Spring 6-13-2014

The Role of Multicultural Competence, Privilege, Attributions, and Team Support in Predicting Positive Youth Mentor Outcomes

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Abstract

In the current study we use Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological theory to guide an inquiry into how the social environment surrounding mentors' matters in regards to mentor outcomes of satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior (i.e., mentors willingness to go above and beyond for their mentee or the mentoring program). Mentors are sampled from mentoring organizations across the United States. Drawing from Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory (1979), we examine mentors embedded in distinct micro- and macrosystems. At the microsystem level we explore how the relationship between the mentor and the (a) mentee, (b) mentees' family, and (c) the mentoring team may predict mentoring outcomes. At the level of the macrosystem we test how mentor's structural understandings of White privilege and outgroup disadvantage predict mentor outcomes. We also examine how blaming the mentee for shortcomings rather than contextual factors may help explain the connection between micro and macrosystem factors and mentoring outcomes. Taken together, this study provides a unique and novel approach to understanding how mentor and ecological characteristics may contribute to positive mentoring outcomes.

The Role of Multicultural Competence, Privilege, Attributions, and Social

Support in Predicting Positive Youth Mentor Outcomes

Adult-youth mentoring is one way that adult volunteers may promote positive

youth development. Mentoring may be a rewarding experience for adults, but

research also documents the positive impact of mentoring for youth. Positive

outcomes for youth mentees have been demonstrated in areas such as (a)

academic performance and persistence (DuBois, Portillo, Rhodes, Silverthorn, &

Valentine, 2011; DuBois & Rhodes, 2006; Grossman & Rhodes, 2002), (b)

educational attainment and employment (DuBois, Holloway, Valentine, &

Cooper, 2002; DuBois et al. 2011), and (c) promoting resiliency (DuBois et al.,

2002; Hamilton & Hamilton, 1992; Rhodes, 1994; Werner 1995). In an effort to

understand how to promote positive mentoring relationships, the majority of

research to date focuses on mentor-mentee relationships (e.g., DuBois et al., 2002;

Hamilton & Hamilton, 1992; Jacobi, 1991), demographic characteristics of the

mentee and mentor (e.g., DuBois et al., 2002; Emmerik, Baugh, & Euwema,

2005; Ragins, 2009), match based on demographics (e.g., Campbell & Campbell,

2007; Koberg et al., 1998; Noe, 1988; Santos & Reigadas, 2002), and

characteristics of the mentoring programs (e.g., DuBois et al., 2011; DuBois et

al., 2002; DuBois & Rhodes, 2006). However, it may be as important to consider

the other relationships, social forces, and contextual factors that may affect the

mentoring relationship. Little research has focused on the larger social context in

which the mentoring relationship is embedded (Spencer, Basualdo-Delmonico, &

Lewis, 2011). Indeed, understanding intrapersonal, interpersonal, and contextual

factors in concert holds promise to inform mentoring programs and relationships to maximize the possible benefits to both the mentor and most importantly the mentee. In the current study we move beyond a singular focus on the mentee-mentor relationship to consider the larger social ecology surrounding mentors. We investigate how factors at multiple levels may be associated with positive mentoring outcomes for the mentor.

General Theoretical Framework

The current study draws from Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological framework to better understand how layers of social influence may be important in shaping mentors' experiences. According to this framework, individual development is understood by how individuals interact with others within their immediate setting, as well as through the influence of other larger settings, systems, and contexts (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Bronfenbrenner (1979) defines four systems, the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and macrosystem. As shown in Figure 1, each system is nested within the subsequent system (e.g., the mircosystem is nested within the mesosystem). Individuals are nested at the center within this set of larger structures, all of which define the individual's ecological environment. This unique system allows for the individual to exert influence on their immediate environment (i.e., their microsystem), while at the same time in a dynamic interplay, their microsystem exerts influence back on the individual. All of the structures in this model participate in this same type of bi-directional dynamic interplay with one another, in which each exerts influence upon the other, ultimately influencing the individual located in the center of the

structures (e.g., the microsystem exerts influence on the mesosystem, and the

mesosystem simultaneously exerts influence on the microsystem; Bronfenbrenner,

1979).

    The microsystem is comprised of the person in the center and the

relationships they form with others in their setting through direct contact

(Bronfenbrenner, 1979). In this study the mentor is in the center, and their

microsystem is formed by their relationship with the (a) mentee, (b) mentee's

family, and (c) mentoring team. Due to the direct nature of the contact,

Bronfenbrenner (1979) proposed that the bi-directional nature of influence is the

strongest in the Microsystem since the person is directly interacting with those in

their environment. The mesosystem is the next layer out that provides

connections between the structures of the individual's microsytem, where this

layer is comprised of the interactions between Microsystem relationships (e.g., for

the mentor, the relationship between the mentoring organization's program staff

and the mentee; Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The exosystem is comprised of larger

social structures that the individual may influence and be influenced by, even

though they do not participate in these structures directly (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

For example, the mentor may be influenced by changes occurring at their

mentee's school, or when one of their co-mentors divorces their spouse, even

though they may not interact directly with the school or their co-mentor's spouse.

The outermost layer, the macrosystem, is made up of more intangible influences

such as customs, values, norms, and laws (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). In this study

we will examine mentor's understanding of macrosystem influences such as

White privilege or structural understandings of outgroup disadvantage instead of directly assessing macrosystem variables.

In the current study we use Bronfenbrenner's (1979) framework to examine mentors as nested within a social environment that may be important in the positive mentor outcomes of satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior. The mentoring literature has begun to draw upon ecological theory, as well as family systems, social network, and systems theory to better understand the way in which the mentoring dyad may be impacted by other relationships within its nested system (Keller, 2005; Keller & Blakeslee, 2013). For example, in the mentoring literature, mentoring program effects have been found to be mediated by the mentee's relationships with other individuals (e.g., parents, program staff), supporting the idea the mentors may indirectly affect positive outcomes through other relationships in the *mentee's system* (Keller, 2005; Rhodes, Grossman, & Resch, 2000). In the present study we consider the mentor to be embedded in three microsystems consisting of relationships between the mentor and (a) mentee, (b) mentee's family, and (c) mentor's team. In later sections we assert that characteristics of each of these relationships (e.g., mentors perceived multicultural competence in relating to the mentee, positive relationship with mentee's family, and social support from a team) may be important in predicting mentor outcomes. The collection of these three microsystems defines the larger mesosytem that the mentor is embedded within. Although we do not assess interactions between the microsystems directly (the mesosystem), it is very likely that mentors, mentees, family, and teams all interact over the course of

time. We also do not assess dimensions of the exosystem for this study. Finally,

mentors are embedded in a larger macrosystem in the U.S. that contains many

cultural messages about the meaning of race, privilege, and disparity (Pinteritis,

Poteat, Spanierman, 2011; Thompson & Neville, 1999). Although we do not

assess societal attitudes, we assert that mentors have certain understandings about

their macrosystem that are important in predicting their mentoring outcomes.

Thus, in this study we examine awareness of White privilege and awareness of

structural outgroup disadvantage as well as emotional reactions to racism

including White guilt and White empathy to predict mentoring outcomes. See

Figure 1 for a description of how the mentor is nested within this larger social

environment and a summary of how study variables are conceptualized at each

level.

    With this theoretical framework in place, we now develop the rationale

for, (a) the importance of mentoring and focusing on mentors, (b) examining

dimensions of mentee, family, and team relationships at the level of the

microsystem, and (c) examining attitudes toward privilege, and awareness of

outgroup structural disadvantage at the macrosystem level.

Youth Mentoring

    In the youth mentoring literature, mentoring is often defined as a

relationship between a more experienced nonparental adult who provides support

and guidance for a less experienced, usually younger mentee to promote positive

outcomes (DuBois et al., 2011; DuBois & Karcher, 2005; Rhodes, 1994; 2002;

2005). Mentoring youth has received attention because of the potential positive

impact that a relationship with a trusting adult can have on youth, such as positive

development of competence and character (DuBois & Rhodes, 2006; Rhodes,

1994). Zeldin, Larson, Camino, and O'Connor (2005) stress the protective and

developmental functions of mentoring relationships may have such as protecting

from engaging in problem behaviors, while also promoting knowledge,

competency, and initiative. Mentoring programs are just one way to formally

provide opportunities for youth to gain support and guidance from adults (DuBois

& Rhodes, 2006). Zeldin et al. (2005) argue that mentoring relationships between

adults and youth have broadened their purpose and potential benefits for youth,

and also now focus on fostering youth participation in decision making,

promoting positive youth development, and civic engagement.

The majority of mentoring literature on positive youth outcomes cites the

positive impact of mentoring relationships on youth resiliency (DuBois et al.,

2006; Werner, 1995). Werner (1995) describes youth resiliency as positive youth

development despite at-risk (e.g., minority, low-income, single-parent) situations,

ability to adapt and thrive under stress, and recovery after negative life

circumstances or situations. Support systems such as relationships with mentors

help enhance resiliency in youth (Werner, 1995). Werner (1995) highlights the

importance of examining contextual factors in focusing on youth resiliency for

youth who overcome stressful situations. This ecological perspective highlights

the importance of examining influential relationships in the lives of youth. In a

meta-analysis of effectiveness of mentoring programs, DuBois et al. (2002) found

that structured mentoring relationships developed from mentoring programs had a

more significant impact on positive youth outcomes than naturally developed

mentoring relationships. Positive youth outcomes ranged from improvements in

psychosocial development, academic achievement, to career development

(Campbell & Campbell, 2007; DuBois et al., 2002; 2011). In this way, mentoring

serves as a potential prevention and intervention for youth (DuBois et al., 2011).

Adult mentors are in a unique role where they have the chance to positively

impact a youth's life.

        Importance of mentoring disadvantaged youth. Although many

different types of youth may benefit from mentoring relationships, research shows

particular benefits for disadvantaged youth (DuBois et al., 2011). For example,

youth mentoring for youth of differing backgrounds and levels of socio-economic

status promotes positive outcomes in areas such as psychosocial development,

academic achievement, and career development because mentors serve as an

additional positive role model in youth and adolescents' lives (Campbell &

Campbell, 2007; DuBois et al., 2002; Sánchez & Reyes, 1999). In a meta-

analysis exploring the impacts of mentoring programs and relationships on youth

outcomes, DuBois et al. (2002) found that youth who were classified as at-risk,

particular those from lower socio-economic backgrounds, benefited the most from

mentoring relationships. Youth who experienced both individual and

environmental risks were also benefited more than youth who did not experience

such risks, or only experienced one type of risk factor in their lives (DuBois et al.,

2002). In a later meta-analysis, DuBois et al. (2011) found that some of the

factors that predicted youth benefiting the most from mentoring were when they

had behavioral problems or other pre-existing difficulties, or had been exposed to significant environmental risk. Williams and Kornblum (1985) followed over 900 American teenagers in stressful socioeconomic conditions and were able to identify an association between youth engaging in a mentoring relationship and subsequently experiencing positive outcomes such as employment and increased academic achievement. Despite growing up in poverty, Williams and Kornblum (1985) documented many personal successes, due in part to the help of supportive adults such as mentors who took an active role in the youth's lives. Other researchers such as Belchman (1982) examine the prevention aspects of mentoring at-risk or minority, low-income inner city youth. Blechman (1982) argues that mentoring serves to buffer from potential risk factors and ideally prevent inner-city youth from experiencing a wide variety of negative outcomes such teen pregnancy, school dropout, and unemployment. Research shows that disadvantaged youth in particular benefit from mentoring relationships, with the relationships helping increase resiliency among other positive effects such as improved interpersonal relationships, academic outcomes, development of life-skills, as well as decreased substance use (Campbell & Campbell, 2007; Madia & Lutz, 2004; Rhodes, 1994). In fact, mentoring has been integrated into programs as a type of intervention to help at-risk (e.g., minority, low-income, single-parent) youth gain various tools and skills that they may not have the opportunity to cultivate because of their life circumstances (Mech, Pryde, & Rycraft, 1995). As the research makes clear, mentoring provides a wide range of positive benefits for disadvantaged youth.

Focus on mentors. In the youth mentoring literature, only a small portion of research focuses on mentors (Eby, Durley, Evans, Ragins, 2008; Mullen, 1994). This trend of focusing on mentees and mentors also is reflected in the mentoring literature in the workplace (e.g., Allen, 2003; Lankau & Scandura, 2002; Van Emmerik, Baugh, & Euwema, 2005) and other settings such as universities (e.g., Campbell & Campbell, 2007; Liang, 2002; Pope, 2002; Reddick, 2011). Although the goal of mentoring relationships is ultimately to benefit the mentee, examining the mentor also is important. First, the relationship is likely to impact the mentor. Second, differences in mentor outcomes (e.g., satisfaction) may impact how well the mentor engages with their mentee and subsequently the quality of their mentoring relationship (e.g., less satisfied mentors may not be as good of mentors which may have detrimental impacts on the mentee). For example, research shows that mentor satisfaction is positively associated with involvement and that more positive benefits are present for the mentee, such as increased meetings and longer duration of meetings for new faculty teachers (Boyle & Boice, 1998; Ithaca Evaluation Group, 1999; Kasprisin, Single, Single, Ferrier, & Muller, 2008).

Focusing on the mentor also recognizes that mentoring does not occur in a vacuum, but that there is a microsystem created between the mentee and mentor with reciprocal influence where the mentor may influence the mentee and *vice versa*. It is important to consider the impact of the relationship on mentors, as mentor satisfaction is often positively correlated with mentee satisfaction (Clutterbuck, 2005). In addition, satisfied mentors may be more likely to

continue participation and remain engaged with the mentee and mentoring

organization. Both continued engagement as well as increased effort ultimately

benefits the mentee (DuBois et al., 2002; DuBois & Rhodes, 2006). Examining

mentors also may provide pertinent information about relationship dynamics

difficult to understand from only the mentee's perspective. Thus, a better

understanding of the factors that influence the mentor's feelings toward the

mentee and subsequent interactions may help shed light on ways to increase

positive outcomes for the mentor which may translate into benefits for the

mentee.

Mentor Engagement Outcomes

Because most youth mentors are volunteers, it is appropriate and

important to examine multiple volunteer outcomes related to serving as a mentor.

Omoto and Snyder (1995) conceptualized and tested a volunteer process model

that explores the processes of *antecedents* to volunteering (e.g. motivation to

volunteer), *experiences* with the program (e.g. level of satisfaction), and the

outcomes of those experiences (e.g. retention, willingness to act on behalf of the

program; Davis, Hall, & Meyer, 2003). Penner and Finkelstein (1998) conducted

a follow up study exploring the model and confirmed that volunteer satisfaction

was positively related to retention (Davis et al., 2003). Other studies have shown

conflicting results between volunteer satisfaction and longevity, but have shown a

relationship between volunteer satisfaction and time invested in volunteering

(Finkelstein, 2008). In this study we focus on experiences in the program (e.g.,

satisfaction) and outcomes (e.g., retention, extra-role pro-social behavior) and the factors that predict satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior.

   Satisfaction. Although the goal of many non-profits is to serve their community of interest, attending to volunteers also is important to keep the organization running smoothly and efficiently. Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2002) support this assertion by showing an association between volunteer job satisfaction and retention and more specifically that two dimensions of satisfaction (i.e. the ability to affect change and feeling integrated in the group) predicted continuing volunteerism. Miller, Powell, and Seltzer (1990) also found that volunteers' attitudes in general towards their volunteer experience were related to volunteer turnover. The mentoring agency provides a crucial role in part of the complex relational system for the mentor and mentee (Deutsch & Spencer, 2009; Keller & Blakeslee, 2013). This incorporates a relationship not directly tied to the mentee or family to examine how interfacing with the mentoring organization itself may shape mentor's satisfaction. For mentors, the availability and accessibility of program staff, quality of training, and types of program events all may impact mentor's experience as a volunteer, and potentially their overall satisfaction with the mentoring organization (Sipe, 2002). This element is often overlooked as a potential influence on the mentoring relationship. DuBois et al. (2002) in their meta-analysis of mentoring programs found positive mentoring outcomes associated with best practices related to the mentoring organization involvement such as monitoring implementation of the program and offering ongoing mentor training.

Many different factors have been cited in the mentoring literature as related to mentors satisfaction such as a match between mentor and mentee's expectations for the mentoring relationship (Boyle & Boice, 1998; Campbell & Campbell, 2007), mentor and mentee's compliance with the mentoring program structure (Boyle & Boice, 1998), mentee's receptiveness (Clutterbuck, 2005), mentee's ability to face up to difficult issues (Clutterbuck, 2005), mentee proactiveness (Cluterbuck, 2005), and prior mentee training (Kasprisin et al., 2008). Mentors may also experience intrinsic rewards from involvement in mentoring relationships that impact their satisfaction (Newby & Heide, 1992) such as feelings of generativity, namely the opportunity to pass information and skills to their mentee (Allen et al., 1997b; Ragins & Scandura, 2004), watching their mentee grow and succeed, and generally participating in pro-social volunteerism and helping others (Allen et al., 1997b).

Retention. Mentor attrition is a major problem common to mentoring programs (Madia & Lutz, 2004). Mentoring organizations put significant time and effort into recruiting and training volunteers and frequent mentor turnover can have negative consequences not only for the mentee but the organization as well (Jamison, 2003). Jamison (2003) stresses that some of the most damaging effects of mentor turnover go above and beyond potential financial losses. When mentors stop their commitment to their mentee as well as the organization, there may be the potential for damage to relationships, negative effects on continuity for the mentee and the organization, and possible negative effects on the organization's morale (Jamison, 2003). Although there may not be the

expectation of a life-long mentoring relationship, research shows the importance

of a mentoring relationship to continue for a minimum length of time for mentees

to receive positive benefits (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002). Premature termination

of a mentoring relationship may be extremely damaging to youth, particularly at-

risk youth who may already frequently experience staff and teacher turnover in

their schools, single-parent homes, and/or community instability (Grossman &

Rhodes, 2002). Grossman and Rhodes (2002) analyzed data from the national

Big Brothers Big Sisters study and found that youth whose mentors terminated the

relationship within the first three months experienced a greater drop in perceived

self-worth and scholastic competence than youth never involved in a mentoring

relationship. It addition, it is important for a mentee to have a clear understanding

of the expectations of the length of the relationship. The early and unexpected

cessation of a mentoring relationship has the potential to be harmful, and may

even make it difficult for the youth to fully engage in a similar type of

relationship in the future (Shlafer, Poehlmann, Coffino, & Hanneman, 2009).

Although the ideal mentoring relationship lasts for two to three years or more

(McLearn, Calasanto & Schoen, 1998), mentoring relationships should last for at

least one year for positive benefits to emerge (Carr, Herman, & Harris, 2005;

Grossman & Rhodes, 2002). Grossman and Rhodes (2002) found that youth who

were engaged in a mentoring relationship for longer than twelve months

experienced significantly greater levels of self-worth, social acceptance, and

scholastic competence. The longer and more engaged a mentor is with their

mentee, the greater potential there is for improved relationship quality, increased

opportunities for the mentor to support their mentee, and increased levels of other

positive outcomes for the mentee (DuBois et al., 2002, DuBois & Rhodes, 2006).

Thus, understanding what predicts mentor retention is an important research goal.

      Extra-role pro-social behavior. Volunteers may choose to go above and

beyond their prescribed roles while engaging in service (i.e., a mentor going

above and beyond for their mentee), as well as for the volunteer organization

(e.g., recruiting other volunteers to attend a fundraiser for the program).

Shaubroeck et al. (1991) describes this type of behavior as extra-role pro-social

organizational behavior, defined as behavior that goes outside of the worker's

contracted role but ultimately benefits the organization. Volunteers play a crucial

role as unofficial spokespeople of programs, and have the potential to connect to

an expansive network of people to extend the volunteer organization's capacity.

Honest, excited, and positive first-person testimonies can be a powerful

motivational force to help mobilize others to support the cause. In this way,

volunteers have the opportunity to become ambassadors for the program and to

increase the bridging capital of the organization through connections to other

individuals and networks as seen through the lens of the social capital theory of

community development (Perkins, Hughey, & Speer, 2002). Volunteers have the

potential to connect the organization to a wide variety of much needed resources,

including additional new volunteers, funding opportunities, etc. by linking the

organization to personal networks which then increases the organization's social

capital (Perkins et al., 2002). The desire to give the opportunity for more youth to

experience the benefits of mentoring and engagement in a mentoring program

fuels a need to recruit more mentors and secure funding to support those new

mentors and programs. Having volunteers that go beyond the minimum

requirements of their assigned roles and responsibilities may help increase the

potential impact of the organization on the community, as well as help the

organization grow and better carry out its mission.

For mentors engaged in a mentoring relationship, being willing to go

"above and beyond" can not only help to support the mentoring program, but also

can help mentees gain the greatest possible benefits from their relationship. A

mentor who is willing to spend the extra time looking for internship connections

for their mentee, the extra hour helping with homework, or the increased

emotional effort to deal with situations when they arise helps to not only

strengthen the mentoring relationship, but to potentially also increase resources

and opportunities for their mentee. LoSciuto, Rajala, Townsend, and Taylor

(1996) found in their study of at-risk youth (from neighborhoods with high

poverty, high substance abuse and crime, and a significant number of abandoned

houses) that the most positive changes occurred for youth with the most engaged

mentors. Mentors may need to do more than was initially asked of them to

support their mentee when particular issues arise, and do so in a way that is

tailored to their mentees' specific needs.

In the business literature, this extra-role pro-social behavior is at times

described as supra-role, citizenship behavior, or pro-social organizational

behavior that is altruistic and can be crucial to organizational functioning and

effectiveness (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ & Konovsky, 1989). These types

of behaviors are highly valued, and not written into most job contracts or pre-

discussed with supervisors (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Research has found a high

correlation between employee extra-role pro-social behavior and job satisfaction

(Organ & Kondsky, 1989). Employee satisfaction in part is thought to promote

this extra-role pro-social behavior possibly because of social exchange theory,

where employees feel a desire to reciprocate if they feel satisfied with their job

(Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ & Kondsky, 1989). Another theory states that

because job satisfaction results in positive affect, satisfied employees may be then

more willing to engage in pro-social behaviors that go above and beyond their

required roles (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ & Kondsky, 1989; Smith, Organ,

& Near, 1983). O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) found in a study examining

organizational commitment using university employees and students that

employees' voluntary behaviors that went above and beyond their job descriptions

were positively correlated with employee retention.

Mentor's satisfaction, retention in the mentoring program, and willingness

to engage in extra-role pro-social behaviors as a mentor are all important as they

may directly impact both positive outcomes for the mentee and the success of the

mentoring program. It thus is important to understand how the various

microsystems (e.g., relationship with mentee, mentee's family, and mentoring

team) may predict these positive mentor outcomes.

Characteristics of the Mentor-Mentee Relationship

Multicultural competencies. The mentor brings a set of attitudes, skills,

and knowledge to the mentoring relationship. Because many mentors are

involved in cross-racial mentoring relationships it is important to understand how

mentor multicultural competencies may predicts mentor outcomes (Darling,

Bogat, Cavell, Murphy, & Sánchez, 2006; DuBois & Rhodes, 2006). For the

mentor-mentee relationship, we examine the mentor's perception of their

multicultural competence. Sue and colleagues (1982; 1992) have described three

broad areas of cross-cultural counseling: beliefs and attitudes/ awareness,

knowledge, and skills. Multicultural beliefs and attitudes refer to awareness of

perceptions, biases, and potential prejudices of racial or ethnic minority groups

and how these may influence perceptions of the client and their problems, as well

as the counseling relationship. Multicultural knowledge refers to general

knowledge about cultural differences and sociopolitical influences, as well as

one's own worldview. Multicultural skills refers to an understanding of how to

interpersonally and socially interact with people of differing racial and ethnic

minority groups, including techniques and strategies for interactions. Empathic

feeling and expression is one such set of these types of skills (Sue, Arredondo, &

McDavis, 1992). Cultural competency helps provide knowledge and an

understanding of external situational factors (e.g., group values, norms, societal

pressures, constraints), as well as the skills to be able to interact with diverse

groups in an empathic and culturally sensitive ways.

