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WOMEN MENTORING MINORITY WOMEN IN UNIVERSITIES: RETENTION STRATEGIES FOR

FEMALE MINORITY STUDENTS

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WOMEN MENTORING MINORITY WOMEN IN UNIVERSITIES:
RETENTION STRATEGIES FOR FEMALE MINORITY STUDENTS

A Dissertation APPROVED FOR THE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION CURRICULUM AND SUPERVISION

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Abstract

Miller (1994) stated that changing demographics will have a greater immediate impact upon the nation's educational institutions than any other sector of American society. The need to increase the diversity in the work force is an issue teacher preparation institutions have been dealing with since the 1970s. Through phenomenology, this dissertation research examined how and why mentoring practices occurs in regard to minority women, in undergraduate and graduate programs.

These purposely selected women (informally) mentored minority women in two different universities in one state. The broad research question was: 1) How do university female faculty perceive the mentoring process (if available), designed especially for the retention of undergraduate/graduate female students of color.

The participants believed that mentoring was a good thing. They believed their contributions as mentors not only increased the quantity of teachers, but also, their mentoring was key for the purposes of recruiting and retaining qualified and diverse candidates through to graduation to return to the work force.

Chapter 1

Women Mentoring Minority Women in Universities:
Retention Strategies for Female Minority Students

College retention is a problem for all students, not just minorities. Even with large amounts of money expended to colleges and univerisities on programs and services to retain students, retention figures have not improved. Only about 66 percent of high school graduates attend college and about 50 percent of those who attend college earn a bachelor's degree (Journal of College Student Retention, 2001). As colleges continue to look for ways to retain these students, programs and services designed specifically for minority students in the field of education should be taken into consideration. As shifts in demographics and economics continue to inspire changes in public education, higher education should prepare itself to meet these new challenges.

Presently, 30 percent of our nation's school aged children are ethnic minorities. Since 1980, the number of minority students enrolled in public education has been rising while the number of minority teachers has been falling. During the past fifteen years, the percentage of minority teachers has fallen from 11.7 to 10.3 (Donnelly 1998). In Oklahoma, by 2005, black student enrollment is expected to increase 16 percent (Kids Count Databook, 1999). By the year 2025, it is predicted that the population of the United States will be 21 percent black and 15 percent Hispanic (Marks, 1998), compared with today's population, which is approximately 16 percent black and eight percent Hispanic (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000).

Background

The need to increase the diversity in the teaching work force is an issue teacher preparation institutions have been dealing with since the 1970s. "Back in the seventies, we needed teachers of color for students of color; the point is we need teachers

1

of color for all children in this country and until we begin to realize this fact and think with a larger sweep, we reduce our argument" (Rodrigues, 2000, p.12).

The current shortage in minority teachers presents a more difficult situation than in the past because the demand is rising and the supply is falling, despite the success that some of the teacher preparation programs have been having in recruiting minority teachers candidates (Rodgriquez, 2000). Not only are there fewer minority teachers in schools today, but the shortage is more critical in certain geographical and subject matter areas.

According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2000), education-related occupations are currently among the fastest growing occupations, expected to increase 27 percent by 2005. However, only six out of ten trained teachers actually take teaching positions. Of those who do end up teaching, approximately half leave the profession within the first five years. Included in the leaving are minority teachers, to take jobs in the fields of engineering, natural science, mathematics and computer science where better-paying job markets lure them from the classroom (Rodriguez, 2000). To begin rectifying the low number of minority teachers, Rodgriquez (2000) says, "We need to develop policies and programs that seek to increase special programs for teacher aides who have worked in the school and get them to move on and get their degrees" (p. 13).

"We must change the way we think about diversity--from thinking about it as a problem to thinking about it as a virtue. Diversity creates more opportunities for everyone" (Trail, 2000, p. 3). For white students, having a teacher from a different culture or of a difference race or ethnicity is an opportunity to learn about others and experience the cultural and social diversity that form the basis of our democracy. For culturally, linguistically and racially diverse students, there are important pedagogical

reasons for ensuring that students have the opportunity to be taught by teachers who

reflect their ethnicity and culture (Trail, 2000). Minority teachers have a positive

influence on minority students, specifically in the areas of teaching styles, in serving

as role models and in the decisions about grouping, tracking and disciplining students

(Trail, 2000). "Teachers with a genuine understanding of the culture of day-to-day

lives of their students can introduce topics and examples that are important and

meaningful to students' experiences" (Rodriguez, 2000, p. 12). Rodgriquez (2000)

goes on to say that instruction and content can be made more culturally relevant to

students when their teacher has shared or lived similar cultural experiences.

During the 1970s, minority enrollments in schools grew. Despite increased

enrollments, minorities' access to college remained a problem. It became apparent to

researchers that minorities were not entering the same kinds of colleges as whites.

There was a consistent decline in enrollments among minority high school graduates

enrolled in 4-year institutions. The reason for this decline was believed to be that a

high percent of minority students who did go on to college were oftentimes enrolled into

community colleges, where few transferred successfully to 4-year institutions (Astin,

1985).

The number of higher education black faculty members has grown. According to

U.S. Department of Education figures, 568,719 full-time faculty members were

employed in colleges and universities as of the fall of 1997; 4.9 percent were black.

Also in 1997, 5.8 percent of the 421,094 part-time faculty members were black. Of

the entire group of professors (989,813), 5.1 percent were black (Trail, 2000). The

"Statistical Abstract for the United States" (1999) says that 5.8 percent of 919,000

college and university professors in 1998 were black, up from 4.4 percent in 1983

(Trail, 2000). Although this information appears to be good news, the bad news cannot be discounted. Departments and institutions often test the stamina of individual black faculty members and academic culture in the 90s regressed, "as if to remain in sync with atrocities outside academe" (Trail, 2000, p. 2). Continuing stereotypes and prejudices about black people who teach in higher education are often associated with teaching black studies. In predominantly white institutions, students and administrators--of all backgrounds--commonly equate black faculty members and black studies. In historically black institutions, in which the plurality of the faculty is likely to be of African descent, the link between physical appearance and field of study does not present such a cause for confusion. However, where black professors are few, they are likely to be housed in black-studies departments or programs (Trail, 2000). Complicated reasons account for the continuing concerns of black faculty members and some are well-founded. The mission to correct erroneous and pernicious notions about African Americans is often the intellectual reason many black academics enter the profession. Black faculty members who survive long enough to become tenured often wage battles in professional associations and home institutions. These black professors often become targets of vague accusations of being "too political," "hard to get along with," or "difficult," as though each individual faculty member had his or her own peculiar problem, unrelated to the environment (Trail, 2000).

Women and feminist faculty members will recognize such frustrations. They pervade American higher education and affect many who are not black and who do not teach black studies. Nevertheless, the experiences of black and non-black faculty members are not the same, for the effects are cumulative. "Being black adds one layer of hassle; being black female adds another, additional layer of hassle, and so on" (Trail,

2000, p. 4). To attract and keep black faculty members, an institution needs to have a critical mass of black students and faculty members. Black students and faculty members flourish in good company and wither in isolation (Trail, 2000).

Astin (1985) developed a "pipeline" theory. Through his studies he discovered that colleges and universities have lost ground in the enrollment of African American graduate students. In the proportion of African American graduate and doctoral degrees granted in higher education institutions and the participation by African Americans in research and faculty positions in its universities, the percentages are relatively lower compared with the population of white students enrolled in the same universities nationwide. In discussing African American students, Holland (1994) made reference to the pipeline as follows:

It is the belief of many scholars that the pipeline from which African

American faculty are produced is drying up. Common explanations for

the low flow of minorities in the pipeline... [include] that in general,

academe has been inhospitable towards African American students. (p. 2)

Holland (1994) went on to make a connection between the relatively few minorities in higher education as doctoral students and the importance of social interac.ions, such as mentoring, when he stated:

...limited interactions with the major advisor, the formal structure of the

infrequent encounters, and the basic and routine academic guidance provided

to the doctoral student render the involvements non-developmental. In these

involvements, the advisor is not involved in nurturing or grooming the

doctoral student. (p. 8)

If providing leadership in a learning society is a desirable goal, and if diversity

is a central value for many higher education institutions, mentoring can perform an important function in helping people develop their highest potential. If everyone is capable of being a mentor and a mentee, individuals should strive to develop their capacity to learn from and support the learning of others (Galbraith & Cohen, 1995). Faculty are very important to the success of the mentoring relationship in academia. Whether the association with mentoring is informal or formal, according to Pascarella and Terenzini (1991), mentoring is worthwhile. It is clear that many of the most important effects of college occur through students' interpersonal experiences with faculty members.

> On some (perhaps many) campuses, minority students feel a powerful
> need to band together for psychological and social support of one another,
> sometimes in defense against the tacit and not-so-tacit condescension and
> hostility some feel from white faculty, students and staff alike...(p.644)

It does not seem unreasonable, however, to suggest that under such conditions the educational experiences and outcomes of college for nonwhite students suffer significantly. Certainly, more research is needed to clarify the nature of the college experience and its effects on psychosocial change among nonwhite students (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991).

Berg and Ferber (1983) revealed that in graduate education, personal relationships which proved to be significant between faculty members who acted more as a mentor with the student, were significant predictors of completing the doctorate. A study by Turner and Thompson (1992) suggested that minority women have less opportunity for apprentices/mentorship experiences. These experiences appear to be a critical ingredient of success in graduate school and in an academic career. Minority

women in their study reported fewer of these experiences than majority women.

It is important to emphasize that mentoring as a tool to retain women of color can ultimately lead to more minority faculty members, which in turn may lead to more opportunities for apprenticeship/mentorship experiences for these women. Blackwell (1989) stated:

> Mentoring is a process that can increase the retention of minority
>
> students in colleges and universities, a process through which
>
> larger numbers may be graduated from colleges, enter and complete
>
> graduate training, be hired for faculty positions, and be retained
>
> as contributing members of the faculty. (p.8)

Mentoring programs should be designed to ensure as much interaction as possible with departments or programs that most affect the academic and social lives of culturally diverse students. Advertising and recruitment should emphasize the reciprocal benefits of participation to enhance the image of the mentoring relationship as a partnership.

As changes in demographics and economic forces continue to affect the teaching workforce and as American public schools continue to struggle with the limited supply of qualified teachers, teacher preparation institutions must refocus their efforts. Strategies and programs are needed not only on increasing the quantity of teachers, but also for the purposes of recruiting and retaining qualified and diverse candidates for the teaching workforce (Rodgriquez, 2000).

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

We do not know exactly how and why mentoring occurs or what makes mentoring successful or unsuccessful. We are also unable to explain exactly how and why mentoring works with minorities or if it is successful or not. Mentoring studies in

higher education have been relatively few. Little is known of mentors' perceptions
regarding mentoring undergraduate or graduate female students of color. Mentoring
seems to be a good thing, yet inspite of the various programs or mentoring activities, the
United States' educational system is failing to recruit and retain women of color.
Finally, more specific, personal information concerning mentoring should be examined.
Personal insights concerning mentoring need to be explored and more information is
needed regarding students' experiences and their association with mentoring in higher
education.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to describe how and why mentoring practices
occurs in regard to minority women, in one state at two institutions. To achieve this
purpose, the proposed research will examine the following research question:
1) How do university female faculty perceive the mentoring process (if available),
designed especially for the retention of undergraduate/graduate female students of color?

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This research could make a contribution to an area in this literature that is yet to
be investigated comprehensively. There is the potential for adding to the knowledge base
for retaining women of color. Mentoring not only is a process that could contribute to
retaining female minority students in colleges and universities through to graduation,
but it could also contribute to the numbers who complete graduate training, are hired for
faculty positions and are retained as contributing members of those institutions.
Moreover, the mentoring process can help expand an academic and social milieu where
diversity is valued, thus attracting more students of color into the field of education.

This research was intended to make several contributions to higher education as

well as public education. It may contribute to the development of university planning to improve the retaining practices toward women students of color at the undergraduate and graduate level. Students of color could relate better to teachers and administrators in a leadership capacity who are of color. Role models who represent diversity could help increase diversity.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

As in the nature of a purposely designed phenomenological study, the relatively small number of interviews in this investigation limits the generalizability of findings and conclusions. This study focused on the depth of perceptions of seven female faculty members out of a possible 18 potential participants, white and nonwhite, in higher education, as opposed to the breadth of survey data from what might otherwise be a larger sample using a different methodology. In addition, the participants were those females who self-selected or volunteered to participate in the study. The remaining 11 may or may not have had mentoring experiences with female students of color. Some may have had mentoring experiences but were not interested in being in the study. Although recruitment could be improved, if mentoring were successful and had a ripple effect, the primary focus was on retention through to graduation.

Chapter 2: Literature Review
WHY RECRUIT MINORITY WOMEN?

Demograhic Considerations

Miller (1994) stated that changing demographics will have a greater

immediate impact upon the nation's educational institutions than any other sector of

American Society. In Miller's report, he further stated that minorities presently

constituted 26 percent of the U.S. population and estimated that one in three

Americans would be a person of color by the year 2000 (Miller, 1994). Nettles

reported that about 46 percent of school-age youths would be students of color by the

year 2000 (Nettles, 1991). Nettles predicted that today's minority elementary

school students would comprise a much larger share of the work force and of college

and university enrollments from the year 2000 and beyond (Nettles, 1991). The

American Council on Education and the Education Commission of the States (1991)

stated that there was a sharp contrast to the influx of students of color and the

expected decline in teachers of color. They reported a decline from about 12.5

percent of the nation's teachers in 1980 being persons of color, to about 5 percent

by the year 2000 (American Council on Education and the Education Commission of

the States, cited in Banks, 1994). African Americans in the student body require no

less sensitivity to detail when the potential contribution of mentoring is considered.

One expectation of education, and especially higher education, is to contribute to the

improvement of the social and economic well-being of individuals and groups within

our society. However, based on current research as a whole (Miller, 1994; Nettles,

1991), minorities have not been beneficiaries of policies which have sought to

increase recruitment and retaining practices. Persons of color have not been utilized

in many instances to reduce teacher/student ratios (Nettles, 1991). The

implications of these realities must be acknowledged by program administrators,

mentors and the protégé, if higher education institutions are to address the current demographic changes.

