# VOLUNTEERS MENTORING YOUTH:
## Implications for Closing the Mentoring Gap

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## BACKGROUND

To develop a greater understanding of the characteristics and traits that distinguish individuals whose volunteering includes mentoring youth from volunteers who do not mentor, the Corporation for National and Community Service conducted a close analysis of the 2005 Volunteer Supplement of the Current Population Survey (CPS).[1] Corporation researchers examined whether demographic, socioeconomic, or other observable factors could be used to distinguish between volunteers who mentor and the general population of volunteers who do not mentor, as well as to determine which of the above factors are most influential in predicting who is most likely to be engaged in mentoring activities. The expectation is that the information gleaned will help mentoring programs better identify and recruit the types of individuals who are most likely to be favorably disposed toward mentoring, and thereby help to reduce the "mentoring gap." [2]

## KEY FINDINGS:
### Mentoring Is a Common Part of American Volunteering

■ 18% of all volunteers—or 11.5 million of America's 65.4 million volunteers—engage in some youth mentoring activities each year through an organization.

### The Propensity to Be a Mentor Declines with Age

■ Volunteers 16 to 24 years old are the most likely group to be mentors.

■ Volunteers 65 years and older are the least likely group to mentor.

■ Still, 41% of volunteers who engage in mentoring youth are baby boomers—i.e., between the ages of 41 and 59.[3]

### Black Volunteers Are More Likely Than White Volunteers to Be Mentors

■ 25% of black volunteers are engaged in mentoring, compared to 17% of white volunteers.

■ However, minorities do volunteer at lower rates—22% for blacks versus 30% for whites.

■ Hispanic volunteers are slightly less likely to be engaged in mentoring compared to non-Hispanics. However, when all other factors are considered, there are no real differences between Hispanic and non-Hispanic volunteers in their probability of being engaged in mentoring.

### Male and Female Volunteers Engage in Mentoring at Similar Rates

■ 18% of male volunteers and 18% of female volunteers are engaged in mentoring.

■ However, males do volunteer at lower rates—25% for men versus 32% for women.

### Substantial Mentoring Takes Place Through Religious Organizations

■ Almost 43% of all volunteers engaged in mentoring volunteer in or through religious organizations (the next most prevalent site for mentoring is educational organizations, at 31%).

### Mentors Are Often Drawn from the Ranks of Current Volunteers

■ 87% of volunteers involved in mentoring perform at least one other volunteer activity for their main organization in addition to mentoring, while only 40% of volunteers not involved in mentoring perform two or more volunteer activities.

■ Volunteers who are engaged in mentoring serve a median of 80 hours annually, while volunteers who do not mentor serve a median of 40 hours annually.

### Mentors Regularly Work Full-Time

■ 59% of all volunteers who engage in mentoring work full-time—a higher percentage than volunteers who do not engage in mentoring (53%).

■ Despite having less discretionary time, these adult volunteers are as inclined to mentor youth as volunteers working part-time, and more likely than non-working volunteers.

## CONCLUSION AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

The analysis shows that one of the most important determinants of which volunteers are also involved in mentoring activities is age. The probability of being a mentor declines dramatically after age 24; indeed, volunteers 65 years and older are the least likely to be engaged in mentoring activities compared to younger cohorts. This suggests that college-age adults and even high schoolers are prime candidates to be recruited as mentors. While the data also suggest that enlisting more baby boomers and other older adults as youth mentors is more challenging, it is important to note that a large number of baby boomers and other older adult volunteers currently are involved in mentoring.

Another promising mentor recruitment strategy is focusing on encouraging more current volunteers to become mentors, particularly those volunteers who have already made a substantial commitment to their main volunteer organization. Moreover, the finding that mentoring takes place predominantly through religious organizations suggests that religious institutions are an excellent area to focus recruitment efforts.

This type of strategy may pose real opportunities for existing community-based mentoring programs. One approach is for traditional mentoring programs to do more partnering with other types of volunteer organizations, such as religious institutions. This approach is already being tried in several places. Another approach may be for mentoring programs to recruit volunteers to do other needed tasks. Once they've formed some attachment to the organization and its mission, these volunteers may be more amenable to becoming mentors.

The importance of providing mentoring opportunities at workplaces is another important strategy to reach more youth with mentors. Our research found that volunteers employed full-time—despite having less discretionary time—are actually as likely to mentor as people working part-time, and a new poll by the nonprofit group MENTOR[4] revealed that mentoring at or near the workplace, as well as release time during work hours, substantially increased people's willingness to seriously consider becoming a mentor. Together, these reports suggest that providing convenient mentor opportunities at work are important for recruiting more mentors.

Race and sex also have an effect on who becomes a mentor. Although males and blacks volunteer in general at lower rates than do females and whites, it turns out that blacks are more likely—and males are as likely—as their counterparts to engage in mentoring as one of their volunteer activities. This is an interesting finding since the general consensus in the field is that there is a shortage of male and minority mentors. It appears that one constraint may be the lower overall volunteer rates of men and minorities. Assuming that the relationship between volunteering and volunteering as a mentor remains constant, the number of male and minority mentors would increase if their overall volunteer rate rose. Thus, a promising approach to developing more black and male mentors is to invite and engage them in volunteering in general. If, for example, the African American volunteer rate increased by 2 percentage points (22.1% to 24.1%), there would be another 533,000 black volunteers, and an additional 125,000 black mentors.

Without more knowledge about the demographics of mentor waitlists, we do not know for certain the gender and racial characteristics of youths waiting for a mentor, though anecdotal evidence suggests that a disproportionate number are minorities and males. If this is the case, it is possible that doubling or even tripling the numbers of male and minority mentors may not be enough to meet the effective demand for such mentors. Instead it may require that mentoring programs not only increase the overall supply of mentors but employ more mentoring models that reach more kids with one adult mentor and other innovative mentoring approaches in order to close the mentoring gap.

[1] The CPS is a comprehensive and scientifically rigorous survey of 60,000 American households that is conducted each month by the U.S. Census Bureau for the Bureau of Labor Statistics. With the Corporation's support, the Census Bureau has administered a volunteer supplement each September since 2002. The September 2005 survey is the first time respondents to the CPS were asked whether one of their volunteer activities is mentoring youth. Unfortunately, the 2005 CPS volunteer supplement does not identify whether mentoring is the primary volunteer activity for those volunteers who say they mentor—a limitation that should be corrected in the next CPS survey.

[2] Other studies, including the National Mentoring Poll conducted by MENTOR, show that 14.6 million youth currently are in need of a mentor.

[3] Baby boomers are defined as those born between the years 1946 and 1964.

[4] For more information on the report Mentoring in America 2005, go to www.mentoring.org.

# VOLUNTEERS MENTORING YOUTH:
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One of the constraints to growing the mentoring field is the inadequate supply of appropriate volunteers willing to become mentors. This supply problem is probably the primary reason that many mentoring programs operate with long waiting lists of unmatched young people. Because research in the field has understandably focused on outcomes for youth, less is known about the volunteers who choose to become mentors. The goal of this research brief is to develop a greater understanding of the characteristics and traits that distinguish individuals whose volunteering includes mentoring youth from volunteers who do not mentor in order to help mentoring programs better identify and recruit the types of individuals that are most likely to be favorably disposed toward mentoring, and thereby help to reduce the waiting lists of unmatched young people.

This brief will explore four questions:

- How many adult volunteers are involved in some form of youth mentoring?
- What, if any, differences exist between adult volunteers who engage in mentoring as one of their formal volunteer activities and those adult volunteers who do not mentor as part of their volunteer activity?
- Can we predict who is most likely to include mentoring as part of their volunteer activities?
- Can we learn lessons about approaches that might be most effective in increasing the supply of adults whose volunteering includes youth mentoring?

To answer these questions, an analysis was done of the 2005 annual Volunteer Supplement of the Current Population Survey (CPS). The CPS is a national survey administered monthly to more than 60,000 households in America. It is the primary source of information on changes in employment and income and is used by the Bureau of Labor Statistics to estimate the monthly and annual changes in employment. The Corporation for National and Community Service annually sponsors the Volunteer Supplement questions, and the U.S. Census Bureau has administered the CPS Volunteer Supplement annually in September since 2002. The 2005 Volunteer Supplement is the first time respondents were asked whether one of their volunteer activities was mentoring youth.[1]

The interpretation of what constitutes mentoring is left to the respondent. While respondents might be engaged in activities that are generally considered to be mentoring such as being a Boy Scout/Girl Scout Leader, or a Big Brother/Big Sister, they might also interpret other activities such as coaching, tutoring, or counseling to be mentoring. However, respondents are allowed to indicate more than one volunteer activity. Thus, many respondents who indicated that they mentored also indicated that they may have coached or tutored in addition to their mentoring activities. As this brief will indicate, there are definite differences between volunteers engaged in mentoring and volunteers not involved in mentoring activities.

The major limitation in using the 2005 CPS volunteer supplement is that it does not identify whether mentoring is the primary volunteer activity for those

**Figure 1. Number of Volunteers by Mentors vs. Non-Mentors**



volunteers who say they mentor.[2] This means that for volunteers that perform more than one volunteer activity there is no conclusive way of ascertaining how much of their volunteer time is committed solely to mentoring. It also does not differentiate between volunteers who mentor one-on-one from those who mentor groups. Nonetheless, it provides an extremely robust picture of adults whose volunteer activities include mentoring youth.

## HOW MANY ADULTS ACTUALLY VOLUNTEER AS MENTORS?

■ **Finding:** 11.5 million adults engage in volunteering activities that include mentoring youth.

■ **Finding:** 1/6 of all adult volunteers engage in some mentoring of youth.

In September 2005, there were about 65.4 million adults aged 16 and older who performed some type of volunteer activity for a nonprofit organization. These volunteers represented approximately 29% of the US adult population.[3] Among these 65.4 million volunteers, 11.5 million said that at least one of their formal volunteer activities was mentoring a young person.[4] These 11.5 million mentors constituted 17.6% of all formal volunteers (see Table 1 in Appendix 1 and Figure 1, above).

As the data indicate, volunteers who mentor are a small but significant minority of all volunteers. Are there distinct characteristics that tend to increase the odds that certain adult volunteers will be mentors? The remainder of this brief will compare volunteers who mentor to volunteers who do not
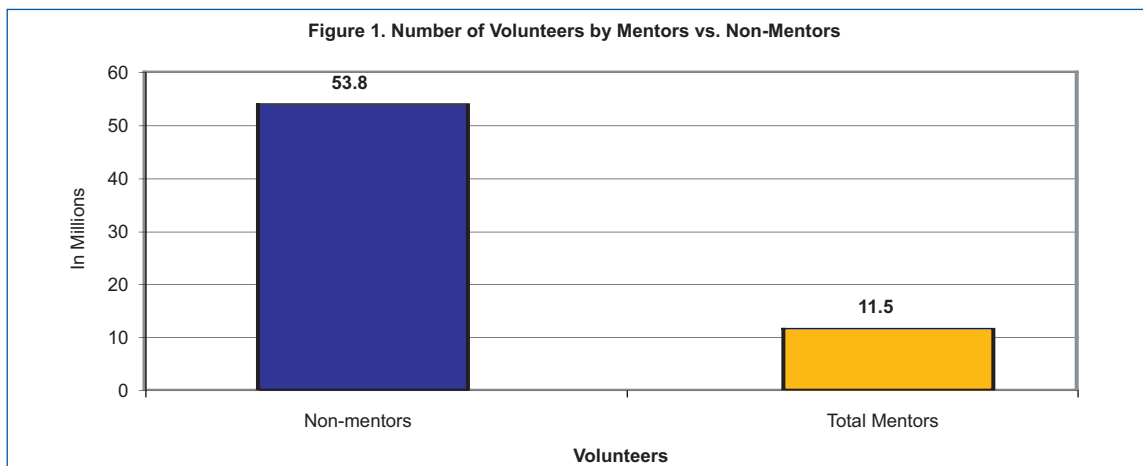
mentor. The goal is to determine if there are real differences between the two types of volunteers that can be used to predict who is most likely to engage in mentoring.