Multicultural competence assumes that cultural differences are not

associated with any inferiority or pathology, and that multiculturalism is

extremely complex as well as a positive aspect of individuals and society

(Johnson, 1990; Katz, 1985; Ponterotto & Casas, 1991; Sue, 1981; & Sue,

Arredondo & McDavis, 1992). When training counselors to be more

multiculturally competent, they are trained based on the model proposed

originally by Sue et al. (1982) based on awareness, knowledge and skills. It is

important for counselors to not only be aware of the norms and values of cultural

groups other than their own, but to be aware of their own biases and assumptions

as well. The counselor must then be able to use this awareness and knowledge

and combine it with the appropriate skills to interact sensitively with clients from

different ethnic backgrounds (Dickson & Jepsen, 2007; Sue, Arrendondo, &

McDavis, 1992). In this study we examine how mentor multicultural competence

may be important in predicting mentor outcomes (i.e., retention, satisfaction,

extra-role pro-social behavior).

Vera and Speight (2003) argue that in addition to the three dimensional

model of multicultural counseling competencies (i.e., beliefs and attitudes,

knowledge, and skills), they assert that the current definition is lacking an

integration of a commitment to social justice. The current scope of multicultural

counselor competencies is too narrow, and needs to be expanded to include social

change efforts beyond the traditional context of counseling (Vera & Speight,

2003). Other scholars have argued for abandoning the notion of multicultural

competence altogether in training those in health care or public service, and rather

using cultural humility as a better fitting goal in multicultural education (Tervalon

& Murray-Garcia, 1998). This critique emanates from the observation that

cultural competence implies an end-point that counselors, physicians, and others

in health care or public service professions working with minority or cultural

diverse populations can achieve whereas cultural humility frames the process as active and lifelong (Tervalon & Murray-Garcia, 1998). In the current study we use the framework of multicultural competence but heed these critiques and consider multicultural competence not as something that is ever truly reached or achieved but is actually part of a lifelong process.

Mentoring relationships frequently provide individuals an opportunity to make inferences about the behavior of an outgroup member because mentors and mentees may differ from one another in a variety of ways including (but not limited to) race, social class, age, and educational level. In the nursing literature, culturally competent mentoring has been found to be important particularly with minority nursing students (Campinha-Bacote, 2010).   Similarly in the mentoring literature, cultural sensitivity is also important (Maxwell & Connell, 2013). In addition, in a study of mentoring programs in New Zealand researchers found that programs that were less culturally competent and did not acknowledge cultural issues or provide that information to program staff were less effective for youth participants (Farruggia, Bullen, Solomon, Collins & Dunphy, 2011). Sue et al. (1992) stress that in many educational settings (and other settings such as mentoring relationships), working with someone belonging to a minority group will soon be the norm. Mentees' perceptions of their mentors' cultural competence has also been shown to be related to better quality mentoring relationships (DuBois et al., 2011; Sánchez, 2012; Sánchez, Colón-Torres, Feuer, Roundfield, & Bernardi, 2013). In their study on mentoring relationships between mentors and minority college students, Grant-Thompson and Atkinson (1997)

demonstrated how much of a positive impact a culturally responsive mentor can have on mentees and the mentoring relationship as a whole. Mentor's cultural sensitivity, along with mentor ethnicity and students' level of cultural mistrust, all played a significant role in the level of credibility and effectiveness the students perceived their faculty mentors to have in a mock mentoring experiment (Grant-Thompson & Atkinson, 1997). The results of the study highlight the importance for mentors to respond with cultural humility particularly in cross-cultural mentoring relationships (Grant-Thompson & Atkinson, 1997). In mentoring relationships, the multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills are particularly important for mentors to better understand the background and situational forces shaping their mentees' lives. On the other hand, Spencer (2007) found that mentors who were unable to navigate cultural divides were more likely to have failed mentoring relationships. With this in mind, mentors may be able to interact with their mentee in culturally sensitive ways, which likely creates patterns of positive interactions. We thus hypothesize that mentors with greater multicultural knowledge, awareness, and skills will be more satisfied with their mentoring relationship, more willing to continue participation in their mentoring program, and more willing to go above and beyond on behalf of their mentee and the mentoring program.

Correspondence bias and victim blaming. The correspondence bias, defined as the tendency to misinterpret observed behaviors as caused by dispositional factors even when situations are highly constrained (e.g., influenced by social factors outside of the person) may hinder attempts to identify the true

causes and motivations behind people's actions (Gawronski, 2004). This has the potential to be especially problematic when one lacks full awareness and understanding of other cultures. There may then be a distortion in the understanding of the strength of situational forces for those embedded within that outgroup culture. This leads to the assumption that the more one lacks multicultural competence, the more pervasive the correspondence bias. One distinction that must be clarified though is the difference between multicultural competence and the correspondence bias. Although multicultural competence is more broadly the knowledge, awareness and skills about a particular outgroup, the correspondence bias is how the individual perceives the casual mechanisms of a specific situation, and subsequently the blame they place on the individual versus the situation. The correspondence bias has a long history in psychology, and has evolved from a few different names and related theories, (e.g., the fundamental attribution error, actor-observer bias, ultimate attribution error). These attribution theories all share the same principle, that individuals have a tendency to try to explain situations by over-relying on individual's dispositional or innate personal characteristics, rather than on situational influences.

When trying to make causal attributions for an outgroup, particularly a marginalized or stigmatized group, the tendency to commit the correspondence bias may be especially problematic and lead to victim blaming. In the case of victim blaming, individuals blame shortcomings on internal or dispositional factors, in a sense committing the correspondence bias and failing to take into account potential external factors (Lee, Campbell & Mulford, 1999). Pettigrew

(1979) labels this systematic pattern of intergroup misattributions as the ultimate

attribution error (UAE), which is shaped in part by lack of knowledge of the

outgroup (e.g., those from other backgrounds, race, ethnicity, culture), prejudice

towards that particular outgroup, and an extension of the correspondence bias

(Kahn & Liu, 2008). This theory states that when a negative behavior is

performed by an outgroup member, the spectator is more likely to attribute the

behavior to dispositional influences over situational influences. Conversely,

when a positive behavior is performed by an outgroup member, the spectator will

be more likely to attribute the behavior as being an exceptional case, due to luck

or an advantage, due to increased motivation of the particular outgroup member,

or due to a manipulable situational context, rather than considering the behavior

normative (Pettigrew, 1979). This type of thinking is self-perpetuating and can

lead to increased prevalence of the correspondence bias when attempting to

understand causal inferences in the behavior of outgroup members.

Although the tendency to commit the correspondence bias is one that

impacts everyone, arming oneself with the proper tools (increased multicultural

knowledge, awareness, and skills), may help to reduce the tendency to blame the

victim when interacting with individuals from other ethnic or cultural groups.

The correspondence bias may be especially important for mentors as they are

faced with many potentially ambiguous situations where they will need to make

inferences about their mentees' behavior. Although the threat of the

correspondence bias is significant in many situations, it becomes even more

relevant in mentoring situations, where mentors may have the tendency to default

to victim blaming. When mentees' actions fall short of mentors' expectations throughout the course of their relationship, how the mentor perceives the situation and subsequently how they respond may have a major impact on the quality of the mentoring relationship, how the mentor feels and later reacts to their mentee, and ultimately how the mentee benefits from the relationship. If a mentor perceives the shortcomings to be the result of dispositional factors, blaming the mentee, this may lead to greater frustration with their mentee as well as the relationship. On the other hand, if mentors are more multiculturally competent and take into account potential socio-political pressures influencing their mentees' lives, and thereby contributing to particular shortcomings, they may be more likely to maintain a higher level of satisfaction with their mentee and the mentoring relationship. Research has shown that in volunteering, a match between volunteers' expectations and their experiences is related to outcomes such as satisfaction and retention (Meissen & Lounsbury, 1981). Thus, it is important to explore the impact of the correspondence bias and victim blaming within multicultural mentoring relationships. Based on this research we hypothesize that mentor's tendency to commit the correspondence bias will mediate the association between multicultural competence and positive mentoring outcomes.

Mentor and mentee family relationship. The relationship between the mentor and the mentees' family is an important part of the mentor's microsystem. Most mentoring literature focuses on the mentoring dyad, and rarely explores the family involvement and the impact on the relationship (Spencer & Basualdo-Delmonico, 2014; Taylor & Porcellini, 2013). Other research (e.g., school, foster

care) on youth shows the importance of parents having a relationship with other key adults in their child's life (Kemp, Marcenko, Hoagwood, & Vesneski, 2009; McKay et al., 2004). The importance of parental involvement in youth's lives is known to have a strong impact on positive outcomes for youth. For example, in the school setting, the parent (family) to teacher (school) relationship has been shown to be crucial to positive development for youth (Iruka, Winn, Kingsley, & Orthodoxou, 2011; Nzinga-Johnson, Baker, & Aupperlee, 2009; Plata, 1989). Especially for minority or low-income youth, creating a partnership between adults in these two major facets of a child's life (e.g., home and school, home and mentoring relationship) that fosters trust, closeness, and communication can have a significant impact on youth and their development (Iruka et al., 2011; Nzinga-Johnson et al., 2009). In the mentoring literature, the success of the mentoring relationship has been found to be related to parental involvement in the mentoring relationship (Keller & Blakeslee, 2013; Spencer & Basualdo-Delmonico, 2014). In addition, in a meta-analytic review of the components that make up the best programs, DuBois and colleagues (2002) found support for parental involvement to be a key component, where programs that engage parents had more positive youth outcomes. Particularly for youth with behavior problems in mentoring relationships, parental engagement in key to improved behavioral outcomes (Kumpfer & Alvarado, 2003). Racial, cultural, and linguistic differences between parents and teachers may create a barrier to building a strong relationship (Plata, 1989). Nonetheless, it is still important for teachers, or other non-familial adults who play a significant role in the child's life, to work on fostering a trusting

relationship with the child's parents (Plata, 1989). When a child's relationship with a mentor plays a large role in his or her life, it may be important for the child's parents or guardians to build a relationship with the mentor as well and become involved with the mentoring program. Although including families into the mentoring conversation has taken hold in recommendations in the practice literature, further research is needed on the impact of families on the mentoring relationship (Spencer & Basualdo-Delmonico, 2014).

Relationships between mentors and family may be more difficult when dissimilarities between social class and perceived level of privilege are present (Bernhard, Lefebvre, Kilbride, Chud, & Lange, 1988). In the education literature, Ladson-Billings and Tate (2000) highlight how the interactions between middle class teachers and other school staff and minority, low-income parents can mirror the power and privilege dynamics that play out in society such that racial and social dynamics have the potential to impact the quality of the relationship (Nzinga-Johnson et al., 2009). These types of privilege and power dynamics can be found outside the school system with other adults integrated in a child's life, including therapists or counselors (Israel, 2012), as well as mentors. Middleclass mentors who volunteer to engage with minority, low-income or at-risk youth may experience these similar power and privilege dynamics between themselves and their mentees' families. Just as with teachers and school staff, in mentoring, the need to build a strong, open relationship with their mentees' families may be just as important for the mentee.

Although strengthening the relationship between mentors and families may ultimately benefit the mentee, it may have positive outcomes for the mentor as well. In many formal mentoring relationships, White privileged mentors are paired with minority, low-income youth (Grossman & Tierney, 1998; Spencer, 2007). For the mentor, coming from a place of privilege and stepping into a youth's life has the potential to be overwhelming, and may stir up mixed feelings about race and privilege. When the relationship with the mentee's family is not seen as a partnership in helping the mentee succeed, it may feel as if the mentor is crossing racial and social boundaries by engaging in a mentoring relationship with the mentee, and potentially doing so without the support or approval of the parents (Bernhard et al., 1988). On the other hand, if the mentor is able to foster a relationship with their mentee's family, their mentoring relationship may feel less imposing and more like a partnership to jointly look out for the best interests of the youth (Iruka et al., 2011). In the current study we generally hypothesize that stronger relationships with the mentees' family will positively relate to mentoring outcomes (i.e., satisfaction, retention, extra-role pro-social behavior).

Mentor and Mentoring Team Relationships

Team mentoring. Although the traditional mentoring model is generally one relationship between one mentor and one mentee, other models exist. One of these alternative models is group mentoring (e.g., team mentoring) where there are multiple mentors, multiple mentees, or a combination of both. Outside of the more traditional team mentoring approach applied with youth, team mentoring approaches have been successfully used in business (McCormack & West, 2006;

Williams, Scandura, & Gavin, 2009) and therapy (Decarlo & Hockman, 2003;

Gilbert, 2000; Jent & Niec, 2009; Utsey, Howard & Williams, 2003; Yalom,

2005). Group mentoring has many advantages for both the mentees and mentors

(DuBois et al., 2011). In regards to mentoring youth, when there are multiple

youth involved in a mentoring relationship it can give more youth the opportunity

to be mentored when resources are more scarce (Washington, 2007). Group

mentoring approach may be a better fit with some ethnic groups' cultural norms

and values over the traditional one-on-one mentoring approach (Herrera, Vang, &

Gale, 2002; Rhodes, 2002; Utsey, Howard, & Williams, 2003; Washington,

2007). Particularly for African American youth, group mentoring has been found

to be more beneficial than traditional one one-on-one mentoring, where these

youth have been shown to experience greater positive outcomes from the

mentoring relationship (Washington, 2007). Among minority boys, group

mentoring was found to also facilitate improved peer relationships noticeably

among their peer mentees (Tierney, Grossman, & Resch, 2000; Washington,

2007). Group mentoring promotes positive peer interactions through

opportunities for youth to test their social skills with peers (Herrera, Vang, &

Gale, 2002; Yalom, 1995). When team mentoring is defined as multiple mentors

per one or two youth, youth have opportunity to gain support from more than one

adult. In addition, youth have the opportunity to see adult model positive social

skills with one another (Karcher, Kuperminc, Portwood, Sipe, & Taylor, 2006).

Each mentor brings to the table their own unique set of strengths, experiences,

and interests, which in turn allows mentees to connect with individual mentors in

different ways, but also increases the mentee's bridging social capital and gives

the mentee access to a diverse set of resources and connections from each of their

mentors.

Team social support. Of interest in this study, the team mentoring

approach may provide unique benefits and challenges for mentors. West (1994)

provides a model for understanding team social support that extends beyond

emotional support from team members and also includes emotional support,

informational support, instrumental support, and appraisal support. Emotional

support is given in the form of empathy, sympathy, or encouragement;

informational support is given through the sharing of useful knowledge;

instrumental support is given through general help, as well as access and

connections to resources; and lastly appraisal support is given through

reinforcement (House, 1981; Messina et al., 2004). In a team mentoring situation,

each type of support within the team may have unique and interesting associations

with individual mentor satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior.

Bishop, Scott, Goldsby, and Cropanzano (2005) define perceived team

support as a separate and distinct construct based on Eisenberg et al.'s (1986)

definition of perceived organization support which is defined as the extent to

which team members feel their team cares about them and appreciates what they

are able to contribute to the group. This construct was originally created to

determine the relationship between team support and team commitment in

business settings, but can be easily be applied to other teams such as mentoring

teams. Bishop et al. (2005) found that perceived team support predicted

commitment to that particular team. If mentors in a team mentoring relationship

with multiple mentors feel supported by one another and ultimately a strong sense

of commitment to and sense of community with the team, they then may be more

likely to continue to support fellow mentors and remain engaged and invested in

the mentoring relationship. Pearce and Herbik (2004) define team commitment as

the psychological attachment that members feel towards the team. Pearce and

Herbik (2004) found in their study of 71 change management teams that team

commitment and perceived team support had a significant positive effect on team

citizenship behavior, defined as behavior that is aimed at benefiting the team as a

whole. In the present study, we hypothesize that perceived team support will

positively predict positive mentor outcomes (i.e., satisfaction, retention, extra-role

pro-social behavior).

     Team multicultural competence and attitudes. In addition to social

support, the average team multicultural competence and social attitudes of team

members may shape individual mentor's satisfaction, retention, and extra-role

pro-social behavior. For example, characteristics of the team may be able to

predict mentor outcomes over-and-above individual level variables. In research

with organizations and teams it has been shown that teams with higher aggregated

scores (i.e., average score of team) on the big five personality traits Agreeableness

and Conscientiousness predicted supervisor's ratings on various team

performance measures over-and-above individual scores on both traits (Neuman

& Wright, 1999). Moreover, average team levels of positivity have been shown

to relate to positive team outcomes and to create more satisfying experiences for

all team members (West et al., 2009). Also, social attitudes of peers have been

shown to predict peer social attitudes (Poteat & Spaneirman, 2010). Thus, in the

current study we examine the average multicultural competence in each team,

awareness of White privilege and outgroup disadvantage, and racial guilt and

empathy (which will be discussed in later sections of this paper) as possible

contributors to mentor outcomes.

Macrosystem: Racial Privilege and Racial Affect

The culture, norms, customs, values, and systemic nature of our society

make up individuals' macrosystems (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Individuals may

have differing levels of exposure to and subsequent understanding of these

macrosystem phenomenon. Furthermore, individuals may have different

understandings and emotional reactions (e.g., racial affect) considering their place

of privilege in a hierarchical society where discrimination and racism still exist

(Thompson & Neville, 1999). Examining mentors' perceptions of racial privilege

and disadvantage and their racial affect may be important in predicting their

satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behaviors. It also is important to

more generally consider how to engage people from privileged groups in social

justice action (e.g., volunteering to mentor) and thus this general literature also is

discussed.

Racial privilege. Israel (2012) defines privilege as unearned advantages

bestowed upon individuals based on their membership or perceived membership

with a particular dominant group in society. Membership in dominant groups

may make it more difficult to be aware of and understand the consequences and

effects of non-membership in that particular group. In an ecological framework, this embeddedness and membership within larger social groups (e.g., racial, economic, religious, political) ultimately impacts the individual nested within the layers of groups and relationships. Also, individuals may have different levels of awareness and understanding of larger social factors, understandings that when internalized may contribute to how they experience mentoring relationships. In addition, when confronted with this realization of a discrepancy in advantages, opportunities, and resources, individuals of privilege may feel a range of negative emotions, or may try to even suppress those feelings (Israel, 2012; Todd, Spanierman, & Aber, 2010). These privilege dynamics are important to understand for mentors as they may be confronted with their relative advantage as a part of their mentoring experience.

White individuals' attitudes and reflections on privilege may therefore also influence their relationships with members of other groups in differing ways. Todd, Spanierman, and Aber (2010) found both positive and negative emotional reactions from White students reflecting on racism and White privilege, partly moderated by student's initial awareness of privilege. Other research in counseling shows that some counselor trainees may resist acknowledgement of privilege through anger, defensiveness, rationalization for the societal status quo, and possibly resentment (Israel, 2012). Because of this, Israel (2012) stresses the importance for counselors to confront their feelings associated with membership in a privileged group, and to integrate this into their counselor training. Counselors, particularly White counselors, need to examine and be aware of the

privilege in their lives, and the resulting potential oppression of many of their

clients (Black, Stone, Hutchinson, & Suarez, 2007; Sue at al., 1992). It is

important that counselors strive to reduce the impact of privilege on their clients

and others (Black et al., 2007). Mentors, particularly White mentors, are in a

situation similar to counselors where it is also important for them to be conscious

of their own privilege and any oppression experienced by their mentees.

In an effort to understand and assess attitudes toward White privilege,

Pinterits, Poteat, and Spanierman (2009) developed a White Privilege Attitudes

Scale to assess reactions of awareness of membership within a dominant group.

This multidimensional scale incorporates four distinct factors: willingness to

confront White privilege, anticipated costs of addressing White privilege, White

privilege awareness, and White privilege remorse which together assess affective,

cognitive, and behavioral dimensions of White privilege attitudes (Pinterits et al.,

2009). As each individual member of a privileged group carries with them their

own unique set of experiences based on interactions with and influences from

individuals and groups they are nested within, advances in the development of

scales such as Pinterits et al.'s (2009) White Privilege Attitudes Scale helps to

assess different dimensions of individual's understanding of and attitudes toward

privilege.

Racial affect. It is not uncommon for people of privilege to be found in

social justice work based on a wide variety of motivators and other factors. While

engaged in social justice work with people and groups of different backgrounds,

people of privilege may experience guilt related to their perceived level of

privilege and empathy towards other racial or less privileged groups. The

counseling psychology field as a whole in the past decades has intentionally

pushed for a focus on diversity and inclusiveness and in recent years has

incorporated social action and social justice as a central part of counseling

psychology's mission (Baluch, Pieterse, & Bolden, 2004). In addition to

counseling training emphasizing experience and perceptions of privilege and

exploration of racial affect, Beer, Spanierman, Greene, and Todd (2012) highlight

the importance of counselor training programs integrating a social justice

orientation into their training. Beer et al. (2012) looked at counseling psychology

graduate students' commitments to social justice, and found that trainees'

perceptions of their graduate training environment significantly predicted their

social justice commitment.

When attempting to engage individuals from privileged backgrounds or

dominant social groups in social justice work, Goodman (2000) explores three

factors to consider: empathy, moral and spiritual values, and self-interest.

Fostering a sense of empathy is important to allow the privileged individual to

better engage in perspective taking with disadvantaged groups. It is important for

the privileged individual to understand the "chronic nature" of the victims'

distress, and that their needs are not just the result of a one-time event (Goodman,

2000). This is particularly important for mentoring relationships with

disadvantaged youth, where to help motivate the mentor to stay committed for a

significant length of time, they need to understand that the youth's needs are

chronic based on social inequalities and systematic level injustices operating at the Exosytem and Marcosystem that are pervasive and have a long-lasting effect.

Although achieving some level of an empathic response from the person of privilege is important, it is necessary to differentiate between the effects of personal or empathic distress, and sympatric distress. When one feels personal or empathic distress, it is as if the feelings of empathy become too overwhelming, and the individual may feel a pull to focus on relieving their own levels of distress rather than taking the next step to help the individual in need (Goodman, 2000). For privileged mentors, seeing the distress of their mentee may be too overwhelming for them, and may lead to them distancing themselves from their mentee and the relationship to alleviate their own stress. They may also experience feelings of guilt related to their perceived level of privilege that produces uncomfortable emotions. In a worst-case-scenario, the mentor may even choose to terminate the mentoring relationship if they are too overwhelmed and unsure how to even begin to help. A related factor to consider, is if a mentor feels their own personal needs are greater than that of their mentees, (possible stressors at home or work), they may also be less inclined to help their mentee (Goodman, 2000).

On the other hand, sympathetic (versus personal or empathic) distress results from feelings of empathy that leads to caring for the distressed individual (Goodman, 2000). For a mentor, experiencing sympathetic distress may lead to strengthening of the mentoring relationship, and motivation to work towards helping and supporting their mentee. Mentors may also feel overwhelmed at

attempting to tackle larger social injustices in society, and mentoring has the

potential to serve as a tangible way to contribute that is not too overwhelming or

distressing (Hamilton & Hamilton, 1992). To cultivate empathy for individuals of

privilege, it is important to engage both their intellect and emotions, increasing

the need for high levels of multicultural competence for privileged mentors

working with disadvantaged or at-risk (e.g., minority, low-income, single-parent)

youth (Goodman, 2000). With the importance of exploring feelings of empathy

as well as guilt for engaging members of dominant groups in social justice work,

it is important for White mentors to examine their affective costs of racism.

Examining Whites mentor's sympathetic and empathic reactions towards racism,

as well as their guilt and shame from experiences as part of a dominant group in a

racially diverse society, can help to better understand possible factors that predict

positive mentoring outcomes.

When attempting to engage people who are White (or White mentors) in

social justice work, similar to the impact of the type and level of distress,

individual's affect, their general emotional reactions to privilege and racism, may

impact willingness to engage in social justice work and the ability to engage in a

culturally competent way (Spanierman, Poteat, Wang, & Oh, 2008). In their

study, Spanierman et al. (2008) found that White counselor's affect (as measured

by the Psychosocial Costs of Racism to Whites scale) predicted counselors'

multicultural competence. The three affective dimensions used in the scale are

White Empathic Reactions toward Racism, White Guilt, and White Fear of People

of Other Races (Spanierman et al., 2008). Privileged individuals' emotional

reactions are important to consider when attempting to motivate them to

participate in social justice work. In past research, White empathy was found to

be associated with increased levels of racial awareness, as well as cultural

sensitivity (Spanierman & Heppner, 2004; Spanierman et al., 2008). In addition,

high levels of White guilt were found to be associated with increased positive

attitudes towards minorities (Spanierman & Heppner, 2004; Spanierman et al.,

2008). White fear was also found to be associated with lower multicultural

awareness and ethnocultural empathy (Spanierman & Heppner, 2004; Spanierman

et al., 2008).