Pascarella and Chapman (1983) investigated Tinto's (1975) model of college persistence/withdrawal using a 4-year residential, 4-year commuter, and 2-year commuter institutions. Their results generally supported the predictive validity of the model, however, when patterns of influence concerning social and academic integration were disaggregated according to institution type, other generalizations were possible. The 4-year residential institution showed social integration playing a stronger role influencing persistence, while academic integration was more important at the 2-year and 4-year commuter institutions. Primarily commuter institutions found social interactions more difficult to establish. They concluded that "the findings of this study suggest that Tinto's model is a potentially useful framework for understanding the process of student persistence/withdrawal behavior at different types of institutions" (p. 100). Tinto (1975) stated that it had not been determined at that time "whether this [model] applies equally well to the various racial minorities that are disproportionately represented in the lower status categories of college students" (p. 119). Tinto (1982) later pointed out shortcomings in his 1975 model. He stated that the model "fails to highlight the important differences in education careers that mark the experiences of students of different gender, race and social status backgrounds" (p. 689). Integration, socialization and mentoring were important elements in educational persistence and studies of dropouts among specific groups of students, especially among the disadvantaged, may aid in the development of institution and system policies (Tinto, 1982). If these policies are designed and targeted to assist the educational

continuance of particular subpopulations within the student body, perhaps students
of different races and gender would be more likely to succeed in the college
environment (Tinto, 1982).

Earlier documentation suggested that women, and especially women of color,
as undergraduate or graduate students, tend to experience stronger feelings of
isolation in the higher education system. Therefore, Tinto's research on the impact
of socialization on students indicates relevance to the impact of mentoring on women
of color. The passing on of beliefs and norms of the higher education institution to the
next generation is another way of describing a priority function of mentoring. Tinto
(1988) argued that the process of student persistence/withdrawal can be seen as
having distinct stages, anthropological rites of passage, through which students pass
during the course of their college years.

> Each stage served to move individuals from youthful participation to
> full membership in adult society, providing, through the use of
> ceremony and ritual, for the orderly transmission of the beliefs and
> norms of the society to the next generation of adults and/or new
> members. In that fashion, such rites served to ensure the stability
> of that society over time while also enabling younger generations to
> assume responsibility from older ones. (pp. 440-441)

There is also a need to recognize that priority functions also exist in "dysfunctional"
relationships as well. The distinction that must be made at this point is that the
mentoring relationship occurs in academia when a priority function of that
relationship deliberately facilitates the social integration of the student into the
unique subculture of the institution (Tinto, 1988).

In the case of women of color, persistence/withdrawal, may be more traumatic if appropriate personal and academic socialization does not occur. The lack of this specific interaction often leaves women of color experiencing strong feelings of isolation. Tinto (1988) suggested that there are three stages for students to attend college. The first stage is separation, the second is transition to college and the third stage is incorporation in college. During the first stage, separation, students are required to disassociate themselves from membership in their past communities. This stressful period requires them to part from past habits and patterns of affiliation. This may be especially true of individuals who, for the first time, move away from their local high school communities and families to live at a distant college and/or whose colleges are markedly different in social and intellectual orientation from that which characterized the family and local community. Thus, the absence of a quality mentoring relationship process may be devasting to retention objectives in certain cases.

The second stage, transition to college, allows students to enter a state of limbo. During this stage, the student has not completely severed relations with the past nor established the necessary affiliations in the new community. Students are highly vulnerable to attrition during this stage. This may prove to be more dangerous for minority students. Tinto (1988) claimed persons from families, communities and/or schools which are very different in behavior and norms from those of the college are faced with especially difficult problems in seeking to achieve membership in the communities of the college. Their past experiences are unlikely to have prepared them for the new life of the college in the same way as have those of persons who come from families that are themselves college educated.

In the "typical" institution, one would therefore expect persons
of minority backgrounds and/or from very poor families, older
adults, and persons from very small rural communities to be more
likely to experience such problems than other students. (p. 445)

The final stage, incorporation in college, indicates that the student has
successfully moved away from the norms and behavioral patterns of the past. The
student now faces new challenges of finding and adopting appropriate norms of the
new society. The student must recognize the social and intellectual community norms
during this stage. Success in this stage is especially tenuous unless a student's
socialization is achieved. Research, as indicated earlier, suggests that mentoring is a
key element to that socialization. "Individuals have to establish contact with other
members of the institution, students and faculty alike" (p. 446). Failure to do so
may lead to departure from the institution (Tinto, 1988). To help facilitate this
movement, Tinto (1988) suggested that providing students with orientation
programs that "stress forms of contact and mentorship that enable new students to
become competent members of academic and social communities" (pp. 451-452),
would benefit students.

MENTORING: WHAT IS KNOWN

As stated earlier, mentoring seems to be a good thing, yet in spite of the
various programs or mentoring activities, the United States' educational system is
failing to recruit and retain women of color. Some claim that a few mentoring
programs do not adequately access a minority student's ability to teach (Bray, 1984;
Brown, 1988; Case, 1988; Darling-Hammond, 1990; Gordon, 1994; Miller &
Brickman, 1982; Smith, 1987; Webb, 1986). Paper and pencil compentency tests

are a major stumbling block to minority students who might consider teaching

training programs. Several test batteries (e.g., CBEST, PRAXIS, NTE) are used by

public schools systems to measure the academic achievement and basic proficiency of

college students entering or completing teacher education programs. CBEST and NTE

alone are eliminating more than 70 percent of the people of color taking these tests

from the teaching profession (Rodriguez, 2000). In addition, minority students who

fail these tests are typically discouraged from retaking them (Rodriguez, 2000).

The under representation of minorities in schools of education results, at least

partly, from the fact that many minority students never consider education as a

career and they are not made aware of the opportunities in this field. Diminishing

financial aid packages for college students affect minority students

disproportionately because minority students often need financial assistance to

pursue undergraduate and graduate degrees. This effect has a significant negative

impact on the development of minority teachers (Haberman, 1989).

The purpose of the following sections of the review of literature will be to

describe and possibly explain what is known or not known about mentoring as well as

the conceptual framework of mentoring. In addition, little is known about how and

why mentoring works and how and why practices could improve teacher preparation

programs designed specifically to recruit and retain women of color.

The term "mentor" has its roots in Greek mythology. It may date back

to the Neolithic Age (Stone Age--6,000 B.C.) or earlier (Gerstein, 1985). This

early mentoring was not a formal process; it was informal and things "just

happened." Anderson and Shannon (1988) stated that mentoring was an intentional

process. It was nurturing, insightful, supportive and protective. Role modeling was

a central quality of mentoring. According to Daloz (1983; 1986), the protégé embarks on a journey toward autonomy and a new form of a more equal relationship with the mentor. What does it mean to provide mentoring or to be a mentor? If features of mentoring affect relationship outcomes, what are those features? What is quality mentoring? There has not been one comprehensive definition of mentoring upon which all researchers agreed, nor one class of mentoring that described all types of academic mentoring relationships (Noe, 1988). Therefore, mentoring has been described as having many divergent purposes and widely differing content.

Pitfalls of Traditional Mentoring

"Traditional" mentoring promotes competition and focuses too much on personal ambition of the individual, thus promoting elitism and exclusion (Collins & Scott, 1978). Scarcity encourages isolaton. Without women in the appropriate positions, many times minority women are forced to bond with senior faculty members who are usually white and male (Carter & Goodwin, 1993). "Traditional" mentoring promotes and maintains the status quo by socializing proteges into the "rules of the game" and unfortunately many "rules" one must learn in an attempt to be in the "inner circle" are discriminatory against minorities and women (Collins & Scott, 1978). Cross race and cross-gender mentor-mentee relationships have not met with success due to personal and organizational barriers (Kram, 1985; Zey, 1988). "Traditional" mentor-mentee relationships promote dependency and subordination of minority women and oftentimes it is difficult for the mentee to move to the position of peer/colleague (Kram, 1985).

Mentoring: Foundation in Business

Levinson (1978) defined the mentoring experience as one of the most

complex and developmentally important relationships that we have. Levinson's book,

Seasons of a Man's Life, (1978) stated that mentoring advances successful individual

development and that mentors "support and facilitate the realization of the Dream",

"the Dream" being the vision a young person has about the kind of life he or she

wants as an adult" (p. 37). According to his overall view of mentoring, he found the

mentor to be an experienced person who chooses a less experienced person as his or

her protégé and teaches specific skills. According to Levinson (1978), the mentor

also develops the protégé's intellectual abilitites and intervenes to facilitate the

protégé's entry and advancement. The mentor must serve as a host and guide who

welcomes the newcomer into the profession. He or she must show the protégé how to

operate and introduces him or her to the most important players. Advice,

encouragement and constructive criticism must be provided. At all times, the mentor

serves as an exemplar who embodies values and an approach to professional endeavor

and personal life that the protégé can emulate. Levinson saw the mentor as both

parent and older peer, whose efforts and special concerns push the protégé toward

realizing full potential. He also stated that mentors seem to appear as individuals

enter times of impending change in their lives, stay with them through the

transitions and then depart (Levinson, 1978).

<u>Mentoring Goals and Purposes</u>

Learning is a matter of individual interpretation of experiences, but it takes

place within a social context (Kerka, 1998). Therefore, the interpersonal

relationship of mentor and mentee is recognized as essential (Galbraith & Cohen,

1995). "The idea of learning as a transaction is an interactive and evolving process

between mentors and their adult learners. This transaction is considered a

fundamental component of the adult mentoring relationship"(p.17). Mentoring provides two primary functions: career/instrumental and psychosocial. The instrumental function has to do with the external relationship between mentor and mentee. The mentee must benefit from the mentor's knowledge, contacts, support and guidance. The psychosocial function is the internal value of the ongoing interpersonal dialogue, collaborative critical thinking, feedback, reflection and planning (Galbraith & Cohen, 1995).

The personal relationship at the heart of mentoring can be problematic when mentor and mentee are of different genders, races or ethnic backgrounds. There is disagreement over the advantages and disadvantages of matching characteristics in mentoring relationships. One study, Ensher (1997), found that perceived and actual similarity affected the amount of instrumental and psychosocial support mentors provided as well as mentee satisfaction. Another study suggested mixed results for "diversified" mentoring (Haney, 1997). Still others argue that race and gender should not play a role in mentor selection (Jossi, 1997). Mentors need to be sensitive to different cultural perspectives or mentoring will merely perpetuate homogeneous, exclusionary values and culture (Galbraith & Cohen, 1995).

Ethnicity and gender variables establish another important category of consideration in a mentoring program design. According to Kerka (1998), at the intersection of race and gender stand women of color, torn by the lines of bias that currently divide white from nonwhite in our society, and male from female. The worlds these women negotiate demand different and often wrenching allegiances (Kerka, 1998). He went on to say that "women of color face significant obstacles to

their full participation and contribution to higher education" (p. 52). Collectively, today's women undergraduate and graduate students are diverse in terms of age, social class, race, ethnicity and religion. Their needs and learning styles often challenge the prevailing culture (Kerka, 1998).

A wide range of goals for the mentoring process exists. While the complexity and potential of the mentoring process is recognized, it is important to acknowledge the absence of a comprehensive definition. Blackwell (1989) stated that the purpose is to provide training, stimulate acquisition of knowledge, provide emotional support and encouragement. The mentor should provide academic and personal socialization, build self confidence, defend and protect the protégé (Blackwell, 1989). The mentor is required to provide social and emotional interaction which makes the transfer of marketable, often discipline-based skills, behaviors and attitudes possible (Hill, 1989). Professional and/or personal development should be the goal of the mentoring process (Anderson & Shannon, 1988). These goals appear to be the responsibility of the mentor who is expected to provide support to the protégé.

Inherent Functions of the Mentoring Relationship

The mentoring process can be very labor intensive and require continuous attention to the relationship between the mentor and protégé. There must be purposeful human interactions, such as advising, counseling and supporting, as important *initial* start-up elements in the mentoring process from the mentor's perspective. A mentor-protégé relationship evolves from traditional mentoring to quality mentoring as the relationship deepens. There are distinctions in the definition/functions of an advisor, "traditional" mentor and other support systems. Intentional, planned processes like giving advice, making recommendations,

providing counsel and promoting personal development, stimulate acquisition of

knowledge. Providing imformation about educational programs and creating

understanding of educational bureaucracy, are functions for all relationship

categories. Financial aid counseling, student orientation, coursework counseling and

procedures compliance, are forms of student support systems that are

underrepresented (Anderson & Shannon, 1988). In order for the relationship to

evolve from an advisor-student relationship to the functionally more comprehensive

relationship of quality mentoring, a commitment for substantial increase in both

time and effort from both parties is necessary. Emulating, sharing and affirming are

equally valued protégé behaviors as counterparts that affect the mentoring process.

Quality mentoring relationships include social components that expand and deepen the

relationship beyond its initial stages. According to Anderson and Shannon (1988),

mentoring is an intentional process; a nurturing process; an insightful process; a

supportive, protective process; and role modeling is a central function of mentoring.

Mentoring goes beyond personal development. Healy and Welcher (1990)

believed that quality mentoring is *reciprocal.* Mentoring is aimed at promoting

career and professional development of both the mentor and the protégé. For the

protégé, the object of mentoring is the achievement of an identity transformation, a

movement from the status of a nurturing process in which a more skilled or more

experienced person, serving as a role model, teaches, sponsors and encourages the

protégé to that of self-directing colleague. For the mentor, the relationship is a

vehicle for achieving midlife "generavity" (Erickson, 1963), a method to transcend

stagnation of self-pre-occupation via exercise "of an instinctual drive to create and

care for new life" (p. 17).