## WHAT DIFFERENCES EXIST BETWEEN VOLUNTEERS THAT ENGAGE IN MENTORING YOUTH AND VOLUNTEERS WHO DO NOT MENTOR?

In order to better understand why some volunteers choose to mentor and some do not, it is useful to know more about how the members of each volunteer group differ from each other. In this section, we attempt to discover if differences exist in certain key demographic, socioeconomic, and volunteering characteristics between volunteers who mentor and those who do not. We look at this in two ways: 1) for selected characteristics, we examine the percentage of volunteers who are either mentors or non-mentors. For example, for age we examine what percentage of 20-24 year old volunteers are either mentors or non-mentors; 2) we examine the differences in the overall population distributions for mentors and non-mentors for the same selected characteristics. For instance, we explore what percentage or share of all mentors are 20-24 years old. In general, we use graphs to illustrate the first approach; and the data in Table 1, which can be found in Appendix 1, as the source of our findings for the second approach.

## AGE AND MENTORING

■ **Finding:** Volunteers ages 20–24 are the most likely to engage in mentoring youth.

■ **Finding:** The propensity to be a mentor declines with age. However, a substantial number of mentors are baby boomers and other older volunteers.
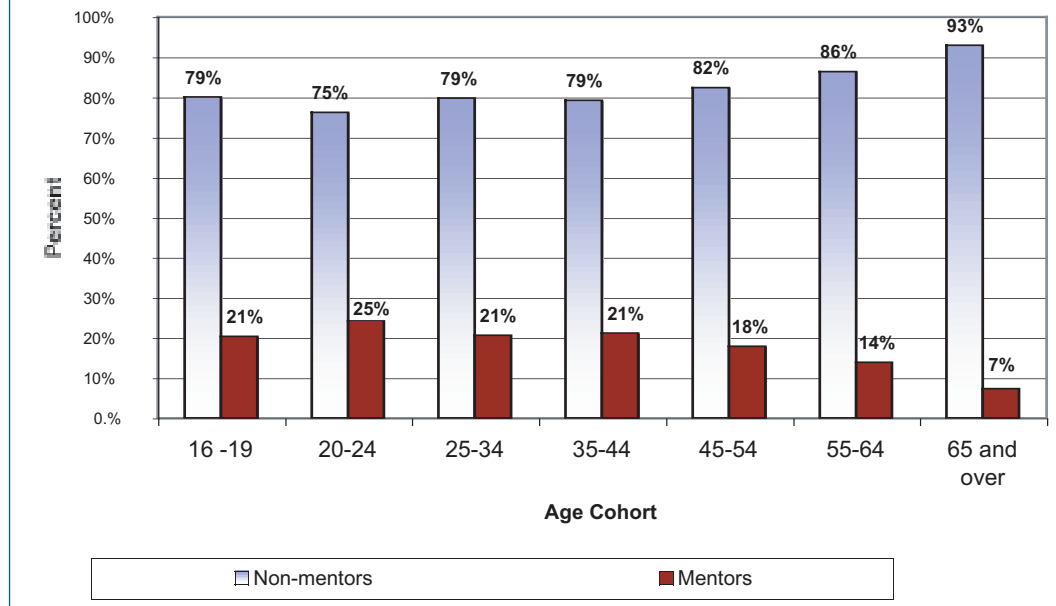
**Figure 2. Among Volunteers Percentage of Mentors by Age Cohort**



As Figure 2 shows, compared to other age groups, 20-24 year old volunteers are the most likely to engage in mentoring youth. In fact, 24% of the volunteers in this age group engage in mentoring. After age 24 the percentage of volunteers in each age cohort who volunteered as mentors consistently declined. For volunteers 65 and over, only 7% engage in mentoring as a volunteer activity.

Despite the fact that the likelihood of a volunteer being a mentor appears to decline with age, older volunteers make a substantial contribution to the overall number of mentors. For example, as Table 1 shows, baby boomers[5] represent 41% of all volunteers that mentor. Moreover, 38% of all volunteers who mentor are over 45 years old. In short, despite the fact that most volunteer mentors are under age 45, baby boomers and other older volunteers are an important source of mentors for youth (see Table 1).

## THE INFLUENCE OF GENDER, RACE, AND ETHNICITY ON MENTORING

■ **Findings:** Overall, males and female volunteers appear to mentor at roughly the same rates when they volunteer. However, more mentors are female because females volunteer at a higher rate than males.

■ **Findings:** Blacks are more likely than whites or other racial or ethnic minorities to be mentors when they volunteer. Hispanics are slightly less likely than non-Hispanics to be mentors when they volunteer.

Mentoring is a programmatic approach to help connect young people to positive adult relationships. The need for this type of connection is thought to be particularly acute for disadvantaged young men and for minorities. Many mentoring programs prefer to make same gender, same race matches where possible. Anecdotal evidence[6] suggests that many programs experience a shortage of male and minority mentors relative to the demand for such male-to-male and minority-to-minority mentoring matches. This gap in the supply and demand for mentors is exemplified in the size of an organization's waiting list of unmatched young people.

Despite the fact that females are much more likely to volunteer than males – for example, in 2005, 32.4% of females and 25% of males volunteered – male and female volunteers had roughly the same propensity to engage in mentoring. In 2005, as Figure 3 shows,

**Figure 3. Among Volunteers Percentage of Mentors by Gender**



**Figure 4. Among Volunteers Percentage of Mentors by Race and Ethnicity**
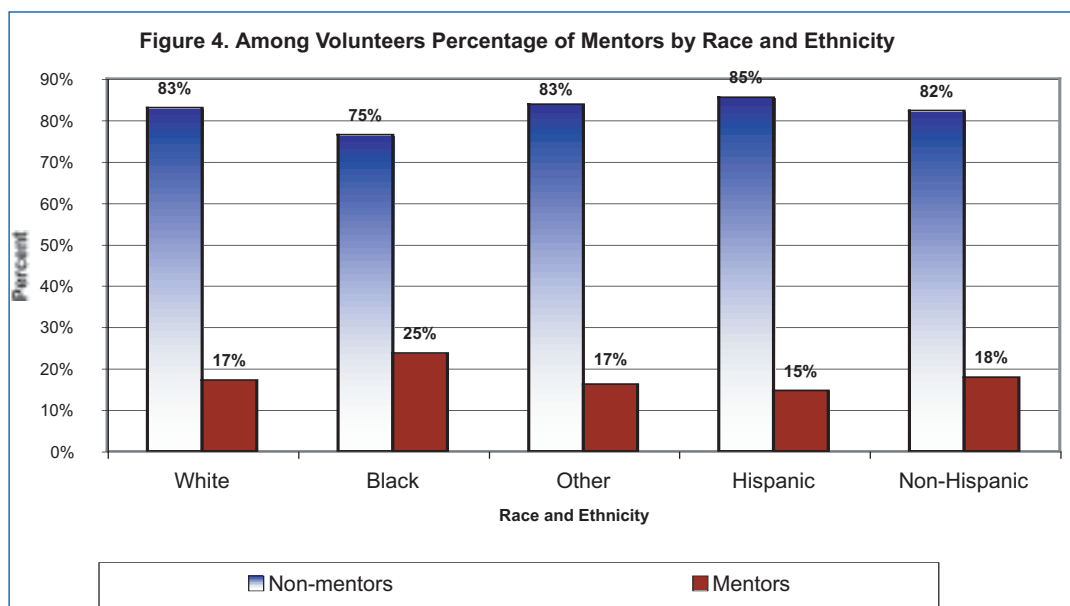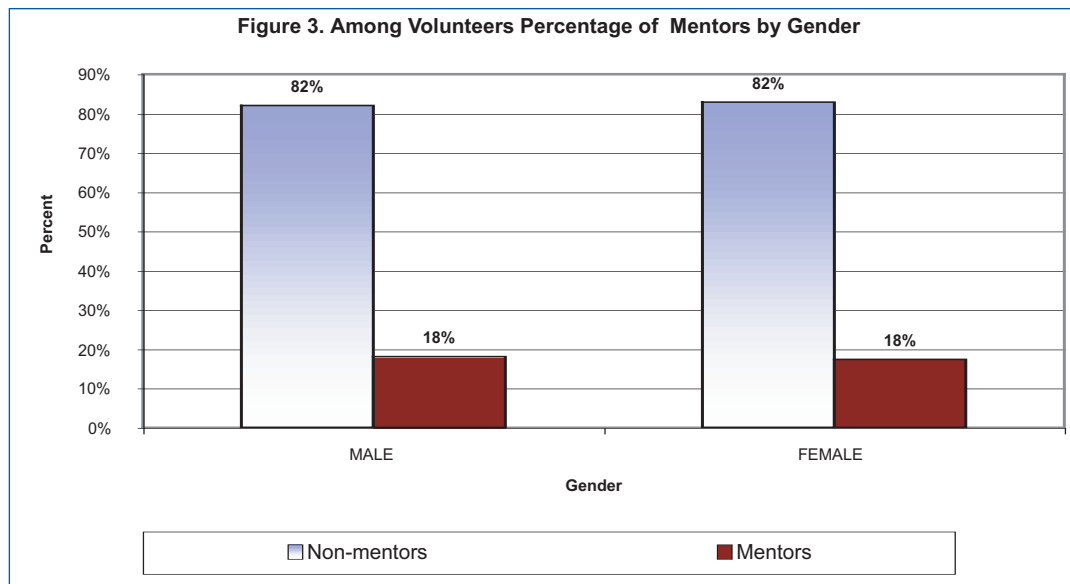


approximately 18% of all male volunteers and 18% of female volunteers engaged in mentoring. However, just as with volunteering in general, more mentors are females than males because of the gender gap in volunteering. Thus, as seen in Table 1, 57% of all youth mentors were females in 2005.

