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COMPARING FIRST GENERATION AND NON-FIRST GENERATION
AFRICAN-AMERICAN STUDENTS AT PREDOMINATELY
WHITE INSTITUTIONS

by

Leatrice Renee Brooks

A Dissertation
Submitted to the
Faculty of The Graduate College
in partial fulfillment of the
Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
Department of Counselor Education and Counseling Psychology
Advisor: Lonnie E. Duncan, Ph.D.

Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, Michigan
December 2011

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variables. These data add to the current body of knowledge and are valuable for universities, mental health professionals, and the future development of resources to assist this population of students.

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Just as I began the acknowledgements for my Master's thesis, I must say that although my name is the only one presented on this dissertation, its completion was very much so a collaborative effort with respect to the support I received along the way. I would first like to thank God for making the purpose for my life so clear and providing a way for me to achieve it. I give a special thank you to my mother for supporting me in numerous ways throughout these 13 years of post-secondary education. I extend much gratitude and appreciation to my dissertation chair, advisor, mentor, and supervisor Dr. Lonnie E. Duncan for working with me throughout this journey and for hustling to help me get this done. This dissertation only represents a snippet of the road I traveled and I appreciate your commitment to my success. Thank you to my other two committee members – Dr. Mary Z. Anderson for support and encouragement and Dr. Evelyn Winfield-Thomas particularly for recommending that I connect with Dr. Kevin Cokley on internship which added much to that experience and helped with my dissertation. To my dear pastor, Dr. Addis Moore, my spiritual mentor, and the entire Mt. Zion family I give a never-ending thank you for feeding me spiritually which has been such a huge part of my success. Thank you to great

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ii
LIST OF TABLES.....	vii
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
African American College Student Development	8
African American College Students at Predominately White Institutions	11
African American Racial Identity Development and Adjustment to College	14
African American College Students and Coping.....	15
Summary	17
Purpose of the Present Study	19
Research Hypotheses	19
Definition of Major Terms	20
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	21
College Student Adjustment	21
First Year College Students: Making the Transition.....	22
First Generation College Students.....	27
Development	28
College Student Development	29
Black Adolescent/ Adult Development	31

Table of Contents – continued

CHAPTER	
	African-American College Student Development 34
	African American College Students 36
	African-American Students at Predominately White Institutions 37
	African-American College Student Stress and Coping 43
	Summary 47
	Research Hypotheses 47
III. METHODS 49
	Sample 49
	Measures 51
	Demographic Measure 51
	Barratt Simplified Measure of Social Status (BSMSS) 52
	Student Adaptation College Questionnaire (SACQ) 52
	Coping with Problems Experienced Inventory (COPE) 55
	Cross Racial Identity Scale (CRIS) 58
	Index of Race-Related Stress – Brief (IRRS-B) 60
	Procedure 61
	Research Design 63
IV. RESULTS 65
	Overview of Analyses 65

Table of Contents – continued

CHAPTER

Research Hypothesis H ₀ 1	65
Research Hypothesis H ₀ 2	70
Research Hypothesis H ₀ 3	74
V. DISCUSSION	78
Limitations	85
Implications for University Personnel and Counseling Center Staff of Predominately White Institutions.....	86
Implications for Future Research	89
APPENDICES	
A. Human Subjects Institutional Review Board Letter of Approval.....	91
B. E-mails Granting Permission to Use Instruments	93
C. Demographic Questionnaire	98
D. The Barratt Simplified Measure of Social Status (BSMSS)	100
E. Coping with Problems Experienced (COPE)	102
F. Cross Racial Identity Scale (CRIS)	105
G. Index of Race-Related Stress – Brief (IRRS-B)	108
BIBLIOGRAPHY	111

LIST OF TABLES

1. Demographics for First Generation and Non-First Generation Participants	50
2. Means and Standard Deviations for First Generation and Non-First Generation Students	66
3. Intercorrelations for Measured Variables.....	67
4. Summary of Simultaneous Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Overall Adjustment to College	69
5. Standardized Coefficients for Canonical Analysis of Adjustment, Racism, and Racial Identity Development	71
6. Canonical Variable Loadings for Canonical Analysis of Adjustment, Racism, and Racial Identity Development	73
7. Standardized Coefficients for Canonical Analysis of Adjustment and Coping Style	75
8. Canonical Variable Loadings for Canonical Analysis of Adjustment and Coping Style	76

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Table of Contents – continued

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Table of Contents – continued

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

As students enter the university arena, they experience many changes and have many new experiences through which they must navigate. Research has noted differences between various groups of college students as they enter college, for example, the unique experiences of first year college students (e.g. Berger, 1997), first generation college students (e.g., Phinney & Haas, 2003) and African-American college students at predominately White institutions (e.g., Douglas, 1998). Studies have consistently found that students' social adjustment is critical and has implications for retention and degree completion (e.g., Tinto, 1993; Woosley, 2003). Even when other factors, like employment and academic adjustment are considered, initial social adjustment is the most significant element of student adjustment and transition to college (Woosley, 2003). While this adjustment process is experienced by all college students upon entering a post-secondary educational institution and reportedly different for African-American students in general, this transition may also be different for first generation and non-first generation African-American college students when examined as individual groups. An understanding of possible differences between these two groups is important for the retention of African-American college

students. This study examined the adjustment of first generation and non-first generation African-American college students in the context of their social status, racial identity development, coping styles, and race-related stressors.

First generation college students represent 27% of all graduating high school students (Gibbons & Shoffner, 2004). They are students whose parents do not have experience as a college student (Billson & Terry, 1982). When compared to students whose parents have some college education or completed a bachelor's degree, first generation students are shown to be demographically different in that they are more likely to be minority and come from a lower socioeconomic background (Van T. Bui, 2002). First generation students often begin college with less information than their counterparts (Dennis, Phinney & Chuateco, 2005). They may have had poorer academic preparation from high school and lower critical thinking scores prior to college (Terenzini, Springer, Yaeger, Pascarella, & Nora, 1996). First generation students tend to lack the personal resources to instruct them on what college is like and what to expect; such intergenerational benefits often make the transition easier (Lohfink & Paulsen, 2005). These students also generally feel more stress than their non-first generation peers (Phinney & Haas, 2003). They are essentially sent out to navigate the college experience

on their own without the experiential support of family, which provides insight into the university experience for most other college students.

Additionally, while research has examined the experiences of first generation college students, little research focuses on first generation minority students, and more specifically African-American students (Van T. Bui, 2002). There is even less research that contributes to our understanding of likely differences between first generation and non-first generation African-American college students. Such information is critical to the development of prevention efforts to support their adjustment to college. This study was designed to increase this body of knowledge by specifically examining and comparing within group differences of college adjustment for African-American college students.

An examination of current literature revealed that much of the research on first generation students does not specifically study the experiences of African-American students. Although some titles indicate that the research is in regards to the experiences of ethnic/minority students and imply generalization, examination of participant demographics reveals that much of this data pertains to Hispanic students and is therefore more generalizable to that group (e.g., Dennis, Phinney, & Chuateco, 2005; Phinney & Haas, 2003). Because of the unique history of African-Americans in the

United States, Hispanic students' experiences around race in America are quite different from those of African-American students; to that end, race further shapes African-American students' experiences as first generation college students. Research specifically examining the experiences of first generation African-American college students with respect to their racial identity development, race-related stressors, college adjustment, and coping styles, particularly as compared to non-first generation students is still needed. Such information is important for understanding the uniqueness' of each group as compared to one another and will assist counselors, psychologists, and universities as they seek to meet needs of African-American students.

Although researchers have begun to recognize the importance of understanding the differences in the experiences of African-American students from other racial groups, much of the research continues to examine African-American students as a monolithic group. Research on African-American college student adjustment has generally examined either first generation or non-first generation students. There have been virtually no studies that have examined similarities and differences between these two groups. Knowledge of subtle differences between the groups is invaluable as specific strategies and interventions are developed to better meet the needs of

each group. The research has erroneously assumed that the findings from each group will apply to the other. This study is designed to gain a better understanding of the comparative experiences of first generation and non-first generation African-American college students at predominately White institutions through an examination of their social status, level of adjustment, coping style, racial identity development, and race-related stressors in specific university-related areas. It is believed that for African-American students, the interaction or level of each of these variables has an impact on their college experience.

When discussing African-American college students, the concept of primary prevention is very important. The goal of primary prevention is to do something now to prevent something unpleasant or undesirable from happening in the future; furthermore, doing something now that will increase the likelihood of the occurrence of desirable future outcomes (Albee & Ryan, 1998; Albee & Ryan-Finn, 1993). Prevention strategies include reducing risky agents and strengthening resistance to stress through the development of social skills and competencies, improvements in self-esteem, better child-rearing, and the development of strong social support systems (Albee, 1999; Albee & Ryan, 1998; Albee & Ryan-Finn, 1993). The job of promoting or attempting change should not lie on one individual; it is the responsibility of

all parties involved; for college students, this includes university resources. Primary prevention aimed to assist first generation and non-first generation African-American college students at predominately White institutions with their specific concerns in accordance with their generational status has the potential to help them cope with their changing roles. To this end, in understanding their adjustment, this study measured and compared student's race-related stressors, coping styles, and racial identity development, which each speak to their level of overall development upon entering college.

By definition, prevention efforts are proactive and often include the teaching of stress reduction techniques through the use of effective coping strategies (Albee, 1999; Albee & Ryan, 1998; Albee & Ryan-Finn, 1993). They also usually involve interventions with the use of support groups (Albee, 1999). A lack of adequate social coping skills, low self-esteem, and social isolation are major causes of psychopathology (Albee & Ryan, 1998). Primary prevention-based campus resources that meet the specific needs of first generation and non-first generation African-American college students at predominately White institutions have the potential to decrease the likelihood that these students will develop negative feelings about themselves which may make for a more positive life outcome.

Many campus programs make use of secondary prevention or intervention. Such programs target high-risk individuals and are generally presented after the onset of undesirable behavior. For many students, such help is received too late – after the decision to drop out has been made. Primary prevention methods would provide a reframing of the ways in which predominately White institutions view African-American students. Essentially, it would be taking into consideration the struggles that these students inevitably experience and take the perspective that by the nature of the fact that they are entering a predominately White institution as an African-American, they are at a higher risk for attrition. Services such as primary prevention-based campus resources that are provided before students become high-risk for dropping out offer the most assistance to students.

Programs that provide knowledge, information, and skills to students before the onset of problems have the potential to prevent such problems from occurring by teaching them the skills they need to cope in a positive manner. The development of coping skills and social support are also important factors in later adjustment (Albee, 1999). Prevention programs through campus resources may be able to help students develop such skills. The present study examined the need for such skill growth by assessing and

comparing the adjustment, racial identity development, race-related stressors, and coping styles in a sample of first generation and non-first generation African-American college students at predominately White institutions. This study sought to provide vital information to aid in the development of primary prevention-based campus resources that meet the needs of each group of students.

African-American College Student Development

Most often, research on college student development defaults to engaging in an examination of Chickering's (1967) work on students' psychosocial development. In his work, Chickering concluded that development "occurs according to generalizable sequences"; "occurs through sequences of differentiation and integration"; "is congruent rather than compensatory"; and "decreases as relevant conditions become more constant". He also stated that the conclusions he derived have implications for post-secondary institutions as they attempt to meet the needs of the students they are designed to serve. While Chickering lists several limitations of his work and states that for some students, life circumstances may affect their development, there is no statement about the affects of race on development. When race is added into the equation, particularly in the case of African-American students at predominately White institutions, the

expectations for their development must change to include the racial identity development process. Chickering's research was conducted with a group that transitioned in an institution that was similar to their home environment. His research noted developmental changes within the students at various points in their schooling, however, there is increasing research concluding that the developmental stages for African-Americans are unique and specific to their experiences (e.g., Johnson, 2001).

As of recent, researchers are expressing the need for the formal establishment of an African-American student development theory. The development of such a theory is not to contest or de-emphasize the importance of current theories, but to be able to apply culturally specific principles to the conceptualization of the experiences of African-American college students (Johnson, 2001). Johnson (2001) proposes that Nguzo Saba would provide a foundation for the development of such a theory. It would promote the theory that is rooted in the African worldview which helps to put the experiences of African-Americans into context. It acknowledges and considers the unique experiences and worldview of African-American students and the fact that their beliefs and behaviors are directly related to their African lineage. The use of Euroamerican college student development theories in understanding African-Americans has been defined as de-

culturalizing. An understanding of African-American college student development is important in putting the experiences of African-American students at predominately White institutions into perspective. This study sought to achieve this through the examination of the social status, racial identity development, race-related stressors, coping styles, and college adjustment a sample of first generation and non-first generation African-American students.

In addition to considering the unique developmental process for African-American students, understanding the impact of gender and socioeconomic status on their development is critical to having a complete overview of their experiences. Brown (2000) noted that research on African-American college students often misses the importance of the heterogeneity of the group. Her research on the satisfaction of African-American college students examined and reported differences in the needs and satisfaction predictors for males and females. Brown concluded that university personnel and resources should be equipped to meet African-American males and females where they are and address their specific, gender-related needs. Socioeconomic status (SES) is also a predictor of college adjustment because it speaks to the personal resources that are available to students. Students from low SES families are often first generation and experience the associated

additional adjustment difficulties (Cunningham & Tidwell, 1990). These researchers also discussed the new set of social values and norms that are presented when African-American students from low SES families begin college. This change can be assumed to be more intense when these students attend predominately White institutions.

African-American College Students at Predominately White Institutions

While entering college is a time of transition and change for all college students, African-American college students, particularly those entering predominately white institutions, have a more difficult adjustment. Such difficulty is likely to be impacted or compounded for African-American college students who are also first generation college students. The experience may also be different for first generation and non-first generation African-American college students at predominately White institutions as each manages the transition. While research in each of the individual areas suggests that students need assistance to help with their adjustment, an understanding of the experiences of each group may guide the necessary assistance in a different, more intense, specific, and complex direction.

