

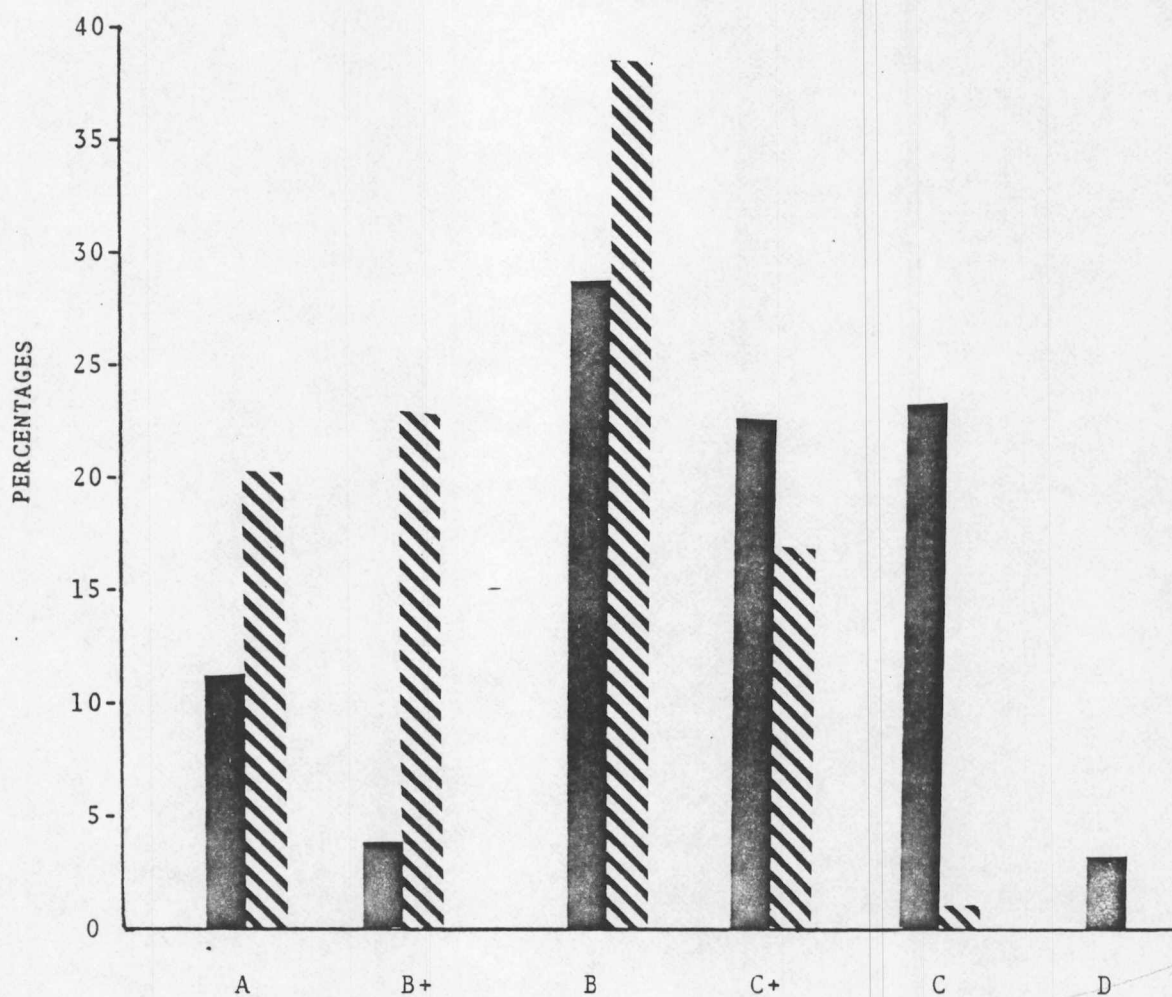


FIGURE 5

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF COLLEGE AND
HIGH SCHOOL GPA FOR GROUP B