Because blacks and to a lesser extent Hispanics are more likely than whites and Asians to grow-up in

households with only one parent present[7], they may have a higher demand for developing structured one-to-one positive relationships with adult role models. Compared to other racial and ethnic groups, blacks actually had the highest percentage of volunteers who were also engaging in mentoring. In 2005, as Figure 4 demonstrates, 25% of black volunteers were engaged in mentoring compared to only 17% of whites and 17% of

**Figure 5. Among Volunteers Percentage of Mentors by Education Attainment**
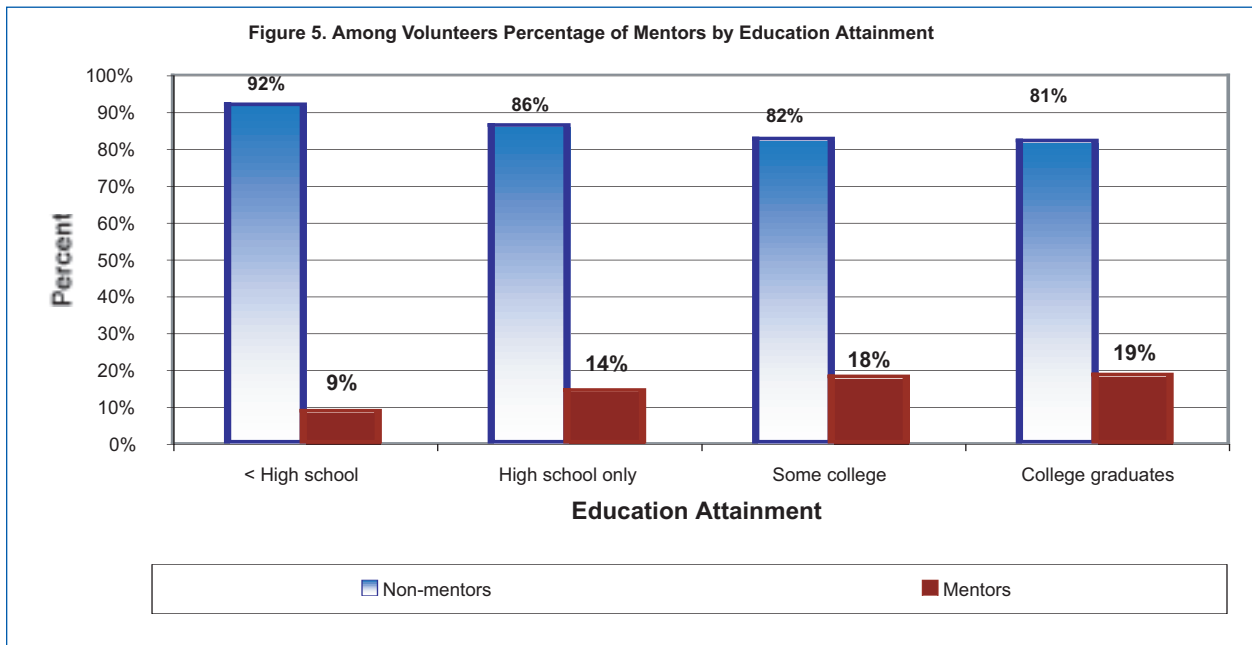


Asians and other racial minorities.[8] While blacks made up slightly less than 9% of all volunteers, they were almost 12% of all mentors, as Table 1 shows. This suggests that black volunteers are heavily involved in mentoring. If there is a gap between the number of African American youngsters in formal mentoring programs requesting a mentor and the supply of black volunteers who are willing to be youth mentors, the problem may be a demand rather than a supply issue.

While black volunteers have the highest probability of being a mentor, Hispanic volunteers are somewhat less likely to be mentors than non-Hispanic volunteers (see Figure 4). Hispanics were 6.9% of all volunteers, but, as Table 1 shows, they were only 5.7% of all mentors. This tends to support the concern that there may be a potential shortage of Hispanic mentors.

While our findings do indicate that Hispanic volunteers may be less inclined to be mentors compared to non-Hispanics, there appears to be no

evidence that male and African American volunteers are reticent to serve as mentors. Indeed, African American volunteers are more likely than whites or other racial/ethnic groups to be mentors, and male volunteers appear to be as likely as female volunteers to be mentors.

If there is a perceived shortage of male, black and Hispanic mentors, it may be more a function of low volunteer rates rather than their propensity to be mentors. For example, if the African American volunteer rate increased by two percentage points (22.1% to 24.1%), holding the mentoring rates constant, there would be another 533,000 black volunteers, and an additional 125,000 black mentors. Similarly, if the Hispanic volunteer rate increased 2 percentage points, there would be another 617,000 Hispanic volunteers, and another almost 254,000 Hispanic mentors. Finally, if the male volunteer rate went up 2 percentage points, holding the mentoring rates constant, there would be an additional 1.8 million male volunteers, and another 400,000 male mentors.

## SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS AND MENTORING

- **Finding:** The chance of a volunteer being involved in mentoring increases as a volunteer's education level rises.
- **Finding:** Most volunteers that engage in mentoring are employed full-time.

In general volunteers as a class appear to be better educated and more likely to be employed than non-volunteers. The question we asked is whether mentors have even higher education and greater employment levels than the average volunteer.

Indeed, mentors appear to have higher education levels than volunteers that do not mentor. The chance that a volunteer will also be a mentor appears to rise with educational attainment. Figure 5 illustrates that compared to volunteers with a high school education or less, volunteers with a college education are much more likely to be mentors. As Table 1 shows, there are similar results when differences in educational attainment are examined within each group. Relative to non-mentors, more mentors are college-educated and fewer have only a high school education or less.

While education is a key indicator of socioeconomic status, employment status is also an important measure. Table 1 shows that a larger percentage of volunteer mentors are employed full-time compared to non-mentor volunteers.  While on average all volunteers are more highly connected to the labor market than non-volunteers, mentors appear to have higher labor market attachment than other types of volunteers.[9]

Together the education and employment findings indicate that mentors are well-educated, economically successful individuals. This seems consistent with the goal of exposing at-risk young people to successful adult role models. However, it raises real challenges for recruitment, since efforts aimed at trying to encourage even more of these highly successful individuals to be youth mentors may require new approaches.

## VOLUNTEERING CHARACTERISTICS AND MENTORING

- **Finding:** Almost 43% of volunteers who engaged in mentoring did so through religious organizations, and another 31% engaged in mentoring through or in educational institutions.
- **Finding:** 67% of volunteers who engage in some mentoring volunteer 12 or more weeks per year compared to only 49% of volunteers who are not involved in mentoring.
- **Finding:** Volunteers engaged in mentoring serve a median of 80 hours per year, while the median hours for volunteers not involved in mentoring is 40 hours per year.

While there appear to be differences between volunteers who engage in mentoring versus other volunteers that do not mentor on certain demographic and socioeconomic indicators, mentors also may be different in volunteer characteristics. For example, do mentors come to volunteering in different ways than non-mentors? Do they volunteer in different types of organizations? Are they more active as volunteers? Are they more likely to volunteer on a regular basis?

Mentors and non-mentors appear to have very similar experiences in how they became volunteers. Table 1 shows that the percentage of both groups that approached the organization on their own is almost identical. Similarly, there is only a slight difference in the percentage of mentors and non-mentors who became volunteers because someone asked them to volunteer.

Compared to the overall volunteer population, there are more marked differences in where these mentors do their volunteer work. While American volunteers are most commonly found in religious or educational
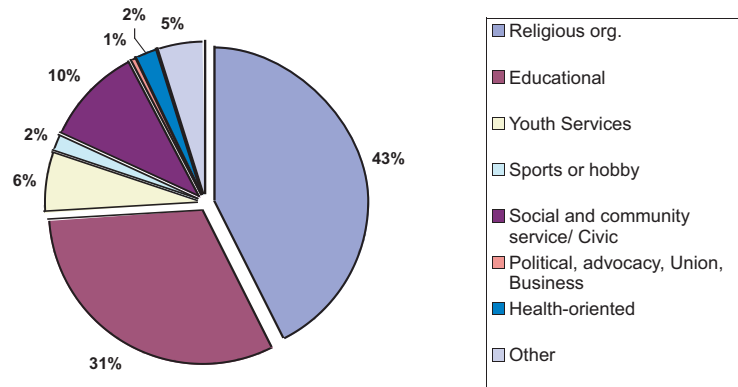
organizations, volunteers who mentor are even more likely to be found in religious organizations or educational institutions (see Table 1 and Figure 6a). We found that 43% of volunteers who engaged in mentoring did that activity through religious organizations, and another 31% engaged in mentoring through or in educational institutions (see Table 1 and Figures 6a, 6b).
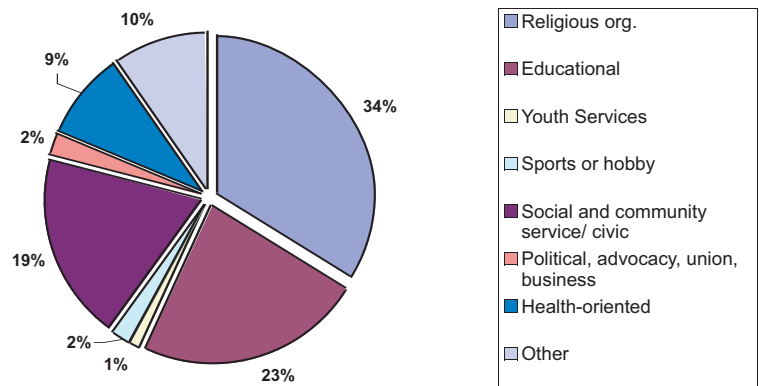
Mentors and non-mentors also seemed to have different levels of engagement with their main volunteer organization. Two factors illustrate this point. First, Table 1 shows that mentors are much more likely than non-mentors to perform multiple volunteer activities for their main volunteer organization. Eighty-seven percent of all volunteers engaged in mentoring perform two or more volunteer activities for their main volunteer organization, compared to only 40% of volunteers not involved in mentoring. In many ways, this is surprising because the mentoring relationship is often very demanding of volunteer time and involvement. One might expect that volunteers who mentor would be engaged in fewer rather than more activities than non-mentors. This may imply that volunteers become mentors because they are already highly engaged volunteers with their main organization. If this is the case, it suggests that a prime source of new mentors for an organization is among the cadre of individuals who are already actively volunteering.

Second, while volunteering is generally seen as a net social good, there may be important differences between volunteering once or twice a year for a single event and volunteering on a regular monthly or even weekly basis. This may be particularly important for mentors. There is evidence that the effectiveness of mentoring is a function of how much time mentors spend with their young charges. Short-term mentoring matches have been shown to



**Figure 6a. Percent of Volunteers Who Mentor by Type of Volunteer Organization**

Religious org. 43%
Educational 31%
Youth Services 6%
Sports or hobby 2%
Social and community service/ Civic 10%
Political, advocacy, Union, Business 1%
Health-oriented 2%
Other 5%



**Figure 6b. Percent of Volunteers Who Do Not Mentor by Type of Volunteer Organization**

Religious org. 34%
Educational 23%
Youth Services 1%
Sports or hobby 2%
Social and community service/ civic 19%
Political, advocacy, union, business 2%
Health-oriented 9%
Other 10%

do more harm than no mentoring at all.[10] Given this, it is important to examine whether there are any differences in the amount of time mentors and non-mentors devote to their volunteer activities.

An individual volunteering 12 or more weeks is on average volunteering at least once per month. In our Youth Helping America series report on volunteering trends among teenagers, this 12-week minimum was used to determine if an individual is a regular

volunteer, providing volunteer service throughout the year.[11] Based on this 12-week minimum indicator, the likelihood of a volunteer engaging in mentoring increases as volunteers move from being what we called episodic volunteers (serving a couple weeks a year) to being regular volunteers. To put it another way, 67% of volunteers engaged in mentoring are also regular volunteers—i.e., they volunteer 12 or more weeks per year—compared to only 49% of volunteers not involved in mentoring (see Table 1 and Figure 7). These findings indicate that mentors are much more likely than non-mentors to be providing volunteer services on a regular basis throughout the year.

Finally, the differences between volunteers engaged in mentoring and volunteers not involved in mentoring in the number of weeks volunteered annually is also mirrored in the number of hours each group volunteers. Table 1 illustrates that the median hours volunteered annually for volunteers engaged in mentoring and volunteers not involved in mentoring are 80 hours and 40 hours respectively.

## SUMMARY

It appears that there are some distinct differences between volunteers whose activities include mentoring youth and volunteers who do not do such activities. The chances that a volunteer will be involved in mentoring are greatest for younger volunteers and for African American volunteers. The probability that a volunteer will be involved in mentoring rises as educational attainment increases and is also higher for employed volunteers.