Documented as early as the 1960's, research indicates that most African-American college students attend institutions where the racial/ethnic composition of the students, faculty, and staff continues to be predominately

White (Douglas, 1998). African-American students have reported perceiving such environments as unwelcoming, and sometimes hostile and threatening (e.g., Allen, 1991, 1996; D'Souza, 1992; Hurtado, 1992; Malaney & Shively, 1995). Such reports support the concept of race-related stress which refers to the level of discomfort a person feels as a result of observing or personally experiencing racial discrimination (Sellers & Shelton, 2003; Utsey, 1998).

Several researchers have noted that while many people believe that strides have been made in race relations in the United States over the past several decades, particularly as it relates to African-Americans, a substantial number of African-Americans continue to report daily experiences of blatant and subtle racial discrimination (Dovidio, 1993; Dovidio & Gaertner, 1986; Essed, 1990; Feagin & Sikes, 1994; McNeilly, et al., 1996; Rakin & Reason, 2005; Smedley & Smedley, 2005; Swim, Hyers, Cohen, Fitzgerald, & Bylsma, 2003).

Race-related stress has been linked to decreased psychological health and well-being for many African-Americans (Bryant-Davis & Ocamo, 2005; Burke, 1984; Fernando, 1984; Fischer & Shaw, 1999; Gougis, 1986; Simpson & Yinger, 1985). As race-related stress continues to be a prominent issue in the lives of African-Americans, it inevitably carries over to institutions of higher education, particularly in predominately White institutions. It is important for the African-American students that attend these universities that

counseling psychologists and other mental health professionals specifically understand the nature of such stress in order to provide relevant services.

Race-related stress was examined in this study as factor in the adjustment of first generation and non-first generation African-American students at predominately White institutions.

In a 1998 qualitative study on the perceptions African-American students have of predominately White institutions, Douglas (1998) found that 6 themes emerged. These themes included the physical beauty of the campus, immensity of the campus, participants' consciousness of being African-American on campus, the influence of Greek-letter organizations, the prevalence of voluntary racial/ethnic separation, and participants' concerns about preparing for their futures. The themes that emerged from this study are important when attempting to understand the unique experiences of African-American college students on predominantly white campuses. This research sought to understand the experiences of first generation and non-first generation African-American students at predominately White institutions through an examination of their college adjustment, racial identity development, race-related stressors, and coping styles. These study variables coincide with many of the themes presented by Douglas (1998).

African-American Racial Identity Development and Adjustment to College

Research that examines the role of racial factors in African-American student's college adjustment is very limited (Anglin & Wade, 2007). Anglin and Wade (2007) found that students with a more inclusive racial identity demonstrated an easier adjustment to college in a predominately White or racially mixed setting. They concluded that feeling more connected to other cultural groups may have facilitated the development of a sense of belonging and attachment to the university. Contrary to their hypothesis their research showed that an internalized Afrocentric racial identity had a negative association to overall college adjustment. They inquired about the negative societal connotations associated with the word Afrocentric and its use in the racial identity development questionnaire. Anglin and Wade (2007) also found that African-American students at the early stages of their racial identity development (pre-encounter and immersion-emersion) had poorer overall adjustment to college and felt academically and socially dissatisfied. After controlling for demographics, racial identity and racial socialization explained a statistically significant portion of the variation in the students' overall college adjustment. Racial identity development is an important factor to measure when examining college adjustment for African-American college students at predominately White institutions. In this study, racial identity

development was examined along with race-related stressors and coping styles to fully understand contributions to African-American college student adjustment.

African-American College Students and Coping

As students transition to college, their ability to cope with new and different experiences becomes vitally important. While some students enter the university scene with coping styles that facilitate positive adjustment to the demands of post-secondary educational environments in light of negative race-related experiences (Greer & Chwalisz, 2007), many students experience this time as stressful which often interferes with personal growth and enhancement opportunities (Leong, Bonz, & Zachar, 1997). The presence of effective coping strategies impacts the interpretation of a situation or threat such that it may be viewed as less stressful thus increasing the individual's ability to function and perform (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989).

Research has identified several dimensions of coping and grouped coping styles in various categories. In this study, coping was examined along four factors found to be important within African-American culture: interconnectedness, spirituality, problem-oriented coping, and disengagement (Greer, 2007). Each of these factors influence psychological health which is important for gaining a clear understanding of college

student adjustment (Leong, Bonz, & Zachar, 1997). Assessing the coping strategies of African-Americans can be difficult when attempting to fit traditional coping styles into their cultural context (Greer, 2007; Myers, 1988). Consistent with general research attempting to understand and conceptualize African-Americans, Greer (2007) posits that the coping styles of African-American's must also be examined from an Afrocentric perspective. Race-related stress can challenge the coping skills of African-American students and require the development of coping skills that may be difficult to teach but the availability of university support can buffer the experience. For this reason, this study measured the adjustment of African-American college students in the context of their coping styles, race-related stressors, and racial identity development.

Historically, religion has been an integral part of the development and sustainment of African-Americans. For many African-Americans, religion is a buffer against the racial tension and disparities in America. Studies have shown that the ability of African-American students to use religious attributions in their experiences positively affects their resiliency in difficult situations (e.g., Blaine & Crocker, 1995). In their study examining religiousness, race, and psychological well-being as social psychological mediators, Blaine and Crocker (1995) found that for Black students, religious

belief salience and psychological well-being were moderately positively correlated. They further stated that for these students, attributions to God that enhance life meaning and positive social identification were mediators in the relationship between religious belief and well-being. The coping scale used in this study loaded a number of items along a measure of spirituality thus measuring the extent to which African-American students use religion or spirituality as a coping strategy in their experiences at predominately White institutions.

Summary

Research indicates that as more and more first generation (Levine, 1982) and African-American (Douglas, 1998) students are pursuing higher education, institutions need systematic knowledge about these students in order to better facilitate their success (Douglas, 1998; Van T. Bui, 2002). More specifically, the need for professional and peer counselors to help students handle their social-emotional issues related to attending college and support in persisting with their degree has been suggested (Van T. Bui, 2002).

Researchers recognize a difference in the experiences of first generation students (e.g., Gibbons & Shoffner, 2004; Phinney & Haas, 2003) and African-American students at predominately White Institutions (e.g., Douglas, 1998) and have just begun to gain an understanding of the similarities and

differences in their experiences (Anglin & Wade, 2007).

As knowledge and understanding are at the foundation of psychologists' and counselors' ability to help African-American students at predominately White institutions, this body of information is important to the field of counseling psychology. At the heart of the work we do is an understanding of the client's perspective. As we serve first generation and non-first generation African-American students, the ability to comprehend and conceptualize their specific, group-related concerns in light of college adjustment, racial identity development, race-related stressors, and coping styles is imperative.

Although each person's experience is different, knowing generally what to expect from clients who may present with these concerns allows us to be more responsive and ready to assist them. Psychologists and counselors need to be prepared to handle the needs of African-American College students, particularly those at predominately white institutions. Tinto (1993) stated, "The character of one's experience in that [first] year does much to shape subsequent persistence" (p. 14). Psychologists' and Counselors' ability to assist these students as they steer through these experiences has the potential to impact the rest of their lives. Our role is about more than having an understanding of the experiences of African-American students at

predominately White institutions but being able to help them learn to cope and process their specific, individual experience in an effective manner according to their particular needs.

Purpose of the Present Study

The purpose of this study was to compare and examine factors that may influence first generation and non-first generation African-American student's college adjustment at a predominately White institution. The present study focuses on the relationship that African-American students' status as first generation or non-first generation, social status, racial identity, coping, and race-related stress have on their adjustment to college.

Research Hypotheses

H₀1: Overall college adjustment can be predicted by generational status (i.e., first generation and non-first generation), gender, social status, Black racial identity development, race-related stress, and coping style for Black students at predominately White institutions.

H₀2: Generational status, gender, social status, racial identity development (6 levels), and race-related stress will be related to adjustment (4 areas) for Black students at predominately White institutions.

H₀3: Generational status, gender, social status, and coping styles (4 types) will be related to adjustment (4 areas) for Black students at

predominately White institutions.

Definitions of Major Terms

African-American and Black will be used interchangeably throughout this manuscript. Additionally, the following terms will be used:

Adjustment – The student's ability to adapt to their surroundings and changes they experience as they enter the university setting.

Black Racial Identity – The stage of an African-American as it relates to the negative to positive change in self-concept that occurs through a developmental process.

Coping Style – The personal strategies an individual uses when responding to stressful situations. Coping style is also a reflection of an individual's ability to adapt.

First Generation Student – Students who are the first person in their immediate family to attend college. They do not have the experiences of their family to use as resources to help them navigate through college.

Race-related Stressors – Factors that contribute to mental or physical tension or pressure that are attributed to the person's race.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In understanding the comparative experiences of first generation and non-first generation African-American students at predominately White institutions, the literature can be divided into three major categories or bodies of information: college student adjustment, college student development, and African-American college students. It is through these primary categorical lenses that the literature was examined for this study. Important, relevant subcategories were also addressed and expounded upon to provide a foundation for understanding the experiences of these two groups of students and providing a context for this study.

College Student Adjustment

School adjustment has been defined as “the degree to which children become interested, engaged, comfortable, and successful in the school environment” (Ladd & Kochenderfer, 1996, p.324). As it relates to college students, student’s ability to effectively adjust to college has been found to be connected to their social and emotional stability which in turn predicts the attrition of first year students more so than the presence of academic difficulties (Gerdes & Mallinckrodt, 1994). Research by Levitz and Noel (1989)

showed that first year students' adjustment in the first 2 to 6 weeks of college significantly influenced their likelihood of adjusting successfully, dropping out, or transferring to another college. The transition to college can challenge an individual's personal security, physical comfort, and ability to enjoy previously gratifying activities (Rodgers & Tennison, 2009). For some students, social adjustment difficulties may be manifested as feelings of homesickness and loneliness (Lokitz & Sprandel, 1976). Cutrona (1982) found that while many students were successful in forming new social networks by the end of their first year in college, most students reported feeling lonely during their first semester. The necessary transitions that are important for first year students' adjustment to college are often experienced more intensely by African-American students at predominately White institutions. For many African-American students, the experience of unfamiliarity is much greater than for their White student counterparts. This is an important concept to remember as we conceptualize the experience of college students due to the long lasting impact of the first year of college on subsequent college development and retention.

First Year College Students: Making the Transition

Transitioning from high school to a university can be seen as a major life experience. It is often a crucial test of an individual's ability to adjust

(Dyson & Renk, 2006). For many students, this experience requires that they leave their home, thus separating from their family, friends, and neighborhood (Friedlander, Reid, Shupak, & Cribbie, 2007) which may have a lasting impact on his or her future development (Grace, 1997; Margolis, 1981). Because each student varies in their pace of development, they also vary in their ability to effectively adjust to their new environment (Blimling & Miltenberger, 1984). Some first year college students question their ability to meet the demands (Dwyer & Cummings, 2001) and expectations of not only parents and friends but also themselves (Blimling & Miltenberger, 1984). They may also experience a lower sense of well-being related to adjusting to the new changes and demands on their life in the midst of having a decrease in the availability of their regular sources of support (Gall, Evans, Bellerose, 2000). Students must respond to the new challenges associated with academic, social, and emotional adjustment (Chickering, 1969), all of which contribute to college students' ability to successfully adjust to their new environment.

Academic adjustment is a prominent factor in the overall adjustment to college. A student's academic adjustment can be understood by such factors as motivation to complete academic work, success in meeting academic requirements, academic effort, and satisfaction with the academic

environment (Baker & Siryk, 1989). Some first year students find the academic requirements of a university to be stressful. The demands of college are qualitatively different from those of high school. Ragheb and McKinney (1993) defined perceived academic stress as performing assignments under tight time and deadlines, having an unreasonable load of exams and projects (i.e., having several assignments due at once), not completing academic assignments on time, expecting to be able to complete several tasks, and difficulty dealing with instructors. Additionally, academic stress may be particularly salient for first-year students who face new and higher expectations for academic work (Dixon Rayle & Chung, 2007) and may not have yet developed coping mechanisms to deal with such stress (Misra et al., 2000). Research has found social support and the development of peer relationships to be an important buffer for academic stress and helpful for responding to academic stress in healthy manners (Dwyer & Cummings, 2001; Shumaker & Hill, 1991).

Peer relationships can influence both student development (Chickering & Reisser, 1993) and affect students' satisfaction with an institution (Astin, 1993). As students transition to college, they experience the dissolution of many, if not most, high school friendships or at least a change in those relationships because of physical separations or contrasting life goals (Paul &

Brier, 2001; Rose, 1984). While they may have a few friendships from high school that carry over into college, many students are faced with trying to establish new, close friendships and they may experience a lag in this process (Swenson, Nordstrom, & Hiester, 2008). Additionally, research indicates that while maintaining a few high school friendships can be beneficial for students' initial transition to college, making new friends can help reduce feelings of loneliness and alienation (Swenson, Nordstrom, & Hiester, 2008). It has also been noted that not only the presence of close friendships influences adjustment to college but also the quality of peer relationships (Fass & Tubman, 2002; Lapsley & Edgerton, 2002) such that the greater the peer support, the better students' emotional adjustment (Swenson, Nordstrom, & Hiester, 2008). Furthermore, peer relationships also serve an important role in students' overall social adjustment.

