4-2020

Community Involvement as a Protective Factor in Black College Students at Predominantly White Institutions

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COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT AS A PROTECTIVE FACTOR IN BLACK COLLEGE STUDENTS AT PREDOMINANTLY WHITE INSTITUTIONS

by

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A dissertation submitted to the Graduate College
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
Counselor Education and Counseling Psychology
Western Michigan University
April 2020

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The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of community involvement on psychological functioning, academic success, and critical consciousness in Black undergraduate students enrolled at predominantly White institutions (PWIs). Research has found that Black students attending PWIs often report feelings of isolation, non-acceptance, and rejection (Lett & Wright, 2003). Attrition rates are higher for Black students compared to their White counterparts (Lee & Barnes, 2015), and general and race-related perceived stressors have been associated with psychological distress (Neville, Heppner, Ji, & Thye, 2004). An online survey was used to assess general and race-related stress, psychological functioning, critical consciousness, and level of community involvement in Black undergraduate students currently enrolled at PWIs. Participants consisted of 125 Black undergraduate students enrolled at predominantly White institutions in the Midwest and South-Central regions of the United States. A series of hierarchical multiple regression analyses were run in order to test four hypotheses predicting the relationship between community involvement, perceived racism, psychological functioning and critical consciousness. The first hypothesis examined the relationship between community involvement and psychological functioning using the CCAPS-62 subscale indexes. The second hypothesis tested whether community involvement influenced academic success, which was measured using participants' self-reported cumulative grade point average. The third hypothesis looked at the influence of community involvement on critical consciousness. Lastly, the fourth

hypothesis examined community involvement as a moderating variable between perceived racism and psychological functioning. Findings revealed community involvement to be a significant predictor for hostility, substance use, and critical consciousness. Additionally, results showed that community involvement moderated the relationship between perceived racism and various components of psychological functioning. Limitations of the study are discussed along with implications for future research and practice.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

As I begin to write this, my eyes fill with tears. I firmly believe that *people need people*, and it is with absolute certainty that I can say I would not have made it to where I am had it not been for the community of individuals who have aided, encouraged, and supported me along the way. I want to begin by thanking God. There were many times along this journey when I didn't know how I would reach the end. I know that it is through Him that my steps were ordered, and when I couldn't walk, he carried me. I would like to recognize and pay homage to those who came before me. I know that I stand on the shoulders of giants. Thank you for creating the path that allowed me, a little Black girl from Detroit, access to the opportunity to earn this degree.

I would like to express my sincerest appreciation for my doctoral advisor and dissertation chair, Dr. Joseph R. Morris and my dissertation committee members, Dr. Glinda J. Rawls and Dr. Douglas V. Davidson. Thank you for the time, energy, and patience you dedicated to this project and to getting me to this point in my doctoral journey. I will carry the lessons I learned from you throughout my life and career. To the amazing group of CECP faculty and mentors that have guided me and supported me, I want to say thank you. To Dr. Mary Z. Anderson, words cannot express my appreciation for your role in my life these last few years. Thank you for always being a listening ear and strong shoulder. To Dr. Beverly J. Vandiver, thank you for seeing something in me even when I struggled to see it in myself. Your belief in my potential gave me the courage to find confidence in myself.

To my parents, Berris and Victolyn Flemmings, thank you for instilling in me the value of hard work and perseverance. Thank you for the sacrifices you made that allowed me to be who I am and where I am today; I am forever grateful. To my partner and best friend, Oscar

Bowden, I couldn't have done this without you. You've walked next to me throughout this journey being my emotional support, my sounding board, and my biggest advocate and supporter. Thank you for always being there to remind me who I am and what I'm capable of.

To my line sisters and Sorors of Delta Sigma Theta Sorority, Inc., thank you for understanding my absence. I've felt your unwavering support and belief in me every step of the way. To my friends and family, thank you for cheering me on and celebrating each milestone as they came. To those who I may not have personally listed in these acknowledgements but who have played any role regardless of the size in my doctoral journey, I want you to know how grateful I am to have had your support. Thank you for believing in me and encouraging me. It is because of my community that I am able to stand here today as Dr. Shelee-Ann Marie Flemmings.

Shelee-Ann M. Flemmings

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Over 190 years ago, Alexander Lucius Twilight was the first Black individual to receive a bachelor's degree from a United States (U.S.) institution of higher education (Haper, Patton, Wooden, 2009; Slater, 1994; Thomas, Wolters, Horn, & Kennedy, 2014). Since Mr. Twilight's graduation, there has been a significant increase in the number of Black students attending colleges and universities in the United States (Allen & Jewell, 2002; Charles, Roscigno, & Torres, 2007; Guiffrida, 2006; Payne & Suddler, 2014). Despite improvements, there is still a significant discrepancy between the number of Black undergraduate students enrolled and graduating from U.S. institutions of higher education as compared to White undergraduate students (Charles et al., 2007; DOE, 2018; Jones, Castellanos, & Cole, 2002). Research indicates that the majority of Black college students attend predominantly White institutions (PWIs), despite arduous challenges faced in these environments (Bourke, 2010; Clark, 2004; Cokley, 1999; Fleming, 1984; Greer & Chwalisz, 2007; Grekin, 2012; Hinderlie & Kenny, 2002; McClain & Perry, 2017; Strayhorn 2011). Historically, most PWIs have a longer standing history of exclusion of students of color, as opposed to one of inclusion (Bourke, 2010; Feagin, Vera, & Imani, 1996; Milem, Chang, & Antonio, 2005; Payne & Suddler, 2014; Slater, 1994). McClain and Perry (2017) noted that many university institutions exhibit covert microaggressions that cause attrition among students of color at PWIs. Thereby, impacting Black students' desire to enroll and remain at these institutions.

According to the U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics [DOE] (2018), college enrollment rates have risen dramatically throughout the decades. Between 2000 and 2010, Black student enrollment increased by 73% (from 1.5 million to 2.7

million students) (DOE, 2018). A 2004 U.S. Department of Education report revealed that of the total Black undergraduate population, 87.1% of Black college students enrolled at a PWI, while 12.9% enrolled at a historically Black college or university (HBCU). Although HBCUs enrolled a smaller percentage of the toal Black undergraduate population, the 2004 report revealed that PWIs graduated Black undergraduates at a rate of 78.5% while HBCUs contributed to 21.5% of the total Black undergraduate population graduating from any type of college or university (Provasnik, Shafer, & Snyder, 2004). Recent trends have shown a reduction in enrollment rates and Black undergraduates have since decreased in enrollment, dropping 17% between 2010 and 2016 (DOE, 2018). The National Student Clearinghouse Research Center (2017) found that only 38% of Black students who enrolled in any type of college or university completed a degree or certificate within six years, compared to 63% and 62% of their Asian and White counterparts. Statistically, a disproportionate number of Black undergraduate students will not complete their degree. One significant factor that has been found to impact retention rates for students of color is campus racial climate (Cabrera, Nora, Terenzini, Pascarella, & Hagedorn, 1999; Greer & Chwalisz, 2007; Jones et al., 2002; Locks, Hurtado, Bowman, & Oseguera, 2008; Love, Trammell, & Cartner, 2010; McClain & Perry, 2017; Museus, Nichols, & Lambert, 2008; Reid & Radhakrishnan, 2003; Thomas et al., 2014).

Problem Statement

Throughout U.S. history, the Black community has been a target for receiving unjust treatment. Even in today's society, Black Americans are consistently victimized by the effects of systemic and institutionalized racism. Despite this injustice, the literature has consistently reported evidence of the resiliency found within this population (Brown, 2008; Brown & Tylka, 2011; DeRosier, Frank, Schwartz, & Leary, 2013; Gaylord-Harden, Ragsdale, Mandara,

Richards, & Peterson, 2007; Williams & Bryan, 2013). It is because of this resiliency, that many members of the Black community are able to persevere in spite of adversity.

The Effects of Racism and Discrimination

Whether by a rise in occurrence, or the result of an increase in collective awareness, acts of racism, discrimination, and brutalities particularly towards Black individuals have come to the forefront of public policy issues and concerns (Garcia & Sharif, 2015; Hetey & Eberhardt, 2014; James, Green, Rodriguez, & Fong, 2008; Nelson, Dunn, & Paradies, 2011). Bronfenbrenner theorized that research and public policy needs should be interconnected, with public policy needs guiding research and research influencing public policy (1979). The rising rate of racism, discrimination, and brutalities towards Black individuals is becoming increasingly alarming (Barlow, 2005; Horowitz, Brown & Cox, 2019; Levin & Reitzel, 2018). Evidence indicates that exposure to discrimination serves as a high risk factor for various psychological and behavioral problems (Chou, Asnaani, & Hofmann, 2012; Fan, Fang Liu, Lin, & Yuan, 2012; Lee, 2005; Liao, Weng, & West, 2016). As a result, with each occurrence of perceived racism or discrimination, the psychological well-being of Black individuals is put further at risk. This has led researchers to take an increased interest in exploring the influence of racism and discrimination on the psychological growth and development of marginalized groups (Broman, Mavaddat, & Hsu, 2000; Carter, 2007; Feagin & Eckberg, 1980; Fischer & Shaw, 1999; Neville, Heppner, Ji, & Thye, 2004; Pieterse, Todd, Neville, & Carter, 2012).

The effects of racism and perceived discrimination have been found to have deleterious effects on members of marginalized groups (Broman et al., 2000; Carter, 2007; Chou et al., 2012; Clark, 20004; Grekin, 2012; Neville et al., 2004; Pieterse et al., 2012; Wallace, Nazroo, & Bécares, 2016). Researchers have found an increase in anxiety and depression, as well as higher

levels of psychological distress in Black individuals who report experiences of racism and/or discrimination (Brody et al., 2006; Grekin 2012; Pieterse et al., 2012; Seaton, Caldwell, Sellers, & Jackson, 2008; Soto, Dawson-Andoh, & BeLue, 2011). Carter (2007) illustrated that these experiences can be direct, as in personally experiencing the injustice; or indirect, such as hearing about injustices towards other members of the Black community. As a result of perceived racism, the likelihood of adverse effects to the psychological, cognitive, emotional, and physical development of Black individuals is significantly increased resulting in the categorization of Blacks as an at-risk population (Barnes, Lewis, Begeny, Yu, & Bennet, 2012; Brody et al., 2006; Broman et al., 2000; Clark, 2004; Fischer & Shaw, 1999; Mays, Cochran, & Barnes, 2007; Neville et al., 2004).

Bronfenbrenner (1979) emphasized that knowledge and analysis of social policy are critical to progress in developmental research. He posited that it is through continued examination of the current societal climate that researchers are informed regarding aspects of the environment that are most essential to the cognitive, emotional, and social development of an individual (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). This thinking has led researchers to become increasingly interested in identifying protective factors to promote resilience and counter risks to healthy development in Black individuals. Factors such as school connectedness, family/social support, and self-esteem, have been found to significantly lower levels of psychological distress, increase academic success, and decrease rates of interpersonal violence and aggression (Gaylord-Harden et al., 2007; Gutman, Sameroff, & Eccles, 2002; Irvin, 2012; Lemberger & Clemens, 2012; Prelow, Weaver, & Swenson, 2006; Taylor, 2010; Witherspoon, Schotland, Way, & Hughes, 2009). Black adolescents were found to exhibit less behavioral and emotional problems, and identified more positive coping skills when factors, such as a high sense of personal competence

were present (Farmer et al., 2005; Howard, 1996; Li, Nussbaum, & Richards, 2007; Prelow et al., 2006). Despite the knowledge that has been gained regarding protective factors for Black adolescents, far less research has explored protective factors after this stage in development. Ungar (2012) asserted that as individuals or their environments change, so do the factors associated with positive development. This point suggests a strong argument for further exploration of protective factors in Black individuals after navigating through their adolescent period.

The Transition to College

There are many new and unique challenges individuals must face during their emerging adult years. The transition to college calls for a significant adjustment that can often lead to challenges such as anxiety, depression, and substance abuse (Farabaugh et al., 2012; Kumaraswamy, 2013; Rodgers & Tennison, 2009; Small, Morgan, Abar, & Maggs, 2011). This transition can be especially difficult for Black students attending predominantly White institutions (PWIs). They are challenged with the task of dealing with issues relevant to most college students while simultaneously exploring their identity and navigating difficult experiences of racism and discrimination (Bourke, 2010; Cabrera et al., 1999; Greer & Chwalisz, 2007; Guiffrida & Douthit, 2010; Lett &Wright, 2003; Locks et al., 2008; Schwitzer, Griffin, Ancis, & Thomas, 1999). Studies have found that Black students at PWIs often report feelings of isolation, non-acceptance, and rejection (Allen, 1992; Ancis, Sedlacek, & Mohr, 2000; Bourke, 2010; Braddock, 1981; Guiffrida, 2003; Guiffrida & Douthit, 2010; Lee & Barnes, 2015; Lett & Wright, 2003). Attrition rates are higher for Black students compared to their white counterparts (Allen, 1992; Braddock, 1981; Lee & Barnes, 2015; Newton, Ghee, Langmeyer, 2013; Sailes, 1993; Schwitzer et al., 1999), and general and race-related stressors have been

associated with psychological distress (Ancis et al., 2000; Bynum, Burton, & Best, 2007; Mercer, Zeigler-Hill, Wallace, & Hayes, 2001; Neville et al., 2004). Researchers have found that supportive campus environments and relationships with faculty and peers in Black student organizations serve as protective factors for Black college students (Chen, Ingram, & Davis, 2014; Davis 1994; Guiffrida & Douthit, 2010; McClain, 2017; Sedlacek, 1999). In addition, availability of academic support systems has been found to have positive effects on Black college students at PWIs (Davis, 1991; Fries-Brit & Turner, 2002; Sedlacek, 1999).

The Role of Community

Historically, the role of community has been a pivotal foundation within Black culture (Berkel, 2001; Brody et al., 2001; Gooden & McMahon, 2016; McAdoo, 2002; McCray, Grant, & Beachum, 2010; Swain, 2008). However, little research has explored how and to what degree the community serves as a protective factor for Black individuals. Studies exploring resilience in Black students at PWIs have focused primarily on individual attributes, giving less attention to social and environmental influences (Bang, 2015; Utsey, Hook, Fischer, & Belvet, 2008). The present study was created to address that gap within the literature by examining the influence of students' involvement in the community on their overall well-being. As noted, Black college students are at an increased risk for experiencing adverse effects due to racism and discrimination. Mass media and the growing influence of social media have resulted in a heightened awareness of many Black students to the injustices targeted at them, as well as other members of the Black community throughout the country. Due to the increased awareness of racial disparities in the U.S., as well as direct and indirect experiences of racism and discrimination, Black college students are at an increased risk for negative psychological effects. For the purpose of this study, community involvement has been defined by participation in

activities such as church and religious organizations, sororities and fraternities, sports teams, volunteer work, etc. It is import to note that community involvement could be defined based on extensive engagement in community activities such as demonstrating against racist practices in school systems, advocating for the hiring of Black faculty and professors, and helping community members register to vote. However, analysis of community involvement at this level would require an approach outside of the scope of this study.

Purpose of the Study

This study will examine the relationship between the level of involvement in community activities on psychological functioning, academic success, and critical consciousness in Black college students. A related purpose of this study is to contribute to the existing literature regarding protective factors for Black undergraduate students enrolled in higher education institutions. This study will explore the influence of community involvement as a potential factor to mitigate the negative effects of race-related stress and aid in positive functioning and development of Black undergraduate students.

Research Questions

The current study will attempt to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the relationship between community involvement and psychological functioning among Black undergraduate college students enrolled at a PWI?
2. What is the relationship between community involvement and academic success (i.e. self-reported cumulative grade point average) among Black undergraduate college students enrolled at a PWI?

3. What is the relationship between community involvement and critical consciousness among Black undergraduate college students enrolled at a PWI?
4. Does community involvement serve as a moderator in the relationship between perceived racism and psychological functioning in Black undergraduate college students enrolled at PWIs?

Hypothesis

Based on the findings from existing literature, the current project will test the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Students actively involved in the community will report lower levels of psychological distress (i.e. depression, substance use, generalized anxiety, and hostility) than students less involved in the community.

Hypothesis 2: Students actively involved in the community will report higher levels of academic success (i.e. self-reported cumulative grade point average) than students less involved in the community.

Hypothesis 3: Students who report higher levels of community involvement will hold a higher level of critical consciousness than students less involved in the community.

Hypothesis 4: Community involvement is predicted to serve as a moderating influence between perceived racism and psychological functioning. Students who are involved in the community, and report a high level of perceived racism will have lower levels of psychological distress than students who report a high level of perceived racism

but are not actively engaged in the community.

Definition of Terms

This section provides definitions for specific terms used in this paper. Although defined throughout the paper, the terms are presented in this section to offer simplicity.