Figure 7. Percent Distribution of Mentors and Non-Mentors by Number of Weeks Volunteered Annually
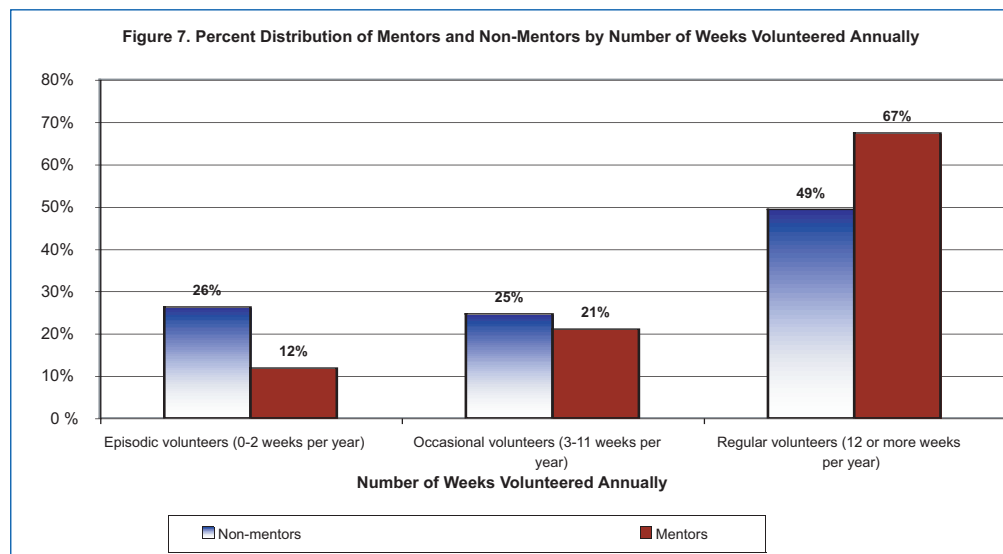
Finally, mentors demonstrate some differences in their volunteer characteristics. Mentors are more likely than non-mentors to perform multiple volunteer activities for their main volunteer organization. They are found primarily in religious and educational institutions, and they are much more likely than non-mentors to volunteer 12 or more weeks per year.

## WHO IS MOST LIKELY TO BECOME A MENTOR?

The previous section explored differences in a variety of demographic, socioeconomic, and volunteering characteristics between volunteers that engage in some mentoring activities and volunteers that are not involved in mentoring. The strong tendency of volunteers involved in mentoring to engage in multiple volunteer activities and the large percentage of such volunteers that volunteer 12 or more weeks per year suggests that many volunteers engaged in mentoring activities are being recruited from existing volunteers rather than from non-volunteers. Given this, this section will discuss which characteristics make the most contributions to predicting which adults will be volunteers; and which characteristics are most useful in predicting which volunteers will become engaged in mentoring.

Using a statistical technique known as multivariate analysis, we can examine the impact that different variables have on the probability that an individual will volunteer and whether those who volunteer will also be mentors. For instance, according to the 2005 CPS, the percentage of Hispanic volunteers appears to be lower than non–Hispanic volunteers. In turn, the percentage of volunteers that also are mentors appears to be lower for Hispanics than for non-Hispanics. However, Hispanics and non-Hispanics differ on several important demographic and socioeconomic indicators. Hispanics, for instance, have lower education levels on average than non-Hispanics. In order to determine if Hispanics and non-Hispanics are truly different in their volunteering and mentoring behavior, we need to control for group variations in educational achievement, as well as other important factors. That is, we need to treat both groups as if they have the same educational profile. In the charts that illustrate the results of our multivariate analysis, we are able to compare Hispanics versus non-Hispanics by holding education and all other variables constant at their sample-average levels.

**Figure 8a. Probability of an Adult Being a Volunteer by Age**
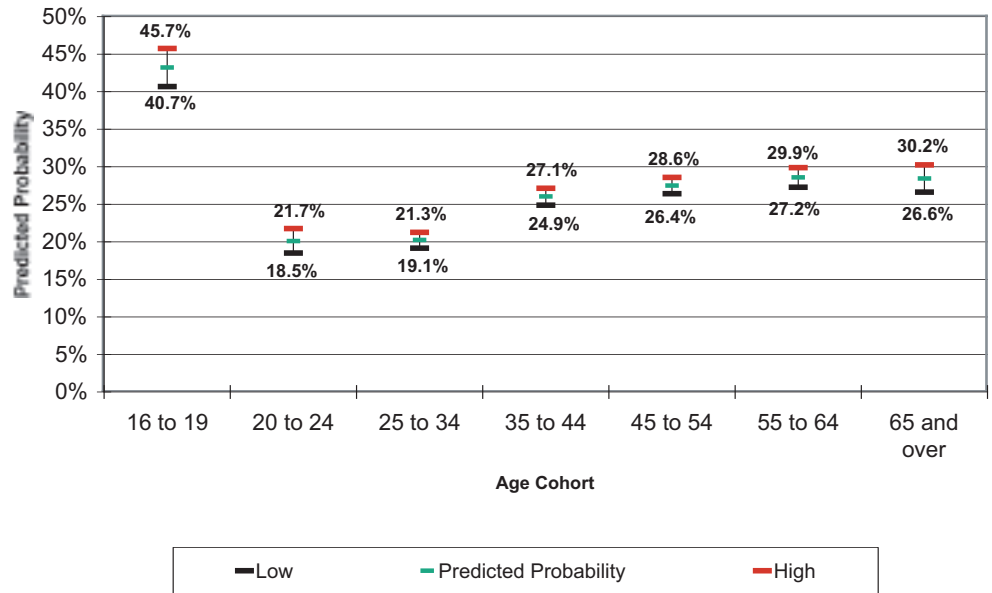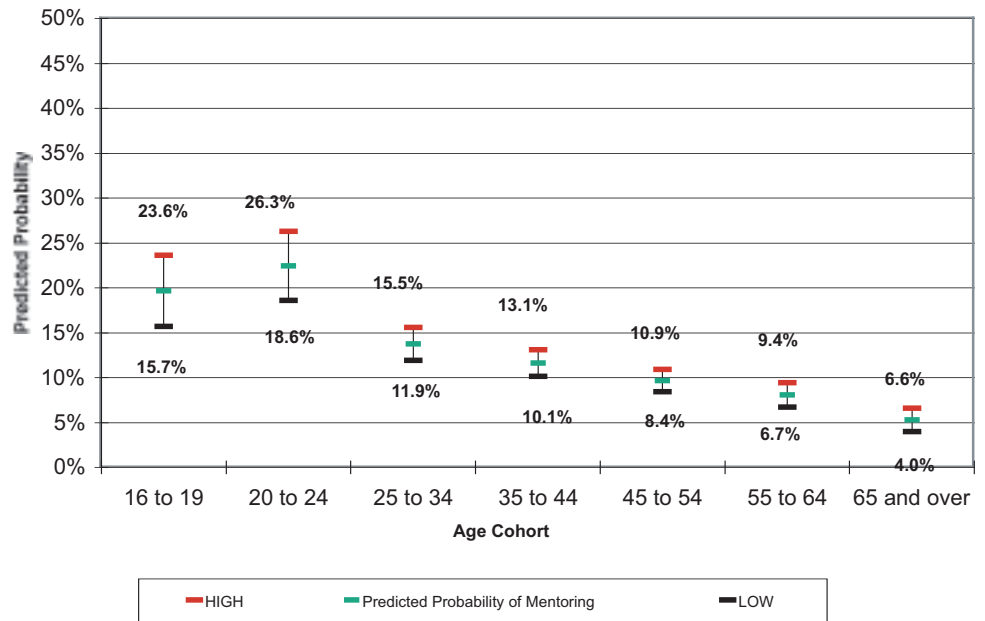


**Figure 8b. Probability of an Adult Volunteer Being a Mentor by Age (with plus or minus margin of error)**



Multivariate analysis allows us to determine if observed differences in volunteering and mentoring between Hispanics and non-Hispanics are real, and not just the influence of variations in educational achievement and other existing differences. This allows

us to mitigate the potential confounding effects of education, as well as a variety of other factors, such as age, race, gender, employment status, and family structure. This type of analysis often results in finding out that many differences between groups disappear, or become stronger, once confounding factors have been taken into account. Thus, it allows a researcher or analyst to discover which factors provide a real impact on a particular outcome of interest.

The capacity to predict who is likely to be a volunteer and in turn who will be a mentor can provide useful policy and program planning insights. In particular, knowing who is most likely to be a mentor can help shape and refine volunteer recruitment strategies. It can help target efforts to those individuals that are most likely to respond positively. On the other hand, it might also allow you to identify unlikely, but promising prospects.

The type of multivariate analysis used to undertake this assessment is called probit analysis. Simply speaking, probit analysis estimates the probability that a certain event will–or won't–occur, conditioned on the impact of different characteristics. In this case, there are two events: The probability that an adult will be a volunteer and the probability that a volunteer will then include mentoring youth as part of their activities.[12] The remainder of this section discusses the impact of different characteristics or predictors on the probability of each of these events. The findings are presented in Table 2 and in a series of graphs for each characteristic that present the probabilities with their margins of error[13] for two probabilities: that an adult will be a volunteer, and that a volunteer will engage in mentoring activities. In these charts, when the margins of error overlap for two groups, the probabilities are roughly the same on average; when they do not overlap, the average group differences seen in

Table 2 (Appendix I) are statistically real,[14] controlling for all other factors.

The characteristics or predictors are classified into one of three groups:

- Common characteristics that predict both being a volunteer and a volunteer engaging in mentoring;
- Characteristics that only predict volunteering; and,
- Characteristics that only predict which volunteers will become mentors.

## COMMON CHARACTERISTICS

There are three general categories of predictors that provide useful information in predicting who will be a volunteer and which volunteers will be mentors: demographic predictors; socioeconomic predictors; and regional or place predictors. The common demographic predicators are age, gender and race/ethnicity. The common socioeconomic predictors are education and employment status.

- **Finding:** All else being equal, of all age groups, 16–19 year olds have the highest probability of being volunteers.

- **Finding:** All else being equal, the probability of a volunteer engaging in mentoring declines with age. Volunteers are most likely to engage in mentoring when they are 16–24 years old.

All else being equal, age is important in determining both who will volunteer and which volunteers will be mentors. For volunteers, predicted average volunteering rates are highest for 16-19 year olds and lowest for adults 20-34 years old. As Figure 8a shows, the rate of volunteering increases some after age 34, but remains well below the rate for 16 –19 year olds. However, as seen in Figure 8b, the pattern is slightly different for mentors. All else being equal, volunteers are most likely to engage in mentoring when they are 16-24 years old. As volunteers age after 24 years old, mentoring rates decline on average.

**Figure 9a. Probability of an Adult Being a Volunteer by Gender**
**(with plus or minus margin of error)**



It is not entirely clear why older volunteers are less likely than younger volunteers to serve as mentors. However, it does appear that as individuals age, mentoring a young person becomes less appealing, possibly as a result of changes in health, family status, or general interest. These findings tend to suggest that mentoring recruitment efforts need to target younger volunteers, particularly those younger than 35 years old. However, while these findings suggest that policymakers and program planners should be a little cautious when they look toward baby boomers and other older adults as a potential source of new adult mentors, the results indicate that baby boomers and other older adult volunteers currently provide a substantial supply of volunteer mentors.

■ **Finding:** All else being equal, females, whites, mixed race individuals, and non–Hispanics have a higher probability of volunteering than males, African Americans, and Hispanics.

■ **Finding:** All else being equal, male and African American volunteers have a higher probability of being involved in mentoring as a volunteer activity than females and whites.

