

SOMEONE LIKE ME: EXPLORING RACE MENTORING AND ITS IMPACT
ON RETENTION AND CAMPUS CLIMATE AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my father. Thank you for all the love, strength, courage, memories, and support that made this possible. I guess God needed you more than we did. I love you Dad.

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ABSTRACT

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SOMEONE LIKE ME: EXPLORING RACE MENTORING AND ITS IMPACT ON RETENTION AND CAMPUS CLIMATE AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS

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Institutions of higher learning have seen increased pressure to improve retention and graduation rates. Funding, institutional prestige, and recruitment are often tied to retention and graduation rates, motivating institutions to increase persistence rates. One way of addressing minority student persistence is to provide students with mentors. Existing literature insufficiently addresses racial mentoring and persistence at the collegiate level with a focus on campus climate. This dissertation examines racialized mentor relationships and factors that impact college persistence towards degree attainment, cultural climate, and racial efficacy among college students at a university that predominantly serves women.

Four research questions guided this study. First, is there a difference in college student success between students who received same-race mentoring and those who received cross-race mentoring? Second, how does broad-racial group membership interact with racial mentoring to affect college student success? Third, is there a difference in cultural climate experiences between those students who have same-race mentors and those who have cross-race

mentors? Finally, how does collective racial efficacy interact with racial mentoring to affect college student success?

The study uses a cross-sectional design and focuses on the importance of mentoring students at Texas Woman's University, the largest public university in the U.S., primarily for women. I used the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership Survey. Results show that more college students select mentors within their race, yet there was no statistical relationship predicting student success, cultural climate, or racial efficacy. In addition, evidence of relationships that indicate that racial mentoring importance to student sense of belonging and academic success.

This dissertation contributes to the sociology of education and ethnic studies fields. In addition, the theoretical framework proposed in this study integrates cultural capital and social capital theory and offers a structure appropriate for predicting student success and persistence of college students. Findings yield significant implications for improving college persistence and future work on same-race and cross-race mentoring. Finally, this study may help generate programs and policies that will enhance the accessibility of higher education, particularly for minority students. Other practical contributions include specific retention approaches and models for universities, mentor strategies, and relationship building mechanisms for sociocultural diverse college students.

Table of Contents

| | |
|---|-----|
| DEDICATION | ii |
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS..... | iii |
| ABSTRACT | v |
| LIST OF TABLES | ix |
| Chapter | |
| I. INTRODUCTION..... | 1 |
| The Research Problem | 4 |
| Significance of Study..... | 5 |
| Organization of Dissertation..... | 7 |
| II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE | 8 |
| Literature Review | 8 |
| Women’s Institutions..... | 11 |
| Cultural Climate..... | 13 |
| Racial Efficacy..... | 15 |
| Cultural Competency..... | 16 |
| Mentoring | 18 |
| Theoretical Framework..... | 23 |
| Overview of Research Questions and Hypothesis | 27 |
| III. DATA AND METHODS..... | 29 |
| Research Questions and Hypothesis..... | 29 |
| Data and Sample | 30 |
| Variables | 31 |
| Dependent Variables | 31 |
| Independent Variables | 33 |
| Data Analysis..... | 35 |
| Limitations of Data | 36 |

| | |
|---|----|
| IV. RESULTS | 38 |
| Descriptive Statistics | 38 |
| One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) T-Test, Chi-Square and T-Test Analysis | 40 |
| Year-One Persistence | 41 |
| Year-Two Persistence | 42 |
| Summary..... | 47 |
| V. DISCUSSION..... | 50 |
| Summary of Findings | 50 |
| Implications of the Findings..... | 52 |
| Limitations and Future Research | 54 |
| REFERENCES | 57 |
| APPENDICES | |
| A. Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) 2015 Questions Used for Study | 65 |
| B. Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) 2018 Questions Used for Study | 78 |

LIST OF TABLES

Table

| | |
|---|----|
| 1. Descriptive Statistics for Dataset, MSL Cohorts Fall 2014 and Fall 2017 | 39 |
| 2. Means and Standard Deviation for GPA by Race Mentor Groups | 41 |
| 3. Statistical Estimates Predicting Persistence by Mentor Selection | 43 |
| 4. Summary of Analysis Predicting Persistence by Racial Groups | 44 |
| 5. Means and Standard Deviation for Cultural Climate and Racial Efficacy by Race Mentor Groups | 46 |

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Institutions of higher learning have seen increased pressure to improve retention and graduation rates (Sciarra, Seirup, and Sposato 2016). Funding, institutional prestige, and recruitment are often tied to retention and graduation rates, motivating institutions to increase persistence rates (Sciarra et al. 2016; Tinto 2016). Of interest to this project is the persistence of minority students.

One way of addressing minority student persistence is to provide students with mentors. Students who have mentors tend to have higher academic achievement, especially those students who are members of an ethnic minority and female (Blake-Beard et al. 2011; Lockwood 2006; Strayhorn and Terrell 2007). Mentoring has increased minority students' willingness to maintain the course in higher education, earn a master's degree, and be more likely to become professionals in the field of student affairs or academia (Strayhorn and Terrell 2007). The positive experience of mentoring can expand from the mentors to colleagues and to eventually have an impact on the institution itself (Strayhorn and Terrell 2007).

Minorities who achieve success often feel the expectation of serving as role models to other members of their racial/ethnic group (Lockwood 2006).

Likewise, administrators often assume that students will be encouraged and inspired to achieve success if they know someone like themselves who has achieved success and to strive for similar accomplishments (Lockwood 2006).

Mentor relationships are interpersonal experiences between a mentor and a junior protégé in which the mentor provides support in their career, guidance, advice, and role modeling to the protégé (Hu, Thomas, and Lance 2008; Lockwood 2006; and Blake-Beard et al. 2011). People most often self-select mentoring relationships with those who are most likely to provide benefits (Gaddis 2012). Researchers have consistently drawn connections from mentor research. One study found that the more influential the mentor relationship and the higher the relationship quality with mentors, the greater the likelihood of academic success, and retention (Blake-Beard et al. 2011).

There is an assumption among educational stakeholders that protégés will have greater success with same-race mentoring (Blake-Beard et al. 2011; Gaddis 2012; Strayhorn and Johnson 2014) as compared to those with cross-race mentoring. Yet cross-racial interactions are also meaningful and can increase a sense of belonging. The difficulty of interacting primarily with members of one's own racial/ethnic group could be problematic as it limits opportunities for cultural development or preparation of students for equal, active, and full participation in a diverse democracy.

Existing literature insufficiently addresses racial mentoring and persistence at the collegiate level with a focus on campus climate (Blake-Beard

et al. 2011; Gaddis 2012). While there has been much research on mentoring in general, my specific research interest is in mentoring based on race/ethnicity and the impact it has on college student success, specifically student persistence, campus climate, and racial efficacy (Blake-Beard et al. 2011; Gaddis 2012). Given the importance of student persistence toward graduation, I investigated mentor relationships and the influential factors that impact college persistence. Research in persistence with a focus on race mentoring relationships could potentially contribute to best practice frameworks to enhance retention programs for minority initiatives, and overall institutional best practices on campus climate, and racial efficacy.

The study used a cross-sectional design and focused on the importance of mentoring students at Texas Woman's University, the largest public university in the U.S. primarily for women. This unique environment provides additional insights into the contextual factors associated with mentoring and student persistence. As more significant numbers of women earn college degrees than men, I focused on an institution primarily for women to further explore student persistence and to make recommendations for research and practice (Barnes 2014, Kao and Thompson 2003; National Center for Educational Statistics [NCES] 2018).

THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The purpose of this dissertation was to examine racialized mentor relationships and factors that impact college persistence towards degree attainment, cultural climate, and racial efficacy among college students at a university that predominantly serves women.

Much of the scholarship on collegiate student persistence uses the term *retention* and *persistence* interchangeably. Retention is usually used as a benchmark in determining institutional quality, based on the percentage of students retained in specific cohorts (Reason 2009). This term is also a measurement of enrollment. The term persistence is meant more as an individual occurrence, and it usually measures whether a student continues to achieve a set goal (Reason 2009)

Four research questions guided this study. First, is there a difference in college student success between students who received same-race mentoring and those who received cross-race mentoring? Second, how does broad-racial group membership interact with racial mentoring to affect college student success? Third, is there a difference in cultural climate experiences between those students who have same-race mentors and those who have cross-race mentors? Finally, how does collective racial efficacy interact with racial mentoring to affect college student success?

SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

Higher education is a pathway to economic empowerment for the thousands of students who pursue postsecondary education. However, degree completion rates are somewhat discouraging for students in general and even more so for minority populations such as African American students (Kao and Thompson 2003; Lee 1999; Hurd et al. 2012). A large amount of research on mentoring has led to the suggestion that those relationships should be focused specifically on race but they ignore broad campus climate questions. Previous censuses have found that the Latinx/Hispanic population continues to grow at a rapid pace but continues to fall behind in persistence and attainment rates (Kao and Thompson 2003; Reason 2009).

This dissertation contributes to the sociology of education and ethnic studies fields in four ways. First, it will be the first quantitative, comparative study of college persistence and race mentoring of college students from an institution primarily for women. This unique environment may have unexpected effects. Current studies of college persistence, student success, and mentoring cannot be generalized to race mentoring. Unlike existing studies, this dissertation focuses on college persistence, student success, and racial mentoring. It uses a quantitative approach and a representative sample to test key determinants of persistence, and student success. The implications of this study are broad and interdisciplinary in nature.

Second, the theoretical framework proposed in this dissertation will integrate cultural capital and social capital theory and offer a structure appropriate for predicting student success and persistence of college students. Findings will contribute to an in-depth understanding of factors that may hinder socially diverse students in the post-secondary arena. Specifically, findings will add to the growing body of literature centered on racial mentoring, racial efficacy, and cultural climate, as well as student efficacy.