- **Academic Success** refers to students' reported cumulative undergraduate grade point average in college.
- **Black** is used to describe individuals who identify within the African diaspora.
- **Community** is the binding together of individuals towards a common cause or experience (Lloyd-Jones, 1989).
- **Community Activities** refers to voluntary activities participants engage in as part of a group or organization. Community activities may include, but is not limited to, church/religious organizations, sororities/fraternities, volunteer work, sports teams, social clubs, cultural organizations, etc.
- **Community Involvement** refers to participation in community activities.
- **Critical Consciousness** represents the analysis of societal inequities and the motivation and actions of individuals within marginalized groups to rectify those inequities.
- **Psychological Functioning** is used to describe the level at which an individual experiences mental or emotional distress. This paper specifically looks at the areas of depression, anxiety, substance use, and hostility.
- **Resilience** refers to an individual's capacity to persevere when faced with adversity, in spite of serious threats to adaptation or development.

Summary

This chapter serves as the introduction for this dissertation. It is comprised of historical background relevant to this research and subsequently provides a statement of the problem, description of the study, and specific questions to be answered through the study. The remainder of this dissertation is organized as follows. Chapter Two is comprised of a review of related literature pertinent to the study. Chapter Three details the methodological procedures used to conduct the study. Chapter Four presents the findings of the study and Chapter Five consists of a summary of the overall study, as well as a discussion of the findings, limitations, implications, and directions for future research. Sources used to complete the study are included in references and appendices.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This literature review will serve to examine how student involvement, psychological functioning, and academic success relate to Black college students. It will also examine the influence of critical consciousness on psychological resilience and coping in Black college students facing issues of injustice. The review of literature will begin with an introduction to the concept of resilience and an exploration of how this construct has been conceptualized in prior research. This will serve to highlight the rationale for the following in-depth examination of theories relevant to the development of college students (i.e., Erikson's Theory of Psychosocial Development (1963), Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems Theory (1979), and Astin's Student Involvement Theory (1984)). A brief review of Critical Race Theory followed by an examination of Black student development will subsequently be conducted. The review of literature will conclude by exploring factors associated with positive development and resiliency within Black individuals (i.e., community involvement and critical consciousness), as well as findings that support the integration of these factors to support the development, success, and psychological functioning of Black college students.

Resilience

There was an emergence of literature regarding the concept of resilience as a function of human development and cognitive growth during the mid to late 1970s. (Howard, Dryden, & Johnson, 1999; Kagan, 1975, 1976; Masten, Cutuli, Herbers, & Reed, 2002; Ungar, Ghazinour, & Richter, 2013). Masten (2001) conceptualized resilience as "a class of phenomena characterized by good outcomes in spite of serious threats to adaptation or development" (p.228). Resilience is thought to be the result of basic human adaptational systems at work that, if

protected, allow positive development in spite of adversity (Alvord & Grados, 2005; Flynn, Ghazel, Legault, Vandermeulen, & Petrick, 2004; Masten, 2001; Masten, Hubbard, Gest, Tellegen, Garmezy, & Ramirez, 1999). Resilience has been found to be correlated to many positive outcomes such as the capacity to resist maladaptation, recover from misfortune, and serve as a buffer for stress-related outcomes (Coleman, 2015; Masten et al., 1999; Sander, Munford, & Liebenberg, 2017; Sinclair & Oliver, 2003; Zolkoski & Bullock, 2012). Research has shown that resilient individuals are better able to withstand and recover after experiencing traumatic experiences, bereavement, violence, poverty, and family dissonance (Calhoun, Tedeschi, Cann, & Hanks, 2010; Ong, Bergeman, Bisconti & Wallace, 2006; Sattler & Gershoff, 2018; Windle, 2011; Zolinski & Bullock, 2012). Although resilience began as a concept that focused on identifying individual qualities, researchers soon shifted to emphasize identifying environmental factors that allowed individuals to thrive in the face of adversity (Garmezy, 1991; Rivera, 2014; Rutter, 1987; Ungar, 2012; Ungar, 2013).

Ungar (2012) called for an ecological perspective of resilience, proposing that resilience was a two-fold process involving the capacity to navigate the psychological, social, cultural, and physical resources needed to maintain well-being. The ecological perspective of resilience argues that resilience involves the capacity to negotiate, individually and collectively, for resources in a culturally meaningful way in the context of exposure to severe adversity. The belief is that individual gains are the result of congruence between individuals' needs and environments that facilitate their growth. From this perspective, resilience is seen as a proactive process and less of a reactive one. This perspective of resilience has been adopted by many researchers and utilized to further explore the concept of resilience (Anderson, Donlan, McDermott, & Zaff, 2015; Cameron et al., 2013; Chandler, Roberts, & Chiodo, 2015; Clauss-

Ehlers, 2008; Masten, 2014; Ungar & Liebenberg, 2013; Wessells, 2015). Findings have shown ecological aspects (i.e. cultural background and experiences) to influence the development of resilience (Cameron et al., 2013; Clauss-Elhers, 2008; Masten, 2014; Motti-Stefanidi, 2018). Additionally, Ungar and Liebenberg (2013) found contextual factors associated with resilience (i.e. cultural adherence and involvement in one's community) to have a greater effect on school engagement than individual or relational factors among Canadian youth.

Resilience in African Americans. Resilience has been found to be a prominent element in the Black community and serves as a protective factor when members of this population have been faced with marginalization and oppression as a result of their racial identity (Brown, 2008; Brown & Tylka, 2011; Jones, Hopson, & Gomes, 2012; Utsey, Bolden, & Lanier, 2007). Prior research has explored resiliency in Black adolescents, linking it to outcomes such as academic achievement, emotional resilience, and lower levels of distress (Gaylord-Harden et al., 2007; Irvin, 2012; McGee & Pearman, 2015; Taylor, 2010; Trask-Tate, Cunningham, & Lang-Degrange, 2010).

Much of the literature concerning resilience has focused on adolescents and child development (Farmer et al., 2005; Irvin, 2012; Luthar, Cicchetti, & Becker, 2000; Sacker & Shoon, 2007; Taylor, 2010). When this concept first emerged it was the result of early pioneers arguing that children who were able to successfully develop despite risk or adversity had the potential to inform theories regarding psychopathology and guide intervention and policy (Howard et al., 1999; Luthar et al., 2000; Masten, 2001). The field has since widened its view to consider resiliency in other populations. Despite advancement in the conceptualization of resilience, much is still unclear regarding resilience after the adolescent period. Specifically, a shortage of literature exists in exploring resilience in emerging and young adults. Researchers

studying resilience have indicated a need to continue to explore resilience within college-aged individuals (Brown, 2008; Brown & Tylka, 2011; DeRosier, Frank, Schwartz, & Leary, 2013; Hartley, 2011; Jayalakshmi & Magdalin, 2015; Rogers, 2013). Although resilience has been shown to impact an individual's development, the following theories highlight that variances in development impact an individual's ability to acquire and maintain characteristics necessary to foster resilience.

Theory of Psychosocial Development

The theory of psychosocial development was created in the early 1960s to better understand human development. Erikson (1963, 1968, 1980) proposed that human development consists of eight distinct stages. These stages as described by Erikson are as follows: (a) trust versus mistrust; (b) autonomy versus shame and doubt; (c) initiative versus guilt; (d) industry versus inferiority; (e) identity versus role confusion; (f) intimacy versus isolation; (g) generativity versus stagnation; and (h) ego integrity versus despair (Branje & Koper, 2018; Newman & Newman, 2018; Rosenthal, Gurney, & Moore, 1981; Whitbourne, Sneed, & Sayer, 2009). Each stage is defined by a crisis, which refers to a critical period associated with uncertainty and threat which is thought to be a generator of development (Branje & Koper, 2018; Chung, 2018; Dunkel & Harbke, 2017; Sneed, Whitbourne, & Culang, 2006; Svetina, 2014). The assumption guiding this theory is that each stage is comprised of an internal conflict relevant to a developmental period. It is then the task of the individual to resolve the crisis and move into the following developmental stage (Branje & Koper, 2017; Dunkel & Harbke, 2017; Svetina, 2014; Whitbourne et al., 2009). The outcome of each crisis either results in attainment of identity or failure to achieve a clear identity relative to the specific developmental stage (Dunkel, & Harbke, 2017; Erikson, 1963; Newman & Newman, 2018; Whitbourne et al., 2009).

The theory of psychosocial development posits that the eight stages of development occur across an individual's lifespan, with each stage typically occurring at a specific period in an individual's life based on changes in biological, psychological, and social processes (Dunkel & Harbke, 2017; Erikson, 1963; Sneed et al., 2006; Zuschlag & Whitbourne, 1994). However, room was left to account for individual differences. Erikson (1963) asserted that psychosocial forces may cause individuals to encounter specific crises at any point in life and noted that "earlier stages" could be revisited in later years. Logan (1986) expanded this notion by arguing that the stages of the psychosocial theory repeats twice, once from Stage 1 to Stage 5, and again from Stage 5 to Stage 8. Subsequent studies have asserted this point, finding psychosocial issues to have been revised and reworked throughout an individual's life (Branje & Koper, 2017; Dunkel & Harbke, 2017; Marcia, 2002; Sneed et al., 2006; Whitbourne et al., 2009).

Psychosocial development in college students. The stage emphasizing identity versus role confusion was thought to be critical for individuals in late adolescence and early adulthood (Branje & Koper, 2017; Erikson, 1963; Marcia, 2002; Newman & Newman, 2018; Sneed et al., 2006). Waterman (1999) noted that during this period, individuals struggle to form a sense of wholeness, bridging the gap between childhood and anticipated adulthood. Individuals are tasked with finding continuity between self-conception and the self as perceived by others; this often emerges in late adolescence and persists through early adulthood (Branke & Koper, 2017; Dunkel & Harbke, 2017; Newman & Newman, 2018; Waterman, 1999). Therefore, the task of identity resolution often occurs during an individual's undergraduate career.

Many studies have examined how the theory of psychosocial development relates to the development of college students (Conte, Zukovich, Kayson, Jenkins, & West, 1983; Lewis, 2006; Prager, 1986; Sneed et al., 2006; Weber & Robinson, 2011; Weisskirch, 2018; Zuschlag &

Whitbourne, 1994). The period in which an individual is in college can be described as a period of rapid changes with exposure to new ideas, interpersonal relationships, and the capacity for growth towards psychosocial development. Zuschlag and Whitbourne (1994) asserted that resolution of psychosocial conflicts that emerge during college years vary significantly based on environmental and psychosocial changes and sociocultural conditions. Prior literature indicates that conflict related to identity and intimacy hold the most potential for developmental change during the college years (Waterman, 1982; Whitbourne & Tesch, 1985; Zuschlag & Whitbourne, 1994). The sensitivity to developmental and sociocultural factors create the potential for increased challenges individuals must navigate during their college years.

Resilience within the context of psychosocial development. Svetina (2014) conducted a study to examine the concept of resilience within the context of Erikson's theory of psychosocial development. Resilience, as defined by Masten (2001), describes a complex phenomenon referring to a variety of psychological processes which allow individuals to cope with stress, resist maladaptation, and maintain equilibrium despite threatening circumstances. There was little recognition of the relationship between psychosocial development and resilience within early literature. Svetina (2014) proposed that the lack of empirical studies examining both perspectives may be due to differences in how each concept defined *crises*. Whereas the theory of psychosocial development view crises as developmental, theories of resilience conceptualize crises as adaptational (Alvord & Grados, 2005; Branje & Koper, 2018; Erikson, 1963; Flynn et al., 2004; Sneed et al., 2006; Svetina, 2014).

Svetina (2014) proposed that the resolution of developmental tasks and resilience are interrelated concepts. The correlation between psychosocial developmental outcomes and resilience was analyzed from a sample of 310 college students. The results of this study

indicated that successful outcomes of core developmental crises predicted resilience. The findings of this study suggest that individuals who are better able to navigate the developmental crises relevant during college years are more likely to show resilience when faced with adversity, compared to their counterparts who are not able to successfully resolve the internal conflict of the developmental period.

Ecological Systems Theory

As previously noted, environmental and psychosocial changes as well as changes to sociocultural conditions can greatly affect development. The Ecological Systems Theory emphasizes the influence of environment on development. Since Bronfenbrenner (1979) first proposed the Ecological Systems Theory (1979), subsequent research has continued to highlight the bidirectional relationship between individuals and their environments (Chung & Pardeck, 1997; Pinderhughes, 1983; Seidman & French, 2004; Soto, Dawson-Andoh, & Witherspoon, 2016). Research indicates that environments are both influenced by and exert an influence on the individuals that inhabit them (Chung & Pardeck, 1997; Darling, 2007; Neal & Neal, 2013; Soto et al., 2016). Soto et al. (2016) emphasized the need for a shift in focus from individual personality and behavioral components of development to ecological perspectives that influence development. Ecological perspectives reflect on the transaction between the individual and the environment by attending to the relationship between the individual, their family, the community, and other ecologies that form their ecosystem (Soto et al., 2016). As a result symptomology is viewed as a malfunction of the ecosystem rather than in terms of individual pathology (Chung & Pardeck, 1997; Germain, 1978; Pinderhughes, 1983; Soto et al., 2016).

Various aspects of the environment can affect an individual's development. This includes the different activities, roles, relationships, and systems an individual is a part of

(Bronfenbrenner, 1986; Chung & Pardeck, 1997; Seidman & French, 2004). The Ecological Systems Theory notes that human experience and growth exists within nested environments which consist of person, process, context, and time (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Bronfenbrenner, 1986; Mendoza, Suarez, & Bustamante, 2016; Neal & Neal, 2013). These components in an individual's environment are constantly changing hence, within the ecological approach, these shifts are known as ecological transitions (Barbarin, 1983; Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Soto et al., 2016; Tudge, Mokrova, Hatfield, & Karnik, 2009). The transition to college can be categorized as one of these shifts due to the shift in roles and settings that college students experience.

The influence of environmental "fit". When incongruity exists between individuals and their environmental contexts, it presents greater developmental challenges. Bronfenbrenner (1979) theorized that when the individual and their environment are incompatible, the level of person-environment fit can often lead to negative psychological and emotional consequences. Germain (1978) emphasized the importance of "goodness-of fit" as necessary between an individual and their environment. He asserted that when there is incongruence and "misfit" it disrupts the ability for an individual to get their physical, psychological, or social needs met, and hinders their environment's capacity to meet those needs. The stress and disconnection caused by this misfit can lead individuals belonging to marginalized or oppressed groups into a cycle of powerlessness (Chung & Pardeck, 1997; Germain, 1978; Pinderhughes, 1983). This is particularly relevant for individuals belonging to marginalized groups whose racial heritage and campus environment are seemingly incongruent. Pinderhughes (1983) noted that this cycle of powerlessness is created in marginalized communities where the development of required skills, self-esteem, and strengthening of the family is hindered. Thus, the larger societal system fails to provide the needed resources necessary for development.

Soto et al. (2016) designed a study to examine the ecological transition to college as well as the change between colleges. They sampled Black freshman and junior transfer students at a predominantly White institution in order to examine how racial experiences and racial diversity in the previous and current environments influence mental health. In addition to the challenges experienced as a result of the transition to college, Black students are also faced with the challenge of adjusting to a new racial environment (Carter, Locks, Winkle-Wagner, & Pineda, 2006 as cited in Soto et al., 2016; Guiffrida & Douthit, 2010; Lett & Wright, 2003; Locks et al., 2008). This transition may include experiencing college campuses as racially hostile or not a good fit. Soto et al. (2016) found racial experiences to be an environmental and contextual predictor of psychological functioning for Black students transitioning into the new college setting. Limitations of this study prevent causal inferences regarding the influence of racial experiences and racial diversity in environments on psychological functioning. One limitation of this study pertains to the lack of assessment regarding the psychological functioning of participants prior to entering the new higher education institution environment. As a result, researchers cannot rule out the impact of prior psychological concerns or conditions on participants' perception of their racial experiences, environments, or current psychological functioning. Another limitation of the Soto et al. (2016) study is that variances between the racial experiences of freshman and junior transfer students were not sufficiently analyzed. Although freshman and junior transfer students both experience significant environmental changes when entering a new higher education institution, developmental differences may exist between the two groups. Differences that exist between college freshman and junior transfer students may account for variances in the perception of their racial experiences.

Student Involvement Theory

Decades of research have highlighted the influence environmental factors have on student development (Astin, 1984; Greer & Chwalisz, 2007; Soto et al., 2016; Ting, Chan, & Lee, 2016). Studies examining the factors influencing student development have shown contributing factors such as campus climate, student experiences, available resources, familial support, faculty and peer support, and institutional structure/organizational characteristics impact student development (Flowers, 2004; Greer & Chwalisz, 2007; Johnson, 2012; Lamport, 1993; Smith & Davidson, 1992; Ting et al. 2016). One theory that has emerged from the literature focuses on student involvement. The theory of student involvement, first coined by Astin (1984), emphasized the influence of student involvement on student development, incorporating the vast literature regarding environmental influence. Astin (1984) conceptualized *involvement* as the amount of physical and psychological energy a student devotes to an experience. The behavioral component of involvement is emphasized giving more attention to what the student does and how they behave, and less to what the student thinks and feels. Based on Astin's conceptualization, student involvement is understood to be the quantity and quality of the physical and psychological energy students invest in the college experience (Astin, 1984; Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001; Milem & Berger, 1997; Schroeder, 2000; Sharkness & DeAngelo, 2011; Wolf-Wendel, Ward, Kinzie, 2009).