Quality mentoring functions build the mentor and protégé benefits and responsibilities systems. According to Clawson (1980), there is a profile of the mentor and the mentoring relationship. Mentor/protege relationships grow out of personal willingness to enter the relationships and not necessarily out of formal assignments. These relationships pass through a series of developmental stages characterized as formation, duration and fruition. Each stage has a characteristic set of activities and tasks. Mentors try to understand, shape and encourage the dreams of their protege while passing on their wisdom and experience to them. Mentors are expected to guide their protégé both technically and professionally. The protégé is encouraged to accept responsibility, but is not permitted to make large mistakes. The protégé is expected to learn through trial and error, observation and experiences involving relationships with the mentor. If given the opportunity, the mentor provides observation time and participation activities for the protégé to understand the politics of "getting ahead." Both mentor and protégé are expected to have high levels of respect for each other. These relationships often resemble a parent-child relationship in terms of affection. Mentor/protege relationships end in a variety of ways, often with continuing amiability or with anger and bitterness (Clawson, 1980).

The protege can gain a host of benefits from a lasting relationship with a single mentor and limited relationships that address needs for particular skills or information (Carter & Wilson, 1997). The responsibilities of the mentor will benefit the protégé if the mentor provides the following: individual recognition, honest criticism and informal feedback, advice on how to balance responsibilities and set professional responsibilities. If the mentor provides information on how to

"behave" in professional settings, knowledge of the informal rules for advancement and skills to showcase one's work, the protégé will benefit.

The protégé must be encouraged to build a circle of friends and contacts both within and outside one's institution. There should be a perspective on long-term career planning, involvement in joint projects and sponsorship provided by the mentor (Anderson & Shannon, 1988). When ideas and feedback are given to the mentor from a junior person that is committed to the success of the project, the mentor benefits as the project develops successfully. Once the protégé's network of colleagues expands, the mentor can benefit by the increased number of colleagues. This can be particularly important for women faculty, who are often isolated from senior women in other departments of their own campus (Anderson & Shannon, 1988).

Formal vs. Informal Mentoring

Not all researchers see equal benefits from formalized as opposed to informalized mentoring. Mentoring relationships cannot be legislated (formalized) because the "personal fit" is too important and should be left to mutual (informal) self-selection (Kram, 1985). On the other hand, Zey (1988) found that a planned (fomalized) mentoring program is important when used to increase opportunities for individuals who are less likely to be involved in a more "naturally occurring" mentoring relationship. This is especially true for women striving to advance their academic careers.

In 1989, the University of Minnesota's College of Education received a grant from a foundation to form an educational consortium with HBCUs (Historically Black Colleges and Universities). The grant funded a program for recruitment of 20

African American female students annually for study in education at the graduate

level. When Dickey (1996) researched *The Role of Quality Mentoring in the*

Recruitment and Retention of Women Students of Color at the University of

Minnesota, a three year case study methodology was used. Information was derived

from 38 semi-structured interviews with students, faculty mentors and

administrators. Data were obtained from questionnaires, demographic sheets,

program documents and statistical information. Dickey (1996) focused her

research on women in three different colleges at the University of Minnesota

involving one undergraduate and two graduate programs. The programs in the

colleges were designed to recruit, retain and graduate persons of color at the

postsecondary level. Participants in the research presented their perspectives

regarding a successful or unsuccessful mentoring process if it was available.

The mentoring relationship between the participants experienced (or not

experienced) was also examined. The central objective of her research was to

compare and contrast pragmatic effects, if any, of the mentoring processes in the

different programs. The programs were different with respect both to level of

mentoring and underrepresentation of minorities within the disciplines.

Program A was a master's level degree program in business without a planned

mentoring policy. Program B was an undergraduate summer mentoring program in

biological sciences. Program C was a graduate-level program in education without a

planned mentoring program. Dickey (1996) researched the three programs for

three years and found that Program A, a master's level program having limited

minority student participation in the field of business, experienced the following

effect. Without mentoring, the program showed little increase in female minority

student enrollment and had less than one percent of minority female students to graduate. Program B, also a traditional program, showed little increase in female minority student enrollment, despite a formal mentoring program. Dickey's conclusion was that the lack of females and minority mentors in the field of biological sciences may have contributed to the low(less than one percent) number of female minority students graduating. Program C, a traditional field of study in education where minority students and faculty representation were relatively greater, showed an increase in minority female student enrollment. There was also an increase in the percentages of female minority students who graduated. Students had to search individually to find a mentor in Program C's informal program, however, the specific goals of Program C were to: 1) increase the number of students of color in the college; 2) develop relationships between the College of Education and the Historically Black Colleges associated with the program; and 3) make a positive impact on the number of well-educated and certified African American educators in the Twin Cities areas of Minnesota.

Thus, an informal mentoring program may be important when used to increase opportunities for the mentoring experience for women of color. Therefore, if students of color have access to faculty of color, or access to a faculty member who will provide a mentoring relationship, minority enrollment can increase.

For minority students, mentoring programs can mean the difference between isolation and integration; failure and success (Healy & Welchert, 1990). Mentoring programs that include the goal of sensitizing participants to ethnic differences can maximize better understanding of persons of other cultures. It is possible for this sensitizing process to lead to life-long, valued people skills

(Healy & Welchert, 1990).

Many faculty do not acknowledge the importance of understanding the effects of cultural differences on student perception and learning styles. Students of color are the responsibility of all faculty, not just faculty of color (Carter & Wilson, 1997). Given the challenges facing higher education today, a closer association between faculty and students of color reduces stereotypes and reveals students who are intelligent and resourceful. Therefore, sensitizing all faculty to the experiences of students of color is essential and mentoring programs could accomplish that goal (Carter & Wilson, 1997).

Mentoring may be expressed within any or all of a number of mentoring functions such as teaching, counseling, supporting, protecting, promoting and sponsoring (Zey, 1988). All processes or functions of mentoring such as modeling, teaching, advising, counseling and sponsoring, must be present or the roles being enacted are not mentoring, according to Kram (1985). These researchers believed that with quality mentoring, all parties gain insight, knowledge and satisfaction. Informal contacts appear to be essential components in the process of social development. Healy and Welchert (1990) found that fulfillment of responsibilities for formalized mentoring programs could result in meaningful benefits when they studied the California Mentor Teaching Program (Kram, 1985). Some of the benefits included: collegiality, a positive sense of efficacy, the opportunity to have a broader impact on adults, exercise of leadership, facilitation of personal creativity, professional enriching and having control over their destinies (Healy & Welchert, 1990). In sum, mentors in a formalized program not only gave assistance to proteges, but received benefits contributing to their own personal development and

growth as well.

Redman (1990) supported a formalized mentoring program for women of color. According to his study, opportunities for advancement for racial and ethnic groups improved as planned mentoring increased. Targeting such groups who have experienced societal racism, lack of access to social resources and inadequate preparation during their lifetime was an advantage (Redman, 1990). He further explained that planned mentoring systematically addresses causes of culturally diverse student attrition and delayed graduation by (a) promoting greater student/faculty contact, communication and understanding; (b) encouraging the use of university resources designed to aid students with nonacademic problems; (c) intervening promptly with academic difficulties; and (d) creating a culturally validating psychosocial atmosphere. All will benefit if the mentoring relationships are successful (Redman, 1990).

Blackwell (1989) did a study on African American graduate students' mentoring experiences and revealed that only one in eight persons had ever had a true mentor, as distinquished from sponsors for specific purposes, advisors and guides.

> Given the multitude of constraints imposed upon most professors,
> the majority of students, graduate or undergraduate, manage to
> traverse the academic maze without ever having a true mentoring
> experience. (p. 10)

Blackwell also stated that those who teach are often guilty of subconscious (although sometimes conscious and deliberate) efforts to reproduce themselves through students they come to respect, admire and hope to mentor. As a result, such mentors

tend to select as proteges, persons who are of the same gender and who share with
themselves a number of social and cultural attributes or background characteristics
such as race, ethnicity, religion and social class. Because minorities are presently
underrepresented in faculty positions, such practices inevitably result in the under-
selection of minorities as proteges (Blackwell, 1989).

The first developmental stages of mentoring relationships were studied by
Bova and Phillips (1982) and Kram (1983). The stages: entry, mutual building of
trust; risk taking; teaching of skills and professional standards. In a subsequent
study, dissolution was added to the list and examined by Bova and Phillips (1984).
Later, Kram's (1985) study documented in more detail the concept that quality
mentoring requires time and effort that are significant to develop and reconstruct the
relationship. She found four additional stages: initiation; cultivation; separation; and
redefinition. Stage one, a period of six months to a year, is the time when the
relationship gets started and begins to have importance to both parties. Stage two,
lasting two to five years, develops during psychosocial and personal growth. The
third stage, a period of six months to two years, occurs after a significant change in
the structural role of the relationship or an emotional experience changes the
relationship. The final stage, an indefinite period of time after the separation phase,
is the period of time when the relationship is ended or takes on significantly different
charactistics, perhaps becoming a more peerlike friendship (Kram ,1985).
Whether the mentoring relationship is formal or informal, mentors and proteges are
awarded rights. The personal decisions made by the mentor or protégé should be
respected. These rights can be maintained even if the most complex bureaucracy
formalizes mentoring programs.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

When does mentoring occur and when does it not? A conceptual framework builds, revises and/or changes exisiting theory. The majority of present day mentoring literature places the sole responsibility of the mentoring relationship on the mentor. However, a general theoretical structure is needed that supports the theory that both mentor and protégé have responsibilities if quality mentoring is to take place. A focused conceptual framework is required that is directly pertinent to the study of participants in such research. Miles and Huberman (1984) recommend a theoretical framework that helps form and delimit data gathering within the format of a graphic model. There are certain aspects of the nature of higher education in the United States that are both sociological and psychological in theory. Mentoring should be examined from these two perspectives to build a conceptual framework for understanding mentoring.

Sociological Theory Contributing to Mentoring

One of the most directly relevant roles an institution plays for students consists of exposing them to diversity, presenting opportunities to explore and providing peer and adult models to emulate. There are priorities of focus or higher ranking concerns to look at in a succesful matriculation process. A comprehensive review by Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) discussed what was helpful to describe the process. Students are seen as active participants in their own growth in some sociological impact models, but according to Pascarella and Terenzini (1991), the environment is also seen as an active force that not only affords opportunities for change-inducing encounters but can also, on occasion, require a student to respond. Thus, change is influenced not only by whether and how the student responds but also

by the nature and intensity of the environmental stimulus. Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) further stated that the more one's social experience reflects and reinforces one's academic experience, the greater will be the possibilities for intellectual development.

It is important to note significant findings from Pascarella and Terenzini's (1991) research. The faculty plays a critical role in the growth of college students. Specifically, "students who reported the greatest cognitive development were also most likely to (1) perceive faculty as being concerned with teaching and student development, (2) report developing a close, influential relationship with at least one faculty member, and (3) find their interactions with peers to have had an important influence on their development" (p. 150).

Quality interactions are seen as an important factor throughout the student's college experience. Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) explain, "the dominant source of within-college effects consistently appears to be the frequency and nature of the contacts undergraduates have with the major agents of socialization: their peers and faculty members" (p. 264). Their study, particularly in regard to women students of color, provides evidence to support the importance of a quality mentoring relationship process. When Pascarella and Terenzini (1979) studied the interaction effects of Spady's and Tinto's conceptual models of college dropouts, they found that the quality and frequency of the student-faculty interaction as positively influencing "high risk" freshmen. Their 1979 article also stated that the relationship with faculty "is seen as a particularly important influence on both academic and social integration and the benefits of certain college experiences may be sufficient to override entering traits which often typify the dropout-prone student" (p. 198).

Frequency of informal student-faculty contact was seen as crucial. They also stated
that "such aspects of student-faculty relationships as the frequency of student-
faculty informal contact beyond the classroom are in fact positively associated with
college persistence" (p. 198).

In regard to student characteristics (e.g., gender, racial/ethnic origin,
academic aptitude, etc.), Pascarella and Terenzini (1979) stressed that in terms of
main effects' influence on persistence, what happens during the freshman year may
be more important than the particular commitments, background characteristics,
aspirations, or aptitudes which the student brings to college, a finding generally
consistent with earlier research on voluntary withdrawls. Thus, there may be
important determinants of freshman year persistence which are not merely the
result of the kinds of students enrolled, but rather are subject to the influence of
institutional policies and programs which affect the student after he or she arrives
on campus. "This may be particularly true if such programs and policies can
positively influence the quality of relationships with faculty for men, and both
faculty relationships and peer relationships in the case of women" (p. 208).

Tinto's (1975) explanatory, theoretical model of student persistence/with-
drawal behavior on freshman was also studied by Pascarella and Terenzini (1979).
They concluded that for women, social integration had a somewhat stronger direct
effect on voluntary freshman year persistence/withdrawal decisions than academic
integration. The reverse was found for males. There is a growing body of evidence
indicating that measures of social and academic integration tend to have a differential
influence on persistence for different kinds of students. That is, they provide
interpersonal links with important adults in the institution which tend to compensate

for the influence of an initially low commitment to the goal of graduation or the
relative absence of parental role models who themselves have substantial levels of
formal postsecondary education.

The Tinto (1975; 1987; 1993) model of retention/attrition has been widely
examined, tested and accepted by the educational community since it was first
published in 1975 (Halpin, 1990; Pascarella & Chapman,1983; Pascarella et al,
1983; Terenzini & Pascarella, 1980). Simply stated, the theory posits that
individual pre-entry college attributes (family background, skill and ability, prior
schooling) form individual goals and commitments. The individual's goals and
commitments interact over time with institutional experiences (the formal and
informal academic and social systems of an institution). The extent to which the
individual becomes academically and socially integrated into the formal and informal
academic and social systems of an institution determines the individual's departure
decision (Tinto, 1993).

Some colleges and universities have designed programs and services to ease
student transition into the academic and social systems of the institution. These
programs and services often consist of orientation programs (Green, 1987),
counseling and student development (Seidman, 1992a; Seidman, 1992b),
assessment, remedial and academic support services (Crockett, 1984; Seidman,
1995; Seidman, 1993) and the development of educational communities within the
classroom (Tinto et al, 1994), among others. Yet, inspite of the general acceptance
of the Tinto theory and the implementaion of programs and services over the past
twenty years, we have not been successful in retaining students, especially students
of color (Seidman, 1995).

