***	***Hispanic***	**Δ Black: White**	**Δ Other: White**	**Δ Hispanic: White**	**Δ Hispanic: Black**	**Δ Hispanic: Other**	**Δ Black: Other**	***Married***	***unmarried***	***unmarried***
Could make a difference	3.37	3.31	3.41	3.29	-0.06	0.04	-0.08	-0.02	-0.12	-0.1	3.32	3.39	-.07
Organizational philosophy	3.22	3.45	3.29	3.39	0.23	0.07	0.17	-0.06	0.1	0.16	3.28	3.27	.01
Organization already belonged to	3.02	3.47	3.35	3.12	0.45**	0.33	0.1	-0.35	-0.23	0.12	3.11	3.09	.02
Convenient hours	3.34	3.19	3.49	3.28	-0.15	0.15	-0.06	0.09	-0.21	-0.3	3.32	3.35	-.03
Had more information	2.71	3.01	3.07	2.88	0.3	0.36	0.17	-0.13	-0.19	-0.06	2.79	2.79	0
Meet interesting people	2.67	2.93	3.12	2.76	0.26	0.45	0.09	-0.17	-0.36	-0.19	2.52	3.00	-.48**
Personal request	2.66	3.07	3.01	3.17	0.41*	0.35	0.51*	0.1	0.16	0.06	2.68	2.93	-.25
Recognition / appreciation	2.10	3.13	2.67	2.64	1.03***	0.57*	0.54	-0.49	-0.03	0.46	2.15	2.50	-.35
Training	2.76	3.08	3.01	3.00	0.32	0.25	0.24	-0.08	-0.01	0.07	2.77	2.93	-.16
Had a friend who mentored	2.70	3.01	2.89	2.70	0.31	0.19	0	-0.31	-0.19	0.12	2.59	2.92	-.33*
Reimbursement	2.20	3.25	2.40	2.74	1.05***	0.2	0.54	-0.51	0.34	0.85**	2.08	2.73	-.65***

Incentives	education						Income					
	(1) Less than High school	(2) High school / some college	(3) Bachelors or higher	Δ 2:1	Δ 3:1	Δ 3:2	< $25k	(2) 25k to $50k	(3) $50k+	Δ 2:1	Δ 3:1	Δ 3:2
Could make a difference	3.21	3.37	3.47	.16	.26	.10	3.26	3.46	3.39	.20	.13	-.07
Organizational philosophy	3.10	3.32	3.28	.22	.18	-.04	3.16	3.20	3.37	.04	.11	.17
Organization already belonged to	3.06	3.09	3.19	.03	.13	.10	3.10	3.12	3.09	.02	-.01	-.03
Convenient hours	3.10	3.32	3.28	.22	.18	-.04	3.16	3.20	3.20	.04	.04	0
Had more information	2.72	2.76	2.97	.04	.25	.21	2.90	2.76	2.86	-.14	-.04	.10
Meet interesting people	2.85	2.73	2.68	-.12	-.17	-.05	3.26	2.66	2.64	-.60**	-.62***	-.02
Personal request	2.89	2.87	2.46	-.02	-.43	-.41	3.06	2.86	2.72	-.20	-.34*	-.14
Recognition / appreciation	2.53	2.39	1.81	-.14	-.72*	-.58	2.87	2.53	2.06	-.34	-.81**	-.47*
Training	2.77	2.89	2.77	.12	0	-.12	2.96	2.90	2.84	-.06	-.12	-.06
Had a friend who mentored	2.73	2.80	2.55	.07	-.18	-.25	3.10	2.65	2.69	-.45*	-.41*	.10
Reimbursement	2.71	2.39	1.99	-.32*	-.72*	-.40	2.77	2.59	2.18	-.18	-.59*	-.41*

	Age					
Incentives	**18-25**	**26-35**	**36+**	**Δ 26-35: 18-25**	**Δ 36+: 18-25**	**Δ 36+: 26-35**
Could make a difference	3.29	3.47	3.33	.18	.03	-.14
Organizational philosophy	3.23	3.40	3.24	.17	-.01	-.16
Organization already belonged to	3.10	3.29	3.03	.19	-.09	-.26
Convenient hours	3.27	3.49	3.30	.22	.01	-.19
Had more information	2.75	2.74	2.82	-.01	.04	.08
Meet interesting people	3.11	2.77	2.60	-.34	-.55**	-.17
Personal request	3.08	3.05	2.60	-.03	-.49**	-.45*
Recognition / appreciation	2.66	2.41	2.15	-.25	-.54*	-.26
Training	3.13	2.74	2.77	-.39*	-.36*	.03
Had a friend who mentored	3.18	2.86	2.54	-.32	-.65***	-.32
Reimbursement	2.64	2.58	2.21	-.06	-.46	-.37

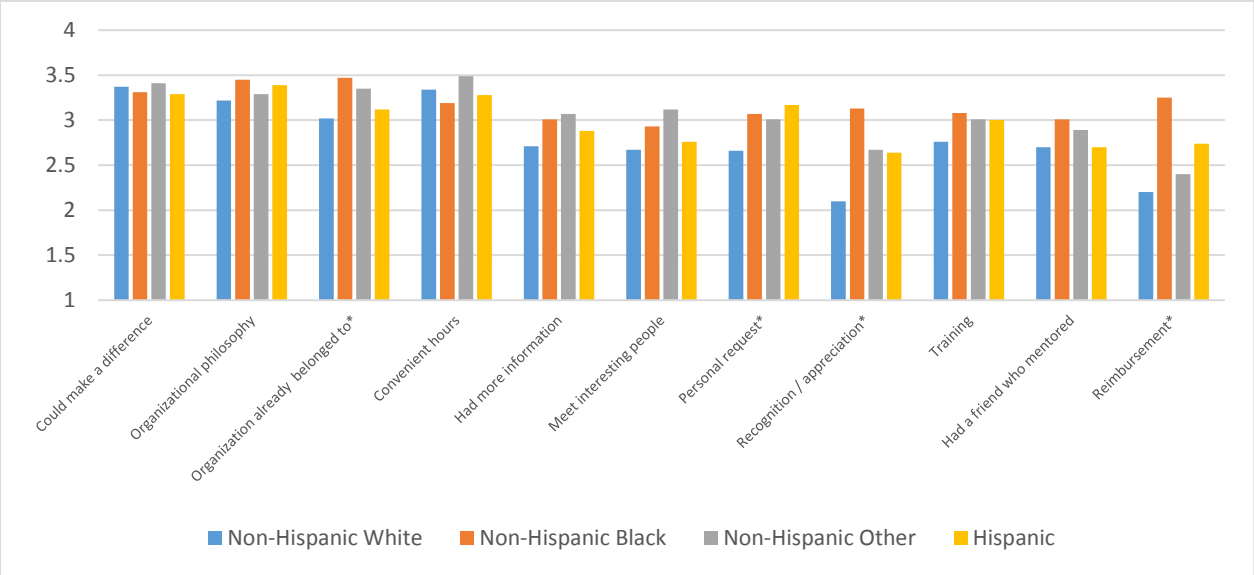
Race

The highest ranking incentives for each racial category are generally very similar to one another. Whites and Hispanic respondents indicated they would be most likely to mentor if there was a potential to make a difference in the child's life, if mentoring could be done during convenient hours, and if they agreed with the mentoring organization's philosophy and mission. African American respondents ranked the top three incentives as finding an opportunity to mentor with an organization they already belonged to, agreeing with the mentoring organization's philosophy and mission, and the potential to make a difference in the child's life. Similarly, respondents from the other race category ranked highest the incentives related to convenient hours, the potential to make a difference, and finding an opportunity with an organization they already belonged to.

ANOVA tests were statistically significant for the items related to finding an opportunity with an organization one already belonged to, personal requests to become a mentor, recognition/appreciation, and reimbursement. The average score for the item concerning finding an opportunity with an organization the respondent already belonged to was about .45 points higher among African Americans than for Whites. White respondents scored the item measuring the importance of personal requests for becoming a mentor lower than their

African American and Hispanic counterparts. African American and respondents from the other race category scored recognition/appreciation as a more salient incentive than Whites, and reimbursement was scored considerably higher by African Americans than Whites.[2] It is also noteworthy that reimbursement and recognition were ranked towards the bottom for all racial categories except African Americans, for whom these items were in the top six incentives.