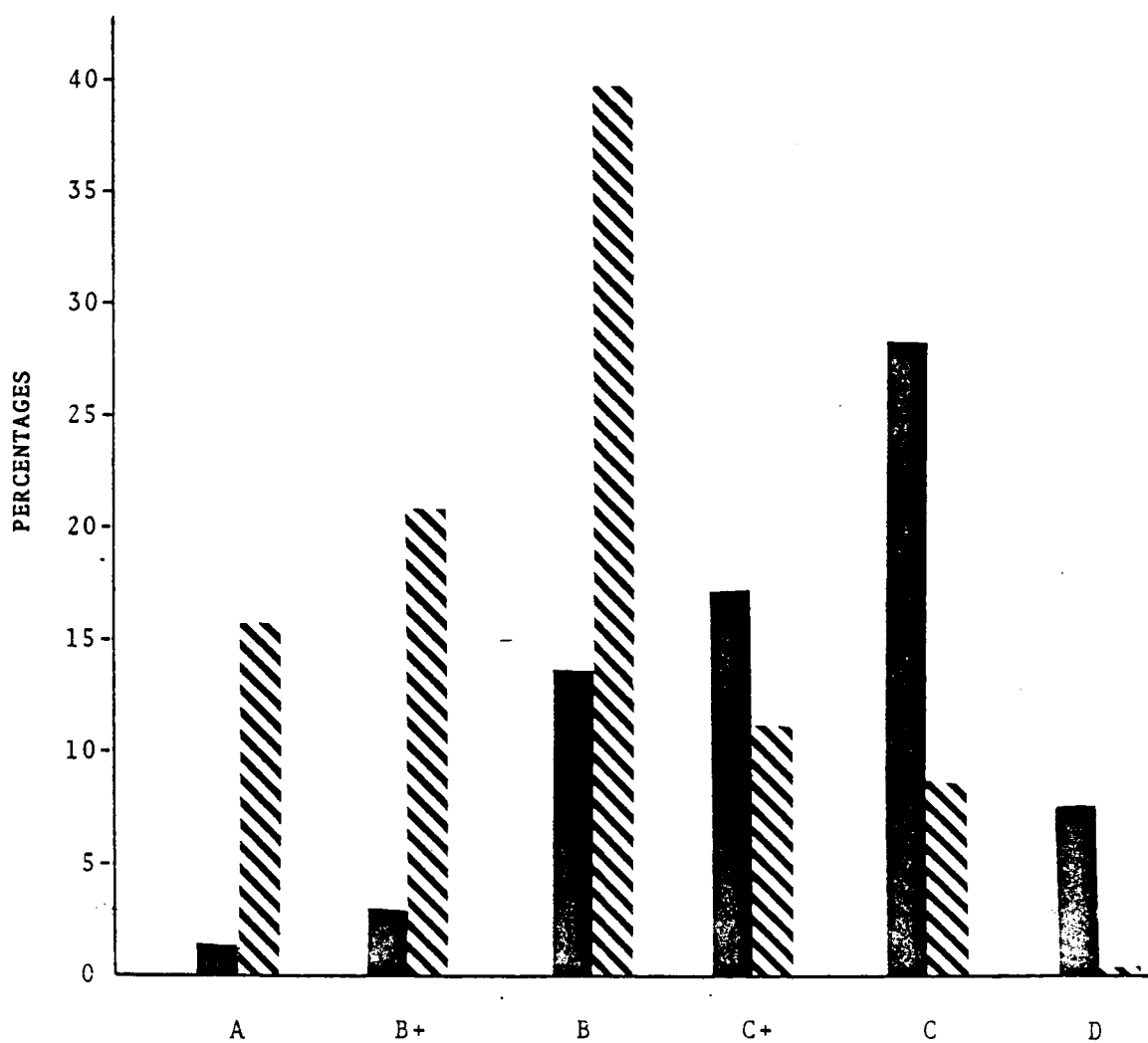


FIGURE 6

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF COLLEGE AND
HIGH SCHOOL GPA FOR GROUP C

TABLE 27

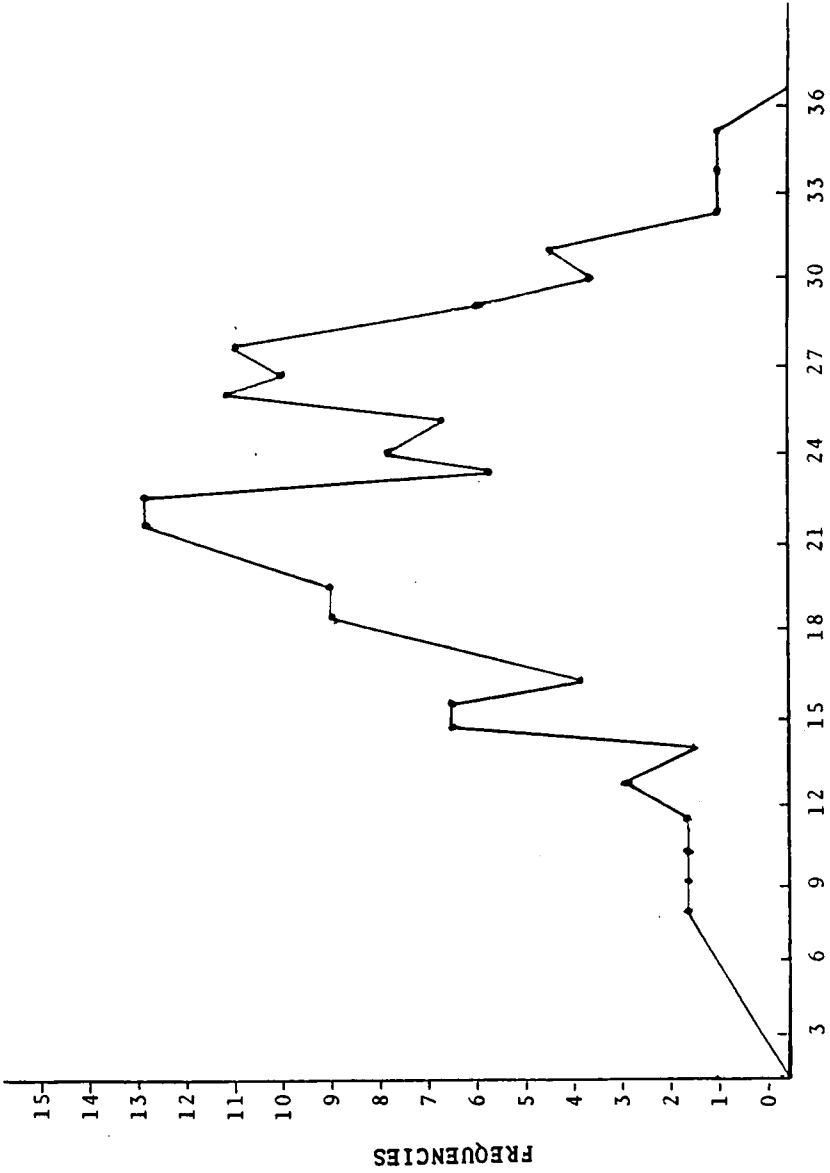
MEAN, MEDIAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF
REPORTED ACT SCORES

Group						
	N	X	SD	t	df	p
A	16	12.69	4.39			
B	90	23.29	4.44			
C	47	19.85	4.97			
AB				-8.8.	104	.001
BC				4.13	135	.001
AC				-5.12	61	.001

TABLE 28

MEAN ACT SCORES BY RACE

Race	N	X	SD	t	df	p
Black	63	18.03	5.73			
White	90	23.29	4.44	-6.39	151	.001



•FIGURE 7
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF REPORTED ACT SCORES