Goodman (2000) also stresses that to engage individuals from privileged

or dominant groups in social justice work it is useful to draw on the individual's

moral or spiritual values. When a situation conflicts with one's values they may

be more likely to be pushed to action (Goodman, 2000). For example, if a mentor

sees their mentee experiencing racial or social inequalities at their school or in

their community, thereby potentially limiting their access to important resources,

the mentor may see the injustice and feel motivated to help support their mentee

even more. To promote this motivating factor, Goodman (2000) suggests helping

people of privilege articulate their set of moral and spiritual values, as well as to

educate them on the inequalities present with the disadvantaged group they will

be working with. For mentors, this again translates to a need for high levels of

multicultural competence and awareness.

Although appealing to the self-interest of privileged individuals to engage

in social justice work may be seen as a bad thing, Goodman (2000) stresses in this

context this is not necessarily the case. It is important to appeal to these individuals' self-interest and how their long-term goals can be ultimately met by social justice work (Goodman, 2000). Goodman (2000) explores a continuum of self-interest divided into three levels. The first, individualistic self-interest, "me," is self-interest that focuses exclusively on the individual. The second level, mutual self-interest, "you and me," is self-interest based on a dual benefit to the privileged individual and disadvantaged groups. The third and highest level on the scale is interdependent self-interest, "us," which is self-interest that may actually work against the best interests of the privileged individual in the short-term, but is mutually beneficial for both groups in the long-term. Goodman (2000) sets this third level of self-interest, interdependent self-interest, as the ideal that should be striven for when trying to motivate individuals from privileged backgrounds in engaging in social justice work.

When working with people from dominant social groups or otherwise privileged backgrounds, creating a values proposition that connects to their individual motivators may be the best way to motivate these groups in engaging in social justice work with disadvantaged individuals, groups, or communities (Goodman, 2000). Individuals may be more likely to act when they sense a clear injustice, and are clear of the appropriate next steps to take to help rectify the situation (Goodman, 2000). With interacting with mentors from privileged backgrounds working with disadvantaged or at-risk (e.g., minority, low-income, single-parent) youth, higher levels of multicultural competence may be a good way to help mentors better begin to understand the injustices experienced by their

mentees and may give them the confidence to be able to support their mentee and act on observed injustices.

Present Study

The current study extends the literature by examining mentors in their social environments including relationships with mentees, mentee's family, the mentoring team, and by examining how awareness of White privilege and outgroup disadvantage and racial affect predict positive mentoring outcomes of satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior. Mentors have the potential to provide many positive outcomes for youth through a mentoring relationship, particularly for at-risk (e.g., minority, low-income, single-parent) youth (Hamilton & Hamilton, 1992). The current study explores a few relationships of the mentor's microsystem: (a) the relationship between the mentor and the mentee, (b) the mentor and mentee's family, and (c) relationships within a mentoring team. Dimensions of multicultural competence are expected to predict positive mentor outcomes (i.e., satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior) and furthermore how internal attributions for mentee shortcomings may mediate these associations. At the level of the macrosystem we examined mentor's awareness of White privilege and awareness of outgroup structural disadvantage along with racial affect dimensions of White guilt and White empathy. Study hypotheses are presented in Table 1.

Study Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Mentor-mentee relationship. A) Mentor's multicultural skill, awareness, and knowledge will be positively associated with mentor

satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior. B) Internal attributions for mentee shortcomings will mediate these associations.

Hypothesis 2: Mentor-mentee family relationship. A) Mentor's strength of relationship with their mentee's families will be positively associated with mentor satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior.

Hypothesis 3: Mentor-mentoring team relationships. A) Perceived social support within the mentoring team will positively predict mentor satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior. B) Membership in a team that has higher average multicultural competence, greater awareness of privilege, greater awareness of outgroup structural disadvantage, higher White guilt and empathy, will each positively predict mentor satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior over-and-above individual levels of multicultural competency.

Hypothesis 4: Privilege, outgroup disadvantage, and racial affect. A) Greater awareness of privilege will positively predict mentor satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior. B) Greater awareness of outgroup disadvantage will positively predict mentor satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior. C) Greater White guilt and empathy with positively predict mentor satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior.

Method

Participants

We initially planned to sample from a pool of 171 mentors from approximately 42 teams, where teams came from approximately 18 companies

recruited through a Chicago-based non-profit's mentoring community initiative (see Figures 2 and 3 for a complete diagram of the nested team structure). This comprehensive mentoring initiative focuses on getting low-income, minority high school youth from the Chicago area graduated from high school, into and graduated from college, and prepared to succeed in the future workplace. The program matches these minority, low-income youth with a team of corporate mentors. Mentors participate in mentoring teams through their places of employment, with each team consisting of on average five mentors, with some mentoring teams with as few as three mentors, and others with as many as seven. Each company supports anywhere from one to three teams. The majority of the mentoring teams mentor only two mentees (some of the students attending college still continue a mentoring relationship), with some teams mentoring only one mentee, and others mentoring multiple mentees. Mentors have an expected commitment of a minimum of four years while their mentees are in high school, but many teams continue to mentor even after their mentees' transition to college.

The program features a weekly after-school component run by the organization, monthly events for mentees and/or mentees' families and the mentors and their families. Other programs such as internships with mentees' mentoring company and college tours at various universities are also organized and facilitated by the non-profit organization. Through the mentoring initiative, the organization engages with 18 local Chicago companies who provide mentoring teams, and about 120 youth from seven different Chicago public

schools who participate as mentees in the program, along with many other local

companies who engage with the program in other ways.

As we were unable to recruit enough mentors and teams from this specific

mentoring organization, we recruited additional mentors from other non-team

based mentors from organizations across the United States to increase our sample

size, which resulted in 152 mentors. All mentors in the sample self-identified as

White/European American, and 110 mentors (72%) identified as women and 42

(28%) identified as men. We originally had a larger sample from this national

mentor pool, but did not have enough mentors of color in the sample for analysis

and thus in this study focus on mentors who are White. Mentors on average had

volunteered about three years with their mentoring organization ($M = 3.36$, $SD =$

3.29). Mentors were from the West (41%), Northeastern (31%) and Midwestern

(29%) regions of the United States. Mentors from the South were not included as

not enough participated from this region. For income, 29 mentors (19%)

identified as earning an income below $30,000, 28 mentors (19%) at $30,001-

$40,000, 30 mentors (20%) at $40,001-$60,000, 20 mentors (14%) at $60,001-

$80,000, 16 mentors (10%) at $80,001-$100,000, and 29 mentors (20%) earning

over $100,001 per year. Overall, mentors had high levels of education where 10

mentors (7%) earned their high school diploma, 20 mentors (13%) attended some

college, 10 mentors (7%) earned their associates degree, 43 mentors (28%) earned

their bachelors, 19 mentors (13%) had some graduated education, and 33 mentors

(50%) had a graduate degree. Most mentors were in one-on-one mentoring

relationships, but 24 mentors (16%) had multiple mentees. Almost all mentors

mentored on their own, while 4 mentors (.03%) mentored on a team with other

mentors. For mentor's primary mentees, 93 (43%) were identified as boys and

123 (57%) as girls, with an average mentee age of 12.52 years ($SD = 3.54$). For

mentor's primary mentees, 99 (45%) were identified by their mentors as

White/European American, 42 (19%) as Black/African-American, 47 (22%) as

Latino/Hispanic, 1 (<1 %) as Asian, 1 (<1%) as Native American/Alaskan Native,

2 (1%) as Native Hawaiian/ Other Pacific Islander, 24 (11%) as Multiracial, and 2

(1%) as Other. Thus, over half of the mentors identified mentoring youth of

color.

Procedures

Data collection was originally focused on one individual mentoring

program that was structured around a team mentoring component, where multiple

mentors worked in a team to mentor one to two mentees. Mentors in this

organization were recruited by email to participate in a brief online survey, lasting

approximately 30-45 minutes. The mentoring organization forwarded the online

survey link and study information to the mentors in the program on behalf of the

researchers. A link to the survey was also posted on the organization's website,

and on the weekly online newsletter sent out to mentors. Mentors received an

initial email request to participate, followed by two reminder emails. Prior to the

distribution of the online survey, the researcher attended multiple events

organized by the mentoring initiative to speak to mentors about the upcoming

survey. Mentors were reminded that their participation was voluntary and the

potential benefits the survey may have for the organization.

Due to a low initial response rate, a second wave of data collection was conducted. Based on feedback from mentors and the mentoring organization, portions of the survey, specifically related to the team demographic items, were cut to reduce the overall length of the survey and the amount of time it would take to the complete. An email about the modified online survey was re-sent to mentors by the mentoring organization on behalf of the researchers, as well as two subsequent reminder emails. The link to the survey was also posted on the organization's website, as well as on the weekly online newsletter sent out to mentors. The researcher also attended one of the major events sponsored by the program, and distributed paper copies of the survey for mentors to fill out while they were waiting for the activities to begin, as well as self-addressed, pre-paid envelopes for mentors to use to take home the survey and mail back to the researcher. Even with a second wave of data collection, full support from the mentoring organization, a shorter survey, and even the option to take a paper version of the survey, the overall response rate was too low to yield viable quantitative data from the organization.

Therefore, a second sample of mentors was recruited to participate in a version of the online survey. Survey questions were modified to remove items related to the mentor's mentoring team, and team social support, as the majority of mentoring organizations due not use a team mentoring model with multiple mentors on one team. Mentoring organizations were first identified through online searches, using a combination of mentoring related words (e.g., mentor, mentoring organization, mentoring program) as well as from mentoring.org.

Mentoring organizations also were recruited through snowballing and personal

contacts. We attempted to contact all identified mentoring organizations that

listed a current working email or phone number. All identified mentoring

organization received an initial email with study with instructions on how to

forward to the adult mentors in their program. If there was no response from a

particular mentoring organization, a follow-up email was sent approximately two

weeks later, followed by a phone call approximately two weeks after the final

email was sent. When the email was forwarded to mentors, they were able to

click the embedded link to go directly to the survey, provide consent online, fill

out the survey measures, and were thanked upon completion of the survey. Out of

the 350 eligible mentoring organizations contacted, we had sixty-five

organizations agree to forward the study information to mentors for a response

rate of 18.57%. We were not able to calculate the response rate for mentors since

we do not know how many mentors were on each email list for each mentoring

organization. Therefore, the focus of the present study will be on the data

collected from this national pool of mentors, and not from the one team mentoring

organization. Consequently, we are not able to test all of the originally proposed

study hypotheses since many hypotheses regarded the team-based mentoring

model. However, we now present results for the hypotheses that were able to be

tested with the larger sample of mentors from across the U.S.

Measures

> **Outcomes: Mentor satisfaction with mentee relationship.** We assessed

mentor's satisfaction with their relationship with their mentee with the Match

Characteristics Questionnaire (Adult Version 2.0; Harris & Nakkula, 2003). We asked mentors to think about their mentees and respond to the questions "on average" (since mentors may have more than one mentee). This 22-item measure uses a six-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 6 (*always*) with higher scores indicating greater mentor satisfaction (Harris & Nakkula, 2003). The measure consists of five subscales: (a) Satisfaction (five items; e.g., "I feel like I am making a difference in my mentee's life"), (b) Non-Academic Support Seeking (five items; e.g., "My mentee asks for my opinion or advice"), (c) Closeness (four items; e.g., "I can trust what my mentee tells me"), (d) Distance (six items; e.g., "My mentee avoids talking with me about problems or issues at home," reverse coded), and (e) Academic Support Seeking (two items; e.g., "My mentee asks me for help when he/she has difficult schoolwork or a major project to do"; Harris & Nakkula, 2003). Harris and Nakkula found high internal consistency estimates for each of the subscales .87, .88, .83, .81, and .92, respectively. Other researchers use the total scale score to assess general mentor satisfaction with the mentoring relationship, finding the total scale score to evidence adequate internal consistency of .89 (Karcher, Herrera, & Hansen, 2010). In the present study we use the total scale score which had internal consistency of .94.

Outcomes: Mentor satisfaction with volunteer organization. Mentor's satisfaction with the mentoring program, as well as the community organization running the mentoring program, was assessed using 15 items from the Organizational Support and Participation Efficacy subscales of the Volunteer

Satisfaction Index, which use a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*very dissatisfied*) to 7 (*very satisfied*) (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2002). A lead in statement was used: "Please indicate your level of satisfaction with the following" (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2002). We used the Organizational Support subscale (ten items; e.g., "The availability of getting help when I need it"), and the Participation Efficacy subscale (five items; e.g., "The amount of effort I put in as equaling the amount of change I influence") (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2002). These two subscales were combined together to assess overall mentor satisfaction with their mentoring organization. Constuct validity has been established between the total and subscale scores of the Volunteer Satisfaction Index, and the total score of the Volunteer Functions Survey, an instrument containing 30 items and 6 subscales measuring reasons for volunteering (Wong, Chui, & Kwok, 2010). Reliability estimates for these two subscales have been reported as .91 and .84, respectively (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2002). In the present study, the internal consistency was .95 for the total scale.

Outcomes: Overall mentor satisfaction. Mentor's overall satisfaction with both their mentoring relationship, as well as with the mentoring organization was assessed by combining the 22 item mentor satisfaction with mentoring relationship scale, as well as the 15 item mentor satisfaction with mentoring organization scale. The average of all 37 items was used to create this total scale. This overall satisfaction scale was found to have adequate reliability of .95 in the present study.

Outcomes: Mentor retention. Mentor retention was assessed by three items based on one item from Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2002) where respondents were asked to answer a question using a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*certainly not*) to 7 (*certainly*), "Unless unforeseen changes occur in your life, do you see yourself volunteering for this agency one year from now?" The original item was included, along with two variations of the item (e.g., "The only reason I would leave this mentoring program is if I had to switch jobs and leave the company or move"). In the present study, this scale was found to have adequate reliability of .76.

Outcomes: Mentor's extra-role pro-social behavior. Twelve items using a six point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 6 (*always*) were developed to assess mentor's willingness to go above and beyond on behalf of their mentee (e.g., "Actively look for opportunities for you mentee"), and the program (e.g., "Actively try to recruit friends or other contacts to become mentoring or sponsoring companies"). These items were based on examples of possible extra-role behaviors within the mentoring role, and as a mentor volunteering in a mentoring program. The extra-role behavior literature was also been consulted to find, modify and inform the existing scale. Exploratory factor analyses were conducted which suggested two subscales, 10 items belonging to mentor's willingness to go above and beyond on behalf of their mentee, and 2 items belonging to mentor's willingness to go above and beyond on behalf of the mentoring program. Adequate reliability was found for each subscale, .87 and .79 respectively, as well as the overall scale .85 in the present study.

Mentor demographics. Demographic characteristics of the mentor were assessed with standard questions regarding gender and race/ethnicity. For income, participants reported on a 1 (lowest; below $30,000) to 16 (highest; $150,000 +) scale, and for levels of education on a 1 (lowest; high school) to 6 (highest; graduate degree) scale.

Cross-Cultural Mentoring Inventory. To assess mentor self-reported multicultural competence, we modified the Cross-Cultural Mentoring Inventory (CCMI; Grant-Thompson & Atkinson, 1997). Originally based on the Cross-Cultural Counseling Inventory (Hernandez & LaFromboise, 1983; revision by LaFromboise et al., 1991), the CCMI assesses multicultural competence of mentors following Sue and colleagues (1992) dimensions of awareness and beliefs, knowledge, and skills (Grant-Thompson & Atkinson, 1997). For the CCMI, mentees (or other observers) report on mentors using a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*) (LaFromboise et al., 1991). Although the CCMI has three subscales reflecting Sue's dimensions of awareness and beliefs, knowledge, and skills, many researchers use the total scale score to assess general multicultural competence (LaFromboise et al., 1991; Sue et al., 1992). In the current study, we modified the scale by altering the prompt to ask mentors to self-report on their perceived multicultural competence in their mentoring relationship. To do so, we first dropped the following item due to poor conceptual fit "Counselor has a clear understanding of counseling and therapy process." Next, we changed the word "counselor" with "mentor," and "client" with "mentee." We then conducted an exploratory factor analysis to determine if

Sue's three dimensions were present to justify our use of the total scale score. We indeed found a similar three factor structure and thus proceeded to use the entire scale score (analyses and items available upon request). In the present study, this measure had an adequate reliability of .89.

Correspondence bias. A set of nine questions was developed for this study to assess the degree mentors perceive situations with their mentee to be influenced by more situational factors or dispositional factors (e.g., "If emails from my mentee contain many typos it is because they are careless and did not bother to proofread"; reverse coded) as part of the mentor-mentee Mircosystem relationship. The set of questions used a six-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*) with lower scores more indicative of dispositional beliefs, and higher scores more indicative of situational beliefs. This measure was found to have poor reliability, and was therefore dropped from analyses. Exploratory factor analyses were run to try to reduce the overall number of items to increase the scale's reliability, but the scale did not hold together.

Mentor-mentee family relationship. The relationship between the mentor and the mentee's family as part of the mentor's Mircosystem was assessed using a modified version of Nzinga-Johnson et al.'s (2009) the Teacher Report: Home-School Relationship. The word child was replaced with the word mentee to modify the scale for use with mentors. Mentors were asked to think about their mentees and respond to the questions "on average" if they had more than one mentee. This seven item scale uses a four-point and five-point Likert-type scale with different scale anchors for each item (e.g., from 1 (*very positive*) to 4 (*very*

negative), from 1 (*no trust*) to 5 (*a great deal of trust*) (Nzinga-Johnson et al., 2009). Items were summed so high scores reflect a more positive relationship. If mentors did not have a relationship with their mentee's parents, they were instructed to select the lowest response choice. The scale's internal consistency reliability was found to be .93 (Nzinga-Johnson et al., 2009), and was adequate in the present study at .91.

Team demographic questions. In the survey that was administered specifically to the one individual team mentoring organization, there were approximately ten background questions to assess various aspects of the mentoring team including the age of the team, the team's stability, the size, number of mentees the team has mentored and is currently mentoring, the demographic make-up of the team (e.g., team member's gender, title, race/ethnicity, approximate length of involvement). The questions also assessed team member attrition and past reasons for attrition. These items were not included in the survey administered to the national mentor sample, as the majority of the mentoring organizations did not use a team-based mentoring model.

Team variables. In the survey that was administered specifically to the one individual team mentoring organization, team support was assessed using Drach-Zahavy and Somech's (2002) Team Support measure (adapted from West, 1994) to assess the mentor-mentoring team relationship as part of the mentor's microsystem. This fourteen item measure uses a Likert-type scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) (Drach-Zahavy & Somech, 2002). There are four subscales: (a) Emotional Support, the sympathy/empathy team members

show one another (four items; e.g., "People feel understood and accepted by each

other"), (b) Instrumental Support, tangible assistance team members do for one

another (four items; e.g., "Members of the team provide and share resources to

help each other"), (c) Informational Support, the extent team members share

necessary and relevant information with one another (four items; e.g., "We share

information generally in the team, rather than keeping it to ourselves"), and (d)

Appraisal Support, the help team members provide in thinking through and

suggesting alternatives when problem solving with team members (two items;

e.g., "Team members provide each other new perspectives and ideas"; Drach-

Zahavy & Somech, 2002). High internal consistency estimates have ranged from

.91 for the entire measure, .70 for the Emotional Support subscale, .82 for the

Instrumental Support subscale, .84 for the Informational Support subscale, and .74

for the Appraisal Support subscale (Drach-Zahavy & Somech, 2002). These

items were not included in the survey administered to the national mentor sample,

as the majority of the mentoring organizations did not use a team-based mentoring

model.

Attitudes toward White privilege. We used the four item White

Privilege Awareness subscale of the White Privilege Attitudes Scale (WPAS;

Pinterits et al., 2009) to assess the multidimensional nature of White privilege

attitudes as part of mentor's macrosystem for self-identified White mentors

(Pinterits et al., 2009). The full twenty-eight item measure uses a six-point

Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*) where

higher scores indicate higher affective, cognitive, or behavioral dimensions of

White privilege attitudes (Pinterits et al., 2009). There are four subscales: (a) Willingness to Confront White Privilege (twelve items; e.g., "I'm glad to explore my White privilege"), (b) Anticipated Costs of Addressing White Privilege (six items; e.g., "I am worried that taking action against White privilege will hurt my relationship with other Whites"), (c) White Privilege Awareness (four items; e.g., "Everyone has equal opportunity, so this so-called White privilege is really White-bashing"), (d) White Privilege Remorse (six items; e.g., "I am ashamed that the system is stacked in my favor because I am White") (Pinterits et al., 2009). Previous studies have found adequate temporal stability with test-retest reliability estimates ranging from .83 for the Willingness to Confront White Privilege subscale, .70 for the Anticipated Costs of Addressing White Privilege subscale, .87 for the White Privilege Awareness subscale, and .78 for the White Privilege Remorse subscale (Pinterits et al., 2009). Coefficient alphas have ranged from .91-93, .73-.83, .74-.84, .87-.89, respectively (Pinterits et al., 2009), and were found to be adequate in the present study at .76 for the White privilege awareness subscale. Convergent validity has been assessed using the Color-blind Racial Attitudes Scale (CoBRAS), Modern Racism Scale (MRS) and Social Dominance Orientation (SDO). Three of the fours subscales, Willingness to Confront White Privilege, White Privilege Awareness and White Privilege Remorse have been found to all negatively correlate with the CoBRAS, MRS, and SDO (Pinterits et al., 2009). We only used the White Privilege Awareness subscale for the present study.

Awareness of outgroup structural disadvantage. The four item

Empathic Awareness subscale of the Scale of Ethnocultural Empathy (SEE) was

used to measure mentor's empathy towards others of different racial or ethnic

backgrounds as internalized as part of mentor's Marcosystem (Wang et al., 2003).

The full 31-item measure uses a six-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1

(*strongly disagree*), to 6 (*strongly agree*) with items listed in random order.

There are four subscales: (a) Empathetic Feeling and Expression (fifteen items;

e.g., "When other people struggle with racial or ethnic oppression, I share their

frustration"), (b) Empathic Perspective Taking (six items; e.g., "It is easy for me

to understand what it would feel like to be a person of another racial or ethnic

background other than my own"), (c) Acceptance of Cultural Differences (five

items; e.g., "I get impatient when communicating with people from other racial or

ethnic backgrounds, regardless of how well they speak English," reverse coded),

and (d) Empathic Awareness (four items; e.g., "I recognize that the media often

portrays people based on racial or ethnic stereotypes"). Only the Empathic

Awareness subscale was used for the present study. Skewness and kurtosis for

the SEE total and individual factors have ranged from -.67 to .24, and -.55 to .51,

respectively (Wang et al., 2003). High internal consistency have ranged from .91

for the SEE total, .89 for Empathic Feeling and Expression subscale, .75 for the

Empathic Perspective Taking subscale, .73 for the Acceptance of Cultural

Differences subscale, and .76 for the Empathic Awareness subscale (Wang et al.,

2003). In the present study, the Empathic Awareness subscale was found to have

adequate reliability at .79. High test-retest reliability estimates have been

reported in previous studies ranging from .76 for the SEE total, .76 for the

Empathic Feeling and Expression subscale, .75 for the Empathic Perspective

Taking subscale, .86 for the Acceptance of Cultural Differences subscale, and .64

for the Empathic Awareness subscale (Wang et al., 2003). Discriminant validity

was assessed using the BIDR Impression Management subscale scores which

provided discriminant validity of the SEE full scale as well as each of its four

factors (Wang et al., 2003). Concurrent validity has been assessed using the

Davis Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI) and the Miville-Guzman Universality-

Diversity Scale (M-GUDS) which showed significant correlations between all

subscales of both measures as well as both measures' total scores providing

support for convergent validity (Wang et al., 2003).