Figure 8: Incentives for Mentoring by Racial Category



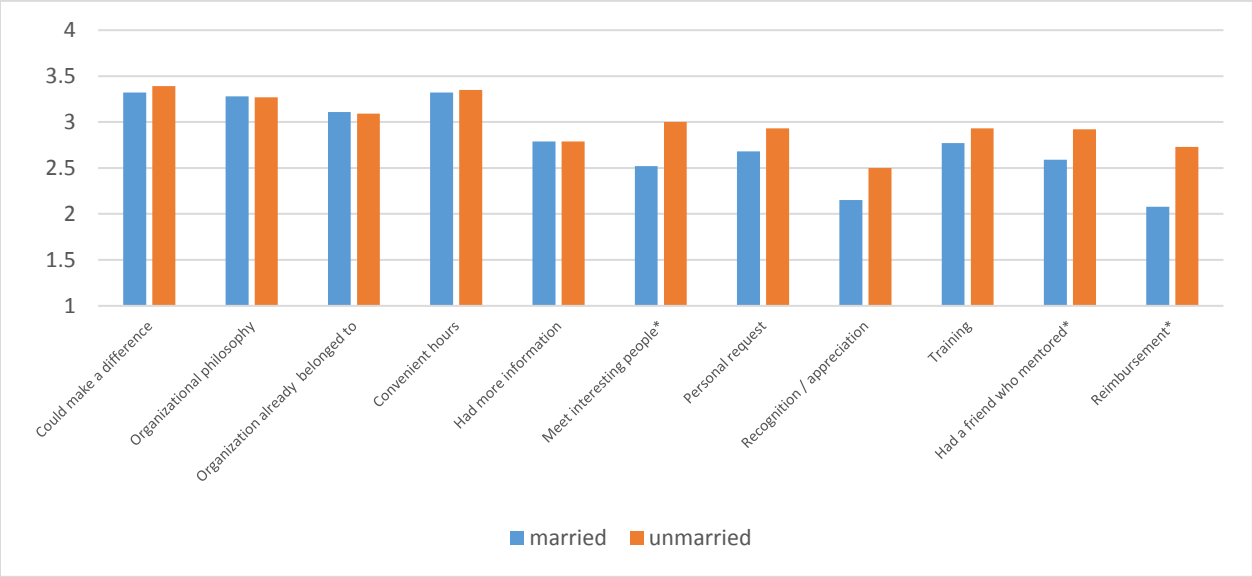
Marital Status

Few differences in the importance attributed to incentives were identified between married and unmarried persons. The same three items were ranked as the top three incentives for both groups: the potential to make a difference in the child's life, convenient hours, and agreeing with the mentoring organization's philosophy and mission. T-tests indicated that the average score for the possibility of meeting interesting people was about half a point lower for married respondents than unmarried respondents. Likewise, reimbursement and

[2] Supplementary analysis was conducted to determine whether statistically significant effects identified in t-tests for marital status and race would persist in the presence of controls. Ordinary least squares regression was used to predict the importance of reimbursement as an incentive, using demographic characteristics as predictors. On average, African American respondents scored reimbursement about 1 point higher than Whites (Beta=.99***). Married respondents scored reimbursement about half a point lower than unmarried respondents (Beta=-.49*).

having a friend who mentored were more important for unmarried compared to married men.

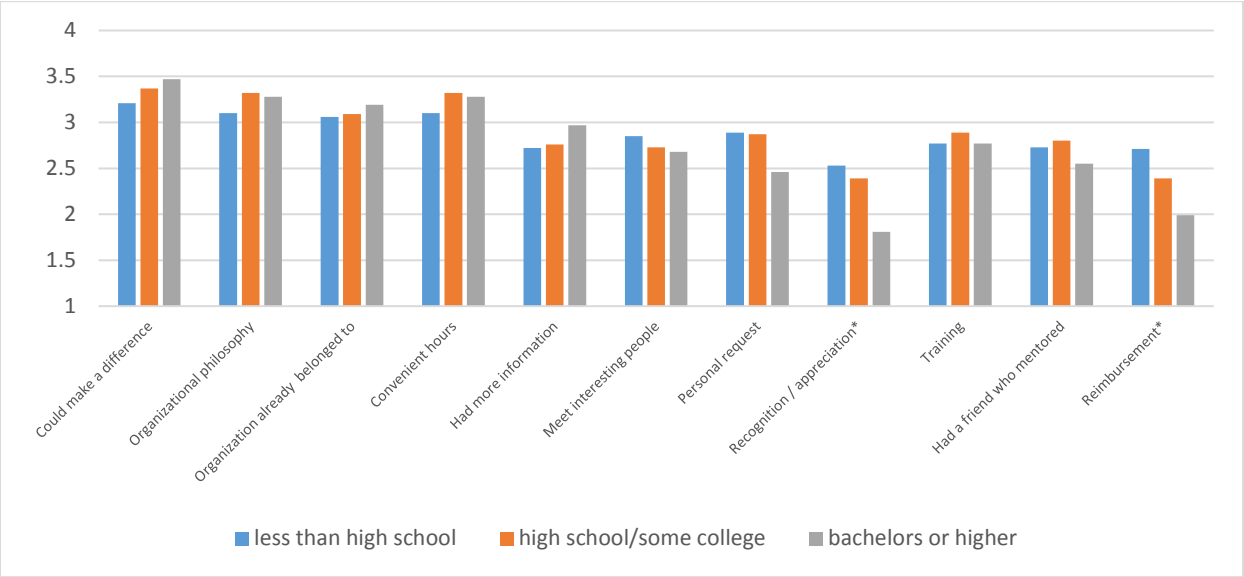
Figure 9: Incentives for Mentoring by Marital Status



Education

The top three incentives do not differ by levels of educational attainment. For all three groups, the potential to make a difference, agreeing with the organization's philosophy and mission, and convenient hours were scored as the top three incentives. Although recognition/appreciation was perceived to be unimportant for all three groups, it is worth noting that respondents with less than a high school education perceived recognition/appreciation to be more of an incentive than respondents with a college education or more. The appeal of reimbursement also generally decreases as education level increases.

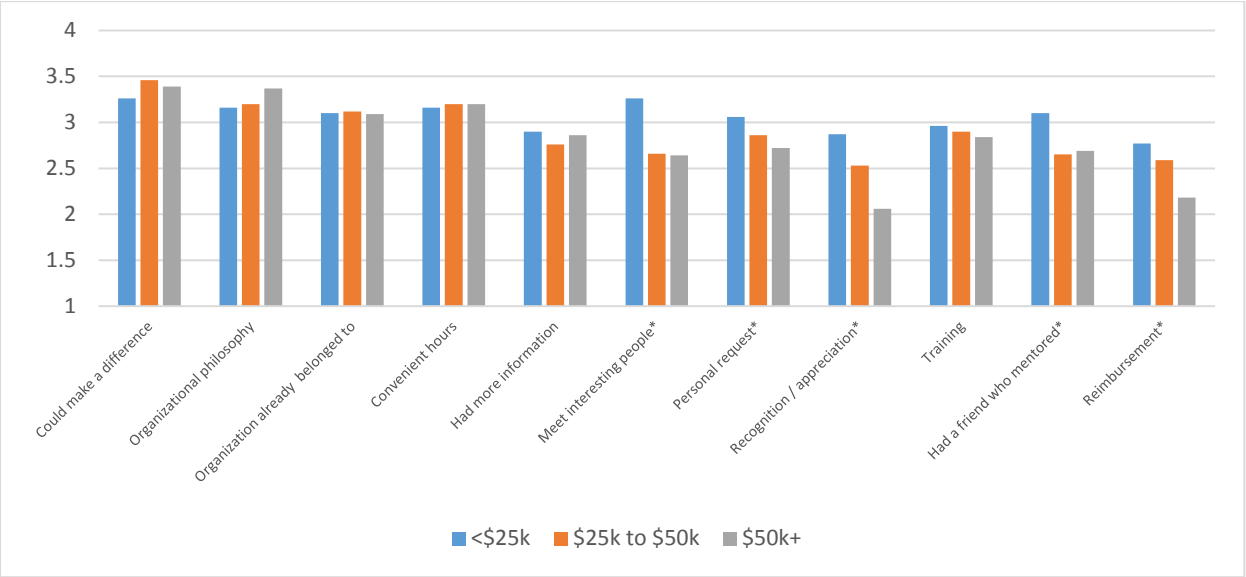
Figure 10: Incentives for Mentoring by Education



Income

The potential to make a difference and agreeing with the organization's philosophy are scored in the top three among all three income groups. Convenient hours are also ranked in the top three by the middle and upper income groups, while the possibility of meeting interesting people is ranked second for those in the lower income bracket. ANOVA tests identified significant differences between the groups on items representing the possibility of meeting interesting people, personal request, recognition/appreciation, having a friend who mentored, and reimbursement. Respondents from the middle and upper income brackets were less interested in meeting interesting people and perceived having a friend who mentored as a less salient incentive than respondents from the lower income category. Respondents from the lower income bracket also scored items related to personal request, recognition/appreciation, and reimbursement higher than those from the upper income bracket.