Third, the findings of this study will yield significant implications for improving college persistence and future work on same-race and cross-race mentoring. Examining the needs of diverse groups, which initiates retention and mentoring programs, needs further exploration (Kao and Thompson 2003; Sanchez et al. 2005). Although much has been written about diversified mentoring relationships, both same-race mentoring, and cross-race mentoring have phases of initiation, cultivation, separation, and redefinition (Hu et al. 2008). Mentoring is a potent source of support for ethnic minority students and is also a determinant for nurturing relationships in general for all students (Blake-Beard 2011; Hu et al. 2008).

Finally, the results of this study may help generate programs and policies that will enhance the accessibility of higher education, particularly for minority students. Other practical contributions include specific retention approaches and models for universities, mentor strategies, and relationship building mechanisms for sociocultural diverse college students.

ORGANIZATION OF DISSERTATION

This dissertation is arranged into five chapters. Chapter Two reviews the literature on race mentoring and college retention and persistence. This chapter also discusses significant themes that have informed the structure of this study, including a theoretical framework, cultural climate, and racial efficacy. Chapter Three describes the data, sample, variables, measurements, methods, and analytical strategies used for this study. Chapter Four presents the findings of the data analysis, with commentary on the impact of race mentoring on college persistence, student success, cultural climate, and racial efficacy. It also presents resemblances and differences in race mentoring. Chapter Five summarizes the study's significant findings, discusses the implications of the results, highlights the contributions and limitations of this study, and provides recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

LITERATURE REVIEW

College students often experience different mentoring experiences. The literature review addresses mentoring relationships among race mentoring, perspectives, and gaps as it related to academic student success. Race, ethnicity, and culture have implications on mentoring relationships and helps guide rising themes in the literature. Themes founds within the literature review include history and persistence among women's institutions, cultural climate, racial efficacy, cultural competency, mentoring, social capital and cultural capital.

Attaining a higher education degree creates a pathway to upward social mobility and lessens social inequality (Eller and DiPrete 2018). The gap between persistence and degree completion is still significant and stratified by race, gender, and class in the United States (Eller and DiPrete 2018; Kao and Thompson 2003; NCES 2018). Only 60 percent of first-time undergraduate degree students obtain a bachelor's degree within six years of initial college entry (NCES 2018). As the number of racial minority students increases in higher education, these students are still underrepresented in educational institutions (Strayhorn and Terrell 2007). A growing number of minority students are enrolling

in higher education but continue to see challenges, and without the support systems they may not attain a degree (Kao and Thompson 2003; Strayhorn and Terrell 2007). According to the NCES, the number of postsecondary degrees awarded to ethnic minority students increased between 2003-2004 and 2013-2014, certifications by 41 percent (from 688,000 to 969,000), associate's degrees by 51 percent (from 665,000 to 1.0 million), bachelor's degrees by 34 percent (from 1.4 million to 1.9 million), master's degrees by 34 percent (from 564,000 to 754,000), and doctoral degrees by 41 percent (from 126,000 to 178,000; NCES 2018). The number of degrees for Black students increased by 46 percent during the same period as compared to only a 19 percent increase for White students (NCES 2018). In general, most of the undergraduate degrees awarded during the 2013-2014 academic year were awarded to ethnic minority women. In other words, 64 percent of Black female students earned a bachelor's degree, 61 percent of American Indian/Alaska Native female students, 60 percent of Hispanic female students and students of two or more races as compared to 56 percent for White female students (NCES 2018). Previous census data found that the Latinx/Hispanic population continues to grow at a rapid pace but continues to fall behind in persistence and attainment rates (Kao and Thompson 2003; Reason 2009).

Regions and institutions have responded to changing demographic trends in enrollment in many ways. Texas, for example, has approached its increasing student enrollment targets and projections by using a tactical approach primarily

by developing partnerships with institutions and other stakeholders to develop strategies for student success and completion (Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board [THECB] 2018).

Institutions and communities are growing in student population and intentionally developing strategies to ensure there is a pathway to student success, which leads to a skilled workforce (THECB 2018). Since the early 21st century, there has been a growth in the number of minority undergraduate enrollment in postsecondary institutions (Flores and Park 2013; Kao and Thompson 2003). By 2012, a change in demographics occurred among U.S. colleges and universities where Hispanic students replaced African American students as the largest minority student group attending postsecondary institutions (Flores and Park 2013; Kao and Thompson 2003). The shift in demographics also affected access to college, student experience, and completion rates, which continue to show gaps among various races and ethnicities (Flores and Park 2013; Kao and Thompson 2003).

With the continued growth in enrollment, there has been an increase in the number of postsecondary degrees awarded, especially across minority student groups (Flores and Park 2013; Kao and Thompson 2003; NCES 2018). Generally, the largest share of all undergraduate degrees and certificates have been awarded to females. During the 2013-2014 academic year, Black female students earned 64 percent of bachelor's degrees awarded to Black students, 61

percent for American Indian/Alaska Native students were female, and 60 percent for Hispanic students were female (NCES 2018). The number of Hispanic Serving Institutions has grown from 189 in 1994 to 492 in 2017, which is also an indication of the growing number of Hispanic and minorities enrolling in higher education (Excelencia in Education 2018).

WOMEN'S INSTITUTIONS

A woman's education is essential for initiating social and economic change in a global society (Renn 2012). Nancy Pelosi, Hillary Clinton, and Madeleine Albright are strong, powerful women who attended women's institutions (Sundquist 2018). Women's institutions have decreased in numbers but remain vital in women's education (Kratzok 2010; Renn 2012). While there used to be more than 230 women's institutions, there are fewer than 40 remaining today (Sundquist 2018). Women's institutions were founded in the early 19th century with the idea of giving women more educational opportunities. There were initially seven all-women colleges, known as the "Seven Sisters," which included Barnard College, Bryn Mawr College, Mount Holyoke College, Radcliffe, Smith College, Vassar College, and Wellesley College (Berlinsky-Schine 2016; Berlinsky-Schine 2018). This designation was established because of their affiliation with their Ivy League male-college counterparts (Berlinsky-Schine 2016; Berlinsky-Schine 2018). Today, five of the seven are still all-women's led colleges, while two have either merged with other universities or become co-ed colleges. Radcliffe College

began its merger with Harvard College in 1977 and completed it in 1999. Vassar College became a co-educational institution in 1969 (Berlinsky-Schine 2018).

Women's institutions are more racially and socio-economically diverse than co-educational peer institutions (Renn 2012). Students who attend women's colleges feel more supported on campus and have successfully progressed academically (Kratzok 2010; Reason 2009). More women are graduating from college than men, with only 2 percent of college graduates attending women's colleges (Barnes 2014). Women's colleges graduate leaders who hold positions in Fortune 1000 company boards, members of Congress, and who are rising business leaders (Barnes 2014; Renn 2012). Graduates also have greater self-reliance due to the rigorous academic demands of women's colleges (Barnes 2014; Reason 2009). Role models are critical for success in science and math, and women's colleges provide a strong pool of faculty to work and mentor students (Barnes 2014).

Despite gains women have made in college attainment, they still face barriers of social inequality. Women can depend on women's colleges for a supportive environment, and influential role models with strong core values to influence economic and social change (Barnes 2014; Reason 2009; Renn 2012).

CULTURAL CLIMATE

Cultural perceptions and internalized racism influence how we see the world. There is a need to better understand the increasingly diverse groups that are the focus of mentor programs and initiatives in the United States (Sanchez et al. 2005). The role of race, ethnicity, and culture in mentoring is essential, but there are differences between these terms.

Race and ethnicity have distinct meanings yet are often used interchangeably (Sanchez et al. 2005; Yang 2000). Race is a social construct, and individuals are assigned to racial categories based on physical characteristics. Race has been used to maintain social hierarchies in societies (Sanchez et al. 2005; Yang 2000). Sanchez, et al. (2005) define ethnicity as groups of people who share common cultural traits, such as language, history, religion, ancestry, traditions, and beliefs. Culture includes the beliefs, values, ways of thinking, and acting that are learned by individuals, and transmitted to others (Sanchez et al. 2005; Yang 2000).

Researchers typically compare racial groups on a variety of behaviors and assume that any differences between the groups are likely cultural, ethnic membership, or biological characteristics. However, Reason (2009) and Sanchez et al. (2005) caution mentor researchers to avoid this mistake as it ignores the complexity of race, ethnicity, and culture. Being attentive to the construct of the various cultural or racial groups is essential. For example, a mentor and a

protégé may be perceived as being from the same race, such as Black. Still, they may be of different ethnicities, such as African American, Kenyan, or Puerto Rican. Making racial and ethnic assumptions can impact program development and trust in mentor relationships (Sanchez et al. 2005). These are some racial, ethnic, and cultural issues to keep in mind in mentoring (Sanchez et al. 2005).

The similarity-attraction paradigm argues that given the opportunity to choose their mentors', youth will more often select mentors of the same race and ethnicity (Sanchez et al. 2005; Ortiz-Walters and Gilson 2005). The similarity-attraction between individuals is in attitudes and personality, and thus, individuals are attracted to those like themselves, according to Sanchez et al. (2005). Hu, et al. (2008) suggest that demographic similarity in race, sex, or age generates a positive impression and a mutual attraction, which leads to positive interactions. In contrast, demographic dissimilarity can create negative feelings and discomfort, which may result in the withdrawal of individuals. Sanchez et al.'s (2005) research also suggest that those who have relationships with mentors of similar racial, ethnic, and cultural backgrounds are expected to be more successful than those mentees of different backgrounds (Sanchez et al. 2005). There is evidence that racial/ethnic similarities have an overall effect on retention in various studies conducted in clinical and therapy sessions. However, sample sizes were small, and there were no differences in psychological functioning between clients in racially similar relationships (Sanchez et al. 2005). Sanchez et

al. (2005) and Ortiz-Walters and Gilson (2005) recommend matching mentors and protégé by shared interests for better program effectiveness.