According to Seidman (1995), the Tinto model is sociologically based. The model has proven to be a good predictor of student departure behaviors over the past 20 years. Seidman stated in his report (1995) that we do not have a standard definition of retention and until we develop one and apply it nationally, we will continue to get conflicting and inaccurate results of our interventions. Looking at retention broadly gives us a better picture of what happens in the classroom and colleges to our students.

For an intervention to be effective it must be powerful enough to effect change (Seidman, 1995). Interventions must start early and be intensive enough to make a difference. A student who is having problems cannot be diagnosed in mid semester and referred to a place to receive intervention and still be expected to improve enough to pass courses by the end of the semester. Consequently, a student with social adjustment problems probably cannot overcome them after they have surfaced a number of times without an intervention (Seidman, 1995). Early identification and early and intensive intervention may make a difference in whether or not the student will leave the institution prematurely. Mentoring may be the key to making a difference in the decisions made by the student.

Psychological Theory Contributing to Mentoring

There are two basic components to the term psychological. First, "psycho", "consists of the personal, internal, psychologically oriented aspects of individual being that dispose an individual to act or respond in certain ways", including self, ego and identity. The second part of the term "refers to the individual's personal orientations to the external world, to the relationships between the self and society. A term in close relationship to the word 'personality'" (Pascarella & Terenzini,

1991, p. 163). The psychosocial aspects of college student socialization and mentoring as an important component of socialization, should be examined.

As indicated earlier, a meaningful mentoring relationship is a "two-way" process of reciprocity. The responsibilities and benefits of a quality mentoring relationship are of equal importance to the mentor and protégé. Erick Erikson conducted research on the human life cycle and developed psychosocial theories long before the benefits and importance of mentoring interactions were studied.

Erikson trained under Sigmund and Anna Freud, specializing in child analysis. The study of the human life cycle has immediate applications in a number of fields and is paramount in the science of human development within social institutions (Erikson, 1987). Erikson divided the human life cycle into eight stages of development. The main emphasis was on the development of human potential. These eight stages demonstrate psychosocial crises as crucial in the human life cycle (Erickson, 1987).

The Eight Stages of Life (Psychosocial Crisis) are:

Stages	Psychosocial Crises	Basic Strengths	Basic Antipathies
Infancy	Basic trust vs. Basic Mistrust	Hope	Withdrawal
Early Childhood	Autonomy vs. Shame, Doubt	Will	Compulsion
Play Age	Initiative vs. Guilt	Purpose	Inhibition
School Age	Industry vs. Inferiority	Competence	Inertia
Adolescence	Identity vs. Confusion	Fidelity	Repudiation

Young Adulthood	Intimacy vs. Isolation	Love		Exclusivity
Adulthood	Generativity vs. Self-absorption	Care		Rejectivity
Old Age	Integrity vs. Despair	Wisdom		Disdain

(Data from: "The Human Life Cycle", in Erickson, 1987, pp. 599, 601; *Indentity and the Life Cycle.* Erickson, 1982, p. 129; and *The Life Cycle Completed.* Erickson, 1982, pp. 32-33).

According to Erickson (1982), each stage has a core crisis listed during which the development of a specific *syntonic* potential must out balance that of its *dystonic* antithesis. Syntonic potential occurs from basic trust in stage one to integrity in stage eight. Dystonic antithesis occurs during basic mistrust in stage one to despair in stage eight. Each crisis results in resolution with the emergence of a basic strength or ego quality represented from hope to wisdom. The sympathic strength has an antipathic counterpart represented from withdrawal to disdain. Therefore, the human being must be guided during a long childhood to develop instinctual relation patterns of love and agression that can be mustered for a variey of cultural environments vastly different in technology, style and world view (Erikson, 1982). Terming the process, "generativity", Erikson (1982) stated that "each new human being receives and internalizes the logic and the strength of the principles of social order... and develops the readiness under favorable conditions to convey them to the next generation... with potentials for development and recovery" (p. 81). The primary interest for establishing and guiding the next generation is to recognize the stage of growth producing the healthy personality. Individuals who do not develop generativity often begin to indulge themselves as if they were their own

one and only child (Erikson, 1982).

Erikson believed that humankind has evolved in such a way that we are both a "teaching as well as a learning animal" (p. 607). Mature individuals need to be needed and respond well to dependency and maturity. Thus, maturity is guided by the nature of that which must be cared for (Erikson, 1987). As established earlier, generativity is primarily the concern with establishing and guiding the next generation, including productivity and creativity, suggesting the process is psychosocial in nature. The crisis of generativity produces the strength of care. When such enrichment fails, adult self-indulgence becomes damaging to the generational development process (Erikson, 1987). Mentoring, then, is an excellent vehicle for passing on customs and knowledge to a new generation (protégé) as well as contributing to a healthy personality through generativity for the mentor.

Erikson's lead points to the fact that the mentor and the protégé each make a contribution to a quality mentoring relationship. A one sided relationship will suffer and cause the quality of mentoring to suffer as well. The protégé, in true Erikson terminology, provides the mentor with stimulation for generativity, a core ingredient for quality mentoring.

MENTORING: HOW DOES IT WORK?

As earlier indicated, mentoring has typically been defined as a relationship between an experienced and less experienced person in which the mentor provides guidance, advice, support and feedback to the prodigy (Haney, 1997). Mentoring has traditionally been seen as a way to help new employees learn about organizational culture (Bierema, 1996), to expand opportunities for those traditionally hampered by organizational barriers, such as women and minorities (Gunn, 1995), and to

facilitate personal career growth and development. The new idea concerning

mentoring suggests that the benefits are not only work related; but they can provide

individuals with opportunities to enhance cultural awareness, aesthetic appreciation

and the potential to lead a meaningful life (Galbraith & Cohen, 1995). Many

mentoring programs in business have been specifically geared to women and

minorities as a way of helping them break into the "Old Boy Network" and get

through the "Glass Ceiling," however the value of mentoring program opportunities

in the area of education is being recognized (Kerka, 1998).

Gunn (1995) suggested that a more democratic approach to mentoring is

emerging, open to more employees at more levels. For example, high-level new

employees may have a specific area of expertise, but they still may need coaching in

an organizational culture that mentors can provide. A partnership that is a "two-

way transfer of skills and experience" (p. 65) may be an important liaison between

the mentor and mentee. Another democratic approach is the trend toward group

mentoring in which the mentor is a learning leader of a team or "learning group"

within a learning organization (Kaye & Jacobson, 1996). Members of a diverse

learning group can learn from each other (peer mentoring) as well as from the

leader. This could prove to be important for minority women.

Mentoring in Higher Education

Redman (1990) said that in a holistic sense, quality mentoring can be seen as

a way of addressing society's injustices. He and other researchers agreed that

students frequently leave universities before graduation for reasons other than

academic ones (Astin, 1985; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991; Tinto, 1987). The

psychosocial climate of a university has a tremendous effect on students, especially

those from culturally diverse backgrounds (Green, 1989; Smith, 1989).

The students, or mentees, in this research were mainly undergraduate

students, with a few masters' level graduates. The mentors were minority and non-minority faculty women. Current mentoring research does not conclude that quality mentoring is the only variable that affects increased retention (Redman, 1990), but mentoring is a factor that can positively contribute to retaining students of color (Rodrigues, 2000). Effective mentoring in an academic setting involves not only the transfer of academic skills, attitudes and behaviors, but also involves coexsistence of mutually interdependent factors. The merging of these factors can contribute to the development of a level of interaction, trust and communication which may result in psychosocial comfort that empowers a student with the knowledge and confidence to grow. If such growth occurs, the student will be more likely to remain at the university until graduation, thus meeting the need of the university to address the problem of retention (Merriam, 1983).

Mentoring Relationships and Student Success

Acccording to Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) there are two persistent themes for student success. The first theme is the central role of others in the student's life such as students, staff and faculty. The learning environment created by these significant others and the strength of the stimulation their interactions provide for learning are crucial. The extent and quality of one's social interactions with student peers and faculty have a positive influence on persistence, educational aspirations, bachelor's degree attainment and graduate school attendance. The second theme is the importance of a student's involvement in nonacademic activities in the universities. Settings of the campuses and interpersonal experiences will promote

learning and induce students to become involved in those activities if faculty and
adminstrators have a comprehensive view of these needs, particularly for students of
color. Some researchers have also suggested that measures of social and academic
integration tend to have a differential influence on persistence for different kinds of
students. As a result, mentoring could be an attractive approach to meeting the needs
of certain groups of students who are most at risk of leaving the university before
graduation.

Research makes clear the important influences faculty members have on
students (Halpin, 1990; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991; Tinto 1993). There can be
little doubt about the need for faculty members' acceptance of their roles and
responsibilities for student learning and for their active involvement in students'
lives (Halpin, 1990). Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) found that the frequency of
informal contact with faculty to discuss intellectual issues and the perceived quality
of interaction with faculty and peers had the most positive influence on persistence
for students who came from families where parents had relatively low levels of
formal education. Two independent national samples regarding student contact studied
by Pascarella and Wolfe (1985); Kocher and Pascarella (1988); Pascarella,
Smart, and Ethington (1986); and Stoecker, Pascarella, and Wolfe (1988) suggest
that the degree of student-faculty social contact has a significant association with
bachelor's degree completion and educational attainment of a doctoral degree
(Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). Therefore, evidence from these studies suggest
that social contact is influential at both undergraduate and graduate levels.
Throughout their 20 year study of college student experiences, Pascarella and
Terenzini (1991) found a central and recurring theme. The theme suggested,

"it is clear that many of the most important effects of college occur through students' interpersonal experiences with faculty members and other students" (p. 644).

Institutional Support

Demonstrating concern and care for students are important mentoring functions. To Astin (1985), student persistence depended to some extent on the degree of personal involvement in campus life and environment. He determined that student-faculty contact also had a significant impact on retention. In order to improve retention, it is crucial to improve the quality of interaction between students and faculty and staff. Those interactions should demonstrate concern and care for students.

The Faculty and Staff Mentoring Program at Canisius College was established to enhance interactions between students and faculty and administrators. Miller and Brickman (1982) stated that the program's effectiveness was mainly perceived in the area of providing "an orientation to the surroundings," the opportunity for students "to develop a close relationship with concerned faculty or staff member," and "the chance to learn how the college operates" (p. 24). The objectives of the program were:

1. To arrange for senior faculty and staff of the college community to have a positive impact on new students so that their assimilation into the academic community was aided.

2. To provide a support group of peers for new students so issues of mutual concern could be addressed in a peer group setting.

3. To enhance the personalization of the academic environment for new students.

4. To enhance relationships between new students and faculty
    members and administrators.

5. To provide a continuing orientation to college life and to increase
    the involvement of new students in the academic community.

6. To aid new students in developoing the skills necessary for them
    to cope with their challenges and to improve their chances for
    academic success.

7. To help students identify positively with the college by conveying
    concern and care for them.

The cultural environment of an institution is equally important according to

Richardson, Simmons and de los Santos (1987). Where minority student enrollment

is close to 10 percent, considerable attention is given to building an environment

minority students perceive as hospitable. "As enrollments of a specific minority

group approach 20 percent, the environment changes from accommodation through

special programs to incorporation into the mainstream of institutional culture" (p.

23).

Some special support programs for minority students have been evaluated.

One is the Richardson study (1987) that emphasized the recruitment of graduate

students to serve as role models for students in high school considering a

baccalaureate program. The institution also worked toward expanding the pool of

potential minority faculty members and emphasizing affirmative action in faculty

recruitment. The use of summer bridge programs, orientation programs and tutors

were also implemented as special support. According to Richardson (1987), there

seemed to be a substantial correlation between the extent to which these

characteristics existed and the degree of success an institution experienced. The best
graduation rates occurred where comprehensive and systematic institutional efforts
were supplemented by strong support from system and state leadership. "Good
results also occurred when one variable, such as committed institutional leadership,
partially offsets the absence of another" (p. 26).

Universities and Minorities

Several studies of minority students' experiences have been conducted
at predominately white institutions due to national press attention toward minority
students on these campuses (Caldwell, 1995, Hurtado, Milem, Allen & Clayton-
Pedersen 1996: Nettles, 1991). The results suggested that African-American
students on many campuses experienced isolation, alienation and lack of support
(Caldwell, 1995). Caldwell also found that African-American students' college
success was influenced by the campus context and students' interpersonal
relationships. The most important component of the social context was an extensive
network of friends, social outlets and supportive relationships. The most important
component of the psychosocial context was multiple boosts to self confidence and self-
esteem, feelings of psychological comfort and belonging and a sense of empowerment.
If these variables were in place, it was more likely that the African-American
student would succeed (Caldwell, 1995). A caring and personalized support system
for the minority graduate or undergraduate student should be developed as well as an
increase in communication and interaction levels between faculty members
(minority and non-minority) and the minority student (Caldwell, 1995). This may
help increase enrollment (Deitz, 1993).

Cross-cultural Competency

To be effective with diverse students, it is crucial for mentors to recognize and understand their own worldviews; only then will they be able to understand that in order for mentors to interact effectively with their mentees, they must confront their own racism and biases (Banks, 1994; Gillette & Boyle-Baise, 1995; Nieto & Rolan, 1995), learn about their mentees' culture, and perceive the world through diverse cultural lenses (Banks, 1994; Gillette & Boyle-Baise, 1995; Nieto & Rolon, 1995; Sleeter, 1992; Villegas, 1991). A person who is considered cross-culturally competent is one who has achieved an advanced level in the process of becoming intercultural and whose cognitive, affective and behavioral characteristics are not limited but are open to growth beyond the psychological parameters of only one culture. "The intercultural person possesses an intellectual and emotional commitment to the fundamental unity of all humans and, at the same time, accepts and appreciates the differences that lie between people of different cultures" (Gudykunst & Kim, 1984, p. 230). Bennett (1995) added to this definition a commitment to combating racism and "all forms of prejudice and discrimination, through the development of appropriate understanding, attitudes and social action skills" (p. 263).