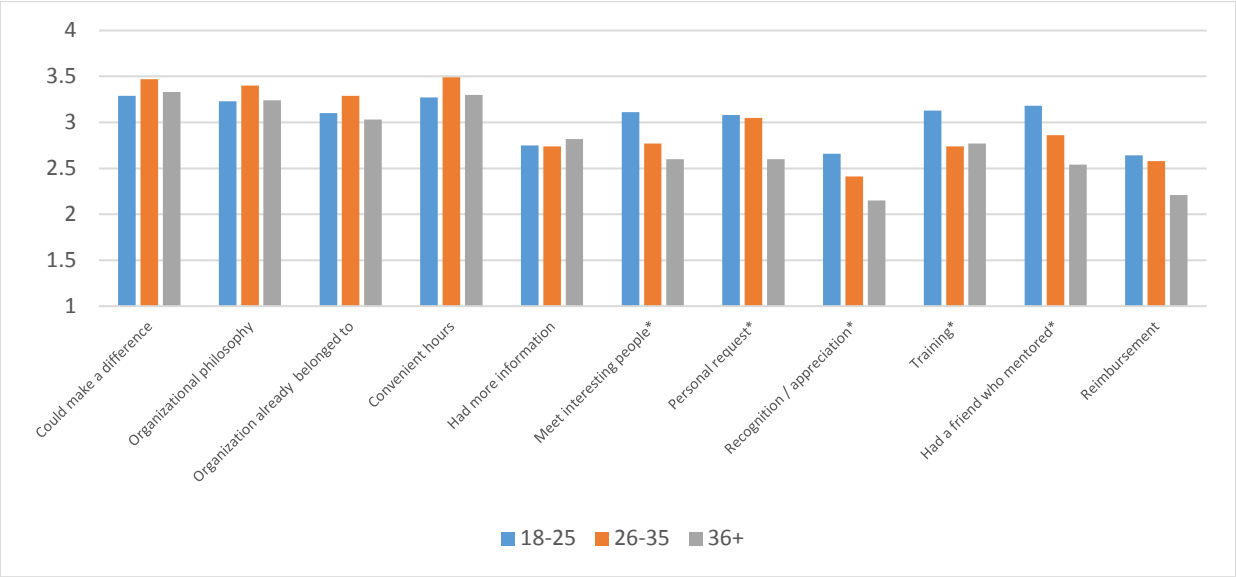
Figure 11: Incentives for Mentoring by Income Category



Age

Convenient hours, the potential to make a difference, and agreeing with the mentoring organization's philosophy and mission are the top three incentives for each age group. It is also noteworthy that reimbursement and recognition/appreciation are perceived to be the least attractive incentives by all three age groups. Results from t-tests indicate a number of differences between the 36+ age group and respondents in younger age brackets. For instance, respondents in the youngest age bracket perceive the possibility to meet interesting people, personal requests to mentor, recognition/appreciation, training, and having a friend who mentors all to be more incentivizing than respondents from the 36+ age group.

Figure 12: Incentives for Mentoring by Age Group



Part III: The Relationship Between Concerns and Incentives

In this section of the report, we examine the extent to which various types of situations are more or less incentivizing to respondents with specific types of concerns. Table 18 displays pearson's *r* correlation coefficients for each concern correlated with each incentive. Statistically significant correlations at the $p<.05$ level are designated by asterisk. Generally speaking, although we identify numerous statistically significant correlations, the vast majority of these associations are negative correlations and therefore these analyses say more about what *does not work* for incentivizing non-mentors with specific concerns than it does about recruitment.

Results from table 18 suggest that men who are concerned about having to pay out of pocket (i.e., money) perceive reimbursement and recognition/appreciation as appealing incentives for increasing their likelihood of mentoring. Conversely, the more that respondents express concern about money, the less likely they are to perceive the possibility of making a difference, agreeing with the organization's philosophy, finding an opportunity to mentor with an organization he already belongs to, convenient hours, more information, and training opportunities as incentives. Concern about what activities to do with the child is negatively

correlated with several items, the strongest of which include the possibility of making a difference in the child's life, agreeing with the organization's philosophy, and convenient hours. Similarly, no positive correlations are detected for concerns about having to go to unsafe areas and any incentives; rather, respondents who view unsafe travel as an important concern are less likely to view convenient hours, getting more information, personal requests, and training as attractive incentives. Interestingly, concerns about having to commit for 12 months or longer are negatively correlated with every incentive.

Respondents who expressed concerns about not being good at mentoring or having cultural or racial differences with the child are less likely to perceive the potential to make a difference or convenient hours as incentivizing. Those who worry about cultural or racial differences are also less likely to view themselves as more likely to mentor as a function of more reimbursement. Concerns about health and being the wrong age share many of the same correlates; for instance, they are each negatively associated with the potential to make a difference, finding an opportunity with an organization he already belongs to, and having a friend who mentors. The concern that mentoring would not be fun is also negatively associated with a number of items, the strongest of which include the potential to make a difference, convenient hours, and finding an opportunity with an organization he already belonged to. Finally, concerns about transportation is positively correlated with three incentives: the potential to meet interesting people, recognition/appreciation, and reimbursement.

Table 18: Correlation Matrix to show relationships between Concerns and Incentives

	Money	Activities	Unsafe Areas	Commitment	No Good	Differences	Health	Bad Age	Not Fun	Transportation
Could make a difference	-.16*	-.23*	.00	-.18*	-.12*	-.10*	-.10*	-.13*	-.32*	.00
Organizational philosophy	-.19*	-.18*	-.09	-.18*	-.05	-.06	-.02	-.22*	-.12*	-.03
Organization already belonged to	-.11*	-.14*	-.07	-.23*	-.02	-.02	-.13*	-.12*	-.18*	.00
Convenient hours	-.22*	-.17*	-.11*	-.18*	-.13*	-.18*	-.07	-.17*	-.22*	.01
Had more information	-.23*	-.16*	-.17*	-.30*	.01	-.07	-.01	-.06	-.16*	.04
Meet interesting people	.04	.01	-.04	-.23*	-.06	.03	-.02	-.07	-.02	.12*
Personal request	-.08	-.09	-.13*	-.32*	-.01	-.01	-.06	.00	-.13*	.06
Recognition / appreciation	.10*	.05	.06	-.15*	-.01	.08	.07	.03	.13	.18*
Training	-.16*	.03	-.12*	-.24*	-.03	-.04	-.11*	.09	.05	-.04
Had a friend who mentored	-.05	.05	-.08	-.19*	-.02	.00	-.14*	-.18*	.06	-.03
Reimbursement	.11*	-.10*	-.02	-.15*	-.02	-.12*	.00	-.07	.00	.24*

*p<.05

Part IV: Can Men Be Recruited as Mentors Through the Use of Stipends?

Non-mentors were asked a series of questions that facilitate a better understanding of the extent to which the use of stipends (e.g., a small amount of money) could help to recruit men from the general population to serve as mentors. First, respondents were asked to report whether or not they believed that more men would become mentors if they were given a stipend. If they answered "yes," they were led to a follow-up question that asked whether or not *they* would be more likely to mentor if offered a stipend. Following this, all non-mentors were asked to indicate the minimum amount of money given monthly they believed would help to recruit more mentors.

About eighteen percent of respondents reported that they did not believe the use of stipends would help to recruit more men to mentor. Thirty-four percent believed that the use of stipends would help to recruit men generally and would work to recruit them personally. Finally, 48% reported that although they believed men from the general population could be recruited with the use of stipends, they reported that the use of stipends would not work for recruiting them personally.

A variable was generated so that 1=respondents who reported that stipends would help to recruit them, and 0=respondents who reported that stipends would not help to recruit men from the general population or who reported that stipends would help to recruit men from the general population but would not help to recruit them personally. This item was then used as the outcome variable in a logistic regression model with age, race, education, income, and marital status as predictors. Table 19 presents the results from this analysis. The 18-25 age group, non-Hispanic White, less than high school education, less than $25,000 income, and unmarried represent the reference categories. Results show two statistically significant effects. Non-Hispanic Africans are more likely than White respondents to report that a stipend would help to recruit them as mentors. The odds ratio of 2.91 suggests that the odds of African American respondents believing a stipend would help to recruit them are about 191% higher compared to the odds for Whites reporting a stipend would help to recruit them. Additionally, the odds of married respondents reporting that a stipend would

help to recruit them are about 57% lower than unmarried respondents.

As noted, respondents were also asked to report the minimum amount of money given monthly they believed would help to recruit more mentors. The average dollar amount reported by non-mentors was $168, with a range of $0 to $1000. Table 20 displays results from a model predicting the amount of dollars believed to help recruit more mentors by demographic characteristics. Negative binomial regression was used to correct for over-dispersion. Results indicate that African Americans report a higher minimum dollar amount than Whites. Specifically, the expected log count for African Americans is .58 lower than for White respondents. Additionally, higher levels of education (i.e., high school or college degree) are associated with a lower reported dollar amount compared to respondents with less than a high school education.