White guilt and empathy. The eleven items from the White guilt and

White empathy subscales of the Psychosocial Costs of Racism to Whites Scale

(PCRW; Spanierman & Heppner, 2004) were used to asses mentor's affective

costs of racism in the form of affective responses to societal racism. The full 16-

item measure uses a six-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly*

disagree), to 6 (*strongly agree*). There are three subscales: (a) White Empathic

Reactions Toward Racism (six items; e.g., "I become sad when I think about

racial injustice"), (b) White Guilt (five items; e.g., "Sometimes I feel guilty about

being White"), and (c) White Fear of Others (five items; e.g., "I have very few

friends of other races"). Only the White Empathic Reactions Toward Racism and

White Guilt subscales were used for the present study. The White Empathic

Reactions Toward Racism is used to assess White's empathic reactions towards

racism such as anger, sadness, and helplessness. Higher scores reflect greater

distress towards racism. Among White students, internal consistency estimates

for the White Empathic Reactions Toward Racism subscale were found to be $\alpha =$

.85, and were found to be adequate at .70 in the present study, while temporal

stability estimates were found to be .84 over a 2-week period (Spanierman &

Heppner, 2004). The White Guilt subscale is used to assess guilt and shame

regarding participants' Whiteness from experience being in a racially diverse

society. Higher scores reflect higher experiences of the guilt and shame. Among

White students, internal consistency estimates for the White Guilt subscale have

ranged from $\alpha = .73-.86$ (Case, 2007; Sifford, Ng, & Wang, 2009; Spanierman &

Heppner, 2004; Spanierman, Poteat, Beer, & Armstrong, 2006) and were found to

be adequate at .69 in the present study, while temporal stability estimates were

found to be .80 over a 2-week period (Spanierman & Heppner, 2004).

General free response questions. Free response questions were included

in the survey to the one team mentoring organization, but not in the national

mentor survey. These items were at the end of the survey to give mentors in the

one team mentoring organization the opportunity to share other additional

qualitative information that may not be captured through the survey questions

(e.g., "What are some strengths and weaknesses of your mentoring team?").

Supplemental questions. A final question was included at the end of the

one survey to the team mentoring organization to assess if mentors were

interested in participating in a follow up interview at a later date, and if so to

provide their contact information. This item was not included in the national

mentor survey.

Analytic Strategy

Analytic Strategy Used in Present Study

As we ended up analyzing the data from the national mentor sample

(versus the one mentoring organization where mentors were nested in teams) we

did not use multilevel modeling, but rather we used ordinary least squares

regression to test how demographic (i.e., income, education, and years

volunteered) microsystem (i.e., relationship with their mentee's family, and

mentor's cultural competence) and marcosystem (i.e., White privilege awareness,

ethnocultural empathy, White empathy, and White guilt) variables predicted our

outcomes of interest (retention, satisfaction with the mentoring relationship,

satisfaction with the mentoring organization, overall satisfaction, extra-role pro-

social behavior on behalf of the mentee, extra-role pro-social behavior on behalf

of the organization, and mentor's overall extra-role pro-social behavior; Cohen et

al., 2003). Due to a racially skewed sample, with the majority of mentors self-

identifying as White (and too small of a sample size of non-White mentors),

mentors who identified as other racial or ethnic groups other than White were

dropped from analyses. In addition, due to too few mentors identifying as

mentoring in the southern region, those mentors who did identify as mentoring in

the south were also dropped from analyses. To aid in interpretation and for use in

interactions, we first standardized all continuous predictor variables. Given the

strong correlations between variables (see Table 1), we examined each predictor

variable first in separate models to avoid multicollinearity (Cohen et al., 2003).

We first examined each predictor variable separately in predicting over-

and-above demographic variables of interest (i.e., gender, income, education,

years volunteered; Models 1-7) in predicting mentor's outcomes. Next, we began

to build models, first looking specifically at the microsystem variables (Model 8),

then separately at the marcosystem variables related to attitudes (Model 9), then at

the macrosystem variables related to affect (Model 10), and lastly at a model with

all of the macrosystem variables combined predicting mentor's satisfaction with

their mentoring relationship (Model 11), over-and-above demographic variables

of interest. Finally, we examined a full integrated model combining both

microsystem and marcosytem predictors into one model predicting over-and-

above demographic variables of interest (Model 12). This approach resulted in

twelve possible models. We examined these models for each outcome variable of

interest (retention, satisfaction with the mentoring relationship, satisfaction with

the mentoring organization, overall satisfaction, extra-role pro-social behavior on

behalf of the mentee, extra-role pro-social behavior on behalf of the organization,

and mentor's overall extra-role pro-social behavior). Analyses were conducted

using SAS PROC GLM version 9.3.

Initial Analytic Strategy

We initially planned to use multilevel modeling because study data, if

collected from the team mentoring program, existed at different levels of analysis

in a nested structure (Kahn, 2011; Snijders & Bosker, 2011). Mentors who

volunteer with the team mentoring organization were nested within mentoring teams (i.e., multiple mentors from the same team provide data and there would have been multiple mentoring teams). Therefore, if we had focused our data analyses on the team mentoring organization, mentors would have represented the most basic Level 1 unit, and the mentoring team would have represented Level 2. Because the data would have been nested it would have been likely that observations were dependent (e.g., mentors who belong to the same mentoring team may be more similar to one another due to their group membership than to mentors in other groups). Accounting for this potential dependence in observations would have then been necessary because traditional statistical analyses (e.g., ordinary least squares regression) assumes independence (Kahn, 2011; Snijders & Bosker, 2011). Assuming independence of observations when there is a potential for dependence may lead to an increase in Type I error which is problematic (Kahn, 2011); however, multilevel modeling takes this dependence into account and is viable analytic strategy to use with nested data (Snijders & Bosker, 2011).

In addition to accounting for dependence, multilevel modeling would have offered the opportunity to analyze data at different levels of analysis in a unique way, where it would have been possible to examine if group variables may have predicted each of our three outcomes (satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior) over-and-above individual variables (Enders & Tofighi, 2007; Snijders & Bosker, 2011; Todd, Allen, & Javdani, 2012). In the current study we were interested in examining possible effects at the level of the mentoring team.

Because mentors would have been nested within mentoring teams in our sample, there would have been the potential to explore if characteristics of the mentoring team (e.g., age of mentoring team, average awareness of White privilege in the team) were able to predict individual outcomes over-and-above individual characteristics (e.g., individual awareness of White privilege). Thus, multilevel modeling would have provided a unified strategy to account for dependence and to examine mentoring team level hypotheses.

Had we been able to use data from the one mentoring organization with mentors nested within mentoring teams, we would have used multilevel modeling to test a series of models to address each study hypothesis. See Table 31 for a summary of these models for the study outcome of satisfaction. Models were organized around study hypotheses and the system of interest (e.g., microsystem). After examining mentor demographics (Model 1) we would have looked at the relationship between the mentor and the mentee (Model 2), the mentor and the mentees' family (Model 3), and the mentor and the mentoring team (Model 4). We would have planned to combine the variables from all Microsystems in an integrated model to explore how the different mircosystems may have accounted for variance in the outcome. We would have tested a model (Model 5) that focused on the macrosystem and that examined how various cultural and ideological variables (e.g., awareness of White privilege) may have predicted mentoring outcomes. We may have then examined a model (Model 6) that combined variables from the mirco- as well as the marcosystems to build an integrated model to explain each study outcome. The same basic models (Models

1-3, 5) would have been examined separately for each study outcome (satisfaction, retention, extra-role pro-social behavior).

Before examining study hypotheses would have examined the intraclass correlation to determine the amount of dependence present in the data for each study outcome (Kahn, 2011; Snijders & Bosker, 2011). We would have planned to use grand-mean centering of individual level variables to test group level contextual hypotheses (Enders & Tofighi, 2007; Todd et al., 2012); however, other centering methods may have been explored had we followed through with this initial plan for analyses. In that case, we would have consulted Enders and Tofighi (2007) to determine the appropriate centering of categorical and group level variables. Team level variables (i.e., average awareness within a mentoring team) would have been constructed by taking the average within each group for the study variable. Because there may have been sparse data for some teams (i.e., some teams may only have two or three mentors providing data), we also may have needed to explore other methods of estimation in case models did not converge (Snijders & Bosker, 2011). If the number of teams would have been relatively low, we also may have used one-tailed tests of significance to increase power. If we had been able collect data from at least 30 teams with 3 members per team, we should have had 80% power to detect a large effect (Scherbaum & Ferreter, 2009). We would have consulted the methodological literature to inform these decisions as the analysis unfolded. Analyses would have been conducted using SAS PROC MIXED version 9.3. In the present study, analyses were

conducted using SAS PROC GLM version 9.3, based on the larger U.S. mentor

sample using ordinary least squares regression to test hypotheses.

Results

Predicting Mentor Satisfaction: Mentoring Relationship

We first examined each predictor variable separately in predicting over-

and-above demographic variables of interest (i.e., gender, income, education,

years volunteered; Models 1-7, Tables 2-3) in predicting mentor's satisfaction

with their mentoring relationship. Mentor's cultural competence (Model 2, Table

2), and their relationship with their mentee's family (Model 3, Table 2) were

found to be significant, positive predictors of their satisfaction with the

relationship they held with their mentee. In all Models except the model

exploring mentor's relationship with their mentee's family as a predictor (Model

3, Table 2), the number of years mentors volunteered with their mentoring

organization was found to be a significant positive demographic variable in

predicting mentor's satisfaction with their mentoring relationship. No

marcosystem variables were found to be significant predictors (Models 4-7, Table

3).

Next, we began to build models, first looking specifically at the

microsystem variables (Model 8), then separately at the marcosystem variables

related to attitudes (Model 9), then at the macrosystem variables related to affect

(Model 10), and lastly at a model with all of the macrosystem variables combined

predicting mentor's satisfaction with their mentoring relationship (Model 11),

over-and-above demographic variables of interest (see Table 4). We found that

mentor's cultural competence, as well as their relationship with their mentee's family, were both significant positive predictors in predicting mentor's satisfaction with their mentoring relationship, when included together in a model (Model 8, Table 4). No marcosystem models were found to have any significant marcosystem predictors (Models 9-11, Table 4).

Finally, we examined a full integrated model combining both microsystem and marcosytem predictors into one model predicting over-and-above demographic variables of interest (Model 12, Table 5). We found only the two microsystem variables that were significant predictors in earlier models, mentor's cultural competence and relationship with their mentee's family, to also be significant positive predictors of mentor's satisfaction with their mentoring relationship in the full integrated model.

Predicting Mentor Satisfaction: Mentoring Organization

For predicting mentor's satisfaction with their mentoring organization they volunteer at, we first examined each predictor variable separately in predicting over-and-above demographic variables of interest (i.e., gender, income, education, years volunteered; Models 1-7, Tables 6-7). Mentor's cultural competence (Model 2, Table 6), and their relationship with their mentee's family (Model 3, Table 6) were found to be significant, positive predictors, while White guilt (Model 11, Table 7) was found to be a significant negative predictor of mentor's satisfaction with their mentoring organization. Income (Model 6) and the years mentors have volunteered at their mentoring organization (Models 6, 7, 10, 11) were found to be a significant positive predictors (See Tables 6-7).

Next, we began to build models, first looking specifically at the microsystem variables (Model 8), then separately at the marcosystem variables related to attitudes (Model 9), then at the macrosystem variables related to affect (Model 10), and lastly at a model with all of the macrosystem variables combined predicting mentor's satisfaction with their mentoring organization (Model 11), over-and-above demographic variables of interest (see Table 8). We found that mentor's cultural competence, as well as their relationship with their mentee's family, were both significant positive predictors in predicting mentor's satisfaction with their mentoring organization, when included together in a model (Model 8, Table 8). White guilt was found to be a significant negative predictor in a model looking at macrosystem variables related to affect (Model 10), as well as a model including all four macrosystem variables (Model 11; see Table 8).

Finally, we examined a full integrated model combining both microsystem and marcosytem predictors into one model predicting over-and-above demographic variables of interest (Model 12, Table 9). We found mentor's relationship with their mentee's family to be a significant positive predictor, and mentor's White guilt to be a significant negative predictor of mentor's satisfaction with their mentoring organization. In addition, income and years volunteered were found to be significant positive demographic predictors in this full integrated model.

Predicting Overall Mentor Satisfaction

For predicting mentor's overall satisfaction, both with their mentoring relationship, as well as with mentoring organization they volunteer at, we first

examined each predictor variable separately in predicting over-and-above demographic variables of interest (i.e., gender, income, education, years volunteered; Models 1-7, Tables 10-11). Mentor's cultural competence (Model 2, Table 10), and their relationship with their mentee's family (Model 3, Table 10) were found to be significant, positive predictors, while White guilt (Model 11, Table 11) was found to be a significant negative predictor of mentor's overall satisfaction. The years mentors have volunteered at their mentoring organization was found to be a significant positive predictor in models all initial models (Models 1-7).

Next, we began to build models, first looking specifically at the microsystem variables (Model 8), then separately at the marcosystem variables related to attitudes (Model 9), then at the macrosystem variables related to affect (Model 10), and lastly at a model with all of the macrosystem variables combined predicting mentor satisfaction (Model 11), over-and-above demographic variables of interest (see Table 12). We found that mentor's cultural competence, as well as their relationship with their mentee's family, were both significant positive predictors in predicting mentor satisfaction when included together in a Model (Model 8, Table 12). White guilt was found to be a significant negative predictor in a model looking at macrosystem variables related to affect (Model 10, Table 12), as well as a model including all four macrosystem variables (Model 11, Table 12). The years mentors have volunteered at their mentoring organization was found to be a significant positive predictor most integrated models (Models 8, 10, 11, Table 12).

Finally, we examined a full integrated model combining both microsystem and marcosytem predictors into one model predicting over-and-above demographic variables of interest (Model 12, Table 9). We found mentor's relationship with their mentee's family and mentor's cultural competence both to be significant positive predictors, while mentor's White guilt was found to be a significant negative predictor of mentor satisfaction. In addition, years volunteered was found to be significant positive demographic predictor in this full integrated Model.

Predicting Mentor Retention

For predicting mentor retention, we first examined each predictor variable separately in predicting over-and-above demographic variables of interest (i.e., gender, income, education, years volunteered; Models 1-7, Tables 14-15). Mentor's cultural competence (Model 2, Table 14), and their relationship with their mentee's family (Model 3, Table 14) were found to be significant, positive predictors of mentor retention. The years mentors have volunteered at their mentoring organization was found to be a significant positive predictor in most initial models (Models 1-5, 7), as was mentor's current income level (Models 3, 5, 7). Mentor's educational level was found to be a significant negative demographic predictor (Model 2).

Next, we began to build models, first looking specifically at the microsystem variables (Model 8), then separately at the marcosystem variables related to attitudes (Model 9), then at the macrosystem variables related to affect (Model 10), and lastly at a model with all of the macrosystem variables combined

predicting mentor retention (Model 11), over-and-above demographic variables of

interest (see Table 16). We found that mentor's cultural competence, as well as

their relationship with their mentee's family, were both significant positive

predictors in predicting mentor retention when included together in a model

(Model 8, Table 16). No macrosystem variables were found to be significant

predictors in those integrated Models (Models 9-11). The years mentors have

volunteered at their mentoring organization was found to be a significant positive

predictor (Models 9, 11), while mentor's income was found to be a significant

positive predictor for the demographic variables (Models 8, 11).

Finally, we examined a full integrated model combining both microsystem

and marcosytem predictors into one model predicting over-and-above

demographic variables of interest (Model 12, Table 17). We found mentor's

relationship with their mentee's family to be a significant positive predictor of

mentor retention. In addition, mentor's current income was found to be

significant positive demographic predictor in this full integrated model (Model

12, Table 17).

Predicting Mentor Extra-Role Pro-Social Behavior: Mentoring Relationship

For predicting mentor willingness to go above and beyond on behalf of

their mentee, their extra-role pro-social behavior, we first examined each

predictor variable separately in predicting over-and-above demographic variables

of interest (i.e., gender, income, education, years volunteered; Models 1-7, Tables

18-19). Mentor's cultural competence (Model 2, Table 18), and their relationship

with their mentee's family (Model 3, Table 18) were found to be significant,

positive predictors of mentor's extra-role pro-social behavior towards their mentee.

Next, we began to build models, first looking specifically at the microsystem variables (Model 8), then separately at the marcosystem variables related to attitudes (Model 9), then at the macrosystem variables related to affect (Model 10), and lastly at a model with all of the macrosystem variables combined predicting mentor's extra-role pro-social behavior towards their mentee (Model 11), over-and-above demographic variables of interest (see Table 20). We found that mentor's cultural competence, as well as their relationship with their mentee's family, were both significant positive predictors in predicting mentor's extra-role pro-social behavior towards their mentee when included together in a model (Model 8, Table 20). No macrosystem variables were found to be significant predictors in those integrated Models (Models 9-11).

Finally, we examined a full integrated model combining both microsystem and marcosytem predictors into one model predicting over-and-above demographic variables of interest (Model 12, Table 21). We found mentor's relationship with their mentee's family, and mentor's cultural competence to be significant positive predictors of mentor's extra-role pro-social behavior towards their mentee.

Predicting Mentor Extra-Role Pro-Social Behavior: Mentoring Organization

For predicting mentor willingness to go above and beyond on behalf of their mentoring organization, their extra-role pro-social behavior, we first examined each predictor variable separately in predicting over-and-above

demographic variables of interest (i.e., gender, income, education, years

volunteered; Models 1-7, Tables 22-23). Mentor's relationship with their

mentee's family (Model 3, Table 22) was found to be a significant, positive

predictor of mentor's extra-role pro-social behavior towards their mentoring

organization. For all of the initial models, gender was found to be a significant

positive predictor, with women tending to be more likely to go above and beyond

on behalf of their mentoring organization than men (Models 1-7). The number of

years mentors volunteered at their mentoring organization was also a significant,

positive demographic predictor in most initial models (Models 1-3, 5-7).

Next, we began to build models, first looking specifically at the

microsystem variables (Model 8), then separately at the marcosystem variables

related to attitudes (Model 9), then at the macrosystem variables related to affect

(Model 10), and lastly at a model with all of the macrosystem variables combined

predicting mentor's extra-role pro-social behavior towards their mentoring

organization (Model 11), over-and-above demographic variables of interest (see

Table 24). We found that mentor's relationship with their mentee's family was a

significant positive predictor in predicting mentor's extra-role pro-social behavior

towards their mentoring organization when included with other microsystem

variables in a model (Model 8, Table 24). No macrosystem variables were found

to be significant predictors in those integrated Models (Models 9-11). Mentor's

years volunteered (Models 8-11, Table 24) and gender (Models 9-11, Table 24)

were both found to be significant positive demographic predictor variables in the

integrated models.

Finally, we examined a full integrated model combining both microsystem and marcosytem predictors into one model predicting over-and-above demographic variables of interest (Model 12, Table 25). We found mentor's relationship with their mentee's family to be a significant positive predictor of mentor's extra-role pro-social behavior towards their mentoring organization. The years mentors had volunteered was also found to be a significant, positive demographic predictor variable (Model 12, Table 25).

Predicting Overall Mentor Extra-Role Pro-Social Behavior

For predicting mentor willingness to go above and beyond on behalf of their mentoring relationship and organization, their overall extra-role pro-social behavior, we first examined each predictor variable separately in predicting over-and-above demographic variables of interest (i.e., gender, income, education, years volunteered (Models 1-7, Tables 26-27). Mentor's cultural competence (Model 2, Table 26), and their relationship with their mentee's family (Model 3, Table 26) were found to be significant, positive predictors of mentor's overall extra-role pro-social behavior. For one of the initial models, gender was found to be a significant positive predictor, with women tending to be more likely to go above and beyond than men (Model 7, Table 27).

Next, we began to build models, first looking specifically at the microsystem variables (Model 8), then separately at the marcosystem variables related to attitudes (Model 9), then at the macrosystem variables related to affect (Model 10), and lastly at a model with all of the macrosystem variables combined predicting mentor's overall extra-role pro-social behavior (Model 11), over-and-

above demographic variables of interest (see Table 28). We found that mentor's relationship with their mentee's family, and mentor's cultural competence were both significant positive predictors in predicting mentor's overall extra-role pro-social behavior when included together in a Model (Model 8, Table 24). No macrosystem variables were found to be significant predictors in those integrated Models (Models 9-11).

Finally, we examined a full integrated model combining both microsystem and marcosytem predictors into one model predicting over-and-above demographic variables of interest (Model 12, Table 29). We found mentor's relationship with their mentee's family, and mentor's cultural competence, both to be significant positive predictors of mentor's overall extra-role pro-social behavior.

Discussion

The current study reveals how multiple aspects of a mentor's microsystem are important in predicting (a) mentor satisfaction with their mentoring relationship, (b) mentor satisfaction with their mentoring organization, (c) overall mentor satisfaction, (d) mentor retention, (e) mentor extra-role pro-social behavior on behalf of their mentee, (f) mentor extra-role pro-social behavior on behalf of the mentoring organization, and (g) overall mentor extra-role pro-social behavior. We explored these individual predictors in a series of models. We first examined each predictor variable separately in predicting the outcome variable over-and-above demographic variables of interest (i.e., gender, income, education, years volunteered). We next built models first looking specifically at the

microsystem variables, second separately at the marcosystem variables related to

attitudes, third at the macrosystem variables related to affect, and lastly a model

including all of the macrosystem variables combined predicting the outcome

variable of interest, over-and-above demographic variables of interest. Finally,

we examined a full integrated model combining both microsystem and

marcosytem predictors into one model predicting over-and-above demographic

variables of interest. We now discuss these findings with a focus on limitations

and implications for mentoring practice.

Mentor's Relationship with their Mentee's Family

In the present study we found that mentors' relationship with their

mentee's family was a significant positive predictor over-and-above demographic

variables, in predicting all outcome variables of interest. In addition, mentor's

relationship with their mentee's family was a significant positive predictor when

included in a model together with other microsystem variables, as well as in an

integrated model with micro- and marcosystem variables for all outcome variables

of interest. These findings of the positive association between mentor's

relationship with their mentee's family and other positive mentoring outcomes are

in line with Bronfenbrenner's ecological model (1979) that it may be important

for mentor's to build relationships with other microsystems in their mentee's life

(e.g., their parents).

This may be relevant as mentors are trying to connect with and influence

their mentee, mentors may need to be aware of other individuals and systems that

influence their mentee's life. Mentor's relationship with their mentee's family is

another important aspect of the mentor's microsystem. Particularly in mentoring relationships where there may be racial, cultural, and linguistic differences, it becomes even more crucial for mentors to make an effort to build a relationship with their mentee's parents or caregivers, as this has been shown to be important between parents and teachers (Plata, 1989). As mentors work to integrate themselves into their mentee's life through relationship building, it may become necessary to have the mentee's parents informed and on board to help support the pair in the development of their mentoring relationship. Along these lines, it may be relevant to explore how the relationship between the mentor and their mentee's other microsystems (e.g., teachers), may be important predictors of mentor's satisfaction with their mentoring relationship and other important mentoring outcomes.

In addition, as there are many different types of mentoring programs with different structures and program requirements, it may be important for future research to explore how the association between mentor and their mentee's family, and how their satisfaction with their relationship with their mentee may differ between mentoring program type (e.g., school-based versus community-based programs). It may also be worthwhile to see if the positive association between mentor's relationship with their mentee's family, and their satisfaction with their mentoring relationship still hold true when mentors become "too close" to their mentor's family, or attempt to be a mentor to the family as a whole. In these extreme cases, mentors may overstep their role as the youth's mentor to become a mentor for the entire family (e.g., providing financial support, trying to

mentor their mentee's siblings, putting the needs of the family over the needs of their assigned mentee). This may blur the boundaries of their role as a mentor and leave the mentee feeling abandoned as the mentor's focus is taken off of their relationship.

Mentor's Cultural Competence

Mentors enter their mentoring relationships with their own set of values, assumptions, and cultural standards, which provide mentors a lens in which they interpret and respond to their mentee. With many adult mentors paired in mentoring relationships with mentees from different racial, cultural, and/or socio-economic backgrounds than themselves, it becomes important for mentors to be aware of and work to improve their cultural competence (Darling, Bogat, Cavell, Murphy, & Sánchez, 2006; DuBois & Rhodes, 2006). This study further supports this assumption, as we found that greater mentor cultural competence was positively associated with most mentor outcomes. Mentors' perceived cultural competence was a significant positive predictor over-and-above demographic variables, in predicting all outcome variables of interest (except mentors' extra-role pro-social behavior on behalf of their mentoring organization). In addition, mentors' cultural competence was a significant positive predictor when included in a model together with other microsystem variables, as well as in an integrated model with micro- and marcosystem variables for all outcome variables of interest (excluding the previously noted outcome). These findings are important because they advocate for mentors not only to better understand their own backgrounds and biases, but also to learn about and gain exposure from members

of groups different from themselves. This is important not just for mentors as part of a mentoring relationship, but also as individuals in a multicultural society.