Social adjustment is particularly important for the overall adjustment of first year students because social relationships can provide support during this process of individuation from their family (Friedlander et al., 2007). While social adjustment includes peer relationships, it also includes students' relationship with academic personnel and the university as a system. Social supports have been identified as those social resources that individuals perceive as available or that are actually offered to them by helping

relationships (Cronkite & Moos, 1995). Researchers have identified social support as one of the most important protective factors for undergraduate students (Tao, Pratt, Hunsberger, & Pancer, 2000); particularly during the transition process (Friedlander, 2007). The adjustment of students who perceived their social resources as having increased improved across their first year of college (Friedlander et al., 2007). Student's inability to adjust socially in addition to adapting to academic demands and changing peer relationships may increase student's susceptibility to emotional distress.

The emotional response to the transition to college is an area in which students may not anticipate having difficulties or be prepared to handle. More often than not, while they may identify with feeling stressed, they may be slower to endorse psychological distress which may be a function of expectations and or awareness. Emotional problems are sometimes manifested as global psychological stress (Gerdes & Mallinckrodt, 1994). As they make the transition to college, many students are faced with the emotional challenges associated with the development of self-worth, self-esteem, finding a direction in life, and changing relationships (Chickering, 1969). Student's emotional resources, or lack thereof, may lead to struggles with somatization, anxiety, or depression (Gerdes & Mallinckrodt, 1994). Emotional adjustment is an important factor in students' overall college

adjustment.

First Generation College Students

According to the American Psychiatric Association (2000) and other sources (Bernier, Larose, & Whipple, 2005; Soucy & Larose, 2000), while many of the changes experienced in late adolescence are part of the natural process of socialization and maturation, some students are ill prepared to effectively respond to the social, personal, and academic demands of college life and therefore may have increased susceptibility to experiences of psychological distress including anxiety, depression, and behavioral disturbances. First generation college students are one such group that may be at risk for these types of stress responses during the transition to college.

First generation students often have transitional needs that are left unmet by traditional support services (Folger, Carter, & Chase, 2004). Subsequently, these students often fail or drop out when they find themselves in academic limbo and unable to make a meaningful connection with the university community. Five distinct areas have been identified as notably different between first generation and non-first generation college students including lack of parental experience with the college application process, personal and academic preparation processes, reasons for attending college, personal experiences, and overall personality traits (Gibbons & Shoffner,

2004). Compas, Wagner, Slavin, and Vannatta (1986) noted that among college students, university life is reported as more harsh and stressful than they anticipated. Additionally, up to 60% of first-year students leave the university prior to degree completion with the majority of these students leaving within the first two years of attendance (Porter, 1990).

Gibbons and Shoffner (2004) stressed that it is important that counselors do not assume that all college-bound youth are the same. Unlike their non-first generation counterparts, first generation students tend to lack specific skills, information, and direction that their colleagues most often possess upon entering college. Furthermore, counselors and university staff who are attuned and responsive to the needs of first generation and non-first generation African-American students may impact the increasing attrition rates of these students.

Development

There are various ways in which the topic of development can be approached. Development has been documented to be different for African-Americans in general and African-American college students more specifically. Additionally, another layer is added when examining the development of African-American students at predominately White institutions. This study further breaks down this group of students and examines differences between

first generation and non-first generation African-American students at predominately White institutions. Development will be considered from these various lenses that impact the experiences of these students.

College Student Development

Researchers and other professionals often make use of developmental models when examining college student development. The transition to college is typically categorized as taking place during late adolescence. This stage is demarcated by an age range that includes individuals from 18-21 years of age – they are usually out of high school and generally in college (Kagan & Coles, 1972; Keniston, 1970; Lipsitz, 1977). Unlike some cultures, in the United States, this transitional process is rather continuous. As one part of their life comes to an end, another begins, and with it comes new challenges that must be met (Brooks, 2006). While the continuity of the changes provides some security for some individuals, the transition to late adolescence – the college years, can be very different from what some students have previously experienced. Because of the uniqueness of this particular transition, Arnett (2000) proposed that this stage not be called late adolescence and instead termed it emerging adulthood and views it as the transition from adolescence to adulthood. According to Arnett, emerging adulthood describes the culturally constructed period of extended adolescence during which a person

pursues higher education (or some other preparation for adulthood) and occurs from the age of 18-25. This study focuses on the importance of this developmental period in the lives of college students particularly as it relates to African-American students at predominately White institutions.

The emerging adulthood stage is composed of several developmental tasks that serve to prepare individuals for success in adulthood. For most individuals, emerging adulthood is a time in which they explore their identity, take on many roles (many of which may be new), and work toward individuating from their family of origin (Arnett, 2000). These are very important steps that have huge implications for an individual's future, thus the unfamiliarity of university life may influence the intensity of this transition and students may have difficulties adapting. The changes can be challenging and have an impact on student's personal security, need for acceptance, need for comfort, and social support network (Dyson & Renk, 2006). African-American students' experiences of acceptance, comfort, and social support may be significantly different from their White colleagues when they are attending a predominately White university. Furthermore, the emerging adulthood stage has been documented to be different for African-Americans and additionally as it relates to this study, African-American college students.

Black Adolescent/Adult Development

Racial identity development often surfaces as an area of interest when discussing multiculturalism; however, all too often it gets left out of discussions on college student development including those specifically about African-American college student development. This area is particularly important when examining the adjustment of African-American students at predominately White institutions because it is such a critical part of the Black adolescent/adult development process. Cross' (1971, 1978) theory of Nigrescence is one such model that seeks to capture and explain the process of racial identity development that occurs for Blacks.

Nigrescence is defined as the "process of becoming Black" (Cross, 1978). In 1971, Cross developed a theory of Nigrescence which has since been revisited and subsequently revised in 2001. In the revised Cross model, the stages remained the same but some of the characteristics that describe each of the stages were adapted in accordance with empirical research findings. The stages in the Cross model progress from Pre-Encounter to Encounter to Immersion-Emersion to Internalization to Internalization-Commitment. From these stages, Cross and Vandiver introduced the Cross Racial Identity Development Scale (CRIS; Vandiver et al., 2000) which was designed to measure the constructs defined in Cross' revised model of Nigrescence. The

CRIS consists of six racial identities in three developmental categories: Pre-Encounter (Assimilation, PA; Miseducation, PM, and Self-Hatred, PSH); Immersion-Emersion (Anti-White, IEAW); and Internalization (Afrocentricity, IA; Multiculturalist Inclusive, IMCI).

According to Cross (1995), Pre-Encounter is characterized as a resocialization experience in which African-Americans transition from a non-Afrocentric to an Afrocentric identity such that they are more Black or Afrocentrically aligned. The three Pre-Encounter subscales – Assimilation, Miseducation, and Self-Hatred – represent a range of attitudes towards race. Individuals with PA attitudes believe that it is necessary for Blacks to be accepted and assimilated into White culture while Whites learn to stop discriminating. Much of the ownership and responsibility for change is placed on Blacks. PM attitudes are developed when a person has been misinformed about the significance of the Black experience, usually as part of being formally educated to embrace a Western cultural-historical perspective. PSH attitudes often mirror those that would be expected of White racists. This group of African-Americans may view Blacks as “their own worst enemy” and tend to be disconnected from other Black people, the Black community, and their own Blackness. Cross (1995) also notes that within the Pre-Encounter stage, individuals may experience a blending in their attitudes and

perspectives and may not clearly or solely fit into one group.

Cross' (1995) Immersion-Emersion stage has one category – Anti-White. Persons in the IEAW subgroup experience an immersion into Black culture that opens the door for the rejection of all things White. Individuals tend to develop strong negative feelings for White culture which is expressed as they seek to quickly increase their knowledge of what it means to be Black and their Black experiences. Immersion is followed by the emergence of the person's own sense of being Black and a stability of the high intensity emotion often associated with immersion. This stage can be complicated such that some individuals will inevitably experience regression, continuation/fixation, or dropping out.

In Nigrescence Theory, the two subgroups of Internalization are Afrocentricity and Multiculturalist Inclusive. Internalization represents the stage of racial identity development in which the person has internalized their new identity and their changes are expressed in naturalistic ways. While IA individuals are almost consumed by their Blackness, IMCI individuals have a biculturalist or multiculturalist perspective which includes their own Blackness. Additionally, as people continue to experience life, they may have a need to re-cycle through some of the stages. With each success, individuals may begin to develop other areas of their identity such as religion, gender

and sexual preference, career development, social class and poverty, and multiculturalism (Cross, 1995). The process that is racial identity development is important for understanding the experiences of African-American students, particularly those at predominately White institutions. Their college experiences may impact their identity development as they learn to navigate an environment with mostly students who are racially different from them.

African-American College Student Development

While theories of college student development and Black racial identity development have been in progress for years, researchers have begun to embark upon the creation of a model for African-American college student development. In her article entitled *The Nguzo Saba as a foundation for African-American college student development theory*, Johnson (2001) proposes that the ideas in Nguzo Saba can “give deeper meaning to the African-American college student development experience” than more traditional, inherently European theories of college student development. Nguzo Saba, also known as the seven principles of Kwanzaa, is a celebratory holiday that represents and connects “Africa to contemporary political struggle and continued cultural and educational development”, constitutes the “values and practices of peoples from all parts of Africa”, and “is based on tradition and reason”.

Johnson contended that “for there to be a true theory or model for African-American college student development, it must be formed isolated from European college student development theories” and rooted in the African-American worldview, address the distinct psychology of African-Americans, be directly linked to their culture, and subsequently, Afrocentric in nature. The theoretical model Johnson proposes considers the ways in which African-Americans have chosen to define themselves as a foundation which is a more adequate reflection of their experiences and the cultural context in which they occur.

Afrocentricity taps into African-American reality by studying and examining phenomena from the viewpoint of Africans as subjects and not objects (Asante, 1987). It implies the existence of a unique African worldview that stems from African-American culture (Johnson, 2001) and has three basic tenets: harmony with nature, survival of the tribe, and spiritual conscientiousness (Jackson, 1995; Nobles, 1992) that are inherently present in many of today’s African-American college students’ psyche, beliefs, and behaviors because of their African lineage. The development of an African-American college student development theory would also engage the racial identity development of African-American students. Such a theory would not necessarily challenge current, more Eurocentric theories, but would assist

universities in attending to the specific needs of African-American college students. There are many facets of life to consider when examining African-American students. An African-American college student development theory would serve to centralize the issues that tend to affect these students and provide a great foundation for working with them. Ideally, universities would be able to use such a framework to better facilitate the retention and success of African-American students. This research serves to add to this body of knowledge by providing self-reported information from African-American students regarding their development and specific needs.

African-American College Students

African-American college students have a unique set of needs as they make their transition into adulthood. Their needs are influenced by such factors as their racial identity development and their appraisal of and response to race-related stressors. These factors are particularly important when students are learning to respond to the systemic dynamics presented when they attend a predominately White institution. African-American students' ability to navigate, cope, and adjust to predominately White institutions may have longstanding implications for overall adult development.

African-American Students at Predominately White Institutions

The specific adjustment of African-American students to predominately White institutions has become increasingly important over the years. In 2002, Jones, Castellanos, and Cole reported qualitative case study data on the experiences of ethnic minority students (i.e., African-American, Asian-Pacific American, Chicano/Latino, and Native American) at a predominately White institution. Participating students were recruited from the campus cultural center and answered a number of questions in focus group format amongst students of their respective ethnic group. They responded to items on such topics as general campus climate, student experiences, the cross-cultural center, departmental units, and made university recommendations. This group of researchers found that all four groups of students reported a lack of support for diversity on campus, questioned the university's commitment toward diversity, and felt the university provided a non-welcoming environment and a lack of representation of students of color on campus. The African-American student participants were quoted as saying "the institution administrators spoke a lot about diversity but acted minimally toward creating a culturally diverse, tolerant and sensitive environment", reporting a sense of "not belonging and feeling different", and that the students perceived the university as putting

forth minimal effort towards recruiting faculty of color after 16 faculty of color left the university. These researchers further noted that it seems likely that some predominately White institutions feel that because they provide students of color with a cultural center, often located on the outskirts of campus and the opportunity to have cultural specific organizations and programming, students of color will not have difficulties related to their race at their university. It would also seem logical that if predominately White institutions continue to struggle with the retention of students of color they would consider that other efforts and strategies need to be put in place. The present study not only sought to gain additional insight into the experiences of African-American students at predominately White institutions but goes further to examine the specific comparative needs of first generation and non-first generation African-American students at predominately White institutions. This study also used this information to provide strategies for assisting with the transition of these students into predominately White institutions and furthermore, affect the current attrition rates.

The students of color in Jones, Castellanos, and Cole's (2002) study also reported that despite the presence of a cultural center that provided a lot of positive assistance and a "place to relax", feel welcomed, and "stress free", there was a lack of resources on campus for diversity initiatives. They noted

that while the center was an important factor in their retention, they felt a need to justify the existence of the center, programs, and events and found that limited funding was allocated to the center. As it relates to student involvement on campus, the majority of their African-American student sample indicated that they limited their interactions across campus and to participating in ethnic-specific events and organizations due to lack of time and finding that available resources were not geared for students of color. Students who did participate in non-ethnic specific organizations reported feeling “like outsiders” and a lack of belonging and representation of their values which influenced their decision to stop participating.

In their departmental units, students reported that while some faculty members were perceived as supportive, others held stereotypes and “different expectations” (Jones, Castellanos, & Cole, 2002). Some faculty were noted as making multiculturally insensitive comments that offended students and some expected students of color to serve as the class representative about their culture which felt “isolating and [like] tokenism”. Students also reported feeling a lack of personal responsibility to diversity amongst their department who communicated that diversity issues were the responsibility of the cross-cultural center and other diversity-focused campus units. Students further indicated that they had limited knowledge of many of the programs and

services available on campus and a need for better advertisement of on-campus resources.