Table 19. Logistic Regression Predicting Stipend for Recruitment (Non-mentors only, n=391)

	Odds Ratio
Age	
18-25	-
26-35	.71 (.37)
36+	.74 (.35)
Race	
Non-Hispanic White	-
Non-Hispanic Black	3.11* (1.49)
Non-Hispanic Other	.67 (.42)
Hispanic	.78 (.42)
Education	
Less than High School	-
High School or Some College	1.48 (.57)
Bachelors or more	.49 (.33)
Income	
<$25,000	-
$25,000-50,000	1.07 (.51)
$50,000+	1.16 (.55)
Marital Status	
Not Married	-
Married	.44* (.18)
Constant	.76 (.30)
Wald chi2	14.65
Pseudo R2	.08

Note: *p<.05 **p<.01***p<.001

Table 20: Negative Binomial Predicting Dollars for Recruitment (Non-mentors only, n=391)

	Coefficient
Age	
18-25	
26-35	.28 (.31)
36+	.17 (.28)
Race	
Non-Hispanic White	-
Non-Hispanic Black	.58* (.29)
Non-Hispanic Other	.36 (.27)
Hispanic	.01 (.34)
Education	
Less than High School	-
High School or Some College	-.59* (.23)
Bachelors or more	-.86* (.38)
Income	
<$25,000	-
$25,000-50,000	.22 (.31)
$50,000+	-.04 (.31)
Marital Status	
Not Married	-
Married	-.15 (.22)
Constant	5.42*** (.22)
F	1.77
Pseudo R^2	.01

Note: *p<.05 **p<.01***p<.001

Part V: Mentors and Mentoring Experiences

Who Mentors?

As previously described, respondents were asked to report whether they had ever served as a mentor to child with an organization or structured program. Table 21 displays results from a logistic regression model predicting the odds of mentorship experience by demographic characteristics for the entire sample (n=587). Findings suggest that the odds that African American men have mentored are about 2.27 times larger than the odds for Whites. The model shows statistically significant effects of educational attainment as well. The odds that respondents with a high school education or a college education are about 2.70 and 7.39 times larger, respectively, compared to the odds for respondents with less than a high school education.

Table 22 presents descriptive statistics for men from the general population with mentoring experience (n=196). On average, men from the mentoring subsample are older than non-mentors, as 68% of the subsample is in the 36-64 age bracket, which is 13% more than non-mentors, and fewer mentors are in the 18-25 and 26-35 age categories than non-mentors. As with non-mentors, the majority of men with mentoring experience are White. The vast majority of mentors have at least a high school education (93%) and earn at least $25,000 per year (83%). Seventy-three percent of men from the mentor subsample are married, which is 20% higher than non-mentors.

Table 21: Logistic Regression Predicting the Odds of Mentorship Experience (n=587)

	Odds Ratio
Age	
18-25	-
26-35	1.11 (.59)
36+	1.09 (.55)
Race	
Non-Hispanic White	-
Non-Hispanic Black	2.27* (.79)
Non-Hispanic Other	.79 (.34)
Hispanic	1.01 (.50)
Education	
Less than High School	-
High School or Some College	2.70** (1.03)
Bachelors or more	7.39*** (3.69)
Income	
<$25,000	-
$25,000-50,000	.55 (.26)
$50,000+	.53 (.25)
Marital Status	
Not Married	-
Married	2.15* (.78)
Constant	.16*** (.06)
Wald chi^2	34.00***
Pseudo R^2	.10

Note: *p<.05 **p<.01***p<.001

Table 22: Descriptive Statistics for Mentors (n=196)

	Mean	SD
Age		
18-25	.11	.32
26-35	.18	.38
36-64	.68	.47
65+	.03	.19
Race		
Non-Hispanic White	.67	.47
Non-Hispanic Black	.14	.35
Non-Hispanic Other	.07	.26
Hispanic	.12	.33
Education		
Less than high school	.07	.25
High school/some college	.51	.50
BA or higher	.42	.50
Income		
<25,000	.17	.38
25-50,000	.18	.39
50+	.65	.48
Marital Status		
Married	.73	.44
Not Married	.27	.44

Mentoring Experiences

Table 23 displays means and standard deviations for a series of items that measure respondents' mentoring experiences. Fifty-five percent of the mentor subsample reported that they had been asked by someone else to become a mentor. The majority of those respondents (63%) reported that someone from a mentoring organization asked them; the remaining 37% indicated that a friend, relative, co-worker or boss, or someone else had asked them. About 16% of mentors reported that they had received a stipend or other resources to become a mentor.

A series of questions were also asked to better understand the contexts of respondents' first mentoring experiences. Table 23 shows that on average, respondents were about 21 years old during their first mentoring experience, about 81% were employed fulltime, 40% were students, and nearly half had children or other dependents at the time. On average, mentors reported spending about 16 hours per month with their

mentee, and the average length of the relationship was about two years. Few respondents (14%) reported that they were still mentoring the child from their first mentoring experience; among those who were not, about one-third reported that they still keep contact with that child. The average age of mentees during respondents' first mentoring experience was about twelve. Sixty-five percent of mentees were White or African American, the remaining thirty-five percent were Hispanic or some other race.

Table 23: Mentoring Experiences (mentors only, n=196)

	Mean	SD
Asked to be a mentor	.55	.50
Person who asked		
Friend	.04	.21
Relative	.04	.19
Co-worker	.04	.20
Someone from the organization	.63	.49
Boss	.11	.31
Other	.14	.35
Ever received stipend	.16	.37
Age at first mentoring experience	28.21	9.61
Still mentoring child from first experience	.14	.35
Length of first relationship (months)	24.52	25.38
Had children at the time of first experience	.49	.50
Was a student at the time of first experience	.40	.49
Was employed at the time of first experience	.87	.34
Fulltime	.81	.40
Retired at the time of first experience	.16	.37
Hours per month spent with child at first experience	16.32	11.08
Still keep contact with first mentee	.31	.47
Age of child of first experience	12.53	3.24
Race of mentee (1st experience)		
Non-Hispanic White	.44	.50
Non-Hispanic Black	.21	.41
Non-Hispanic Other	.11	.31
Hispanic	.24	.43
Currently mentoring anyone	.25	.43
Number of kids mentored in lifetime	10.56	8.19

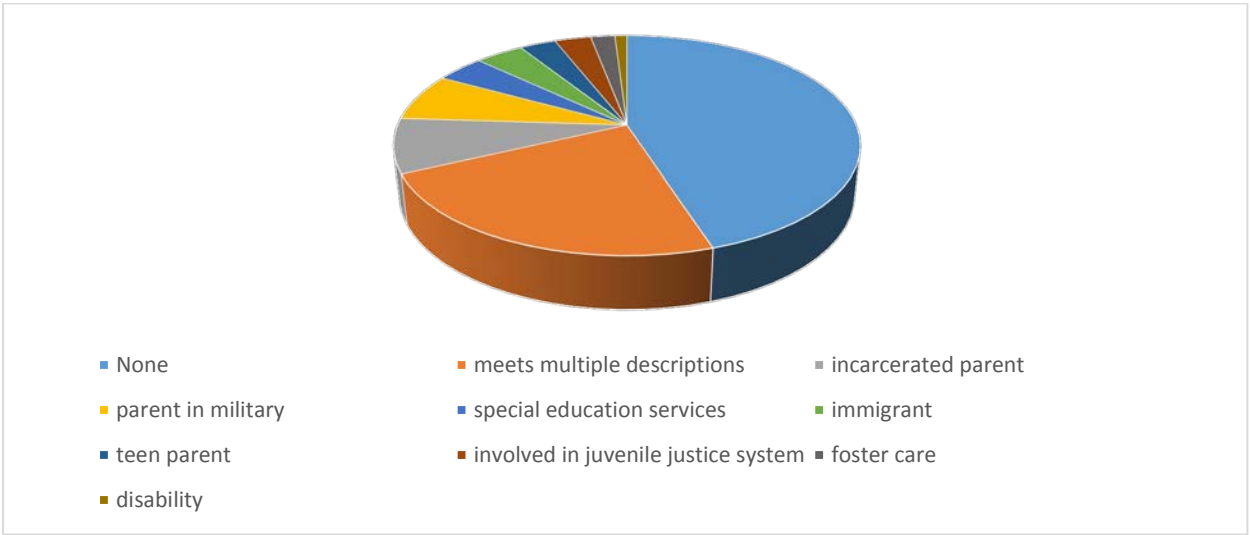
During the survey, interviewers read several descriptions of youth and asked respondents to identify any descriptions that

fit their mentees during their first mentoring experience. These descriptions included special education services, a physical disability, teen parent, involved in the juvenile justice system, had a parent in the military, an immigrant, in foster care, or had a parent who is or was incarcerated. Table 24 displays the percentage of respondents who reported each of these descriptions, and figure 13 displays these estimates in graphic form. Nearly half of respondents reported that their mentees met none of these descriptions, while about one-fifth reported multiple descriptions. Respondents reporting that their mentee met only one description were less common (<10%).