Assumptions of student involvement theory. Based on this theory, there is thought to be various forms of involvement such as engagement in academic work, participation in extracurricular activities, and interaction with faculty and other university personnel (Astin, 1984; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Schroeder, 2000; Ting et al., 2016; Wolf-Wendel et al., 2009). The assumption behind this theory is that students who put more energy into studying,

spending time on campus, participating in student organizations, and frequently interacting with faculty members and peers are more likely to have positive outcomes in their college career. Researchers have identified outcomes such as retention, satisfaction, development of leadership skills, cognitive gains, academic achievement, and career development to be influenced by student involvement (Cress et al., 2001; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Sharkness & DeAngelo, 2011; Ting et al., 2016; Webber, Krylow, & Zhang, 2013; Wolf-Wendel et al., 2009). Astin (1984) suggested five basic postulates guiding the student involvement theory. The first states that involvement refers to the investment of physical and psychological energy in different "objects" and range in the degree of generalization and specificity. The second states that involvement occurs along a continuum in which different students invest different degrees of involvement at different times in any given object. The third posits that involvement includes both quantitative and qualitative components and thus the extent of a student's involvement can be measured by both. The fourth and fifth postulate of the involvement theory provide aid for designing educational programs for students. The fourth states that student learning and personal development is proportional to the quality and quantity of student involvement. The fifth and final postulate suggests that the effectiveness of an educational policy is related to the policy's ability to increase student involvement. This theory served to help focus the research of subsequent investigators examining student development. The guiding premise of the student involvement theory is that an increase in a student's involvement leads to an increase in their learning and development (Astin, 1984; Elkins, Forrester, Noel-Elkins, 2011; Garcia, 2010; Huang & Chang, 2004; Kuh, Kinzsie, Buckley,Bridges & Hayek, 2007; Kurokawa, Yoshida, Lewis, Igarshi, & Kuradate, 2013; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Webber et al., 2013). This theory also served to provide university administrators and faculty with a more comprehensive

understanding of student development, which allows for changes in the learning environment that are designed to be more effective.

Early research on student involvement. An early longitudinal study rooted in the concept of student involvement was designed in order to examine factors influencing college dropout as well as factors in the college environment that affected students' persistence (Astin, 1975). This study's results showed that involvement was a significant contributing factor for students who remained in college, whereas lack of involvement contributed to students dropping out (Astin 1975). The involvement factors shown to impact student persistence and retention consisted of place of residence and participation in extracurricular activities. Astin (1975) found that students who joined social fraternities or sororities or actively participated in extracurricular activities were less likely to drop out. Other activities that were found to increase student persistence were involvement in sports, honors programs, ROTC, and participation in research projects. Astin (1975) asserted that "fit" between the student and the university was an important factor in predicting student persistence. Students who were able to identify with the college environment were more likely to become involved thus increasing their overall development. This could be seen in examples such as students attending religious universities who were more likely to persist if their own religious identity was similar to that of the institution. Another example was that Black students were more likely to persist at predominantly Black universities, and students from small towns were more likely to persist at universities with a smaller student population. Astin (1975) posited that these findings were likely due to students' ability to identify with the institution, thus impacting their commitment to the institution.

A subsequent longitudinal study collected data from over 200,000 undergraduate college students and examined student outcomes in order to examine the effects of involvement (Astin, 1977). The different types of involvement assessed within this study consisted of place of residence, honors programs, research participation, social fraternities/sororities, academic involvement, student-faculty interaction, athletic involvement, and involvement in student government. Findings from this study were consistent with student involvement theory showing that student involvement, in nearly all of the categories assessed, was associated with above average changes in freshman students. Some of the outcomes observed include increased self-esteem, satisfaction with college, increase in political liberalism, and increased satisfaction with student friendships (Astin, 1977).

Using the basic components of the Student Involvement Theory, research continued to explore the influence of involvement on student development. Milem and Berger (1997) conducted a longitudinal study to examine the influence of student behaviors and perceptions on the development of academic and social integration. Participants were incoming freshmen who were asked to complete a survey at three different points during their freshman year (i.e., freshman orientation, midway through the fall semester, and midway through the spring semester). Their findings showed that various forms of involvement influence students' perceptions of institutional support as well as peer support. They went on to state that perceptions of support influenced students' level of institutional commitment. Milem and Berger (1997) also found early involvement to be a predictor of subsequent involvement. Students who were more involved in the early weeks of the semester, were more likely to continue to be involved. This then allowed them to feel more supported and connected to one another as well as to the university. Limitations of this study are that it only captured the involvement of students

during their first year of college. Understanding how student involvement affects student development over the course of their college career would provide a more comprehensive understanding of the influence of student development. An additional limitation of this study is that the sample used to collect the data consisted of 84% White students and three percent Black students. As previously discussed, the development of Black students as compared to their White counterparts is significantly different. Therefore, the findings of this study may not apply to Black undergraduate students.

Student involvement outcomes. Similar research examining the role of student involvement on student development, performance and persistence has highlighted positive outcomes associated with involvement in academic and extracurricular activities (Elkins et al., 2011; Kurokawa et al., 2013; Milem and Berger; 1997; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Ting et al., 2016). Findings show levels of involvement to be directly related to factors such as student satisfaction, sense of belonging, openness to diversity, and leadership development (Browne, Headsworth, & Saum, 2009; Cruce, Wolniak, Seifert, & Pascarella, 2006; Frazier & Eighmy, 2012; Ting et al., 2016; Zúñiga, Williams & Berger, 2005). Other outcomes that have been correlated with student involvement include career development, multicultural development, and the development of personal values (Cress et al., 2001; Denault, Ratelle, Duchesne, & Guay, 2019; Ting et al., 2016). Fraternity and sorority experience, volunteering, and involvement in community service have been found to impact career development (i.e., career choice and decision making), as well as enhance sociopolitical attitudes, beliefs, and dispositions to social activism (Allen, 1992; Guiffrida, 2004; Patton, Bridges, & Flowers, 2011; Sermersheim, 1996; Ting et al., 2016). Involvement with diverse peers and in multicultural programs was found to improve attitudes and openness towards diversity, reduce prejudice, promote inclusion, foster a

sense of social justice, and lead to educational gains (Chang, Witt, Jones, & Hakuta, 2003; Longerbeam, 2005; Pascarella, Palmer, Moye, & Pierson, 2001; Strayhorn, 2009; Zúñiga et al., 2005).

The theory of student involvement broadened and drew the interest of international researchers. A study conducted in Hong Kong was designed to examine the application of involvement theory to resident students in Hong Kong (Ting et al., 2016). Students attending a three-year university were surveyed over the course of three years. The study sought to understand how student involvement related to perceptions or behavioral changes in the following areas: leadership, multicultural and multidisciplinary experience, university/community involvement and global citizenship, ethical personal values, and career and life aspirations. Findings showed enhancement in each of the five domains from increased involvement. A limitation of this study is that the researchers only surveyed students at one university, thereby reducing generalizability. Additionally, Ting et al. (2016) did not track the development of the same group of students over the three-year period in which this study was conducted, thereby limiting the capacity to observe the influence of student involvement over time. Despite its limitations, findings from this study served to provide evidence in support of student involvement theory and to validate its use with diverse populations (Ting et al., 2016).

As the literature regarding student involvement theory continues to expand, it is necessary that focus is given to how this theory applies to the development of students belonging to marginalized groups, specifically racial minorities. Previous research has shown the influence of peer interactions and relationships on student development, positive academic outcomes, and overall psychological functioning (Astin, 1984; Cruce et al., 2006; Longerbeam, 2005; Pike & Kuh, 2006; Rhee, 2008). Frequent positive interaction with peers has also been shown to

accentuate the college experience, increase a sense of belonging, and cultivate diversity (Astin, 1984; Hausmann, Schofield, & Woods, 2007; Rhee, 2008; Strayhorn, 2009; Zúñiga et al., 2005). Astin (1984) asserted that students' commitment of time and energy toward their academic work is strongly influenced by peers. These findings provide evidence for exploration of involvement through peer interactions as a factor of student development in Black college students.

Critical Race Theory

Critical race theory (CRT) was developed based on the understanding that race is ever-present and has explanatory power because of the systemic nature of racism (Delgado & Stefancic, 1993; Delgado & Stefancic, 2001; Hernández, 2016; Vue, Haslerig, & Allen, 2017). CRT was created as a race-conscious response to the repeal of various Civil Rights gains and color-blind politics and legal discourse (Crenshaw, Gotanda, Peller & Thomas, 1995; Freeman, 2011; Olmsted, 1998; Reynolds & Mayweather, 2017). Rooted in legal studies, CRT has since broadened to include multiple disciplines, including the CRT framework within the field of education (Hernández, 2016; Ladson-Billings, & Tate, 1995; Solorzano, 1998; Solorzano, Ceja, & Yosso, 2000). Delgado and Stefancic (1993, 2001) assert that assumptions about race are absorbed from one's cultural heritage of origin and inform U.S. public civic institutions as well as other aspects of society. Ladson-Billing and Tate (1995) went on to theorize that the vast inequities that exist between the education of White and Black students are the result of a racialized society is which racism has permanence. This notion led Ladson-Billings and Tate to apply CRT to the field of education to foster understanding of educational inequity and disrupt it. Carter Woodson and W.E.B. DuBois argued that race is the central concept for understanding inequality, thus Ladson-Billings and Tate (1995) sought to examine how the educational process serves to "inspire and stimulate" White students, and "depress and crush" Black students.

Solorzano et al. (2000) posit that the CRT framework for education differs from other CRT research in that it aims to center race and racism in education research, while also seeking to disrupt the traditional paradigms, methods, literature, and discourse on race, gender, and class. Researchers have used CRT not only to examine but to reveal and challenge variations in college experiences through the lens of White and minority students as a result of educational inequities, racism, and marginalization (Hernández, 2016; Ladson-Billings, & Tate, 1995; Solorzano, 1998; Solorzano & Bernal, 2001). Bourke (2010) highlighted that issues related to race are often interwoven through interactions with White students and faculty often times pushing Black students away from opportunities to engage in the campus culture.

Black Student Development

As a result of the disparity between the experiences of Black college students compared to their White peers, it becomes necessary to examine not only student development, but the unique development of Black students. However, one cannot discuss Black student development without first examining Black racial identity development. Researchers suggest that Black students' racial identity should be considered in fostering development because each student enters the campus with a cultural identity that influences how they navigate the institution as well as how they interpret events, interactions, and experiences (Anglin & Wade, 2007; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Johnson, 2003; Worrell, Cross & Vandiver, 2001).

The expanded nigrescence theory model. Black racial identity has been conceptualized as a multitude of multidimensional attitudes that exist among African Americans (Anglin & Wade, 2007; Awad, 2007; Fhagen-Smith, Vandiver, Worrell, & Cross, 2010; Whittaker & Neville, 2010). While many Black racial identity models exist, the nigrescence theory has been widely used and validated throughout the literature (Anglin & Wade, 2007; Neville & Cross,

2016; Vandiver, Fhagen-Smith, Cokley, Cross & Worrell, 2001; Whittaker & Neville, 2010). First developed in 1971, the nigrescence model has since been revised and expanded to account for knowledge acquired through additional research. The current version is known as the expanded nigrescence theory model, developed in 2001 by Cross and Vandiver. According to this model, Black racial identity attitudes are divided into three categories: pre-encounter, immersion/emersion, and internalization (Awad, 2007; Fhagen-Smith et al., 2010; Neville & Cross, 2016; Vandiver et al., 2001; Worrell & Watson, 2008). Within each category is a variety of racial identity attitude types that one could hold.

Within the pre-encounter attitude, the most salient attitude types consist of assimilation, miseducation, and self-hatred (Awad, 2007; Cokley, 2002; Cross & Vandiver, 2001; Fhagen-Smith et al., 2010). Those who hold assimilation attitudes reflect pro-American values and beliefs, and see nationality rather than race as central for how they see themselves and others. Individuals who hold miseducation attitudes emphasize negative stereotypes about Black individuals as a whole, whereas those who hold self-hatred attitudes reflect self-loathing beliefs about themselves based on their race. Black individuals with immersion or emersion attitudes often hold strong anti-White and/or intense pro-Black attitudes (Cokley, 2002; Vandiver et al., 2001; Whittaker & Neville, 2010; Worrell & Watson, 2008). These attitudes are marked by intense and extreme emotional dispositions. Cross and Vandiver (2001) theorized that anti-White attitudes reflected strong disdain for White individuals, while pro-Black attitudes reflected uncritical views and romanticizing of anything related to Black culture and individuals. The final category holds internalization attitudes and consists of attitudes that accept and embrace Blackness and a nuanced view of all cultures (Anglin & Wade, 2007; Cokley, 2002; Vandiver et al., 2001; Vandiver, Cross, Worell, & Fhagen-Smith, 2002; Whittaker & Neville, 2010; Worrell

& Watson, 2008). The salient identity types within individuals who hold internalization attitudes are afrocentric (i.e., Black Nationalist), bicultural, multiculturalist-racial, and multiculturalist-inclusive (Anglin & Wade, 2007; Vandiver et al., 2001; Vandiver et al., 2002; Whittaker & Neville, 2010; Worrell & McFarlane, 2017). The afrocentric, or Black Nationalist, identity is centered on Black empowerment and utilizes African principles to live and interpret the environment. The bicultural identity emphasizes being Black as well as belonging to another cultural group whether it be nationality, religion, gender, etc. The multiculturalist-racial identity is pro-Black and respectful of other racial/ethnic groups, while the multiculturalist-inclusive identity is pro-Black, respectful of other racial/ethnic groups, and also emphasizes relationships with individuals holding other multicultural identities.

Black racial identity on psychosocial functioning. Studies have sought to examine the influence of racial identity on the psychosocial functioning of Black students (Anglin & Wade, 2007; Chavous et al., 2002; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Nghe & Mahalik, 2001; Phelps, Taylor & Gerard, 2001; Whittaker & Neville, 2010). Findings have suggested that internalized identity attitudes are more adaptive and produce greater positive outcomes than the pre-encounter and immersion/emersion attitudes (Anglin & Wade, 2007; Harper & Quaye, 2007; Mitchell & Dell, 1992; Taylor & Howard-Hamilton, 1995). Research has found internalized racial identity attitudes to be correlated with positive self-esteem, unconditional positive regard, greater involvement in out-of-class and cultural activities, and fewer depressive symptoms (Harper & Quaye, 2007; Mitchell & Dell, 1992; Munford, 1994; Phelps et al., 2001; Speight, Vera, & Derrickson, 1996; Taylor & Howard-Hamilton, 1992). Pre-encounter and immersion/emersion attitudes have been correlated to a lack of self-actualization and self-acceptance, increased depressive symptoms, feelings of inferiority and inadequacy, hypersensitivity, anxiety, poorer

adjustment to college, feelings of being overwhelmed at PWIs, and difficulty feeling satisfied both academically and socially (Anglin & Wade, 2007; Carter, 1991; Munford, 1994; Parham & Helms, 1985).

Despite findings that highlight varying outcomes associated with Black students' racial identity, far less research has integrated this knowledge to influence curriculum, programming, and Black student development initiatives. Much of the pre-existing literature regarding student development is normed and based on the development of White students (Cheatham, 1991; Johnson, 2003; Rodgers, 1980, 1990 as cited in Johnson, 2003). However, it has been widely recognized that the experiences of students of color, in this case Black students, are significantly different than the experiences of their White counterparts (Brooks, Jones, & Burt, 2013; Cheatham & Berg-Cross, 1992; Cokley, 1999; Grier-Reed, 2013; Harper and Quaye, 2007; Johnson, 2003; Rankin & Reason, 2005). As such, it is important when examining the development of Black students to consider not only factors impacting student development as a whole, but factors that are unique to the Black experience. Cheatham and Berg-Cross (1992) emphasized that Black student development is distinct from generalized student development and thus asserted that it is not appropriately understood through current theories and models of student development. Systemic barriers such as a lack of resources and academic preparation contribute to the discrepancy between Black students' success and the success of their White counterparts. However, there is a prevailing notion that asserts Black students encounter challenges beyond academic preparation that affect their ability to succeed in college (Cabrera et al., 1999; Grier-Reed, 2013; Guiffrida & Douthit, 2010; Sedlacek, 1999; Soto et al., 2016).

Noncognitive variables associated with Black student success. Sedlacek (1999) conducted a review of the literature across 20 years examining research regarding the

development of Black students at White institutions. Using a model based on non-cognitive variables, he identified eight factors that significantly affect Black student life. Johnson (2003) explains that noncognitive variables refer to factors that are not academically related but still impact the development of college students. It was posited that the capacity of students to adjust to these factors as well as the capacity of faculty and staff to encourage student adjustment would determine the success or failure of Black students (Johnson, 2003; Sedlacek, 2004; Sedlacek & Brooks, 1976; Thomas, Kuncel, & Credé, 2007; Tracey & Sedlacek, 1984). The eight non-cognitive variables are as follows: (a) positive self-concept or confidence, (b) realistic self-appraisal, (c) understanding of racism and how to cope, (d) demonstrated community service, (e) preference for long-range goals to short term or immediate needs, (f) availability of a strong support person, (g) successful leadership experience, and (h) knowledge acquired in a field.