Future research may attempt to replicate these findings with different types of one-on-one mentoring matches (e.g., mentors and mentee matches who are similar or dissimilar across race, class, gender, socio-economic status). Although this study focused primarily on one-on-one mentoring relationships, different mentoring models exist and these differences in background, privileges and disadvantage, and life experiences may play out differently particularly in team mentoring relationships with multiple mentors. Future research may explore homogenous teams of multiple mentors versus non-homogenous mentoring teams, and how these similarities and differences may interact with mentor's cultural competence in predicting their satisfaction with their mentoring relationship.

Mentor's White Guilt

While engaging in mentoring relationship with mentees of different backgrounds, White mentors may experience guilt related to their perceived level of privilege and empathy towards other racial or less privileged groups. In the present study, mentor's guilt about their own racial group membership was found to be a significant negative predictor over-and-above demographic variables, in predicting mentors' satisfaction with their mentoring relationship as well as their satisfaction with the mentoring organization. Otherwise stated, lower internalized guilt was associated with mentors who were more satisfied with their mentoring relationships, and/or their mentoring organizations. Mentor's White guilt

remained a significant negative predictor in model with other affect-specific

macrosystem variables, as well as in an integrated model with both micro- and

marcosystem variables for both of these mentor outcomes.

Mentors who felt higher guilt about their racial privilege may have needed

to internally wrestle with their feelings of guilt for the first time through their

mentoring experience, which may have led them to feel less satisfied with their

mentoring relationship, or frustrated with their mentoring organization if they felt

they did not have the tools or support from the mentoring staff to process these

affective responses. High feelings of guilt may have left mentors feeling

overwhelmed by larger injustices in society which can be extremely distressing

(Hamilton & Hamilton, 1992). It is possible that through a strong relationship

with the mentoring organization and the support of staff at mentoring

organizations, mentors may be able to better understand and confront their

feelings related to their racial group membership and privilege, which may lead to

lower White guilt. The reverse may also apply, in that mentors who do not have

the support from their mentoring organization may not be able to use program

staff as a resource to discuss how larger social issues may be impacting their

mentee, as well as how the mentor may be processing their role as part of a

privileged racial group in society. These findings suggest the importance that

staff at a mentoring organization can play particularly when working with

privileged mentors. It may be beneficial for staff to allow the opportunity for

open conversations about privilege and disadvantage, in relationship to the

population that is being mentored, as well as the mentors themselves. Trainings

on these topics may be important not only for the mentors, but also for program

staff who may be going through their own personal journeys in processing these

issues. Formal trainings may also provide a structured opportunity for

conversations about these sensitive topics to be held in a safe emotional space.

When engaging mentors from dominant social groups in social justice work such

as mentoring, it is particularly important for White mentors to explore their

feelings of guilt, and examine their affective costs of racism.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

One of the main limitations of this study is generalizability. We focused

primarily on one-on-one mentoring relationships with adult mentors and youth

mentees, thus results may not generalize to group or team mentoring

relationships. Nor may the results of this study generalize to mentoring

relationships with youth as mentors (e.g., such as high school mentors, or peer-to-

peer mentoring relationships). Although the focus of this study was on one-on-

one mentoring relationships, the data may reflect some mentors who have

multiple mentees, and therefore their responses are considered "on average" for

their mentees. Mentoring relationships and programs take on various forms

beyond on-one-one relationships such as with natural mentoring, team mentoring,

and group mentoring (Karcher et al., 2006). Future studies may explore providing

the option for mentors to fill out multiple scales/items for each of their mentees if

they identify as mentoring more than one at a time.

Another limitation of this study is that not all scales were previously

validated. Due to the nature of the research questions been asked, some scales

needed to be developed particularly for this study. Future research may hope to validate these new scales with other samples of mentors. Lastly, due to the nature of the data collection strategies, there may be differences between the types of organizations as well as types of individual mentors who chose to participate in the study. Especially considering the low response rate (18.57%), findings may have been different if more mentoring organizations participated in the study, and more individual mentors completed the survey.

Implications for Mentoring Practice

Findings from the current study have direct implication for mentoring practice since many factors predicted mentor satisfaction. Many of the factors that impact mentor's satisfaction with their mentoring relationship are within mentoring organization's control. These findings support the importance of developing quality cultural competence training for mentors. This type of training may include but is not limited to privilege training, facilitating discussions on mentor's own cultural background, values, and assumptions, awareness training on the cultural norms and practices, and societal constraints that their mentees may face, a more nuanced understanding of the assets and needs of the home, schools, and communities that mentees are immersed in. In the counseling literature, there is a focus on effective training on cultural competence and privilege that is carried out across universities and mental health facilities (Caldwell & Vera, 2010; Chao & Nath, 2011; Dickson & Jepsen, 2007). In the mentoring literature, cultural competence training has been shown to help mentors become more aware of the differences between themselves and their mentees

(Sipe, 2002). Based on the results from a qualitative analysis of a mentoring

program using college aged mentors in a service learning course, Banks (2010)

found that the awareness of culture was a major theme that emerged, and

recommended for future programs to be more explicit about racial/cultural

differences, as well as to engage in more intentional discussions on these issues.

As cultural competence is not a skill to be mastered (and may be better

understood in terms of cultural humility), it may be beneficial for mentoring

programs to offer cultural competence training, workshops, and speakers

throughout the duration of the mentoring relationship, as culture competence is

something that individuals constantly work towards improving. It may also be

beneficial to explore ways to improve mentor's ethnocultural empathy (i.e.,

empathy towards others of different racial/ethnic groups) as this construct has

been hypothesized in the mentoring literature to potentially explain some

mentor's effectiveness in cross-cultural mentoring (Leyton-Armakan, Lawrence,

Deutsch, Lee Williams, & Henneberger, 2012).

In addition, it may be important for mentoring programs to integrate

strategies for communication with parents and/or caregivers into mentor training,

as well as programming to foster relationship building between the mentor and the

mentee's family. There is concern however, that for some youth, mentoring

compensates for inadequate parenting and engaging the parents may in fact

damage the mentoring relationship (Philip, Shucksmith, & King, 2004; Taylor &

Porcellini, 2013; Styles & Morrow, 1992). Some argue that programs should seek

parental support, but not engagement (Miller, 2007). Therefore it may be

beneficial for mentoring organizations to explicitly clarify both to mentors and

parents what type of role mentor's should take with their mentees family, both

parties are on the same page of the expectations from the mentoring program to

help improve their relationship. Research has documented that it is not just

important for mentors to be on the same page with families regarding

expectations, but also consistent with the families values (Meissen & Lounsbury,

1981; Sipe, 2002). Through working on strategies to improve mentor's

satisfaction as a volunteer with the mentoring organization, mentoring

organizations have the power to have mentors who are more ultimately satisfied

with their mentoring relationships. Research documents the importance of

checking in directly with mentors to gain their perspective (Spencer, 2007).

Mentoring programs may consider checking in with their current mentors (as well

as mentors who have withdrawn from their program), to help to better understand

which aspects of their program (i.e., communication styles and/or frequency of

communication from program staff, types or frequency of training, program

expectations) may be improved to help improve overall mentor satisfaction with

the mentoring organization. Overall, it is our hope that future research and

practice will help to further improve mentor outcomes which ultimately will

benefit the positive youth development of mentees.

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Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Retention	—	.46*	.38*	.50*	.19*	.14*	.17*	.08	-.07	.17*	.23*	.17*	-.07	.02	.12	-.06
2. Sat. Organization		—	.39*	.85*	.26*	.03	.06	.07	.07	-.06	.25*	.28*	-.15	-.08	.02	-.24*
3. Sat. Relationship			—	.85*	.26*	.36*	.38*	-.06	-.01	.14*	.37*	.44*	-.07	.00	.06	-.15*
4. Satisfaction Overall				—	.22*	.25*	.28*	-.01	-.05	.13	.38*	.43*	-.15*	-.05	.04	-.24*
5. ERPSB Organization					—	.30*	.51*	-.04	-.08	.13	.19*	.08	-.05	-.03	.09	-.04
6. ERPSB Relationship						—	.97*	.03	.03	-.05	.30*	.32*	-.07	.02	.02	-.11
7. ERPSB Overall							—	.01	.01	-.01	.32*	.31*	-.07	.01	.04	-.11
8. Income								—	.20*	.03	-.12	.01	.09	.05	.06	-.04
9. Education									—	.11	-.11	.09	.35*	.28*	.09	.01
10. Years Volunteered										—	.06	-.03	.05	-.03	.02	.01
11. Relationship with Mentee's Family											—	.16*	-.07	-.08	.00	.05
12. Cultural Competence												—	-.00	.19*	.21*	-.21*
13. White Privilege Awareness													—	.60*	.19*	.41*
14. Ethnocultural Empathy														—	.17*	.27*
15. White Empathy															—	.05
16. White Guilt																—
Mean	6.19	6.02	4.30	4.92	3.13	3.12	3.12	7.30	4.30	3.25	3.41	5.14	4.04	4.49	4.97	2.15
SD	1.20	0.89	0.75	0.73	1.33	1.14	1.03	5.43	1.53	3.26	0.70	0.50	1.04	0.95	0.59	0.87
α	0.76	0.95	0.94	0.95	0.79	0.87	0.85	-	-	-	0.91	0.89	0.76	0.79	0.70	0.69

Note. * $p < .05$. Sat. = Satisfaction. ERPSB = Extra-role pro-social behavior.

Table 2

Microsystem Models Predicting Mentor's Satisfaction with Mentoring Relationship

Variable	Model 1 (Demographics)	Model 2 (Cultural Competence)	Model 3 (Family Relationship)
Microsystem	b* (SE) 95% CI	b* (SE) 95% CI	b* (SE) 95% CI
Intercept	-0.36* (0.17) [-0.69, -0.03]	-0.23 (0.15) [-0.53, 0.07]	-0.21 (0.17) [-0.53, 0.12]
Women[a]	0.27 (0.16) [-0.04, 0.58]	0.13 (0.14) [-0.15, 0.42]	0.27 (0.15) [-0.03, 0.57]
Income	-0.02 (0.07) [-0.16, 0.13]	0.00 (0.07) [-0.13, 0.14]	0.03 (0.07) [-0.11, 0.17]
Education	-0.01 (0.07) [-0.15, 0.13]	-0.06 (0.07) [-0.20, 0.07]	0.06 (0.07) [-0.07, 0.20]
Years Volunteered	0.19* (0.08) [0.03, 0.34]	0.17* (0.07) [0.03, 0.30]	0.12 (0.07) [-0.02, 0.25]
Northeast[b]	0.29 (0.18) [-0.07, 0.65]	0.28 (0.17) [-0.06, 0.61]	0.26 (0.18) [-0.10, 0.61]
West[b]	0.21 (0.18) [-0.14, 0.56]	0.25 (0.16) [-0.07, 0.58]	0.12 (0.17) [-0.22, 0.45]
Cultural Competence	—	0.45* (0.07) [0.32, 0.58]	—
Family	—	—	0.36* (0.07) [0.22, 0.49]

Note. *p < .05. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. b*=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family.

Table 3

Macrosystem Models Predicting Mentor's Satisfaction with Mentoring Relationship

Variable	Model 4 (WPA)	Model 5 (Ethnocultural Empathy)	Model 6 (White Empathy)	Model 7 (White Guilt)
Macrosystem	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*
Intercept	-0.26 (0.18) [-0.61, 0.09]	-0.26 (0.18) [-0.61, 0.09]	-0.23 (0.18) [-0.58, 0.13]	-0.22 (0.18) [-0.57, 0.13]
Women[a]	0.21 (0.17) [-0.13, 0.54]	0.20 (0.18) [-.15, 0.55]	0.19 (0.17) [-0.15, 0.53]	0.22 (0.17) [-0.11, 0.56]
Income	-0.00 (0.08) [-0.16, 0.16]	0.00 (0.08) [-0.16, 0.16]	0.00 (0.08) [-0.16, 0.17]	0.00 (0.08) [-0.16, 0.16]
Education	0.02 (0.08) [-0.14, 0.18]	0.00 (0.08) [-0.16, 0.16]	0.00 (0.08) [-0.15, 0.16]	0.01 (0.08) [-0.15, 0.16]
Years Volunteered	0.16* (0.08) [0.01, 0.32]	0.16* (0.08) [0.01, 0.32]	0.20* (0.08) [0.03, 0.36]	0.20* (0.08) [0.04, 0.36]
Northeast[b]	0.29 (0.20) [-0.10, 0.68]	0.30 (0.20) [-0.09, 0.69]	0.30 (0.20) [-0.09, 0.69]	0.27 (0.20) [-0.12, 0.66]
West[b]	0.16 (0.19) [-0.21, 0.53]	0.17 (0.19) [-0.20, 0.54]	0.16 (0.19) [-0.22, 0.53]	0.13 (0.19) [-0.25, 0.50]
WPA	-0.06 (0.08) [-0.22, 0.10]	—	—	—
Ethnocultural Empathy	—	-0.01 (0.08) [-0.17, 0.16]	—	—
White Empathy	—	—	0.06 (0.08) [-0.10, 0.21]	—
White Guilt	—	—	—	-0.14 (0.08) [-0.29, 0.01]

Note. *p < .05. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. *b**=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 4

Integrated Models Predicting Mentor's Satisfaction with Mentoring Relationship

Variable	Model 8 (Microsystem)	Model 9 (Marcosystem Attitudes)	Model 10 (Macrosystem Affect)	Model 11 (Macrosystem)
	b (SE) 95% CI	*b* (SE) 95% CI	*b* (SE) 95% CI	*b* (SE) 95% CI
Intercept	-0.16 (0.15) [-0.46, 0.14]	-0.25 (0.18) [-0.60, 0.11]	-0.21 (0.18) [-0.56, 0.14]	-0.21 (0.18) [-0.57, 0.15]
Gender[a]	0.18 (0.14) [-0.09, 0.45]	0.19 (0.18) [-0.16, 0.54]	0.21 (0.17) [-0.13, 0.54]	0.20 (0.18) [-0.15, 0.55]
Income	0.02 (0.07) [-0.10, 0.15]	-0.00 (0.08) [-0.16, 0.16]	-0.00 (0.08) [-0.16, 0.16]	-0.00 (0.08) [-0.16, 0.16]
Education	0.02 (0.06) [-0.11, 0.14]	0.02 (0.08) [-0.15, 0.18]	0.00 (0.08) [-0.15, 0.15]	-0.00 (0.09) [-0.17, 0.17]
Years Volunteered	0.12 (0.06) [-0.01, 0.25]	0.17 (0.08) [0.01, 0.32]	0.20* (0.08) [0.03, 0.36]	0.20* (0.08) [0.03, 0.36]
Northeast[b]	0.23 (0.16) [-0.09, 0.55]	0.29 (0.20) [-0.10, 0.68]	0.28 (0.20) [-0.11, 0.67]	0.27 (0.20) [-0.12, 0.67]
West[b]	0.18 (0.16) [-0.13, 0.48]	0.17 (0.19) [-0.21, 0.54]	0.12 (0.19) [-0.25, 0.50]	0.13 (0.19) [-0.25, 0.51]
Cultural Competence	0.35* (0.06) [0.23, 0.48]	—	—	—
Family	0.29* (0.06) [0.16, 0.42]	—	—	—
WPA	—	-0.08 (0.10) [-0.28, 0.12]	—	-0.01 (0.11) [-0.23, 0.21]
Ethnocultural Empathy	—	0.04 (0.10) [-0.16, 0.24]	—	0.03 (0.10) [-0.17, 0.23]
White Empathy	—	—	0.06 (0.08) [-0.09, 0.21]	0.06 (0.08) [-0.09, 0.22]
White Guilt	—	—	-0.14 (0.08) [-0.29, 0.01]	-0.14 (0.09) [-0.31, 0.03]

Note. *p < .05. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region.
b=standardized regression coefficients. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 5

Full Integrated Model Predicting Mentor Satisfaction with Mentoring Relationship

Variable	Model 12 (Relationship Satisfaction)
	b* (SE) 95% CI
Intercept	0.17 (0.16) [0.48, 0.14]
Gender[a]	0.26 (0.15) [-0.05, 0.56]
Income	0.03 (0.07) [-0.10, 0.17]
Education	0.03 (0.07) [-0.11, 0.17]
Years Volunteered	0.15 (0.07) [0.02, 0.29]
Northeast[b]	0.21 (0.17) [-0.13, 0.54]
West[b]	0.11 (0.16) [-0.21, 0.44]
Cultural Competence	0.37* (0.07) [0.22, 0.52]
Family	0.29* (0.07) [0.16, 0.42]
WPA	0.07 (0.09) [-0.11, 0.26]
Ethnocultural Empathy	-0.12 (0.09) [-0.30, 0.06]
White Empathy	-0.02 (0.07) [-0.16, 0.11]
White Guilt	-0.07 (0.07) [-0.21, 0.08]

Note. *$p < .05$. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. $b*$=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 6

Microsystem Models Predicting Mentor's Satisfaction with Mentoring Organization

Variable	Model 1 (Demographics)	Model 2 (Cultural Competence)	Model 3 (Family Relationship)
Microsystem	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*
Intercept	0.01 (0.18) [-0.35, 0.36]	0.04 (0.17) [-0.30, 0.38]	0.02 (0.19) [-0.36, 0.40]
Women[a]	-0.08 (0.17) [-0.42, 0.25]	-0.14 (0.16) [-0.46, 0.19]	-0.11* (0.18) [-0.46, 0.24]
Income	0.12 (0.08) [-0.03, 0.28]	0.14 (0.08) [-0.01, 0.29]	0.16 (0.08) [-0.00, 0.32]
Education	-0.07 (0.08) [-0.22, 0.08]	-0.10 (0.08) [-0.25, 0.05]	-0.02 (0.08) [-0.17, 0.14]
Years Volunteered	0.13 (0.08) [-0.03, 0.29]	0.13 (0.08) [-0.03, 0.28]	0.12 (0.08) [-0.04, 0.28]
Northeast[b]	0.14 (0.20) [-0.25, 0.53]	0.12 (0.19) [-0.25, 0.50]	0.26 (0.21) [-0.15, 0.68]
West[b]	0.06 (0.19) [-0.32, 0.43]	0.10 (0.18) [-0.26, 0.45]	0.08 (0.20) [-0.31, 0.47]
Cultural Competence	—	0.28* (0.08) [0.13, 0.43]	—
Family	—	—	0.25* (0.08) [0.09, 0.40]

Note. *$p < .05$. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. $b*$=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family.

Table 7

Macrosystem Models Predicting Mentor's Satisfaction with Mentoring Organization

Variable	Model 4 (WPA)	Model 5 (Ethnocultural Emapthy)	Model 6 (White Empathy)	Model 7 (White Guilt)
Macrosystem	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*
Intercept	0.02 (0.18) [-0.34, 0.37]	0.00 (0.18) [-0.36, 0.36]	0.04 (0.18) [-0.32, 0.40]	0.05 (0.18) [-0.30, 0.40]
Women[a]	-0.07 (0.17) [-0.42, 0.28]	-0.05 (0.18) [-0.41, 0.30]	-0.11 (0.17) [-0.45, 0.24]	-0.07 (0.17) [-0.41, 0.26]
Income	0.14 (0.08) [-0.02, 0.30]	0.15 (0.08) [-0.02, 0.31]	0.17* (0.08) [0.00, 0.33]	0.16 (0.08) [-0.00, 0.32]
Education	-0.02 (0.08) [-0.19, 0.14]	-0.05 (0.08) [-0.21, 0.12]	-0.08 (0.08) [-0.23, 0.08]	-0.08 (0.08) [-0.23, 0.08]
Years Volunteered	0.12 (0.08) [-0.04, 0.28]	0.12 (0.08) [-0.04, 0.28]	0.17* (0.08) [0.00, 0.34]	0.17* (0.08) [0.01, 0.33]
Northeast[b]	0.14 (0.20) [-0.26, 0.54]	0.15 (0.20) [-0.25, 0.55]	0.16 (0.20) [-0.24, 0.55]	0.13 (0.20) [-0.26, 0.51]
West[b]	0.05 (0.19) [-0.32, 0.43]	0.06 (0.19) [-0.32, 0.44]	0.10 (0.19) [-0.28, 0.48]	0.05 (0.19) [-0.32, 0.42]
WPA	-0.13 (0.08) [-0.30, 0.03]	—	—	—
Ethnocultural Empathy	—	-0.08 (0.08) [-0.24, 0.09]	—	—
White Empathy	—	—	0.02 (0.08) [-0.13, 0.18]	—
White Guilt	—	—	—	-0.23* (0.08) [-0.38, -0.08]

Note. *p < .05. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. b*=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 8

Integrated Models Predicting Mentor's Satisfaction with Mentoring Organization

Variable	Model 8 (Microsystem)	Model 9 (Macrosystem Attitudes)	Model 10 (Macrosystem Affect)	Model 11 (Macrosystem)
	b* (SE) 95% CI	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*
Intercept	0.04 (0.19) [-0.34, 0.41]	0.02 (0.18) [-0.34, 0.38]	0.06 (0.18) [-0.29, 0.41]	0.05 (0.18) [-0.31, 0.41]
Gender[a]	-0.15 (0.17) [-0.49, 0.20]	-0.07 (0.18) [-0.43, 0.29]	-0.08 (0.17) [-0.42, 0.26]	-0.07 (0.18) [-0.42, 0.28]
Income	0.16 (0.08) [-0.00, 0.32]	0.14 (0.08) [-0.02, 0.30]	0.16 (0.08) [-0.00, 0.32]	0.16 (0.08) [-0.00, 0.32]
Education	-0.05 (0.08) [-0.20, 0.11]	-0.02 (0.08) [-0.19, 0.14]	-0.08 (0.08) [-0.23, 0.07]	-0.07 (0.09) [-0.24, 0.10]
Years Volunteered	0.12 (0.08) [-0.03, 0.28]	0.12 (0.08) [-0.04, 0.28]	0.17* (0.08) [0.00, 0.33]	0.17* (0.08) [0.00, 0.33]
Northeast[b]	0.23 (0.21) [-0.17, 0.64]	0.14 (0.20) [-0.26, 0.54]	0.13 (0.20) [-0.26, 0.52]	0.12 (0.20) [-0.27, 0.51]
West[b]	0.11 (0.19) [-0.27, 0.49]	0.05 (0.19) [-0.33, 0.43]	0.04 (0.19) [-0.33, 0.42]	0.04 (0.19) [-0.34, 0.42]
Cultural Competence	0.21* (0.08) [0.06, 0.37]	—	—	—
Family	0.20* (0.08) [0.05, 0.36]	—	—	—
WPA	—	-0.13 (0.10) [-0.34, 0.07]	—	-0.04 (0.11) [-0.26, 0.18]
Ethnocultural Empathy	—	-0.00 (0.10) [-0.20, 0.20]	—	0.01 (0.10) [-0.20, 0.21]
White Empathy	—	—	0.04 (0.08) [-0.11, 0.19]	0.04 (0.08) [-0.11, 0.20]
White Guilt	—	—	-0.23* (0.08) [-0.38, -0.08]	-0.21* (0.09) [-0.38, -0.05]

Note. *p < .05. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. *b** = standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 9

Full Integrated Model Predicting Mentor Satisfaction with the Mentoring Organization

Variable	Model 12 (Full Model)
	b^* (SE) 95% CI
Intercept	0.02 (0.19) [-0.35, 0.39]
Gender[a]	0.06 (0.18) [-0.42, 0.30]
Income	0.20* (0.08) [0.03, 0.36]
Education	-0.05 (0.08) [-0.21, 0.12]
Years Volunteered	0.16* (0.08) [0.00, 0.32]
Northeast[b]	0.21 (0.20) [-0.19, 0.61]
West[b]	0.11 (0.19) [-0.27, 0.50]
Cultural Competence	0.16 (0.09) [-0.02, 0.33]
Family	0.24* (0.08) [0.08, 0.40]
WPA	0.06 (0.11) [-0.16, 0.28]
Ethnocultural Empathy	-0.06 (0.11) [-0.27, 0.15]
White Empathy	-0.05 (0.08) [-0.21, 0.10]
White Guilt	-0.23* (0.09) [-0.40, -0.06]

Note. *$p < .05$. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. b^*=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 10

Microsystem Models Predicting Mentor's Satisfaction

Variable	Model 1 (Demographics)	Model 2 (Cultural Competence)	Model 3 (Family Relationship)
Microsystem	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*
Intercept	-0.24 (0.16) [-0.57, 0.10]	-0.02 (0.15) [-0.31, 0.27]	-0.06 (0.16) [-0.38, 0.26]
Women[a]	0.22 (0.16) [-0.09, 0.53]	0.06 (0.14) [-0.21, 0.34]	0.17 (0.15) [-0.12, 0.46]
Income	0.03 (0.08) [-0.11, 0.18]	0.06 (0.06) [-0.06, 0.19]	0.11 (0.07) [-0.03, 0.24]
Education	-0.06 (0.07) [-0.20, 0.09]	-0.11 (0.06) [-0.24, 0.02]	0.03 (0.07) [-0.11, 0.16]
Years Volunteered	0.18* (0.08) [0.03, 0.33]	0.17* (0.07) [0.04, 0.30]	0.14* (0.07) [0.01, 0.28]
Northeast[b]	0.16 (0.19) [-0.21, 0.53]	0.13 (0.16) [-0.19, 0.44]	0.20 (0.17) [-0.14, 0.55]
West[b]	0.10 (0.18) [-0.25, 0.45]	0.14 (0.15) [-0.17, 0.44]	0.09 (0.17) [-0.24, 0.41]
Cultural Competence	—	0.42* (0.06) [0.29, 0.54]	—
Family	—	—	0.34* (0.07) [0.21, 0.48]

Note. *p < .05. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. *b**=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family.