Even with its limitations, Jones, Castellanos, and Cole's (2002) study provides a lot of valuable and meaningful information about the experiences of African-American and other students of color at predominately White institutions. Students were able to provide them with recommendations on how to help students like them transition to a predominately White institution. Some of the students' feedback was consistent with research and other recommendations were new and innovative. Students made requests including the recruitment of more students of color, faculty, and staff, the retention of their peers, and a strong mentoring program with a more productive mentor to mentee ratio. More uncommon recommendations were made for increased representation of the cross-cultural center during orientation week, programming that promotes a more collaborative relationship between cultural groups, the development of a multicultural yearbook, and a cultural library so students are able to learn about their own history and country. Students also expressed a need for education programs to assist in their academic transition, study groups, a more central location for the cross-cultural center, more ethnic movies to be played on campus, the development of student focus groups to discuss personal and academic

problems, and increased family involvement on campus.

When considering the needs of African-American students at predominately White institutions, it could be a natural response to assume that the major concern of these students would be race-related; however, as examined in this study, African-American students have a wide range of between and within group differences that need to be attended to in order for positive adjustment to occur. Additionally, while it may be tempting to make assumptions about how to assist African-American students, it is important to allow students to identify and chose which resources would best meet their needs.

In another study of the adjustment of African-American students, Phillips (2005) reported a comparison study of African-American and White students who were enrolled in an equal opportunity program at two predominately White institutions and their perceptions of their campus environment. The program in which the students were participating was designed to provide educational assistance to students at risk. The researcher noted that because the college was predominately White, all African-American students were more likely to be assumed to be in the program while White students who were actually in the program were more likely to be viewed as part of the general population thus creating feelings of

marginality by the African-American students. It was further reported that the African-American and White students also held different views about what was occurring on their campus when it came to race and ethnicity awareness. Furthermore, White students had the option of choosing whether or not they would step outside their comfort zone and interact with students of other races whereas it has been found to be necessary for African-American students to connect with Whites and other students on predominately White campuses in order to feel connected to the university. Doing so has great implications for their retention and success at the university and helps them feel valued and empowered (Phillips, 2005). This result supports the need to examine the impact of racial identity development of African-American students at predominately White institutions since their stage of development influences with adjustment. Additionally, regardless of their stage, African-American students may re-cycle through the racial identity development process upon entering a predominately White institution.

Overall, the African-American students who participated in Phillips (2005) study reported not being satisfied with the perceptions of equal opportunities for all students at their university, perceived that the rules and regulations reflected White students more so than African-American

students, and did not feel university administrators and staff took their needs into account. This account of these students' experiences is consistent with Johnson's (2001) proposal for the development of a theory of African-American college student development that would incorporate and capture their experiences and history as opposed to being examined from a Eurocentric model.

It is clear that African-American students at predominately White institutions are presented with a number of challenges as they seek to adjust to the environment. This study sought to not only confirm this information but examine the impact of the additional distinction as a first generation student which may set these students apart from their non-first generation African-American peers. This research examined these groups independently and comparatively to gain an understanding of the unique challenges of each group by considering such factors as racial identity development, race-related stressors, and coping styles.

African-American College Student Stress and Coping

In the face of all the changes and challenges of college life, stress and coping become important to examine when considering the adjustment of college students. According to the American College of Health Association (ACHA; 2001), stress was the leading obstacle and most important health

factor in the academic performance of undergraduate students. Adjusting requires that an individual cope with and manage problems, challenges, and demands within the surrounding environment (Simons, Kalichman, & Santrock, 1994) and many students find this task to be stressful. Some researchers have sought to find a way to conceptualize these changes and necessary adjustments. Lazarus and Folkman's (1984), transactional model states that a person responds to a stressor in accordance with their appraisal of the stress and their personal resources for coping with the stressor. To effectively adjust and decrease their experience of stress, people rely on behavioral changes and coping strategies (Creer, 1997), and actively seek to change their environment to meet their personal needs and goals (Atwater, 1987). Dressler (1991) defined stress as what occurs when demands exceed an individual's coping capabilities. A person's experience of stress is further related to the nature of the events, the person's individual characteristics (Makhail, 1985), their individual personality traits (Lazarus, 1976), and the type of coping strategies they utilize in their attempts to decrease their stress (Dyson & Renk, 2006). According to Dressler (1991), coping is defined as the cognitive and behavioral attempts used to alter events and circumstances that are threatening. Interestingly, it has been shown that the use of coping strategies varies in accordance with individual characteristics (Dyson & Renk,

2006). Furthermore, individual characteristics are one variable in the connection between stress and coping and can provide a framework for understanding why individuals' experiences of and responses to stress within the same situation can be very different.

Gender difference can be seen as an individual characteristic that impacts a person's stress appraisal and coping. After examining several studies, researchers have found results to be inconsistent both between and within samples (e.g., Sigmon, Stanton, & Snyder, 1995; Wang, Heppner, & Berry, 1997). Researchers have noted similarities and differences amongst genders in relation to the types of coping strategies used and responses to particular situations (i.e., general appraisal versus appraisal of a specific stressful event). Nonetheless, researchers are consistent in noting the existence of stereotypical views regarding appropriate or expected response types for males and females. While males are socialized to be instrumental problem-solvers, women are socialized to be more emotionally expressive when confronted with a stressful event (Sigmon, Stanton, & Snyder). The inconsistency in these studies fits when considering the impact of individual characteristics. As it relates to this study and working with African-American students, this further supports the importance of allowing students to help define what their needs are and the types of support that would be helpful

from their university. It can be difficult to predict what should be helpful for students since there are so many variables to be considered, all of which play an important role in their adjustment.

For African-American students, particularly at predominately White institutions, the added layer of race-related stress is a factor in their college experience that can often compound the stress for these students. Race-related stress refers to the factors that contribute to mental or physical tension or pressure that are attributed to the person's race. An individual's community, cultural background, and life experiences impact the type of coping strategies they have developed and therefore use. This difference may influence college adjustment (Dyson & Renk, 2006) and African-American students at Predominately White Institutions may find that their coping strategies are ineffective for responding to some of their college experiences. The presence of these struggles does not imply an absence of adaptive coping skills but more so highlights the complex nature of race-related stress which requires a different type of coping skills that students may not have yet developed. Many African-American students may be protected from and may not have been previously exposed to race-related stress and therefore are not equipped to respond effectively to their new environment. Furthermore, when thinking about first generation and non-first generation students, this

difference can add an additional obstacle in their transition to college.

Summary

Research on college adjustment has several implications for university personnel interested in helping students through the developmental stage that occurs during the college years. The transition into college is stressful for many students and increasingly stressful for African-American students at predominately White institutions. Because of the nature of race-related stress, African-American students who begin college with positive adaptive and adjustment skills are still likely to have struggles at predominately White institutions. Furthermore, this group of students can be broken down further and examined according to their status as first generation or non-first generation. The experiences of first generation students have been found largely to be qualitatively different than those of non-first generation students due to differences in preparedness. This study considered and compared differences between the adjustment of first generation and non-first generation African-American students to predominately White institutions by measuring such factors as racial identity development, race-related stressors, and coping styles.

Research Hypotheses

H₀1: Overall college adjustment can be predicted by generational

status (i.e., first generation and non-first generation), gender, social status, Black racial identity development, race-related stress, and coping style for Black students at predominately White institutions.

H₀2: Generational status, gender, social status, racial identity development (6 levels), and race-related stress will be related to adjustment (4 areas) for Black students at predominately White institutions.

H₀3: Generational status, gender, social status, and coping styles (4 types) will be related to adjustment (4 areas) for Black students at predominately White institutions.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Sample

The final sample for this study consisted of 138 participants – 45 first generation and 93 non-first generation students – from 3 predominately White institutions. In order to increase the number of eligible participants, participation criteria was expanded from solely including African-American students to those who self-identify as Black or Multiracial and self-identify as Black. All 138 participants identified themselves as African-American/Black or as Multiracial and self-identify as African-American/Black. Age was not reported for 6 first generation and 11 non-first generation participants. Demographics for both first and non-first generations participants including age ($M = 20.23$, $SD = 1.61$ and $M = 20.07$, $SD = 1.46$), gender, and year in college ($M = 2.47$, $SD = 1.36$ and $M = 2.41$, $SD = 1.31$), respectively, are reported in Table 1. For social status, $M = 35.14$ and $SD = 12.42$ for first generation participants, and $M = 48.44$ and $SD = 14.19$ for non-first generation participants. This difference in social status is consistent with previous research that indicates that first generation students are more likely to come from a lower socioeconomic background than their non-first generation peers

Table 1

Demographics for First Generation and Non-First Generation Participants

	1st Gen		Non-1st Gen	
	<i>n</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>P</i>
Age				
18	7	15.6	12	12.9
19	7	15.6	20	21.5
20	9	20.0	20	21.5
21	6	13.3	17	18.3
22	6	13.3	6	6.5
23	4	8.9	7	7.5
Gender				
Male	13	28.9	19	20.4
Female	32	71.1	74	79.6
Year in College				
1 st	14	31.1	33	35.5
2 nd	12	26.7	17	18.3
3 rd	8	17.8	20	21.5
4 th	6	13.3	20	21.5
5 th	5	11.1	1	1.1
6 th			2	2.2

(Van T. Bui, 2002).

Measures

The measures used in this study included a demographic questionnaire developed for this study, the Barratt Simplified Measure of Social Status (BSMSS; Barratt, 2006); the Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SACQ; Baker & Siryk, 1989), the Coping with Problems Experienced inventory (COPE; Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989); the Cross Racial Identity Scale (CRIS; Vandiver, et al., 2000), and the Index of Race-Related Stress – Brief (IRRS-B; Utsey, 1999). The estimated time for completion of the online questionnaires was 30 to 45 minutes.

Demographic Measure

All participants were asked to complete a demographic form to obtain information regarding their age, gender, ethnic background, and generational status as it relates to attendance at college within their immediate family. This served to certify that the participants met the criteria for participation as determined by the population of interest for this study. All demographic information was used to obtain specifics about the sample to which the data applies and the population it represents.

Barratt Simplified Measure of Social Status (BSMSS; Barratt, 2006)

The BSMSS is a modification of the widely-used Hollingshead Four Factor Index of Social Status (1975). Hollingshead's measure determines social status using a calculation of marital status, retired/employed status (retired individuals used their last employment occupation), educational attainment, and occupational prestige. The BSMSS contains two primary changes from Hollingshead's (1975) measure: an updated list of occupations and a recognition of and adjustment based on generational shifts in social status. The list of occupations was also updated based on the calculations of occupational prestige ratings from the 1989 general social survey by Davis, Smith, Hodge, Hakao, and Treas (1991). To account for the generational shift in social status, the BSMSS combines the individual's parent's educational attainment and occupational prestige with the individual's own family's educational attainment and occupational prestige. With the changes, the BSMSS continues to maintain Hollingshead's original conceptualization of educational attainment and has his weighting of educational attainment to occupational prestige of 3:5.

Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SACQ; Baker & Siryk, 1989)

The SACQ is 67-item questionnaire that measures college student adjustment. It consists of four subscales that cover the following areas:

academic (coping with various educational demands), social (coping with interpersonal-societal demands), personal/emotional (experience of general psychological distress and any concomitant somatic problems), and attachment (degree of commitment to educational-institutional goals and attachment to particular institution). Sample items include “Lately I have been having doubts regarding the value of a college education”; “I have some good friends or acquaintances at college with whom I can talk about any problems I may have”; and “I haven’t been able to control my emotions very well lately”. Responses are scored on a 9-point likert scale ranging from “does not apply to me at all” to “applies very closely to me”. High scores indicate a more positive adjustment to college and some items are reverse scored.

Baker and Siryk (1986) reported that alpha coefficients for this measure were reported to range from .92 to .95 for the full scale, from .81 to .90 for the Academic Adjustment subscale, from .83 to .91 for the Social Adjustment subscale, from .77 to .86 for the Personal-Emotional Adjustment subscale, and from .85 to .91 for the Attachment subscale. The SACQ has been found to be valid for subscales and criterion variables (Baker & Siryk, 1986). The SACQ full scale and subscales have been correlated with numerous measures. For example, the SACQ (full scale and subscales) was significantly correlated with the Academic Locus of Control measure (Ogden & Trice, 1986), a

measure of personality characteristics with scores ranging from -.59 to -.37; the Mental Health Inventory (Flescher, 1986), a measure of mental health characteristics with scores ranging from -.81 to .80 to ; and the Perceived Social Support from Friends measure (Caro, 1985), a measure of environment-related experience with scores ranging from .21 to .36 (see SACQ Manual (Baker & Siryk, 1986) for more information).

The SACQ has also been demonstrated to be reliable and valid for samples of African-American students at predominately White institutions. Schwartz and Washington (1999) obtained Cronbach's alpha internal reliability coefficients ranging from .70 for the personal-emotional subscale to .80 for the other three subscales for a sample of African-American women. Anglin and Wade (2007) obtained internal consistency reliability scores ranging from .75 to .92 for the full-scale and four subscales. Significant correlations for all SACQ indexes were found with the Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale (Radloff, 1977) using a sample of student from an all-Black university and both Black and White students from an integrated university with scores ranging from -.75 to -.30 (Adan & Felner, 1987).

Reliability scores for this study sample were .72 for the Academic subscale, .28 for the Social scale, .81 for the Personal-Emotional scale, .22 for

the Attachment scale, and .86 for the full scale. Due to some data transferring issues, the reliability of the Social and Attachment subscales for this sample was low, therefore only the Full Scale, and Academic and Personal-Emotional subscale scores were used to interpret the results of this study. While the items of the Social and Attachment subscales were included in the Full Scale score, bivariate correlations were examined and used to support research results (see Results section).