TABLE 29

DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE BY COLLEGE MAJOR
BY GROUP

	Group			Total
	A	B	C	
Arts & Humanities	10.4	10.8	3.4	8.8
Social Science	2.6	5.9		3.4
Engineering	2.6	8.8	35.6	13.4
Sciences	9.1	4.9	8.5	7.1
Education	9.1	5.9	8.5	7.6
Computer Science	9.1	2.9	1.7	4.6
Agriculture	1.3	1.0		0.8
Business	27.3	28.4	22.0	26.5
Other	27.3	30.4	16.9	26.1
Missing	1.3	1.0	3.4	1.7

TABLE 30

DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE BY MAJOR FACTOR
IN DECIDING TO GO TO COLLEGE
BY GROUP
(Percentages)

	Group			
	A	B	C	Total
Parents	13.0%	9.8%	13.8%	11.8%
Job Opportunities	49.4	44.1	51.7	47.9
Better Financial	14.3	22.5	17.2	18.5
Friends	2.6		5.2	2.1
H.S. Personnel	3.9	1.0		1.7
Prepare for Graduate School	5.2	15.7	5.2	9.7
Other	3.9	5.9	6.9	5.5
No Response	7.8	1.0		2.9

When students were asked about the major factor in deciding where to go to college, 50% of the white students indicated that location was the key factor. Money was the major choice for the Group A, subjects while money and location were tied for Group C.

The ethnic makeup of the college was mentioned by Group A as the third major factor, and was not mentioned by any of the other groups as a factor in choosing where they went to college. The reported reasons for attending college are listed in Table 31.

Ninety percent of the subjects in Group C and 86 percent of the Group B sample planned to complete their degrees at their particular institutions, compared to slightly less than half of Group A (48%). Of those students who indicated transfer plans, the majority were undecided as to the kind of school to which they would transfer. However, 20% of the Group A subjects indicated that they would transfer to another Black school. Tables 32 and 33 show completion and transfer plans, respectively, for the sample.

Table 34 shows the highest degree objectives of the subjects in the samples. Twenty percent of the black students indicated that their highest degree objective was a doctorate, compared to 11% of the whites. Over half of the white students indicated that they would be satisfied with a Bachelor's degree, while about one-third of the black students planned to stop at this level.

TABLE 31

DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE BY MAJOR FACTOR
IN DECIDING WHERE TO GO
TO COLLEGE

Factor	Group			Total
	A	B	C	
Location of College	20.8	50.0	20.7	33.6
Money	20.8	13.7	37.9	21.8
Parents	6.5	7.8	12.1	8.4
Size of College	6.5	6.9	3.4	5.9
H.S. Personnel	13.0		6.9	5.9
Friends	2.6	8.8	1.7	5.0
Ethnic Makeup	11.7			3.8
Other	10.4	8.8	13.8	10.5
Missing	7.8	3.9	3.5	5.1

TABLE 32
DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE BY COLLEGE COMPLETION PLANS

Completion Plans	Group			Total
	A	B	C	
Plans to Complete Degree at Current College	48.0	86.3	89.7	74.8
Plans to Complete Degree Elsewhere	44.2	11.8	10.3	21.8
Plans to Leave but Will not Complete Degree	1.3	1.0		0.8
Plans to Leave but Will Complete Degree Later	2.6	1.0		1.3
Missing	3.9			1.3

TABLE 33

DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE BY COLLEGE
TRANSFER PLANS BY GROUP

Transfer Plans	Group			Total
	A	B	C	
Does Not Plan to Transfer	36.4	74.5	74.3	62.2
Plans to Transfer to Black College	19.5	1.0		6.7
Plans to transfer to a White College	10.4	3.9	6.9	6.7
Undecided	33.4	9.8	6.9	13.4
Missing	10.4	10.8	11.9	10.9

TABLE 34

DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS BY HIGHEST DEGREE OBJECTIVE
(Percentages)

Degree Objective	Group			Total
	A	B	C	
Associates Degree	2.6			0.8
Bachelor's Degree	33.8	55.9	39.7	44.5
Master's Degree	41.6	32.4	34.5	36.1
Doctorate	19.5	10.8	19.0	15.5
Other			3.4	0.8
Missing	2.6	1.0	3.4	2.1

3. SUMMARY

The demographic variables revealed that the three groups in this study are from distinctly different familial and educational backgrounds. The white students (Group B) came primarily from the state of Tennessee and grew up in homes where both parents were present. The parents of these students were generally well educated and as a result had significantly higher incomes than the parents of the other students in the sample. The white students attended predominantly white high schools, where they maintained a grade point average that was also higher than that of the other students in the sample. The Group A subjects came primarily from nonsouthern urban centers. They came from families with the largest number of siblings and where only one parent was present. The educational and income levels of these subjects were slightly less than, but more closely aligned with, the subjects in Group C, than those in Group A. Students in the Group C sample were similar to the Group A sample with respect to family variables. They both had the same number of siblings, and both came from families with both parents present.

An assumption made at the beginning of the study was that the Group A and Group C populations would have backgrounds that were similar. This was not borne out in this

section of the study. While they were similar in some aspects, such as family income and educational level of parents, the Group C sample tended to report higher levels of both factors. Group C appeared to be more similar to the white students with respect to family size and structure. They also attended the same kind of high schools. While the Group A sample attended predominantly black high schools, Group C subjects attended predominantly white and mixed high schools.

The next chapter will review the results of the personality variables.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS: PERSONALITY VARIABLES

In the earlier chapter, we have reviewed the demographic data on the present sample. This Chapter will present the results of the personality variables, which include the Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control, Beck Depression Inventory, Dean Alienation Scale, the College Inventory of Academic Adjustment, the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Operations-Coping Operations Preference Inquiry , and the Coping Styles Inventory.

