toward safety, inclusion, and education. There is still a great amount of growth necessary to achieve equity.

Jillian Carter Ford

See also: Ethnic Studies

FURTHER READING


Mentoring Programs in Colleges and Universities

Mentoring programs for students of color in colleges and universities are associated with a wide range of positive outcomes and often play an important role in facilitating achievement in educational settings. The success attributed to mentoring is linked to the fact that the mentor provides the student with valuable information, support, and access to resources that might not otherwise be obtained. Additionally, mentoring programs that are considered formal mentoring can be particularly helpful to students of color because in contexts where informal or unstructured mentorship occurs women, people of color, or others who may not have strong connections to individuals of influence are less likely to seek mentoring as well as less likely to be singled out to receive mentoring. Many programs are designed to fill this chasm by increasing students’ awareness of the possible benefits of a
mentor and by facilitating the development of such relationships. Such programs endeavor to provide students with structured and convenient access to mentors.

GOALS AND DEFINITIONS

Just as mentoring programs differ in their purpose, the goals and conceptualizations of mentoring also differ. The goals of programs range from broad objectives such as expanding participants’ educational goals to more specific objectives such as improving first-semester college retention rates. The goals of the program determine the type of mentoring that is offered as well as factors such as the expected length and nature of the mentoring relationship. Similarly, while there is not one agreed upon definition of mentoring, the core ideas associated with the concept are that a protégé (a person who desires assistance) is connected to a mentor (person more knowledgeable and more experienced) to receive advice and guidance toward achievement of a particular goal. The term protégé is also used to refer to the mentee and the term sponsor is sometimes used in reference to the mentor. Some conceptualizations of mentoring suggest that the relationship is reciprocal or mutually beneficial, in that the mentor also benefits, not just the protégé (Jacobi 1991).

MENTOR FUNCTIONS AND BENEFITS TO PROTÉGÉ

The roles carried out by a mentor and the ways by which protégés benefit from mentoring vary as a function of several factors including the following: the purpose of the program, the expected and actual frequency of contact with the mentor, the expected length of the mentoring relationship, and the quality of the relationship. Research on mentoring posits two major categories into which the roles or functions of the mentor and benefits of mentoring can be classified—academic and social. Given the significant overlap in academic and social roles and benefits, we provide a general overview without specifically labeling them as academic or social. The two primary functions are to provide support and information to the protégé.

In a general sense, support can include listening to the protégés’ concerns and issues and subsequently providing coaching or advice. It might also include directing or personally linking the protégé to appropriate resources including people, information, opportunities, organizations, and services. These connections are likely to help address immediate concerns but are also likely to expand the protégés’ academic and social networks and their sense of confidence to handle similar issues in the future. Additionally, the mentor assists in anticipating and navigating obstacles. Usually based on experience and knowledge the mentor will know of potential problems that might arise and will be able to advise the protégé.
on possible courses of action. Having a mentor to consult can also decrease feelings of isolation, an issue that might be particularly problematic for students who are "the only one" or "one of few" in their educational environment with particular characteristics such as being the lone student of color or the only first-generation college student. Last, mentoring programs sometimes have a goal to nurture participants’ sense of identity as it relates to identity associated with a particular career or profession or to their race/ethnicity. Exposure to new individuals, ideas, and experiences can all contribute to students’ identity exploration and development and expand their perceptions of what they can be and what they can do. The term psychosocial has been used to describe this type of support, which ideally results in greater competence and enhanced sense of identity.

The information-providing function is as important as the support role and should address immediate and anticipated needs. An effective mentor will attempt to demystify processes that are unfamiliar or that seem overwhelming to the protégé. For example, the protégé might want assistance in determining how best to find a summer internship. Acquiring such information can lower the level of apprehension experienced by the protégé and increase understanding of relevant systems, processes, benchmarks, and deadlines. The further along a protégé is on their education pathway, the more relevant and critical it will be to have assistance in navigating political issues. This point is most significant for protégés who are in graduate and professional degree programs, as this level of education has the greatest number of potential political pitfalls and the consequences of political mistakes are likely to be the most serious. Protégés at this level are also likely to need and to benefit from a mentor who secures positive visibility and exposure for them. Finally, a mentor might help a protégé to understand and acclimate to the culture of an organization or profession.