Coping with Problems Experienced Inventory (COPE; Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989)

The COPE is a 60-item inventory that measures a broad range of coping responses. The dispositional version of the COPE examines coping styles from a trait-like perspective. Each of the fifteen types of coping responses that are measured by the COPE consists of 4 items. The coping factors fall within three categories of coping styles. The problem-focused coping style is measured with five subscales (i.e., planning, suppression of competing activities, restraint, seeking of instrumental social support, and active coping). Emotion-focused coping is also measured with five subscales (i.e., seeking of emotional social support, positive reinterpretation, acceptance, denial, and religion). The final three subscales measure coping strategies that are “less useful” or attempts at disengaging from stress and

problems experienced (i.e., focus on and venting of emotions, behavioral disengagement, and mental disengagement). The *use of alcohol* and *humor* subscales, which fall within the disengagement and emotion-focused styles of coping, respectively were added in 1994 (Carver & Scheier). Some sample items from the COPE include “I try to grow as a person as a result of the experience”; “I discuss my feelings with someone”; “I sleep more than usual”; and “I make sure not to make matters worse by acting too soon”. Responses are scored on a 4-point likert scale ranging from “I usually don’t do this at all” (1) to “I usually do this a lot” (4).

Alpha coefficients ranging from .60 to .93 for all subscales with the exception of one were obtained by Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub (1989). The mental disengagement scale yielded an alpha of .45 which was anticipated by the researchers due to its multiple-act criterion. The COPE also demonstrated strong evidence of discriminant and convergent validity (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). For example, the COPE was shown to be significantly correlated with measures of optimism, control, self-esteem, internality, and hardiness with scores ranging from -.34 to .41.

In 2007 Greer proposed an application of the COPE from an Afrocentric perspective presented by Myers in 1988. This reorganization of the factors will be used to organize the results from this study. Within this

new model of understanding the COPE, four latent factors were derived: interconnectedness, spirituality, problem-oriented coping, and disengagement. The interconnectedness construct is comprised of the venting of emotions, seeking support for emotional reasons, and seeking support for instrumental reasons subscales from the COPE. It involves both emotional expression and seeking assistance from others. The spirituality construct is composed of the following COPE subscales: planning, religion, restraint, and acceptance and is conceptualized as a form of God consciousness and reliance on God or higher power. Problem-oriented coping consists of specific behaviors and/or attitudes that actively engage a person in addressing his/her problem. It consists of the positive reinterpretation, active coping, suppression of competing activities, and humor subscales from the COPE. The disengagement construct examines behaviors and attitudes that avoid addressing the problem and constitute the mental disengagement, denial, behavioral disengagement, and substance use COPE subscales.

In a comparison study by Greer (2007) of the latent structures of the original COPE (Carver, Scheier, Weintraub, 1989) and the Afrocentric structure proposed by Myers (1988), Greer found the factor loadings, using a confirmatory factor analysis, to be higher using Myers model for understanding a sample of African-American college students. Additionally,

internal consistency coefficients were similar to those obtained by Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub (1989) for their original structure of the COPE. For Greer, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were .88, .80, .80, and .74, for the interconnectedness, spirituality, problem-oriented coping, and disengagement, respectively. This method of analysis of the data was later re-examined and confirmed in an additional study by Greer and Chwalisz (2007) that included 203 African-American students – 101 from a predominately White institution and 102 from a Historically Black College/University. This reorganized structure was used in this study and obtained Cronbach's internal validity coefficients of .87 for interconnectedness, .79 for spirituality, .81 for problem-oriented coping, and .79 for disengagement.

Cross Racial Identity Scale (CRIS; Vandiver, Cross, Fhagen-Smith, et al., 2000)

The CRIS is a 40-item questionnaire that measures Black racial identity attitudes based on Cross' (1991, 1995) revised nigrescence model and its extension based on the empirical work of Vandiver, Cross, et al. (2002) and Vandiver, Fhagen-Smith, et al. (2001). The measure consists of six racial identities in three developmental categories: Pre-Encounter (Assimilation, PA; Miseducation, PM, and Self-Hatred, PSH); Immersion-Emersion (Anti-White, IEAW); and Internalization (Afrocentricity, IA; Multiculturalist

Inclusive, IMCI). Each of the six racial identities consists of five items. There are 10 items on the measure which are not used in scoring. Each of the six subscales is scored separately; there is no global CRIS score. Sample items include “I think of myself primarily as an American, and seldom as a member of a racial group” (PA); “Too many Blacks ‘glamorize’ the drug trade and fail to see opportunities that don’t involve crime” (PM); “I go through periods when I am down on myself because I am Black” (PSH); “I have a strong feeling of hatred and disdain for all White people” (IEAW); “I see and think about things from an Afrocentric perspective” (IA); and “As a multiculturalist, I am connected to many groups (Hispanics, Asian-Americans, Whites, Jews, gays & lesbians, etc.)” (IMCI). Responses are scored on a 7 point likert-scale ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7). High scores indicate stronger endorsements of the attitudes on a subscale.

The researchers obtained reliability estimates using Cronbach’s (1951) alpha ranging from .78 to .90 and construct validity estimates based on standardized coefficients from a confirmatory factor analysis (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995). Results of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses support the six-factor structure for the CRIS (Vandiver, Cross, Worrell, et al., 2002). Reliability scores for this sample were .89, .83, .87, .87, .84, and .80 for the PA, PM, PSH, IEAW, IA, and IMCI scales, respectively.

Index of Race-Related Stress – Brief (IRRS-B; Utsey, 1999)

The IRRS-B was used to measure students' first reaction to a race-related experience at the time the event happened. Utsey's 22-item questionnaire measures three factors: cultural racism, institutional racism, and individual racism. Sample items for each subscale include "you have observed the police treat White/non-Blacks with more respect and dignity than they do Blacks", "you have been threatened with physical violence by an individual or group of White/non-Blacks", and "Whites/non-Blacks have stared at you as if you didn't belong in the same place with them; whether it was a restaurant, theater, or other place of business", respectively. Responses are scored on a 5-point likert scale ranging from "this never happened to me" (0) to "this event happened & I was extremely upset" (4). Higher scores indicate greater levels of stress.

Internal consistency rates according to Cronbach's alpha were .78 for the Cultural Racism, .69 for the Institutional Racism, and .78 for the Individual Racism subscales (Utsey, 1999). Subscale intercorrelations were calculated and confirmed that each of the subscales measure separate but related aspects of racism. Utsey (1999) found that a three-factor oblique model was supported for the IRRS-B by a confirmatory factor analysis. The IRRS-B was correlated with the Perceived Racism Scale (McNeilly, Anderson,

Armstead, et al., 1996) and the Racism and Life Experience Scales-Revised (Harrell, 1997). The global racism score was used for this study and yielded an alpha of .89 for this sample.

Procedure

The African-American college students were recruited from two Midwestern and one Southern predominately White institution. Approval to conduct this study with qualifying students was obtained from the research review boards of the respective institutions. Permission to use the BSMSS, CRIS, and IRRS-B was granted from the creators of each of the measures. Permission for the COPE is granted openly by the creator on the website for the instrument. Permission was also granted by the publisher of the SACQ for use in a secure online-based research study.

Participants were informed that the results of the research are important for obtaining information regarding ways that universities can better help them or other students like them adjust to college and help ensure their success and completion of their degree. This study was described as intending to help make universities more aware of their needs and concerns specifically related to African-American college students.

Participants were recruited via e-mail through campus research bodies that have access to and are able to identify students of interest in this study.

Participants were also elicited through flyers and handouts made available within university offices and organizations frequented and attended by African-American students. The e-mail, flyers, and handouts briefly described the study, the requirements for participation, notified them of the incentive, and included a link and password to the on-line study.

The on-line questionnaire provided an on-line consent for participation and directions for completion. Directions indicated that the estimated time for completion for all questionnaires was 30 – 45 minutes, and guided students through each section of the study. Participants were reminded that their participation was voluntary and they were able to withdraw at any time without prejudice. They were also informed that they may obtain general study results from the researcher by contacting the researcher through at the e-mail address provided. The questionnaire also stated that participants could also contact the researcher should they have any questions, comments, or concerns regarding the study. Participants also provided demographic information in addition to completing questionnaires regarding their adjustment to college, racial identity development, race-related stress, and coping styles. Upon completion of the questionnaires, students were taken to a screen where they were allowed to enter contact information for entry into a drawing for one of three \$75 Visa gift cards for their participation.

Research Design

The purpose of this study was to gain an understanding of the similarities and differences in the experiences of first generation and non-first generation African-American college students at predominately White universities. More specifically, this study examined their adjustment, coping styles, racial identity development, and race-related stressors as they impact their experiences. The following analyses were conducted in relation to the following hypotheses:

H₀1: Overall college adjustment can be predicted by generational status (i.e., first generation and non-first generation), gender, social status, Black racial identity development, race-related stress, and coping style for Black students at predominately White institutions. This hypothesis was analyzed with a Simultaneous Multiple Regression. This method of analysis simultaneously examines the contributions of all predictors of interest (Grimm & Yarnold, 1995).

The next two hypotheses were analyzed using a Canonical Correlation. Canonical correlation analysis is part of the multiple general linear hypothesis family and is a way of comparing multiple sets of variables (Stevens, 1992).

H₀2: Generational status, gender, social status, racial identity

development (6 levels), and race-related stress will be related to adjustment (2 areas) for Black students at predominately White institutions. This hypothesis was analyzed with generational status, gender, social status, racial identity development, and race-related stress as the dependent variables and two areas of adjustment as the independent variables.

H₀₃: Generational status, gender, social status, and coping styles (4 types) will be related to adjustment (2 areas) for Black students at predominately White institutions. This hypothesis was analyzed with generational status, gender, social status, and coping styles as the dependent variables and two areas of adjustment as the independent variables.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Overview of Analyses

Means and standard deviations were computed for all study variables for both first generation and non-first generation students and are reported in Table 2. Correlations were also computed to determine the relationships between study variables (see Table 3). For each variable – social status, race-related stress, coping, and racial identity development – higher scores indicate higher levels.

Research Hypothesis H₀₁

Social status, gender, generational status, racial identity development, coping style, and race-related stress will predict overall college adjustment. A simultaneous multiple regression was performed to identify which, if any, independent variables were significant predictors of the overall adjustment of Black college students at predominately White institutions. Simultaneous multiple regression analysis requires that variables are continuous in nature (Pedhazur, 1982). Subsequently, two variables – gender and generational status – were recoded from their original categorical format in order to fit the model. For gender, male was assigned a one and female a zero. For

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations for First Generation and Non-First Generation Students

Variable	1st Gen ^a		Non-1st Gen ^b	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
College Adjustment				
Overall Adjustment	373.69	56.18	390.26	43.06
Academic Adjustment	131.16	21.52	137.89	17.19
Personal-Emotional Adjustment	87.51	22.76	92.13	16.15
Racial Identity Development				
Pre-encounter Assimilation	14.44	7.71	16.49	8.19
Pre-encounter Miseducation	16.53	6.78	17.84	6.99
Pre-encounter Self-hatred	12.76	6.88	12.34	7.23
Immersion-Emersion Anti-White	7.40	4.21	7.68	3.90
Internalization Afrocentricity	16.42	5.23	15.32	6.32
Internalization Multiculturalist Inclusive	29.53	3.93	29.60	5.44
Coping				
Interconnectedness	29.42	6.50	29.91	8.66
Spirituality	46.27	6.77	46.62	7.77
Problem-oriented	42.98	6.87	42.55	7.69
Disengagement	27.78	6.17	28.00	6.90
Race-related Stress ¹	-.0019	2.60	.0009	2.50

Note. ^an = 45. ^bn = 93.

¹ Z-scores are reported for race-related stress.

Table 3

Intercorrelations for Measured Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. SACQFull	—	.100	.013	-.162*	.106	.025	-.307**	-.241**	-.217**	.144*	.129	.266**	.270**	-.367**	-.202**
2. BSMSS		—	-.102**	-.418	.142*	-.105	-.149**	-.157**	-.169*	.175	.159*	.088	.083	.023	-.061
3. Gender			—	.094	.087	.111	-.027	-.012	.012	-.081	-.164*	.013	.160*	.063	-.091
4. Generation				—	-.120	-.089	.027	-.033	.086	-.006	-.029	-.023	.027	-.016	-.162
5. CRISPA					—	.114	.045	-.143*	-.459**	-.025	-.018	-.136	-.053	.054	.106**
6. CRISPM						—	.211**	.078	.082	-.119	.054	-.075	.043	-.069	.025
7. CRISPSH							—	.286**	.142*	-.156*	-.105	-.254**	-.096	.201**	-.307**
8. CRISIEAW								—	.468**	-.418**	-.163*	-.214**	-.245**	.172*	-.241**
9. CRISIA									—	-.121	.027	.087	.049	.092	-.217**
10. CRISIMCI										—	.139	.126	.255**	.068	.144
11. COPEInt											—	.222**	.336**	.089	.129
12. COPESpr												—	.576**	-.077	.266
13. COPEPro													—	.015	.270
14. COPEDis														—	-.367*
15. IRRSB															—

Note. SACQFull = Overall Adjustment, BSMSS = Social Status, CRISPA = Pre-encounter Assimilation; CRISPM = Pre-encounter Miseducation; CRISPSH =

Pre-encounter Self-hatred; CRISIEAW = Immersion-Emersion Anti-White; CRISIA = Internalization Afrocentricity; CRISIMCI = Internalization Multiculturalist

Inclusive; COPEInt = Interconnectedness; COPESpr = Spirituality; COPEPro = Problem-Oriented Coping; COPEDis = Disengagement

** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

generational status, non-first generation was assigned a zero and first generation a one.

The overall model was significant $F_{14,123}=4.486, p = .000$. The results identified generational status as a significant negative predictor ($p = .043$), disengagement as a significant negative predictor ($p = .000$), problem-oriented coping as a marginally significant positive predictor ($p = .057$), and pre-encounter self-hatred as a marginally significant negative predictor ($p = .070$) of overall adjustment (see Table 4). Combined, the variables explained 26% of the variance in overall adjustment ($R^2 = .338$; $R^2_{adj} = .263$). Bivariate correlations between overall adjustment and generational status ($p = .029$), disengagement ($p = .000$), problem-oriented coping ($p = .001$), and pre-encounter self-hatred racial identity development ($p = .000$) revealed significant relationships between these variables (see Table 3). These data support the results of the regression despite the data transferring issues previously discussed. This result indicates that non-first generation African-American students who are racially conscience, do not disengage, and utilize a problem-oriented coping style better adjust to college on a predominately White campus.