1. ROTTER

The range of scores on the Locus of Control Scale was from 2-21 out of a possible 0-23, with a mean of 10 and standard deviation of 3.88. The scores on the Rotter moves in the direction of externality, thus the higher the score the more external one's orientation. Table 35 shows the means, standard deviations and t-test scores of the I-E scale by group. In order to classify subjects as internally oriented or externally oriented, the scores were divided into thirds. Those scoring at or above 1 standard deviation above the mean (N=64) were classified as externals, and those who score at or below one standard

TABLE 35

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF ROTTER
I-E SCALE SCORES BY GROUP

Group	N	X	SD	t	df	p
A	77	9.52	3.70			
B	101	10.90	4.03			
C	59	9.53	3.66			
AB				-2.35	176	.05
BC				-2.15	158	.05
AC				-0.01	134	.99
Total	238	10.11	3.88			

deviation were classified as internals (N=60). Table 36 shows the breakdown of internal and external by group. Using this method with each group, Group B had the highest number of persons scoring in the external range. Groups A and C contained all the blacks in the study, a chi-square analysis was utilized to test differences along racial lines by comparing A and C versus B.

Table 37 shows the chi-square comparison between blacks and whites in the sample. Blacks and whites differed significantly with the whites in the sample scoring in the external range. The t-test was also performed on this data, the scores were again statistically significant.

There were no statistically significant differences between males and females. As Table 38 indicates however, there was a tendency among the female subjects to score more in the internal range. There were no differences between those subjects from southern states and those from non-southern states. Whether one grew up with both parents or one's mother also had no effect on the locus of control score.

The kind of high school one attended did have some effect on whether one was externally or internally oriented. Table 39 shows that those students who attended private and parochial schools were more externally oriented than those who attended public schools. The high school did not have an effect on locus of control.

TABLE 36

DISTRIBUTION OF INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL SUBJECTS
BY GROUP

Group	Internals	Externals	Ratio
A	22	16	$22/16 = 1.38$
B	19	35	$19/35 = 0.54$
C	19	13	$19/13 = 1.46$
Total	60	64	$60/64 = 0.94$

TABLE 37

DISTRIBUTION OF INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL SUBJECTS
BY RACE

Race	Internal	External	χ^2	t	P	df
Black	41	29	6.44	2.56	.05	2
White	19	35				

TABLE 38

DISTRIBUTION OF INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL
SUBJECTS BY SEX

Sex	Internals	Externals	χ^2	p
Male	33	25	3.29	.10
Female	25	39		

TABLE 39

DISTRIBUTION OF INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL SUBJECTS
BY TYPE OF SCHOOL ATTENDED

Type of School	Internal	External	χ^2	P
Public	56	53		
Private*	3	11		.05

*Includes parochial and other nonpublic schools

2. BECK DEPRESSION INVENTORY (BDI)

The range of the scores on the sample on the BDI were from 0-47, out of a possible 0-63. A score above a 9 is considered to be in the depressed range. The actual breakdowns are as follows: 0-8 no depression; 9-14 mild depression; 15-19 moderate depression and 20 or above severe depression. Table 40 shows the distribution of the sample by depth of depression, about 35% of the sample scored in the depressed range, the largest percentage coming from Group C, the predominantly white college blacks.

As is evident in Table 41, both Groups A and C had a much higher mean score than Group B. Crosstabulation of these scores revealed a chi-square of 14.53 which is significant at the .001 level. For the purposes of this study, the BDI scale was divided into two categories, non-depressed which included the nondepressed and mildly depressed scales; and depressed which consisted of the moderate and severe depression scores. So, those persons who scored less than 14 were classified as non-depressed and those who scored above 14 were classified as depressed.

Since Groups A and C are black college students, they were both combined to do a chi-square test to determine if there were differences along racial lines. A chi-square was also done to determine if there were any sexual differences. Table 42 shows the results of this analysis.

TABLE 40

DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE BY DEPTH OF DEPRESSION
(Percentages)

Group	N	Depth of Depression			
		None (0-8)	Mild (9-14)	Moderate (15-19)	Severe (20+)
A	76	61.8	25.0	3.9	10.5
B	102	72.5	22.5	4.9	
C	58	58.6	13.8	12.1	15.5
Total	236	65.8	21.0	6.3	6.8

TABLE 41

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR BECK
DEPRESSION INVENTORY BY GROUP

Group	N	X	SD	t	df	p	X ²
A	76	8.62	7.82				
AB				3.02	176	.01	
B	102	5.81	4.48				
BC				-3.51	159	.001	14.53
C	58	9.66	9.38				
AC				-0.70	133	.483	
Total	236	7.67	7.24				

TABLE 42

DISTRIBUTION OF BECK DEPRESSION INVENTORY SCORES
 IN TERMS OF DEPRESSED (score ≥ 14) AND
 NONDEPRESSED (scores ≤ 13) BY
 BOTH RACE AND SEX

	Non-Depressed	Depressed
Race		
Black	109	26
White	96	5
Sex		
Male	108	13
Female	94	16

A chi-square of 9.75 was obtained, which is significant at the $p=.01$ level. Thereby, indicating differences between racial groups, with the black students exhibiting higher rates of depression than the white students. There were no differences with regards to sex and level of depression. Region of residence, the kind of high school one attended, and the racial mixture of one's high school had no effect on depth of depression. Growing up in a single parent home with one's mother or growing up with both parents, also had no effect on depression level. Family income did, however, appear to play a part. Table 43 shows that those subjects who reported family income in the lower brackets, tended to be more depressed than those in the upper income categories. A chi-square of 11.4, $p < .05$ was calculated.