Table 24: Mentee Needs (mentors only, N=196)

	Percentage of Mentees
none	45%
incarcerated parent	8%
parent in military	7%
special education services	4%
immigrant	4%
teen parent	3%
involved in juvenile justice system	3%
foster care	2%
disability	1%
meets multiple descriptions	23%

Figure 13: Graphical Display of Mentee Needs



Leveraging information gained from questions about respondents' first mentoring experiences, we analyzed three models predicting length of first mentoring relationship (negative binomial regression), hours per month spent during first mentoring relationship (negative binomial regression), and sustained contact (logistic regression). Sustained contact is an indicator for a subsample of respondents who reported that they keep contact with their first mentees, even though they are not still mentoring them.[3] Predictors in these models include mentor characteristics during their first mentoring experience (had children or dependents; employed fulltime; was a student); mentee characteristics during their first mentoring experience (disability/special education; teen parent/involved in the juvenile justice system; immigrant; parent in the military/parent in prison/parent in foster care)[4]; and mentor-mentee characteristics during their first mentoring experience (same race; age distance).[5] For the model predicting length of relationship, an indicator for whether or not the relationship is still active is also included. The logic behind these models is that 1) characteristics of the mentor and mentee may affect how long the relationship lasts, 2) characteristics of the mentor and mentee may affect how much time they spend together, and 3) characteristics of the mentor and mentee may affect whether or not contact is sustained after termination of the mentorship.

Other than the indicator for whether or not the relationship is still active, only the variable representing same mentor and mentee race is statistically significant. More specifically, the expected log count for same-race mentor-mentee relationships is .43 higher than the expected log count for relationships in which the mentor and mentee were not of the same race. The model predicting hours spent per month shows that relationships characterized by mentors who were students at the time and mentees who had a disability involved longer hours per month than those in which the mentor was not a student and in which the child did not have a disability, respectively. No statistically significant effects were identified in the logistic regression model predicting sustained contact.

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[3] Nine respondents were dropped from analysis because they reported zero mentees on a question that asked them how many mentees they had in their lives.

[4] Individual categories for mentee needs had to be combined due to small cell sizes.

[5] We attempted to control for mentor's current age in these models; however, this item had to be removed because of collinearity concerns.

Supplementary analysis (not tabled) modeled the number of mentee needs (i.e., disability, teen parent/ involved in juvenile justice system, etc.). Number of mentee needs was found to be positively and significantly correlated with hours spent per month between the mentor and mentee.

In addition to the possibility that characteristics of a mentoring relationship can have a concurrent effect on mentoring outcomes (e.g., length of the relationship), we also examined the possibility that characteristics of one's first mentoring experience could have an impact on future mentoring experiences. Table 25 shows the results of a negative binomial model predicting the total number of mentees that respondents reported having in their lives, using mentor, mentee, and mentor-mentee characteristics from respondents' first mentoring experiences as predictors. No statistically significant effects were identified.

Table 25: 1st Mentoring and Mentee Characteristics Predicting Number of Mentees (mentors only, n=187)*9 respondents dropped who reported 0 mentees

	Negative binomial
	***Coefficient* (SE)**
Mentor Characteristics	
Had children or dependents	-.23 (.22)
Was employed fulltime	.14 (.23)
Was a student	-.25 (.23)
Mentee Characteristics	
Disability or special education	.02 (.20)
Teen parent/ involved in juvenile justice system	-.16 (.25)
Immigrant	-.07 (.29)
Parent in the military, in prison, or child in foster care	.26 (.19)
Mentor-Mentee Characteristics at First Experience	
Same race	-.07 (.19)
Age difference less than 10 years (baseline)	
Age difference between 10-20 years	.21 (.22)
Age difference greater than 20 years	-.09 (.25)
Length of relationship	.01 (.00)
Model *F*	1.30
McFadden's R^2	.01

Finally, we examined whether respondents who had received a stipend at some point in their lives to become a mentor reported a higher number of mentoring experiences overall. Table 26 shows results from a negative binomial model predicting the number of mentees in respondents' lifetimes by stipend receipt. In model I, stipend receipt is entered by itself. In model II, we assessed whether the effect of stipend receipt withheld in the presence of demographic controls. Results indicate that the expected log count of number of mentees is .38 higher among respondents who received a stipend to mentor than those who had not. The item remains statistically significant in the presence of controls.

Table 26: Negative Binomial Regression Predicting Number of Mentees by Stipend Receipt (mentors only, n=187) *9 respondents dropped who reported 0 mentees

	***Model I Coefficient* (SE)**	***Model II Coefficient* (SE)**
Received stipend	.38* (.17)	.51** (.18)
Age		.00 (.01)
Race		
Non-Hispanic White		
Non-Hispanic Black		.26 (.20)
Non-Hispanic Other		-.30 (.29)
Hispanic		-.04 (.26)
Education		
Less than High School		
High School or Some College		.04 (.28)
Bachelors or more		-.04 (.34)
Income		
<$25,000		
$25,000-50,000		.24 (.29
$50,000+		.45 (.29)
Marital Status		
Not Married		
Married		.11 (.18)
Model *F*	5.30*	3.03***
McFadden's R^2	.004	.02

2.6.3 Discussion

In this final section, we summarize knowledge gained from the results of the telephone survey of men in the general population. In doing so, we make recommendations for strategies to better recruit or retain men for mentoring.

Committing to mentoring for twelve months or more is a major concern among men from the general population who do not have previous mentoring experience. Commitment was the most important concern for respondents from all racial categories, marital status types, education and income groups, and age brackets. Mentoring organizations must be cognizant that this concern not only exceeds other types of concerns, it is relatively stable across individuals with different types of characteristics. Unfortunately, our analysis of concerns and their correlations with potential incentives for mentoring did not identify any positive correlations between concerns about commitment and particular incentivizing situations. Hence, not only is the concern related to commitment widespread, it is also unclear how it can be alleviated. However, although the survey addressed numerous potential incentives, it did not contain an exhaustive list and therefore there may be situations that could assuage concerns about commitment that we did not cover. Researchers and mentoring organizations should continue to investigate ways in which apprehension for mentoring commitments could be lessened.

Having to pay out of pocket and knowing what activities to do with mentees are also common concerns among men without mentoring experience. Our analysis of concerns among the overall sample of men without mentoring experience also indicated that respondents were generally concerned about out-of-pocket expenses and the types of activities they would engage in with mentees. Mentoring organizations may leverage this information in their recruitment efforts. Specifically, attempts to recruit men for mentoring should be accompanied with illustrations of the types of activities mentors and mentees can do with one another. Because money is a concern, recruiters should highlight low- or no-cost activities that mentors and mentees can do with one another or when possible reassure potential candidates that activities will be paid for by the organization or that money spent by mentors on mentor-mentee activities will be reimbursed.

Concerns about mentoring are not exactly the same across different demographic groups. Although our analysis does suggest that many concerns, such as those related to commitment, money, and activities are relatively common

across all demographic groups, some concerns are unique to specific types of men. For example, unlike other racial categories, African American men and older men viewed their health as a potential barrier to becoming a mentor in that it could possibly limit the types of activities they could do with their mentees. Mentoring organizations must be sensitive to these differences and customize recruitment efforts whenever possible. For example, using this information, recruiters may also make the case to potential candidates that there are numerous activities mentors and mentees can do with one another that do not require a lot of physical activity. Likewise, our analysis also indicated that transportation issues were more of a concern for African American men and unmarried than men from other racial categories or for married men. When possible, mentoring organizations should inform potential candidates that transportation support services are available to facilitate mentor-mentee relationships.

Thinking one would not be good at being a mentor is a concern, but only for some men. The concern about not being a good mentor was one of top three concerns for men with less than a high school education as well as for men between the ages of 18 and 35. In a similar vein, respondents with a college education or greater were concerned about potential cultural and racial differences with mentees. Recruitment efforts should communicate to potential candidates that all mentors have something unique and valuable to offer their mentees as well as make attempts to help candidates identify those qualities that would make them valuable mentors.

The potential to make a difference in a child's life is a major incentive for men in the general population. Analysis of the entire sample of men without mentoring experience revealed that the possibility of making a difference in a child's life is a prominent incentive for becoming a mentor. Mentoring organizations should leverage this information and incorporate "success stories" that describe real-world mentoring relationships that enhanced mentees' wellbeing or life experiences into their recruiting curriculum.

Finding a mentoring opportunity with an organization whose philosophy and mission is consistent with the potential mentor is an important incentive for becoming

a mentor. Respondents viewed mentoring opportunities as more attractive when they agreed with the philosophy and general mission of the organization. Accordingly, organizations should devise a clear and effective communication strategy for informing potential candidates about the organization, its mission, and its orientation towards community service and activities.