Research hypotheses 2 and 3 were analyzed using a canonical correlation. Wilk's lambda was used to test statistical significance (Norusis,

Table 4

Summary of Simultaneous Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Overall Adjustment to College

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Social Status	-.217	.275	-.068
Gender	1.406	9.043	.012
Generational Status	-17.402	8.494	-.170*
Race-related Stress	-2.203	1.611	-.116
Racial Identity Development			
Pre-encounter Assimilation	.297	.532	.050
Pre-encounter Miseducation	.0799	.555	.011
Pre-encounter Self-hatred	-1.052	.575	-.155
Immersion-Emersion Anti-White	.55	1.206	.071
Internalization Afrocentricity	-1.206	.774	-.150
Internalization Multiculturalist Inclusive	.962	.828	.100
Coping			
Interconnectedness	.424	.498	.070
Spirituality	.734	.620	.113
Problem-oriented	1.248	.649	.192
Disengagement	-2.363	.574	-.326**

Note. $R^2 = .338$ for the model. The model was significant at the $p < .001$ level

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

1993; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). Based on the correlations between the canonical variate and original variables – the canonical variable loadings – the naming of the canonical variate is made. Variables used in the naming of a canonical variate were chosen using a canonical variable loading or standardized coefficient of .45. While a cutoff of .30 is often used in research, Tinsley and Tinsley (1987) indicated that the use of higher loading values for interpretation eliminated variables that are of minimum importance when compared to other loadings. This subsequently helps maintain parsimony between the data and the theory.

Research Hypothesis H_{o2}

Social status, gender, generational status, race-related stress, and racial identity development will be related to academic and personal-emotional adjustment. This hypothesis was analyzed with social status, gender, gender, generational status, race-related stress, and racial identity development as the dependent variables and academic and personal-emotional adjustment as the independent variables. The canonical correlation for this hypothesis yielded one canonical variate. The following results were obtained: $\text{Root } 1^{\wedge} = .712, p = .001$. The canonical correlation for Root 1 was .478 and accounted for 22.8% of the total variance.

Table 5 represents the standardized canonical coefficients for the first

Table 5

Standardized Coefficients for Canonical Analysis of Adjustment, Racism, and Racial Identity Development

Variable	Canonical Variate Pair
	Root 1
Independent Variables	
Academic Adjustment	.104
Personal-Emotional Adjustment	-1.072
Dependent Variables	
Social Status	.104
Gender	-.116
Generational Status	.249
Race-related Stress	.395
Racial Identity Development	
Pre-encounter Assimilation	.020
Pre-encounter Miseducation	-.262
Pre-encounter Self-hatred	.641
Immersion-Emersion Anti-White	.258
Internalization Afrocentricity	.005
Internalization Multiculturalist Inclusive	-.117
Variance accounted for by Root	22.8%

Note. Canonical Variable Loading exceeds the cutoff of .45.

root across both sets of variables. For the dependent variables, the first root was most strongly influenced by pre-encounter self-hatred. For the independent variables, the first root was comprised of personal-emotional adjustment which was negative. Furthermore, this first canonical variate pair indicates that a pre-encounter self-hatred racial identity is related to low personal-emotional adjustment. This indicates that Black students at predominately White institutions who struggle with being in the pre-encounter self-hatred stage in their racial identity development also have difficulties with personal-emotional adjustment to the institution.

Examination of the canonical variable loadings (see Table 6) provided additional information for this hypothesis beyond noting which variables made the most unique contributions as indicated by the standardized correlation coefficients reported above. According to the canonical variable loadings, the first canonical variate pair for the dependent variables indicated that this canonical variate was made up of pre-encounter self-hatred and immersion-emersion anti-White racial identity, and global race-related stress. The independent variables indicated that this canonical variate was made up of both academic and personal-emotional adjustment and both were negative. Subsequently, this first canonical variate pair indicates that pre-encounter self-hatred and immersion-emersion anti-White racial identity, and race-

Table 6

Canonical Variable Loadings for Canonical Analysis of Adjustment, Racism, and Racial Identity Development

Variable	Canonical Variate Pair
Root 1	
Independent Variables	
Academic Adjustment	-.664
Personal-Emotional Adjustment	-.997
Dependent Variables	
Social Status	-.139
Gender	-.178
Generational Status	.225
Race-related Stress	.610
Racial Identity Development	
Pre-encounter Assimilation	-.173
Pre-encounter Miseducation	-.168
Pre-encounter Self-hatred	.759
Immersion-Emersion Anti-White	.538*
Internalization Afrocentricity	.312
Internalization Multiculturalist Inclusive	-.252

Note. Canonical Variable Loading exceeds the cutoff of .45.

related stress are related to low academic and personal-emotional adjustment. This indicates that Black students at predominately White institutions who are in pre-encounter self-hatred and immersion-emersion anti-White racial identity, and experience global racism also struggle with both academic and personal-emotional adjustment to the institution.

Research Hypothesis H₃

Social status, gender, generational status, and coping will be related to academic and personal-emotional adjustment. This hypothesis was analyzed with social status, gender, generational status, and coping as the dependent variables and academic and personal-emotional adjustment as the independent variables. The canonical correlation for this hypothesis yielded one canonical variate. The following results were obtained: $\text{Root } 1^2 = .641, p = .000$. The canonical correlation for Root 1 was .572 and accounted for 32.7% of the total variance.

In the first canonical variate pair, the standardized correlation coefficients (see Table 7) for the dependent variables indicate that this canonical variate is primarily made up of a disengagement coping style and this number was negative. For the independent variables in the first canonical variate pair, the variables indicate that this canonical variate primarily consists of personal-emotional adjustment. Furthermore, this first canonical

Table 7

Standardized Coefficients for Canonical Analysis of Adjustment and Coping Style

Variable	Canonical Variate Pair
	Root 1
Independent Variables	
Academic Adjustment	-.306
Personal-Emotional Adjustment	1.196
Dependent Variables	
Social Status	-.022
Gender	.230
Generational Status	-.195
Coping	
Interconnectedness	.203
Spirituality	.216
Problem-oriented	.265
Disengagement	-.821
Variance accounted for by Root	32.7%

Note. Canonical Variable Loading exceeds the cutoff of .45.

Table 8

*Canonical Variable Loadings for Canonical Analysis of
Adjustment and Coping Style*

Variable	Canonical Variate Pair
Root 1	
Independent Variables	
Academic Adjustment	.552
Personal-Emotional Adjustment	.977
Dependent Variables	
Social Status	.091
Gender	.174
Generational Status	-.155
Coping	
Interconnectedness	.231
Spirituality	.482
Problem-oriented	.475
Disengagement	-.798

Note. Canonical Variable Loading exceeds the cutoff of .45

variate pair indicates that an engaging coping style is related to personal-emotional adjustment. This indicates that Black students at predominately White institutions who do not disengage also have positive personal-emotional adjustment to the institution.

Similarly with this hypothesis, examination of the canonical variable loadings (see Table 8) provided additional information beyond noting which variables made the most unique contributions as indicated by the standardized correlation coefficients. According to the canonical variable loadings, the first canonical variate pair for the dependent variables indicated that this canonical variate was made up of the following coping styles: spirituality, problem-oriented, and low disengagement. The independent variables indicated that this canonical variate was made up of both academic and personal-emotional adjustment. Subsequently, this first canonical variate pair indicates that spirituality, problem-oriented coping, and not disengaging are related to both academic and personal-emotional adjustment. This indicates that Black students at predominately White institutions who seek spirituality to cope, are problem-oriented in their coping, and do not disengage in coping have both positive academic and personal-emotional adjustment to the institution.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The present research sought to examine the differences between first generation and non-first generation Black students at predominately White institutions. Differences were considered in the areas of college adjustment, coping styles, race related stress, and racial identity development. Specific variables were shown to be related to overall adjustment as well as adjustment in specific areas for first generation and non-first generation Black students at predominately White institutions. The results of this research are imperative to note when developing resources to serve Black students.

Research hypothesis one determined which individual variables influence students overall college adjustment. The prediction for this research hypothesis held that there is a difference in the adjustment experiences of first generation and non-first generation Black students at predominately White institutions. According to the regression analyses, students who are non-first generation, low in disengagement, use problem-oriented coping strategies, and are low on pre-encounter self-hatred in their racial identity development may be more likely to experience a positive overall college adjustment. This profile supports the primary premise behind this study indicating that there

is a difference in the experiences of first generation and non-first generation Black students at predominately White institutions. Furthermore, these differences are likely impacted by racial identity development and coping style. The demonstration of a significant impact of racial identity development and coping style supports previous research (Anglin & Wade, 2007; Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). Results showed that it is necessary for students to choose to not disengage in coping with their stressors, and more specifically, to directly engage the problems they experience using specific behaviors and/or attitudes. Such skills as positive reinterpretation, active coping, suppression of competing activities, and humor aid in positive coping as opposed to avoiding the problem using such strategies as mental and/or behavioral disengagement, denial, and substance use (Greer, 2007). Additionally, the data revealed that students' adjustment was impacted by their racial identity development such that students who are connected to other Black people, the Black community, and their own Blackness (Cross, 1995) experience a more positive adjustment to college. In racially homogenous environments, individuals are able to receive support and validation which is particularly important as a Black student at a predominately White institution.

Research hypothesis two examined possible relationships between

generational status, gender, social status, race-related stress, racial identity development (6 levels), and college adjustment (2 areas). According to the canonical correlation analyses, pre-encounter self-hatred racial identity and low personal-emotional adjustment made unique contributions to the model. This suggests that students who struggle with self-hatred also struggle with personal-emotional adjustment. When examining the definitions of each, this result fits with previous research as both variables are internal processes that produce stress and are often impacted by a person's physical environment (Leong, Bonz, & Zachar, 1997). In the context of the experiences of a Black student at a predominately White institution, the physical environment may be less supportive, particularly in the area of racial identity, and students may struggle to adjust to the change.

For the second hypothesis, the canonical loadings revealed that five variables shared a relationship: pre-encounter self-hatred, immersion-emersion anti-white, race-related stress, low academic adjustment, and low personal-emotional adjustment. This result fits with that described above and adds additional information. It indicates that for Black students at predominately White institutions, the impact of a self-hatred and an anti-white racial identity development along with experiences of racism may be observed through low academic and personal-emotional adjustment. While it

has been previously documented that individuals in the early stages of racial identity development have poorer overall adjustment to college and often feel academically and socially dissatisfied (Anglin & Wade, 2007), this data adds an additional factor to be considered, racism. This suggests that students' adjustment difficulties may not be just the result of their own racial identity development and ability to adjust, but identifies the additional experience of race-related stress as a contributor. While racial identity development is a normative process, an individual's progress through the stages of racial identity development may be impacted by experiences of racism. These experiences may lead them to begin to re-evaluate and understand themselves and the world, and in particular their environment, in different ways. This further suggests that the environment in which these students are functioning is important for their personal and academic success. Additionally, when considering that these students met the requirements to be accepted into the university, they likely came in with some academic skills, so changes in academic adjustment may be further influenced by their racial experiences. It is widely known that personal and environmental stressors affect performance (Leong, Bonz, & Zachar, 1997). The energy that these students would typically use to help them adjust to the academic demands may be being spent trying, however unsuccessfully, to maintain their

personal-emotional self as racial beings in an unsupportive, racial environment (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989).

According to the canonical correlation analyses for research hypothesis three which examined possible relationships between generational status, gender, social status, coping styles (4 types), and college adjustment (2 areas), a low disengagement coping style and personal-emotional adjustment made unique contributions to the model. This demonstrated that Black students at predominately White institutions who do not disengage are stable in their personal-emotional adjustment to the university. Based on research this is an expected result that actively addressing personal concerns leads to emotional stability (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989).

For this hypothesis, the additional information provided by the canonical loadings reveals added information about this relationship. Spirituality, problem-oriented coping, low disengagement coping, academic adjustment, and personal-emotional adjustment were shown to be related. This data helps to provide more specific information about the coping styles that are helpful for the students in this study. It appears that not only is choosing to not disengage a helpful coping style, but specifically using problem-oriented methods that address problems head on and seeking spiritual support produce positive personal-emotional and academic

adjustment. This supports previous research which identifies spirituality as an important coping style for African-Americans (Blaine & Crocker, 1995).

When examined together, the results of this research are powerful in that they are consistent with other bodies of research and provide information, in one study, that identifies the struggles of Black students at predominately White institutions as well as information about what is most helpful for their success at these institutions. These data demonstrate that it is likely that college adjustment is indeed affected by generational status for African-American students at predominately White institutions. Consistent with previous research, non-first generation students often have access to resources that increase their preparedness and facilitate positive adjustment to college (Gibbons & Shoffner, 2004).

This research also shows that spiritual, problem-oriented, engaging coping styles may be successful in helping students who may be experiencing racial identity struggles and race-related stress successfully adjust academically and personally-emotionally. It is also important to note that when conceptualizing the three coping styles that were shown to be positively related to positive adjustment (i.e., spirituality, problem-oriented, not disengaging) and the one coping style that was not related (i.e., interconnectedness), the three styles are styles that would provide a person

with specific information/instructions on how to cope with a situation as opposed to interconnectedness which, due to its social nature, focuses on venting and finding condolence.