All else being equal, as Figures 9a, 9b, 10a, and 10b illustrate, females, whites and mixed race individuals, and non–Hispanics are most likely to be volunteers, on average. However, the results are a bit different for predicting which volunteers will engage in mentoring. Blacks are considerably more likely to be mentors than any other racial/ethnic group including whites. Males are actually

**Figure 9b. Probability of an Adult Volunteer Being a Mentor by Gender**
**(with plus or minus margin of error)**
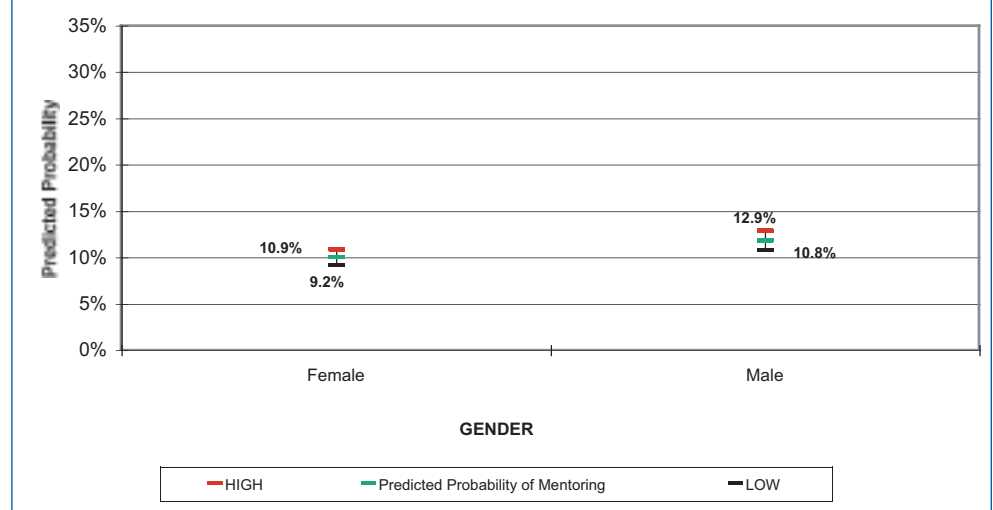


more likely to be mentors than females, on average, and there are no real differences between the average propensity of Hispanics and that of non–Hispanics to be mentors.

The findings here suggest that after controlling for differences in other key factors, males, African Americans, and Hispanics may be volunteering less than one would expect given their demographic and socioeconomic characteristics. On the other hand, these same groups are actually performing better than expected given their demographic and socioeconomic characteristics in

**Figure 10a. Probability of an Adult Being a Volunteer by Race and Ethnicity**
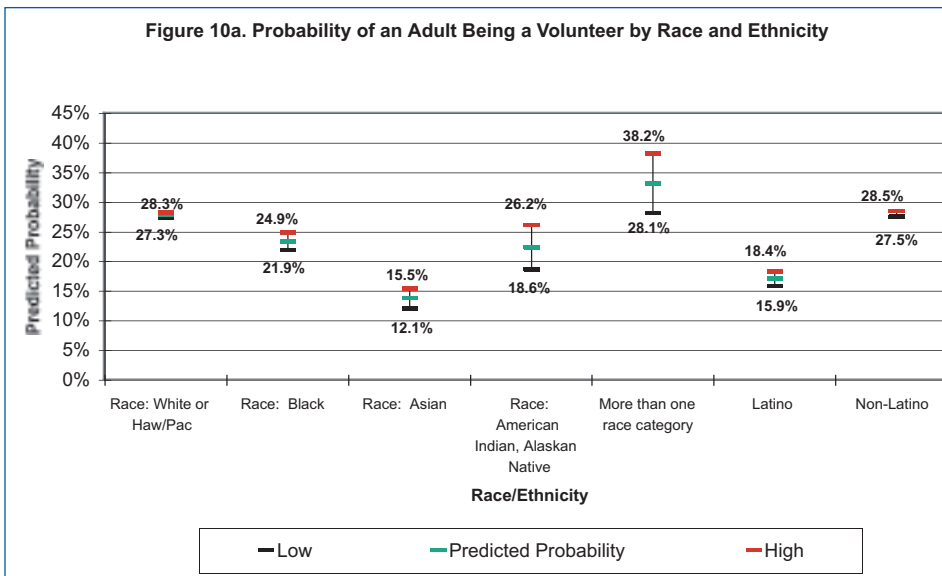


**Figure 10b. Probability of an Adult Volunteer Being a Mentor by Race and Ethnicity (with plus of minus margin of error)**
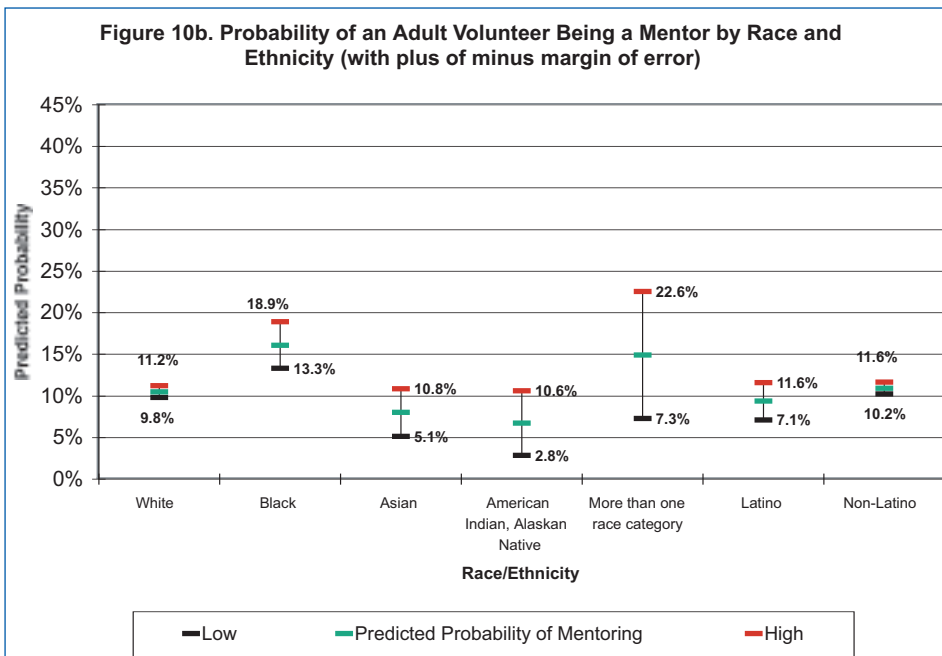


Employment and volunteering appear to be associated. After controlling for other relevant factors, adults who are employed part-time and those not in the labor force, except those that are disabled, have higher average volunteer rates than adults who are employed full-time. These findings, depicted in Figures 11a and 11b, are somewhat different for volunteers who choose to engage in mentoring. Volunteers who are employed full-time are more likely than volunteers who are not in the labor market to include mentoring in their volunteer activities. The higher predicted volunteer rates for part-time employees and those adults not in the labor force suggest that volunteering seems to be associated with having more discretionary time available. However, this does not appear to be the case for mentors. Compared to volunteers who are either non-working, or employed part-time, being employed full-time, and presumably having less discretionary time, is associated with higher predicted rates of being involved in mentoring.

choosing to be mentors. Given this, if males' and African Americans' overall volunteer rates could be increased, the result would be a rise in the number of mentors.

■ **Finding:** All else being equal, part-time workers have a higher probability of being a volunteer than full-time workers or adults who are not working.

■ **Finding:** All else being equal, volunteers who are employed have a higher probability of being involved in mentoring activities than nonworking volunteers.

■ **Finding:** All else being equal, the probability of being a volunteer rises with educational attainment.

■ **Finding:** All else being equal, the probability of a volunteer being involved with mentoring activities also rises with educational attainment.

Education also appears, from Figures 11a and 11b, to be an important independent predictor of whether an adult becomes a volunteer, and whether a volunteer

Figure 11a. Probability of an Adult Being a Volunteer by Education and Employment (with plus or minus margin of error)



Figure 11b. Probability of an Adult Volunteer Being a Mentor by Education and Employment (with plus or minus margin of error)
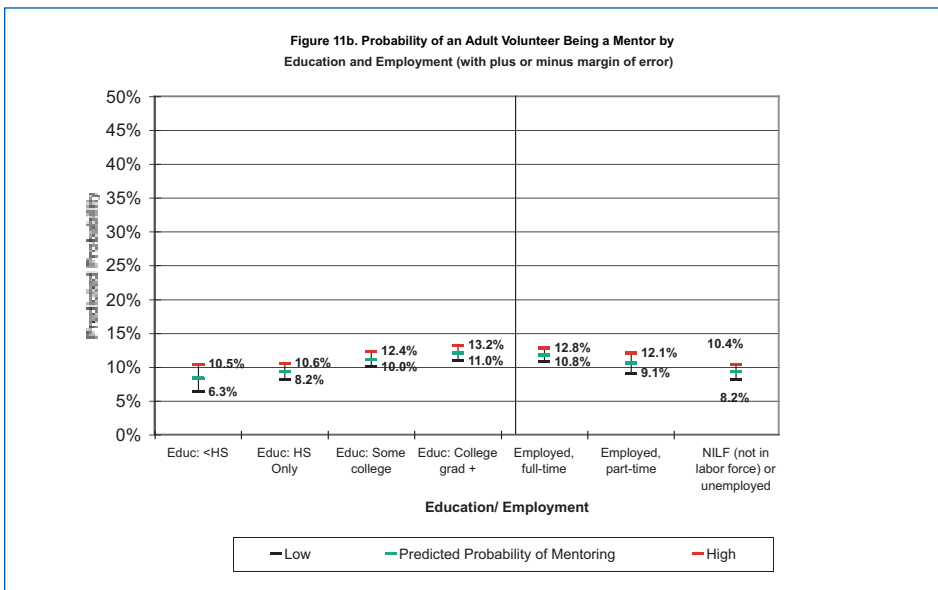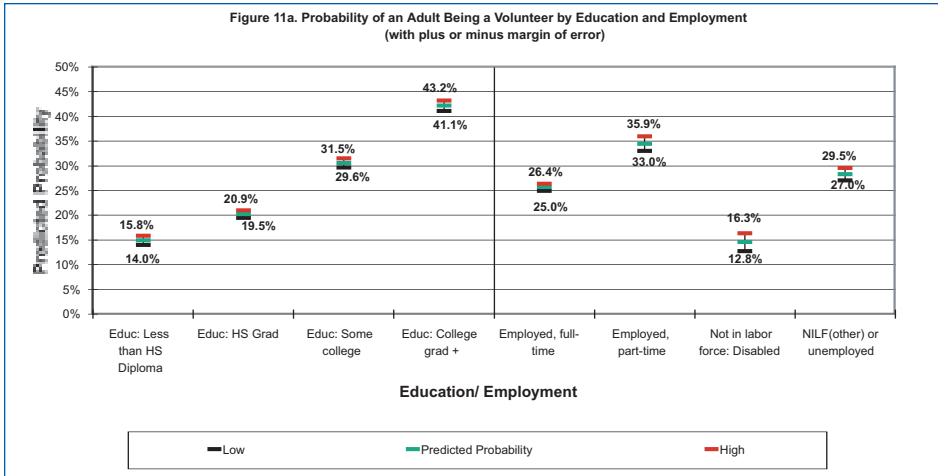
Given the high rates of volunteering among the well-educated, it is difficult to imagine that you could increase substantially the number of mentors by raising the overall volunteer rates for this group. However, it might be possible to increase the number of mentors by encouraging more college-educated volunteers to include mentoring as one of their volunteer activities.

## CHARACTERISTICS THAT ONLY INFLUENCE VOLUNTEERING

■ **Finding:** Volunteering rates rise as family income increases.

■ **Finding:** Married adults have a higher probability of volunteering than unmarried adults.

■ **Finding:** Adults that reside with their own children under 18 years of age have a higher probability of volunteering compared to adults that do not reside with their minor children.

will engage in mentoring. All else being equal, volunteer rates rise with education. College-educated adults are substantially more likely to be volunteers than individuals with less education. There is a similar effect for volunteers who mentor. The probability of a volunteer also being a mentor rises with education. However, the effects are not as dramatic. There is a 27-percentage point difference in the probability of volunteering between college-educated adults and those with less than a high school education. For mentors, the differences between college-educated volunteers and volunteers without a high school education in the probability of engaging in mentoring youth is only about 4 percentage points.