Table 11

Macrosystem Models Predicting Mentor's Satisfaction

Variable	Model 4 (WPA)	Model 5 (Ethnocultural Empathy)	Model 6 (White Empathy)	Model 7 (White Guilt)
Macrosystem	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*
Intercept	-0.02 (0.16) [-0.34, 0.30]	-0.03 (0.17) [-0.36, 0.30]	0.00 (0.16) [-0.32, 0.33]	0.01 (0.16) [-0.30, 0.33]
Women[a]	0.10 (0.16) [-0.22, 0.41]	0.10 (0.16) [-0.23, 0.42]	0.07 (0.16) [-0.24, 0.39]	0.11 (0.15) [-0.19, 0.41]
Income	0.06 (0.07) [-0.09, 0.20]	0.06 (0.07) [-0.09, 0.21]	0.08 (0.08) [-0.07, 0.23]	0.07 (0.07) [-0.07, 0.22]
Education	-0.01 (0.08) [-0.16, 0.14]	-0.03 (0.08) [-0.18, 0.12]	-0.05 (0.07) [-0.19, 0.09]	-0.05 (0.07) [-0.19, 0.09]
Years Volunteered	0.16* (0.07) [0.01, 0.30]	0.16* (0.07) [0.01, 0.30]	0.20* (0.08) [0.04, 0.35]	0.20* (0.07) [0.05, 0.34]
Northeast[b]	0.20 (0.18) [-0.16, 0.56]	0.21 (0.18) [-0.16, 0.57]	0.21 (0.18) [-0.15, 0.57]	0.18 (0.18) [-0.17, 0.53]
West[b]	0.07 (0.17) [-0.27, 0.41]	0.09 (0.17) [-0.26, 0.43]	0.11 (0.17) [-0.24, 0.45]	0.06 (0.17) [-0.28, 0.40]
WPA	-0.12 (0.08) [-0.27, 0.03]	—	—	—
Ethnocultural Empathy	—	-0.05 (0.08) [-0.20, 0.10]	—	—
White Empathy	—	—	0.05 (0.07) [-0.09, 0.19]	—
White Guilt	—	—	—	-0.21* (0.07) [-0.35, -0.08]

Note. *p < .05. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. *b**=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 12

Integrated Models Predicting Mentor's Satisfaction

Variable	Model 8 (Microsystem)	Model 9 (Macrosystem Attitudes)	Model 10 (Macrosystem Affect)	Model 11 (Macrosystem)
	b (SE) 95% CI	*b* (SE) 95% CI	*b* (SE) 95% CI	*b* (SE) 95% CI
Intercept	*1.25 (0.49) [0.29, 2.21]	5.06* (0.29) [4.49, 5.62]	4.87* (0.45) [3.98, 5.76]	4.85* (0.47) [3.92, 5.78]
Gender[a]	0.06 (0.10) [-0.13, 0.26]	0.06 (0.12) [-0.18, 0.30]	0.07 (0.11) [-0.15, 0.29]	0.07 (0.12) [-0.16, 0.30]
Income	0.01 (0.01) [-0.00, 0.03]	0.01 (0.01) [-0.01, 0.03]	0.01 (0.01) [-0.01, 0.03]	0.01 (0.01) [-0.01, 0.03]
Education	-0.01 (0.03) [-0.07, 0.05]	-0.00 (0.04) [-0.08, 0.07]	-0.02 (0.03) [-0.09, 0.04]	-0.02 (0.04) [-0.09, 0.05]
Years Volunteered	0.03* (0.01) [0.01, 0.06]	0.04 (0.12) [0.00, 0.07]	0.04* (0.02) [0.01, 0.08]	0.04 (0.02) [0.01, 0.08]
Northeast[b]	0.13 (0.12) [-0.10, 0.36]	0.14 (0.13) [-0.12, 0.41]	0.13 (0.13) [-0.12, 0.39]	0.13 (0.13) [-0.13, 0.39]
West[b]	0.11 (0.11) [-0.11, 0.33]	0.06 (0.13) [-0.19, 0.31]	0.04 (0.12) [-0.20, 0.29]	0.04 (0.13) [-0.21, 0.29]
Cultural Competence	0.49* (0.09) [0.31, 0.67]	—	—	—
Family	0.01* (0.07) [0.16, 0.42]	—	—	—
WPA	—	-0.10 (0.06) [-0.23, 0.03]	—	-0.03 (0.07) [-0.17, 0.11]
Ethnocultural Empathy	—	0.02 (0.07) [-0.12, 0.16]	—	0.02 (0.07) [-0.12, 0.16]
White Empathy	—	—	0.07 (0.08) [-0.10, 0.24]	0.07 (0.09) [-0.10, 0.25]
White Guilt	—	—	-0.18* (0.06) [-0.30, -0.07]	-0.17* (0.07) [-0.30, -0.04]

Note. *$p < .05$. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. *b*=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 13

Full Integrated Model Predicting Mentor Satisfaction

Variable	Model 12 (Full Model)
	$b*$ (SE) 95% CI
Intercept	2.14* (0.58) [1.00, 3.29]
Gender[a]	0.09 (0.10) [-0.12, 0.29]
Income	0.02 (0.01) [-0.00, 0.03]
Education	-0.00 (0.03) [-0.07, 0.06]
Years Volunteered	0.04* (0.01) [0.01, 0.07]
Northeast[b]	0.15 (0.12) [-0.08, 0.39]
West[b]	0.09 (0.11) [-0.13, 0.31]
Cultural Competence	0.43* (0.10) [0.23, 0.63]
Family	0.31* (0.07) [0.18, 0.44]
WPA	0.04 (0.06) [-0.08, 0.17]
Ethnocultural Empathy	-0.07 (0.06) [-0.20, 0.05]
White Empathy	-0.05 (0.08) [-0.20, 0.11]
White Guilt	-0.14* (0.06) [-0.25, -0.02]

Note. *$p < .05$. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. $b*$=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 14

Microsystem Models Predicting Mentor Retention

Variable	Model 1 (Demographics)	Model 2 (Cultural Competence)	Model 3 (Family Relationship)
Microsystem	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*
Intercept	0.01 (0.17) [-0.34, 0.35]	0.03 (0.17) [-0.30, 0.37]	0.13 (0.18) [-0.22, 0.48]
Women[a]	0.05 (0.16) [-0.27, 0.38]	0.01 (0.16) [-0.31, 0.33]	0.01 (0.16) [-0.32, 0.34]
Income	0.14 (0.08) [-0.01, 0.30]	0.16 (0.08) [0.01, 0.30]	0.17* (0.08) [0.01, 0.32]
Education	-0.12 (0.08) [-0.27, 0.03]	-0.15* (0.07) [-0.30, -0.01]	-0.04 (0.07) [-0.19, 0.10]
Years Volunteered	0.18* (0.08) [0.02, 0.33]	0.18* (0.08) [0.03, 0.33]	0.14 (0.08) [-0.01, 0.29]
Northeast[b]	-0.02 (0.19) [-0.40, 0.36]	-0.03 (0.19) [-0.40, 0.34]	0.02 (0.19) [-0.36, 0.41]
West[b]	-0.08 (0.18) [-0.44, 0.28]	-0.06 (0.18) [-0.41, 0.30]	-0.16 (0.18) [-0.52, 0.20]
Cultural Competence	—	0.23* (0.07) [0.08, 0.37]	—
Family	—	—	0.21* (0.07) [0.06, 0.36]

Note. *p < .05. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. *b**=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family.

Table 15

Macrosystem Models Predicting Mentor Retention

Variable	Model 4 (WPA)	Model 5 (Ethnocultural Empathy)	Model 6 (White Empathy)	Model 7 (White Guilt)
Macrosystem	*b* (SE) 95% CI	*b* (SE) 95% CI	*b* (SE) 95% CI	*b* (SE) 95% CI
Intercept	0.03 (0.18) [-0.32, 0.38]	0.04 (0.18) [-0.31, 0.39]	0.04 (0.17) [-0.31, 0.38]	0.02 (0.18) [-0.33, 0.37]
Women[a]	0.03 (0.17) [-0.31, 0.36]	-0.00 (0.18) [-0.35, 0.35]	0.22 (0.17) [-0.31, 0.35]	0.07 (0.17) [-0.27, 0.40]
Income	0.16 (0.08) [-0.00, 0.31]	0.16* (0.08) [0.00, 0.31]	0.18 (0.08) [0.02, 0.34]	0.19* (0.08) [0.03, 0.35]
Education	-0.11 (0.08) [-0.28, 0.05]	-0.14 (0.08) [-0.30, 0.02]	-0.13 (0.08) [-0.28, 0.02]	-0.12 (0.08) [-0.27, 0.03]
Years Volunteered	0.18* (0.08) [0.02, 0.33]	0.18* (0.08) [0.02, 0.33]	0.17 (0.08) [0.01, 0.33]	0.18* (0.08) [0.12, 0.34]
Northeast[b]	0.02 (0.20) [-0.37, 0.40]	0.03 (0.20) [-0.36, 0.41]	-0.00 (0.19) [-0.39, 0.38]	-0.12 (0.19) [-0.41, 0.36]
West[b]	-0.08 (0.19) [-0.45, 0.28]	-0.07 (0.19) [-0.43, 0.30]	-0.05 (0.18) [-0.41, 0.31]	-0.06 (0.19) [-0.43, 0.31]
WPA	-0.04 (0.08) [-0.20, 0.12]	—	—	—
Ethnocultural Empathy	—	0.04 (0.08) [-0.13, 0.20]	—	—
White Empathy	—	—	0.14 (0.07) [-0.01, 0.28]	—
White Guilt	—	—	—	-0.08 (0.08) [-0.23, 0.07]

Note. *p < .05. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. *b*=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 16

Integrated Models Predicting Mentor Retention

Variable	Model 8 (Microsystem)	Model 9 (Macrosystem Attitudes)	Model 10 (Macrosystem Affect)	Model 11 (Macrosystem)
	b* (SE) 95% CI	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*
Intercept	0.15* (0.18) [-0.20, 0.49]	0.05 (0.18) [-0.30, 0.40]	0.04 (0.17) [-0.30, 0.39]	0.07 (0.18) [-0.28, 0.42]
Gender[a]	-0.02 (0.16) [-0.35, 0.30]	-0.01 (0.18) [-0.36, 0.34]	0.03 (0.17) [-0.30, 0.36]	-0.02 (0.18) [-0.37, 0.33]
Income	0.17* (0.08) [0.02, 0.32]	0.16 (0.08) [-0.00, 0.31]	0.18 (0.08) [0.02, 0.33]	0.17* (0.08) [0.01, 0.33]
Education	-0.07 (0.07) [-0.21, 0.08]	-0.12 (0.08) [-0.29, 0.04]	-0.13 (0.08) [-0.28, 0.02]	-0.14 (0.08) [-0.30, 0.03]
Years Volunteered	0.14 (0.07) [-0.01, 0.29]	0.18* (0.08) [0.03, 0.34]	0.17 (0.08) [0.01, 0.33]	0.18* (0.08) [0.01, 0.34]
Northeast[b]	-0.00 (0.19) [-0.38, 0.38]	0.02 (0.20) [-0.37, 0.41]	-0.01 (0.19) [-0.40, 0.37]	0.01 (0.19) [-0.38, 0.39]
West[b]	-0.14 (0.18) [-0.49, 0.22]	-0.07 (0.19) [-0.44, 0.30]	-0.07 (0.18) [-0.43, 0.30]	-0.06 (0.19) [-0.43, 0.31]
Cultural Competence	0.17* (0.07) [0.02, 0.32]	—	—	—
Family	0.18* (0.07) [0.03, 0.32]	—	—	—
WPA	—	-0.09 (0.10) [-0.29, 0.10]	—	-0.03 (0.11) [-0.25, 0.18]
Ethnocultural Empathy	—	0.09 (0.10) [-0.11, 0.29]	—	0.07 (0.10) [-0.12, 0.27]
White Empathy	—	—	0.14 (0.07) [-0.01, 0.29]	0.13 (0.08) [-0.02, 0.29]
White Guilt	—	—	-0.09 (0.08) [-0.24, 0.06]	-0.10 (0.08) [-0.27, 0.06]

Note. *p < .05. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. *b**=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 17

Full Integrated Model Predicting Mentor Retention

Variable	Model 12 (Full Model)
	b^* (SE) 95% CI
Intercept	0.21 (0.18) [-0.16, 0.57]
Gender[a]	-0.09 (0.18) [-0.44, 0.26]
Income	0.16* (0.08) [0.01, 0.32]
Education	-0.09 (0.08) [-0.25, 0.07]
Years Volunteered	0.15 (0.08) [-0.01, 0.31]
Northeast[b]	0.01 (0.20) [-0.38, 0.41]
West[b]	-0.15 (0.19) [-0.52, 0.22]
Cultural Competence	0.11 (0.09) [-0.06, 0.28]
Family	0.19* (0.08) [0.04, 0.35]
WPA	0.00 (0.11) [-0.21, 0.22]
Ethnocultural Empathy	0.07 (0.10) [-0.14, 0.27]
White Empathy	0.07 (0.08) [-0.08, 0.23]
White Guilt	-0.13 (0.09) [-0.30, 0.04]

Note. *$p < .05$. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. b^*=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 18

Microsystem Models Predicting Mentor's Extra-Role Pro-Social Behavior Related to the Mentoring Relationship

Variable	Model 1 (Demographics)	Model 2 (Cultural Competence)	Model 3 (Family Relationship)
Microsystem	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*
Intercept	2.86* (0.31) [2.25, 3.47]	-0.73 (0.87) [-2.46, 0.99]	1.27* (0.56) [0.18, 2.37]
Women[a]	0.27 (0.18) [-0.09, 0.63]	0.20 (0.18) [-0.16, 0.56]	0.18 (0.19) [-0.19, 0.55]
Income	-0.00 (0.02) [-0.03, 0.03]	0.00 (0.02) [-0.03, 0.03]	0.01 (0.02) [-0.03, 0.04]
Education	0.03 (0.06) [-0.08, 0.14]	-0.01 (0.06) [-0.12, 0.10]	0.08 (0.06) [-0.03, 0.20]
Years Volunteered	-0.02 (0.03) [-0.07, 0.04]	-0.02 (0.03) [-0.07, 0.04]	-0.03 (0.03) [-0.08, 0.02]
Northeast[b]	-0.09 (0.21) [-0.52, 0.33]	-0.07 (0.21) [-0.49, 0.35]	-0.15 (0.23) [-0.60, 0.30]
West[b]	0.14 (0.21) [-0.27, 0.54]	0.19 (0.21) [-0.21, 0.60]	-0.08 (0.21) [-0.50, 0.35]
Cultural Competence	—	0.73* (0.17) [0.40, 1.06]	—
Family	—	—	0.47* (0.13) [0.22, 0.71]

Note. *p < .05. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. *b**=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family.

Table 19

Macrosystem Models Predicting Mentor's Extra-Role Pro-Social Behavior Related to the Mentoring Relationship

Variable	Model 4 (WPA)	Model 5 (Ethnocultural Empathy)	Model 6 (White Empathy)	Model 7 (White Guilt)
Macrosystem	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*
Intercept	3.29 (0.43) [2.44, 4.15]	2.83* (0.49) [1.86, 3.80]	2.66* (0.78) [1.11, 4.21]	3.20* (0.41) [2.40, 4.00]
Women[a]	0.28 (0.20) [-0.12, 0.68]	0.24 (0.21) [-0.17, 0.66]	0.30 (0.20) [-0.10, 0.70]	0.32 (0.20) [-0.08, 0.71]
Income	0.00 (0.01) [-0.03, 0.04]	0.00 (0.02) [-0.03, 0.04]	0.01 (0.02) [-0.02, 0.05]	0.01 (0.02) [-0.02, 0.05]
Education	0.04 (0.06) [-0.08, 0.17]	0.01 (0.06) [-0.12, 0.13]	0.00 (0.06) [-0.12, 0.12]	0.00 (0.06) [-0.11, 0.12]
Years Volunteered	-0.02 (0.03) [-0.07, 0.04]	-0.02 (0.03) [-0.07, 0.04]	-0.01 (0.03) [-0.07, 0.05]	-0.01 (0.03) [-0.07, 0.05]
Northeast[b]	-0.01 (0.23) [-0.47, 0.45]	0.01 (0.23) [-0.45, 0.47]	-0.00 (0.23) [-0.46, 0.46]	-0.02 (0.23) [-0.48, 0.43]
West[b]	0.10 (0.22) [-0.33, 0.54]	0.13 (0.22) [-0.30, 0.57]	0.19 (0.22) [-0.25, 0.63]	0.16 (0.22) [-0.28, 0.60]
WPA	-0.13 (0.09) [-0.32, 0.05]	—	—	—
Ethnocultural Empathy	—	0.02 (0.10) [-0.19, 0.22]	—	—
White Empathy	—	—	0.04 (0.15) [-0.26, 0.34]	—
White Guilt	—	—	—	-0.16 (0.10) [-0.37, 0.04]

Note. *p < .05. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. b*=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 20

Integrated Models Predicting Mentor's Extra-Role Pro-Social Behavior Related to the Mentoring Relationship

Variable	Model 8 (Microsystem)	Model 9 (Macrosystem Attitudes)	Model 10 (Macrosystem Affect)	Model 11 (Macrosystem)
	b* (SE) 95% CI	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*
Intercept	-1.20 (0.92) [-3.01, 0.61]	3.00* (0.50) [2.02, 3.99]	2.97* (0.80) [1.38, 4.55]	2.92* (0.83) [1.28, 4.55]
Gender[a]	0.11 (0.18) [-0.26, 0.47]	0.22 (0.21) [-0.20, 0.63]	0.31 (0.20) [-0.09, 0.71]	0.26 (0.21) [-0.15, 0.68]
Income	0.01 (0.02) [-0.03, 0.04]	0.00 (0.12) [-0.03, 0.04]	0.01 (0.02) [-0.03, 0.04]	0.01 (0.02) [-0.03, 0.04]
Education	0.06 (0.06) [-0.05, 0.17]	0.03 (0.06) [-0.09, 0.16]	0.00 (0.06) [-0.12, 0.12]	0.02 (0.06) [-0.10, 0.15]
Years Volunteered	-0.03 (0.03) [-0.08, 0.02]	-0.01 (0.03) [-0.07, 0.04]	-0.01 (0.03) [-0.07, 0.05]	-0.01 (0.03) [-0.07, 0.05]
Northeast[b]	-0.18 (0.22) [-0.61, 0.26]	-0.00 (0.23) [-0.46, 0.45]	-0.02 (0.23) [-0.48, 0.44]	-0.01 (0.23) [-0.47, 0.45]
West[b]	-0.03 (0.21) [-0.44, 0.38]	0.12 (0.22) [-0.31, 0.56]	0.16 (0.22) [-0.28, 0.60]	0.17 (0.22) [-0.27, 0.60]
Cultural Competence	0.56* (0.17) [0.23, 0.89]	—	—	—
Family	0.39* (0.12) [0.15, 0.63]	—	—	—
WPA	—	-0.21 (0.12) [-0.43, 0.01]	—	-0.22 (0.12) [-0.47, 0.02]
Ethnocultural Empathy	—	0.15 (0.12) [-0.09, 0.40]	—	0.15 (0.13) [-0.10, 0.39]
White Empathy	—	—	0.05 (0.15) [-0.25, 0.35]	0.07 (0.15) [-0.23, 0.38]
White Guilt	—	—	-0.17 (0.10) [-0.37, 0.04]	-0.11 (0.12) [-0.34, 0.12]

Note. *p < .05. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. *b**=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 21

Full Integrated Models Predicting Mentor Extra-Role Pro-Social Behavior Related to the Mentoring Relationship

Variable	Model 12 (Full Model)
	b^* (SE) 95% CI
Intercept	-0.24 (1.13) [-2.47, 1.99]
Gender[a]	0.15 (0.20) [-0.25, 0.55]
Income	0.01 (0.02) [-0.02, 0.04]
Education	0.07 (0.06) [-0.05, 0.19]
Years Volunteered	-0.03 (0.03) [-0.08, 0.03]
Northeast[b]	-0.15 (0.23) [-0.60, 0.30]
West[b]	-0.03 (0.22) [-0.46, 0.40]
Cultural Competence	0.45* (0.20) [0.06, 0.84]
Family	0.41* (0.13) [0.16, 0.66]
WPA	-0.16 (0.12) [-0.39, 0.08]
Ethnocultural Empathy	0.04 (0.12) [-0.20, 0.29]
White Empathy	0.00 (0.15) [-0.30, 0.30]
White Guilt	-0.07 (0.11) [-0.30, 0.15]

Note. *$p < .05$. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. b^*=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 22

Microsystem Models Predicting Mentor's Extra-Role Pro-Social Behavior Related to the Mentoring Organization

Variable	Model 1 (Demographics)	Model 2 (Cultural Competence)	Model 3 (Family Relationship)
Microsystem	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*
Intercept	2.73* (0.35) [2.03, 3.43]	1.58 (1.02) [-0.44, 3.60]	1.38* (0.65) [0.09, 2.67]
Women[a]	0.55* (0.21) [0.14, 0.96]	0.54* (0.21) [0.11, 0.96]	0.45* (0.22) [0.01, 0.90]
Income	-0.00 (0.02) [-0.40, 0.03]	0.00 (0.02) [-0.04, 0.04]	-0.00 (0.02) [-0.04, 0.04]
Education	-0.08 (0.06) [-0.20, 0.05]	-0.09 (0.06) [-0.22, 0.04]	-0.04 (0.07) [-0.17, 0.10]
Years Volunteered	0.06* (0.03) [0.00, 0.13]	0.08* (0.03) [0.01, 0.14]	0.07* (0.03) [0.01, 0.13]
Northeast[b]	0.21 (0.24) [-0.27, 0.69]	0.24 (0.25) [-0.25, 0.74]	0.19 (0.27) [-0.33, 0.72]
West[b]	0.30 (0.23) [-0.16, 0.76]	0.30 (0.24) [-0.18, 0.77]	0.26 (0.25) [-0.24, 0.76]
Cultural Competence	—	0.22 (0.19) [-0.17, 0.60]	—
Family	—	—	0.36* (0.15) [0.07, 0.65]

Note. *$p < .05$. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. $b*$=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family.