Sedlacek (1999) proposed that a positive self-concept/confidence consisted of Black students feeling a strong sense of self, strength of character, determination and independence. Early studies showed that the way Black students felt about themselves was related to their adjustment and success at PWIs (Caldwell, Siwatu, 2003; Gruber, 1980; Nadal, Wong, Griffin, Davidoff, & Sriken, 2014; Sedlacek, 2004; Stikes, 1975; Thomas et al., 2007). Black students are tasked with navigating cultural biases and integrating their Black culture/identity with the predominant White culture of the institution (Anglin & Wade, 2007; Brooks et al., 2013; Nadal et al., 2014; Sedlacek, 1999). Thus, cultural differences can affect the way in which a student's sense of self-concept is navigated, managed, and expressed. The second variable, realistic self-appraisal, refers to Black students' ability to recognize their strengths and weaknesses and engage in self-development to foster growth and improvement. Several researchers have noted the importance of Black students' ability to self-assess their performance due to stereotypes and

biases White peers and faculty may have that could lead to inaccurate feedback regarding Black students' abilities and deficiencies (Caldwell & Siwatu, 2003; Fleming, 1984; Sedlacek, 1999; Sedlacek & Brooks, 1976; Thomas et al., 2007). Caldwell and Siwatu (2003) asserted that realistic self-appraisals of their performance positively influenced students' academic motivation and academic persistence. Sedlacek's third variable involves Black students' ability to understand and navigate a racist system, and take action when it is in their best interest. Thus, the ability for Black students to perceive the inherent racism within an institution and take necessary action when appropriate is imperative to the overall success of Black students at PWIs. The fourth variable incorporates community service and consists of student involvement in their cultural community whether that be on or off campus. The fifth variable suggests that Black students' capacity to defer gratification for long term goals are also correlated with academic success (Mischel & Aydul, 2004; Sedlacek, 1999; Thomas et al., 2007; Tracey & Sedlacek, 1987). Sedlacek (1999) noted that this is largely due to the challenges Black students experience when attempting to set goals and receive reinforcement for their accomplishments. The sixth variable focuses on the importance of establishing a strong support person particularly due to dealing with racism and adjustments within a PWI. Sedlacek's (1999) seventh non-cognitive variable emphasizes leadership experience among Black students and the ability to organize and influence others. The final variable involves learning to acquire knowledge in nontraditional ways. Due to the tumultuous history between Black students and the educational system, Black students have had to find ways of learning outside of the system. Sedlacek (1999) found that Black students who demonstrated knowledge acquired through nontraditional ways (i.e., activities that could translate into learning opportunities) were more successful than those who did not.

Campus racial climate. Decades later, researchers have continued to examine Black student development (Flowers, 2004; Greer & Chwalisz, 2007; Guiffrida & Douthit, 2010; Hurtado, Milem Clayton-Pederson & Allen, 1999; McClain & Perry, 2017; Milem, Dey, & White, 2004). As previously discussed, the pervasiveness of racism continues to result in campus racial climate being a critical factor affecting retention for Black students at PWIs. Hurtado et al. (1999) define campus racial climate as the beliefs, judgments, and outlooks held within an academic institution about race, ethnicity, and diversity. Campus racial climate can be categorized into five essential components (Hurtado et al., 1999; Milem et al., 2004; McClain & Perry, 2017; Smith, Allen, Danley, 2007; Solorzano et al., 2000). The first is the institution's historical legacy of inclusion or exclusion. The second is compositional diversity, which refers to the number of people of color on a given college campus. The third is psychological climate which focuses on opinions about cross-cultural group relationships in an institution. The fourth is behavior climate which constitutes interaction between individuals of varying racial/ethnic background and the quality of those interactions on a campus. The fifth and final factor that contributes to a campus' racial climate is structural diversity, which is centered on the way institutions represent administrative and operational aspects throughout a university (i.e., faculty hires, student admits, distribution of budget/funds, etc.). McClain and Perry (2017) asserted that these factors serve to contribute to the marginalization of students of color on PWI campuses. However, he went on to identify factors that contribute to the retention of students of color. These components consist of (a) inclusion of students, faculty, and staff of color, (b) updated curriculum that highlights experiences of individuals of color, (c) programs/initiatives that support enlistment, preservation, and commencement of students of color, and (d) cultural spaces to serve as safe havens for students of color (Brooks et al., 2013; Guiffrida, 2005; McClain &

Perry, 2017; Quaye, Griffin, & Museus 2015). These factors have been found to increase self-efficacy and classroom engagement, foster multicultural competency, foster persistence to graduation, promote mentorship, decrease feelings of isolation, and promote exploration of cultural identity (Hurtado et al., 1999; LaVant, Anderson, & Tiggs, 1997; McClain, 2017; Quaye et al., 2015). McClain (2017) argued that the development of social clubs and cultural spaces are essential to PWI campuses in that they foster familial-like relationships among members of marginalized communities, thus serving as a place of safety for many students of color. Additionally, Guiffrida and Douhit (2010) emphasized participation in racial/ethnic minority student organizations can serve to bridge the cultural gap between their home environment and the campus environment.

Community

It has been shown that lower retention rates and academic success among Black undergraduates as compared to their White counterparts is largely due to a lack of a sense of belonging (Fleming, 1984; Hurtado & Carter, 1997; Johnson et al., 2007; Sedlacek, 1999; Strayhorn, 2011; Thomas et al., 2014). Researchers examining Black students' experience at PWIs have reported that Black students often experience these institutions as hostile, unwelcoming, and filled with pressure to prove their academic ability to White faculty and peers (Guiffrida, 2006; Payne & Suddler, 2014; Sailes, 1993; Strayhorn, 2009; Thomas et al., 2014). Black students often report feeling socially isolated due to a lack of representation amongst their peers and faculty (Davlig, 2010; Payne & Suddler, 2014; Stewart, 2012 as cited in Payne & Suddler, 2014; Strayhorn, 2011; Turner, 1994). Tinto (1993) asserted that cultural differences between Black and White students serve as barriers for Black students at PWIs to identify and become a member of a supportive campus community. The lack of community, especially for Black students, can have negative implications. Gossett, Cuyjet, and Cockriel (1998) noted that

Black students who are unable to establish supportive networks at PWIs often experience social isolation and stress which in turn leads to poor academic performance and increased attrition.

The role of community, specifically within the Black community, has been a concept studied for several decades. Community pillars such as Black churches have historically provided the foundation for many social and community activities, and served as a place of refuge for Black families in the tension of the Civil Rights Era and for generations after, aiding individuals in combating racism and hostility (Cook, 2000; Gooden & McMahon, 2016; McCray et al., 2010; Swain, 2008). Mattis et al. (2004) went on to emphasize communalism, defined as the interdependence of people, as a traditional core value within the Black community. Research indicates that a sense of belonging and community among Black individuals has been associated with positive outcomes such as self-expression, community engagement, activism, social connections, sense of shared status, civic engagement, and community cohesion (Elkins et al., 2011; Farmer, 2006; Johnson et al., 2007; Swain, 2008; Thomas et al., 2014). Researchers have called for universities to create a connection between academic activities and extracurricular activities to successfully promote a sense of campus community which is fostered through students' sense of being cared for, valued, and accepted (Cheng, 2004; Elkins et al., 2011; Flowers 2004; Mendoza et al., 2016). Cheng (2004) emphasized the importance of student involvement asserting that loneliness serves as a primary deterrent to establishing a sense of community.

Community involvement. Astin's Theory of Student Involvement (1984) identified participation in extracurricular activities as a proponent of student success. Further research has sought to explore how involvement in extracurricular activities serves to aid student development and overall functioning (Cuyjet, 2006; Flowers, 2004; Garcia, 2010; Moore, Lovell, McGann, &

Wyrick, 1998; Pascarella, Pierson, Wolniak, & Terenzini, 2004; Terenzini, Pascarella, & Bliming, 1996; Toyokawa & Toyokawa, 2002). Studies have highlighted that investment and involvement in activities serve to produce greater outcomes for college students (Cress et al., 2001; Hernandez, Hogan, Hathaway, & Lovell, 1999; Patton et al., 2011; Strayhorn, 2009; Terenzini et al., 1996; Webber et al., 2013). Scholars have reported that participation in these activities help students to make friends, become oriented to campus, feel a sense of campus community, and increase critical thinking (Bauer & Bennett, 2008; Elkins et al., 2011; Kuh et al., 2007; Moore et al., 1998; Pascarella et al., 2004; Strayhorn, 2009; Webber et al., 2013). Positive socialization, development of leadership skills, and increased capacity to develop mature interpersonal relationships have also been positively correlated with involvement in community activities (Cuyjet, 2006; Foubert & Urbanski, 2006; Montelongo, 2002; Pascarella, Terenzini, & Wolfe, 1986; Schuh & Laverty, 1983; Hood, 1984).

Extracurricular activities. While the relationship between involvement and positive outcomes for college students has been well documented, many researchers have sought to examine whether specific extracurricular activities promote positive outcomes. Elkins et al. (2011) found a sense of campus community and overall development throughout the collegiate years were correlated with student participation in conferences/workshops, recreational sports activities, faith-based activities, intercollegiate athletic activities, and residence hall living. Volunteering has been found to aid in career development among Black and Latinx students (Allen, 1992; Guiffrida, 2004). Brazzell and Reisser (1999) asserted that students who participate in student government, clubs/activities, and fraternities and sororities gain a greater understanding of the larger society. Community service, another aspect of involvement, has been found to positively contribute to cognitive skills, intellectual growth, personal effectiveness,

increased awareness of the world and personal values, as well as increased levels of engagement (Astin & Sax, 1998; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Additionally, students who engaged in leadership activities have been found to have higher levels of educational attainment, increased personal values, and increased confidence (Cress et al., 2001; Zúñiga et al., 2005). Webber et al. (2013) conducted a study to examine the influence of engagement in college activities on success (i.e., cumulative GPA, students' perceived satisfaction). Furthermore, they sought to explore to what degree frequency of involvement predicted student success and satisfaction. They found that students who reported more frequent involvement in activities and community service earned higher grades, reported higher levels of college satisfaction, and indicated overall satisfaction with their educational experience.

In their findings, Webber et al. (2013) discovered that non-White students reported lower levels of satisfaction with their overall academic experience. Due to the challenges faced by Black students, specifically at predominantly White institutions, the need for a sense of belonging is imperative yet abundantly more challenging to achieve. Engagement with same-race peers through campus clubs and organizations has been shown to foster a sense of belonging, facilitate college adjustment, and promote academic success among Black undergraduates (Flowers, 2004; Guiffrida, 2003; Strayhorn, 2011). Analysis of a college student experiences questionnaire showed that involvement in campus clubs and organizations promoted personal and social development, and increased understanding of science, technology, thinking, and writing skills (Flowers, 2004). Studies examining Black undergraduate success at PWIs have found involvement to be a contributing factor for retention, often as a result of social integration (Guiffrida, 2003; Washington, 2005). Padilla, Trevino, Gonzalez, and Trevino (1997) found participation in ethnic student organizations fostered student success by allowing

students to retain and nurture a sense of ethnic identity while on campus. The literature indicates that voluntary participation in ethnic-specific activities and organizations serve to increase social integration, which is imperative for minorities existing within majority spaces. (Tinto, 1993; Castellanos & Jones, 2003). In a study exploring the use of traditional cultural practices and spiritual resources, Strayhorn (2011) sought to examine how participation in a campus gospel choir affected the experiences of Black students enrolled at a PWI. Active involvement in the gospel choir was found to help students establish a sense of belonging on campus, reduce feelings of marginalization, cultivate ethnic pride, and foster resiliency. Students expressed that their participation in the campus gospel choir allowed them to find their niche on campus. Students involved in the gospel choir were able to develop a positive sense of ethnic identity, while connecting them with a group of individuals who shared similar cultural backgrounds thus forming a "family-like" community on campus (Strayhorn, 2011).

Critical Consciousness

As previously noted, involvement for Black students has been found to foster a sense of ethnic identity, civic engagement, and promote undergraduate success and overall well-being (Flowers, 2004; Guiffrida, 2003; Padilla et al., 1997; Strayhorn, 2011; Washington, 2005). This has aided Black students in feeling more pride and resiliency despite marginalization and adversity. It has been theorized that critical consciousness may serve as a conduit to promote resiliency (Benard, 1991; Diemer & Blustein, 2006; Gutierrez & Lewis, 1999; McGirr & Sullivan, 2017; Thomas et al., 2014). As Sedlacek (1999) discovered, Black students' ability to understand and navigate the inherent racism within an institution and take necessary action when appropriate is vital to their success. Developed in the 1970s by Paulo Freire, critical consciousness represents the analysis of societal inequities and the motivation and actions of

individuals within marginalized groups to rectify those inequities (Diemer & Blustein, 2006; Diemer, Rapa, Park & Perry, 2017; Diemer et al., 2016; Freire, 1973; Godfrey, Burson, Yanisch, & Way, 2019; Jemal, 2017; Seider, Tamerat, Clark & Soutter, 2017; Shin, Ezeofor, Smith, Welch, & Goodrich, 2016; Thomas et al., 2014; Watts, Diemer, & Voight, 2011). The primary purpose of critical consciousness is awareness and overcoming of oppression. Critical consciousness operates under the assumption that as the thinking and understanding of individuals belonging to oppressed and marginalized groups about social conditions develop, so does their views about themselves in relation to society (Barak, 2016; Diemer et al., 2016; Freire, 1973). This is facilitated through a cyclical process of reflection and action, beginning with the examination of causes of oppression and the way it manifests, followed by liberation behavior which includes social action and community building. (Barak, 2016; Diemer et al., 2017; Fay, 2011; Freire, 1973; McGirr & Sullivan, 2017; Watts, Williams, & Jagers, 2003).

Theorists have condensed the concept of critical consciousness down to three core elements (Diemer, McWhirter, Ozer, & Rapa, 2015; Diemer et al., 2017; Godfrey et al., 2019; Godfrey & Grayman, 2014; Prilleltensky, 2012; Watts et al., 2011). The first element consists of critical reflection, which refers to the process of critically analyzing the way in which an individual exists within the world around them. The second element is critical motivation, which pertains to individual agency and commitment to address perceived injustice(s). The last core element of critical consciousness is critical action. Critical action is the behavioral component of critical consciousness, and refers to action designed to counter or respond to injustice in pursuit of liberation.

Critical consciousness outcomes. The development of critical consciousness has been found to have many benefits for marginalized individuals and communities. Some have argued

that it serves as a necessary step toward the development of empowerment, while others believe critical consciousness is an element of empowerment itself (Diemer & Blustein, 2006; Goodman & West-Olatunji, 2009; Gutierrez & Lewis, 1999; McGirr & Sullivan, 2017). Benefits of critical consciousness such as increased levels of school and extracurricular engagement, academic achievement, and progress in career development have been found among racial/ethnic minority youth (Diemer & Blustein, 2006; Diemer et al., 2015; Diemer et al., 2017; McWhirter & McWhirter, 2015; O'Connor, 1997; Shin et al., 2016). Additionally, critical consciousness offers a connection to others who share similar experiences which has been found to decrease feelings of isolation (Enns, 1992; Sowards & Renegar, 2004). Other noted benefits of the development of critical consciousness include: increased active, creative, and effective problem solving skills (Alschuler, 1986); greater sense of sociopolitical empowerment (Diemer et al., 2017; Gutierrez & Ortega, 1991); increased ability to produce productive responses to discrimination (McGirr & Sullivan, 2017); and ultimately a more equitable system of the distribution of resources in society (Chronister & Davidson, 2010; McGirr & Sullivan, 2017).

In recognizing the influence that the development of critical consciousness has on the overall well-being of marginalized individuals and communities, it seems imperative to examine this construct with regard to racial/ethnic minority undergraduate students. There is a lack of relevant literature that has explored critical consciousness among college students. Moreover, the disparity within the literature increases when looking specifically for studies that assessed critical consciousness within Black undergraduate students. Critical consciousness has the potential to generate positive outcomes for Black college students, and therefore further examination of this construct is needed.

Summary

This review of literature examined the history of human development, student development, then specifically development as it relates to Black students. While there was no scarcity of literature regarding human and student development, previous relevant literature began to decrease as the emphasis turned to Black student development. Major themes that emerged highlighted the unique and challenging tasks faced by Black college students due to their developmental period (Waterman, 1982; Whitbourne & Tesch, 1985; Zuschlag & Whitbourne, 1994), drastic environmental transition/shifts (Carter et al., 2006; Pinderhughes, 1983), and exposure/experiences of racism and discrimination (Anglin & Wade, 2007; Brooks et al., 2013; Sedlacek, 1999). Development was examined through the context of humans, students, members of the marginalized Black community, and then holistically as Black students on predominantly White campuses. Factors aiding development across each of these identities were then explored. Factors that were found to promote student success included activities such as participation in student led organizations, athletic activities, faith-based activities, and engagement in community service (Astin & Sax, 1998; Brazzell & Reisser, 1999; Elkins et al., 2011; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Among those factors found to promote positive development and academic success were involvement and engagement in culturally meaningful ways outside of the classroom setting (Guiffrida, 2003; Flowers, 2004). Specifically, research emphasized participation in activities such as fraternities/sororities or other racial/ethnic organizations contributed to positive outcomes for Black students enrolled at PWIs (Castellanos & Jones, 2003, Padilla, Trevino, Gonzalez, & Trevino, 1997; Strayhorn, 2011).