There are several characteristics that only appear to be important in predicting volunteering and not in predicting which volunteers will choose to engage in mentoring youth. Income was found to have no independent influence on predicting which volunteers are also mentors.[15] However, family income is a predictor of which adults will be volunteers. Figure 12 shows that, holding education, gender, race, and other key characteristics constant, as family income rises, so do average volunteering rates. The relatively high, predicted probabilities of volunteering for adults with high family incomes suggest that maybe increasing volunteer rates by focusing on high-income adults may only lead to marginal improvements in volunteer rates.

**Figure 12. Probability of an Adult Being a Volunteer by Family Income, Presence of Children, Marital Status (with plus or minus margin of error)**



Socioeconomic Categories

Low — Predicted Probability — High

**Figure 13. Probability of an Adult Volunteer Being a Mentor by Number of Volunteer Activities (with plus or minus margin of error)**



Volunteering Attributes

Low — Predicted Probability of Mentoring — High
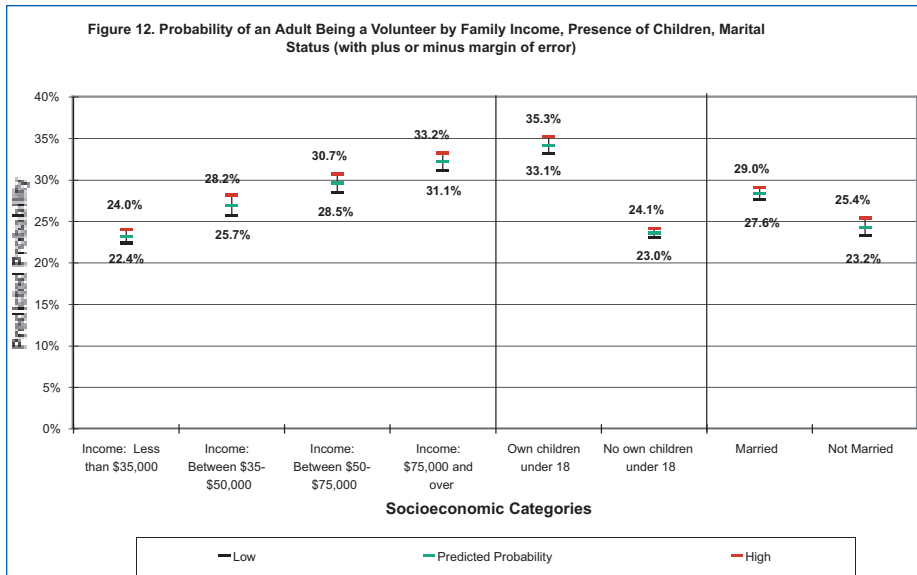
that do not reside with their own minor children.

Finally, the results in Table 2 and Figure 12 also illustrate that married adults have a higher predicted probability of being a volunteer than unmarried adults. Marital status appears to have no influence in predicting which volunteers will be mentors.

## CHARACTERISTICS THAT ONLY INFLUENCE VOLUNTEERS TO ENGAGE IN MENTORING

■**Finding:** Mentors are primarily drawn from the ranks of already committed and engaged volunteers. Holding all other factors constant, volunteers engaged in four or more volunteer activities with their main volunteer organization have a higher probability of being engaged in mentoring activities than volunteers who engage in 1 to 3 volunteer activities.

■**Finding:** All else being equal, volunteers who volunteer in or through a religious or educational/youth service organization have a higher probability of being engaged in mentoring than volunteers who volunteer in other types of organizations.
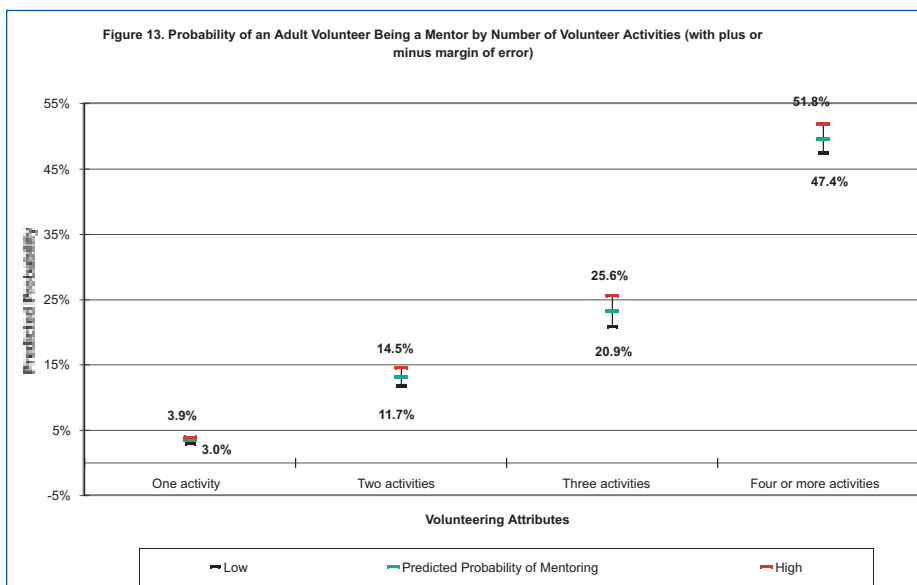
The presence of minor children is a factor that does not appear to predict which volunteer will be mentors, but that does appear to contribute to the ability to predict who will volunteer. As Table 2 and Figure 12 show, adults residing with their own minor children under 18 years old have a higher predicted probability of volunteering than adults that do not reside with their own minor children. For volunteers who mentor, there appear to be no differences in the probability of being a mentor between volunteers that reside with their own minor children and volunteers

There are a number of characteristics in Table 2 that can only be used to predict the probability of volunteers incorporating mentoring into their service activities. It appears, as seen in Figure 13, that volunteers who perform more than one volunteer activity for their main organization are more likely to be mentors than volunteers who perform only one activity. In fact, all else being equal, the more volunteer activities a

Figure 14. Probability of an Adult Volunteer Being a Mentor by Type of Volunteer Organization (with plus or minus margin of error)
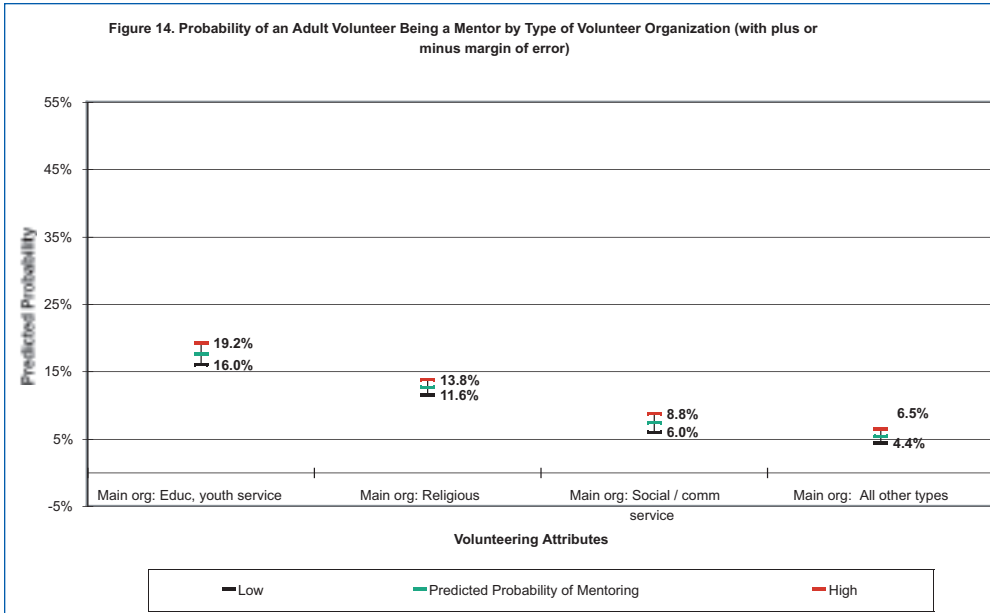


However, it should be noted that mentoring programs that recruit through the workplace often already target schools and youth organizations. As such, at least some percentage of volunteers in school and youth organizations may actually have come to their volunteer work through employee volunteer programs.[16]

## CONCLUSION AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

The analysis shows that one of the most important determinants of which volunteers are also involved in mentoring activities is age. The probability of being a mentor declines dramatically after age 24; indeed, volunteers 65 years and older are the least likely to be engaged in mentoring activities compared to younger cohorts. This suggests that college age adults and even high school students are prime candidates to be recruited as mentors. While the data also suggest that enlisting more baby boomers and other older adults as youth mentors is more challenging, it is important to note that a large number of baby boomers and other older adult volunteers currently are involved in mentoring.

volunteer performs the more likely the volunteer is to engage in mentoring youth.

Interpreting this finding is somewhat challenging. However, one likely explanation is that it reflects the fact that mentors are primarily drawn from the ranks of already highly committed and engaged volunteers. That is, these are men and women who have already made a substantial commitment to volunteering for their main volunteer organization and who are encouraged to devote some of their volunteer time to mentoring.

The probability that a volunteer will be a mentor also seems to be highly related to the types of organizations where a volunteer does his or her volunteer work. Mentors are primarily found in youth-focused educational or youth-serving organizations and in religious organizations. Figure 14 shows that the average probability of a volunteer engaging in mentoring is considerably higher for volunteers found in these types of organizations than volunteers in civic, professional, labor, or other types of organizations. The findings indicate that targeting volunteers in religious institutions and in schools and youth service organizations may be an effective strategy for bringing more volunteers to mentoring.

Another promising mentor recruitment strategy is focusing on encouraging more current volunteers to become mentors, particularly those volunteers who have already made a substantial commitment to their main volunteer organization. Moreover, the finding that mentoring takes place predominantly through religious organizations suggests that religious institutions are an excellent area in which to focus recruitment efforts.

This type of strategy may pose real challenges for existing community-based mentoring programs. One approach is for traditional mentoring programs to do more partnering with other types of volunteer

organizations, such as religious institutions. This approach is already being tried in several places. Another approach may be for mentoring programs to recruit volunteers to do other needed tasks. Once they've formed some attachment to the organization and its mission, these volunteers may be more amenable to becoming mentors.

The importance of providing mentoring opportunities at workplaces is another important strategy to reach more youth with mentors. Our research found that volunteers employed full-time—despite having less discretionary time—are actually as likely to mentor as people working part-time, and a new poll by the nonprofit group MENTOR[17] revealed that mentoring at or near the workplace, as well as release time during work hours, substantially increased people's willingness to seriously consider becoming a mentor. Together, these reports suggest that providing convenient mentor opportunities at work are important for recruiting more mentors.

Race and sex also have an effect on who becomes a mentor. Although males and blacks volunteer in general at lower rates than do females and whites, it turns out that blacks are more likely—and males are as likely—as their counterparts to engage in mentoring as one of their volunteer activities. This is an interesting finding since the general consensus in the field is that there is a shortage of male and minority mentors. It appears that one constraint may be the lower overall volunteer rates of men and minorities. Assuming that the relationship between volunteering, and volunteering as a mentor, remains constant, the number of male and minority mentors would increase if their overall volunteer rate rose. Thus, a promising approach to developing more black and male mentors is to invite and engage them in volunteering in general. If, for example, the African American volunteer rate increased by 2 percentage points (22.1% to 24.1%), there would be another 533,000 black volunteers, and an additional 125,000 black mentors.

Without more knowledge about the demographics of mentor waitlists, we do not know for certain the gender and racial characteristics of youths waiting for a mentor, though anecdotal evidence suggests that a disproportionate number are minorities and males. If this is the case, it is possible that doubling or even tripling the numbers of male and minority mentors may not be enough to meet the effective demand for such mentors. Instead it may require that mentoring programs not only increase the overall supply of mentors but employ more mentoring models that reach more kids with one adult mentor and other innovative mentoring approaches in order to close the mentoring gap.