It is important to note that process-oriented models to determine cross-cultural competency have been criticized. Gilligan (1982) criticized Kohlberg's work (1984) on moral development. Helms (1990) questioned the broad application of ethnic identity and cultural awareness models to both majority and minority populations and Meyers and others (1991) voiced concern regarding the model's lack of personal agency. According to Meyers and others (1991), process

models ignore an individual's ability to control his or her responses to the environment. Some of the models have been acccused of lacking empirical evidence, oversimplifying complex problems (Jones, 1990) and generalizing across race and gender. Some researchers state that cross-cultural learning and identity development are complex processes that involve many factors such as age, gender, ethnicity, race, social class and sexual orientation (Jones,1990; Lovinger, 1976; Phinney, 1990; Prosser, 1978; Taylor, 1994). They claim that some models simplify the concept of identity by focusing on a single factor such as race. When considering mentoring in general, using some type of process model could provide a foundation for mentors. Despite their limitations, these models to determine cross-cultural compentency should be reviewed for their applicability and utility in teacher education research and practice in the area of cultural diversity and should not be dismissed summarily.

In summary, women of color are likely to benefit from special programs geared to especially recruit and retain them in institutions of higher learning. The psychosocial context in which students of color find themselves is very important. Self esteem and self confidence can influence the student of color to remain in college. Interaction among faculty members is also beneficial to help retain students of color. Frequent informal contacts outside the classroom strengthen personal and academic socialization. Increasing minority faculty positions will increase mentoring experiences for students of color. Presently, research providing information and insights of female faculty mentors is somewhat lacking. We need to have more qualitative information about mentoring before we can continue to learn more about the process of mentoring.

Chapter 3
Research Methodology
RATIONALE

Qualitative Research Methodology

The research methodology chosen for the topic of mentoring minority women in universities, was qualitative. The qualitative research model was developed primarily in the social sciences and has been applied to problems in other disciplines only in recent years (Borg & Gall, 1989). Tierney and Lincoln (1997) indicated that qualitative research was being utilized in higher education as a useful and meaningful methodology by an increasing number of researchers. Miles and Huberman (1994) stated that qualitative data, usually in the form of words rather than numbers, has always been the predominant method in most of the social sciences, notably anthropology, history and political science.

Qualitative methodology offers well-grounded, rich descriptions and explanations of processes in identifiable local contexts. The contexts help preserve chronological flow so that one can see precisely which events led to which consequences, and derive fruitful explanations once the consequences have been examined. This type of methodology helps the researchers get beyond all initial conceptions. The ability to generate or revise conceptual frameworks is also made possible once the chronological flow has been generated. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), using this type of methodology in higher education has benefits.

It is not known what makes mentoring successful or unsuccessful. No one is able to explain exactly how and why mentoring works with minorities or if it is successful or not. The purpose of this study was to describe how and why mentoring occurs, with minority women, through the mentor's perception. The goal of this research was to interpret the experiences of female mentors "in terms of the meanings people bring" to

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the experience (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 2).

Qualitative methods were used in this research due to the approach such an inquiry takes. Qualitative inquiry deals with the meanings and perspectives that individuals attach to a specific phenomenon. It attempts to make sense out of those meanings and perspectives. Qualitative research is a process that delves into a human problem. According to Creswell (1998) "the researcher builds a complex, holistic picture, analyzes words, reports detailed views of informants..." (p.15). What will emerge will be the multi-dimensions of the phenomenon.

Validity is an important component of any research inquiry. Borg and Gall (1989) indicated that accomplishing reliability and validity in the traditional sense when the task is qualitative research may be more difficult. The nature and intention of qualitative research requires an approach to these components that differs from quantitative research methods. Qualitative research methods seek concepts such as "truth value" for internal validity, "transferability" for external validity, and "consistency" for reliability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Miles & Huberman, 1994). The tenets of qualitative research, therefore, require that the investigator explain assumptions, theoretical bias, relationship to the group under study and sampling rationale.

Phenomenological Approach

Phenomenology concerns itself with researching life experiences. The goal of this study was to investigate through the use of a phenomenological method, the leadership/mentoring practices of female minority and non-minority professors toward minority students in higher education. The purpose of the study was to describe and possibly explain how and why mentoring practices occur in regard to minority women.

To achieve this purpose, the research examined the following question.

1) How do female university or college faculty perceive the mentoring process, (if available), designed especially for the retention of female undergraduate/graduate students of color?

Given the breadth of many perspectives of the mentoring process, this research focused on two universities located in the midwestern section of the United States. University A was one of the most culturally diverse campuses in the state, with more than a third of its student population either claiming an ethnic heritage or coming from a foreign country (National Center for Education Statistics, 2000). Nearly 20 percent of University A's students were African American, seven percent were Hispanic, five percent were Native American and more than three percent were Asian or Pacific Islander. The remaining students were Caucasian. According to University A's Student Profile (2000), 280 students were enrolled in the elementary education program. Of the 280 enrolled, 92 percent were female and 25 of the students were African American, representing nine percent of the population. There were 19 professors in the Education Department. Of those 19 professors,10 were female. None were minority.

During this study, University B was known as an HBCU (Historically Black College/University). University B was an anomaly in the establishment of higher education institutions (Dickey, 1996). University B was the first to be designated by race as well as the first institution where the combined functions of "all existing institutions created before 1897" were to be incorporated (Dickey, 1996, p. 3). Thus, in such ambiguous language did the territorial legislature establish the state's first comprehensive university and make difficult any precise statement of just what a university was or is, given the political and social realities of the state's history

(Dickey, 1996).

During this study, University B had accepted the challenge to provide educational opportunities for students from every populated continent. Nearly 95 percent of University B's students were African American, one percent was Hispanic, one percent was Native American, two percent were Caucasian and one percent was Asian or Pacific Islander. According to University B's Student Profile (2000), 130 students were enrolled in the education department and 93 percent of them were female. Of those 130 enrolled in education, 92 percent were African American, four percent were Native American, one percent was Asian or Pacific Islander, one percent was Caucasian and two percent were Hispanic. There were 13 professors in the Education Department. Of those 13 professors, 8 were female. All of the female were minority.

Data Collection

This was a qualitative study which used open ended interviews for data collection. Minority and non-minority female faculty members from both University A and B were asked to participate. Purposeful sampling techniques were used to select only those minority and non-minority women professors who had experienced the phenomenon or were presently experiencing the phenomenon of mentoring a minority female student. The seven self-selected participants served as evidence that a mentoring program (formal or informal) did exist.

As a way of making initial contact, I posted an e-mail to all 18 of the women faculty members in the education department of both universities as potential participants. I stated the purposeful requirements to participate in the study. I contacted the Review Board at the University and received approval to proceed with my research. The 18 women were required to contact me if they were willing to participate.

Seven women responded to my e-mail request. I sent out e-mail requests once more to the 11 remaining professors that did not contact me. Of the 11 remaining professors, three responded, but declined to participate because they felt they did not meet the requirements. I tried once more to contact the remaining eight professors and received no additional responses. I set up appointments to get consent forms signed and interviewed the participants. I audio-taped the interviews to ensure accuracy. Each participant signed the consent forms and the sessions lasted approximately one to two hours.

Acknowledging my own experiences as I conducted this research was a vital part to becoming a qualitative researcher. Identifying who I am and the values I espouse shaped my research as noted by Clarke, (1975); Eisner, (1991); Glesne and Peshkin, (1992); and Merriam, (1988). Furthermore, according to Connely and Clandinin, (1988; 1990), my experiences are a valuable asset to the field of educational research. As a concern about representing the voices of the non-minority faculty members in a manner that captures their experiences and perceptions, a non-minority coder assisted me in making judgements about the meaning of the data. Retrospective open-ended, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the seven faculty women.

Participant Profile

Five of the seven participants were married with children, one participant was divorced without children and one participant was divorced with children. They all had received their doctoral degrees between the period of 1980-1996. None of the participants received a degree from an Historically Black College or University. Four of the participants were non-minority and three of the participants were African American. During the time of the study, the African American professors were teaching

classes at University B (HBCU). All of the participants from University A were non-
minority. Five of the participants had middle-class suburban backgrounds, while two of
the participants described themselves as coming from "country" beginnings. One of the
participants in University A was a department chair and one of the participants in
University B was a department chair. The participants were given pseudonyms. They
will be represented as M1, M2, M3, M4, M5, M6 and M7 for the purpose of this study.
M1, M2, M4 and M6 were non-minority women. M3, M5, and M7 were African
American women.

Data Analysis

A qualitative thematic strategy of data analysis was employed to organize and
make judgements about the meaning of the data. This inquiry approach led to a single-
case level of analysis whereby the findings were aggregated to incorporate a thematic
approach. I read each transcript while I listened to the audio tapes to make sure I had
transcribed correctly. Then I listened to the interview again. I read the transcripts
once more, this time making notes in the margins to capture possible themes. I found
myself overwhelmed trying to read all the transcripts, so I decided to focus on each
question individually among the interviews. I read M1's first question, developed a
theme, then I read M2's first question and noted similarities and I repeated this process
with all seven interviews. Then I went through the second question on all seven
interviews. I completed this process until I had covered all of the questions.

Consolidation of the themes still posed a problem for me, so I went to my
research question to determine if a main theme could be found. I was much more
successful at this point. I had to figure out a way to determine which interview belonged
to whom, so I copied each interview in a particular color so that I knew that white

belonged to M1, blue belonged to M2, and so forth. I purchased poster board and wrote my final theme headings on the board. When I could see the participants' words at a glance and had placed marginal notes on the transcripts, I could finally narrow down sentiments that I believed were consistent throughout each interview. I began to understand what the participants were trying to say. I solicited the help of another coder. The final analysis was a collaborative endeavor between an African American researcher and a non-minority colleague. In this cross-cultural analysis each of us analyzed the data separately to ensure a reliable coding system (Merriam, 1988). Discussion between us about the differences in the cross-cultural interpretations of these participants' experiences was a way to establish a reliable and trustworthy interpretation of the findings (Moustakes, 1994).

Assumptions of the study

Assumptions in the research were: 1) the information perceived by the interviewee was trustworthy; 2) if they perceived mentoring as occuring, their comments were accepted as a positive view of the mentoring function; and 3) if they perceived mentoring as not occuring, their comments were accepted as a negative view of the mentoring function.

Chapter 4
Findings and Analysis

Mentoring can be important for a woman's advancement. When women in leadership positions are asked about factors for success, mentors are often mentioned as being key. Because few studies have been done on retention strategies for women of color, in higher education, a phenomenological study devoted to understand professors' lived experiences as mentors to minority women best lent itself to examining women mentoring women.

Findings

An informal mentoring program was available in both universities. Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) studied college students' experiences for 20 years. They found a central theme which suggested that the most important effects of college occur through interpersonal relationships between faculty and students. Data analysis revealed two major themes, each consisting of a number of subthemes. The themes were the kind of mentoring experience the participant received and the kind of mentoring that was provided by the participant as a mentor to the women of color.

The ensuing discussion reflects the perceptions and views of minority and non-minority female faculty members mentoring minority women as a retention tool in their present universities. What will become evident in this discussion is the pervasive power of mentoring, even though only six of the seven participants had mentors themselves. The participants had years of experience as mentors. Each began their mentoring careers one to two years after receiving their doctoral degrees. They received their degrees between 1980 and 1996. Some of the non-minority participants were reluctant to mentor women of color in the beginning, however, they soon overcame their fears. It will also become apparent that the

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participants continued to keep in touch with their mentees long after the mentoring

relationship on campus was ended. The participants corroborated the research

regarding the inherent fuctions of mentoring relationships as reported by Anderson

and Shannon (1988). They believed they gave advice, made recommendations,

provided technical and professional support. Supporting Erickson's claim (1987),

the participants believed that their primary concern was to guide the next

generation, thus establishing generavity. Inasmuch as I recognize the diversity and

individual complexity that exsisted among both the non-minority mentor and

minority mentee, the data from the participants in this study pointed to an

undifferentiated treatment toward the women without regard to color.

Data Analysis

I. The Kind of Mentoring Received

    a. *Turning Point*

        1. Peer Mentoring

        2. Institutional Support

        3. Intrinsic Motivation

    b. Mentoring Relationships

        1. Support

        2. Encouragement

II. The Kind of Mentoring Given

    a. *Interpersonal Relationships with the Mentees*

        1. Chacteristics

        2. Mentoring Pitfalls or Cultural Differences

    b. Responsibility, Roles and Future of Mentoring

The first theme, the kind of mentoring experience the mentor received had several subthemes. Someone or something had encouraged them to reach a higher goal, which I labeled as "Turning Point." Under this subtheme the topics, "peer mentoring," "institutional support" and "intrinsic motivation" were discussed. The next subtheme, "mentoring relationships" evolved between the participant and the mentors that changed the participants' lives. Headings under this subtheme were "support" and "encouragement." The second theme, the kind of mentoring given by the mentor included several subthemes. The first subtheme was labeled "interpersonal relationships with mentees." Under this heading were "characteristics" and "mentoring pitfalls or cultural differences." The next subtheme was labeled "responsibility, roles and future of mentoring" and the final subtheme, "successful or unsuccessful," rounds out the discussion.

THE KIND OF MENTORING RECEIVED

Turning Point

Themes related to turning point emerged as the participants described experiences that occurred in their lives that changed the course of their lives. These situations caused the participants to make life altering decisions which led them to their present occupations. They discussed how these experiences prompted them to understand the need for mentors. Although each experience led to getting a doctoral degree, one of the participants did not have a mentor. The turning points emerged as peer mentoring, institutional support and intrinsic motivation. It was important to note that the participants felt they were only able to measure success intrinsically.

Peer Mentoring

M4 had started a teaching career and dropped out of the work force to raise

her children. A friend who was teaching in the home economics department asked her

to apply for a job. Accepting a new position that required her to obtain a higher

degree, along with the motivation of her peers, prompted her to seek a new degree.