Being able to mentor during convenient hours was perceived as important by several groups of men. Many groups of men, such as White men, Hispanic men, and men from other racial categories viewed convenient hours as an important incentive to mentoring, as did men from middle and upper income categories. Acknowledging this and when possible, mentoring organizations should inform potential candidates that many mentor-mentee activities can be held on weekends or in the evenings. If possible, candidates who work nonstandard work schedules should be reassured that mentor-mentee activities can be structured during times that are available for both the mentor and mentee.

The promise of reimbursement is only effective in particular situations. Interestingly, although having to pay out of pocket to mentor was a common concern among men, reimbursement was not scored among the most important incentives for becoming a mentor. However, subgroup analysis did suggest that reimbursement was relatively more important to African American men. Unmarried men also viewed reimbursement as more important than married men and the appeal of reimbursement generally decreased as education level increased. Results from table 7 are complimentary to these observations, in that African American men and unmarried men were more likely to report that they would be more likely to mentor if provided a stipend. Likewise, correlation analysis between concerns and incentives indicated that respondents concerned about having to pay out of pocket also tended to score higher on the item measuring the appeal of reimbursement as an incentive. Similarly, our analysis also indicated that on average, respondents who were concerned about transportation scored higher on the item measuring the appeal of reimbursement as an incentive. Given that reimbursement is not shown to be a meaningful incentive for all types of men, this strategy should perhaps be reserved for recruitment attempts of African American men, men with lower

levels of education, and men who have previously expressed concern about transportation or having to pay out of pocket to become a mentor.

Many men with busy lives engage in mentoring. Our analysis of men with mentoring experience showed that the vast majority (81%) were employed fulltime during their first mentoring experience, 40% were students, and about half had children or other dependents at the time. Hence, mentoring organizations should communicate to candidates that it is normal for them to have other obligations and that mentors typically have very busy lives. They should also make the case that on average, mentors do not have to spend a substantial amount of time with their mentees to have an impact on their lives. For instance, in the current study, mentors on average reported spending about 4 hours per week with their mentees.

About half of mentors reported that their first mentee had one more special need. Although almost half of the sample of men with mentoring experience reported that their first mentee did not have special needs, the remaining men reported that their first mentees had one or more special needs. Mentoring agencies should be transparent about the potential for mentees to have special needs, and when possible offer mentors support services that train them on how to mentor in such a way that is sensitive to these needs.

Overall, mentor and mentee characteristics do not have a substantial impact on the length of the relationship, amount of time spent per month, whether or not contact is sustained after the mentoring relationship is terminated, or lifetime number of mentees. Few statistically significant effects were identified in models predicting length of relationship, time spent per month, or whether or not contact was sustained after the mentoring relationship terminated. A few exceptions are that mentors and mentees of the same race tended to have longer relationships than those of different races from one another, and that more special needs among mentees was associated with more time spent per month. Organizations should attempt to match mentors and mentees by race. Additionally, candidates should be informed that if they are matched with a special needs child, it is possible they will spend more time per month with their mentee. It is also noteworthy that respondents who reported

receiving a stipend to mentor at some point in their lives reported a higher number of lifetime mentees. This latter finding lends support for the notion that offering mentors some form of stipend may help facilitate a positive mentoring experience and therefore encourage men to seek out future mentoring opportunities.

2.7 ECONOMIC STUDY

2.7.1 Introduction

It is critical to understand the resources used to provide mentoring. Funders considering subsidizing mentoring programs require fiscal justification and mentoring agencies must budget to provide services. Moreover, providing mentoring relies on volunteer mentors who have competing priorities for their time and energy and limited budgets. If mentoring agencies are considering incentivizing mentors a means of attracting and retaining appropriate mentors, the agencies need to understand the time and money that mentors devote to sustaining a mentoring relationship.

Although there is a literature documenting the costs of mentoring, it focuses on the budgetary costs of running mentoring programs. Some studies also present information on the value of resources donated or subsidized by mentors. However, there is very little guidance on the full cost of time and resources to mentors.

The literature on the agency costs of mentoring typically separate those costs into the operating costs of running a program, the costs of hiring staff to manage the program, and the costs of materials and space. However, studies commonly exclude the costs of volunteer time and resources used for mentoring (e.g., Poulin & Orchowsky, 2012). One study, Herrera et al. (2007), assesses the value of physical resources donated by mentors. However, even though the time commitments for volunteering may be significant, the authors exclude the costs of volunteer time, the rationale being that all programs rely on volunteer time. However, the time and resource commitments provided by volunteer mentors may vary substantially across mentoring programs.

Studies calculating the cost of community-based mentoring from this perspective often come up with a total annual cost of

in the range of $1,000 to $1,500 per youth served per year (Levine, 2014). Many publicly available reports on the cost of mentoring, often not part of the peer-reviewed literature, do not provide much information on cost calculations, citing costs calculated in another study. For example, Tierney and colleagues did not do a cost study, but merely reporting that given the annual budget and number of youth served, that reported costs in the literature seemed reasonable (Tierney et al., 1995). Others only reference author's calculations (as in Levine, 2014).

One study to our knowledge presents estimates of the cost of volunteer time for a mentoring program (Anton & Temple, 2007). However, the study does not provide detail on how the costs were calculated using the available data. The authors report that a composite mentoring program (representing components or averages of mentoring programs in Minnesota) with $1,300 in annual cash expenses per participant per year would also use volunteer time worth $2,262 (2005 dollars, and based on 13 hours / month) per participant per year. If this ratio were to apply similarly to other mentoring programs the costs of mentoring programs based only or primarily on budgetary costs are underestimating the true costs of mentoring by at least half.

Given the variety of mentoring programs, the costs to volunteers of mentoring may vary substantially. Resources required by mentors extend beyond just the time they spend with their mentee. It includes the time spent determine what, if any, activities to participate in with their mentee, the cost of those activities if they are not free, and the costs of transportation to meet with the Little and attend activities. These components of the costs to volunteers can lead to cost differences for volunteers between school-based programs and 1-on-1 community-based mentoring programs, even within the same mentoring organization. School-based programs may have pre-planned actives and occur at a set location. Community-based mentoring may take place at any of a number of possible locations and often involves additional time from the mentor to plan actives and additional resources to participate in any activates that are not free, and the provision of transportation for both the mentor and the mentee to actives.

In this analysis we will characterize the distribution of the volunteers' costs of mentoring at Big Brothers Big Sisters and the components of those costs. Those components being the mentor's time preparing for and meeting with the Little, the money mentors spend on activities (out of pocket costs), and the costs of travel for mentoring activities. We will also examine how the total and component costs vary by the demographic attributes of the mentors.

2.7.2 Methods

Data

To collect data on the cost of volunteer resources, RTI worked with BBBS to amend an existing and ongoing management of mentors. On a monthly basis, BBBS match support specialists (MSS's) contact mentors to briefly correspond by phone or email regarding issues around the mentoring relationship. The monthly check-in protocol was amended to include 5 specific questions on resources used by mentors to support the mentoring relationship that month.

The questions asked of the mentors were:

1. In the past 30 days how many times did you meet with your Little?
2. In the past 30 days, how much time did you spend meeting with your Little?
3. In the past 30 days, how much time did you spend preparing for meetings with your Little? This includes planning or arranging activities, locating tickets, arranging transportation, etc.
4. In the past 30 days, how much money did you spend on mentoring activities with your Little?
5. In the past 30 days, how many miles did you drive or travel in a personal car to support your mentoring activities? This includes picking up and dropping off your Little?

BBBS discussed the questions with mentors during mentor orientation and other initial meetings so that mentors would be aware of the intent of BBBS to ask those questions during the monthly contacts from the match support specialists. Mentors were encouraged to either track the information needed to answer those questions or to at least keep that information in mind for when they would have their monthly contact with the MSS. The MSS indicated on the form whether the mentor was a paid or volunteer mentor and to provide the contact date.

Data were collected from 133 respondents covering between 1 to 14 months per respondent from 2009 to 2014. For mentors with multiple months of responses, we averaged over their responses and used that average for our analyses. Of the 133 respondents, 39 percent did not have a designation as being either a paid or volunteer mentor, limiting the ability to perform any subgroup analysis to compare difference between paid and volunteer mentors. We were able to link the mentors to demographic data on the mentors in data from BBBS. This allowed us to examine the primary components of the costs of mentoring by gender, race/ethnicity, and student status.

Respondents with incomplete information in terms of either demographic characteristics or mentor cost components were not included in the analysis, leaving an analytic sample size of 96 mentors of which 80% are male, 36% are black, and 17% are students. This differs from the general population of BBBS mentors primarily in the proportion of the sample that are male: of the full sample of mentors that is used in other project analyses that are described elsewhere, 45% are male. Relative to the broader sample of mentors, the analytic sample here is slightly more likely to be single (66% of analytical sample; 57% of full sample of mentors) and slightly less likely to be a student (17% of analytic sample; 21% of full sample).