Table 23

Macrosystem Models Predicting Mentor's Extra-Role Pro-Social Behavior Related to the Mentoring Organization

Variable	Model 4 (WPA)	Model 5 (Ethnocultural Empathy)	Model 6 (White Empathy)	Model 7 (White Guilt)
Macrosystem	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*
Intercept	2.81* (0.49) [1.84, 3.77]	2.88* (0.55) [1.80, 3.97]	1.81* (0.88) [0.07, 3.54]	2.79* (0.46) [1.89, 3.70]
Women[a]	0.49* (0.23) [0.04, 0.94]	0.51* (0.23) [0.05, 0.98]	0.52* (0.23) [0.07, 0.96]	0.55* (0.23) [0.11, 1.00]
Income	-0.00 (0.02) [-0.04, 0.04]	0.00 (0.02) [-0.04, 0.04]	0.00 (0.02) [-0.04, 0.04]	0.00 (0.02) [-0.03, 0.04]
Education	-0.07 (0.07) [-0.21, 0.07]	-0.06 (0.07) [-0.20, 0.07]	-0.07 (0.07) [-0.20, 0.06]	-0.06 (0.07) [-0.20, 0.07]
Years Volunteered	0.08 (0.03) [0.01, 0.14]	0.08* (0.03) [0.01, 0.14]	0.09* (0.03) [0.02, 0.16]	0.09* (0.03) [0.02, 0.16]
Northeast[b]	0.27 (0.26) [-0.25, 0.78]	0.27 (0.26) [-0.25, 0.78]	0.21 (0.26) [-0.30, 0.73]	0.20 (0.26) [-0.32, 0.71]
West[b]	0.26 (0.25) [-0.23, 0.74]	0.25 (0.25) [-0.24, 0.74]	0.26 (0.25) [-0.23, 0.76]	0.25 (0.25) [-0.24, 0.74]
WPA	-0.04 (0.10) [-0.25, 0.17]	—	—	—
Ethnocultural Empathy	—	-0.06 (0.12) [-0.28, 0.17]	—	—
White Empathy	—	—	0.16 (0.17) [-0.17, 0.50]	—
White Guilt	—	—	—	-0.10 (0.12) [-0.33, 0.13]

Note. *p < .05. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. *b**=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 24

Integrated Models Predicting Mentor's Extra-Role Pro-Social Behavior Related to the Mentoring Organization

Variable	Model 8 (Microsystem)	Model 9 (Macrosystem Attitudes)	Model 10 (Macrosystem Affect)	Model 11 (Macrosystem)
	b* (SE) 95% CI	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*
Intercept	0.79 (1.12) [-1.41, 3.00]	2.90* (0.56) [1.79, 4.00]	2.01* (0.90) [0.22, 3.79]	2.17* (0.94) [0.31, 4.03]
Gender[a]	0.44 (0.23) [-0.01, 0.88]	0.51* (0.24) [0.05, 0.98]	0.53* (0.23) [0.08, 0.97]	0.54* (0.24) [0.07, 1.01]
Income	-0.00 (0.02) [-0.04, 0.04]	0.00 (0.02) [-0.04, 0.04]	0.00 (0.02) [-0.04, 0.04]	0.00 (0.02) [-0.04, 0.04]
Education	-0.04 (0.07) [-0.18, 0.09]	-0.06 (0.07) [-0.20, 0.08]	-0.07 (0.07) [-0.20, 0.06]	-0.06 (0.07) [-0.20, 0.09]
Years Volunteered	0.07* (0.03) [0.01, 0.13]	0.08* (0.03) [0.01, 0.14]	0.09* (0.03) [0.02, 0.16]	0.09* (0.03) [0.02, 0.15]
Northeast[b]	0.19 (0.27) [-0.34, 0.72]	0.27 (0.26) [-0.25, 0.78]	0.20 (0.26) [-0.31, 0.72]	0.21 (0.26) [-0.31, 0.73]
West[b]	0.28 (0.25) [-0.23, 0.78]	0.25 (0.25) [-0.24, 0.74]	0.24 (0.25) [-0.25, 0.74]	0.23 (0.25) [-0.27, 0.73]
Cultural Competence	0.13 (0.21) [-0.27, 0.54]	—	—	—
Family	0.34* (0.15) [0.04, 0.64]	—	—	—
WPA	—	-0.02 (0.13) [-0.27, 0.24]	—	0.01 (0.14) [-0.27, 0.29]
Ethnocultural Empathy	—	-0.05 (0.14) [-0.32, 0.23]	—	-0.07 (0.14) [-0.35, 0.21]
White Empathy	—	—	0.17 (0.17) [-0.16, 0.51]	0.18 (0.18) [-0.16, 0.53]
White Guilt	—	—	-0.11 (0.12) [-0.34, 0.12]	-0.10 (0.13) [-0.36, 0.16]

Note. *p < .05. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. *b**=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 25

Full Integrated Models Predicting Mentor Extra-Role Pro-Social Behavior Related to the Mentoring Organization

Variable	Model 12 (Full Model)
	b* (SE) 95% CI
Intercept	0.70 (1.40) [-2.07, 3.46]
Gender[a]	0.45 (0.25) [-0.04, 0.95]
Income	-0.00 (0.02) [-0.04, 0.04]
Education	-0.04 (0.08) [-0.20, 0.11]
Years Volunteered	0.08* (0.03) [0.02, 0.15]
Northeast[b]	0.15 (0.28) [-0.40, 0.71]
West[b]	0.18 (0.27) [-0.35, 0.71]
Cultural Competence	0.00 (0.24) [-0.48, 0.49]
Family	0.40* (0.16) [0.09, 0.71]
WPA	0.07 (0.15) [-0.22, 0.36]
Ethnocultural Empathy	-0.07 (0.15) [-0.38, 0.23]
White Empathy	0.19 (0.19) [-0.18, 0.56]
White Guilt	-0.14 (0.14) [-0.42, 0.13]

Note. *$p < .05$. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. *b**=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 26

Microsystem Models Predicting Mentor's Extra-Role Pro-Social Behavior

Variable	Model 1 (Demographics)	Model 2 (Cultural Competence)	Model 3 (Family Relationship)
Microsystem	b^* (SE) 95% CI	b^* (SE) 95% CI	b^* (SE) 95% CI
Intercept	-0.27 (0.17) [-0.61, 0.07]	-0.25 (0.17) [-0.58, 0.09]	-0.05 (0.18) [-0.41, 0.31]
Women[a]	0.31 (0.16) [-0.01, 0.62]	0.25 (0.16) [-0.06, 0.57]	0.22 (0.16) [-0.10, 0.55]
Income	-0.01 (0.08) [-0.16, 0.14]	0.01 (0.08) [-0.14, 0.16]	0.02 (0.08) [-0.13, 0.18]
Education	0.01 (0.07) [-0.13, 0.16]	-0.04 (0.07) [-0.18, 0.11]	0.09 (0.08) [-0.06, 0.24]
Years Volunteered	-0.01 (0.08) [-0.16, 0.15]	0.00 (0.08) [-0.15, 0.15]	-0.04 (0.08) [-0.19, 0.11]
Northeast[b]	-0.04 (0.19) [-0.41, 0.33]	-0.02 (0.19) [-0.38, 0.35]	-0.09 (0.20) [-0.48, 0.30]
West[b]	0.16 (0.18) [-0.19, 0.51]	0.20 (0.18) [-0.15, 0.56]	-0.02 (0.19) [-0.39, 0.35]
Cultural Competence	—	0.31* (0.07) [0.17, 0.45]	—
Family	—	—	0.30* (0.08) [0.15, 0.45]

Note. *$p < .05$. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. b^*=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family.

Table 27

Macrosystem Models Predicting Mentor's Extra-Role Pro-Social Behavior

Variable	Model 4 (WPA)	Model 5 (Ethnocultural Empathy)	Model 6 (White Empathy)	Model 7 (White Guilt)
Macrosystem	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*
Intercept	-0.26 (0.18) [-0.62, 0.10]	-0.26 (0.18) [-0.63, 0.10]	-0.27 (0.18) [-0.63, 0.09]	-0.27 (0.18) [-0.63, 0.09]
Women[a]	0.31 (0.18) [-0.04, 0.66]	0.28 (0.18) [-0.08, 0.64]	0.33 (0.18) [-0.02, 0.67]	0.35* (0.17) [0.01, 0.69]
Income	0.01 (0.08) [-0.15, 0.17]	0.01 (0.08) [-0.15, 0.18]	0.05 (0.08) [-0.15, 0.18]	0.05 (0.08) [-0.12, 0.21]
Education	0.03 (0.08) [-0.28, 0.05]	-0.01 (0.08) [-0.18, 0.16]	-0.02 (0.08) [-0.18, 0.14]	-0.02 (0.08) [0.17, 0.14]
Years Volunteered	0.00 (0.08) [-0.16, 0.16]	0.00 (0.08) [-0.16, 0.17]	0.01 (0.09) [-0.15, 0.18]	0.02 (0.08) [-0.15, 0.18]
Northeast[b]	0.04 (0.20) [-0.36, 0.44]	0.05 (0.20) [-0.35, 0.45]	0.03 (0.20) [-0.37, 0.43]	0.02 (0.20) [-0.38, 0.41]
West[b]	0.12 (0.19) [-0.25, 0.50]	0.15 (0.19) [-0.23, 0.53]	0.20 (0.19) [-0.18, 0.58]	0.17 (0.19) [-0.21, 0.55]
WPA	-0.12 (0.08) [-0.28, 0.05]	—	—	—
Ethnocultural Empathy	—	0.00 (0.09) [-0.16, 0.17]	—	—
White Empathy	—	—	0.03 (0.08) [-0.12, 0.19]	—
White Guilt	—	—	—	-0.13 (0.08) [-0.28, 0.03]

Note. *$p < .05$. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. b*=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 28

Integrated Models Predicting Mentor's Extra-Role Pro-Social Behavior

Variable	Model 8 (Microsystem)	Model 9 (Macrosystem Attitudes)	Model 10 (Macrosystem Affect)	Model 11 (Macrosystem)
	b* (SE) 95% CI	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*	*b* (SE) 95% CI*
Intercept	-0.02 (0.18) [-0.37, 0.33]	-0.24 (0.18) [-0.60, 0.12]	-0.26 (0.18) [-0.62, 0.10]	-0.24 (0.18) [-0.60, 0.12]
Gender[a]	0.16 (0.16) [-0.16, 0.48]	0.26 (0.18) [-0.10, 0.62]	0.34 (0.18) [-0.01, 0.69]	0.30 (0.18) [-0.06, 0.66]
Income	0.02 (0.08) [-0.13, 0.17]	0.01 (0.08) [-0.15, 0.17]	0.05 (0.08) [-0.12, 0.21]	0.04 (0.08) [-0.13, 0.20]
Education	0.06 (0.07) [-0.09, 0.20]	0.02 (0.08) [-0.15, 0.19]	-0.02 (0.08) [-0.18, 0.14]	0.01 (0.09) [-0.16, 0.18]
Years Volunteered	-0.04 (0.07) [-0.18, 0.11]	0.01 (0.08) [-0.15, 0.17]	0.02 (0.08) [-0.15, 0.18]	0.02 (0.09) [-0.15, 0.18]
Northeast[b]	-0.11 (0.19) [-0.48, 0.27]	0.04 (0.20) [-0.36, 0.44]	0.02 (0.20) [-0.38, 0.42]	0.03 (0.20) [-0.37, 0.43]
West[b]	0.02 (0.18) [-0.33, 0.38]	0.14 (0.19) [-0.24, 0.52]	0.17 (0.19) [-0.21, 0.55]	0.17 (0.19) [-0.21, 0.55]
Cultural Competence	0.24* (0.07) [0.09, 0.38]	—	—	—
Family	0.26* (0.07) [0.11, 0.41]	—	—	—
WPA	—	-0.18 (0.10) [-0.38, 0.03]	—	-0.18 (0.11) [-0.41, 0.04]
Ethnocultural Empathy	—	0.11 (0.10) [-0.10, 0.31]	—	0.10 (0.10) [-0.11, 0.30]
White Empathy	—	—	0.04 (0.08) [-0.11, 0.20]	0.05 (0.08) [-0.10, 0.21]
White Guilt	—	—	-0.13 (0.08) [-0.28, 0.03]	-0.09 (0.09) [-0.26, 0.09]

Note. *p < .05. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. *b**=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 29

Full Integrated Models Predicting Mentor Extra-Role Pro-Social Behavior

Variable	Model 12 (Full Model)
	b^* *(SE) 95% CI*
Intercept	-0.00 (0.18) [-0.36, 0.36]
Gender[a]	0.20 (0.18) [-0.15, 0.55]
Income	0.05 (0.08) [-0.11, 0.20]
Education	0.07 (0.08) [-0.09, 0.24]
Years Volunteered	-0.03 (0.08) [-0.18, 0.13]
Northeast[b]	-0.09 (0.20) [-0.48, 0.30]
West[b]	0.01 (0.19) [-0.37, 0.38]
Cultural Competence	0.18* (0.09) [0.01, 0.35]
Family	0.28* (0.08) [0.12, 0.43]
WPA	-0.12 (0.11) [-0.33, 0.10]
Ethnocultural Empathy	0.02 (0.10) [-0.18, 0.22]
White Empathy	0.02 (0.08) [-0.13, 0.18]
White Guilt	-0.07 (0.09) [-0.24, 0.10]

Note. *$p < .05$. [a]Men = 0, Women = 1. [b]Midwest is the reference group. b^*=standardized regression coefficients. South is not included in the model due to low sample size from that region. Family = Relationship with Mentee's Family. WPA = White Privilege Awareness.

Table 30

Initial Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Mentor-Mentee Relationship
- Mentor's multicultural skill, awareness, and knowledge will be positively associated with mentor satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior.
- Internal attributions for mentee shortcomings will mediate these associations.

Hypothesis 2: Mentor-Mentee Family Relationship
- Mentor's strength of relationship with their mentee's families will be positively associated with mentor satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior.

Hypothesis 3: Mentor-Mentoring Team Relationships
- Perceived social support within the mentoring team will positively predict mentor satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior.
- Membership in a team that has higher average multicultural competence, greater awareness of privilege, greater awareness of outgroup structural disadvantage, higher White guilt and empathy, will each positively predict mentor satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior over-and-above individual levels of multicultural competency.

Hypothesis 4: Privilege, Outgroup Disadvantage, and Racial Affect
- Greater awareness of privilege will positively predict mentor satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior.
- Greater awareness of outgroup disadvantage will positively predict mentor satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior.
- Greater White guilt and empathy with predict mentor satisfaction, retention, and extra-role pro-social behavior.

Table 31

Initial Proposed Models

Example Outcome: Mentor's *satisfaction* with their mentoring relationship

Microsystems
Model 1: Demographics
              Satisfaction = Demographics

Model 2a: Mentor-Mentee Microsystem
              Satisfaction = Demographics + multicultural competence (*Cross-Cultural Mentoring Inventory*)

Model 2b: Correspondence Bias as Possible Mediator
              Satisfaction = Demographics + multicultural competence (*Cross-Cultural Mentoring Inventory*) +
              correspondence bias

Model 3: Mentor-Family Microsystem
              Satisfaction = Demographics + family involvement (*modified Teacher Report: Home-School
              Relationship*)

Model 4: Mentor-Mentoring Team Microsystem
              Satisfaction = Demographics + demographics team + individual social support (*Team Support measure*)
              + average team social support (*Team Support measure*)

Model 5: Integrated Model:
              Based on previous findings, may include variables from each microsystem.

Macrosystems
Model 5a: Satisfaction = Demographics + awareness of privilege (*White Privilege Awareness subscale*)

Model 5b: Satisfaction = Demographics + awareness of outgroup structural disadvantage (*Awareness subscale,
              Scale of Ethnocultural Empathy*)

Model 5c: Satisfaction = Demographics + White guilt (*Psychosocial Costs of Racism: White Guilt subscale*) and White empathy (*Psychosocial Costs of Racism: White Empathic Reactions toward Racism subscale*)

Model 5d: Satisfaction = Demographics + awareness of privilege (*White Privilege Awareness subscale*) + awareness of outgroup structural disadvantage (*Awareness subscale, Scale of Ethnocultural Empathy*) + White guilt (*Psychosocial Costs of Racism: White Guilt subscale*) and White empathy (*Psychosocial Costs of Racism: White Empathic Reactions toward Racism subscale*)

Micro- and Macrosystems:

Model 6: <u>Integrated Model:</u> Based on previous findings, may include variables from the microsystems and macrosystems to construct an integrated model.

Note. Satisfaction is used as the example outcome for this table. The same models will be run for the other study outcomes.
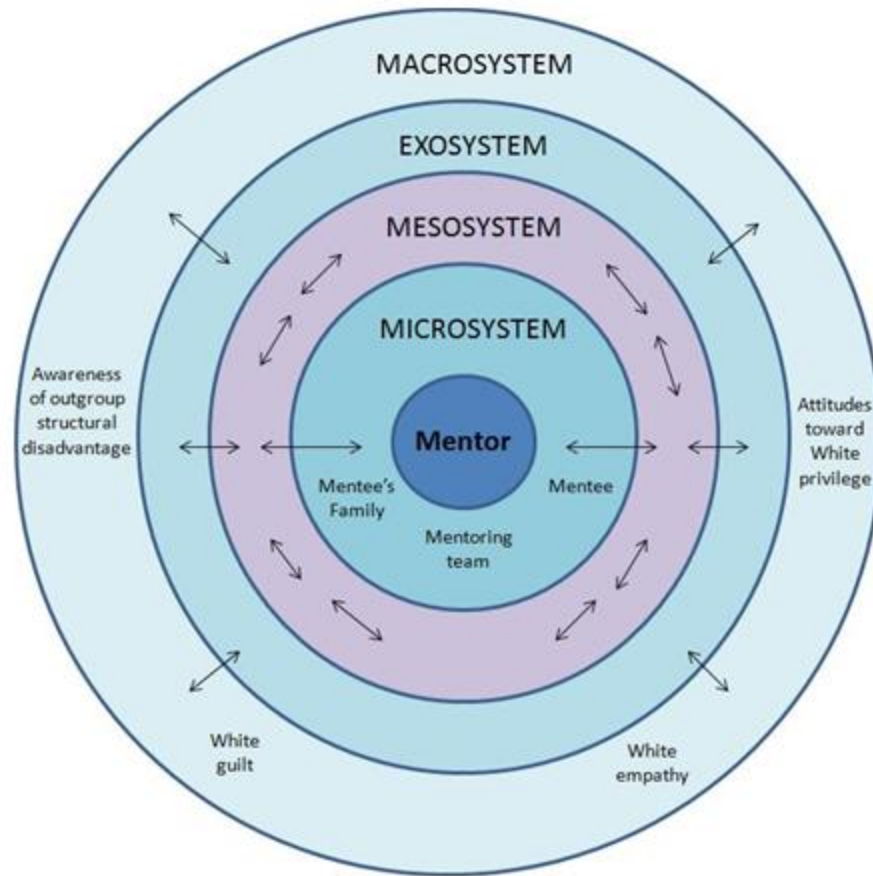
Figure 1: Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Model applied to mentoring relationships in this study.
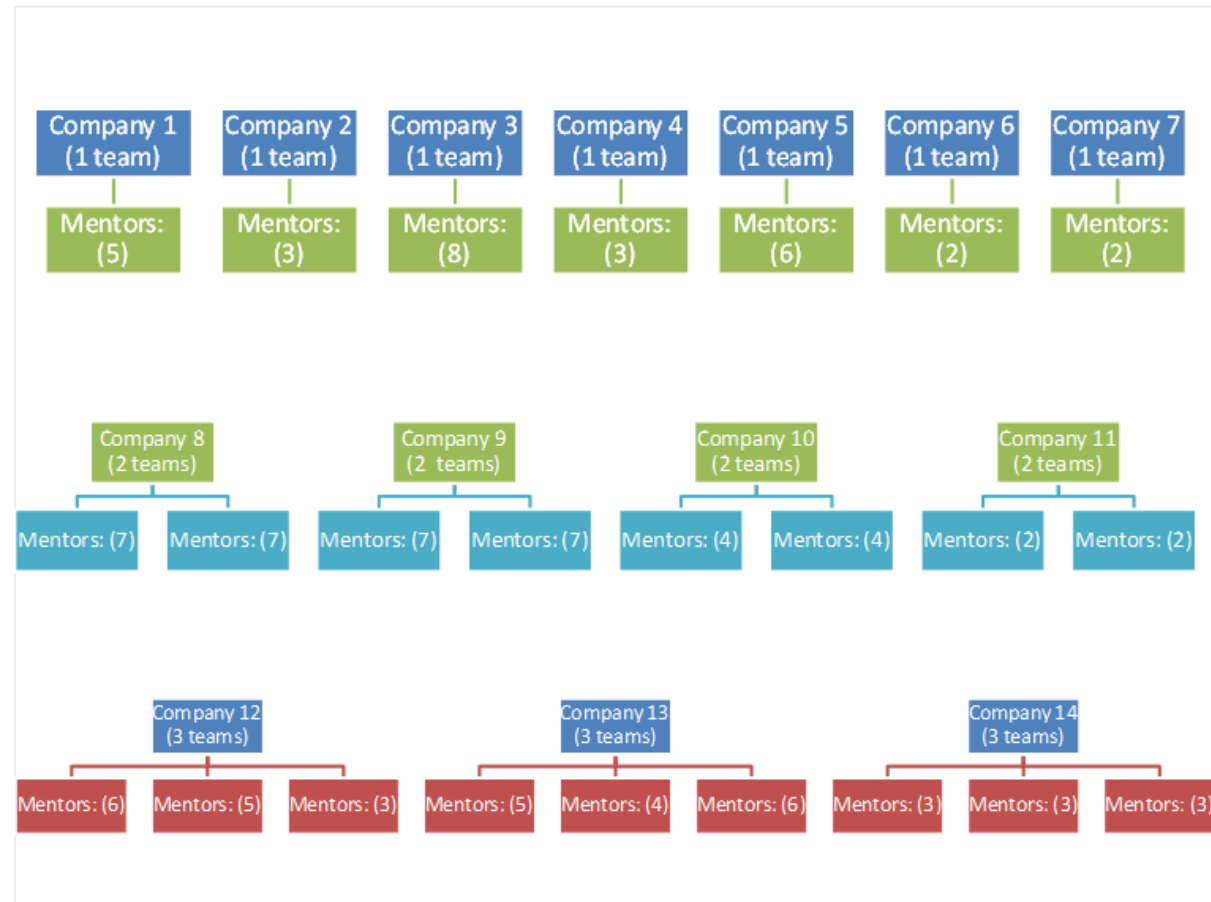
Figure 2. Mentoring team breakdown of companies and mentoring teams with one to three teams.
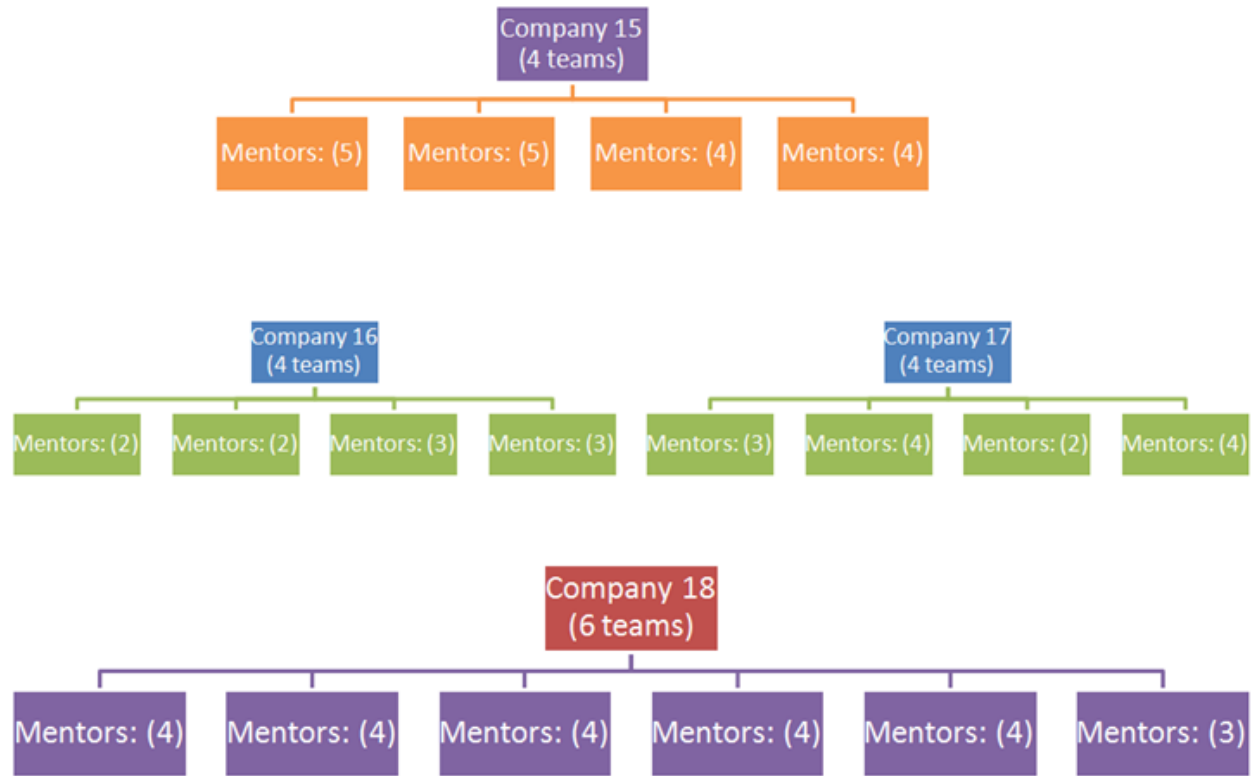
Figure 3. Mentoring team breakdown of companies and mentoring teams with four to six teams.