# ENDNOTES

1 "Mentoring in America in 2005" based on a National Mentoring Poll of 2000 respondents conducted for MENTOR in 2002 and again in 2005 also asks questions about who mentors. However, because the CPS uses a very large sample, with a very high response rate it is possible to do a much more extensive set of analyses. Moreover, the CPS allows for an analysis of all types of volunteers, not just those who mentor.

2 This problem should be resolved in the 2006 CPS volunteer supplement. In the 2006 supplement, respondents will be asked to identify whether mentoring is their primary volunteer activity.

3 The CPS considers individuals 16 and older adults.

4 There are also individuals that mentor young people informally—i.e. not in the context of a formal organization. The CPS does not ask questions on informal volunteer activities and so cannot provide an estimate about the size of the informal mentor group. The "Mentoring in America in 2005" did ask about informal mentoring and therefore can provide some insights into the size and characteristics of the informal mentor group.

5 Baby boomers are the generation born from 1946-1964. In 2005, baby boomers would have been between 41 and 59 years old.

6 In 2005 MENTOR conducted several focus groups across the country of mentoring program operators. One consistent theme was the perceived shortage of males and minority mentors. During these focus group sessions practitioners also indicated that waiting lists of unmatched youth were a general problem.

7 The 2000 US Census indicates that 57% of non-Hispanic black and 29% of Hispanic children grow-up in single parent families compared to 21% of non-Hispanic whites. Females head the vast majority of these families.

8 Because their numbers in the sample were relatively small, Asians, Mixed-race, American Indians, and Pacific Islanders were combined and reported as one category.

9 See "Volunteering in the United States, 2005," released by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, December 9, 2005 (*www.bls.gov/cps*).

10 See "Promoting Successful Youth Mentoring Relationships: A Preliminary Screening Questionnaire" by Jean Rhodes, Ranjinni Reddy, Jennifer Roffman, and Jean B. Grossman.

11 See Corporation for National and Community Service. Building Active Citizens: T*he Role of Social Institutions in Teen Volunteering*. Brief 1 in the Youth Helping America series. Washington, DC. November 2005 (*http://www.cns.gov/pdf/05_1130_LSA_YHA_study.pdf*). In this brief, we divided individuals into episodic volunteers (1-2 weeks of volunteering a year), occasional volunteers (3-11 weeks of volunteering a year), and regular volunteers (12+ weeks of volunteering a year)

12 The complete results for both the volunteer model and the mentoring model can be found in Appendix 2.

13 The graphs show the predicted probabilities and the plus or minus margin of error. For example, for age, holding all other factors constant, Figure 8b shows that 16-19 year olds have a 43% probability, on average, of being a volunteer. However, there is a plus or minus error that means the real volunteering rate for this group is between 41% and 45%. Where bars overlap on a graph it means that there is no difference in the probability between different characteristics. Again, looking at age, in figure 8a, the margins of error for volunteering probabilities overlap for adults 20-24 years old and 25-34 years old.

14 The margins of error are based on the estimates of the standard errors in Tables 3 and 4 of Appendix 2. These standard errors are too small; due to privacy limitations, the Census Bureau does not release information about the detailed sampling design of the CPS. To counteract this limitation, we calculate margins of error using 99 percent confidence intervals, rather than the traditional 95 percent confidence intervals. Approximations used in other published work suggest that these 99% confidence intervals should rarely underestimate, and often overestimate, the true size of the margins of error.

15 As with the other variables discussed in this section — presence of own children and marital status — family income was originally included as a predictor in the mentoring model. These variables were dropped because they were not statistically significant, with no loss of overall explanatory power and no change in the magnitude of the other results.

16 It is useful to note, however, that the 2005 CPS indicates that few volunteers that were engaged in mentoring appeared to have responded to appeals at work or by an employer. When volunteers were asked who asked them to volunteer, 3.4% of non-mentors said it was their boss or employer. However, for volunteers that mentored only 1.7% said they responded to an appeal from their boss or employer. We did not report this number in the study because the sample size was very small (only 53 observations).

17 For more information on the report Mentoring in America 2005, go to *www.mentoring.org*.

| Table 1. Volunteers (in 1000s) who mentor and who don't mentor, by selected characteristics, for 2005 | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| VOLUNTEER CHARACTERISTICS | Total Volunteers | Non-Mentors | Volunteers who Mentor | Percent distribution of mentors by selected characteristics |
| Number of Volunteers | 65,357 | 53,854 | 11,503 | 17.6% |
| AGE | | | | |
| 16 -19 | 4,848 | 3,841 | 1,007 | 9% |
| 20-24 | 3,828 | 2,855 | 973 | 8% |
| 25-34 | 9,761 | 7,739 | 2,022 | 18% |
| 35-44 | 14,610 | 11,511 | 3,099 | 27% |
| 45-54 | 13,600 | 11,109 | 2,492 | 22% |
| 55-64 | 8,999 | 7,725 | 1,274 | 11% |
| 65 and over | 8,583 | 7,948 | 635 | 6% |
| | | | | |
| Non-Boomers | 38,867 | 32,100 | 6,767 | 59% |
| Boomers | 25,363 | 20,627 | 4,736 | 41% |
| TOTAL | 64,230 | 52,727 | 11,503 | 100% |
| GENDER | | | | |
| MALE | 26,894 | 21,982 | 4,912 | 43% |
| FEMALE | 37,337 | 30,746 | 6,591 | 57% |
| TOTAL | 64,230 | 52,727 | 11,503 | 100% |
| RACE/ ETHNICITY | | | | |
| White | 55,297 | 45,751 | 9,547 | 83% |
| Black | 5,705 | 4,282 | 1,423 | 12% |
| Asian | 1,992 | 1,714 | 278 | 2% |
| Other | 433 | 349 | 84 | 1% |
| Multi-racial | 802 | 632 | 170 | 1% |
| TOTAL | 64,230 | 52,727 | 11,503 | 100% |
| | | | | |
| Hispanic | 4,406 | 3,745 | 660 | 6% |
| Non-Hispanic | 59,824 | 48,982 | 10,842 | 94% |
| TOTAL | 64,230 | 52,727 | 11,503 | 100% |
| EDUCATION LEVELS (25 YEARS AND OVER) | | | | |
| Less than a high-school diploma | 2,797 | 2,549 | 247 | 3% |
| High school graduates, no college | 12,413 | 10,614 | 1,799 | 19% |
| Less than a bachelor's degree | 16,234 | 13,262 | 2,973 | 31% |
| College graduates | 24,110 | 19,606 | 4,504 | 47% |
| TOTAL | 55,554 | 46,032 | 9,522 | 100% |
| PRESENCE OF CHILDREN | | | | |
| Without own children <18 | 40,193 | 34,086 | 6,107 | 53% |
| With own children <18 | 24,037 | 18,641 | 5,396 | 47% |
| TOTAL | 64,230 | 52,727 | 11,503 | 100% |
| EMPLOYMENT | | | | |
| Full-time | 34,623 | 27,848 | 6,775 | 59% |
| Part-time | 9,517 | 7,598 | 1,919 | 17% |
| Not Working | 20,090 | 17,281 | 2,809 | 24% |
| TOTAL | 64,230 | 52,727 | 11,503 | 100% |
| VOLUNTEER ACTIVITIES | | | | |
| One activity | 32,980 | 31,458 | 1,522 | 13% |
| Two or more activities | 31,250 | 21,269 | 9,981 | 87% |
| TOTAL | 64,230 | 52,727 | 11,503 | 100% |
| ORGANIZATION TYPE | | | | |
| Religious org. | 22,548 | 17,696 | 4,851 | 42% |
| Educational | 15,686 | 12,086 | 3,600 | 31% |
| Youth Services | 1,376 | 639 | 737 | 6% |
| Sports or hobby | 1,120 | 941 | 179 | 2% |
| Social and community service/ Civic | 11,272 | 10,083 | 1,189 | 10% |
| Political, advocacy, Union, Business | 1,229 | 1,168 | 61 | 1% |
| Health-oriented | 4,951 | 4,703 | 248 | 2% |
| Other | 5,600 | 5,032 | 569 | 5% |
| TOTAL | 63,781 | 52,347 | 11,434 | 100% |
| ROUTE TO VOLUNTEERING | | | | |
| Approached the organization | 26,152 | 21,478 | 4,674 | 41% |
| Was asked | 27,907 | 23,217 | 4,690 | 41% |
| Other | 9,392 | 7,373 | 2,018 | 18% |
| TOTAL | 63,451 | 52,068 | 11,383 | 100% |
| VOLUNTEER FREQUENCY | | | | |
| Episodic volunteers (0-2 weeks per year) | 14,201 | 12,917 | 1,283 | 12% |
| Occasional volunteers (3-11 weeks per year) | 14,434 | 12,143 | 2,291 | 21% |
| Regular volunteers (12 or more weeks per year) | 31,634 | 24,270 | 7,364 | 67% |
| TOTAL | 60,269 | 49,330 | 10,939 | 100% |
| | | | | |
| Annual Median Volunteer Hours | 52 | 40 | 80 | N/A |

Note: Because of non-responses totals for each category will differ.