3. DEAN'S ALIENATION SCALE

The DAS was analyzed for the total score and for each of the three subscales. Table 44 shows the means and standard deviations of the Alienation subscales and total scale by group. Group A scored highest on the Powerlessness and the Normlessness subscales. Group C scored the highest on the Social Isolation subscale. The overall mean score was highest for Group A, indicating more feelings of alienation in the predominantly black college group. The mean scores on all the subscales and on the

TABLE 43

DISTRIBUTION OF BECK DEPRESSION INVENTORY SCORES
IN THE NON-DEPRESSED AND DEPRESSED
RANGE BY FAMILY INCOME

Family Income	Non-Depressed	Depressed
Less Than \$10,000	21	6
10,000-20,000	31	8
20,000-30,000	48	8
30,001-40,000	30	8
40,001-50,000	16	
More Than \$50,000	42	2

TABLE 44

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF ALIENATION SUBSCALE
AND TOTAL SCALE SCORES BY GROUP

Alienation Scores	Group							
	A				B			
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Total								
Powerlessness	19.86	5.46	16.88	6.83	17.78	4.63	18.01	6.04
Normlessness	13.99	4.88	9.65	3.78	12.36	4.05	11.66	4.60
Social Isolation	15.96	5.31	15.10	3.92	16.19	4.32	15.64	4.49
Total Scale	49.80	11.39	41.27	8.28	46.35	9.48	45.16	10.26

total scale were used to divide the group into high and low categories.

There were significant group differences on the Powerlessness and Normlessness subscales of the Dean. Table 45 shows the high-low distribution and chi-square results of the Powerlessness scale. The subjects in Group A tend to have more feelings of being in a powerless situation than the other two groups. On the Normlessness scale, both Groups A and C had significantly higher Normlessness scores than did group B (Table 46). The chi-square test revealed significant scores at the $p < .001$ level, on the Total Alienation scale. Group A had significantly higher alienation scores than the other two groups. Table 47 has the high-low distribution and chisquare results for the total scale.

Race was also a significant factor on the Dean Alienation Scale. Table 48 shows the high and low distribution of the Alienation scores by race. Black subjects were for the most part significantly more alienated than white students. Tables 49 and 50 shows the high-low breakdown for the powerlessness and the normlessness subscales. In both cases, black subjects tended towards the high end of both scales when compared with white subjects.

Table 51 and 52 shows the Normlessness and Powerlessness subscale distribution of the group by sex. Females scored significantly higher in the Normlessness range than

TABLE 45

CHI-SQUARE TABLE OF DEAN POWERLESSNESS
SUBSCALE BY GROUP

Group	Powerlessness		χ^2	P
	Low	High		
A	36	41	8.90	.05
B	69	32		
C	37	21		
Total	142	94		

TABLE 46

CHI-SQUARE TABLE OF DEAN NORMLESSNESS
SUBSCALE BY GROUP

Group	Normlessness		χ^2	p
	Low	High		
A	27	50	28.42	.001
B	72	29		
C	22	36		
Total	121	115		

TABLE 47

CHI-SQUARE TABLE OF THE TOTAL DEAN ALIENATION
SCALE BY GROUP

Group	Low	High	χ^2	p
A	31	46	12.01	.01
B	67	34		
C	23	26		
Total	121	106		

TABLE 48

CHI-SQUARE TABLE OF THE DEAN ALIENATION
SCALE BY RACE

Race	Low	High	χ^2	P
Black	62	73	10.05	.01
White	67	34		

TABLE 49

CHI-SQUARE TABLE OF THE POWERLESSNESS
SUBSCALE BY RACE

Race	Low	High	χ^2	p
Black	72	63	5.82	.05
White	69	32		

TABLE 50

CHI-SQUARE TABLE OF THE NORMLESSNESS
SUBSCALE BY RACE

Race	Low	High	χ^2	p
Black	48	87	30.54	.001
White	72	29		

TABLE 51

CHI-SQUARE TABLE OF THE DEAN NORMLESSNESS
SUBSCALE BY SEX

Sex	Low	High	χ^2	p
Male	69	52	4.13	.05
Female	48	62		

TABLE 52

CHI-SQUARE TABLE OF THE POWERLESSNESS
SUBSCALE BY SEX

Sex	Low	High	χ^2	P
Male	74	47	0.64	-
Female	64	46		

did their male counterparts. There were no significant differences between subjects with regard to place of residence, family composition and with the kind of high school they attended. There were significant differences however due to the racial composition of the schools in both the normlessness and total alienation scale. Tables 53 and 54 show these differences. In either case, attending a predominantly black or mixed high school appears to lead to higher feelings of alienation among the subjects.

4. COLLEGE INVENTORY OF ACADEMIC ADJUSTMENT (CIAA)

Table 55 shows the means for the six CIAA subscales. A low score on this scale indicates poor adjustment. Group C consistently scored in the lower ranges on all the subscales and on the overall measure than the other two groups. The differences between the groups on all the subscales were small. However, on subscale 5, Mental Health Group B had a mean score of 18.28 compared to 15.14 for Group A. and 15.19 for Group C. T-test results indicate a significant difference between black and white subjects with regard to emotional adjustment. Table 56 shows the t-test results of the mental health subscale.