She believed this was her turning point. Returning to school led her to the position

she had at the time of the study and it has provided her the opportunity to be able to

help others. She explained what happened:

> A friend of mine who was teaching in the home economics department
>
> here at the university called and said, I want you to come out, put your
>
> application in. I need a teacher, and I'd like for it to be you. And I said,
>
> Oh, I don't think so, I don't feel quite prepared to do that, but let me
>
> think about it. So I was visiting my co-teacher and she says, 'Well, I
>
> would be interested, I think, I'll call.' So she called and was hired. When
>
> she got out here she discovered that they all needed to be working on their
>
> doctoral degree, so she started working on hers and she said, 'You know,
>
> the two of us are carpooling together, let's just make it a threesome and
>
> we'll all work on this together.' So, three of us carpooled to a university
>
> to work on our doctoral degree...

Institutional Support

These participants discussed professors who saw "something" in them

that caused them to continue educational excellence. Women, especially women of

color, as undergraduates or graduate students, tend to experience stronger feelings of

isolation in higher education systems (Tinto, 1988). When the remaining

participants were "singled out" by one of their professors, their understandings of

what was expected of them began to take shape. As M2, a non-minority mentor,

described the atmosphere at an all women's university, she felt her mentor, a

professor at the university, instilled educational excellence in all of the student body:

> Well, ok, as an undergrad, I came to (name of university) and in
>
> the university we didn't have men, so there was little competition,
>
> and there was a great emphasis on leadership. In fact, at that time,
>
> and I'm sure they probably still do, we had stickers on the back of
>
> our cars that says follow that leader to (U), and it was just ingrained
>
> in us that you were going to be a cut above. You are going to be something,
>
> not just a housewife, not just a teacher, not just a principal, not just a
>
> scientist, you are going to be a pioneer woman...so, with that indoctrination,
>
> I guess it's always stood out, be the best you can be, lead others.

M3, a minority mentor, felt encouragement even though there were no minority

faculty members at the time she attended her university, yet support came when a

non-minority professsor noticed her:

> I didn't know who to turn to. So, I went to the library everyday. One
>
> day my professor came in and said she had noticed me in the library
>
> for a long time. She asked me what I was doing. I told her I would like
>
> to become a teacher one day. She said, why not be a professor? I
>
> thought from then on, why not? We talked everyday. I started grading
>
> papers for her, and when I went off to work on my degree, I called
>
> her constantly. She was there for me. She treated me like a friend.
>
> I really owe a lot to her...she came to my graduation!

> In summary, these women had careers that moved them through the ranks of

education, but during that educational journey, most of them had mentors. They saw
a window of opportunity to change their lives. Their mentors took on many forms.
They were teachers, advisors and sometimes friends. The women who received
mentoring in the institutions they attended expressed that their mentors had
qualities such as interpersonal skills, professionalism and leadership skills. With
or without mentoring, the participants felt compelled to mentor others.

Intrinsic Motivation

M6 discussed her turning point as appearing after dropping out of the work
force to raise her two children. M6 said that she did not have a mentor at all. She felt
that because she did not have a mentor, she would make it a point to mentor someone.
She discusssed that if someone had intervened in her life, she probably would have
gotten her degree a lot sooner. She soon discovered that she had teaching skills that
others envied, especially with minority students. She had taught in numerous states
following her husband's career while working many years as a substitute teacher.
One day while working with minority students in New Mexico, she had an epiphany:

> ...the last position that I had in education, I decided that people were
>
> coming to me and asking what I was doing, the things that I was
>
> doing in my classroom, whole language methodology, using literature
>
> for reading ...I had done some research and had gone by New Mexico
>
> State to take some reading courses to see if I wanted to go on with
>
> this and that kind of made my decision that I can work with 20
>
> students and change them or I can get my doctorate and work with
>
> 20 teachers who will teach 20 students and it would grow exponentially.

Mentoring Relationships

Once the participants decided to pursue higher education degrees, they developed relationships with their mentors. M6 eventually found a professor who checked on her periodically. Although M4 carpooled with friends, there was one professor who began to provide emotional support and guidance for her. The other participants continued to speak highly of the relationships that evolved between special professors and themselves. When describing "mentoring relationships," the participants' mentors were described as persons who taught, encouraged, counseled, and developed talents which required the mentor and mentee to work toward common goals. They worked on projects that developed the mentee's professional skills and accomplished faculty objectives. The participants also believed that their mentors were very supportive. The support of the mentors allowed them to reach their desired goals. Some participants spoke of receiving supportive mentoring outside the college campus from their professors. That support instilled in them the desire to support others.

Support

M2, M3, and M1 discussed how important it was for them to have support in other areas of their lives as they pursued their educational careers. There was a common theme that without the support of others, they would not have been able to mentor students because they would not have completed their educational goals. The support that others rendered them strengthened their beliefs that they too must be supportive. They discussed that the young women whom they mentored, often showed signs of needing support. They recalled when they needed support too:

M2...my parents, in fact my mom and dad said, as long as you go to

school, we'll pay your tuition... I have loaned money to a mentee

because I felt close to her like a parent.

M3: I would say my husband was very supportive, which I think is

a big plus when you've got family support, including your husband.

It's important when I bring students home to realize that it's not

disrupting my own family. His support enables me to help my

students in more personal ways.

M1, a non-minority mentor, was driving to school at night, and was teaching a large

population of African American students. She was one of very few non-minority

teachers. She felt she was losing control of her life and classroom when her support

came from her minority colleague:

M1: ...My classroom neighbor, next door, Mrs. B, who would come

over and say, 'Girl, let me tell you how it is, this is what you need

to say, this is what you need to do, if you're going to reach these

children where they're coming from. It's not about being nice,

it's about being effective, and there is a very strong difference

there.' I got my class under control and it was much easier to drive

to class at night. If she had not helped me get my class under

control, I'm sure I would have been fired. But now, look what I am

doing for others because of her, her support.

<u>Encouragement</u>

Three of the participants reached a point in their lives where they believed

that someone saw attributes within them. Their attributes indicated to the women who

mentored them, that they had potential to obtain a higher degree in education. They

often expressed that their mentors saw in them what they did not see in themselves.

Positive mentoring relationships with former mentors encouraged the participants

to continue to pursue their educational careers and they encouraged their mentees to

do the same.

For example:

> M1 There was a professor at a college where I was enrolled... the first
>
> year on a religion scholarship...that recognized my ability in the area
>
> of English. And I'll never forget him sitting me down and talking to me
>
> about me having skills in that area, that I should utilize; that I should
>
> be proud of those abilities. On my term paper was a note, 'Had I ever
>
> considered being a college professor of English?' I find myself
>
> writing notes of encouragement on my students papers too!

M2 discussed that encouragement always followed her, "I think I've always had some

mentor, there's always been someone who has been very influential in a particular

job that I've had."

M7, a minority mentor, said:

> They (mentors) were leaders like my teachers in high school and they
>
> were very encouraging, very supportive. They believed in me. I, as a good
>
> student, I worked very hard, I had a long ways to go coming from a country
>
> school to a city school... Someone believed in me, I believe in these young
>
> women. They come from everywhere, sometimes with everything, some
>
> times with nothing. Those are the ones that need strong encouragement.

The participants believed that the kind of mentoring they received was important.

They needed encouragement and support. The psychosocial context of their

experiences was nurtured through their mentoring relationships. To build self

esteem and confidence, important elements to student persistence, encouragement and

support were considered key.

THE KIND OF MENTORING GIVEN

Interpersonal Relationships with the Mentees

Although learning is a matter of individual interpretation of experiences, it

takes place within a social context (Kerka, 1998). Therefore, the interpersonal

relationship of mentor and mentee is recognized as essential (Galbaith & Cohen,

1995). Racism, sexism and other prejudices pose barriers for minorities and

females when they try to attract a mentor (Jerusalem, 1991). A non-minority

participant revealed that when she began teaching she felt uncomfortable about

mentoring women of color. Others expressed that they felt "unprepared" to mentor

someone outside of their race. However, as the years passed, their attitudes changed

and mentoring women of color no longer presented a problem for them.

> M1: ...I was afraid I would step on someone's toes. I didn't know a thing
>
> about being black. I understood what it meant to be a woman. I took
>
> what I knew and I have never looked back.

When M4 was asked if she felt the influx of minority women would change her role as

a mentor, she replied:

> I don't think I can make a knowledgeable answer on that...I had black
>
> students that would, you know...again, I think to say I was color blind
>
> would be dismissing people's color so I am aware of people's color and
>
> also the fact that once I am aware of it, I don't see it. I think students
>
> find me very approachable, but then again, I just don't go out and

recruit... I mentor when I need to. I was afraid, but not anymore.

M4 later added:

> ...but, I can go back and say that I don't, I don't see a lot of minority in
>
> elementary. I don't know if there's not enough money to be made in
>
> elementary. Perhaps the businesses are aware of recruiting minority
>
> so they are putting out the big bucks, jobs and of course they would go
>
> there before they would come into education. So, that might be a factor
>
> and I just don't see them at the elementary level.

M7, a minority mentor noted, "We are responsible for our women. They are our future. There should be no limit or boundaries for what we should do for them."

The minority mentors discussed how limited their mentees were in the areas of finance and technology resources. There was a concern for their students lacking content and subject area knowledge. They felt driven to mentor outside the classroom walls because of the personal resources they had available. The minority mentors believed that their mentees' success meant their personal success. According to M7, "There have been times that I have had students over to my house working on a project...If they look good, then I look good."

Characteristics

Mentors often look for certain characteristics in potential proteges (Kerka, 1998). The participants tried to find interpersonal skills, motivation, attitude and intelligence. Some of the participants recognized that their minority students had characteristics that were worth nurturing and recruiting. M2 said:

> I just think there are values. I know they all have something, they are
>
> not all identical, but, yet, I can look at them and, she's so kindhearted,

she's going to be such a wonderful teacher, oh, she's so creative...

And M1 stated:

> ...At the heart of our teacher education program...the three "C's" that
>
> the student is caring, the student is competent, and the student is
>
> committed. *So what I look for in my students is do they have a good heart.*
>
> We can teach them the skills they need to become competent, I know I can,
>
> with thirty years experience in the field, I can teach them the skills.
>
> But when you talk about the four components of successful instruction,
>
> the one we can't teach is the one called enthusiasm. But, I look for somebody
>
> who is caring about children, who is enthusiastic about teaching and who's
>
> really committed to making this not just a livelihood, not just a vocation.

For minority women to be successful with learning, there must be a bond

established with the relationship between the mentor and the mentee. This is the

only way the mentee can benefit from the mentor's knowledge, contacts, support and

guidance (Kerka, 1998). The participants knew which characteristics the mentees

had that were worth cultivating. M7, a minority participant, said she looked for

students who were like her when she was their age. M1, a non-minority mentor,

made this comment:

> Minority women tend to be more nurturing than the Anglos, which I think
>
> is interesting. I have one student, she is a black female who has a degree in
>
> sociology, coming back to be certified as a teacher, elementary level, who
>
> has a caring heart, and I laughingly call my adopted daughter. She brings
>
> her daughter to see me, when she comes in for office visits and we put the
>
> daughter on the carpet in my office, with some books and I play with her

child like a grandparent would do, but, she has to my mind, one of the most

caring hearts and committed personalities. I can teach her the competencies.

Now, she came in with some dialect problems as far as written and spoken

English. Those are things that we are addressing. At first it's a matter of

recognizing it and then it's a matter of finding ways to work around it, or

work through it, but she's got the caring and the commitment and she's

wonderful. My face lights up every time I see her come in.

M6 noted:

If I don't hear from one of my students that I have taken under

my wing for a while, then I start looking for them. I ask other students

to find them and tell them to contact me! I get mad if they don't and

they know it.

Incorporation in college indicates that the student has successfully moved

away from the norms and behavioral patterns of the past. The student now faces new

challenges of finding and adopting appropriate norms of the new society. The student

must recognize the social and intellectual community norms. The minority

participants noted that their mentoring needs were controlled by the urge to nuture.

Their interactions with the mentees took on parental characteristics. This

interpersonal relationship nurtured collaborative dialogue, critical thinking,

planning, reflection and feedback (Anderson & Shannon, 1988).

Mentoring Pitfalls or Cultural Differences

As organizational diversity increases, the question arises whether mentoring

becomes a vehicle for assimilation or exclusion. The personal relationship at the

heart of mentoring can be problematic when mentor and mentee are of different

genders, races or ethnic backgrounds (Ensher & Murphy, 1997). According to

Kerka (1998), at the intersection of race and gender stand women of color, torn by

the lines of bias that currently divide white from nonwhite in our society and male

from female. The worlds these women negotiate demand different and often wrenching

allegiances. When the non-minority participants responded to the question

concerning race and gender, the following information emerged. M1 stated, "No, I

don't see that it will, not at all, because as I said, it's just another woman to me."

According to M2, "No, none... not at all... women are women...we have the same needs,

the same desires, the same problems, and I don't see that at all." One non-minority

participant discussed her concerns about gender:

> M6: Not with race, not at all, people are people. Gender? No, not really.
> There are not that many men in the early childhood area. I have observed
> male teachers. I have had male teachers at the child development center.
> There was no problem with that. Absolutely not, never has been...I have
> children in my class, and I don't see color.

The non-minority participants emphatically declared that race and gender had

no impact whatsoever in determinng who received mentoring attention. They

believed if someone were in need of assistance and came to them for help, they would

receive services. The minority participants, on the other hand, had differing views

regarding race and gender. There was a strong sense of obligation for minority

mentors to take care of minority mentees. They also recognized that when the same

race mentor was not present, many women of color had been successful with non-

minority mentors. One minority participant, M3, shared her views on race by

stating, " Women belong to what I think of as the women's club. We tend to support

each other because we are women."

> M5: Sure there are pitfalls with race....no one will take care of you
> unless they know about you. How can you know about a woman of a
> different race if you don't make the effort to know her? Do you care
> about her outside of the classroom? Can you honestly say you
> understand what its like to be black in a white man's world dominated
> by white man's rules if you're not black? Maybe a good white woman
> can understand what I'm talking about. A good white woman... I have
> known a few.

M7 did not have a problem with race or gender, however, for her, age presented
a problem.

> M7: Gosh, I'm having a hard time keeping up with these young girls.
> Maybe I'm too old to try. Women that are focused can be taught. I
> feel that same way about boys and men. Stay focused. If you want
> to learn, I can and will teach you. I don't care if you're green.