Despite a comprehensive review of the literature, no study examining the influence of community involvement on psychological functioning, academic success, and critical

consciousness in Black undergraduate students was found. Yet evidence supports a call for exploration of these constructs together, and the impact it may have on Black undergraduate students. Therefore, this study will serve to address that gap within the literature in order to add to what is currently known regarding Black student development and success while enrolled at predominantly White institutions.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This section details the methodology used to conduct this study. It is divided into three components: (a) participants, (b) measures, and (c) procedures. The participant section includes demographics and characteristics of the participants included in the study. The measures section details the scales and tools used during administration of this project. Lastly, the procedures section discusses the steps taken to complete the study (i.e. recruitment, data collection, and incentives).

Participants

The final sample for this study consisted of 125 self-identified Black undergraduate college students attending PWIs in the Midwest and South-Central regions of the United States. Although 204 Black undergraduate students participated in the online survey, 79 individuals were removed from the sample due to the following reasons: (a) demographic variables were outside of the study requirements (i.e., not within the identified age range, not currently enrolled as an undergraduate student at a PWI), (b) invalid scores due to significant missing data, (c) invalid scores due to significant outliers. The results chapter contains further information regarding the removal of cases due to missing data and outliers. Participant characteristics are detailed in Table 1.

Of the 125 participants, 98 self-identified as women, 27 self-identified as men. Due to the parameters of the study, all participants self-identified within the African diaspora. The breakdown is as follows: African American (*n*=75; 58.6%), Black (*n*=34; 26.6%), African (*n*=12; 9.4%), West Indian/Caribbean (*n*=4; 3.1%), Multi-racial (*n*=2; 1.6%) and Other (*n*=1; 0.8%). Participants' ages ranged from 18 to 24 (*M*= 20.5, *SD* =1.5). In regards to academic

classification, the majority of participants reported their academic level as Junior (*n*=47; 36.7%) followed by Senior (*n*=35; 27.3%), Sophomore (*n*=25; 19.5%), 5th year + (*n*=13; 10.2%), Freshman (*n*=2; 1.6 %) and Other (*n*=6; 4.7%). The sample consisted of 119 (93%) full-time students, 5 (3.9%) part-time students, and 4 (3.1%) indicated 'other'. Regarding community involvement, 92.9% (*n*=118) of participants reported a history of involvement in community activities/organizations, either presently or in the past; while 7.1% (*n*=9) denied current or past involvement. In assessing for recent involvement, 2.4% (*n*=3) of the participants who reported a history of involvement reported that they have not been involved in any community activity/organization within the last five years, while the majority of participants reported involvement in community activities/organizations within the last three months to five years. The breakdown is as follows: (a) 3 months (*n*=69); (b) 6 months (*n*=60); (c) 1 year (*n*=59); 1-3 years (*n*=65); 3-5 years (*n*=54). Community activities included: church/religious organizations (*n*=59; 46.1%), sororities/fraternities (*n*=50; 39.1%), volunteer/service/philanthropy (*n*=87; 68%), sports teams (*n*=22; 17.2%), neighborhood/community groups (*n*=26; 20.3%), social clubs/interest groups (*n*=61; 47.7%), awareness/advocacy clubs (*n*=30; 23.4%), cultural/racial organizations (*n*=64; 50%), other (*n*=8;6.3%). Other activities/organizations reported by participants consisted of: academic/professional organizations (*n*=4); dance team (*n* =1); marching band (*n=1*); theatre (*n*=1); and women empowerment organizations (*n*=1).

Measures

Four measures were used to conduct this study: A demographic questionnaire, the Index of Race-Related Stress, College Counseling Assessment of Psychological Symptoms-62, and the Contemporary Critical Consciousness Measure.

Table 1

Participant Characteristics

Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Female	100	78.1%
Male	28	21.9%
Race/Ethnicity		
African	12	9.4%
African American	75	58.65
Black	34	26.6%
Multi-racial	2	1.6%
West Indian-Caribbean	4	3.1%
Other	1	.8%
Age		
18	11	8.6%
19	20	15.6%
20	38	29.7%
21	28	21.9%
22	17	13.3%
23	8	6.3%
24	6	4.7%
Academic Status		
Freshman	2	1.6%
Sophomore	25	19.5%
Junior	47	36.7%
Senior	35	27.3%
5^{th} year +	13	10.2%
Other	6	4.7%
Status		
Full-Time	119	93%
Part-Time	5	3.9%
Other	4	3.1%
Involvement Type		
Church/Religious	59	46.1%
Sororities/Fraternities	50	39.1%
Volunteer/Service/Philanthropy	87	68%
Sports Teams	22	17.2%
Neighborhood/Community	26	20.3%
Social Clubs/Interest Groups	61	47.7%
Awareness/Advocacy Clubs	30	23.4%
Cultural/Racial Organizations	64	50%
Other	8	6.3%

Note. *N*= 128

Demographic questionnaire. Participants were asked to provide background information pertinent to the study. Participants indicated their age, gender, enrollment status, academic year, academic major, and cumulative undergraduate grade point average. Participants were also asked to provide information regarding their race/ethnicity. For those who reported being born outside of the U.S., their country of origin and number of years residing in the U.S. were also requested. Additionally, participants were asked to provide information about their community involvement, both past and present. Participants reported the type of community activity/organization they are involved in, as well as the degree, frequency, and enjoyment of their involvement in each activity/organization.

Index of Race-Related Stress (IRRS). The IRRS measures the stress experienced by African Americans as a result of experiences of racism and discrimination in their daily lives (Utsey & Ponterotto, 1996). This 46-item measure consists of four subscales: cultural racism, institutional racism, individual racism, and collective racism. Cultural racism is conceptualized as a form of racism experienced when the cultural practices of one group is seen as superior to those of another. Institutional racism is the result of racism embedded in the policies of any given institution. Individual racism is conceptualized as the racism one experiences on a personal level. Lastly, collective racism is seen as the racism experienced when organized or semi-organized groups of White/non-Black individuals seek to restrict the rights of Black individuals (Utsey & Ponterotto, 1996).

Items on the IRRS are measured on a five-point Likert scale. The scale is anchored as the following: (a) 0 = "this has never happened to me"; (b) 1 = "this event happened, but did not bother me"; (c) 2 = "this event happened, and I was slightly upset"'; (d) 3= "this event happened,

and I was upset; (e) 4 = "this event happened, and I was extremely upset". Each subscale produces an overall score that is found by summing and averaging the scores of each item within each subscale. A global index of race-related stress is achieved by computing the total score from the four subscales. Higher scores indicate greater race-related stress, while lower scores indicate lower reported levels of race-related stress. High internal consistency was reported for the IRRS among African Americans: cultural racism (α= .87 - .89), institutional racism (α= .82 - .85), individual racism (α= .84), collective racism (α= .74 - .79) (Seaton, 2003; Utsey & Ponterotto, 1996).

College Counseling Assessment of Psychological Symptoms-62 (CCAPS-62). The CCAPS-62, developed by Locke, Buzolitz, Lei, Boswell, and McAleavey (2011) is a multidimensional tool used to assess the mental health of college students. The 62-item scale consists of eight subscales, each assessing a different set of psychological concerns: depression, eating concerns, substance use, generalized anxiety, hostility, social anxiety, family distress, and academic distress. The depression subscale consists of 13 items that are designed to measure symptoms of depression (e.g., isolation, suicidal ideation, disassociation, lack of enjoyment/hope, etc.). The eating concerns subscale consists of 9 items that assess attitudes and behaviors related to food/body image (e.g., dieting, purging, satisfaction with body image/shape, etc.). The 6-item substance use subscale assesses for problematic alcohol/drug use behavior (e.g., regrets resulting from alcohol/drug use, blackout symptoms, etc.). The generalized anxiety subscale consists of 9 items that assess for symptoms of anxiety (e.g., racing thoughts, sleep difficulties, panic attacks, etc). The 7-item hostility subscale measures an individual's experience, expression, and control of anger. High scores on the hostility subscale do not indicate an individual is dangerous, but rather highlight higher levels of frustration, suppression

of feelings, and/or difficulty managing emotions or reactions. The social anxiety subscale is comprised of 7 items, and measures shyness, ability to make friends, discomfort around others, etc. The family distress subscale uses 6 items to assess individuals' perceptions of their family functioning (i.e., history of family abuse, feelings toward family members and family interactions. Lastly, the academic distress subscale uses 5 items to measures students' academic confidence, motivation, enjoyment, and concentration.

Items on the CCAPS-62 are rated on a four-point Likert scale. The scale is anchored with 0 meaning "not at all like me", and 4 meaning "extremely like me". Respondents are asked to rate each item as it relates to themselves over the last two weeks. Responses on the CCAPS-62 are scored for each subscale by summing each item within a subscale for a total subscale score. The distress index (DI) provides an overall measure of general psychological distress using items from the depression, generalized anxiety, social anxiety, academic distress, and hostility subscales. Higher scores are associated with higher levels of distress. Internal consistencies were calculated for the CCAPS-62 and scores ranged from $\alpha = .80$ to $\alpha = .93$ (Locke et al., 2011).

Contemporary Critical Consciousness Measure (CCCM). Critical consciousness (CC) is measured using the Contemporary Critical Consciousness Measure (Shin et al., 2016). This 19-item scale assesses awareness and attitudes towards systemic and institutionalized forms of discrimination associated with racism, classism, and heterosexism. Each item of the CCCM is rated on a 7-point Likert scale. The scale is anchored with 1 meaning "strongly disagree", and 7 meaning "strongly agree". Respondents are asked to rate their level of agreement with each item. Internal consistency ranged from $\alpha = .82$ to $\alpha = .89$ (Shin et al., 2016). Based on both exploratory and confirmatory analyses, the results showed the CCCM assessed general critical

consciousness as well as critical consciousness related to racism, classism, and heterosexism. Convergent validity revealed significant predictive relationships between CCCM and its subscales with other measures of discrimination (i.e., Symbolic Racism 2000 Scale (Henry & Sears, 2002), Classism subscale of the Intolerant Schema Measure (Aosved, Long, Voller, 2009), and the Modern Homonegativity Scale (Morrison & Morrison, 2002); Shin et al., 2016).

Procedures

After receiving approval from the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board (HSIRB) at the researcher's home institution, participants were recruited from approximately 50 PWIs in the United States. Recruitment strategies primarily consisted of digital fliers, email blasts, and word of mouth recruitment (i.e. referrals, snowball effect). At the researcher's request, institutions where the researcher was affiliated granted access to email list serves comprised of all currently enrolled Black undergraduates. For universities where the researcher held no affiliation, email blasts were sent to various departments in student affairs and general education courses requesting the details of the study be shared with students who may fit the study criteria. Self-identified students within the African diaspora between the ages of 18 and 24 were recruited. In order to be included in the study, participants were required to meet the following criteria: (a) 18 years of age or older, (b) identify within the African Diaspora (e.g., Black, African American, African, Afro-Caribbean, Afro-Latino(a), etc.), (c) be enrolled as an undergraduate at a predominantly White institution, and (d) have completed at least (1) semester of undergraduate education. Recruitment began in April 2018 and continued until data collection concluded.

Data collection was conducted across 6 months, beginning in Spring 2018 and ending in Fall 2018. Data was collected through the use of an online survey using Qualtrics Survey

Software. Prior to beginning the survey, participants were provided with an overview of the study and asked to read and sign the informed consent document. Participation was voluntary and participants were informed that they could discontinue the survey at any time. An incentive was used to aid in participant recruitment as well as to recognize participants' contribution and time devoted to the study. After completing the online survey, participants had the option to enter a raffle to win one (1) of three (3) visa gift cards in the amount of $50 each. Winners were selected after the study was completed.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of this study which sought to explore community involvement as a protective factor for Black undergraduate students attending predominantly White institutions. It presents the findings as it relates to the influence of community involvement on psychological functioning, academic success, and critical consciousness. The chapter begins by presenting preliminary data analyses which includes analysis of missing values, outliers, and assumptions of linear regression. Following the preliminary examination is an analysis of the descriptive statistics reported in this study. The chapter concludes by presenting the results and findings for each of the proposed hypotheses including relevant charts and tables. All statistical procedures were completed using IBM SPSS software.

Preliminary Data Analysis

Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure the accuracy of the present data. The data were assessed for missing values, outliers, and assumptions of linear regression (i.e., linearity, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity).

Missing values. Upon initial examination of the data it was found that 56 participants did not complete the survey beyond the demographic questionnaire. Incomplete surveys (i.e., surveys that were not continued beyond the demographic portion, yielding no responses for the CCAPS-62, IRRS, or CCCM) were removed from the sample. An analysis of missing values was then conducted on the CCAPS-62, IRRS, and CCCM. The Little's Missing Completely at Random (MCAR) test was run in order to determine whether missing values were missing at random or in a systematic way. Results of the Little's MCAR test were not statistically significant and yielded a p-value greater than .05 for the CCAPS-62 and IRRS indicating the data

were likely missing at random. A p-value less than .05 was found when assessing the missing data related to the CCCM measure, indicating that data was not missing completely at random. Further analysis of the missing data in the CCCM revealed no observable relationship between the probability of the values to be missing and the missing variable itself. Therefore, the missing values in the CCCM were found to be MAR (missing at random). The multiple imputation method was used to address missing values within the data set.

Outliers. The data was screened for outliers by first visually inspecting for extreme points via the boxplot graphing tool. This process highlighted outliers within the CCAPS-62, IRRS, and CCCM. These scores were assessed for error, and further examination revealed the scores were genuine. Using the Mahalanobis distance test, one multivariate outlier was identified and removed from the sample. The Mahalanobis distance test also revealed two additional cases that did not yield valid values, therefore these cases were removed as well. Thus, as noted earlier, the final sample size consisted of 125 cases.

Assumptions of linear regression. Linear regression analyses require that specific assumptions are met in order to interpret the results as valid. The first assumption that was tested for was normality. Normality refers to the distribution of a data set, with a normal distribution being a bell-shaped curve (Salkind, 2000). Normality of scores were assessed using skewness and kurtosis. Skewness is a measure of the asymmetry of the distribution of a variable, whereas kurtosis is a measure of the peakedness of a distribution (Kim, 2013). It has been proposed that an absolute skew value of 2 and an absolute kurtosis value of 7 indicate a substantial departure from normality (West, Finch, & Curran, 1996 as cited in Kim, 2013). Examination of the skewness and kurtosis of the data yielded scores below these margins.

Multicollinearity exists when two or more variables in a regression are highly correlated with one another. As a result of multicollinearity, coefficient estimates may be more sensitive to small changes in the model or data (Keith, 2006). The assumption of multicollinearity was assessed by inspecting the Pearson's Bivariate Correlation matrix as well as evaluating the tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) values. All correlation values fell below 1, and VIF values below 10. Therefore, it was determined that the assumption of multicollinearity had been met. Linearity and homoscedasticity assumptions were assessed by examining the scatterplot graphing tool, in which the standardized residual values were plotted against the residual predicted values. The data showed that no violations of linearity or homoscedasticity were present.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistical analyses were conducted by computing variable means, standard deviations, bivariate correlations, and reliability estimates. Table 2 displays the reliability estimates of scores for the CCAPS-62, IRRS, and CCCM. Table 3 shows descriptive statistics (i.e., mean, trimmed mean, standard deviation, and range) for each of the dependent variables used in the study. Tables 4 through 8 presents the correlational relationships between the dependent variables (i.e., perceived racism [cultural racism, institutional racism, individual racism, collective racism, and global racism]; psychological functioning [depression, anxiety, substance use, hostility, distress index]; academic success [cumulative g.p.a., academic distress]; and critical consciousness) and community involvement (i.e., degree of involvement, frequency of involvement, enjoyment of involvement, duration of involvement, and global community involvement).