TABLE 53

CHI-SQUARE TABLE OF DEAN NORMLESSNESS SUBSCALE
BY RACIAL COMPOSITION OF HIGH SCHOOL

HS Racial Composition	Low	High	χ^2	p
Predominantly White	69	40		
Predominantly Black	20	34	12.83	.01
Mixed	30	42		

TABLE 54

CHI-SQUARE TABLE OF ALIENATION SCORES
BY RACIAL COMPOSTION OF HIGH SCHOOL

HS Racial Compostion	Low	High	X ²	p
Predominantly White	69	40		
Predominantly Black	25	29	6.07	.05
Mixed	35	37		

TABLE 55

MEANS OF TOTAL CIAA SCORE AND THE SIX
SUBSCALE SCORES BY GROUP

CIAA Scores	A	B	C	Total
Subscale I	14.79	15.94	13.05	14.44
Subscale II	19.18	19.96	19.02	19.48
Subscale III	18.22	18.31	17.92	18.19
Subscale IV	24.19	24.35	22.48	23.84
Subscale V	15.14	18.28	15.98	16.72
Subscale VI	17.42	16.05	15.42	16.32
Total Scale .	111.60	112.39	103.31	109.80

TABLE 56
T-TEST RESULTS OF THE MENTAL HEALTH
SUBSCALE BY RACE

Race	N	X	SD	t	df	p
Black	136	15.52	6.26			
White	101	18.28	5.68	-3.46	230	.001

5. FUNDAMENTAL INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS ORIENTATION COPING OPERATIONS PREFERENCE ENQUIRE (FIRO-COPE)

The predominantly black college students chose Denial as the most frequent method used to cope with difficult situations. Turning against self was the least desirable option for these students. Table 57 shows the frequencies and rank distribution of the coping methods used by Group A subjects.

The choices were less clear for the subjects from the predominantly white college. The white subjects were evenly distributed over the first four choices, their fifth choice however, quite clear. Projection appeared to be the preferred method of dealing with difficult situations for this group. Denial was the most undesirable method for these students. Table 58 shows the frequency and ranks for Group B.

The black students from the predominantly white college were similar to their white counterparts. They were evenly distributed between Projection, Turning Against Self and Denial as their first choice. However, when one looks at the second most preferred coping method, projection is chosen significantly more often. This would suggest that overall, projection may be the method used most often. These students also clearly indicate that denial is the least desired method. As is evident in Table 59, there is also a very large percentage of students (30%)

TABLE 57

FREQUENCIES AND RANK DISTRIBUTION OF FIRO-COPE
METHODS USED BY GROUP A

Method	Rank				
	1	2	3	4	5
Denial	28	13	9	3	8
Isolation	14	15	11	14	7
Projection	13	24	13	7	4
Regression	8	10	9	15	14
Turning Against Self	9	6	11	19	16

TABLE 58

FREQUENCIES AND RANK DISTRIBUTION OF FIRO-COPE
METHODS USED BY GROUP B

Method	Rank				
	1	2	3	4	5
Denial	17	11	14	13	34
Isolation	25	19	19	16	10
Projection	29	17	18	16	9
Regression	9	17	24	17	21
Turning Against Self	25	18	19	19	8

TABLE 59

FREQUENCIES AND RANK DISTRIBUTION OF FIRO-COPE
METHODS USED BY GROUP C

Method	Rank				
	1	2	3	4	5
Denial	15	2	6	6	21
Isolation	7	11	19	12	4
Projection	17	26	6	9	2
Regression	8	11	9	15	7
Turning Against Self	16	7	5	9	13

that chose it as the first alternative. This would suggest that the black subjects in the sample from the predominantly white college, may be a bimodal group with respect to coping mechanisms.

6. COPING STYLES INVENTORY

Table 60 shows the frequency distribution for each problem encountered by each group. Table 61 indicates the number of times each problem was ranked first by the subjects. Pressure to make good grades was the most frequently mentioned problem by each group. Study problems were the second major problem followed by concerns for the future for the Group B members. Both Groups A and C ranked financial difficulties second.

Table 62 shows the frequency distribution of the coping methods mentioned by sample. Talking to friends was the method mentioned most often by the total sample. Table 63 shows the number of times each method was ranked first by each group. Seeking solitude is the method used most often by the sample in general.

The coping methods were collapsed into five categories and then compared by groups to determine if there were differences between the groups in an overall coping strategies. Table 64 shows the classification scheme for the specific coping methods. Table 65 shows the percentage

TABLE 60

NUMBER OF TIMES SPECIFIC PROBLEMS MENTIONED
AS A CHOICE BY GROUP

Problem	A	B	C	Total
Pressure to make good grades	40	81	54	175
Concern for the future	38	68	32	138
Financial difficulties	27	37	27	102
Study problems	26	67	29	122
Dating	18	40	20	78
Concerns about career	31	52	24	107
Getting up to go to class	14	21	10	45
Eating habits	6	29	9	44
Not enough time for fun	11	11	14	36
Deciding on a major	17	27	10	54
Family conflicts	13	17	8	38
What to wear daily	6	4	8	18
Car/Transportation troubles	7	5	5	17
Loneliness	11	12	9	32
Deciding on staying in school	10	6	3	19
Other	2	6	1	9

TABLE 61

DISTRIBUTION OF PROBLEMS BY THE NUMBER OF TIMES
RANKED NUMBER ONE BY SUBJECTS

Problem	A	B	C	Total
Pressure to make good grades	17	38	31	86
Concerns for the future	9	12	1	22
Financial difficulties	10	11	10	31
Study problems	5	14	6	25
Dating	1	2		3
Concerns about career	3	5	1	9
Getting up to go to class	1	1	1	3
Eating habits	1	4		5
Not enough time for fun			1	1
Deciding on a major	2	3	1	6
Family conflicts	3	2	1	6
What to wear			1	1
Car/Transportation troubles	2	1		3
Loneliness		1		1
Deciding to stay in school	2	1	1	4
Other		2		2
Missing	21	5	4	30

TABLE 62

NUMBER OF TIMES SPECIFIC COPING METHODS
MENTIONED AS A CHOICE BY GROUP

Coping Methods	A	B	C	Total
Talk to friends	48	91	45	185
Solitude	52	69	42	151
Engage in exercise	28	51	32	112
Sleep	25	44	24	93
Pray/Go to church	38	37	31	101
Go to bar/alcohol/drugs	9	24	3	36
Talk to Parents	24	52	26	102
Ignore it	8	9	12	26
Cry	9	27	8	44
Eat	8	14	4	26
Go for walk	23	28	22	74
Write letters	9	17	6	32
Withdraw	6	9	10	25
Deny it	5	1	3	9
Aggressive acts	4	5	4	13
Other	4		1	5