RACIAL EFFICACY

Racial identity and ethnic identity play a significant role in youth development. Research indicates that a strong ethnic identity contributes to positive academic, psychological, and social outcomes among ethnic minority youth (Sanchez et al. 2005; Hurd et al. 2012). Racial identity is an individual's internalization of his/her racial socialization, which may include the individual's feelings and thoughts of discrimination (Sanchez et al. 2005). This internalization could also consist of what it means to be a particular race (Sanchez et al. 2005).

Ethnic identity refers to a sense of belonging to a specific cultural group and participation within that group, without regard to one's particular racial group (Sanchez et al. 2005; Hurd et al. 2012). Hurd et al. (2012) define racial identity as a multidimensional construct that represents individual perceptions of the importance and meaning of race in their own lives. Sanchez et al (2005) assert that mentoring can have a positive outcome, including identity development, because youths internalize change, identify with their mentors, and see them as role models. Furthermore, the social opportunities provided by the mentor may help facilitate identity development, especially for youth who are in the same race/ethnic relationships because they relate with their mentors (Sanchez et al. 2005; Hurd et al. 2012).

Internalized racism may lead to weak racial/ethnic identity and influence mentor preference and relationships. Racial and ethnic identity studies have positive impacts on racial identity when having natural mentor relationships. These results includes public regard (perceptions of how others view their race), private regard (feeling about own race), and racial centrality (how central race is to one's identity; Sanchez et al. 2005; Hurd et al. 2012). Program evaluation research found that Latina adolescents paired with Latina college student mentors had an increase in ethnic identity by the end of program participation. Although the findings were not statistically significant because of the small sample size, girls in the culturally tailored mentoring program had a stronger ethnic identity compared to those in the traditional program (Sanchez et al. 2005). Furthermore, mentoring programs that have cultural features may facilitate racial/ethnic identity development (Reason 2009; Sanchez et al. 2005).

CULTURAL COMPETENCY

Culture is a concept that varies by individual. Culture is not something that happens at a certain point in time. It evolves and shapes individual experiences (Lee 1999). Lee (1999) defines culture to be the norms and values that drive behaviors. It is a collage of languages, religions, customs.

Building relationships and working with various groups is key to an effective mentor program. Thus, cultural competence is an essential aspect of program success (Sanchez et al. 2005). Cultural competence is the ability to

work with individuals of a cultural group effectively. There are three general components discussed in the literature that guide cultural competence: (a) cultural awareness and beliefs, (b) cultural knowledge, and (c) cultural skills. In mentoring, cultural awareness involves being aware of how values and biases play a role in perceptions of mentees, including their problems and strengths (Sanchez et al. 2005). Cultural knowledge, on the other hand, involves learning the protégés' culture, views, and expectations to build strong relationships (Kao and Thompson 2003; Reason 2009; Sanchez et al. 2005).

Research pertinent to cultural competence has revealed themes related to mentor relationships, including those in cross-race mentor relationships. Mentors in these matches made efforts to get to know their mentees and their families, and they were sensitive to and respectful of cultural differences (Kao and Thompson 2003; Sanchez et al. 2005). Research suggests that mentor programs are often culturally tailored programs but fail to bridge cultural differences among participants (Sanchez et al. 2005). Intentional exchanges of cultural experiences and discussions of cultural differences within a mentor setting can enhance the quality of the mentor experience (Reason 2009; Sanchez et al. 2005). However, culturally appropriate mentor programs have been minimal and perhaps only fulfill program goals or vice versa (Reason 2009; Sanchez et al. 2005).

MENTORING

Mentoring relationships can be built on many levels to help develop pathways to success. Hu et al. (2008) reiterate the role of mentoring as an interpersonal exchange between the mentor and the protégé in which the mentor provides the protégé career advice and professional development. Blake-Beard et al. (2011) defined mentoring relationships as the occasions in which the mentor serves as a role model and provides experience in career and psychosocial concerns. For protégés, mentoring is seen as a factor in attaining personal learning, commitment, and stress management (Hu et al. 2008; Lee 1999). Mentoring has also been found to be a source of support for ethnic minority students, including those with immigration backgrounds (Blake-Beard et al. 2011). Hu et al. (2008) found that few empirical studies examined mentorship initiation directing their efforts towards voluntary mentorship.

Mentoring and role modeling are two different concepts. Role modeling is more general and more pervasive, while mentoring is more specific and actively occurring. Besides, role modeling is less formal in structure, while the role models may not be entirely aware that they are modeling their behavior (Lee 1999). Mentoring relationships are categorized by their formality (formal and informal), intentionality, and their longitudinal endurance (Hue et al. 2008; Lee 1999). Formal mentoring is organized by pairing mentors and protégés with each other, provides specific regulations, and activities associated with formal

mentoring programs (Blake-Beard et al. 2011; Hu et al. 2008; Hurd et al. 2012). Formal mentoring is becoming an institutionalized facet in universities across the country and generally targets ethnic minorities, women, and academically underrepresented populations (Lee 1999).

Motivating others to do their best and inspiring emerging leaders to follow their dreams is often a cultural cliché or expectation felt by many individuals who have experienced outstanding achievement or success (Lockwood and Kunda 1997). When an individual seems relevant, one will compare oneself to this individual and believe in the perceived attainability of that individual's success (Lockwood and Kunda 1997). For example, an African American surgeon will inspire other African Americans to go into the profession. There is an assumption that to be successful or to be encouraged by different individuals within the same race or culture one should have similar accomplishments. Thus, the need for role models, as seen for many programs, includes affirmative action programs (Kao and Thompson 2003; Lockwood 2006). Lockwood (2006) defines role models as individuals who provide an example of the kind of success that one may achieve and a template of behaviors for achieved success. It is not clear, however, that matching on dimensions such as race or gender is necessary for a role model to be relevant. It may be that those role models who are mismatched with their protégés do have an impact based on gender but to a lesser degree (Kao and Thompson 2003; Lockwood 2006).

The underlying goal for the change in culture is to enhance the institution's degree completion rate and student success. This culture change benefits student attainment of educational and career goals and increases student's completion rates (Lee 1999). Informal mentoring relationships have informal procedures and organizational incentives. Motivation is an essential factor in an informal mentoring program (Hu et al. 2008). Several factors influence the mutual interpersonal attraction, including demographic similarities and individual characteristics, which may affect mentorship initiation (Hu et al. 2008). There are also barriers to mentorship initiation that may be particularly critical for minorities in informal mentorship relationships. Among the 20 empirical studies examined by Hu et al., only one considered the effects relative to mentorship initiation. Still, it did not discuss how race similarity affects intentions to initiate mentoring, and thus was not relevant to the study (Hu et al. 2008). In addition to race selection, the degree to which one person in an informal mentorship relationship perceives the other member as being proactive may affect the development of the relationship (Hu et al. 2008). Social interaction and student engagement with mentors have been linked to a sense of belonging. Settings that are positive and related explicitly to retaining students can serve as social interactions (Kao and Thompson 2003; Lee 1999).

Research suggests that proactivity in interpersonal interactions is the most influential factor in selection decisions, along with the amount of mentoring that protégé receives. Being proactive may contradict the stereotypes associated with

individuals from specific social groups such as minority groups (Hu et al. 2008). Proactivity is the degree to which individuals demonstrate specific behaviors not in a passive disposition to adapt to present conditions but in an intentional effort to change the status quo (Hu et al. 2008). Hu et al. (2008) assert that proactivity also relates to some aspects of some mentorship initiation. As aforementioned, under the rationale of the similarity-attraction paradigm, cross-race mentoring can be challenging to develop and may provide fewer mentoring opportunities than same-race mentorships (Hu et al. 2008). Individuals tend to prefer to be in same-race mentorships. Hence, research has found that in informal mentoring, race similarity has a positive effect on mentoring outcomes (Hu et al. 2008).

Proactivity may also be an individual attribute sought by mentors and protégés. Research on protégés suggests that mentors look for protégés who are competent, motivated, and exhibit potential in learning (Hu et al. 2008). Mentors seek initiative and willingness to learn and potential for success. Thus, mentors may have higher intentions to initiate mentoring relationships with potential protégés (Hu et al. 2008; Ortiz-Walters and Gilson 2005). A protégé will also see reduced barriers and be more willing to voluntarily initiate mentoring relationships with highly proactive potential mentors (Hu et al. 2008).

Mentoring literature indicated that race affects access to mentoring, and mentoring outcomes are influenced by socialized stereotyping and access (Strayhorn and Johnson 2014; Hu et al. 2008). Social stereotypes refer to the widely held beliefs that concern behaviors attributable to a particular social

group. These stereotypes categorize individuals into in-groups and out-groups, thus developing responses to members according to the expanded perceptions. For example, in-group members may be perceived as highly proactive individuals and ambitious, whereas the out-group members are regarded as hostile (Hu et al. 2008). The degree of proactivity may vary pending the stereotype. For example, an Asian person may be perceived as receptive, rather than aggressive, concerning interpersonal interactions. In this case, a mentor may be uncertain how to respond to a proactive Asian protégé or be reluctant to initiate a mentor relationship because they have a lack of knowledge and training of other racial groups (Hu et al. 2008). A similar rationale applies to potential protégés' mentors when interpreting a mentor's degree of proactivity to other racial groups (Hu et al. 2008; Strayhorn and Johnson 2014). Matching mentors and protégé by similarities, including race, serves as a foundation for developing effective communication and trust. The goal of higher education is to prepare students for integration or social interaction with a diverse workforce and much depends on the ability to build mentor relationships (Hu et al. 2008; Strayhorn and Johnson 2014).