Even if a mentoring program’s major focus is related to academics, participants’ social lives and development will have an effect on their academic outcomes. When describing the philosophy behind a mentoring program designed for students at Pennsylvania State University in the subgroups of the Asian and Pacific Islander American (APIA) community, it was stated, “We believe the social, intellectual, emotional development of APIA students is of equal importance to the pursuit of academic excellence. The individual attention provided by the mentors is critical in meeting these developmental needs” (http://equity.psu.edu/mrc/aasia).

TYPES OF MENTORING

Formal mentoring programs in education take place in a variety of formats and for a variety of purposes. Some programs are stand-alone, where the only focus is on mentoring; other mentoring programs are part of a larger initiative that has many strategies, with mentoring being just one of several components
offered. Types of mentoring include but are not limited to the traditional one-to-
one method where an expert is paired with a novice, and the more contemporary ideas of near-peer (mentor and protégé are closer in age and both are students) group and online mentoring.

**Mentor–Protégé**

Mentor–protégé is the matching of students with an adult and is the most commonly thought of type of mentoring. These types of matches can be for the purpose of career or social development. The similarity-attraction paradigm suggests that protégés prefer mentors of the same versus cross race. However, studies find that similarity in outlook and values have a greater influence on protégé satisfaction and desire to maintain the mentoring relationship. Students of color experience more racial discrimination from adults than do white youths; therefore, the perceived cultural competence of the mentor influences the quality of the mentoring relationship. Some parents place higher value on the character of the mentor than on the race of mentor and believe cross race mentoring exposes the protégé to a different culture. Research also documents that mentors in cross race dyads report appreciating the opportunity to learn more about another culture and they often acquire new perspectives as a result of the relationship. In general long-term mentoring relationships are more beneficial for girls than boys, but boys also benefit from psychosocial support (i.e., emotional intimacy). Mentoring youths is complex and it is difficult to separate the impact race/ethnicity, gender, development stage, and socioeconomic factors will have on a mentoring experience. Therefore, when possible, given the constraints of the program, the match should be made based on the needs of the individual youth.

**Peer Mentoring**

Sometimes the needs of the student are best met with peer mentoring. Peer mentoring, or near peer, most often occurs in the form of cross age peer mentoring, which is the matching of an older youth with a younger youth (e.g., a college student with a high school student). Near-peer mentoring should not be confused with peer tutoring or peer education that are more academic in nature. Near-peer mentoring has been shown to have a positive effect on the mentor and the protégé and can be an intervention for promoting civic and psychosocial development for the mentor and protégé (i.e., building relationships that develop social skills, connectedness to schools, and self-esteem). Near-peer mentoring programs may function as a stand-alone program or as part of school-based mentoring programs (SBM) that allow for synergies with recruiting, training, and supervising mentors.
Group Mentoring

Group mentoring—one adult working with multiple students—is distinct from team mentoring—several adults working with a small group of young people. Group mentoring may provide less relationship intensity but offers the opportunity for more diverse interactions and for a greater number of students to be reached: one-on-one with mentor, group interactions, and observation of the mentor with others group members. The diversity of interactions in group mentoring must be considered for its impact on developmental gains. Because of the varied types of interactions matching is more important for group mentoring. Specifically, it is important to minimize the number of youths with negative behavior. The emphasis on relationship building and group processes to achieve development goals are the defining differences between group mentoring and other group interventions. Group-based mentoring is believed to provide a safe environment to test social skills and receive constructive critiques and the opportunity to see a variety of behaviors modeled by the mentor such as negotiating, cooperating, and respect for diverse perspectives. Youths of color seem to be more attracted to group mentoring because groups can be culture and/or gender focused. An example of a program that uses the group-mentoring model is the National CARES Mentoring Movement’s The Rising at Harlan. Volunteers are trained to participate in group mentoring sessions for high school students and work for approximately 90 minutes per week with their group. The program’s theme is “Elevating education, expectations, and self-esteem” (http://www.theharlanrising.org). The group approach allows more students to be reached than would be the case with a one-to-one strategy.