M4, a non-minority mentor, believed that racism still exsited in various parts of
the country. She also believed that educating people to celebrate cultural differences
could be an effective tool for preparing mentors for the future. M4 made the
following remark regarding pitfalls:

> I think it could be, I think it depends on what part of the country you
> are from...with race, I don't think that it would be unless it depends
> on what part of the country they were brought up in, that might be
> a problem, but, I think educated people are aware, especially with
> the multicultural awareness that has been put into our course work,

that we teach our prospective teacher to be aware of their culture and

to value their culture and to validate each student. So, I think, I don't

think we could teach that with any sincerity if we don't believe it. So, I

don't think it would be a problem with mentoring, but, I could see how

it could be with some people and I think that they should be open above

that. And as far as gender...I see more problems between a strong woman

and another strong woman than between a strong woman and a male. I

can also see a male being condescending, a male mentor being condescending

to the female mentee, but I haven't seen it reversed the other way. I

haven't seen a strong female mentor try to down play a male.

M4 felt that it was the mentees' responsibility to locate her if they needed help. She
made the following confession:

I can't make them come and ask for help. You know, whites, blacks,

men or women. I post my office hours, they come if they want to...

I don't have time to hunt them down. I don't want to be here too late

with some of the men we have on campus, for sure. That's not part of

my job. I'm here, though, if they need me, or if I'm out of the office,

they can email me too!

There is disagreement over the advantages and disadvantages of matching

characteristics in mentoring relationships (Kerka, 1998). However, the

participants believed that mentoring was necessary and important to the future of

education as a whole. Cross-gender mentoring roles sometimes brought difficulty in

the lives of the participants as well as their mentees. The participants were

reluctant to engage in sessions or socialize with the a male mentee outside of a

classroom setting for fear of negative outside gossip or reactions.

Responsibility, Roles and Future of Mentoring

For the participants, a wide range of goals for the mentoring process existed. There was a feeling of pride in the students and their accomplishments. They all expressed that the relationships with their mentees were long term. Some of them had students who had entered as freshmen and even though they no longer were enrolled in their classes, they continued to "keep in touch." The minority participants recognized that their responsibility did not end with each class. These participants were willing to see their students from the beginning to the end, doing whatever it took to make them succeed. M7, a minority participant, thought that her graduate students were a reflection of herself.

> My students always stand out. When we go to meetings, I make
> them present papers. They are not afraid to present either because
> I make sure they look good. My colleagues always comment on how
> well prepared my students are. I smile. I know we spend lots of time
> at my house. That's why I don't have a social life. They make
> presentations in class and they know how to write. It's important
> to know how to write. We will keep going until we're both satisfied.
> I always tell them they must be able to communicate. Speak the King's
> English (smile). I don't let them get away with street talk in my class.
> I tell them they don't want to embarrass themselves and they damn sure
> don't want to embarrass me. I'll tell their mamas! (loud laughter)

Mentors are expected to guide their protégé both technically and professionally. The protégé is encouraged to accept responsibility, but is not

permitted to make large mistakes. The protégé is expected to learn through trial and error, observations and experiences involving relationships with the mentor (Anderson & Shannon, 1988). M1 left the window of opportunity open for her students to return to her whenever they needed her help even after the mentoring relationship had ended.

> M1: When my students leave my class, they know they can come back for help. I'm always available. Even after graduation. Some of them don't have access to computers. I give them my number. Plus I post office hours.

If the mentees of the participants made mistakes, they were careful not to embarrass the mentee. They were all protective of their mentees' feelings and self-esteem. M3 revealed, "If I see them making a mistake, I ask them to come and see me after class, or I set up an appointment." M4 practiced discretion when dealing with her mentees. She noted the following:

> M4: I try not to say anything to embarrass my students or make them stand out...usually I write something on their papers but I don't make them come back to visit. I don't know their schedules. I think they work or have children. They are not treated different because they are black or anything. They can make an appointment to come and see me. They should be responsible enough to find me.

M2 believed that technology would affect the future of education and her responsibility to provide mentoring.

> I'm scared to death that technology will have an impact on mentoring. There's just something about the human touch, human interaction that

cannot be replaced by high tech equipment. I'm sorry, there's a place for computers and technology, but we are human beings and we are social creatures and we need that interaction and I don't see, if we are replaced by machines... I think it will be our loss.

M5 thought that there was no true definition of the term "mentor." She believed that without a formal definition or program, sometimes mentors did more harm than good.

M5: I think we use the term mentor very loosely and I think that we might need to be assured that the person that we're calling a mentor knows what their job is. We just kinda of let it play by ear, and there's no really written set of rules...

Overall, there appeared to be optimism concerning the role of the participant in making personal decisions regarding mentoring. M5 was in a position to make a difference with other members of the faculty. As department chair, she decided to be a role model by mentoring women of color to set an example for others to follow.

M5: I see the role of mentoring faculty as setting the example for them...so, I need to mentor faculty and bring them in so that they can mentor students as well. I must model for the students and faculty too.

M7: I think we at the university level need to embrace mentoring skills for all of our pupils, all of our women. I think sometimes we get caught up in our own jobs...that I don't have time to reach out...we as faculty have to do that, we have to put aside our job...and take on the mentoring role, even though we don't get any recognition!

Intentional, planned processes, like giving advice, making recommendations, providing counsel and promoting personal development, stimulated acquisition of

knowledge, according to the participants.

> M1: I enjoy mentoring, because I see people who are using what they've
> learned. Because it gives me a thrill to have them say I learned to do
> that from you, or that's such a good suggestion, I'm going to use that...
> It's validation for me, as well, as I try really hard to be sure that
> the intern feels really validated.
>
> M6: I always tell my students, and I guess I teach a little bit differently
> from some college professors, but I don't know everything and when
> I'm green, I'm growing and if I ever get ripe, I would rot, and I approach
> my workers in that way. I do have some things that I can teach you and
> you have some things you can teach me and we are in this thing
> together and we have to share and we have to work together and I expect
> you to teach me, and I will teach you and together we will learn. That's
> the way I see it. And, they do contribute, all of them, I don't care what
> color they are...

In order for the relationship to evolve from an advisor-student relationship to the functionally more comprehensive relationship of quality mentoring, a commitment for substantial increase in both time and effort from both parties was necessary. The amount of time and effort spent with a mentee appeared to be motivating for the participants. M7 said, "I can stand before my students and say look at me, I made it. If I can do it, so can you."

Successful or Unsuccessful

When the participants discussed being successful or unsuccessful as mentors to women of color, the non-minority mentors responded by saying:

M1: I think so. I have had some women receive McNair Scholarships, so,
I must be doing something right. If I had more power, maybe I could do
more...Like start a mentoring program!

M2: In my position here, I can mentor senior faculty women and
members of the department. But somehow we keep losing students.
We really need to look at why they (minority students) are leaving.
I can make a difference, so, that's good. Yes, I think so, I'm successful.

M4: I know we should do better, but who do you turn to? Who has the
time? I'm not sure if I have helped anybody or not. Maybe they don't
need me. They are capable of handling themselves.

M6: Yes, sometimes I see some of my former students in the
community and I ask them if they are working? If they say yes,
then I feel successful. Even if it's not in the field of education.

The minority mentors responded:

M3: If our university had more money, we could do better. I know we
recruit athletes from all over the world. We recruit very bright
young people too, but they don't always go into the field of education.
I know I have done by best. Successful? Yes. Unsuccessful? Yes also.
There's a lot to be done. Problem with everything is there is no money
and there is very little time.

M5: Every time I look across the room and see all those beautiful black
faces, I feel successful because we're in school. Not in jail or on the
streets, in school. It makes (university) look good when we see our
students teaching in school's across the state. That's pure success.

Each one teach one, that's what I always say. We must teach.

M7: I have one female student, as a matter of fact, she was in here

yesterday. Anyway, she's going to enroll in (university) to work on

her doctorate. Yeah, that's success. Don't you agree?

Measuring success for the participants became a personal efficacy. Each partipant found success in their personal relationship with their mentee. If there was a feeling of not being successful, it usually was the result of not having the appropriate amount of finances or time. Intrinsically motivated, each participant believed that mentoring was a good thing, therefore, they chose to continue to mentor despite any obstacles that confronted them.

Mentoring others is a personal decision. For whatever reason, with or without a mentor in their pasts, these participants decided to mentor women of color. The mentoring received by some of the participants was passed on to their mentees. According to the participants, there was a need to help women and color was not a barrier when making the decision to mentor. Mentoring did not always take place on campus. Mentoring was long-term. Success, for these participants, was measured by somewhat different standards. Students who were recognized as McNair scholars, being in positions to recruit minority students and seeing their students successfully employed in the community were ways some of the participants measured success. There was a growing concern for the future of mentoring, formally or informally. Time, issues related to technology and finance were also concerns for the participants. These participants will continue to mentor because they believed it was their responsibility to do so, and because they believed mentoring was a good thing.

Chapter 5
Discussion/Conclusions and Recommendations

The focus of this research was to investigate the perceptions of female faculty members in two universities located in the midwestern section of the United States. The research question was: How do university faculty perceive the mentoring process (if available), designed especially for the retention of undergraduate/graduate female students of color? This research specifically focused on mentoring in higher education.

It is important to note that neither university had a formal mentoring program. The participants in this study spoke at considerable length regarding their views of the mentoring process that existed without a formal program. To address the continued, serious decline in the numbers of minority teachers, some effort continued in the 1990s to recruit and prepare minority teachers. These projects often included creation of post B.A. programs and projects to make school paraprofessionals credentialed teachers (Gordon, 1995; Chance, Smith, Rakes, Ross, & Giannangelo, 1995). Because these programs aimed to prepare minority adults to become teachers, they are sometimes lumped together with "alternative route" certification programs that allow adults with little or no preparation to teach to assume the full responsibilities of classroom teachers. However, a key distinction between them is the presence of carefully organized mentoring and a well-supervised period of internship (Gordon, 1995).

The purpose of this study was to describe through the perceptions of the participants, how and why mentoring practices occur in regard to women of color. When considering programs to recruit and retain women of color in higher education, the participants' perceptions are worth noting. The participants believed it was their responsibility to mentor. Selecting a mentee and according to them, the passing on of beliefs and norms of the higher education institution to the next generation was a

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priority function in mentoring (Tinto, 1988).

Based on the beliefs of the participants, they revealed what they knew about mentoring and what was needed to help their mentees. They corrected their mentees' mistakes and established an understanding regarding the pitfalls associated with mentoring. There was no report of any dsyfunctional relationships between the participants and their mentees. They recognized the impact business had on mentoring and discussed their goals and functions in their mentoring relationships. The participants believed they understood how the mentoring process worked through their roles as mentors. The kind of mentoring received and the kind of mentoring given were the central themes of their discussion.

The mentoring received by the participants came in various forms recognized as turning points. Peer mentoring prompted M4 to return to school. M4 believed that without mentoring, she would not have been in the position she presently holds which allows her to mentor. The institutional support from a mentor professor that M2 received instilled a desire to "Be the best you can be, lead others." She has mentored other women as a result of her experiences. M6 believed that intrinsic motivation caused her to mentor. "I had done some research...to see if I wanted to go on with this (college) and that kind of made my decision...I can get my doctorate." M6 believed she knew what it was like to make it own her own, so she would mentor women to give them the mentoring she thought she did not receive.

Mentoring relationships between the participants and their mentors provided support and encouragement for some the participants. The participants with mentors believed that without their support and encouragement, they would not be as supportive to their mentees. According to M1, "But now, look what I am doing for others because of

her."

There are several causes of student attrition and delayed graduation. Mentoring may alleviate several of those causes. If a minority student lacks proper academic preparation for college, knowledge about financial resources or access to social or academic resources, mentoring could be key. The literature review revealed that faculty contact had a significant impact on the academic and social integration of students enrolled in colleges and universities. M3 said this about her mentor, "We talked everyday. She was there for me. She treated me like a friend." It is then reasonable to assume that faculty contact in the form of mentoring may have a significant impact on women students of color. However, it is interesting to note, that all of the participants did not have long-term relationships with their mentors. For at least one or two of the seven participants, no single individual could be recalled as a significant mentor in their professional lives.

The second major theme was the kind of mentoring given. Some of the participants believed that the interpersonal relationships they shared with their own mentors served as guidelines for mentoring. M2 continues to "lead others" as suggested by her mentor. Therefore, the interpersonal relationship of mentor and mentee was recognized as essential (Galbaith & Cohen, 1995). The literature review also indicated that the responsibility for mentoring outcomes basically rests with the mentor, however, mentor behaviors cannot be separated from protégé behaviors. The participants in this study provided information that strongly suggested that the behaviors of each are in some manner related to the behaviors of the other, thus making the relationship a "two-way" street. M7, "They don't want to embarrass themselves and they damn sure don't want to embarrass me."

Using the Eriksonian psychosocial theory as a core, the emphasis on mentoring being reciprocal is critical to the understanding of mentoring women of color. Certain organizational considerations as well as administrative implications of mentoring in higher educational institutions were explored based on Tinto's Attrition Theory (1975). His theory of persistence at the undergraduate level focused on the reason underlying the actual dropping out or persistence of a student. The common thread running throughout Tinto's research is that the decision to withdraw or persevere is influenced by the extent to which a student's intellectual and social integration occurs. Tinto (1982) stated that *the more time faculty give to their students, and students to each other, the more likely are students to complete their education.* M1, "When my students leave my class, they know they can come back for help." Some participants thought they did not have enough time to do all they wanted to do with their mentees. The process of social and intellectual development of individuals through mentoring is rewarding within itself (Tinto, 1982). In agreement with Tinto, M7 remarked, "If they look good, I look good."

Higher education institutions should encourage those contacts whenever and wherever possible (Tinto, 1993). Students who are not sufficiently integrated into the *fabric of college society suffer from insufficient personal interaction.* Interaction with key members of the university's culture will increase productivity as well as creativity which is also psychosocial in nature (Tinto, 1993).