| TABLE 2. PREDICTED PROBABILITIES FOR VOLUNTEERS AND MENTORS BY SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS FROM PROBIT MODELS | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | volunteer MODEL | | | mentor MODEL | | |
| Variables and Categories | Predicted Prob. | Low | High | Predicted Prob. | Low | High |
| **AGE** | | | | | | |
| Age: 16 to 19 | 43.2% | 40.7% | 45.7% | 19.6% | 15.7% | 23.6% |
| Age: 20 to 24 | 20.1% | 18.5% | 21.7% | 22.4% | 18.6% | 26.3% |
| Age: 25 to 34 | 20.2% | 19.1% | 21.3% | 13.7% | 11.9% | 15.5% |
| Age: 35 to 44 | 26.0% | 24.9% | 27.1% | 11.6% | 10.1% | 13.1% |
| Age: 45 to 54 | 27.5% | 26.4% | 28.6% | 9.7% | 8.4% | 10.9% |
| Age: 55 to 64 | 28.5% | 27.2% | 29.9% | 8.0% | 6.7% | 9.4% |
| Age: 65 and over | 28.4% | 26.6% | 30.2% | 5.3% | 4.0% | 6.6% |
| **GENDER** | | | | | | |
| Female | 29.9% | 29.3% | 30.6% | 10.1% | 9.2% | 10.9% |
| Male | 23.0% | 22.3% | 23.6% | 11.9% | 10.8% | 12.9% |
| **RACE/ ETHNICITY** | | | | | | |
| White or Haw/Pac | 27.8% | 27.3% | 28.3% | 10.5% | 9.8% | 11.2% |
| Black | 23.4% | 21.9% | 24.9% | 16.1% | 13.3% | 18.9% |
| Asian | 13.8% | 12.1% | 15.5% | 8.0% | 5.1% | 10.8% |
| American Indian, Alaskan Native | 22.4% | 18.6% | 26.2% | 6.7% | 2.8% | 10.6% |
| More than one race category | 33.1% | 28.1% | 38.2% | 14.9% | 7.3% | 22.6% |
| Latino | 17.1% | 15.9% | 18.4% | 9.3% | 7.1% | 11.6% |
| Non-Latino | 28.0% | 27.5% | 28.5% | 10.9% | 10.2% | 11.6% |
| **EDUCATION** | | | | | | |
| Less than HS Diploma | 14.9% | 14.0% | 15.8% | 8.4% | 6.3% | 10.5% |
| HS Grad | 20.2% | 19.5% | 20.9% | 9.4% | 8.2% | 10.6% |
| Some college | 30.5% | 29.6% | 31.5% | 11.2% | 10.0% | 12.4% |
| College grad + | 42.1% | 41.1% | 43.2% | 12.1% | 11.0% | 13.2% |
| **INCOME** | | | | | | |
| Income: Missing | 21.4% | 20.3% | 22.5% | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| Income: Less than $35,000 | 23.2% | 22.4% | 24.0% | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| Income: Between $35-$50,000 | 26.9% | 25.7% | 28.2% | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| Income: Between $50-$75,000 | 29.6% | 28.5% | 30.7% | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| Income: $75,000 and over | 32.2% | 31.1% | 33.2% | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| **PRESENCE OF CHILDREN** | | | | | | |
| Own children under 18 | 34.2% | 33.1% | 35.3% | 11.7% | 10.5% | 13.0% |
| No own children under 18 | 23.6% | 23.0% | 24.1% | 10.3% | 9.4% | 11.2% |
| **MARITAL STATUS** | | | | | | |
| Married | 28.3% | 27.6% | 29.0% | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| Divorced | 24.1% | 22.7% | 25.5% | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| Widowed | 24.9% | 23.0% | 26.9% | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| Separated or never been married | 24.3% | 23.2% | 25.4% | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| **EMPLOYMENT STATUS** | | | | | | |
| Employed, full-time | 25.7% | 25.0% | 26.4% | 11.8% | 10.8% | 12.8% |
| Employed, part-time | 34.4% | 33.0% | 35.9% | 10.6% | 9.1% | 12.1% |
| Not in labor force: Retired | 26.2% | 24.6% | 27.9% | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| Not in labor force: Disabled | 14.5% | 12.8% | 16.3% | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| Not in labor force (other or unemployed) | 28.3% | 27.0% | 29.5% | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| Not in labor force for any reason | N/A | N/A | N/A | 9.3% | 8.2% | 10.4 % |
| **REGION** | | | | | | |
| East | 22.2% | 21.2% | 23.1% | 10.0% | 8.5% | 11.5% |
| Midwest | 29.6% | 28.6% | 30.5% | 10.2% | 9.1% | 11.3% |
| South | 26.1% | 25.4% | 26.9% | 10.4% | 9.3% | 11.5% |
| West | 27.7% | 26.7% | 28.6% | 12.8% | 11.4% | 14.1% |
| **NUMBER OF VOLUNTEER ACTIVITIES** | | | | | | |
| One activity | N/A | N/A | N/A | 3.5% | 3.0% | 3.9% |
| Two activities | N/A | N/A | N/A | 13.1% | 11.7% | 14.5% |
| Three activities | N/A | N/A | N/A | 23.2% | 20.9% | 25.6% |
| Four or more activities | N/A | N/A | N/A | 49.6% | 47.4% | 51.8% |
| **TYPE OF ORGANIZATION** | | | | | | |
| Main org: Civic, pol, prof, int'l | N/A | N/A | N/A | 6.3% | 4.5% | 8.1% |
| Main org: Education, youth service | N/A | N/A | N/A | 17.6% | 16.0% | 19.2% |
| Main org: Religious | N/A | N/A | N/A | 12.7% | 11.6% | 13.8% |
| Main org: Social / community service | N/A | N/A | N/A | 7.4% | 6.0% | 8.8% |
| Main org: All other types | N/A | N/A | N/A | 5.4% | 4.4% | 6.5% |
| **HOW RESPONDENT BECAME INVOLVED WITH MAIN ORGANIZATION** | | | | | | |
| How R got inv: Approached org | N/A | N/A | N/A | 11.3% | 10.3% | 12.3% |
| How R got inv: Other way | N/A | N/A | N/A | 12.2% | 10.5% | 13.8% |
| How R got inv: Someone asked R | | | | 9.9% | 9.0% | 10.8% |

"Not included" indicates that the variable was dropped from the final version of the mentoring model because of statistical insignificance. "N/A" indicates the variable was not included in the volunteering model, because non-volunteers were not asked to respond to the question. "Low" and "high" entries are based on 99% confidence intervals constructed using the delta method. See notes 13 and 14.

| Table 3: Probit Model to Predict which Volunteers will be Mentors | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Category | Coefficient | Standard Error | Z-score | P-value |
| | | | | |
| 16 to 19 | Reference Category | | | |
| 20 to 24 | 0.097 | 0.07 | 1.33 | 0.182 |
| 25 to 34 | -0.239 | 0.07 | -3.57 | P < 0.001 |
| 35 to 44 | -0.342 | 0.07 | -5.13 | P < 0.001 |
| 45 to 54 | -0.447 | 0.06 | -6.9 | P < 0.001 |
| 55 to 64 | -0.547 | 0.07 | -8.41 | P < 0.001 |
| 65 and over | -0.766 | 0.07 | -11.31 | P < 0.001 |
| Female | -0.095 | 0.03 | -3.69 | P < 0.001 |
| Male | Reference Category | | | |
| Race: White or Haw/Pac | Reference Category | | | |
| Race: Black | 0.264 | 0.05 | 5.75 | P < 0.001 |
| Race: Asian | -0.151 | 0.08 | -2 | 0.045 |
| Race: American Indian, Alaskan Native | -0.243 | 0.12 | -2.08 | 0.037 |
| More than one race category | 0.215 | 0.13 | 1.69 | 0.09 |
| Latino | -0.09 | 0.05 | -1.68 | 0.094 |
| Non-Latino | Reference Category | | | |
| Education: Less than HS Diploma | Reference Category | | | |
| Education: HS Grad | 0.059 | 0.06 | 1.04 | 0.3 |
| Education: Some college | 0.163 | 0.06 | 2.84 | 0.005 |
| Education: College grad + | 0.208 | 0.06 | 3.58 | P < 0.001 |
| Own children under 18 | 0.076 | 0.03 | 2.35 | 0.019 |
| No own children under 18 | Reference Category | | | |
| Employed, full-time | 0.14 | 0.03 | 4.19 | P < 0.001 |
| Employed, part-time | 0.075 | 0.04 | 1.93 | 0.054 |
| Not in labor force or unemployed | Reference Category | | | |
| One activity | -1.808 | 0.03 | -56.48 | P < 0.001 |
| Two activities | -1.111 | 0.03 | -33.52 | P < 0.001 |
| Three activities | -0.722 | 0.04 | -19.83 | P < 0.001 |
| Four or more activities | Reference Category | | | |
| Main org: Civic, pol, prof, int'l | 0.073 | 0.07 | 1.11 | 0.266 |
| Main org: Education, youth service | 0.674 | 0.04 | 15.88 | P < 0.001 |
| Main org: Religious | 0.463 | 0.04 | 11.48 | P < 0.001 |
| Main org: Social / community service | 0.157 | 0.05 | 3.05 | 0.002 |
| Main org: All other types | Reference Category | | | |
| How R got inv: Approached org | 0.074 | 0.03 | 2.81 | 0.005 |
| How R got inv: Other way | 0.118 | 0.04 | 3.36 | 0.001 |
| How R got inv: Someone asked R | Reference Category | | | |
| Region: East | Reference Category | | | |
| Region: Midwest | 0.012 | 0.04 | 0.32 | 0.749 |
| Region: South | 0.022 | 0.04 | 0.56 | 0.578 |
| Region: West | 0.143 | 0.04 | 3.58 | P < 0.001 |
| Constant | -0.299 | 0.07 | -4.18 | P < 0.001 |
| | | | | |
| OBSERVATIONS | 27564 | | | |
| WALD CHI-SQUARED | 4009.64 | | | |
| Prob.> CHI-SQUARE | p < 0.001 | | | |
| PSEUDO R2 | 0.2698 | | | |
| LOG PSEUDO LIKELIHOOD | -9299.3753 | | | |
| % PREDICTED CORRECTLY | | | | |
| At Baseline | 82.3% | | | |
| By Model | 85.0% | | | |
| Proportional Reduction in Error (PRE) | 15.0% | | | |

| Table 4: Probit Model to Predict which Adults will be Volunteers | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Category | Coefficient | Standard Error | Z-score | P-value |
| Age: 16 to 19 | Reference Category | | | |
| Age: 20 to 24 | -0.666 | 0.03 | -22 | P < 0.001 |
| Age: 25 to 34 | -0.663 | 0.029 | -23.09 | P < 0.001 |
| Age: 35 to 44 | -0.472 | 0.029 | -16.17 | P < 0.001 |
| Age: 45 to 54 | -0.426 | 0.029 | -14.61 | P < 0.001 |
| Age: 55 to 64 | -0.395 | 0.031 | -12.79 | P < 0.001 |
| Age: 65 and over | -0.399 | 0.035 | -11.4 | P < 0.001 |
| Female | 0.214 | 0.011 | 19.37 | P < 0.001 |
| Male | Reference Category | | | |
| Race: White or Haw/Pac | Reference Category | | | |
| Race:  Black | -0.136 | 0.02 | -6.91 | P < 0.001 |
| Race:  Asian | -0.5 | 0.03 | -16.86 | P < 0.001 |
| Race: American Indian, Alaskan Native | -0.169 | 0.049 | -3.43 | 0.001 |
| More than one race category | 0.154 | 0.053 | 2.89 | 0.004 |
| Latino | -0.367 | 0.02 | -18.7 | P < 0.001 |
| Non-Latino | Reference Category | | | |
| Education: Less than HS Diploma | Reference Category | | | |
| Education: HS Grad | 0.206 | 0.018 | 11.21 | P < 0.001 |
| Education: Some college | 0.532 | 0.019 | 28 | P < 0.001 |
| Education: College grad + | 0.842 | 0.02 | 42.3 | P < 0.001 |
| Income:  Missing | -0.06 | 0.018 | -3.38 | 0.001 |
| Income:  Less than $35,000 | Reference Category | | | |
| Income:  Between $35-$50,000 | 0.117 | 0.018 | 6.55 | P < 0.001 |
| Income:  Between $50-$75,000 | 0.196 | 0.017 | 11.74 | P < 0.001 |
| Income:  $75,000 and over | 0.27 | 0.016 | 16.56 | P < 0.001 |
| Own children under 18 | 0.313 | 0.015 | 21.39 | P < 0.001 |
| No own children under 18 | Reference Category | | | |
| Married | 0.123 | 0.017 | 7.13 | P < 0.001 |
| Divorced | -0.007 | 0.023 | -0.31 | 0.756 |
| Widowed | 0.02 | 0.029 | 0.69 | 0.489 |
| Separated or never been married | Reference Category | | | |
| Employed, full-time | -0.079 | 0.017 | -4.72 | P < 0.001 |
| Employed, part-time | 0.174 | 0.02 | 8.59 | P < 0.001 |
| Not in labor force: Retired | -0.061 | 0.026 | -2.36 | 0.018 |
| Not in labor force: Disabled | -0.481 | 0.034 | -14.1 | P < 0.001 |
| Unemployed or Not in labor force for other reasons | Reference Category | | | |
| Region: East | Reference Category | | | |
| Region: Midwest | 0.23 | 0.016 | 14.14 | P < 0.001 |
| Region: South | 0.128 | 0.016 | 8.11 | P < 0.001 |
| Region: West | 0.173 | 0.017 | 10.37 | P < 0.001 |
| Constant | -0.948 | 0.028 | -34.45 | P < 0.001 |
| | | | | |
| OBSERVATIONS | 91467 | | | |
| WALD CHI-SQUARED | 7907.2 | | | |
| Prob.> CHI-SQUARE | P < 0.001 | | | |
| PSEUDO R2 | 0.1051 | | | |
| LOG PSEUDO LIKELIHOOD | -49162.532 | | | |
| % PREDICTED CORRECTLY | | | | |
| At Baseline | 69.2% | | | |
| By Model | 71.6% | | | |
| Proportional Reduction in Error | 7.9% | | | |
| (PRE) | | | | |

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