TABLE 63

DISTRIBUTION OF COPING METHODS BY THE NUMBER
OF TIMES RANKED NUMBER ONE

Coping Methods	A	B	C	Total
Talk to friends	23	48	16	87
Solitude	10	21	15	46
Engage in exercise	2	3	2	7
Sleep	1		1	2
Pray/Go to church	9	10	5	24
Go to bar/indulge alcohol/drugs	3	2	1	6
Talk to parents	4	9	8	21
Ignore it		1		1
Cry		1	1	2
Eat	1			1
Go for a walk	1	1	5	7
Write letters	1			1
Withdraw	1	1	1	3
Deny it				
Aggressive acts				
Other				
Missing	21	5	4	30

TABLE 64

CLASSIFICATION SCHEME FOR COPING CATEGORIES

I. Individual Thought/Behavior/Emotional Control

- 2. Solitude
- 5. Pray/Go to Church
- 11. Go for a walk by myself
- 12. Write letters

II. Distracting Activity

- 3. Engage in exercise
- 4. Sleep
- 6. Go to a bar

III. Contact With Others

- 1. Talk to Friends
- 7. Talk to Parents

IV. Loosen Controls

- 9. Cry
- 10. Eat
- 15. Engage in aggressive acts

V. Denial

- 8. Ignore it
 - 13. Withdraw
 - 14. Deny it
-
-

TABLE 65

DISTRIBUTION OF COPING METHOD CATEGORIES
BY GROUP

Category	Group		
	A	B	C
I	38	33	27
II	11	5	7
III	48	59	44
IV	2	1	2
V	1	2	1

distribution for the categories by group. There was very little variation with the categories that were chosen by each group. Variations did occur however, within the specific categories. Contact with others (category 3) was desired most by all subjects. The Group B sample did however, have a higher percentage of members in this category than did either Groups A and C. The second choice was the use of distracting activities. Group A chose this method at a higher rate than the other two groups. Group A also chose individual thought and emotional control more often than the other two groups.

Table 66 identifies those individuals that the sample most often shares its college related problems. Table 67 shows those persons whom they shared their problems with in high school. Friends were chosen most often by the group, parents were a distant second. However in Group A, parents were used most often in college. The pattern is similar for the high school years.

7. CORRELATIONS

Pearson product moment correlations between the locus of control measure, the depression measure, the alienation measure and the academic adjustment measure were calculated. Table 68, shows the results of this analysis. The Rotter score correlated at the .05 level with the Dean

TABLE 66

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND RANKS FOR SHARING PROBLEMS IN COLLEGE BY GROUP

	Group						Total	
	A		B		C			
	f	Rank	f	Rank	f	Rank		
Friends	30	1	56	1	33	1	119	1
Parents	29	2	27	2	17	2	73	2
Did not Share	9	3	5	4	7	3	21	3
Priest/Minister			1	5			1	5
Other			8	3	1	4	9	4
Missing	9		5		1		15	

TABLE 67
FREQUENCY AND RANK OF WHOM PROBLEMS SHARED WITH IN
HIGH SCHOOL BY GROUP

	Group					
	A		B		C	
	f	Rank	f	Rank	f	Rank
Total						
	f	Rank	f	Rank	f	Rank
Friends	18	2	46	1	22	1
Parents	20	1	28	2	19	2
Had few problems	11	3	10	3	6	4
Did not share	9	4	6	4	8	3
Teacher	4	5	3	5	2	5
Counselor	3	6	1	7.5		7
Priest	1	7	1	7.5		7
Other			2	6	1	7
Missing	11		5		1	
						17

TABLE 68

PEARSON CORRELATION MATRIX BETWEEN ROTTER
BECK, DEAN, AND CIAA FOR TOTAL SAMPLE

	Beck	Dean	CIAAT
Rotter	0.0326	0.1312	-0.1234
Beck	--	0.3050	-0.3600
Dean	***	--	-0.2933
CIAAT	***	***	--

*p .05
**p .01
***p .001

scale suggesting that the more external one becomes, the more likely he/she is to feel alienated. There was a significant negative relationship with the CIAA and between the Beck and Dean at the .001 level. These results indicate that poor academic adjustment is related to higher rates of depression and alienation.

Pearson correlations were also done using the above variables for each group. Table 69, shows the results for Group A. There were no significant relationships between any of the variables for this group. However, there is an evident trend that is similar to the overall group scores Group B on the other hand did have a number of significant relationships. The Rotter was positively correlated with the Beck and the Dean scale at the .01 level of significance. A negative relationship indicating that those students who appeared to have better academic adjustment were also those students who perceived themselves as responsible for their own rewards. The Beck also correlated negatively with the CIAA at the .001 level. A positive correlation with the Beck and the Dean were also evident at the .01 level of significance. Alienation among these subjects also appeared to be related to poor academic adjustment. A significant negative relationship between the Dean and the CIAA was found at the .001 level. Table 70 shows the correlation matrix for Group B.

TABLE 69

PEARSON CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ROTTER, BECK,
DEAN, CIAAT FOR GROUP A

	Beck	Dean	CIAAT
Rotter	0.0731	0.0521	0.0051
Beck	--	0.1327	-0.1575
Dean		--	-0.1762
CIAAT			--

TABLE 70

PEARSON CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ROTTER, BECK
DEAN, CIAAT FOR GROUP B

	Beck	Dean	CIAAT
Rotter	0.2743	0.3092*	-0.2439
Beck	--	0.4130	-0.4538
Dean	***	--	-0.3782
CIAAT	***	**	--

*p .01
**p .05
***p .001

The black students at the PWC showed no significant relationships between locus of control and depression or academic adjustment. locus of control was significantly related to alienation at the .05 level however. In much the same manner as Group B, academic adjustment was negatively related to depression and alienation at the .001 level. Depression and alienation were positively related at the .05 level. Table 71 shows the intercorrelation matrix for Group C.