Incorporation in college indicates that the student has successfully moved away from the norms and behavioral patterns of the past. The student now faces new challenges of finding and adopting appropriate norms of a new society. The students must recognize the intellectual community norms. The participants believed that they were mainly responsible for the success of the mentee, academically. Failure to support their

mentee may have led to departure (Tinto, 1988). Some of the participants made sure that their mentees were able to present projects, communicate effectively and receive attention if they were lacking in content or subject knowledge. The participants believed that without their particular style of mentoring, their mentees would fail.

Kerka (1998) stated that "women of color face significant obstacles to their full participation and contribution to higher education" (p. 52). The major pitfalls pointed out by Kerka were race and gender discrimination. The non-minority participants felt that race was not a relevant issue as far as they were concerned:

M2: ...women are women...we have the same needs, the same desires,

the same problems...

M1: ...it's just another women to me.

M6: ...people are people...I have children in my class, and I don't see color.

Minority participant, M3, believed that race and gender were insignificant because "We tend to support each other because we are women." M5, a minority participant, offered a different opinion regarding race. She thought that women of different races had to make an effort to understand the other's culture and extend mentoring outside the classroom.

M5: How can you know about a woman of a different race if you don't

make the effort to know her?

She did go on to say that she knew some women of different races who had met the challenge to mentor a woman of another race successfully. M7, also a minority participant, had no problem with race or gender, however, age presented a problem for her. She revealed, "I'm having a problem keeping up with these young girls."

Some emerging theories suggest that female students may have preferred ways of

knowing, thinking and learning that differ to some extent from those most often

preferred by males (Astin, 1985; Belenky, Bond & Weinstock, 1997; Halpern, 1986;

Taylor, Gilligan & Sullivan, 1995). There is disagreement, however, over the

advantages and disadvantages of matching characteristics in mentoring relationships.

Cross-gender mentoring roles can bring difficulty, particularly involving female

mentors who are reluctant to engage in sessions or socialize with male mentees for fear

of negative outside gossip or reactions (Ensher & Murphy, 1997).

> M4: ...I don't want to be here too late with some of the men we
>
> have on campus, for sure...if it's late...they can email...

The responsibility of the mentor and the future of the mentee were very

important to the participants. A wide range of goals for the mentoring process existed

for the mentors. Some of the goals of the mentoring process were to provide long-term

commitment, with profound impact and a reciprocal nature (Hill, 1989). M7 had a goal

to have her graduate students "stand out" in comparison to other students. M7 believed

her students stood out as a result of her hard work. When her colleagues commented on

how well prepared her students were, she felt that their success was reciprocal. If

given the opportunity, the mentor provided observation time and participation activities

for the protégé to understand the politics of "getting ahead" (Kerka, 1998). It was

important for M1 to teach her mentee the "competencies" so that her mentee would be

successful in content and subject areas. It was equally important for her to assist her

mentee to improve her dialect and writing deficiencies. Both mentor and protégé were

expected to have high levels of respect for each other (Clawson, 1980). Blackwell

(1989) stated that the purpose of mentoring was to provide training, stimulate

acquisition of knowledge, provide emotional support and encouragement. Healy and

Welcher (1990) believed that quality mentoring was reciprocal and mentoring was aimed at promoting career and professional development of both the mentor and the protégé. One participant, M7, said it best, "We will keep going until we are both satisfied."

CONCLUSIONS

The mentoring relationships that eventually developed among the participants who had mentors provided the participants with the support and encouragement during their educational pursuits. One of the participants thought in the beginning of her discussion that she had no mentor, however, as time passed, she identified at least one professor who was a mentor. According to the definition of mentoring as perceived by the participants in this study, it appeared that one or two of the participants actually did not have mentors. Despite that fact, each supported true and lasting interpersonal relationships with their proteges. It became evident that some of the participants continued relationships with their mentees after the mentee left the institution.

When the participants began to apply mentoring to the new generation (proteges) in their classrooms, they were also encouraging and supportive. The kind of mentoring relationship with their mentors if they had one, prompted such actions. Thus the second theme, the kind of mentoring given by the participants, evolved from the relationships the participants had shared with their mentors or without a significant individual mentor. Some of the participants discussed their interactions with the mentees outside of the classroom setting. M2 said, "I have loaned money to a mentee because I felt close to her like a parent." M1 revealed, "Some of them don't have access to computers. I give them my number." M3 added, "Support enables me to help my students in more personal ways."

I found that some of the participants made it a point to contact their mentees especially because the mentee was no longer in a class or at the university.

M6: If I don't hear from one of my students...then I start looking for them.

...Tell them to contact me!

M1: ...I'm always available. Even after graduation...

Such actions by the participants supports the research suggesting that there must be continued contact after the conclusion of an assignment or when formal or necessary interaction has ended (Jerusalem, 1991).

The pitfalls associated with mentoring were also noted by the participants. They were aware of gender and cultural differences. It was apparent that the women who mentored women of color did not have issues with race or gender if a student needed help. There was an awareness that mentoring men had different guidelines than mentoring women. There was concern about sexual harrassment issues. M2 stated that her undergraduate university did not have a male population, therefore, she concluded that the absence of men removed the competition factor. She continues to mentor based on the belief that all of the women in a university setting should be encouraged to be leaders.

The future responsibilities of the participants reinforced the notion that more should and could be done in the world of mentoring for women of color. Technology, resources and finances still continue to pose problems for some of the participants without set objectives or guidelines.

M2: I'm scared to death that technology will have an impact on mentoring...we are human beings...we need that interaction...

M3: ...we might need to be assured that the person that we we are calling a mentor knows what their job is...problem

with everything is there is no money...

There was discussion about the issue of their mentoring program being formal or informal. A couple responded in favor of a formalized program.

M1: ...If I had more power...start a mentoring program...

M3: ...If our university had more money, we could do better...

Each participant believed she was *intrinsically successful*, however, some doubted if they were truly successful due to the low enrollment and graduation rates of women of color in their departments of education. M1 concluded, "Somehow we keep losing students. We really need to look at why they (minority students) are leaving." Two of them suggested that the reason for the low enrollment may exist because they did not have a formalized program. Zey (1988) believed, on the other hand, that the formalized mentoring program was important when used to increase opportunities for individuals who are less likely to be involved in a more "naturally occurring" mentoring relationship. Dickey agreed, if mentoring programs are to be successful in a climate of ethnic pluralism, a formal commitment to the specific goal of retention through mentoring is critical. In higher education institutions, mentoring activities need not only to be recognized but also rewarded if they are to achieve the goals set for them (Dickey, 1996). Both minority and non-minority participants tried to expand relationships with their mentees to increase interactions beyond campus.

Some researchers suggested that if the minority faculty population was small, formal mentor training sessions should be provided, and if that's not possible, informal training sessions should be provided with "model" mentors and mentees (Donnelly, 1998). Matching minorities and mentors can be based on shared interest (Donnelly, 1998). Some of the participants agreed with this suggestion.

Not all researchers see equal benefits from formalized as opposed to informalized mentoring. Mentoring relationship cannot be legislated (formalized) because the "personal fit" is too important and should be left to mutual (informal) self-selection (Kram, 1985). The participants in this study were only familiar with self-selection. They had their own particular set of characteristics that were recognizable in their mentees which led to them being selected by the participants. I concluded that the participants decision to mentor was personal. The informal aspect of mentoring at their university permitted voluntary mentoring, but recognition, funding and favorable evaluation would prove helpful for those who decided to mentor. M5 said, "It makes (university) look good when we see our students teaching in schools across the state."

Mentoring is not a panacea, but it should be viewed as an effective means of intervention in the university's attempt to meet the needs of women of color and other culturally diverse students.

M3: ...I ask them to come and see me after class...

M4: I try not say anything to embarrass my students or make them stand out... When the non-minority participants mentored students of color, a culturally validating psychosocial atmosphere was created and valued by the non-minority mentor.

M4: ...they are not treated differently because they are black or anything... Participants agreed that all benefit if mentoring relationships were successful.

M6: ...I do have some things that I can teach you and you have some

things that you can teach me and we are in this thing together...

together we will learn...

Mentoring can systematically address causes of student attrition and delayed graduation of culturally diverse students by promoting faculty-student contact that

contributes to understanding and communication. Mentoring also can encourage the use of the university's resources designed to help students facing academic difficulties. According to the participants, intervening quickly and privately when a protégé was experiencing difficulties improved academic success.

Recommendations for further research

Studies that could expand upon this research could take place in other disciplines of higher education. Major research institutions should continue to intensity efforts to study retention rates for women of color at baccalaureate and graduate levels. More importantly, once persons of color are recruited, postsecondary institutions must provide a reasonably hospitable climate if these students are be retained, have positive growth experiences and achieve graduation. Another recommendation would be to get protégés to offer their perceptions of the mentoring process. Policy studies could be done to indicate how to improve the mentoring process to make it more effective. Possible studies could be done to get perspectives of male mentees of color and the mentoring process with non-minority mentors. More research is needed to determine if a university could benefit from an informal or formal mentoring program. Research to investigate the relationship between mentors and mentees in an informal or formal setting could be suggested. A study to determine what impact if any, using persons of color to reduce student/teacher ratios in public education could also be investigated.

Recommendations for practice

This study has directly offered several contributions which specifically translate into recommendations for the universities. Mentoring programs are more likely to be successful in a climate of ethnic pluralism, formal commitment and specific guidelines with goals of retention. Mandated policies, financial support, space allocations,

personnel and technology may be considered forms of commitment by the university. With mentoring as an acceptable service activity on campus, perhaps faculty rewards for such service could appear in the criteria for tenure or promotion. A university with a highly visible mentoring program could signal to the surrounding communities that mentoring is a desired activity and those who are involved will be rewarded.

The importance of mentoring has long been recognized, but minority professors often have fewer mentoring opportunities than their non-minority counterparts, unless they are associated with an HBCU. During this study, University A did not have senior minority faculty members. In fact, they did not have any minority faculty members, male or female, in their education department. If and when a minority faculty member is added to the roster, clearly stated standards and procedures should be made available.

HBCUs enroll a high proportion of students of color. Many students who attend come from educationally disadvantaged and/or low income backgrounds; often they are the first generation to attend college. The mission of their teacher education programs often centers around the goal of training teachers of color to serve as role models for minority students and their communities. These universities often place special focus on the cultural backgrounds and unique needs of the students.

The contributions of the participants could stimulate dialogue that leads to the development of the universities planning to improve the retention practices for women of color. The first step would be to create a recognizable program with guidelines and goals that would improve the effectiveness in retention dynamics directly affecting graduation rate statistics, a considerable concern for many universities.

Mentoring is one tool for increasing minority participation and success in higher education. When students of color leave a university because of negative experiences,

they relate those experiences to potential students in their communities and create

reputations for the universities. The reputation for the university is usually shrouded

in negative feedback, suggesting that the university is insensitive to culturally diverse

populations (Bierema, 1996).

Possible suggestions for developing, implementing and promoting mentoring

programs that were suggested by the participants in this study included:

1) There should be some type of reward for mentors or advisors.

2) There should be financial resources made available to mentors.

3) Mentoring programs should have guidelines and methods of evaluation.

4) Mentoring programs should be designed specifically to retain and recruit persons of

color.

5) Diversity training should be made available to all faculty members and especially

mentors.

6) More women faculty, especially full professors of color, are needed.

7) The university must strongly advocate mentoring in all disciplines.

8) Sexual harassment and sex discrimination must be addressed.

Most of the literature supports the need for mentoring for various reasons and

the controversy remains if mentoring should cross gender and ethnic lines or if the

mentoring program should be formal or informal. However, mentors serve useful

individual and organizational purposes that can guide the mentee through transitional

phases of development (Galbraith & Cohen, 1995). The mentors will continue to have

access to information and power not readily available to everyone (Bierema, 1996).

M1 stated, "It gives me a thrill to have them say I learned to do that from you...I'm going

to use that." As more women and minorities enter universities, access to mentors

becomes increasingly critical and every effort should be made to train and provide these essential links to higher education and future success (Jossi, 1997).

If mentoring is taken seriously and institutionalized, any university should be able to attract the underrepresented populations of students of color. If those students of color are retained through graduation and beyond, then more students of color will be able to graduate. If more students of color graduate, then they may return as members of the faculty. Mentoring is an important tool to promote, value and celebrate diversity.

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Administrator Demographic Data

Name: _____

Campus Address: _____

_____

Phone: _____

Title at University: _____

Responsibility of Position: _____

_____

Length of Time Position Held: _____

Year Mentoring Began: _____

Degrees Earned:

Year	Degree	Major	Institution

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Tell me about your background.

Educational background

Professional background

2. I'd like you to remember the time you entered college. As you reflect, did you have a relationship with someone you would call a mentor? If so, describe your mentor, did that person make a difference in your life? Why or why not?

3. Do you feel the female mentoring role will change as a result of the minority influx? Why or why not?

4. Some research on mentoring suggests that there are pitfalls. The pitfalls mentioned suggests that race and gender hinder the learning process. How do you feel about that statement?

5. How do you choose the women you mentor?

6. Do you feel that mentoring has a role in the future? Why or why not?

7. If available, how do you utilize resources to recruit/retain students of color?

8. In your opinion, are the resources, if available, accomplishing their goals?

9. How are decisions made regarding recruitment and retention activities?

10. What is your role, if any, in the decision making-process?

11. What suggestions do you have for improving the process (if needed)?

12. What role, if any, do you play in student recruitment?

13. As a faculty member, what are your responsibilities in the role of retaining women of color?

14. Do you think students are adequately prepared for what they experience? Why or

Why not?

15. If applicable, describe your role in helping students cope with the university bureaucracy?

16. How do you help students prepare for what they will experience academically and emotionally?

17. What kind of feedback have you received from students about their experiences concerning mentoring practices?

18. How do you provide emotional support if a student is experiencing problems?

19. How many students have you mentored since you have become a faculty member here?

20. How do you correct mistakes that your students may make?

21. What benefits (if any) do you receive as a mentor?

     Your department?

     Your students?

     Your university

23. Are there any disadvantages?

24. As you reflect over the experiences you have encountered as a mentor, do you feel that you have been successful or unsuccessful? Please explain why.

25. Is there anything else you would like to share with me concerning mentoring?