Same-race matches for mentors and protégé may pose a problem at institutions where there is a shortage of mentors to pair students with specific racial identity (Lee 1999). For example, if mentoring is an essential strategy for retaining African American students to degree attainment, and there are too few mentors who are African American to match them with, then how important do

the students perceive race mentoring relationships? The literature was limited to adolescents, graduates, or specific to an academic program and not generally related to the role of same-race mentoring. The findings were also contracting between same-race and cross-race, suggesting a need for continued research as it relates to student success (Hu et al. 2008; Lee 1999; Strayhorn and Johnson 2014)

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

As we make our journey through life, we cultivate social relationships and networks for support, belonging, and opportunities (Ferguson 2018). Vertical networks are developed and serve as important dimensions of capital (Bourdieu 1986; Ferguson 2018; Holland 2015; Nielsen 2015; Stanton-Salazar 2011). Pierre Bourdieu's concepts of capital provides an insightful framework for the analysis of racial mentoring in higher education (Hue et al. 2008; Lee 1999). Social, cultural, and economic capital is often used to study sociological perspectives and mentoring because the domains usually connect with the inequality of education (Hue et al. 2008; Lee 1999). Habitus is a holistic notion that is acquired and transformed by actions (Bourdieu 1986). Economic capital signifies material resources and wealth. Social capital grows networks and agents who help build students' vertical networks (Bourdieu 1984; Bourdieu 1986; Bourdieu 1988). Cultural capital, which is Bourdieu's most used concept in educational research, consists of linguistic and cultural discourses (Bourdieu

1984; Bourdieu 1986; Bourdieu 1988). The convertibility of various types of capital has provided a base for researching student success and mentoring (Bourdieu 1984; Bourdieu 1988; Rudick et al. 2019; Silva, 2005).

Habitus generally refers to something historical and is linked to student experiences before attending college. Thus, the students' previous habitus changes in college (Bourdieu 1984; Bourdieu 1988). The accumulated capital may be similar in some ways and different in other ways. Students who want to be successful with the transition need to understand and connect their existing habitus to the previous habitus. This process may be challenging as they begin their college experience (Rudick et al. 2019; Silva 2005). This is important because this is how students see themselves in relation to others, what things they may focus on, and their attitude towards people (Bourdieu 1984; Bourdieu 1988).

I use Bourdieu's ideas of cultural and social capital to study mentoring, mainly because these domains of capital focus on how inequality, injustice, and socialization fare in education, particularly with the institutional culture of higher education (Rudick et al. 2019). I use these ideas because Bourdieu argues that there are inequities in higher education and that institutions of higher learning are potent players in preserving and policing the distribution of cultural and social capital within the field of education (Bourdieu 1986; Bourdieu 1988).

Bourdieu's concepts of capital provide a path to understanding relationships between educational agents, socialization within the context of

higher education, and mentoring (Bourdieu 1986; Bourdieu 1984; Rudick et al. 2019). It is important to emphasize that social and cultural capital focus on socialization, network relationships, and educational attainment, which can be used in understanding various themes of society. The critical discussion of Bourdieu's concepts is applicable, especially when understanding inequalities, injustices, and mentoring within racial minority individuals (Bourdieu 1984; Bourdieu 1988). Empowerment agents, who are mentors, can provide a guide for social development and navigation through educational systems (Bourdieu 1986; Holland 2015; Nelson 2018; Stanton-Salazar 2011). Empowerment agents not only provide valuable resources, but also commit to empowering with critical consciousness and with the means to transform themselves, their communities, and society (Crawford & Valle 2016; Silva 2005; Stanton-Salazar 2011).

Cultural and social capital focus on the role of the institution as an equalizer of opportunity and ladder of social mobility (Bourdieu 1986; Murdock 2010). Mentors are in a position to potentially equalize the opportunities and to provide paths within the educational system for the students they mentor. Social capital builds and provides networks of people that students know. A mentor connects students with other individuals to help expand their social networks. Thus, mentors are symbolic of social capital as they are capable of growing students' vertical networks (Bourdieu 1986; Murdock 2010).

Cultural capital exists in various forms and is experienced in different ways. Cultural capital forms include various states: (1) the embodied state, which

is in the form of long-lasting dispositions of the mind and body, (2) the objectified state, which includes cultural goods such as pictures, books, instruments, and machines, and (3) the institutional state, includes education qualifications. Institutional agents (mentors) are essential to social relationships (Bourdieu 1986; Stanton-Salazar 2011). Mentors occupy hierarchical positions of high status or authority within an institution and thus may be viewed as role models or influential agents within the institution (Murdock 2010; Stanton-Salazar 2011). The focus of a mentor within a social perspective is to pay attention to students' cultural feelings of disadvantage or weakness and to strengthen or build their sense of pride. Feelings of vulnerability are felt when students feel diminished due to a lack of belonging, social status, language, cultural foods, the ethnic group they belong to, or even by the idea that they are attending college. Such situations provide an opportunity for a mentor to assist the mentee in learning to value their capital and be proud of who they are. The validation of identity is a vertical consolidation of identity (Bourdieu 1977; Bourdieu 1986; Murdock 2010; Silva, 2005).

In summary, my approach to the role of mentoring by claiming that “vertical consolidation of identity” occurs when you know who you were, who you are now, and who you are becoming. Thus a “culturally amphibious person” can adapt and acclimate his/her past, present and future and the environments they represent. To put it differently, by being able to utilize various types of capital, an individual can adjust and be successful in any social setting. Mentors serve as

facilitators of valorizing social capital from vastly negative to mostly positive. They ensure the vertical consolidation of identity. This study illustrates Bourdieu's concepts of social and cultural capital by studying race mentoring. Mentors increase the number of people within the social networks of students as they are specifically chosen to better themselves (Bourdieu 1977; Bourdieu 1986). They also valorize the cultural capital students bring themselves to the academic habitus. This study also reinterprets and expands cultural capital, a vertical consolidation of identity, and mentoring that can be direct or indirect. Ultimately, students learn new actions and integration of new habitus (Bourdieu 1977; Murdock 2010; Rudick et al. 2019).

OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOSTHESIS

All portions of the study were critically informed by the literature scholarship in higher education, cultural climate, racial efficacy, persistence, retention and student success to answer the four questions for this study. The first question for this study was: Is there a difference in college student success between students who experience same-race mentoring, cross-race mentoring, and those with no mentor relationships? The following hypothesis was tested:

H_1 = There is a difference between college student success and same-race mentoring, cross-race mentoring, and no mentor relationships.

The second question for the study was: How does broad racial group membership interact with racial mentoring to affect college student success? The following hypothesis was tested:

H₂ = There is a relationship between broad racial group memberships and same-race mentoring, cross-race mentoring, and those who had no mentors.

The third question was: Is there a difference in cultural climate experiences between those students who have same-race mentors and those who have cross race mentors? The following hypothesis was tested:

H₃ = There is a difference in cultural climate experiences between students who have same-race mentors and cross-race mentors.

The fourth question for this study was: How does collective racial efficacy interact with racial mentoring to affect college student success? The following hypothesis was tested:

H₄ = There is a relationship between collective racial efficacy and same-race mentors and cross-race mentors.

Further in-depth discussion and of the research questions and hypotheses are discussed in Chapter Three.

CHAPTER III DATA AND METHODS

This chapter depicts the data and methods that were used in this study. The data section provides a description of the dataset and the sample. A description of the variables used in the analysis, their levels of measurement and how they were coded. The method for analysis is also provided in this section.

The study explores the role of race mentoring on college student success, persistence, and its impact on cultural climate and racial efficacy among college students at an institution primarily for women. The following questions and hypotheses were used to guide my research.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESIS

Research Question 1: (RQ1) Is there a difference in college student success (GPA/Persistence) between students who experience same-race mentoring, cross-race mentoring, and no mentor relationships?

H_1 = There is a difference between college student success and same-race mentoring, cross-race mentoring, and no mentor relationships.

Research Question 2: (RQ2) How does broad racial group membership interact with racial mentoring to affect college student success?

H₂ = There is a relationship between broad racial group memberships and same-race mentoring, cross-race mentoring, and those who had no mentors.

Research Question 3: (RQ3) Is there a difference in cultural climate experiences between those students who have same-race mentors and those who have cross-race mentors?

H₃ = There is a difference in cultural climate experiences between students who have same-race mentors and cross-race mentors.

Research Question 4: (RQ4) How does collective racial efficacy interact with racial mentoring to affect college student success?

H₄ = There is a relationship between collective racial efficacy and same-race mentors and cross-race mentors.

DATA AND SAMPLE

I used the Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership Survey (MSL2015, MSL2018), a cross-sectional design that asks college students to reflect on their knowledge and experiences to capture data on a variety of educational outcomes. More than 300 institutions and 350,000 students have been part of the study since its inception in 2006 (MSL 2015/2018).

The theoretical framework for the MSL is the Social Change Model of Leadership Development. The core values of the Social Change Model are defined as having a purposeful, collaborative, values-based process that leads

individuals to have positive social change results (MSL 2018). The model allows for the researcher to assess student self-awareness and abilities to work with others.

The survey is administered every three years by an independent research organization that specializes in multi-campus studies. About 97 colleges and universities participated in the MSL in 2015 and 2018 through random sampling. For this study, I used the institutional dataset and other demographic data administered by the survey for analysis. I received a de-identified dataset for analysis. No additional participant recruitment was necessary as only existing survey data was used (MSL 2015/2018). Participants were college students enrolled at Texas Woman's University. I combined data collected for both 2015 and 2018 for data analysis. The dataset is limited to institutional data; national data was not accessible to me. The total sample size for the full dataset is 960 participants. The participants were from two semester cohorts, Fall 2014 (n =517) and Fall 2017 (n =443). The dataset was representative of first-time in college students enrolled at Texas Woman's University and university data.

VARIABLES

Dependent Variables

With attention to the range of diversity in the area of student success, persistence, campus climate, and racial efficacy, this study uses various questions from the MSL and institutional data in its analysis to answer the

research questions. Data were recoded and dummy coded to ensure proper analysis of data (Allison 1999; Babbie 1990; Knoke, Bohrnstedt, and Mee 2002).