Electronic Mentoring

Electronic mentoring (e-mentoring), online mentoring, virtual mentoring, and telementoring occur via distance communication technologies. These types of mentoring may compensate when face-to-face mentoring relationships are not possible or when distance prevents face-to-face meetings. E-mentoring can include the use of technologies such as Skype and e-mail, while telementoring is voice based. The structure may be one-on-one or a group. Lengths of commitment may be one-time “ask an expert,” short term with a specific learning goal, or long term with the goal of developing a friendship. Telementoring is an extension of inviting an expert to speak to students about a particular subject matter not covered in the curriculum, to broaden career aspirations, or to complement the teacher’s knowledge. The International Telementoring Project established in 1994 pairs K-12 public school teachers and students with experts in technology companies to assist students with projects. It has become the largest e-mentoring program in the world (Shpigelman 2013).
E-mentoring programs usually take two forms: instrumental support—sharing information and teaching skills necessary for vocational (professional) development—or relational support—interactions that increase well-being. Successful e-mentors are effective listeners, provide good feedback and guidance, and reinforce self-esteem. E-mentoring is not without limitations. It is not a good method for individuals with limited cognitive abilities or expressive written communication skills. Text communication may not express emotions, which may hinder the building of a strong emotional bond. Literacy skills, writing and reading comprehension, as well as computer literacy will likely impact the quality of communication. Reliability of computer equipment may cause delays in responses that may lead to feelings of abandonment, disillusion, and frustration for both the mentor and the protégé. It is suggested that e-mentoring be paired with other forms of interaction to minimize the impact of these challenges on the quality of the mentoring experience. An example of an electronic mentoring platform is studentmentor.org. The national program contends that its service is flexible, convenient, and serves students from more than 1,000 colleges. Participants are from diverse backgrounds and the program’s website indicates that “more than 66% of our students are low-income, 60% are minorities, and nearly half are first-generation college students” (www.studentmentor.org).

Intergenerational Mentoring

Intergenerational mentoring pairs a protégé with an adult 55 years of age or older. Adults in this age range are the most educated and fastest growing segment of the U.S. population. Generativity is defined as the “concern for establishing and guiding the next generation” (Erikson 1968) and is believed to be the motivation behind older adults’ willingness to mentor. Specifically, mentoring allows older adults to satisfy their own development by aiding in the development of others. The development stages of youths parallel those of older adults—“Who am I” parallels “What did I accomplish in my life” and both groups face ageism—too young to be of value versus too old to be of value. These shared experiences are believed to moderate the bonding between the older adult and the protégé. Older adults in African American and Hispanic communities have historically passed on cultural and family traditions that might facilitate bonding even in cross race matching. Unfortunately, few mentoring programs target this group to serve as mentors; therefore, research findings are limited.

Faculty and Administrators

Mentoring in education is not limited to students, but also includes teachers, faculty, and administrative personnel. Peer mentoring is defined as mentoring
between individuals of comparable status. The collective knowledge and experience of peers can sometimes be equivalent to that of a senior colleague. Additionally, peers may be better suited to provide psychosocial support and peers provide a safe space for vetting new ideas. Informal mentoring may take the form of weekly lunch meetings whereas formal mentoring has structure that includes topics for discussion, may or may not include clearly assigned mentors, and is sanctioned by an organization. Informal mentoring for this group is believed to be more effective because the individuals come together due to mutual respect and compatibility that results in long-term mutually satisfying relationships. Cross race and cross gender mentoring is as complex for the group as it is for students.

In conclusion, mentoring programs in educational settings are particularly significant for students of color because without organized programs students of color are not likely to be connected with a mentor. Programs provide convenient and structured access to mentors, relieving students of the burden of seeking out a mentor on their own. The benefits of participation in the programs are not limited to academics but can also carry over to career development, psychosocial, and personal domains. This is typically achieved as a result of information, skills, support, and access made available to students via their mentors. While we can only speculate on how mentoring initiatives might change in the future, the recent adaptations with increased incorporation of technology are positive indications that mentoring programs continue to evolve and continue in their role as a bridge for students from who and what they are to who and what they can and wish to be.

Nicole Lewis and Rhonda Vonshay Sharpe

See also: Developmental Education in Colleges and Universities

FURTHER READING

Pacific Islander Colleges

Postsecondary education in the Pacific region is an important, but often overlooked, sector of American higher education. The Pacific region consists of thousands of islands—some with unique relationships with the United States. Hawai‘i, the only U.S. state in the Pacific region, is perhaps the most recognizable place to Americans. However, the insular areas of the Pacific also include American Samoa, the Northern Mariana Islands, and Guam, as well as the freely associated state of the Federated States of Micronesia, the Republic of the Marshall Islands, and the Republic of Palau.

This entry focuses on Pacific island colleges that have a direct relationship with the United States, either through accrediting bodies or through their relationship with the U.S. government and governance by federal higher education policies. These institutions have distinct institutional characteristics and play an important role in U.S. higher education, particularly for serving Native Hawaiian and Pacific Islander students. The following is a demographic profile of these institutions,