As was a premise of this research, the familial support provided by the families of non-first generation students may be a contributor in their ability to recognize the need for the use of and ability to engage in active coping and use problem-oriented and spiritual coping styles (Lohfink & Paulsen, 2005). It could be the case that through interactions with and modeling by family members, non-first generation African-American students gain the skills needed to affectively adjust to college. Furthermore, some of the adaptive coping skills they learn from family may very well be related to ways to effectively adjust to a predominately White institution.

In addition to coping, the information that non-first generation students come to college with would likely also have an impact on their racial identity development. Racial identity development, particularly as described in this study and as modeled and explained by the CRIS, occurs such that individuals may re-cycle through the stages as they encounter new experiences and continue to develop in different areas of their life (Cross, 1995). To this end, often times the new experiences that African-American students incur at a predominately White institution may indeed prompt a re-

cycling through their racial identity development such that it becomes important that students with low pre-encounter self-hatred experience a more positive adjustment. For many African-American students, a predominately White post-secondary institution may be their first experience in an environment of this type. Students may become more aware of their Blackness and may not have developed coping strategies specific for a predominately White environment. There is often a difference in a person's experience of racial support when they are in an environment that is predominately racially dissimilar from them.

Although the social adjustment and attachment subscales were not used in the canonical analysis and specific information is not available for the relationships between these and other variables, the results of the regression analyses in hypothesis one which used overall adjustment were consistent with these data. This suggests that social adjustment and attachment might also be positively affected by the employment of the coping strategies identified above.

Limitations

Limitations that are common to research of this type and with the population of interest were encountered. Although an incentive was offered, the overall response rate was lower than the original goal and particularly for

first generation students. Several methods were employed to maximize the number of responses including suggestions made by undergraduate student researchers from a campus organization. It should be noted that in cases where a personal invitation was made between the researcher and potential participants, participants appeared to be willing to complete the questionnaire. This may have implications for future data collection methods. Historically, it is difficult to get African-Americans to participate in research. This may be influenced by the archive of negative experiences with research for this race. The correlational nature of this study is a limitation as it cannot establish cause and effect.

Implications for University Personnel and Counseling Center Staff of Predominately White Institutions

The implications that can be made from this research are invaluable to Black students at predominately White institutions. The results of this research breeds ideas for ways to better serve these students. This research suggests that for overall positive adjustment, Black students need specific help in developing coping strategies (i.e., spirituality, problem-oriented, not disengaging) in response to race-related stress. In the context of results indicating students benefit from environments that support their Blackness, formal opportunities for students to engage in open discussions regarding

race-related stress could be helpful. Furthermore, non-first generation students may be able to share information they learned from their family with first generation students. One dimension of the information shared between generations may be coping strategies for race-related stress. This could be an area that is missing from current university models designed to assist first generation students.

Furthermore, through peer engagement, students may receive the support they need to make the decision to not disengage from the university which was shown to be a helpful coping style in this study. Peers are able to not only share information but also validate one another's experience. This may also serve to support student's racial identity development and buffer their experiences of race-related stress.

Additionally, universities can choose to communicate directly with students that historically, minorities experience better adjustment when they are otherwise connected to a community that looks like them and subsequently encourage students to build a support network of like peers which may include student organizations. Universities can also go the additional step of facilitating the connection between students. While this strategy does not address the larger issue of students functioning in a racially insensitive environment, it does provide students with effective strategies

that can buffer and protect them from adverse affects. Additionally, the skills that they would learn are transferrable and can be used in the community at large as well.

This study also supports prevention research which suggests identifying high risk individuals and employing strategies to reduce risky agents and strengthen resistance to stress (Albee, 1999; Albee & Ryan, 1998; Albee & Ryan-Finn, 1993). This body of research advocates for the specific development of social skills and competencies, improvements in self-esteem, and strong social support systems. The results of this research highlight the importance of these areas for this sample of students. While predominately White institutions may have identified Black students, and in particular first generation Black students as high risk for dropping out and implemented prevention-based programs, it is essential that such programs address the race-related needs of these students. For many students, difficulties coping with race-related stress may be getting addressed through secondary prevention or intervention strategies through referrals to mental health professionals.

The phrase “predominately White institutions” also tends to refer to administrators and staff as well. Subsequently, students may not actually share their racial concerns with university employees. Furthermore, students

also may not be consciously aware of the influence of environmental factors (i.e., racism) on their adjustment. African-American students may need someone to label this experience for them, which is something that is more readily available for non-first generation students. By the time that some students are able to accurately label this part of their experience, they may be too overwhelmed and drop out. The presence of racism cannot continue to be overlooked or hurriedly breezed by at predominately White institutions.

Implications for Future Research

The experiential differences between first generation and non-first generation Black students at predominately White institutions needs greater understanding. The importance of this research is supported by the literature and the results of this study. Furthermore, continued research and evaluation of university resources is needed. While many, if not most, institutions have programs to help Black students, universities continue to experience higher than desirable attrition rates for these students. In noting that there are benefits to being non-first generation for African-American students at predominately White institutions, research to gain an understanding of when to intervene may be helpful. While there are ways that universities are able to help students positively adjust, there may be ways to help first generation students develop coping skills and better prepare them before they enter a

predominately White institution.

The results of this study provide a foundation for understanding the comparative experiences for first generation and non-first generation Black students at predominately White institutions. This is an important part of understanding influential developmental, psychological, and individual factors. Although the specific areas of significant difference between first generation and non-first generation African-American students at predominately White institutions needs further exploration, it is clear that students benefit from an ability to effectively use spirituality, problem-oriented coping, and low disengagement coping styles. Furthermore, this research is invaluable to mental health providers and other university entities that provide services to these students and promote positive development.

Appendix A

Human Subjects Institutional Review Board Letter of Approval

WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY



Human Subjects Institutional Review Board

Date: September 17, 2009

To: Lonnie Duncan, Principal Investigator
Leatrice Brooks, Student Investigator for dissertation

From: Amy Naugle, Ph.D., Chair

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read "Amy Naugle", written over the printed name.

Re: HSIRB Project Number: 09-09-14

This letter will serve as confirmation that your research project titled "Comparing First Generation and Non-First Generation African American Students at Predominately White Institutions" has been **approved** under the **exempt** category of review by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board. The conditions and duration of this approval are specified in the Policies of Western Michigan University. You may now begin to implement the research as described in the application.

Please note that you may **only** conduct this research exactly in the form it was approved. You must seek specific board approval for any changes in this project. You must also seek reapproval if the project extends beyond the termination date noted below. In addition if there are any unanticipated adverse reactions or unanticipated events associated with the conduct of this research, you should immediately suspend the project and contact the Chair of the HSIRB for consultation.

The Board wishes you success in the pursuit of your research goals.

Approval Termination: September 17, 2010

Appendix B

E-mails Granting Permission to Use Instruments

From: Will Barratt [Will.Barratt@indstate.edu]
Sent: Friday, November 13, 2009 9:34 AM
To: Leatrice Brooks
Subject: RE: Permission to use BSMSS

You have my permission to use it in any way appropriate for this study. The tool does not assign people to any social class, but provides a relative position that is most appropriately used in correlation studies. Some researchers have used the score to group participants also.

Will

=====
 Will Barratt, Ph.D.
 Educational Leadership, Administration, and Foundations
 Bayh College of Education
 Indiana State University
 Office 812-237-2902 or 812-237-2869
<http://wbarratt.indstate.edu>

"It's about students!"

From: Leatrice Brooks [mailto:leatrice.brooks@wmich.edu]
Sent: Friday, November 13, 2009 9:06 AM
To: willbarratt@indstate.edu
Subject: Permission to use BSMSS

Hi Dr. Barratt,

I am a doctoral student at Western Michigan University in the process of developing my dissertation research and I am interested in using the BSMSS. I would be using the measure along with others in a study comparing the adjustment of first generation and non-first generation African American students at predominately White institutions. I am inquiring about gaining permission to use the BSMSS in a secured online format. Any information you can provide me to assist in this process would be greatly appreciated.

Thanks,

Leatrice

--
 Leatrice R. Brooks, M.S.
 Doctoral Candidate in Counseling Psychology
 Western Michigan University
leatrice.brooks@wmich.edu

wps®
 Western Psychological Services
 A Division of Manson Western Corporation
 12031 Wilshire Boulevard
 Los Angeles, CA 90025-1251
www.wpspublish.com

November 17, 2009

Leatrice Brooks
 5200 Croyden Avenue, Apt 6206
 Kalamazoo, MI 49009

Re: Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SACQ)

Dear Ms. Brooks—

WPS has processed your license for a specific web-based application of SACQ material. By surface mail, you will soon receive a paid-in-full WPS invoice/receipt, which will serve as your license to use the SACQ items and scoring key in a secure on-line environment, permitting adaptation, administration and scoring of the instrument up to two hundred (200) times total. This authorization is for sole use in your registered dissertation study, "Comparing First Generation and Non-First Generation African American Students at Predominately White Institutions" -- with no authorization for continued or commercial use -- subject to the provisions of terms and conditions provided to you October 28.

With reference to condition (4) of WPS's October 28 terms letter, please affix the following copyright notice in its entirety, on the screen of item presentation, to each reprint/viewing of the SACQ:

Material from the SACQ copyright © 1988, 1999 by Western Psychological Services. Format adapted by L. Brooks, Western Michigan University, for specific, limited research use under license of the publisher, WPS, 12031 Wilshire Boulevard, Los Angeles, California 90025, U.S.A. (rights@wpspublish.com). No additional reproduction, in whole or in part, by any medium or for any purpose, may be made without the prior, written authorization of WPS. All rights reserved.

On behalf of WPS, I hope the SACQ well serves your study, and look forward in due course to learning of your research results.

Sincerely yours,

SusanW
Digitally signed by SusanW
 DN: cn=SusanW, o=WPS,
 ou=Admin,
 email=weinberg@wpspublish.
 com, c=US
 Date: 2009.11.17 10:09:06 -0800

Susan Dunn Weinberg
 Assistant to the President
 WPS Rights and Permissions
 e-mail: weinberg@wpspublish.com

SDW:se

file:///E:/Documents/School Files/Graduate School/PhD/Dissertatio...

From: bvndvr@gmail.com on behalf of B Vandiver [bjv3@psu.edu]
Sent: Thursday, October 18, 2007 12:42 AM
To: leatrice.brooks@wmich.edu
Subject: Re: Request for the Cross Racial Identity Scale
Dear Ms. Brooks:

I have resent the content of the email as when I sent it, I noticed for some unknown reason that it was scattered and difficult to read. I hope this is better.

Dr. Vandiver

Thanking for emailing me about the CRIS. You are welcome to use the CRIS. I have attached the CRIS manual, which contains the CRIS at the back, breakdown of items by subscale, scoring, and the psychometric features of the CRIS scores.

Just as points of clarification, there are separate citations for the scale and the manual, which are specified on page 17 of the manual. In addition, the proper citation for the expanded nigrescence model, which is the basis for the CRIS is Cross, W. E., Jr., & Vandiver, B. J. (2001). Nigrescence theory and measurement: Introducing the Cross Racial Identity Scale (CRIS). In J. G. Ponterotto, J. M. Casas, L. M. Suzuki, & C. M. Alexander (Eds.), *Handbook of multicultural counseling* (2nd ed., pp. 371-393). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Clarifications for distinction between the original, revised, and expanded nigrescence models can be found in Worrell et al. (2001), which I have also attached and Vandiver et al. (2002), which provides the basis for the current version of the CRIS.

It is a new scale developed initially from the revised nigrescence theory (Cross, 1991) and then validity of the scores established from the expanded nigrescence theory.

If you have any questions about the theory or the scale, feel free to ask. If possible, we would love to have permission to use the CRIS data you collect once you have completed your project, as we have been working on building a large enough data base to continue validity work. We have been fortunate that other researchers have given us access to only the CRIS data and the demographics. We hope you will be willing to do the same.

Best wishes in conducting your research. If you have questions about using the CRIS and the appropriate analysis to use, feel free to email me back. Let me know that you have received the email and the attachments.

file:///E:/Documents/School Files/Graduate School/PhD/Dissertatio...

From: Shawn O Utsey/FS/VCU [soutsey@vcu.edu]
Sent: Thursday, May 29, 2008 4:48 PM
To: Leatrice R. Brooks
Subject: Re: Permission to use IRRS-B

Attachments: irrshort2.doc; SCORING FOR IRRS BRIEF.doc

Leatrice,

Greetings. You are granted permission to use the IRRS-B in your study. Please find attached the measure and scoring instructions. Please let me know if you have questions. Thanks.

Shawn

Shawn O. Utsey, Ph.D.,
 Chair, Department of African American Studies,
 Editor, Journal of Black Psychology,
 Associate Professor, Department of Psychology,
 (804) 828-1384
 Fax: (804) 828-1665

"Leatrice R. Brooks" <leatrice.brooks@wmich.edu>
 Sent by: leatrice.brooks@wmich.edu

05/29/2008 11:32 AM

To: soutsey@vcu.edu
 cc
 Subject: Permission to use IRRS-B



Hi Dr. Utsey,

I am a doctoral student at Western Michigan University in the process of developing my dissertation research and I am interested in using the IRRS-B. I would be using the measure along with others in a study comparing the adjustment of first generation and non-first generation African American students at predominately White institutions. I am inquiring about gaining permission to use the IRRS-B in a secured online format. Any information you can provide me to assist in this process would be greatly appreciated.

Thanks,
 Leatrice

.....
 Leatrice R. Brooks, M.S.
 Counseling Psychology Doctoral Student
 Western Michigan University
leatrice.brooks@wmich.edu

Appendix C

Demographic Questionnaire

Demographic Questionnaire

Please choose the response from each item that best describes you.