The first dependent variable captures students' estimated GPA, which is measured by institutional data. The GPA is a continuous variable and is representative of the first semester GPA for the courses participants took at the institution. The variable for GPA is GPA1. The second dependent variable, persistence, is captured by institutional data and then analyzing student progress (persistence) after Year 1 and Year 2. This reiterates the importance of using the first-time in college (FTIC) cohorts for Fall 14 and Fall 17 for analyzing persistence in this study. The variable for persistence for Year 1 is NewP1_updated and was recoded to the following: 0 = *Drop Out*, 1 = *Persist*. The variable for persistence for Year 2 is NewP2_updated and was recoded to the following: 0 = *Drop Out*, 1 = *Persist*. The third dependent variable is cultural climate and is measured by Question 30, which includes a sense of belonging and cultural climate responses. The variable is measured using a 5-point Likert scale: 1 = *Strongly Disagree*, 2 = *Disagree*, 3 = *Neutral*, 4 = *Agree*, and 5 = *Strongly Agree*. However, to better measure cultural climate, two variables' mean scores were used to analyze cultural climate better. The variables used were BCLIM, sense of belonging, and DCLIM, non-discriminatory climate overall.

The fourth and final dependent variable is racial efficacy, which is measured by using Question 37 and includes racial esteem and self-identify responses. The variable was measured using a 7-point Likert scale: 1 = *Strongly*

Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Disagree Somewhat, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Agree Somewhat, 6 = Agree, and 7 = Strongly Agree. However, to better measure racial efficacy, three variables' mean scores were used to analyze racial efficacy better. The variables used were CREPRI (private collective racial efficacy), CREPUB (public collective racial esteem), and CREID (identity salience). The variables were measured using a 7-point Likert scale: *1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Disagree Somewhat, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Agree Somewhat, 6 = Agree, and 7 = Strongly Agree.*

Independent Variables

The survey offered data on which mentor relationship variables could provide a perspective on social experiences by respondents. This study organizes these variables into specific categories to evaluate if particular racial relationships affect GPA, persistence, campus climate, and racial efficacy. To explore various demographic and background attributes along with other factors, a set of independent variables was used to research models. MSL questions and institutional data were used in the analysis of the independent variables and to answer the research questions. Independent variables included in this study are:

Mentor- a person who intentionally assists your growth or connects you to opportunities for career or personal development. In this study, mentors were measured by using Questions 18a, 18b, and 18c. These questions vary from dichotomous to 4-point Likert scales. Question 18a asks respondents if the

following people have mentored them, Faculty/Instruction, Student Affairs or Academic Professional Staff, Employer, Community Member, Parent/Guardian, or other Students using 0 = *No*, and 1 = *Yes*. The mentor variable was dummy coded and used for analyzing if participants selected mentors or no mentors.

Same-Race – mentoring with the same race/ethnicity. The same-race mentoring independent variable is measured by using Question 18e, which asks respondents what their most significant mentor's broad racial group membership is using the following categorical scale: 1 = *White Caucasian*, 2 = *Middle Eastern/Northern African*, 3 = *African American/Black*, 4 = *American Indian/Native American*, 5 = *Asian American*, 6 = *Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander*, 7 = *Latino/Hispanic*, 8 = *Multiracial*, and 9 = *Race not listed*.

Cross-Race – mentoring outside of your race/ethnicity. The cross-race mentoring independent variable is also measured using Question 18e as detailed above.

Race/Ethnicity - Broad Racial Group Membership. The race/ethnicity independent variable is measured by using Question 36a, which asks respondents what their most significant mentor's broad racial group membership is using the following categorical scale: 1 = *White Caucasian*, 2 = *Middle Eastern/Northern African*, 3 = *African American/Black*, 4 = *American Indian/Native American*, 5 = *Asian American*, 6 = *Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander*, 7 = *Latino/Hispanic*, 8 = *Multiracial*, and 9 = *Race not listed*. The variable Participant_Race_4Groups was recoded to focus on four primary

ethnic/racial groups, white, Black/African American, Asian American, and Latinx/Hispanic.

Mentoring - the process or relationship of being mentored by a person who intentionally assists your growth or connects you to opportunities for career or personal development. The variable was recoded to *1 = White, 3 = African American/Black, 5 = Asian American, and 7 = Latino/Hispanic.*

The independent mentoring variable was measured by using Questions 18a, 18b, 18c, and 18e, which have been listed above. Also included is a measurement for gender. Gender was measured by responses to item 18d. The variable name is GENDER_COHORT and the dichotomous scale: *1 = Female* and *2 = Male.*

DATA ANALYSIS

The methods used for analysis for this study are ANOVA, *T*-Test, and Chi-Square. Various models were used to test the independent variables, which include race, racial efficiency, cultural climate, and gender. To compare the differences in college student success between same-race mentoring and cross race-mentoring, an ANOVA for GPA was used because it is the most appropriate technique to compare the means of three or more groups. Chi-square was used for persistence because it is the best technique for testing relationships between categorical variables. A 3X4 Chi-Square was used to determine if there was a relationship between broad racial group membership and same-race and cross-

race mentoring. To compare race mentoring relationships, a *T*-Test was used to analyze cultural climate experiences and compare those students who have same-race mentors and those who have cross-race mentors. A *T*-Test was used to determine if there is a relationship between racial efficacy and same-race and cross-race mentoring. *T*-Tests are best used to compare means of two given samples. This study focused on analyzing mentor relationships that identified as the same-race and cross-race only. Biracial mentor relationships were not included in this study. Racial categories include White, Black, Hispanic, and Asian. Other racial/ethnicity categories were too small to be statistically significant for this study. This exploratory study was used to uncover relationships amongst racial mentoring and retention among those groups who could be identified and could be matched by race/ethnicity (Allison 1999; Babbie 1990). To track persistence, the study concentrated on 960 participants who were in the Fall 2014 and Fall 2017 cohorts.

LIMITATIONS OF DATA

While the study has the potential for further influence on mentoring and persistence in higher education, there are some limitations to note. The secondary dataset is cross-sectional, and due to the design, there are limits to the data measurements and may not fit all needs of the desired outcomes. Also, the respondents are limited to undergraduates who are FTIC; thus, the sample size is limited to cohorts for Fall 2014 and Fall 2017 due to persistence

measurements. The sample size of the study consisted of 960 participants. Since the questionnaire is administered every three years, limited data is available for analysis. However, the purpose of this study is to generalize to the underrepresented minority population and to focus on the racial experiences of primarily women, racial minorities, and persistence. The study is limited to institutional data as there are limitations on accessibility to national data because the database is not available to non-administrative staff.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter reports the results of the statistical analysis conducted as part of this study. The descriptive statistics section provides information about the characteristics of the sample, including means and standard deviations of the variables used in the analysis. The results of the ANOVA and *T*-Tests are presented in the second section of this chapter. The final section summarizes the results.

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The sample size for the study is 960 respondents and are representative of FTIC students selected from cohorts Fall 2014 and Fall 2017. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics for the final sample. On average, respondents reported having a cross-race or same-race mentor relationship (58%) more often than not having a mentor (42%). A larger percentage of respondents had mentors, and most respondents had same-race mentors. Twenty-four percent of respondents had cross-race mentors. Thirty-four percent reported having a same-race mentor, while forty-two percent reported not having a mentor. Table 1 also shows descriptive statistics for respondents' race and ethnicity. Fifty-three percent of respondents in the sample were white. Eighteen percent were Black, while

seventeen were Asian American. Only twelve percent of the respondents were Latinx/Hispanic.

On average, respondents selected a mentor of the same-race gender and race. Sixty-four percent chose a mentor of the same race. Thirty-six percent of respondents reported having a different race mentor. Furthermore, respondents reported having a mentor of a different gender. In general, over half of the respondents (Fifty-five percent) reported having a mentor of a different gender, while forty-five percent reported having a same-gender mentor.

Table 1 *Descriptive Statistics for Dataset, MSL Cohorts Fall 2014 and Fall 2017*

Descriptive Statistics for Dataset, MSL Cohorts Fall 2014 and Fall 2017

| Variable | <i>n</i> | % |
|-------------------|----------|----|
| Semester Cohorts | 960 | |
| Fall 2014 | 517 | 54 |
| Fall 2017 | 443 | 46 |
| Mentor Selection | | |
| Cross-Race Mentor | 197 | 24 |
| Same-Race Mentor | 282 | 34 |

| | | |
|---------------------------------------|-----|----|
| No Mentor | 343 | 42 |
| Participant Race/Ethnicity | | |
| White | 230 | 53 |
| Black/African American | 78 | 18 |
| Asia American | 73 | 17 |
| Latinx/Hispanic | 54 | 12 |
| Participant Gender | | |
| Female | 408 | 93 |
| Male | 31 | 7 |
| Gender Agreement (Participant/Mentor) | | |
| Different Gender | 236 | 55 |
| Same Gender | 192 | 45 |
| Race Agreement (Participant/Mentor) | | |
| Different Race/Ethnicity | 131 | 36 |
| Same Race/Ethnicity | 236 | 64 |

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA) TEST, CHI-SQURE AND T-TEST ANALYSIS

The study considers all postsecondary credential attainment in its analysis and examines institutional persistence after Year 1 and Year 2. An ANOVA test was conducted to compare the mean GPA difference between mentor race agreement of participants who had same-race mentors, cross-race mentors, and those of participants who had no mentors. As seen in Table 2, participants with same-race mentors had a higher GPA in comparison to those of participants who had cross-race mentors, $F(2.32)$, $p = .10$. Also, there is evidence of potential significance between those who had mentor interaction and those who did not

have mentor interaction. Respondents who had a cross-race mentor recorded a Mean GPA of 3.20. Respondents with same-race mentors recorded a Mean GPA of 3.13, and respondents who did not have a mentor recorded a Mean GPA of 2.92. GPA for those who had mentors were higher than those with no mentor selection.