Analysis

To impute the value of time of mentors, we used the median usual weekly earnings for those employed full time age 25 or older[6] along the three sociodemographic characteristics of gender (male or female), race/ethnicity (White, Hispanic, Black, or Asian), and education level (less than high school, some college, college graduate, or advanced degree) from the BLS Current Population Survey. We divided the weekly wage by 34.5 hours per week, the average weekly hours worked over most of the 2009-2014 period according to BLS Current Employment Statistics, and then adjusted each year's wage to 2012 dollars using the Consumer Price Index. If a mentor's occupation was designated as a student, unemployed, or unknown, then the minimum wage was used as her hourly

[6] The BLS Tables used to obtain these wages only offered wages by educational status for those 25 and older. For those aged 16 to 24 earning could not be stratified by educational status.

wage rather than the wage based on her demographic characteristics.

To determine the value of miles driven by mentors for mentoring activates, we used the Internal Revenue Service standard mileage rate that applied to miles driven in service of charitable organizations (14 cents per mile) rather than the business mileage rate.

Time cost is the time mentors spend preparing for and meeting Littles (questions 2 and 3 in the list of 5 questions) multiplied by the value of their time. The out-of-pocket cost is the response to question 4 from the list of 5 questions. The travel cost is the distance mentors travel for Littles (question 5) multiplied by the per mile cost of travel.

We estimated means and standard deviations of cost variables and the cost components (e.g., time meeting with a Little). Multivariate regressions were conducted to examine differences in the three components of the costs of mentoring by gender, race, and student status. All analyses were conducted using Stata statistical software.

Results

During a typical month, mentors spent the equivalent of almost one working day – 7 hours– preparing for, following up, and meeting with mentees (6.3 hours in person, 0.7 hours supporting that meeting). This time was spread over 2.1 meetings on average, meaning that the time per meeting was 3 hours (Table 27).

The value of the time spent mentoring on a monthly basis was $186 (Table 27). This time cost greatly exceeded the other, out-of-pocket costs ($34) and travel costs ($6). Figure 14 expresses the degree to which time costs exceed other costs to mentors. Over the course of a year of mentoring, these estimates translate to an average cost to mentors of $2,720. Of that cost, $2,230 was the value of unreimbursed time, $413 was out-of-pocket costs, and $77 was travel costs.

Figure 15 presents average predicted values by demographic characteristics from the multivariate regressions. The time spent preparing and meeting with the Little was found to be significantly lower for female mentors on average (3 hours less) than for male mentors ($p = 0.02$), all else held equal. There

were no statistically significant differences found for the time spent preparing and meeting with the Little by race or by student status. However when analyzing the time cost of mentoring, significant differences are found both by gender ($107 less for females; $p = 0.02$) and by student status ($179 less for students, $p < 0.01$; Figure 15). The difference by gender is understandable, given the significant difference in time dedicated to mentoring activities. The significant difference by student status arises from the difference in wages rather than from differences in time spent on mentoring activities. We performed a sensitivity analysis of mentoring time costs and total costs using wages based on demographics for students rather than the minimum wage (Figure 16). Without using the minimum wage for students, results are similar to the mentoring time itself: there are only significant differences for females ($111 less; $p = 0.02$), all else held equal, in the mentoring time costs.

For money spent on mentoring activities, or out-of-pocket costs for mentors, there were no statistically significant differences found among any of the three demographic characteristics (Figure 15). For the travel costs, no statistically significant differences were found by gender (Figure 15). Statistically significant differences in travel costs were found by race and by student status. On average travel costs for black mentors were about $2 less than for mentors of all other races ($p=0.05$), all else held equal. Student mentors had travel costs that were on average $4 lower than non-students ($p < 0.01$), all else held equal.

Total costs are largely driven by mentoring time costs, and significant differences are found only by student status ($191 less for students; $p < 0.01$; Figure 17). The lower time costs for females are offset by their slightly higher out of pocket and travel costs. As with the mentoring time costs, the difference by student status is driven by the differences in wages used as the students time cost. The average wage for non-student respondents is around $30.50 per hour, relative to the $7.25 minimum wage. This results in the non-student mentors having, on average, a mentoring cost that is four times that of students ($256 vs $79; Figure 17). The sensitivity analyses where the minimum wage is not used find no significant differences in the costs of mentoring by any of the demographic characteristics (Figure 16).

2.7.3 Discussion

The current study is one of the few to date that estimates the time spent and actual costs incurred by mentors to support a mentoring relationship. The average monthly cost is $226. The annualized cost of $2,720 are quite similar to the costs of volunteer time presented in Anton & Temple, which are approximately $2,660 when adjusted to 2012 dollars. This finding by itself provides a benchmark for mentoring and other organizations that may wish to either establish monetary incentives to attract more mentors or retain existing mentors.

The findings suggest that the mentoring costs are driven by time costs, and this in turn may help mentoring organizations structure their incentives appropriately. The results in the current study indicate that over 80% of the mentor cost of supporting a mentoring relationship is accounted for by the value of the mentor's time. The existing literature suggests that mentor time may be worth at least 50% of the mentor cost (Anton & Temple, 2007). However, these prior conclusions on the relative breakdown of mentoring cost by its components appear to be speculative and based on budgeting assumptions. The findings in the current study are based on data collected from staff discussions with mentors, and thus are likely derived from a more accurate methodology.

Results from multivariate regressions indicated some differences by core mentor characteristics. Given the importance of time costs to overall costs, perhaps most meaningful were significant differences by gender in time. Over the course of 30 days, male mentors spent 75% more time meeting or preparing for meetings with Littles than female mentors.

Although the study contributes to the literature on the resources used to support mentoring, it faces a number of important limitations. Perhaps most important is that the findings are from a select sample of 133 respondents. Data collection on mentor resource use was initially targeted to a subset of male mentors at BBBST, which partly explains the overrepresentation of males in our analytic sample (80%) relative to the rest of BBBS (45%). The analytic sample may have slightly underrepresented student mentors (17% relative to 21% overall), who have a lower cost of mentoring. The lower cost is because the market value of students' time is lower

rather than because of differences in resource use or time commitment.

Even if there were no differences between this analytic sample and the characteristics of BBBS mentors, another limitation is that we still could not be certain that the component and total costs reported here were representative of the full population of BBBS mentors. Mentors who took the time to respond to these questions or to the MSS check-ins in general may have been more conscientious mentors who dedicated more time and resources to their Little and these estimates are therefore an overestimate of the costs of mentoring, since the non-responding mentors would have given less of their time or money. It could be that response to the MSS questions was driven by differences in MSS persistence in getting responses from mentors for their check-ins. If so, it's hard to say how this might have affected the given estimates. Mentors who perhaps would not have otherwise responded to these questions may have made greater (and therefore less reliable) guesses at their resources used; or perhaps over time they would have improved their resource tracking over time knowing that the MSS would be diligent in getting responses to the monthly check-ins.

A second major limitation is that the cost estimates presented here are only the ongoing, monthly costs of volunteering. Volunteer costs that are not included here include many of the start-up costs volunteers incur at the beginning of joining a mentor program, such as time spent by the mentor applying to become a mentor, providing any additional information for background checks, participating in enrollment interviews and participating in BBBS orientation.

The methods and findings from the current study suggest several directions for future research. The field of mentoring in general does not have a large evidence base, and this applies in particular to economic studies. Even though mentoring is frequently a volunteer activity, candidate mentors make conscious decisions on how to use their time and spend their income. Mentoring organizations need data to understand the trade-offs that people contemplating mentoring face and future studies should be conducted on understanding what those trade-offs are and quantifying them.

If results such as those from this study are to be used to help form incentives for mentoring, future research would also be needed on how to structure those incentives. The large proportion of costs accounted for by time suggests that research is needed on whether and the degree to which any reimbursement of costs should exceed out-of-pocket and travel costs, for example.