Appendix of Survey Scales, Subscales, and Items

Table of Contents

Total items: 144
Scales and/or items not used in analyses for present study with the national mentor sample

Survey Items for National Mentoring Study

ADULT CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

UNDERSTANDING MENTORS

Principal Investigator: Rachael L. Suffrin, a graduate student.

Institution: DePaul University, Chicago, Illinois, USA.

Department (School, College): Department of Psychology, College of Health and Sciences.

Faculty Advisor: Nathan Todd, Ph.D.

What is the purpose of this research?
We are asking you to be in a research study because we are trying to learn more about the factors that impact positive outcomes for mentors engaging in youth mentoring programs. This study is being conducted by Rachael Suffrin, a graduate student, and supervised by Nathan Todd, Ph.D., at DePaul University.

Why are you being asked to be in the research?
You are invited to participate in this study because you have been identified as a mentor. You must be age 18 or older to be in this study. This study is not approved for the enrollment of people under the age of 18.

What is involved in being in the research study?
If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to fill out surveys with questions about your experience with your mentee(s), mentee(s)' family, your perceptions of social issues, as well as a few basic demographic questions about you (gender, race/ethnicity, level of education). We also will ask for your city and the mentoring organization you volunteer with for so that we can know which mentoring organization you belong to.

How much time will this take?
This study will take about 30 minutes of your time.

Are there any risks involved in participating in this study?
Being in this study does not involve any risks other than what you would encounter in daily life. You may feel uncomfortable answering certain questions, but you are able to skip them if you would like. You may also exit the survey at any time, if you change your mind.

Are there any benefits to participating in this study?
You will not personally benefit from being in this study. However, we hope that what we learn will help in informing future mentoring programs.

Can you decide not to participate?
Your participation is voluntary, which means you can choose not to participate. There will be no negative consequences, penalties, or loss of benefits if you decide not to participate or change your mind later and withdraw from the research after you begin participating.

Who will see my study information and how will the confidentiality of the information collected for the research be protected?
The research records will be kept and stored securely. Your information will be combined with information from other people taking part in the study. When we write about the study or publish a paper to share the research with other researchers, we will write about the combined information we have gathered. We will not include your name or any information that will directly identify you. We will make every effort to prevent anyone who is not on the research team from knowing that you gave us information, or what that information is. However, some people might review or copy our records that may identify you in order to make sure we are following the required rules, laws, and regulations. For example, the DePaul University Institutional Review Board may review your information. If they look at our records, they will keep your information confidential.

Who should be contacted for more information about the research?
If you have questions, suggestions, concerns, or complaints about the study or you want to get additional information or provide input about this research, you can contact the researcher, Rachael Suffrin, rsuffrin@depaul.edu or Nathan Todd, Ph.D., 773-325-7880, ntodd@depaul.edu.

This research has been reviewed and approved by the DePaul Institutional Review Board (IRB). If you have questions about your rights as a research subject you may contact Susan Loess-Perez, DePaul University's Director of Research Compliance, in the Office of Research Services at 312-362-7593 or by email at sloesspe@depaul.edu.

You may also contact DePaul's Office of Research Services if:

Your questions, concerns, or complaints are not being answered by the research team.
You cannot reach the research team.
You want to talk to someone besides the research team.

You may print a copy of this information to keep for your records.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information. I understand the purpose of the study as well as the risks and benefits of my participation.

Please click on the first box if you consent to be in the study.

If you do not consent to be in the study, just click the last box.

○   **I consent to be in this study, please take me to the survey**

○   I DO NOT consent to be in this study, please do not take me to the survey

Now we will ask you some questions about you.

Mentor Demographic Questions

1. What is the full name of the organization you volunteer with?
2. In what city and state is your mentoring organization?
3. Please indicate your gender
     a. Male
     b. Female
     c. Transgender
     d. Other (please specify)
4. How many years have you been volunteering with your mentoring organization?
5. What is your ethnicity? (Please check all that apply)
     a. White/European American
     b. Black/African American
     c. Latino/Hispanic
     d. Asian
     e. Middle Eastern
     f. Native American/Alaskan Native
     g. Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander
     h. Multiracial
     i. Other (please specify)
6. What is your approximate income?
     a. (scroll down options)
7. What is your highest education level?
     a. High school
     b. Some college
     c. Bachelors degree
     d. Some graduate education (masters, Ph.D., etc.)
     e. Graduate degree
8. What was your approximate household income "growing up"?
     a. (scroll down options)
9. Thinking about your parent(s)/guardian(s), what is the highest education level achieved?
     a. Parent/Guardian one'(s) highest education level
          i. High school
          ii. Some college
          iii. Bachelors degree
          iv. Some graduate education (masters, Ph.D., etc.)
          v. Graduate degree
     b. Parent/Guardian two'(s) highest education level
          i. High school
          ii. Some college
          iii. Bachelors degree
          iv. Some graduate education (masters, Ph.D., etc.)
          v. Graduate degree

Now we will ask you some questions about your mentee(s).

Mentee Demographics

1. How many mentees do you currently mentor through your mentoring program?
2. Do you co-mentor with another mentor? If so, how many?
3. How old is/are your mentee(s)?
   a. Mentee 1
   b. Mentee 2
   c. Mentee 3
   d. Mentee 4
4. What ethnicity is/are your mentee(s)? (Mentee 1, Mentee 2, Mentee 3, Mentee 4)
   a. White/European American
   b. Black/African American
   c. Latino/Hispanic
   d. Asian
   e. Middle Eastern
   f. Native American/Alaskan Native
   g. Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander
   h. Multiracial
   i. Other (please specify)

Now we will ask you some questions about your experience with your mentee(s). If you are mentoring more than one student, please think about your experiences with your mentee(s) *on average*. Consider only mentees who you are currently mentoring. Do not consider mentees who you have previously mentored, or who may have graduated the mentoring program.

Outcomes: Mentor Satisfaction with Mentoring Relationship

Directions: Please respond to the following statements using the scale provided. Your possible choices range from *Never* to *Always*. Please answer honestly, as there are no right or wrong answers.

Please answer the questions thinking about your relationship with your mentee(s).

6-point Likert-type scale
1 (*never*), 2 (*rarely*), 3 (*sometimes*), 4 (*pretty often*), 5 (*very often*), 6 (*always*)

Satisfaction
1. I feel like the match is getting stronger.
2. I feel unsure that my mentee is getting enough out of our match. (R)
1. I feel frustrated or disappointed about how the match is going. (R)
2. My mentee is willing to learn from me.
3. I feel like I am making a difference in my mentee's life.

Non-Academic Support Seeking
4. My mentee is open with me (shares thoughts and feelings).
5. My mentee asks for my opinion or advice.
6. My mentee makes me aware of his/her problems or concerns.
7. My mentee is open with me about his/her friends.
8. My mentee talks to me about it when he/she has problems with friends or peers.

Closeness
9. I feel like my mentee and I are good friends (buddies, pals).
10. My mentee shows me how much he/she cares about me (says things, smiles, does things, hugs me, etc.).
11. I feel like my mentee and I have a strong bond (are close or deeply connected).
12. I can trust what my mentee tells me.

Distance

13. My mentee is very private about his/her life at home (does not talk to me about it). (R)
14. I feel distant from my mentee. (R)
15. My mentee avoids talking with me about problems or issues at home. (R)
16. I feel awkward or uncomfortable when I'm with my mentee. (R)
17. My mentee does things to push me away. (R)
18. My mentee seems uncomfortable (or resistant) when I try to help with problems he/she may be having. (R)

Academic support seeking
19. My mentee asks me for help when he/she has difficult schoolwork or a major project to do.
20. My mentee seems to want my help with his/her academics.

Outcomes: Mentor's Extra-Role Pro-Social Behavior

Directions: Please respond to the following statements using the scale provided. Your possible choices range from *Never* to *Always*. Please answer honestly, as there are no right or wrong answers.

Please answer the questions thinking about your experience with your mentee(s) and the mentoring program.

How likely are you to…?

6-point Likert-type scale

1 (*never*), 2 (*rarely*), 3 (*sometimes*), 4 (*pretty often*), 5 (*very often*), 6 (*always*)

How likely are you to…?

1. Meet with your mentee outside of program-sponsored activities.
2. Exchange texts/phone calls/emails over-and-above what may be expected of you as a mentor.
3. Actively look for opportunities for your mentee.
4. Invite your mentee to personal family events
5. Communicate via texts/phone calls/emails with your mentees' family, or other important adults in their lives.
6. Invite your mentees' family join you for events outside of program-sponsored events.
7. Actively try to recruit friends or other contacts to get involved in the mentoring program in some capacity.
8. Go out of your way to invite friends, family, or other contacts to participate in program fundraisers or other activities.
9. Go out of your way to advocate on behalf of your mentee.
10. Drive a mentee if need be to an event if they are not able to take the bus.
11. Drive a longer distance to be able to attend mentoring events.
12. Miss work to attend mentoring events.

Correspondence Bias Questions*

Directions: Please respond to the following statements using the scale provided. Your possible choices range from 1 to 6. Please answer honestly, as there are no right or wrong answers.

6-point Likert-type scale

1 (*strongly disagree*), 2 (*disagree*), 3 (*slightly disagree*), 4 (*slightly agree*), 5 (*agree*), 6 (*strongly agree*)

1. When my mentee does not show up to a mentoring event without notifying myself, or program staff, it is because they do not care enough. (R)
2. If my mentee gets poor grades in school is it because they are just not trying hard enough. (R)
3. I believe that if my mentee is not doing well in school, it is because of problems with the quality of their school due in part to unequal resources within the school system.
4. If emails from my mentee contain many typos it is because they are careless and did not bother to proofread. (R)
5. If I find out my mentee has been tardy to their first period class I know it was most likely out of their control (e.g., school buses were late, they had to deal with family responsibilities).
6. If my mentee has received multiple demerits, or disciplinary action has been taken at school, it is because they are not a "good kid." (R)
7. If my mentee emails myself or my team with too informal of an email (e.g., all capitalized, lots of slang and texting language) it is because they have not had the opportunity to be taught the importance of meeting deadlines on time.
8. When my mentee does not meet deadlines to turn in program materials (e.g., parent permission forms) it is because they have not the opportunity to be taught the importance of meeting deadlines on time.
9. If my mentee did not perform well or receive recognition at an program event, it is because they have not had enough support from me as their mentor.

*scale not used due to poor reliability

Now we will ask you some questions about you as well as your mentee(s). If you are mentoring more than one student, please think about your mentee(s) *on average*. Consider only mentees who you are currently mentoring. Do not consider mentees who you have previously mentored, or who may have graduated the mentoring program.

Cross-Cultural Mentoring Inventory- Revised

Directions: Please respond to the following statements using the scale provided. Your possible choices range from *Strongly Disagree* to *Strongly Agree*. Please answer honestly, as there are no right or wrong answers.

1 (*strongly disagree*), 2 (*disagree*), 3 (*slightly disagree*), 4 (*slightly agree*), 5 (*agree*), 6 (*strongly agree*)

1. Mentor is aware of his or her own cultural heritage.
2. Mentor values and respects cultural differences.
3. Mentor is aware of how own values might affect this mentee.
4. Mentor is comfortable with differences between mentor and mentee.
5. Mentor is willing to suggest referral when cultural differences are extensive.
6. Mentee understands the current socio-political system and its impact on the mentee.
7. Mentor demonstrates knowledge about mentee's culture.
8. Mentor has a clear understanding of counseling and therapy process.*
9. Mentor is aware of institutional barriers which might affect mentee's circumstances.
10. Mentor elicits a variety of verbal and non-verbal responses from the mentee.
11. Mentor accurately sends and receives a variety of verbal and non-verbal messages.
12. Mentor is able to suggest institutional intervention skills that favor the mentee.
13. Mentor sends messages that are appropriate to the communication of the mentee.
14. Mentor attempts to perceive the presenting problem within the context of the mentee's cultural experience, values, and/or lifestyle.
15. Mentor presents his or her own values to the mentee.
16. Mentor is at ease talking with this mentee.
17. Mentor recognizes those limits determined by the cultural differences between mentee and mentor.

18.   Mentor appreciates the client's social status as an ethnic minority.
19.   Mentor is aware of the professional and ethical responsibilities of a mentor.
20.   Mentor acknowledges and is comfortable with cultural differences.

Item removed due to poor conceptual fit

Now we will ask you some questions about your experience with your mentee(s)' family. If you are mentoring more than one student, please think about your experiences with your mentee(s)'s families *on average*. Consider only mentees who you are currently mentoring. Do not consider mentees who you have previously mentored, or who may have graduated the mentoring program.

Mentor-Mentee Family Relationship
Modified Teacher Report: Home-School Relationship

Directions: Please respond to the following statements using the scales provided. Please answer honestly, as there are no right or wrong answers. Please answer the questions thinking about your experience with your mentee(s)' family.

1. How would you describe your relationship and interactions with this mentee's parents?
   1 (*very satisfying*), 2 (*somewhat satisfying*), 3 (*somewhat unsatisfying*), 4 (*very unsatisfying*)

2. How would you describe the emotional tone of the relationship with this mentees' parents?
   1 (*very warm & friendly*), 2 (*somewhat warm & friendly*), 3 (*somewhat cold & unfriendly*), 4 (*very cold & unfriendly*)

3. How would you describe the degree of trust between you and the mentee's parents?
   1 (*a great deal of trust*), 2 (*a little trust*), 3 (*a little suspicion and mistrust*), 4 (*much suspicion*), 5 (*no trust*)

4. How would you describe the clarity of communication between you and this mentee's parents?
   1 (*very clear*), 2 (*somewhat clear*), 3 (*somewhat confused*), 4 (*very confused*)

5. How would you describe the degree of agreement between you and this mentee's parents?
   1 (we *agree on just about every issue related to the child*), 2 (*we agree more often than not on most issues*), 3 (*we sometimes disagree and have conflict between us*), 4 (*we always disagree and are in conflict with one another*)

6. How much do you feel appreciated by this mentee's parents?
   1 (*a great deal*), 2 (*often*), 3 (*rarely*), 4 (*not at all*)

7. How would you describe the degree of support and cooperation between you and the child's parents?

1 (*a great deal of cooperation & support*), 2 (*a fair amount of cooperation & support*), 3 (*we have some cooperation between us*), 4 (*we never support or cooperate with one another*)

Now we will ask you about your experience with your mentoring program.

Outcomes: Mentor Satisfaction with Organization

Directions: Please respond to the following statements using the scale provided. Your possible choices range from 1 (*very dissatisfied*) to 7 (*very satisfied*). Please answer honestly, as there are no right or wrong answers.

Please answer the questions thinking about your experience with your mentoring program, and indicate your level of satisfaction with the following:

Seven-point Likert-type scale 1 (*very dissatisfied*) to 7 (*very satisfied*)

Please indicate your level of satisfaction with the following:

Factor 1: Organizational Support
1. The availability of getting help when I need it.
2. My relationship with paid staff.
3. The support network that is in place for me when I have volunteer-related problems.
4. The way in which the agency provides me with performance feedback.
5. The support I receive from people in the organization.
6. The amount of information I receive about what the organization is doing.
7. How often the organization acknowledges the work I do.
8. The amount of permission I need to get to do the things I need to do on this job.
9. The degree of cohesiveness I experience within the organization.
10. The degree to which the organization communicates its goals and objectives to volunteers.

Factor 2: Participation Efficacy
11. The progress that I have seen in the clientele served by my organization.
12. The difference my volunteer work is making.
13. My ability to do this job as well as anyone else.
14. How worthwhile my contribution is.
15. The amount of effort I put in as equaling the amount of change I influence.

Factor 3: Empowerment*
16. The chance I have to utilize my knowledge and skills in my volunteer work
17. The access I have to information concerning the organization
18. The freedom I have in deciding how to carry out my volunteer assignment

Factor 4: Group Integration*
    19. My relationship with other volunteers in the organization
    20. The friendships I have made while volunteering here
    21. The amount of interaction I have with other volunteers in the organization
    22. The amount of time spent with other volunteers

Bolded subscales will be used for the present study.
*Subscale excluded for present study.

Outcomes: Mentor Retention

Directions: Please respond to the following statements using the scale provided. Your possible choices range from 1 (*certainly not*) to 7 (*certainly*). Please answer honestly, as there are no right or wrong answers.

Please answer the questions thinking about your experience with your mentee(s) and your mentoring organization.

7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*certainly not*) to 7 (*certainly*)

1. Unless unforeseen changes occur in your life, do you see yourself volunteering for this mentoring organization one year from now?

2. Variation 1: I do not plan to continue participating with this mentoring program in the future. (R)

3. Variation 2: The only reason I would leave this mentoring program is if I had to switch jobs and leave the area.

We are now interested in your attitudes about privileges associated with social stratification in the United States.

White Privilege Attitudes Scale

Directions: Please respond to the following statements using the scale provided. Your possible choices range from *Strongly Disagree* to *Strongly Agree*. Please answer honestly, as there are no right or wrong answers.

6-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*)

1 (*strongly disagree*), 2 (*disagree*), 3 (*slightly disagree*), 4 (*slightly agree*), 5 (*agree*), 6 (*strongly agree*)

Willingness to confront white privilege*
1. I intend to work toward dismantling White privilege.
2. I want to begin the process of eliminating White privilege.
3. I take action to dismantle White privilege.
4. I have not done anything about White privilege.
5. I plan to work to change our unfair social structure that promotes White privilege.
6. I'm glad to explore my White privilege.
7. I accept responsibility to change White privilege.
8. I look forward to creating a more racially equitable society.
9. I take action against White privilege with people I know.
10. I am eager to find out more about letting go of White privilege.
11. I don't care to explore how I supposedly have unearned benefits from being White.
12. I am curious about how to communicate effectively to break down White privilege.

Anticipated costs of addressing white privilege*
13. I am anxious about stirring up bad feelings by exposing the advantages that Whites have.
14. I worry about what giving up some White privileges might mean for me.
15. If I were to speak up against White privilege, I would fear losing my friends.
16. I am worried that taking action against White privilege will hurt my relationships with other Whites.
17. If I address White privilege, I might alienate my family.
18. I am anxious about the personal work I must do within myself to eliminate White privilege.

White privilege awareness
19. Everyone has equal opportunity, so this so-called White privilege is really White-bashing.

20. White people have it easier than people of color.
21. Our social structure system promotes White privilege.
22. Plenty of people of color are more privileged than Whites.
White privilege remorse*
23. I am ashamed that the system is stacked in my favor because I am White.
24. I am ashamed of my White privilege.
25. I am angry knowing I have White privilege.
26. I am angry that I keep benefiting from White privilege.
27. White people should feel guilty about having White privilege.
28. I feel awful about White privilege.

Bolded subscales included for present study.
*Subscales excluded for present study.

Scale of Ethnocultural Empathy

Directions: Please respond to the following statements using the scale provided. Your possible choices range from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. Please answer honestly, as there are no right or wrong answers.

6-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*)

1 (*strongly disagree*), 2 (*disagree*), 3 (*slightly disagree*), 4 (*slightly agree*), 5 (*agree*), 6 (*strongly agree*)

Empathic feeling and expression*
30. When I hear people make racist jokes, I tell them I am offended even though they are not referring to my racial or ethnic group.
21. I don't care if people make racist statements against other racial or ethnic groups.
16. I rarely think about the impact of a racist or ethnic joke on the feelings of people who are targeted.
23. When other people struggle with racial or ethnic oppression, I share their frustration.
14. I feel supportive of people of other racial and ethnic groups, if I think they are being taken advantage of.
13. I share the anger of those who face injustice because of their racial and ethnic backgrounds.
26. I share the anger of people who are victims of hate crimes (e.g., intentional violence because of race or ethnicity).
11. When I know my friends are treated unfairly because of their racial or ethnic backgrounds, I speak up for them.
15. I get disturbed when other people experience misfortunes due to their racial or ethnic backgrounds.
3. I am touched by movies or books about discrimination issues faced by racial or ethnic groups other than my own.
22. When I see people who come from a different racial or ethnic background succeed in the public arena, I share their pride.
17. I am not likely to participate in events that promote equal rights for people of all racial and ethnic backgrounds.
9. I seek opportunities to speak with individuals of other racial or ethnic backgrounds about their experiences.
13. When I interact with people from other racial or ethnic backgrounds, I show my appreciation of their cultural norms.
18. I express my concern about discrimination to people from other racial or ethnic groups.

Empathic perspective taking*
19. It is easy for me to understand what it would feel like to be a person of another racial or ethnic background other than my own.

31. It is difficult for me to relate to stories in which people talk about racial or ethnic discrimination they experience in their day to day lives.
28. It is difficult for me to put myself in the shoes of someone who is racially and/or ethnically different from me.
4. I know what it feels like to be the only person of a certain race or ethnicity in a group of people.
6. I can relate to the frustration that some people feel about having fewer opportunities due to their racial or ethnic backgrounds.
29. I feel uncomfortable when I am around a significant number of people who are racially/ethnically different than me.
2. I don't know a lot of information about important social and political events of racial and ethnic groups other than my own.

Acceptance of cultural differences*
10. I feel irritated when people of different racial or ethnic backgrounds speak their language around me.
1. I feel annoyed when people do not speak standard English.
5. I get impatient when communicating with people from other racial or ethnic backgrounds, regardless of how well they speak English.
27. I do not understand why people want to keep their indigenous racial or ethnic cultural traditions instead of trying to fit into the mainstream.
8. I don't understand why people of different racial or ethnic backgrounds enjoy wearing traditional clothing.

Empathic awareness
25. I am aware of how society differentially treats racial or ethnic groups other than my own.
24. I recognize that the media often portrays people based on racial or ethnic stereotypes.
20. I can see how other racial or ethnic groups are systematically oppressed in our society.
7. I am aware of institutional barriers (e.g., restricted opportunities for job promotion) that discriminate against racial or ethnic groups other than my own.

Bolded subscales included for present study.

*Subscales excluded for present study.

Psychosocial Cost of Racism to Whites Scale†

Directions: Please respond to the following statements using the scale provided. Your possible choices range from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. Please answer honestly, as there are no right or wrong answers.

1 (*strongly disagree*), 2 (*disagree*), 3 (*slightly disagree*), 4 (*slightly agree*), 5 (*agree*), 6 (*strongly agree*)

Factor 1: White Empathic Reactions Toward Racism
(10) I am angry that racism exists.
(6) I become sad when I think about racial injustice.
(16) It disturbs me when people express racist views.
(1) When I hear about acts of racial violence, I become angry or depressed.
(14) Racism is dehumanizing to people of all races, including Whites.
(3) I feel helpless about not being able to eliminate racism.

Factor 2: White Guilt
(7) Being White makes me feel personally responsible for racism.
(8) I never feel ashamed about being White. (R)
(4) Sometimes I feel guilty about being White.
(15) I am afraid that I abuse my power and privilege as a White person.
(12) I feel good about being White.

Factor 3: White Fear of Others*
(13) I often find myself fearful of people of other races.
(11) I am distrustful of people of other races.
(5) I have very few friends of other races.
(2) I feel safe in most neighborhoods, regardless of the racial composition.
(9) I am fearful that racial minority populations are rapidly increasing in the U.S., and my group will no longer be the numerical majority.

Bolded subscales included for present study.

*Subscale excluded for present study.
†Scales presented only to self-identified White mentors

Thank you for taking the time to complete our survey!

If you have questions about this study, please contact Rachael Suffrin, rsuffrin@depaul.edu or Nathan Todd, Ph.D., 773-325-7880, ntodd@depaul.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a research subject, you may contact Susan Loess-Perez, DePaul University's Director of Research Protections at 312-362-7593 or by email at sloesspe@depaul.edu.

<u>PLEASE GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE TO SUBMIT YOUR SURVEY RESPONSES!</u>