Table 2 Means and Standard Deviation for GPA by Race Mentor Groups

Means and Standard Deviation for GPA by Race Mentor Groups

| Variable | <i>n</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|-------------------|----------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Mentor Selection | 258 | | .91 | 2.32 | .10 | .02 |
| Cross-Race Mentor | 72 | 3.20 | .85 | | | |
| Same-Race Mentor | 86 | 3.13 | .88 | | | |
| No Mentor | 100 | 2.92 | .96 | | | |

YEAR ONE PERSISTENCE

Crosstabulations using Pearson’s chi-square and Cramer’s V tests were used to examine persistence differences after Year 1 between mentor race groups of participants who had same-race mentors and cross-race mentors. As

shown in Table 3, there is no difference in persistence between the mentor groups, $\chi^2(5.38)$, $p = .07$. There was no statistically significant relationship between mentor race groups and Year 1 persistence. Therefore, Hypothesis One for persistence Year 1 is not supported. A higher proportion of the participants who had same-race mentors persisted (86.9%) as compared to those who did not have mentors (80.5%).

YEAR TWO PERSISTENCE

Crosstabulations using Pearson's chi-square and Cramer's V tests were used to examine persistence differences after Year 2 between mentor race groups of participants who had same-race mentors and cross-race mentors. Table 3 shows there is no statistical difference in persistence between mentor groups for second-year persistence, $\chi^2(3.13)$, $p = .21$, thus, Hypothesis One for persistence Year 2 is not supported. A greater proportion of the participants who had cross-race mentors persisted after Year 2 (62.4%) as compared to those who did not have mentors (55.1%). It is important to note that even though there was no statistical significance between mentor groups, there was evidence that participants who had a mentor persisted at higher rates than those with no mentors.

Table 3 Statistical Estimates Predicting Persistence by Mentor Selection

Statistical Estimates Predicting Persistence by Mentor Selection

| Variable | Persistence | | χ^2 | <i>p</i> |
|--------------------|-------------|-----------|----------|----------|
| | Dropout | Persist | | |
| | n (%) | n (%) | | |
| Year 1 Persistence | | | 5.38 | .07 |
| Cross-Race | 28(14.2) | 169(85.8) | | |
| Same-Race | 37(12.1) | 245(86.9) | | |
| No Mentor | 67(19.5) | 276(80.5) | | |
| Year 2 Persistence | | | 3.13 | .21 |
| Cross-Race | 74(37.6) | 123(62.4) | | |
| Same-Race | 113(40.1) | 169(59.9) | | |
| No Mentor | 154(44.9) | 189(55.1) | | |

Crosstabulations using Pearson’s chi-square and Cramer’s *V* tests were conducted to compare four racial group differences and participant mentor groups on persistence Year 1 and persistence Year 2. Results from Pearson’s chi-square and Cramer’s *V* tests indicate that there is no significant difference in

mentor race selection for persistence, χ^2 (98.32), $p = .000$, Cramer's $V = .000$. As seen in Table 4, there was not a significant relationship between participant race and first-year persistence, χ^2 (.83), $p = .84$, Cramer's $V = .84$.

Second-year persistence results are shown in Table 4. Results revealed that there was not a significant difference in second-year persistence between race groups, χ^2 (2.35), $p = .50$, Cramer's $V = .50$. Hypothesis Two was not supported. In general, White participants persisted (52.7%) at a higher rate as compared to African American/Black (17.8%), Asian American (17.3%), and Latinx/Hispanic (12.1%) respondents persisted after Year 1. Latinx/Hispanic participants are less likely to persist as compared to the three other racial groups. Comparatively, persistence after Year 2 was higher for White respondents (54.7%), while African American/Black (17.4%), Asian American (14.7%), and Latinx/Hispanic (13.2%) respondents persisted after Year 2.

Table 4 Summary of Analysis Predicting Persistence by Racial Groups

| <i>Summary of Analysis Predicting Persistence by Racial Groups</i> | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|-------|------|------------------------|------|----------------|---|-----------------|---|----------|-----|------------|
| Variable | White | | Black/African American | | Asian American | | Latinx/Hispanic | | χ^2 | p | Cramer's V |
| | n | % | n | % | n | % | n | % | | | |
| Mentor Selection | | | | | | | | | 98.32 | .00 | .00 |
| Cross-Race Mentor | 26 | 22.4 | 36 | 31.0 | 30 | | 24 | | | | |
| | | | | | 25.9 | | 20.7 | | | | |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------|------------------------|-----|------|----|------|----|------|----|------|--|------|-----|-----|
| | Same Race Mentor | 178 | 77.4 | 22 | 9.6 | 12 | 5.2 | 18 | 7.8 | | | | |
| Year 1 | Persistence | | | | | | | | | | .83 | .84 | .84 |
| | Drop Out | 26 | 54.2 | 9 | 18.8 | 6 | 12.5 | 7 | 14.6 | | | | |
| | Persist | 204 | 52.7 | 69 | 17.8 | 67 | 17.4 | 47 | 12.1 | | | | |
| Year 2 | Persistence | | | | | | | | | | 2.35 | .50 | .50 |
| | Drop Out | 89 | 50.3 | 33 | 18.6 | 35 | 19.8 | 20 | 11.3 | | | | |
| | Persist | 141 | 54.7 | 45 | 17.4 | 38 | 14.7 | 34 | 13.2 | | | | |

A *T*-Test was conducted to compare the mean of cultural climate difference between mentor race groups of participants who had same-race mentors and those of participants who had cross-race mentors. As shown in Table 5, there were no significant differences in cultural climate mean between the two groups. There was no significant main effect for a sense of belonging, $F(.05)$, $p = .43$, $t = -.79$ and $d = .340$. Additionally, the interaction effect for non-discriminatory overall was not significant, $F(3.55)$, $p = .59$, $t = -.55$, and $d = .337$. Findings indicate that mentors' race was not impactful in determinants of the cultural climate, thus Hypothesis Three was not supported.

A *T*-Test was conducted to compare the mean of racial efficacy difference between mentor race groups of participants who had same-race mentors and those of participants who had cross-race mentors. As shown in Table 5, there

were no significant differences in racial efficacy mean between the two groups.

There was no significant main effect for private collective racial esteem, $F(.21)$, $p = .942$, $t = -.04$, and $d = .01$. Public collective racial esteem, $F(1.92)$, $p = .166$, $t = -.19$, and $d = .01$.and identity salience was not significant, $F(.19)$, $p = .66$, $t = -.19$, and $d = .01$. This indicates that mentors' race was not impactful in determinants of the racial efficacy, thus Hypothesis Four was not supported.

Table 5 Means and Standard Deviation for Cultural Climate and Racial Efficacy by Race Mentor Groups

Means and Standard Deviation for Cultural Climate and Racial Efficacy by Race Mentor Groups

| Variable | <i>n</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | <i>t</i> | <i>d</i> |
|----------------------------|----------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Sense of Belonging Climate | | | | .05 | .43 | -.79 | 340 |
| Cross-Race Mentor | 115 | 3.66 | .83 | | | | |
| Same-Race Mentor | 227 | 3.74 | .83 | | | | |

| | | | | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|-----|------|------|------|-----|-----|---|-----|
| Non-Discriminatory Climate Overall | | | | 3.55 | .59 | .55 | - | 337 |
| Cross-Race Mentor | 114 | 4.12 | .82 | | | | | |
| Same-Race Mentor | 225 | 4.18 | .99 | | | | | |
| Private Collective Racial Esteem | | | | .21 | .15 | 1.5 | | 152 |
| Cross-Race Mentor | 47 | 5.60 | 1.32 | | | | | |
| Same-Race Mentor | 108 | 5.28 | 1.24 | | | | | |
| Public Collective Racial Esteem | | | | 1.92 | .94 | .04 | - | 152 |
| Cross-Race Mentor | 47 | 4.60 | 1.37 | | | | | |
| Same-Race Mentor | 107 | 4.62 | 1.17 | | | | | |
| Identity Salience | | | | .19 | .01 | .66 | | 152 |
| Cross-Race Mentor | 46 | 4.20 | 1.53 | | | | | |
| Same-Race Mentor | 108 | 3.54 | 1.49 | | | | | |

SUMMARY

The findings in this chapter reveal that factors predicting persistence and student success for college students vary. Results show that more college students select mentors within their race, yet there was no statistical relationship predicting student success, cultural climate, or racial efficacy. GPA was moderately higher for those students who did have a mentor. The first hypothesis that there is a difference between college student success and same-race mentoring, cross-raced mentoring, and not mentor relationships is not supported by ANOVA or chi-square models on persistence and GPA. Models partially supported this hypothesis by showing evidence of higher GPAs by those who

selected racial mentoring as compared to those who did not have mentors. In addition, students who selected racial mentoring had a higher persistence rate than those who did not have mentors after Year 1 and Year 2.

The second hypothesis examined the relationship between broad racial group memberships and same-race mentoring and cross-race mentoring. This hypothesis was not supported and had no significant relationship between the four broad racial groups studies by chi-square models. Results indicated that White students primarily select same-race mentors while their peers are more likely to select cross-race mentors. For example, 77.4% of students selected same-race mentors, while only 9.6% of Black/African American students selected same-race mentors. When persistence for Year 1 and Year 2 was measured for each group, Latinx/Hispanic persisted the least as compared to the rest of the groups.

Hypothesis Three is that there is a difference in cultural climate experiences between students who have same-race mentors and cross-race mentors. When sense of belonging is measured, 227 same-race mentor groups students reported a mean of 3.74. While not statistically significant using a *T*-Test model, it did show evidence that students with same-race mentors have a higher sense of belonging agreement as compared to those who have cross-race mentors. Furthermore, this hypothesis was not supported and had no significant relationship differences in cultural climate experiences between students who had same-race mentors and cross-race mentors.

Hypotheses Four is that there is a relationship between collective racial efficacy and same-race mentors, cross-race mentors, and those who had no mentors. When identity salience ($F = .19$) is measured, 108 students reported a mean of same-race mentor group students reported a mean of 3.54, while the cross-race mentor group reported a mean of 4.20. While this hypothesis was not significant using a *T-Test* model, there is evidence of potential factors for further investigation.