Table 27. Resources Spent Mentoring Over 30 Day Period

Category	Mean (std. dev.)
Number of meetings with mentee	2.1 (1.3)
Amount of time spent face-face with mentee (hours)	6.3 (5.0)
Amount of time spent preparing for meetings with mentee[a]	0.7 (1.0)
Money spent out of pocket[b]	$34.4 ($41.2)
Miles spent traveling	45.3 (38.4)

Notes: a – Includes time spent preparing for meetings with Little, planning or arranging activities, locating tickets, and arranging transportation; b – 2012 dollars

Table 2. Cost of Mentoring Over 30 Day Period (2012 dollars)

Category of cost	Mean (std. dev.)
Time cost[a]	$185.8 ($188.3)
Out-of-pocket cost	$34.4 ($41.2)
Travel cost	$6.4 ($5.5)
Total cost	$226.7 ($212.1)

a – Individual's Time Cost = Total time (in hours) in mentoring-related activities x Individual's Hourly Wage; total time in mentoring-related activities is the time spent meeting a Little and the time spent preparing for and following

Figure 14. Distribution of costs supporting mentee relationship by type of cost

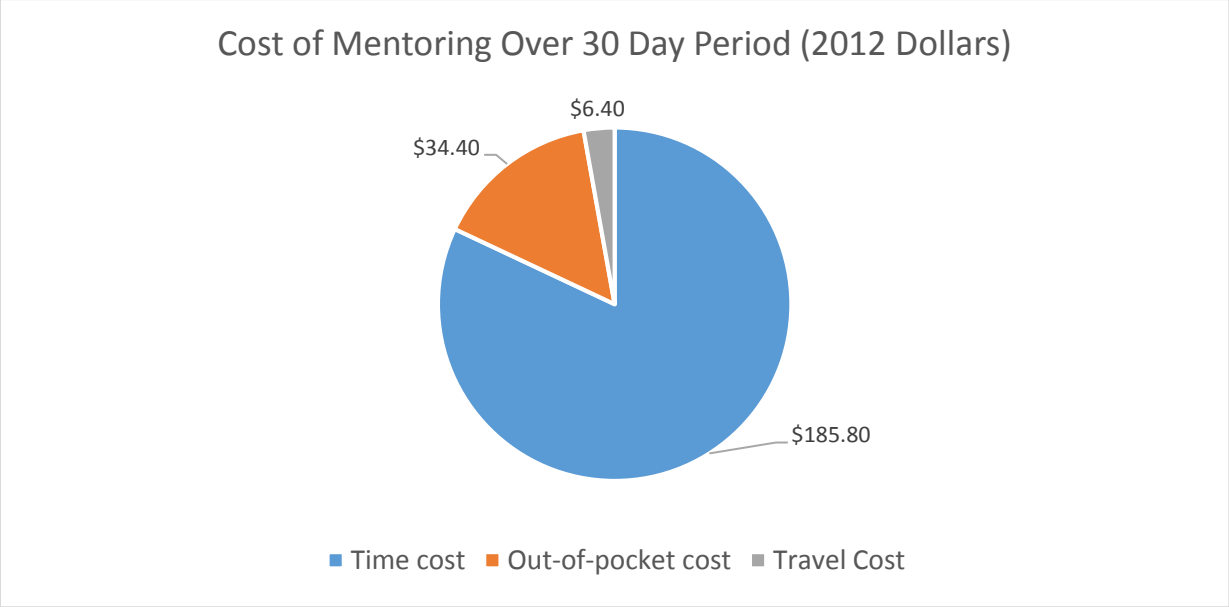

Figure 15. Average predicted values of cost components by demographic characteristics.

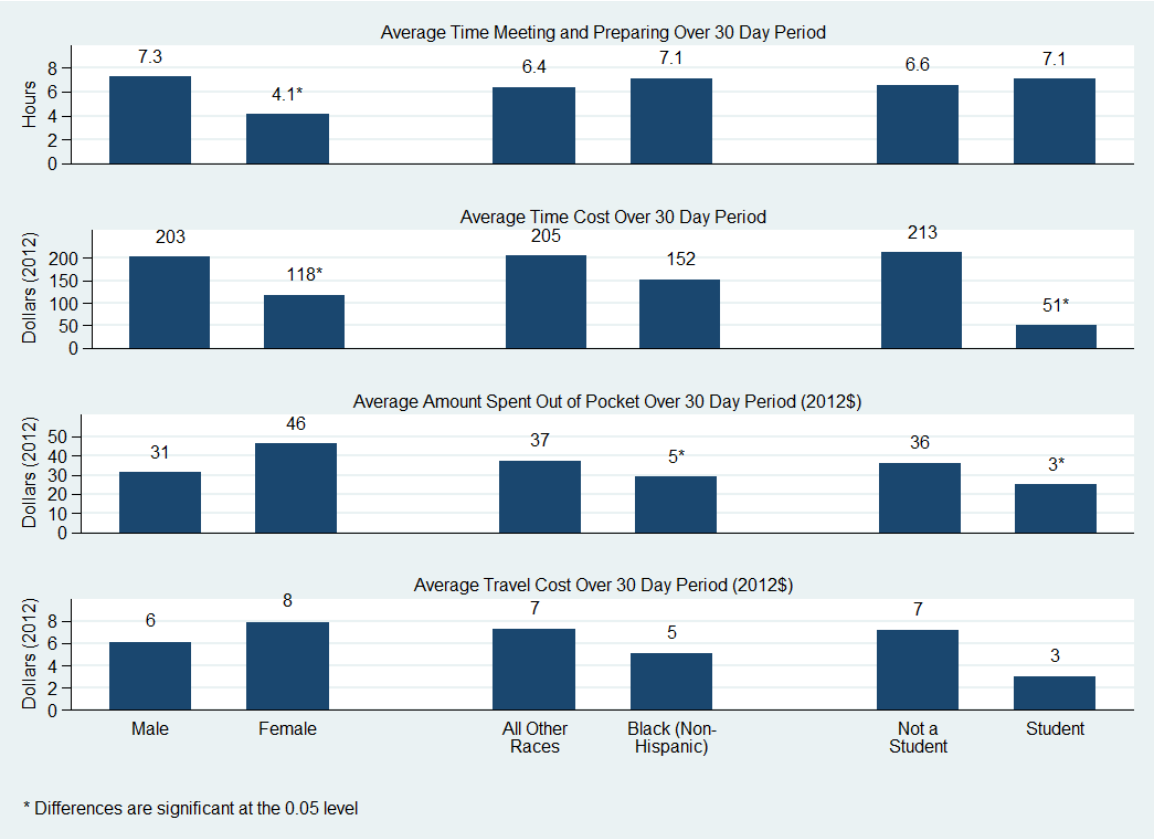

Figure 16. Sensitivity Analysis: Student wages based on demographics, not minimum wage.

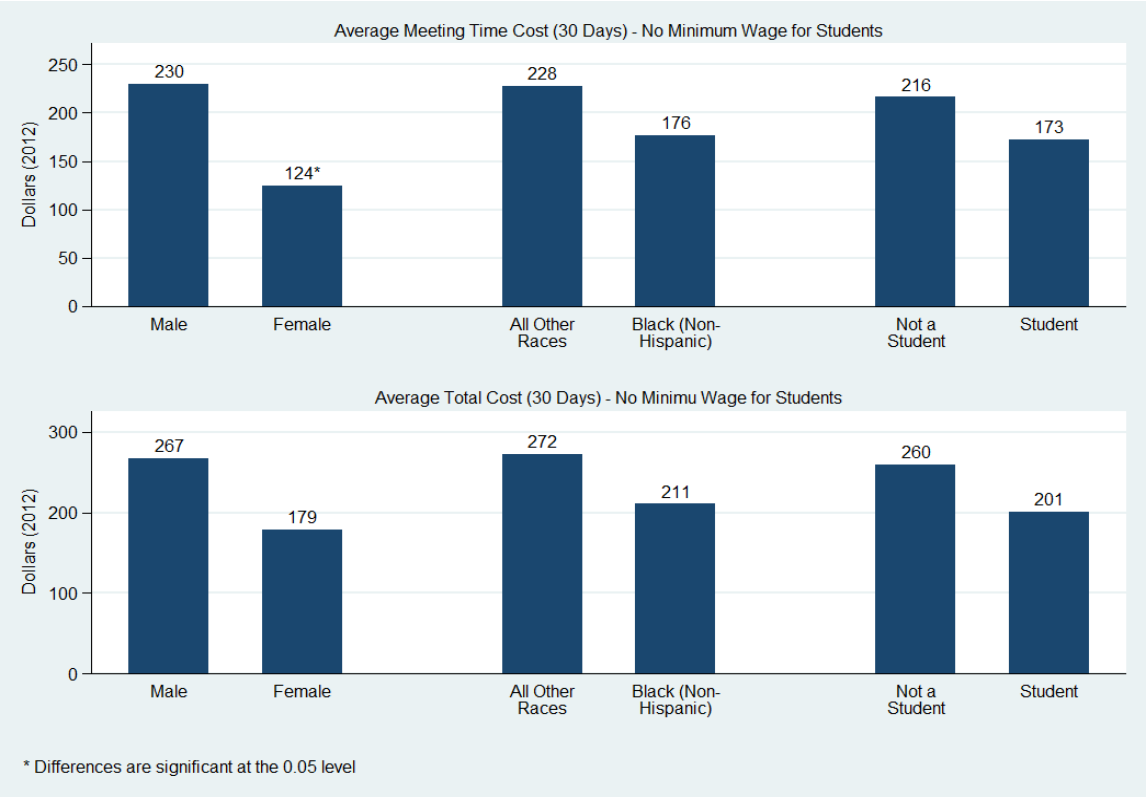

Figure 17. Total costs by Demographic Characteristics