Table 2

Reliability Estimates (Cronbach's α) of Scale Scores

Scale	Cronbach's α
Counseling Center Assessment of Psychological Symptoms (CCAPS-62)	
CCAPS Depression Subscale	.893
CCAPS Generalized Anxiety Subscale	.880
CCAPS Academic Distress	.728
CCAPS Substance Use Subscale	.831
CCAPS Hostility Subscale	.849
CCAPS Distress Index Subscale	.920
Index of Race Related Stress (IRRS)	
IRRS Cultural Racism	.904
IRRS Institutional Racism	.794
IRRS Individual Racism	.875
IRRS Collective Racism	.780
IRRS Global Racism	.934
Contemporary Critical Consciousness Scale	
Total Scale	.743

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of Dependent Variables

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range
CCAPS Depression	1.13	.850	4
CCAPS Generalized Anxiety	1.27	.950	4
CCAPS Academic Distress	1.32	.809	4
CCAPS Substance Use	.72	.854	3
CCAPS Hostility	.89	.817	4
CCAPS Distress Index	1.19	.828	4
Cumulative G.P.A.	3.1360	.45886	2.08
IRRS Cultural Racism	2.97	.811	3
IRRS Institutional Racism	1.32	.842	4
IRRS Individual Racism	1.97	.983	4
IRRS Collective Racism	.64	.771	3
IRRS Global Racism	.0000	3.37144	15.10
CCCM Total Scale	103.61	13.437	71

Table 4
Pearson Correlation Matrix: Perceived Racism x Psychological Functioning

Variable	Depression	Anxiety	Substance Use	Hostility	Distress Index
Global Racism	.130	.185*	.352**	.263**	.210*

**correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
*correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 5
Pearson Correlation Matrix: Perceived Racism

Variable	Cultural	Institutional	Individual	Collective	Global
Degree of Involvement	.025	-.093	-.066	-.087	-.066
Frequency of Involvement	-.094	.006	.035	-.009	-.018
Enjoyment of Involvement	-.080	.017	-.104	-.115	-.083
Duration of Involvement	-.187	-.093	-.046	-.063	-.115
Global Community Involvement	.088	.110	.114	.071	.114

*correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 6
Pearson Correlation Matrix: Psychological Functioning

Variable	Depression	Anxiety	Substance Use	Hostility	Distress Index
Degree of Involvement	-.067	-.042	-.066	-.120	-.066
Frequency of Involvement	-.135	.024	-.059	-.026	-.058
Enjoyment of Involvement	.072	.082	-.038	-.001	.074
Duration of Involvement	-.042	-.005	-.026	.026	-.002
Global Community Involvement	-.001	-.039	.052	-.055	-.017

*correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 7
Pearson Correlation Matrix: Academic Success

Variable	Cumulative G.P.A	Academic Distress
Cumulative G.P.A	1	-.219*
Degree of Involvement	.017	-.014
Frequency of Involvement	.219*	-.064
Enjoyment of Involvement	.163	.117
Duration of Involvement	-.029	.138
Global Community Involvement	.061	.006

*correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 8
Pearson Correlation Matrix: Critical Consciousness

Variable	Total Score
Degree of Involvement	.093
Frequency of Involvement	-.076
Enjoyment of Involvement	-.104
Duration of Involvement	.092
Global Community Involvement	-.079

*correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Hypothesis 1: Students actively involved in the community will report lower levels of psychological distress (i.e., depression, substance use, generalized anxiety, and hostility) than students less involved in the community.

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted in order to examine whether a statistically significant relationship exists between community involvement and psychological distress, controlling for race-related stress. Psychological distress was measured using the CCAPS-62 depression, generalized anxiety, substance use, hostility, and overall distress index subscale scores. Race-related stress, as reported through participants' global racism score obtained through the Index of Race Related Stress measure, served as one of the predictor variables. The other predictor was global community involvement, comprised of the sum of participants' reported community involvement scores, which included total involvement reported as well as the degree, duration, frequency, and enjoyment of involvement. Analyses were run by observing the effects of race-related stress and global community involvement on each of the aforementioned CCAPS-62 subscales. Tables 9-12 provides the results of the hierarchical multiple regression analyses with race-related stress and community involvement on each of the subscales measuring psychological functioning. Results of each analysis are presented and described below.

Depression. The CCAPS-62 depression subscale captured participants' feelings of isolation, worthlessness, lack of enjoyment and hope, sadness, and suicidal ideation. Additionally, it assessed for disassociation, lack of enthusiasm, unwanted thoughts, and tearfulness as it related to participants' reported experiences. Results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis indicated that the race-related stress and involvement predictors explained 1.7% of the variance in the depression subscale scores. When controlling for race-related stress, community involvement did not account for any increase in predictability of the dependent variable (i.e., depression subscale scores). The results indicated that neither model 1, F (1,123) = 2.113, $p > .05$ nor model 2, F (2, 122) = 1.064, $p > .05$ was statistically significant, thereby failing to reject the null hypothesis. These results suggest that within the present sample, global racism scores, produced by the Index of Race Related Stress and community involvement do not hold statistically significant predictive capacity to explain variances in participants' depression subscale scores. No further interpretations were made.

Generalized anxiety. The CCAPS-62 generalized anxiety subscale assessed for racing thoughts, sleep difficulties, nightmares/flashbacks, tension, racing heart, panic attacks, as well as fear of panic attacks. Findings of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis predicting generalized anxiety are presented in table 9. Results showed approximately 3.8% of the variability in the anxiety subscale scores could be explained by the race-related stress and involvement predictors. When controlling for race-related stress (i.e., global racism scores), involvement uniquely contributed an increase of .04% to the predictive capacity of the model. Results found model 1 statistically significant, F (1, 123) = 4.357, $p < .05$. However, results indicated model 2 was not statistically significant, F (2, 122) = 2.402, $p > .05$. Results obtained with the current sample suggest that global racism scores based on participants' perceived race-

related stress hold statistically significant predictive capacity to explain variability within participants' anxiety scores. Contrarily, the inclusion of community involvement as a predictor causes the model to become non-significant statistically. Beta weights and semi-partial correlations are presented below.

Table 9
Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of IRRS and Involvement on Anxiety

	Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*sr*	R^2	*p*
Model 1						.034	.039
	Global Racism	.052	.025	.185.	.185		
Model 2						.038	.095
	Global Racism	.054	.025	.192	.191		
	Global CI	-.003	.005	-.061	-.061		

Substance use. The CCAPS-62 substance abuse subscale assessed for excessive drug/alcohol use, enjoyment associated with being drunk, black-out symptoms due to alcohol use, and regrets due to events related to drinking. Analysis of the hierarchical multiple regression with substance use as the dependent variable revealed race-related stress and involvement predictors accounted for 12.4% of the variance. When controlling for race-related stress, involvement did not account for any change in predictability of the dependent variable (i.e., substance use scores). Results revealed model 1, F (1, 123) = 17.340, $p < .05$ as well as model 2, F (2, 122) = 8.611, $p < .05$ to be statistically significant, thus rejecting the null hypothesis. Results are presented in Table 10 along with beta weights and semi-partial correlations.

Table 10

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of IRRS and Involvement on Substance Use

	Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*sr*	R^2	*p*
Model 1						.124	.000
	Global Racism	.089	.021	.352	.352		
Model 2						.124	.000
	Global Racism	.089	.022	.350	.348		
	Global CI	.001	.004	.012	.012		

Hostility. The CCAPS-62 hostility subscale captured participants' level of difficulty controlling their temper, thoughts of hurting others, fear of acting out violently, and irritability. Additionally, it measured the frequency participants' reported getting into arguments, how easily they are angered, and their desire to break things due to feelings of anger. Table 11 presents the findings of this analysis. Results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis indicated that race-related stress and involvement predictors explained 7.7% of the variance in hostility subscale scores. Involvement predictors uniquely contributed a 0.7% increase in predictive capacity of the overall model. Results indicated model 1, F (1, 123) = 9.163, $p < .05$ as well as model 2, F (2, 122) = 5.057, $p < .05$ were statistically significant, thereby rejecting the null hypothesis. Beta weights and semi-partial correlations are presented below.

Table 11

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of IRRS and Involvement on Hostility

	Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*sr*	R^2	*p*
Model 1						.069	.003
	Global Racism	.064	.021	.263	.263		
Model 2						.077	.008
	Global Racism	.066	.021	.273	.271		
	Global CI	-.004	.004	-.086	-.085		

Distress index. The final CCAPS-62 subscale examined during analysis was the distress index. The distress index is comprised of various items from the depression, generalized anxiety, social anxiety, academic distress, and hostility subscales to provide an overall measure of general psychological distress. After examining the hierarchical multiple regression analysis, 4.4% of the variance in distress index scores was found to be accounted for by race-related stress. Involvement as a predictor contributed an additional 0.2% when added to the model, thus increasing the model's predictive capacity to 4.6%. Model 1 produced statistically significant results, $F (1, 123) = 5.692$, $p < .05$. Model 2 produced mixed results with p-values bordering statistical significance. Of the five imputations run by SPSS, only one resulted in a p-value less than .05 for model 2. The following results were obtained and reported for model 2, $F (2, 122) = 2.935$, $p > .05$. Results are highlighted in Table 12. Beta weights and semi-partial correlations are presented below.

Table 12
Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of IRRS and Involvement on Distress Index

	Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*Sr*	R^2	*p*
Model 1						.044	.019
	Global Racism	.052	.022	.210	.210		
Model 2						.046	.057
	Global Racism	.053	.022	.215	.214		
	Global CI	-.002	.004	-.041	-.041		

Hypothesis 2: Students actively involved in the community will report higher levels of academic success (i.e., self-reported cumulative grade point average) than students less involved in the community.

Using participants' self-reported grade point average, the second hypothesis explored the influence of community involvement on academic success, which was measured using

participants' reported cumulative grade point average. Pearson correlation analysis revealed a statistically significant positive relationship between reported cumulative grade point average and frequency of involvement in activities/organizations. Additionally, a statistically significant negative correlation was found between participants' reported grade point average and their academic distress subscale scores. A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to further examine the relationship between community involvement and academic success. As with the previous hypothesis, the sum of participants' reported involvement including degree, duration, frequency, and enjoyment of their involvement was used as a predictor to explore the impact of academic success as the dependent variable. Results of the analysis were not found to be statistically significant, $F(1, 123) = .145$, $p > .05$ for model 1 and $F(2, 122) = .334$, $p > .05$ for model 2. Only 0.5% of the variance in reported cumulative grade point average was due to race-related stress and involvement predictors. No further interpretations were made.

Hypothesis 3: Students who report higher levels of community involvement will hold a higher level of critical consciousness than students less involved in the community.

The third hypothesis sought to understand the influence of community involvement on critical consciousness in Black undergraduate students attending predominantly White Institutions. To examine the relationship between community involvement and critical consciousness, a hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis was used. Table 13 displays the results of the multiple regression analysis where overall critical consciousness served as the dependent variable, and race-related stress and community involvement as predictor variables. The overall critical consciousness score was obtained by summing participants' responses to each item on the Contemporary Critical Consciousness Measure to form an overall critical consciousness index. As with previous analyses, global racism scores were gathered by

summing and averaging the scores of each item within each subscale of the Index of Race Related Stress. The global racism score was achieved by weighting each subscale score and summing them. The global community involvement score was comprised of the sum of participants' reported involvement including degree, duration, frequency, and enjoyment of their involvement.

The results of this analysis were statistically significant for both model 1, F (1, 123) = 5.042, $p < .05$ as well as model 2, F (2, 122) = 3.203, $p < .05$. Results indicated that global racism scores accounted for 3.9% of the variance in overall critical consciousness scores. Additionally, findings revealed that global community involvement scores uniquely contributed 1.1% when added to the model, making for five percent predictive capacity of the overall model when predicting critical consciousness scores.

Table 13
Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of IRRS and Involvement on Critical Consciousness

	Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*sr*	R^2	*p*
Model 1						.039	.027
	Global Racism	.791	.352	.198	.198		
Model 2						.050	.044
	Global Racism	.838	.354	.210	.209		
	Global CI	-.075	.065	-.103	-.102		

Hypothesis 4: Community involvement is predicted to serve as a moderator between perceived racism and psychological functioning. Students who are involved in the community and report a high level of perceived racism will have lower levels of psychological distress than students who report a high level of perceived racism but are not actively engaged in the community.

The final hypothesis asserted that the strength of the relationship between perceived racism and psychological functioning would be influenced by community involvement. To test for the moderating influence of community involvement, a moderator variable was created by multiplying the perceived racism (i.e., global racism) variable by the global community involvement variable. A multiple regression analysis was then run in order to explore the influence of perceived racism on each of the psychological functioning measures, with the moderator variable. The analysis revealed variation regarding statistical significance. Community involvement was not found to have a moderating influence on psychological functioning for depression and anxiety subscale scores. For the depression subscale, the regression analysis revealed the following, F (1, 123) = 2.113, p >.05 for model 1, F (2, 122) = 2.402, p > .05 for model 2, and F (3, 121) = .930, p > .05 for model 3. Similarly, the generalized anxiety subscale results reported, F (1, 123) = 4.357 p < .05 for model 1, F (2, 122) = 2.402, p > .05 for model 2, and F (3, 121) = 1.772, p >.05 for model 3. Analysis of the moderating influence of community involvement with distress index scores as the dependent variable was found to be statistically significant, producing the following results: F (1, 123) = 5.692, p < .05, F (2, 122) = 2.935, p > .05 and F (3, 121) = 2.761, p < .05. The moderating influence of community involvement on hostility as the dependent variable was also statistically significant, F (1, 123) = 9.163, p < .05, F (2, 122) = 5.057, p < .05, and F (3, 121) = 4.909, p < .05. Lastly, the results of the moderating influence of community involvement on substance use was found to be statistically significant, F (1, 123) = 17.340, p < .05, F (2, 122) = 8.611, p < .05, and F (3, 121) = 5.955, p < .05. Tables 14-16 displays the results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for the distress index, hostility subscale, and substance use subscale.

Table 14

Moderator Analysis of Perceived Racism and Involvement on Psychological Functioning (Distress Index)

	Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*sr*	R^2	*p*
Model 1						.044	.019
	Global Racism	.052	.022	.210	.210		
Model 2						.046	.057
	Global Racism	.053	.022	.215	.214		
	Global CI	-.002	.004	-.041	-.041		
Model 3						.064	.045
	Global Racism	-.012	.048	-.051	-.023		
	Global CI	-.002	.004	-.037	-.037		
	Global Racism x Global CI (moderator)	.002	.001	.298	.135		

Table 15

Moderator Analysis of Perceived Racism and Involvement on Psychological Functioning (Hostility)

	Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*sr*	R^2	*p*
Model 1						.069	.003
	Global Racism	.064	.021	.263	.263		
Model 2						.077	.008
	Global Racism	.066	.021	.273	.271		
	Global CI	-.004	.004	-.086	-.085		
Model 3						.109	.003
	Global Racism	-.019	.046	-.080	-.036		
	Global CI	-.004	.004	-.080	-.079		
	Global Racism x Global CI (moderator)	.002	.001	.395	.179		

Table 16

Moderator Analysis of Perceived Racism and Involvement on Psychological Functioning (Substance Use)

	Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*sr*	R^2	*p*
Model 1						.124	.00
	Global Racism	.089	.021	.352	.352		
Model 2						.124	.000
	Global Racism	.089	.022	.350	.348		
	Global CI	.001	.004	.012	.012		
Model 3						.129	.001
	Global Racism	.053	.048	.211	.095		
	Global CI	.001	.004	.014	.014		
	Global Racism x Global CI (moderator)	.001	.001	.156	.070		

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between community involvement on psychological functioning, academic success, and critical consciousness in Black undergraduate students enrolled at predominantly White institutions. Overall, four hypotheses were tested, with one hypothesis consisting of five subcomponents. This section provides a comprehensive discussion of the findings gathered through the study. Additionally, limitations of the study, implications for practice, and directions for future research are explored and discussed.

The first hypothesis examined community involvement on psychological functioning which was measured using the CCAPS-62 depression, generalized anxiety, substance use, hostility, and distress index subscales. Separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses were run for each of the different subscales listed. Findings from hypothesis one revealed varying statistical significance. Community involvement was found to be a statistically significant predictor of substance use and hostility scores in Black undergraduate students attending PWIs. When examining the relationship between reported generalized anxiety and community involvement, findings showed that while race-related stress served as a statistically significant predictor, community involvement did not. Inclusion of community involvement as a predictor resulted in the entire model no longer being statistically significant. Similarly, the analysis of community involvement on the distress index revealed results bordering statistical significance when added to the model. Findings from the remaining depression subscale showed that neither race-related stress nor community involvement served as a statistically significant predictor of depression subscale scores.

The second hypothesis tested whether community involvement influenced academic success, which was measured using participants' self-reported cumulative undergraduate grade point average. Findings of this analysis were not found to be statistically significant, thereby failing to reject the null hypothesis which proposed that community involvement serves as a predictor of Black undergraduates' academic success (i.e., cumulative grade point averages). The third hypothesis looked at the influence of community involvement on critical consciousness, revealing community involvement serves as a statistically significant predictor of Black undergraduates' level of critical consciousness. Similar to the first hypothesis, the fourth hypothesis revealed varying results. Though community involvement was not found to be a moderating variable for perceived racism on depression and anxiety scores, it was significant for substance use, hostility, and distress index scores. Following is a detailed discussion of the findings.