In summary, overall results showed that there was no significance between racial mentoring, persistence and student success. Even though the hypotheses were not supported, results showed evidence that there is a relationship between racial mentoring, persistence, racial efficacy, cultural climate, and student success, especially as it relates to a sense of belonging and academic success. This was seen by those students who had mentor and has higher GPAs, higher persistence rates and a higher sense of belonging and increased value in racial identity. Mentoring has a positive influence on student success, cultural climate and racial efficacy.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This chapter summarizes the findings of this study as they pertain to each of the hypotheses tested. A review of the implications is also discussed in this chapter. I also highlight limitations and future research.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The purpose of this dissertation was to examine racialized mentor relationships and factors that impact college persistence and student success towards degree attainment, cultural climate, and racial efficacy among college students at a university that predominantly serves women.

The study tests four hypotheses. The first hypothesis stated that there is a difference between college student success and same-race mentoring and cross-race mentor relationships. Race mentoring relationships are more likely to do better than those who do not have mentor relationships. This hypothesis was not supported by the data. Race mentoring was found to be associated with an increased likelihood of student success, such as a higher GPA and more likely to persist after Year 1 and Year 2. The study dataset was limited in providing measures with more frequency. The survey was given to students every three years, thus making it challenging to track persistence rates within the general

respondents. Much of the data used was institutional and used in combination with the dataset for analysis of student success.

The second hypothesis stated that there is a relationship between broad racial groups memberships and same-race mentoring and cross-race mentoring. Students are more likely to have better persistence after Year 1 and Year 2. Mentor selection is not consistently associated with the persistence rates outcomes in this research. The study found that students who self-selected a mentor of the same-race or cross-race were more likely to persist than a college student who did not have a mentor. This can be seen for both persistence after Year 1 and Year 2. Mentors provide the necessary support and networks needed to ensure student success. College students who have interactions with mentors were less likely than those with no mentors to have academic probation as their GPA was higher (Hu et al. 2008; Lee 1999). Minority students continue to fall behind as compared to white students, but persistence was promising for those with racial mentors. Further analysis is recommended to continue relationship exploration of the dependent variable and independent variables.

The third hypothesis was not supported by the results. Same-race and cross-race mentor relationships did not interact in a way that significantly indicated a difference in cultural climate experiences between mentor groups. Students who had a same-race mentor were more likely to agree on the importance of belonging. A sense of belonging, feeling accepted as part of the

campus community and belonging to the campus, was valued more by students with the same-race mentors.

The final hypothesis stated that racial mentoring was expected to show a stronger interaction on collective racial efficacy as compared to those who had no mentor support. The study found that there was no significant difference in the non-discriminatory climate in race mentoring. Interactions with students, faculty, and staff regarding feelings of discrimination, a prejudice atmosphere, negative or hostile environments were factors considered in the analysis. Results for private collective racial esteem were not significant. This analysis measured how students felt about their racial group collectively, including feeling good about their own racial group. Public collective racial esteem was not significant. Public collective racial esteem is what others think about their racial group. Furthermore, there was evidence that students value identity salience, racial identity. Students who had a same-race mentor were more likely to agree on the importance of identity salience. Students with a same-race mentor valued their racial identity as part of who they are as a person.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS

The results call into question how racial mentor relationships influence student success and persistence. Questions remain as to factors that determine racial mentor selection by college students and the effectiveness of cultural climate and racial efficacy predictors on student success. Control variables did not appear to be significant predictors of student success or persistence.

However, there was evidence that those students with racial mentors did fare better in GPA and persistence than those with no mentors.

In general, more college students selected to have a mentor as compared to those who did not have a mentor. This may be attributed to the student being more comfortable with the mentor relationship, time to meet with a mentor, or confidence in having a mentor in general (Ortiz-Walters and Gilson 2005). An unexpected result was that race mentoring was not a factor in predicting student success or persistence. The findings suggested that racial mentoring did not impact college students significantly regarding GPA. Students who experienced mentoring relationships had higher GPAs than those who did not have a mentor relationship. A possible explanation may be that mentors serve as key drivers for academic success and provide deep-level value in a healthy mentor relationship (Ortiz-Walters and Gilson 2005).

Also of note in the findings, is that more students selected a mentor of a different gender as compared to a gender like themselves. These results imply that students selected mentors beyond the surface-level characteristics. Perceived deeper level characteristics may include a commitment to relationships, and a higher level of interpersonal comfort, including social interactions. In addition, women and minorities are more likely to have a variety of mentor relationships and networks who vary in race and ethnicity (Ensher and Murphy 1997; Ortiz-Walters and Gilson 2005). Similarly, more students selected a mentor of the same race. This finding could attribute to the cultural relationship

between mentor and mentee and the mentor's cultural competence and ability to understand the mentee race/ethnicity. Mentor interactions provide networking support and commitment to success, especially for Black/African American and Hispanic/Latinx students (Ensher and Murphy 1997; Ortiz-Walters and Gilson 2005). While persistence and race mentoring were not significant, students who had a mentor relationship persisted at higher rates than those with no mentors.

This study also analyzed cultural climate and racial efficacy to assess student success. Even though results indicated that most students selected same-race mentors, overall implications are that students feel a strong sense of belonging. Further implications may include mentor training. Training may include cultural competence and formal/informal mentoring to ensure mentoring relationships and mentor programs continue to meet student and mentor needs. Overall mentoring effectiveness, a satisfaction of mentor relationship to a sense of belonging, and the increased numbers of students who have racial mentoring relationships are predictors to further bridge student success and persistence initiatives.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Several limitations of this study must be acknowledged and addressed in future research. First, for purposes of measuring persistence, the MSL dataset was limited to cohorts for fall 2014 and Fall 2017. The dataset limited responses and did not contain an ideal measure for all variables. The use of these cohorts

may have an impact on the outcomes of this study. A larger pool of participants should be included in future surveys and analysis.

Second, the measures of many variables also limited the methods of analysis. The methods were restricted to ANOVA, *T*-Test, and Chi-Square rather than a more advanced method because many of the questions were closed-ended with yes/no answer choices. Future research can improve this study with better measures so that more sophisticated, and statistical analysis can be performed. Particularly, other variables may be incorporated into the race mentor model, and interviews may be considered to provide for added investigation.

Third, only a measure using four racial categories was used to measure same-race and cross-race mentoring. Racial groups included white, Black/African American, Latinx/Hispanic, and Asian American. Biracial mentor relationships were not included in this study. Though this study's focused on race identity, persistence, and mentoring, there is the opportunity for future research to further expand on biracial mentor relationships, and how biracial individuals select racial mentors.

In summary, the results of this study suggest that future research must build upon theory and studies such as this to develop reliable and accurate measures of race mentoring, persistence, cultural climate, and racial efficacy, especially at institutions primarily for women. This would likely improve the accuracy of empirical tests that can be generalized to the relationship of race mentoring with persistence and retention measures. Despite some specific

limitations, this study provides some insight into important factors that can be used to enhance retention models that are wide by interdisciplinary in nature. In addition, the hypotheses may not have been supported due to moderate sample size, limited institutional data, and limited cohorts. It is recommended that future studies included or add additional colleges/universities that are minority serving institutions, add national data for comparisons purposes, and increase cohort when available.

Findings from this study also yield implications for improving college persistence and future work on same-race and cross-race mentor relationships. Other possible indicators must be considered for research to examine the needs of diverse groups as educators continue to move the needle in closing the educational gaps. This study can be a resource for student affairs, academic affairs, and student retention and persistence administrators in strengthening areas such as mentor programs, living learning communities, peer-coaching programs and other university faculty/student lead programs. Finally, results from this study can be used to create more complex co-curricular models specific to retention, persistence, and mentoring strategies for universities, and relationship building mechanisms for sociocultural diverse college students.

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APPENDIX A

Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL)

MSL 2015 Questions Used for Study

APPENDIX A

Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL)

MSL 2015 Questions Used for Study

MENTORING

18. A mentor is defined as person who intentionally assist your growth or connects you to opportunities for career or personal development. Since you started at your current college/university, have you been mentored by the following types of people?

Faculty/Instructor

1 No

2 Yes

Academic or Student Affairs Professional Staff (ex. student organization advisor, career counselor, Dean of Students, academic advisor, residence hall coordinator)

1 No

2 Yes

Employer

1 No

2 Yes

Community Member (not your employer)

1 No

2 Yes

Parent/Guardian

1 No

2 Yes

Other Students

1 No

2 Yes

18b. A mentor is defined as person who intentionally assist your growth or connects you to opportunities for career or personal development. Since you started at your current college/university, how often have the following types of mentors assisted you in your growth at development?

Faculty/Instructor

1 Never

2 Once

3 Sometimes

4 Often

Academic or Student Affairs Professional Staff (ex. student organization advisor, career counselor, Dean of Students, academic advisor, residence hall coordinator)

1 Never

2 Once

3 Sometimes

4 Often

Employer

1 Never

2 Once

3 Sometimes

4 Often

Community Member (not your employer)

1 Never

2 Once

3 Sometimes

4 Often

Parent/Guardian

1 Never

2 Once

3 Sometimes

4 Often

Other Students

1 Never

2 Once

3 Sometimes

4 Often

18c. When thinking of your **most significant mentor** at this college/university, what was this person's role?

Faculty

Academic or Student Affairs Professional Staff (ex. student organization advisor, career counselor, Dean of Students, academic advisor, residence hall coordinator)

Employer

Student

Other

18d. When thinking of your most significant mentor at this college/university, what was this person's gender?

1 Female

2 Male

3 Transgender/Gender Non-Conforming

18e. When thinking of your most significant mentor at this college/university, what was this person's broad racial group membership?