1. Age
 - a. 16
 - b. 17
 - c. 18
 - d. 19
 - e. 20
 - f. 21
 - g. 22
 - h. 23
2. Gender
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
3. Race
 - a. African-American/Black
 - b. American Indian or Alaskan Native
 - c. Asian American or Pacific Islander
 - d. European American/White (not Hispanic)
 - e. Hispanic/Latino
 - f. Multiracial (I identify with African-American/Black)
 - g. Other
4. The 4-year university I attend is a
 - a. Predominately White Institution (non-HBCU)
 - b. Historically Black College and University (HBCU)
 - c. I don't know / Neither
5. Year in college
 - a. 1st
 - b. 2nd
 - c. 3rd
 - d. 4th
 - e. 5th
 - f. 6th
6. Current school enrollment
 - a. Part-time
 - b. Full-time
7. I am a _____ college student
 - a. 1st generation (i.e., 1st person to go to college in my immediate family)
 - b. non 1st generation (i.e., not the 1st person to go to college in my immediate family)

Appendix D

The Barratt Simplified Measure of Social Status (BSMSS)

The Barratt Simplified Measure of Social Status (BSMSS)

Circle the appropriate number for your Mother's, your Father's, your Spouse / Partner's, and your level of school completed and occupation. If you grew up in a single parent home, circle only the score from your one parent. If you are neither married nor partnered circle only your score. If you are a full time student circle only the scores for your parents.

<u>Level of School Completed</u>	<u>Mother</u>	<u>Father</u>	<u>Spouse</u>	<u>You</u>
Less than 7th grade	3	3	3	3
Junior high / Middle school (9th grade)	6	6	6	6
Partial high school (10th or 11th grade)	9	9	9	9
High school graduate	12	12	12	12
Partial college (at least one year)	15	15	15	15
College education	18	18	18	18
Graduate degree	21	21	21	21

Circle the appropriate number for your *Mother's*, your *Father's*, your *Spouse / Partner's*, and your occupation. If you grew up in a single parent home, use only the score from your parent. If you are not married or partnered circle only your score. If you are still a full-time student only circle the scores for your parents. If you are retired use your most recent occupation.

<u>Occupation</u>	<u>Mother</u>	<u>Father</u>	<u>Spouse</u>	<u>You</u>
Day laborer, janitor, house cleaner, farm worker, food counter sales, food preparation worker, busboy.	5	5	5	5
Garbage collector, short-order cook, cab driver, shoe sales, assembly line workers, masons, baggage porter.	10	10	10	10
Painter, skilled construction trade, sales clerk, truck driver, cook, sales counter or general office clerk.	15	15	15	15
Automobile mechanic, typist, locksmith, farmer, carpenter, receptionist, construction laborer, hairdresser.	20	20	20	20
Machinist, musician, bookkeeper, secretary, insurance sales, cabinet maker, personnel specialist, welder.	25	25	25	25
Supervisor, librarian, aircraft mechanic, artist and artisan, electrician, administrator, military enlisted personnel, buyer.	30	30	30	30
Nurse, skilled technician, medical technician, counselor, manager, police and fire personnel, financial manager, physical, occupational, speech therapist.	35	35	35	35
Mechanical, nuclear, and electrical engineer, educational administrator, veterinarian, military officer, elementary, high school and special education teacher.	40	40	40	40
Physician, attorney, professor, chemical and aerospace engineer, judge, CEO, senior manager, public official, psychologist, pharmacist, accountant.	45	45	45	45

Appendix E

Coping with Problems Experienced Inventory (COPE)

Coping with Problems Experienced Inventory (COPE)

We are interested in how people respond when they confront difficult or stressful events in their lives. There are lots of ways to try to deal with stress. This questionnaire asks you to indicate what you generally do and feel when you experience stressful events. Obviously, different events bring out somewhat different responses, but think about what you usually do when you are under a lot of stress.

Then respond to each of the following items by choosing one number for each, using the response choices listed just below. Please try to respond to each item separately in your mind from each other item. Choose your answers thoughtfully, and make your answers as true FOR YOU as you can. Please answer every item. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers, so choose the most accurate answer for YOU--not what you think "most people" would say or do. Indicate what YOU usually do when YOU experience a stressful event.

- 1 = I usually don't do this at all
- 2 = I usually do this a little bit
- 3 = I usually do this a medium amount
- 4 = I usually do this a lot

1. I try to grow as a person as a result of the experience.
2. I turn to work or other substitute activities to take my mind off things.
3. I get upset and let my emotions out.
4. I try to get advice from someone about what to do.
5. I concentrate my efforts on doing something about it.
6. I say to myself "this isn't real."
7. I put my trust in God.
8. I laugh about the situation.
9. I admit to myself that I can't deal with it, and quit trying.
10. I restrain myself from doing anything too quickly.

11. I discuss my feelings with someone.
12. I use alcohol or drugs to make myself feel better.
13. I get used to the idea that it happened.
14. I talk to someone to find out more about the situation.
15. I keep myself from getting distracted by other thoughts or activities.
16. I daydream about things other than this.
17. I get upset, and am really aware of it.
18. I seek God's help.
19. I make a plan of action.
20. I make jokes about it.

21. I accept that this has happened and that it can't be changed.
22. I hold off doing anything about it until the situation permits.
23. I try to get emotional support from friends or relatives.
24. I just give up trying to reach my goal.
25. I take additional action to try to get rid of the problem.
26. I try to lose myself for a while by drinking alcohol or taking drugs.

27. I refuse to believe that it has happened.
28. I let my feelings out.
29. I try to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive.
30. I talk to someone who could do something concrete about the problem.
31. I sleep more than usual.
32. I try to come up with a strategy about what to do.
33. I focus on dealing with this problem, and if necessary let other things slide a little.
34. I get sympathy and understanding from someone.
35. I drink alcohol or take drugs, in order to think about it less.
36. I kid around about it.
37. I give up the attempt to get what I want.
38. I look for something good in what is happening.
39. I think about how I might best handle the problem.
40. I pretend that it hasn't really happened.
41. I make sure not to make matters worse by acting too soon.
42. I try hard to prevent other things from interfering with my efforts at dealing with this.
43. I go to movies or watch TV, to think about it less.
44. I accept the reality of the fact that it happened.
45. I ask people who have had similar experiences what they did.
46. I feel a lot of emotional distress and I find myself expressing those feelings a lot.
47. I take direct action to get around the problem.
48. I try to find comfort in my religion.
49. I force myself to wait for the right time to do something.
50. I make fun of the situation.
51. I reduce the amount of effort I'm putting into solving the problem.
52. I talk to someone about how I feel.
53. I use alcohol or drugs to help me get through it.
54. I learn to live with it.
55. I put aside other activities in order to concentrate on this.
56. I think hard about what steps to take.
57. I act as though it hasn't even happened.
58. I do what has to be done, one step at a time.
59. I learn something from the experience.
60. I pray more than usual.

Appendix F
Cross Racial Identity Scale (CRIS)

Cross Racial Identity Scale (CRIS)

Instructions: Read each item and indicate to what degree it reflects your own thoughts and feelings, using the 7-point scale below. There are no right or wrong answers. Base your responses on your opinion at the present time. **To ensure that your answers can be used, please respond to the statements as written**, and choose the appropriate corresponding number *below* each item.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree	disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree nor disagree	somewhat agree	agree	strongly agree

1. As an African-American, life in America is good for me.
2. I think of myself primarily as an American, and seldom as a member of a racial group.
3. Too many Blacks "glamorize" the drug trade and fail to see opportunities that don't involve crime.
4. I go through periods when I am down on myself because I am Black.
5. As a multiculturalist, I am connected to many groups (Hispanics, Asian-Americans, Whites, Jews, gays & lesbians, etc.).
6. I have a strong feeling of hatred and disdain for all White people.
7. I see and think about things from an Afrocentric perspective.
8. When I walk into a room, I always take note of the racial make-up of the people around me.
9. I am not so much a member of a racial group, as I am an American.
10. I sometimes struggle with negative feelings about being Black.
11. My relationship with God plays an important role in my life.
12. Blacks place more emphasis on having a good time than on hard work.
13. I believe that only those Black people who accept an Afrocentric perspective can truly solve the race problem in America.
14. I hate the White community and all that it represents.
15. When I have a chance to make a new friend, issues of race and ethnicity seldom play a role in who that person might be.
16. I believe it is important to have both a Black identity and a multicultural perspective, which is inclusive of everyone (e.g., Asians, Latinos, gays & lesbians, Jews, Whites, etc.).
17. When I look in the mirror at my Black image, sometimes I do not feel good about what I see.
18. If I had to put a label on my identity, it would be "American," and not African-American.
19. When I read the newspaper or a magazine, I always look for articles and stories that deal with race and ethnic issues.
20. Many African-Americans are too lazy to see opportunities that are right in front of them.
21. As far as I am concerned, affirmative action will be needed for a long time.
22. Black people cannot truly be free until our daily lives are guided by Afrocentric values and principles.
23. White people should be destroyed.
24. I embrace my own Black identity, but I also respect and celebrate the cultural identities of other groups (e.g., Native Americans, Whites, Latinos, Jews, Asian Americans, gays & lesbians, etc.).
25. Privately, I sometimes have negative feelings about being Black.
26. If I had to put myself into categories, first I would say I am an American, and second I am a member of a racial group.
27. My feelings and thoughts about God are very important to me.
28. African-Americans are too quick to turn to crime to solve their problems.
29. When I have a chance to decorate a room, I tend to select pictures, posters, or works of art that express strong racial-cultural themes.
30. I hate White people.
31. I respect the ideas that other Black people hold, but I believe that the best way to solve our problems is to think Afrocentrically.
32. When I vote in an election, the first thing I think about is the candidate's record on racial and cultural issues.

33. I believe it is important to have both a Black identity and a multicultural perspective, because this connects me to other groups (Hispanics, Asian-Americans, Whites, Jews, gays & lesbians, etc.).
34. I have developed an identity that stresses my experiences as an American more than my experiences as a member of a racial group.
35. During a typical week in my life, I think about racial and cultural issues many, many times.
36. Blacks place too much importance on racial protest and not enough on hard work and education.
37. Black people will never be free until we embrace an Afrocentric perspective.
38. My negative feelings toward White people are very intense.
39. I sometimes have negative feelings about being Black.
40. As a multiculturalist, it is important for me to be connected with individuals from all cultural backgrounds (Latinos, gays & lesbians, Jews, Native Americans, Asian-Americans, etc.).

Appendix G

Index of Race-Related Stress – Brief (IRRS-B)

Index of Race-Related Stress – Brief (IRRS-B)

This survey questionnaire is intended to sample some of the experiences that black people have in this country because of their “blackness.” There are many experiences that a Black person can have in this country because of his/her race. Some events happen just once, some more often, while others may happen frequently. Below you will find listed some of these experiences; for which you are to indicate those that have happened to you or someone very close to you (i.e. a family member or loved one). It is important to note that a person can be affected by those events that happen to people close to them; this is why you are asked to consider such events as applying to your experiences when you complete this questionnaire. **Please choose the number on the scale (0 to 4) that indicates the reaction you had to the event at the time it happened. Do not leave any items blank.** If an event has happened more than once refer to the first time it happened. **If an event did not happen circle 0 and go on to the next item.**

0 = This never happened to me.

1 = This event happened, but did not bother me.

2 = This event happened & I was slightly upset.

3 = This event happened & I was upset.

4 = This event happened & I was extremely upset.

1. You notice that crimes committed by White people tend to be romanticized, whereas the same crime committed by a Black person is portrayed as savagery, and the Black person who committed it, as an animal.
2. Sales people/clerks did not say thank you or show other forms of courtesy and respect (i.e. put your things in a bag) when you shopped at some White/non-Black owned businesses.
3. You notice that when Black people are killed by the police the media informs the public of the Victim’s criminal record or negative information in their background, suggesting they got what they deserved.
4. You have been threatened with physical violence by an individual or group of White/non-Blacks.
5. You have observed that White kids who commit violent crimes are portrayed as “boys being boys”, while Black kids who commit similar crimes are wild animals.
6. You seldom hear or read anything positive about Black people on radio, T.V., newspapers or in history books.
7. While shopping at a store the sales clerk assumes that you couldn’t afford certain items (i.e. you were directed toward the items on sale).
8. You were the victim of a crime and the police treated you as if you should just accept it as part of being Black.
9. You were treated with less respect and courtesy than Whites and other non-Blacks while in a store, restaurant, or other business establishment.
10. You were passed over for an important project although you were more qualified and competent than the White/non-Black person given the task.
11. Whites/non-Blacks have stared at you as if you didn’t belong in the same place with them; whether it was a restaurant, theater, or other place of business.
12. You have observed the police treat White/non-Blacks with more respect and dignity than they do Blacks.
13. You have been subjected to racist jokes by Whites/non-Blacks in positions of authority and you did not protest for fear they might have held it against you.
14. While shopping at a store, or when attempting to make a purchase you were ignored as if you were not a serious customer or didn’t have any money.
15. You have observed situations where other Blacks were treated harshly or unfairly by Whites/non-Blacks due to their race.
16. You have heard reports of White people/non-Blacks who have committed crimes, and in an effort to cover up their deeds falsely reported that a Black man was responsible for the crime.
17. You have noticed that the media plays up those stories that cast Blacks in negative ways (child

- abusers, rapists, muggers, etc. [or as savages] Wild Man of 96th St., Wolf Pack, etc.), usually accompanied by a large picture of a Black person looking angry or disturbed.
18. You have heard racist remarks or comments about Black people spoken with impunity by White public officials or other influential White people.
 19. You have been given more work, or the most undesirable jobs at your place of employment while the White/non-Black of equal or less seniority and credentials is given less work, or more desirable tasks.
 20. You have heard or seen other Black people express the desire to be White or to have White physical characteristics because they disliked being Black or thought it was ugly.
 21. White people or other non-Blacks have treated you as if you were unintelligent and needed things explained to you slowly or numerous times.
 22. You were refused an apartment or other housing; you suspect it was because you are Black.

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