Psychological Functioning

Astin's Theory of Student Involvement (1984), emphasized the influence of student involvement on student development. Involvement, as Astin conceptualized, was the amount of physical and psychological energy devoted by a student to an experience. The assumption guiding this theory was that students who put more energy into various activities are likely to have more positive outcomes than their peers, with involvement in student organizations being a component of this. This theory as well as previous studies that have supported this notion (Astin, 1984; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Ting et al., 2016) would suggest that findings from the present study may indicate a significant relationship between reported community involvement and psychological functioning. Many of the participant scores reported on the CCAPS-62 indicated lower levels of distress. The present study found that while community involvement

did not serve as a predictor for participants' depression and anxiety scores, it did have significant predictive capacity for participants' hostility scores. Findings predict that as global community involvement scores increase by 1 standard deviation, hostility scores decrease by .086. Although community involvement was not found to add a unique contribution to substance use scores, its inclusion in the regression model was statistically significant. Evidence suggests that as global community involvement scores increase by 1 standard deviation, substance use scores increase by .012. This suggests a potential positive relationship exists between substance use and involvement, whereby those who report more involvement also report more distress/concern associated with their substance use. Although this study hypothesized a negative correlational relationship between involvement and substance use, the significant findings of a positive relationship are noteworthy. The results of this study support the findings of previous research that show increased substance use amongst students who report involvement in activities such as sports and fraternities/sororities (Leichliter, Meilman, Presley, & Cashin, 1998; Rockafellow & Saules, 2006; Welsh, Shentu, & Sarvey).

While correlational findings proved not to be statistically significant, results highlighted patterns that may provide insight to inform the direction for future research. Scores on the depression subscale moved in a negative direction when examining the correlations between duration of involvement, degree of involvement, and frequency of involvement. Meaning as duration, degree, and frequency of involvement increased, depressive symptoms decreased. Scores related to generalized anxiety distress decreased as degree and duration of involvement increased. However, as the frequency of involvement increased, reports of anxiety increased as well. Hostility scores decreased as degree, frequency, and enjoyment of involvement increased. Reports of substance use concerns decreased as degree, frequency, duration and enjoyment of

involvement increased. Lastly, scores on the overall distress index decreased as degree, frequency, and duration of involvement increased.

Academic Success

Similar to psychological functioning, it was predicted that community involvement would influence academic success. It was predicted that students who reported involvement would also indicate higher cumulative undergraduate grade point averages than their peers who reported little to no involvement. However, the findings from this study were unable to identify an overall significant relationship between community involvement and reported grade point average. These findings are consistent with previous research that found minimal to no academic gains through student involvement in extracurricular activities. In a study investigating the influence of student involvement experiences on educational outcomes for Black college students, Flowers (2004) reported results that coincide with the findings from the present study. Although several student involvement experiences impacted the educational outcome measure, when combined the student involvement experiences failed to offer significant influence on academic gains for Black students (Flowers, 2004). Specifically, Flowers (2004) gathered that though trivial and nonsignificant in some cases, forms of involvement such as library experiences and course learning experiences served as a bigger proponent for academic development than student participation in clubs and organizations.

Analysis of the data revealed that majority of the individuals who participated in the present study were academically mid to high functioning as indicated through their self-report. Participants' reported cumulative undergraduate grade point averages ranged from 1.92 to 4.0 with a mean of 3.1, median of 3.2, and a mode of 3.2. Through further examination of the findings, a significant negative correlation was found between reported cumulative grade point

average and reported academic distress according to the CCAPS-62 academic distress subscale. These findings indicate that students who reported higher cumulative grade point averages also reported experiencing less academic distress. Per contra, students who reported experiencing greater levels of academic distress were more likely to report lower cumulative grade point averages. Additionally, a significant positive correlation was found between frequency of involvement and reported cumulative undergraduate grade point average. This suggests that students who reported participating in community activities/organizations more often also reported higher grade point averages.

As with psychological functioning, there were trends highlighted in this study that may be useful to inform future studies. Though most of the correlational values were not found to be statistically significant, noteworthy patterns were identified in the findings. The direction of the correlation between involvement and grade point average was positive in terms of degree, enjoyment, frequency, and overall global involvement scores. As those components of involvement increased, higher reported grade point averages were also seen. However, the opposite was seen in relation to duration of involvement. As duration increased, reported cumulative undergraduate grade point averages appeared to decrease.

Critical Consciousness

Critical consciousness has been a concept associated with resiliency, whether seen as a component of resiliency itself or as serving as a precursor to resiliency in marginalized populations (Goodman & West-Olatunji, 2009; Gutierrez & Lewis, 1999; McGirr & Sullivan, 2017). Noted advantages fostered through critical consciousness include school and extracurricular engagement, increased problem-solving, greater sense of sociopolitical empowerment, and an increased ability to respond to injustice. This study sought to explore

factors that contribute to the development of critical consciousness, in an effort to gain more understanding of the factors and conditions that promote resilience in Black undergraduates. This study proposed that community involvement may serve as a conduit for critical consciousness in Black undergraduates enrolled at PWIs. While results were found to be statistically significant, findings highlighted a negative relationship between community involvement and participants' critical consciousness scores. Participants' scores on the Contemporary Critical Consciousness Measure decreased as they reported more involvement.

Though the correlation matrix did not produce statistically significant results, they did reveal patterns in the data associated with the relationship between community involvement and critical consciousness. Whereas the data showed a positive trend between critical consciousness and degree and duration of involvement, a negative trend was observed between critical consciousness and frequency, enjoyment, and the global involvement score. These patterns suggest that global critical consciousness scores may increase, or move in a positive direction, when degree and duration of involvement increase. They also suggest that as enjoyment and frequency of involvement increase, global critical consciousness scores may decrease.

Perceived Racism

Previous literature has discussed the influence of racism and discrimination on the psychological functioning of Black college students, often highlighting challenges and symptoms related to concerns such as depression and anxiety (Fan et al., 2012; Lee, 2005; Liao et al., 2016; Neville et al., 2004). Coinciding with findings presented in prior research, this study identified a significant relationship between race-related stress and psychological functioning. Statistically significant positive correlations were found between participants' global racism scores and their reported anxiety, hostility, substance use, and distress index subscale scores. This suggests that

participants who reported higher levels of perceived racism also reported higher levels of generalized anxiety, hostility, substance use, and overall distress. When examining scores associated with perceived racism, participant scores ranged from 0 to 27 for the collective racism subscale out of a possible 32; the most common score being 0. For the individual racism subscale, scores ranged from 0 to 44 out a possible 44; a score of 26 appeared most often. Scores fell between 0 and 41 out of a possible 44 for the institutional racism subscale; scores of 13, 16 and 20 were most frequently reported (frequency = 8). The cultural racism subscale was found to hold items where participants reported the most perceived racism. Scores on this subscale fell between 10 and 64, with 64 being the score most frequently seen in participant responses. Despite the harmful effects of perceived racism reported through this study and previous research, findings revealed that community involvement can in fact serve to moderate the relationship between experiences of perceived racism and the associated negative psychological effects. In fact, for hostility and overall distress index, the interaction (i.e., the moderating variable) between involvement and perceived racism was found to have the greatest predictive capacity in the model.

Limitations

As with all research, this study has limitations. One limitation of the present study pertains to the use of a convenience sample. Although participants were recruited from multiple universities within the Midwest and South-Central regions of the U.S., universities were selected based on the researcher's ability to gain access to the students who were enrolled. As a result, this likely led to the over-representation and under-representation of particular groups/universities within the sample. Self-selection bias is another concern regarding the current study. Due to the voluntary nature of participant involvement in this study, it is plausible

that participants' decision to participate may be correlated with traits that affect the study. Self-selection bias would suggest that students who are more involved and who are more prone to engage in various forms of involvement may be more likely to complete the study than their less involved counterparts. This would explain why almost 93% of the current sample reported some form of involvement within the last five years. The minimal amount of non-involved participants represented in the present sample removes a key piece of this puzzle, and prevents a comprehensive analysis of this phenomenon. Similarly, self-selection bias might suggest that students with higher academic functioning (i.e., higher cumulative undergraduate grade point averages) may be more likely to participate in and complete the study than lower performing students resulting in the lack of representation of students with lower cumulative grade point averages.

Another limitation pertains to the self-report nature in which data was collected. There are many common concerns that emerge when utilizing self-report measures which contribute to the limitations of the present study. The first concern is in regards to impression management, and bias caused by participants' desire to respond in a way they deem to be socially desirable. The desire to appear favorable may have impacted participants' responses regarding their cumulative grade point average and current psychological functioning. Additionally, positive impression management may have impacted participants' responses in the critical consciousness measure in an effort to respond in a socially desirable manner. Another concern resulting from the self-report method is that responses may vary between participants due to differences in understanding or interpreting particular questions. Variances in interpretations could also lead participants to conceptualize items differently than what was intended by the researcher.

Similarly, self-reporting community involvement creates subjectivity within responses that may have altered the findings of the results due to lack of consistency in reporting.

The methodology used, particularly the inclusion of the Index of Race Related Stress measure, also presents a limitation for this study. While the IRRS has proven to be a valid scale to measure the perceived race-related stress experienced by Black individuals in their daily lives, it is plausible that some items in this measure may be outdated and therefore inapplicable to the current population being studied. While most of the items remain relevant in present times, some items may be regionally relevant, whereby they focus on concerns such as difficulty "*hailing a cab*". Other items such as "*you have been asked to pay in advance for goods/services that are usually paid for after a person receives them; you suspect it was because you are Black*" may not be relevant for the majority of current undergraduate students. Thus, applicability may have impacted participants' report of race-related stress.

Concerns regarding the use of the Counseling Center Assessment of Psychological Symptoms (CCAPS-62) measure also arose. The data showed low to moderate levels of psychological distress reported by participants. The CCAPS-62 was designed to assess psychological functioning within the last two weeks prior to taking the assessment. As a result, reported distress is reduced to 'recent' experiences of distress. Situational and environmental shifts within a students' life could impact their recent feelings of distress which may or may not be indicative of their overall mood or functioning.

Implications for Practice

Despite the limitations discussed, the current study offers many implications for higher education curricula and individuals working with Black undergraduate students. Many higher education initiatives have focused on improving the academic success and retention of Black

undergraduate students specifically at predominantly White institutions (Sedlacek, 1999; Strayhorn, 2009). It is first important to recognize the unique challenges that Black students face as compared to their White counterparts. Racism and discrimination towards the Black community often lead students to feel isolated and contribute to the increase of many psychological conditions such as depression and anxiety (Bourke, 2010; Pieterse et al., 2012; Strayhorn, 2011; Turner, 1994). Often times little attention is given to the impact of the Black experience on predominantly White campuses. Faculty and administration often take a color-blind approach to working with students which serves to invalidate the unique experiences and challenges faced by Black students (Cheatham & Berg-Cross, 1992; Sedlacek & Brooks, 1976). The literature emphasizes the pervasiveness of race-related stress experienced by many Black students enrolled at PWIs. This presents a valid case for the training of higher education faculty and administration in culturally sensitive approaches to working with students of color. By increasing awareness of the challenges faced by Black students, and providing education as to how to best support these students, institutions can foster a more supportive environment to promote the success of Black students.

This study provides evidence of the benefits of community involvement on feelings of hostility in Black undergraduate students. Trends within the data suggest that levels of community involvement may benefit Black undergraduates in regards to academic success, and overall distress. Additionally, findings support the notion that involvement serves to moderate the relationship between perceived racism and aspects of psychological functioning. As a result, additions within university curricula and initiatives to include student involvement in the campus community, their racial/ethnic community, and/or the community at large should be of consideration. Additionally, cultural spaces designed for Black students to connect with one

another over shared experiences and challenges faced on predominantly White campuses may serve to foster a sense of community and belonging in an environment that may otherwise feel isolating and othering (Brooks et al., 2013; Guiffrida, 2005; Quaye et al., 2015). Attention should be given to the role of community involvement in the increase of substance use based on findings presented in this study.

Results gathered through this study showed community involvement serves as a predictor of critical consciousness, the benefits of which has been noted throughout the literature. Universities and higher education institutions may benefit from fostering the development of critical consciousness among Black students in order to aid them in not only withstanding but disrupting the negative impacts of societal marginalization and oppression. This might include encouraging behaviors and attitudes related to critical consciousness to help empower Black students to create changes when necessary for the advancement of their development, success, and overall functioning while at PWIs.

Implications for Teaching

In addition to the implications for practice detailed above, the findings from this study offer specific implications for teaching. Previous research has detailed the significance of positive faculty-student interactions on the overall functioning of college students' development and success (Astin, 1984; Flowers, 2004). Despite these findings, Black students report far less of these experiences and often report negative faculty interactions instead. Increasing positive faculty-student interactions with Black students may serve to improve the reported experiences of Black students at PWIs, increase retention, and foster improved functioning and success.

Based on the findings from this study, university faculty and professors can assist the overall functioning of their Black students by emphasizing the importance of campus and

community involvement. This may include the integration of co-curricular activities that supplement course objectives. Additionally, the integration of multicultural education into course curriculum as well as opportunities for students to engage in self-reflection may serve to increase critical consciousness in Black undergraduates.

Directions for Future Research

Despite findings presented from this study, much remains to be explored regarding protective factors aiding Black undergraduate students at predominantly White institutions. The findings of this study support the need for ongoing exploration in this area as well as provide directions and suggestions for future research. To better understand the influence of community involvement, it is suggested that a similar study be designed addressing the limitations of the current study. Attention to generalizability should be given by increasing the sample size and acquiring a representative sample of students from universities across the U.S. Additionally, the use of self-report measures should be minimized by utilizing grade point averages provided through the universities, as well as a more uniform method of assessing community involvement. This may include more specific parameters around what constitutes involvement, restrictions around the length of time since participants' last active involvement, and perhaps a validated scale to measure community involvement. Students do not enter college campuses as blank slates. Therefore, participants' background may impact their perception of involvement. Obtaining additional background information such as demographic makeup of participants' hometown and school may serve to provide additional insight regarding participants' conceptualization of community involvement. It is important to note that future research should also seek to use measurement tools that are more up-to-date with the current zeitgeist and relevant to the sample population.

Limited knowledge exists regarding community involvement as a protective factor for Black college students. Thus, further information is required in order to draw additional conclusions regarding the impact of community involvement as well as critical consciousness on the academic success and psychological functioning of Black college students. Future research may benefit from a qualitative analysis of community involvement in Black undergraduates. In doing so, researchers can seek to understand what aspects of involvement lead to positive or negative outcomes in this population. Components such as sense of belonging, altruism, racial/ethnic makeup of activities/organization, and other common themes may be explored. Additionally, examination of the impact of frequency, duration, degree, and enjoyment of involvement on academic success and psychological functioning is necessary. Further exploration of these areas would serve to offer clarity regarding how and to what extent community involvement serves as a protective factor or hinders overall success and well-being.

Lastly, future research may include a longitudinal study designed to examine and assess the impact of community involvement on academic success and psychological functioning as it relates to Black undergraduate students throughout their academic career. This would serve to provide greater insight as to how the impact of involvement changes or persists over time. A longitudinal study would offer a more comprehensive overview as to the relationship between community involvement and student outcomes as students and their environments change and evolve.

Conclusion

This study sought to examine the relationship between community involvement on psychological functioning, academic success, and critical consciousness. Overall, the findings of this study contribute to current literature and knowledge regarding student involvement and

protective factors aiding Black undergraduate students. Specifically, results gathered from this study offer insight into student functioning and factors that may promote overall well-being for Black undergraduates attending predominantly White institutions. It is important to highlight that this study focused specifically on Black undergraduates attending PWIs. Data sampling Black undergraduates at HBCUs would likely produce different results.

Although community involvement was not found to be a predictor in levels of reported depression and anxiety, its effect on reported levels of hostility and substance use were significant. Community involvement's effect on overall reported distress was moderately significant, which provides rationale for additional examination. Results indicate that community involvement serves to moderate the relationship between perceived racism and psychological functioning (i.e., hostility, substance use, and overall distress). Though significant results were not seen when assessing the influence of community involvement as a predictor of cumulative grade point average, findings suggest a significant relationship exists between the frequency students are involved, and their reported grade point average. The present study also serves to contribute to the growing body of literature emerging regarding critical consciousness. Findings showed that community involvement served as a significant predictor of critical consciousness.

The results of this study highlight prominent themes that present a case for continued research in this area. Despite endorsement of experiences of perceived racism, participants reported lower levels of psychological distress and higher levels of academic functioning. This may in part be due to inherent cultural resilience, various environmental factors, or protective factors relevant to this population. The data presented here highlights a trend that suggest a potential negative relationship in regards to the interaction between many components of

involvement and psychological distress. Another observed trend within the study suggests a possible positive relationship between components of involvement and academic success. Future research can build upon the information gathered through this study in order to contribute to the breadth of knowledge regarding Black undergraduate student development. This study suggests that there may be components of community involvement that serve to benefit Black undergraduate students. However, additional exploration regarding involvement and Black student development remains necessary.

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Appendix A

Human Institutional Review Board Letter of Approval

Appendix A: Human Institutional Review Board Letter of Approval

Institutional Review Board
FWA00007042
IRB00000254

Date: April 10, 2018

To: Joseph Morris, Principal Investigator
Shelee-Ann Flemmings, Student Investigator for dissertation

From: Daryle Gardner-Bonneau, Ph.D., Vice Cha Daryle J. Gardner-Bonneau

Re: HSIRB Project Number 18-04-04

This letter will serve as confirmation that your research project titled "Community Involvement as a Protective Factor in Black College Students at Predominantly 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: This research may **only** be conducted exactly in the form it was approved. You must seek specific board approval for any changes in this project (e.g., ***you must request a post approval change to enroll subjects beyond the number stated in your application under "Number of subjects you want to complete the study***)." Failure to obtain approval for changes will result in a protocol deviation. 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.