1 White/Caucasian

2 Middle Eastern/Northern African

3 African American/Black

4 American Indian/Alaska Native

5 Asian American

6 Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander

7 Latino/Hispanic

8 Multiracial

9 Race Not Listed

CAMPUS CLIMATE

30. Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements about your experience on your current campus:

I feel valued as a person at this school (Belonging Climate)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Neutral

4 Agree

5 Strongly Agree

I have encountered discrimination while attending this institution (Non-discriminatory Climate)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Neutral

4 Agree

5 Strongly Agree

I feel accepted as a part of the campus community (Belonging Climate)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Neutral

4 Agree

5 Strongly Agree

I feel there is a general atmosphere of prejudice among students (Non-Discriminatory Climate)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Neutral

4 Agree

5 Strongly Agree

I feel I belong on this campus (Belonging Climate)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Neutral

4 Agree

5 Strongly Agree

I would describe the environment on campus as negative/hostile (Non-Discriminatory Climate)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Neutral

4 Agree

5 Strongly Agree

Faculty have discriminated against people like me (Non-Discriminatory Climate)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Neutral

4 Agree

5 Strongly Agree

Staff members have discriminated against people like me (Non-Discriminatory Climate)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Neutral

4 Agree

5 Strongly Agree

Other students have discriminated against people like me (Non-Discriminatory Climate)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Neutral

4 Agree

5 Strongly Agree

COLLEGE RACIAL EFFICACY

37. We are all members of different social groups or social categories. We would like you to consider your BROAD racial group membership (ex. White, Middle Eastern, American Indian, African American/Black, Asian American/Pacific Islander, Latino/Hispanic, Multiracial) in responding to the following statements. There are no right or wrong answers to any of the statements; we are interested in your honest reactions and opinions.

I often regret that I belong to my racial group (Private Collective Racial Esteem)

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Disagree Somewhat
- 4 Neutral
- 5 Agree Somewhat
- 6 Agree
- 7 Strongly Agree

Overall, my racial group is considered good others (Public Collective Racial Esteem)

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Disagree Somewhat
- 4 Neutral
- 5 Agree Somewhat
- 6 Agree
- 7 Strongly Agree

Overall, my race has very little to do with how I feel about myself (Important to Identity)

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Disagree Somewhat

- 4 Neutral
- 5 Agree Somewhat
- 6 Agree
- 7 Strongly Agree

In general, I am glad to be a member of my racial group (Private Collective Racial Esteem)

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Disagree Somewhat
- 4 Neutral
- 5 Agree Somewhat
- 6 Agree
- 7 Strongly Agree

Most people consider my racial group, on the average, to be more ineffective than other groups (Public Collective Racial Esteem)

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Disagree Somewhat
- 4 Neutral

5 Agree Somewhat

6 Agree

7 Strongly Agree

The Racial group I belong to is an important reflection of who I am
(Important to Identity)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Disagree Somewhat

4 Neutral

5 Agree Somewhat

6 Agree

7 Strongly Agree

Overall, I often feel that my racial group is not worthwhile (Private
Collective Racial Esteem)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Disagree Somewhat

4 Neutral

5 Agree Somewhat

6 Agree

7 Strongly Agree

In general, others respect my race (Public Collective Racial Esteem)

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Disagree Somewhat
- 4 Neutral
- 5 Agree Somewhat
- 6 Agree
- 7 Strongly Agree

My race is unimportant to my sense of what kind of a person I am
(Important to Identity)

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Disagree Somewhat
- 4 Neutral
- 5 Agree Somewhat
- 6 Agree
- 7 Strongly Agree

I feel good about the racial group I belong to (Private Collective Racial
Esteem)

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Disagree Somewhat
- 4 Neutral

5 Agree Somewhat

6 Agree

7 Strongly Agree

In general, others think that my racial group is unworthily (Public Collective Racial Esteem)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Disagree Somewhat

4 Neutral

5 Agree Somewhat

6 Agree

7 Strongly Agree

In general, belonging to my racial group is an important part of my self-image (Importance to Identity)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Disagree Somewhat

4 Neutral

5 Agree Somewhat

6 Agree

7 Strongly Agree

APPENDIX B

Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL)

MSL 2018 Questions Used for Study

APPENDIX B

Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL)

MSL 2018 Questions Used for Study

MENTORING

18. A mentor is defined as person who intentionally assist your growth or connects you to opportunities for career or personal development. Since you started at your current college/university, have you been mentored by the following types of people?

Faculty/Instructor

0 No

2 Yes

Academic or Student Affairs Professional Staff (ex. student organization advisor, career counselor, Dean of Students, academic advisor, residence hall coordinator)

1 No

2 Yes

Employer

1 No

2 Yes

Community Member (not your employer)

1 No

2 Yes

Parent/Guardian

1 No

2 Yes

Other Students

1 No

2 Yes

18b. A mentor is defined as person who intentionally assist your growth or connects you to opportunities for career or personal development. Since you started at your current college/university, how often have the following types of mentors assisted you in your growth at development?

Faculty/Instructor

0 Never

1 Once

2 Sometimes

3 Often

Academic or Student Affairs Professional Staff (ex. student organization advisor, career counselor, Dean of Students, academic advisor, residence hall coordinator)

0 Never

1 Once

2 Sometimes

3 Often

Employer

0 Never

1 Once

2 Sometimes

3 Often

Community Member (not your employer)

0 Never

1 Once

2 Sometimes

3 Often

Parent/Guardian

0 Never

1 Once

2 Sometimes

3 Often

Other Students

0 Never

1 Once

2 Sometimes

3 Often

18c. When thinking of your **most significant mentor** at this college/university, what was this person's role?

Faculty

Academic or Student Affairs Professional Staff (ex. student organization advisor, career counselor, Dean of Students, academic advisor, residence hall coordinator)

Employer

Student

Other

18d. When thinking of your most significant mentor at this college/university, what was this person's gender?

1 Man

2 Woman

3 Transgender/Gender Non-Conforming

4 Unsure

18e. When thinking of your most significant mentor at this college/university, what was this person's broad racial group membership?

1 White/Caucasian

2 Middle Eastern/Northern African

3 African American/Black

4 American Indian/Alaska Native

5 Asian American

6 Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander

7 Latino/Hispanic

8 Multiracial

9 Race Not Listed

CAMPUS CLIMATE

30. Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements about your experience on your current campus:

I feel valued as a person at this school (Belonging Climate)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Neutral

4 Agree

5 Strongly Agree

I have encountered discrimination while attending this institution (Non-discriminatory Climate)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Neutral

4 Agree

5 Strongly Agree

I feel accepted as a part of the campus community (Belonging Climate)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Neutral

4 Agree

5 Strongly Agree

I feel there is a general atmosphere of prejudice among students (Non-Discriminatory Climate)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Neutral

4 Agree

5 Strongly Agree

I feel I belong on this campus (Belonging Climate)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Neutral

4 Agree

5 Strongly Agree

I would describe the environment on campus as negative/hostile (Non-Discriminatory Climate)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Neutral

4 Agree

5 Strongly Agree

Faculty have discriminated against people like me (Non-Discriminatory Climate)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Neutral

4 Agree

5 Strongly Agree

Staff members have discriminated against people like me (Non-Discriminatory Climate)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Neutral

4 Agree

5 Strongly Agree

Other students have discriminated against people like me (Non-Discriminatory Climate)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Neutral

4 Agree

5 Strongly Agree

COLLEGE RACIAL EFFICACY

37. We are all members of different social groups or social categories. We would like you to consider your BROAD racial group membership (ex. White, Middle Eastern, American Indian, African American/Black, Asian American/Pacific Islander, Latino/Hispanic, Multiracial) in responding to

the following statements. There are no right or wrong answers to any of the statements; we are interested in your honest reactions and opinions.

I often regret that I belong to my racial group (Private Collective Racial Esteem)

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Disagree Somewhat
- 4 Neutral
- 5 Agree Somewhat
- 6 Agree
- 7 Strongly Agree

Overall, my racial group is considered good by others (Public Collective Racial Esteem)

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Disagree Somewhat
- 4 Neutral
- 5 Agree Somewhat
- 6 Agree
- 7 Strongly Agree

Overall, my race has very little to do with how I feel about myself (Important to Identity)

- 1 Strongly Disagree

- 2 Disagree
- 3 Disagree Somewhat
- 4 Neutral
- 5 Agree Somewhat
- 6 Agree
- 7 Strongly Agree

In general, I am glad to be a member of my racial group (Private Collective Racial Esteem)

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Disagree Somewhat
- 4 Neutral
- 5 Agree Somewhat
- 6 Agree
- 7 Strongly Agree

Most people consider my racial group, on the average, to be more ineffective than other groups (Public Collective Racial Esteem)

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Disagree Somewhat
- 4 Neutral

5 Agree Somewhat

6 Agree

7 Strongly Agree

The racial group I belong to is an important reflection of who I am
(Important to Identity)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Disagree Somewhat

4 Neutral

5 Agree Somewhat

6 Agree

7 Strongly Agree

Overall, I often feel that my racial group is not worthwhile (Private
Collective Racial Esteem)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Disagree Somewhat

4 Neutral

5 Agree Somewhat

6 Agree

7 Strongly Agree

In general, others respect my race (Public Collective Racial Esteem)

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Disagree Somewhat
- 4 Neutral
- 5 Agree Somewhat
- 6 Agree
- 7 Strongly Agree

My race is unimportant to my sense of what kind of a person I am
(Important to Identity)

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Disagree Somewhat
- 4 Neutral
- 5 Agree Somewhat
- 6 Agree
- 7 Strongly Agree

I feel good about the racial group I belong to (Private Collective Racial
Esteem)

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Disagree Somewhat
- 4 Neutral

5 Agree Somewhat

6 Agree

7 Strongly Agree

In general, others think that my racial group is unworthily (Public Collective Racial Esteem)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Disagree Somewhat

4 Neutral

5 Agree Somewhat

6 Agree

7 Strongly Agree

In general, belonging to my racial group is an important part of my self-image (Importance to Identity)

1 Strongly Disagree

2 Disagree

3 Disagree Somewhat

4 Neutral

5 Agree Somewhat

6 Agree

7 Strongly Agree