Reapproval of the project is required if it extends beyond the termination date stated below.

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

Approval Termination: **April 9, 2019**

Office of the Vice President for Research
Research Compliance Office
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Appendix B

Demographic Questionnaire

Appendix B: Demographic Questionnaire

Community Involvement as a Protective Factor in Black Undergraduate College Students at Predominantly White Institutions Demographic Questionnaire

1. What is your age?
2. What is your gender
    - Man
    - Woman
    - Transgender
    - Other (please specify)
3. Are you currently enrolled at a college/university?
    - Yes
    - No
4. What is your current enrollment status?
    - Full-time
    - Part-time
    - Other (please specify)
5. Indicate your ethnic background?
    - African
    - African American
    - West Indian/Caribbean
    - Hispanic Black
    - Multi-racial
    - Black
    - Other (please specify)
6. Citizenship
    - US citizen
    - Permanent Resident of the US
    - Other (please specify)
7. If you were not born in the US. Please indicate the following:
    - Country of birth
    - Country of citizenship
    - Native Language
    - Length of time in the US
8. What is your current classification?
    - Freshman
    - Sophomore
    - Junior
    - Senior
    - 5^{th} year +
    - Other (please specify)

9. What is your current cumulative grade point average?
10. What is your academic major?
11. Are you currently enrolled involved in any community activities/organizations?
    - Yes
    - No
12. Have you been involved in community activities/organization with the last…(check all that apply)
    - 3months
    - 6months
    - 1year
    - 1-3 years
    - 3-5 years
    - I have not been involved in any community activities/organizations
13. What is the general nature of the activities/organizations you are involved in? (check all that apply). If you have not been engaged in any community activities/organizations please move to the next section.
    - Church/Religious Organization
    - Sorority/Fraternity
    - Volunteer/Service/Philanthropy
    - Sports team
    - Neighborhood/community group
    - Social club/interest group
    - Awareness/Advocacy club
    - Cultural or racial organization
    - Other (please specify)
    - n/a
14. List and rank the activities/organizations in which you're involved in order of your level/degree of involvement (activities/organizations that have a larger time commitment or that you engage in more frequently should be ranked higher)
15. To what degree are you involved in the first activity/organization you ranked?
    - Very involved
    - Somewhat involved
    - Not very involved
    - Not involved at all
16. How often do you engage in the first activity you ranked?
    - Daily
    - Once a week
    - Multiple time a week
    - Biweekly
    - Monthly
    - Other (please specify)
17. How enjoyable do you find the first activity you ranked?
    - Very Enjoyable

- Enjoyable
- Neutral
- Unenjoyable
- Very unenjoyable

18. To what degree are you involved in the second activity/organization you ranked?
    - Very involved
    - Somewhat involved
    - Not very involved
    - Not involved at all
19. How often do you engage in the second activity you ranked?
    - Daily
    - Once a week
    - Multiple time a week
    - Biweekly
    - Monthly
    - Other (please specify)
20. How enjoyable do you find the second activity you ranked?
    - Very Enjoyable
    - Enjoyable
    - Neutral
    - Unenjoyable
    - Very unenjoyable
21. To what degree are you involved in the third activity/organization you ranked?
    - Very involved
    - Somewhat involved
    - Not very involved
    - Not involved at all
22. How often do you engage in the third activity you ranked?
    - Daily
    - Once a week
    - Multiple time a week
    - Biweekly
    - Monthly
    - Other (please specify)
23. How enjoyable do you find the third activity you ranked?
    - Very Enjoyable
    - Enjoyable
    - Neutral
    - Unenjoyable
    - Very unenjoyable
24. To what degree are you involved in the fourth activity/organization you ranked?
    - Very involved
    - Somewhat involved

- Not very involved
- Not involved at all

25. How often do you engage in the fourth activity you ranked?
    - Daily
    - Once a week
    - Multiple time a week
    - Biweekly
    - Monthly
    - Other (please specify)
26. How enjoyable do you find the fourth activity you ranked?
    - Very Enjoyable
    - Enjoyable
    - Neutral
    - Unenjoyable
    - Very unenjoyable
27. To what degree are you involved in the fifth activity/organization you ranked?
    - Very involved
    - Somewhat involved
    - Not very involved
    - Not involved at all
28. How often do you engage in the fifth activity you ranked?
    - Daily
    - Once a week
    - Multiple time a week
    - Biweekly
    - Monthly
    - Other (please specify)
29. How enjoyable do you find the fifth activity you ranked?
    - Very Enjoyable
    - Enjoyable
    - Neutral
    - Unenjoyable
    - Very unenjoyable

Appendix C

Index of Race Related Stress (IRRS) Scale

Appendix C: Index of Race Related Stress (IRRS) Scale

Index of Race-Related Stress
Version Attached: Full Test

PsycTESTS Citation:
Utsey, S. O., & Ponterotto, J. G. (1996). Index of Race-Related Stress [Database record]. Retrieved from PsycTESTS. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t03869-000

Instrument Type:
Index/Indicator

Test Format:
Forty-six item measure; responses are recorded on a 5-point Likert score (0 = This has never happened to me; 1 = This event happened, but did not bother me; 2 = This event happened and I was slightly upset; 3 = This event happened and I was upset; 4 = This event happened and I was extremely upset).

Source:
Utsey, Shawn O., & Ponterotto, Joseph G. (1996). Development and validation of the Index of Race-Related Stress (IRRS). Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol 43(4), 490-501. doi: 10.1037/0022-0167.43.4.490

PsycTESTS

doi: 10.1037/t03869-000

Index of Race-Related Stress
IRRS

Items

2. 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.

3. You notice that when a Black person is killed by a White mob or policeman no one is sent to jail.

8. 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.

13. 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.

15. You seldom hear or read anything positive about Black people on radio, TV, newspapers, or in history books.

21. You have observed a double standard in the way the law or other systems of government (court, media, disciplinary committees, etc.) work (or don't work) when dealing with Blacks as opposed to Whites/non-Blacks.

23. White/non-Black people have been apologetic about the Japanese internment, Jewish holocaust, and other violations of human rights, but would prefer to forget about slavery, Jim Crowism, and other abuses of Black people.

29. You have observed the police treat White/non-Blacks with more respect and dignity than they do Blacks.

31. You have noticed that the public services are inadequate or nonexistent in Black communities (police, sanitation, street repairs, etc.).

34. You have heard Blacks constantly being compared with other immigrants and minorities in terms of what they have not achieved, in spite of having been in the U.S. for so much longer than the other groups.

35. You have observed situations where other Blacks were treated harshly or unfairly by Whites/non-Blacks because of their race.

37. 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.

PsycTESTS

doi: 10.1037/t03869-000

Index of Race-Related Stress
IRRS

Items

40. You notice 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.

42. You have heard it suggested that Black men have an uncontrollable desire to possess a White woman.

43. You have heard racist remarks or comments about Black people spoken with impunity by White public officials or other influential White people.

44. 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.

12. You did not receive a promotion you deserved; you suspect it was because you are Black.

18. White people have expected you to denounce or reject the views or remarks of controversial Black leaders.

19. You did not get the job you applied for although you were well qualified; you suspect because you are Black.

20. You were refused an apartment or other housing; you suspect it was because you are Black.

26. You were passed over for an important project although you were more qualified and competent than the White/non-Black person given the task.

32. 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.

38. You have held back angry or hostile feelings in the presence of White/non-Black people for fear they would've accused you of having a "chip" on your shoulder.

39. You have been asked to pay in advance for goods/services that are usually paid for after a person receives them; you suspect it was because you are Black.

41. You have been given more work or the most undesirable jobs at your place of employment, whereas the White/non-Black of equal or less seniority and credentials is given less work and more desirable tasks.

PsycTESTS

doi: 10.1037/t03869-000

Index of Race-Related Stress
IRRS

Items

45. When you have interacted with Whites/non-Blacks, you anticipated them saying or doing something racist either intentionally or unintentionally.

46. You have discovered that the White/non-Black person employed in the same capacity as you with equal or less qualifications is paid a higher salary.

1. You have been in a restaurant or other White/non-Black establishment where everyone was waited on before you.

4. You have been followed by security (or employees) while shopping in some stores.

5. 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.

6. White people or other non-Blacks have treated you as if you were unintelligent and needed things explained to you slowly or numerous times.

9. Whites/non-Blacks have failed to apologize for stepping on your foot or bumping into you.

17. Although waiting in line first, you were assisted after the White/non-Black person behind you.

22. While shopping at a store, the sales clerk assumed that you couldn't afford certain items (i.e., you were directed toward the items on sale).

24. You were treated with less respect and courtesy than Whites and other non-Blacks while in a store, restaurant, or other business establishment.

27. 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.

30. White/non-Black people have mistaken you for a salesperson, waiter, or other service help when you were actually a customer.

33. 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.

7. You have been questioned about your presence in a White neighborhood for no apparent reason.

PsycTESTS™

doi: 10.1037/t03869-000

Index of Race-Related Stress
IRRS

Items

10. You have been threatened with physical violence by an individual or group of Whites/non-Blacks.

11. You were physically attacked by an individual or group of White/non-Blacks.

14. You have had trouble getting a cab to go certain places or even stop for you.

16. While on public transportation or in public places, White people/non-Blacks have opted to stand up rather than sit next to you.

25. You were the victim of a crime and the police treated you as if you should just accept it as part of being Black.

28. You called the police for assistance and when they arrived they treated you like a criminal.

36. You have attempted to hail a cab, but they refused to stop, you think because you are Black.

Note. Responses are recorded on a 5-point Likert scale (0 = This has never happened to me; 1 = This event happened, but did not bother me; 2 = This event happened and I was slightly upset; 3 = This event happened and I was upset; 4 = This event happened and I was extremely upset).

Appendix D

College Counseling Assessment of Psychological Symptoms-62 (CCAPS-62) Scale

Appendix D: College Counseling Assessment of Psychological Symptoms-62 (CCAPS-62) Scale

Counseling Center Assessment of Psychological Symptoms — CCAPS-62

INSTRUCTIONS: The following statements describe thoughts, feelings, and experiences that people may have. Please indicate how well each statement describes you, **during the past two weeks**, from "not at all like me" (0) to "extremely like me" (4), by marking the correct number. Read each statement carefully, select only one answer per statement, and please do not skip any questions.

	Not at all like me				Extremely like me
1. I get sad or angry when I think of my family	0	1	2	3	4
2. I am shy around others	0	1	2	3	4
3. There are many things I am afraid of	0	1	2	3	4
4. My heart races for no good reason	0	1	2	3	4
5. I feel out of control when I eat	0	1	2	3	4
6. I enjoy my classes	0	1	2	3	4
7. I feel that my family loves me	0	1	2	3	4
8. I feel disconnected from myself	0	1	2	3	4
9. I don't enjoy being around people as much as I used to	0	1	2	3	4
10. I feel isolated and alone	0	1	2	3	4
11. My family gets on my nerves	0	1	2	3	4
12. I lose touch with reality	0	1	2	3	4
13. I think about food more than I would like to	0	1	2	3	4
14. I am anxious that I might have a panic attack while in public	0	1	2	3	4
15. I feel confident that I can succeed academically	0	1	2	3	4
16. I become anxious when I have to speak in front of audiences	0	1	2	3	4
17. I have sleep difficulties	0	1	2	3	4
18. My thoughts are racing	0	1	2	3	4
19. I am satisfied with my body shape	0	1	2	3	4
20. I feel worthless	0	1	2	3	4
21. My family is basically a happy one	0	1	2	3	4
22. I am dissatisfied with my weight	0	1	2	3	4
23. I feel helpless	0	1	2	3	4
24. I use drugs more than I should	0	1	2	3	4
25. I eat too much	0	1	2	3	4
26. I drink alcohol frequently	0	1	2	3	4
27. I have spells of terror or panic	0	1	2	3	4
28. I am enthusiastic about life	0	1	2	3	4
29. When I drink alcohol I can't remember what happened	0	1	2	3	4
30. I feel tense	0	1	2	3	4
31. When I start eating I can't stop	0	1	2	3	4
32. I have difficulty controlling my temper	0	1	2	3	4
33. I am easily frightened or startled	0	1	2	3	4

Appendix D: College Counseling Assessment of Psychological Symptoms-62 (CCAPS-62) Scale

Counseling Center Assessment of Psychological Symptoms — CCAPS-62

	Not at all like me				Extremely like me
34. I diet frequently	0	1	2	3	4
35. I make friends easily	0	1	2	3	4
36. I sometimes feel like breaking or smashing things	0	1	2	3	4
37. I have unwanted thoughts I can't control	0	1	2	3	4
38. There is a history of abuse in my family	0	1	2	3	4
39. I experience nightmares or flashbacks	0	1	2	3	4
40. I feel sad all the time	0	1	2	3	4
41. I am concerned that other people do not like me	0	1	2	3	4
42. I wish my family got along better	0	1	2	3	4
43. I get angry easily	0	1	2	3	4
44. I feel uncomfortable around people I don't know	0	1	2	3	4
45. I feel irritable	0	1	2	3	4
46. I have thoughts of ending my life	0	1	2	3	4
47. I feel self conscious around others	0	1	2	3	4
48. I purge to control my weight	0	1	2	3	4
49. I drink more than I should	0	1	2	3	4
50. I enjoy getting drunk	0	1	2	3	4
51. I am not able to concentrate as well as usual	0	1	2	3	4
52. I am afraid I may lose control and act violently	0	1	2	3	4
53. It's hard to stay motivated for my classes	0	1	2	3	4
54. I feel comfortable around other people	0	1	2	3	4
55. I like myself	0	1	2	3	4
56. I have done something I have regretted because of drinking	0	1	2	3	4
57. I frequently get into arguments	0	1	2	3	4
58. I find that I cry frequently	0	1	2	3	4
59. I am unable to keep up with my schoolwork	0	1	2	3	4
60. I have thoughts of hurting others	0	1	2	3	4
61. The less I eat, the better I feel about myself	0	1	2	3	4
62. I feel that I have no one who understands me	0	1	2	3	4

Appendix E

Contemporary Critical Consciousness Measure (CCCM) Scale

Appendix E: Contemporary Critical Consciousness Measure (CCCM) Scale

Contemporary Critical Consciousness Measure
Version Attached: Full Test

PsycTESTS Citation:
Shin, R. Q., Ezeofor, I., Smith, L. C., Welch, J. C., & Goodrich, K. M. (2016). Contemporary Critical Consciousness Measure [Database record]. Retrieved from PsycTESTS. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t48791-000

Instrument Type:
Inventory/Questionnaire

Test Format:
The 19 items are rated on a 7-point scale.

Source:
Shin, Richard Q., Ezeofor, Ijeoma, Smith, Lance C., Welch, Jamie C., & Goodrich, Kristopher M. (2016). The development and validation of the Contemporary Critical Consciousness Measure. Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol 63(2), 210-223. doi: 10.1037/cou0000137

PsycTESTS

doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t48791-000

Contemporary Critical Consciousness Measure
CCCM

Instructions

Read each of the following statements. Using the 1–7 scale below, please rate your level of agreement with each statement. 1 = *strongly disagree* , 2 = *disagree* , 3 = *slightly disagree* , 4 = neither, 5 = *slightly agree* , 6 = *agree* , and 7 = *strongly agree* .

Items

1. All Whites receive unearned privileges in U.S. society.
2. The overrepresentation of Blacks and Latinos in prison is directly related to racist disciplinary policies in public schools.
3. All Whites contribute to racism in the United States whether they intend to or not.
4. More racial and ethnic diversity in colleges and universities should be a national priority.
5. Reverse racism against Whites is just as harmful as traditional racism.(R)
6. Poor people without jobs could easily find work but remain unemployed because they think that jobs like food service or retail are beneath them. (R)
7. Social welfare programs provide poor people with an excuse not to work. (R)
8. Most poor people are poor because they are unable to manage their expenses well. (R)
9. Raising the minimum wage takes away the motivation for poor people to strive for better paying jobs.(R)
10. Overall, Whites are the most successful racial group because they work the hardest.(R)
11. Raising minimum wage would hurt businesses and make it too hard for them to provide jobs.(R)
12. Asian Americans are proof that any minority can succeed in this country.(R)
13. Preferential treatment (e.g., financial aid, admissions) to college students that come from poor families is unfair to those who come from middle or upper class families.(R)
14. Anyone who openly identifies as lesbian, gay, or bisexual in today's society must be very courageous.

doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t48791-000

Contemporary Critical Consciousness Measure
CCCM

15. Gay, lesbian, and bisexual individuals should be able to adopt children just as easily as heterosexual people.

16. Discrimination against gay persons is still a significant problem in the United States.

17. I support including sexual orientation in nondiscrimination legislation.

18. Gay, lesbian, and bisexual individuals should have all the same opportunities in our society as straight people.

19. I believe the U.S. society generally promotes hatred of gay individuals.

Note : (R) Reverse-coded Items