8. SUMMARY

Black students in general were more depressed more alienated and were reported more difficulties with regard to academic adjustment than did white students. The most significant findings in this section of the study was with regard to the results of the Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale. The white students scored significantly higher than the black students on this measure, something that was not found very often literature.

The black samples were more similar with respect to the personality variables than the demographic data. There were no differences between the groups on the locus of control measure. On the depression measure, even though both groups had roughly the same percentage of students in the depressed range, Group C had a larger percentage who score in the extreme (severe) range. While

TABLE 71

PEARSON CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ROTTER, BECK
DEAN, CIAAT FOR GROUP C.

Beck	Dean	CIAAT	
Rotter	-0.0857	0.2811	-0.1371
Beck	--	0.3179	-0.5315
Dean	**	--	-0.4419
CIAAT	***	*	--

*p .01
**p .05
***p .001

the overall alienation scale scores were similar, the subjects varied on the subscale items. Group A's alienation was expressed primarily through a sense of Powerlessness, while Group C reported alienation as a result of Social Isolation.

Group C reported the worst overall academic adjustment, especially in the areas of study skills and personal relations with faculty and associates. The major differences on the CIAA with regard to race, was on the mental health subscale, where the black students reported significantly higher adjustment difficulties than the white students. The white students at the predominantly white school and the black students at the predominantly black school revealed more similarities on this measure than on any other scale in the study.

The black and white students at the predominantly white school revealed similarities only with respect to the coping measures. They both preferred projection as a defense mechanism, while those students at the predominantly black school chose denial.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate certain differences between black college students at predominantly white colleges. Specifically this investigation attempted to determine if black students who attended black colleges came from different demographic backgrounds than those who attended white colleges. The investigation also looked at differences between the groups with regard to specific personality factors, including locus of control, depression, alienation, coping and adjustment patterns. Both black student groups also were compared to a white student sample.

1. DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

The three groups differed considerable on a number of the demographic variables measured. Many of these differences seemed to be connected with the choice of college that one attended rather than with race, per se.

One difference was in sex ratio in each group. Generally, men outnumber women in college, but for blacks, the women have usually outnumbered the men. The major

finding in this study was that while females slightly outnumbered men for the combined sample the ratios were markedly different in the three samples. For the black students at the predominantly black college sample men outnumbered by a 2 to 1 ratio, whereas for the white students at the predominantly white college, the ratio was reversed: women outnumbered men 2 to 1. The black students at the predominantly white college were evenly distributed across sexes. While this observation is interesting one must caution against premature conclusions. The ratio for Groups A and C are representative of their respective college populations. This distribution is opposite of what has been found previously in the literature regarding the distribution of black college students. In the majority of studies, women outnumber the male students by a significant margin (Bayer, 1972; Tschechtelin, 1981). Another major factor is that in the Group A college, heavy emphasis is placed on athletics, and as a result, the athletic coaches spend a lot of time in their recruiting efforts to attract male students. Since this effort has for the most part been successful, there is an abundance of male students in this particular college. It is unclear, based on the present findings why the male-female ratio of the white students at the predominantly white college is so different from the actual distribution. In the general college population, white males outnumber white females by 10%.

The students in this study ranged in age from 17 to 44. The students whose ages were above the usual age range for freshman college students, 17-19, were in general Group A and Group B subjects. The older ages represented in these groups may be due to the presence of a large number of non-traditional students returning to the predominantly white college and to a number of students at the predominantly black college who had been engaged in military service. Bayer (1972) reported similar findings in survey of 1971 college freshmen.

The majority of the students in the sample were from the south. When the groups were looked at separately, there were very large differences in region of origin between groups at the two colleges. The black students at the predominantly black college were more evenly distributed with regard to region of residence. Many of these black students came from large urban areas in the north, compared to the predominantly white college only 9% came from hometowns outside the south. These differences again probably are attributable to the recruiting practices of these institutions. The predominantly black college in general focuses its recruiting efforts in the large urban cities in the north, whereas the predominantly white college the major state institution concentrates its efforts within the state. There are differences nonetheless between the black students and the white students at

the predominantly white college. A much higher percentage of the black students at the predominantly white college are from urban areas. This is a reflection of the geographical structure of the state. The majority of blacks in the state are located in the large urban areas, the largest of which is about 400 miles from the college campus. As a result the college expands most of its recruiting efforts in the urban centers away from the campus, and as a result a large number of blacks from these areas travel over 300 miles to attend college. Quite similar to the black college, very little recruiting of black students is carried out in the local area, and as a result the percentage of black students from that area is very small in both institutions.

These findings are consistent with those of related studies. Astin and Cross (1981) reported that blacks in black institutions tended to select colleges farther away from home than blacks in white institutions. Many other authors (Bayer, 1972; Epps, 1972; Brown, 1977; Allen, 1981) have reported that black students at white schools attended secondary schools within the same region. Even though many of them reported actual miles, for example, Bayer (1972) reported that 31% of blacks compared to 23% of whites attended colleges within 10 miles of their homes, this may not be an applicable comparison for this sample. The geographical and social structure of this

particular state would prohibit such a comparison.

Family structure differences were associated more with the college attended than with racial factors. The students at the predominantly white college were very similar in that the same percentage of these students grew up with both parents. Sixty six percent of the predominantly black college students reported that they had grown up in households with both parents, compared to 84% of the predominantly white college sample. The family structure reported by predominantly black college students is a more accurate reflection of the black family structure reported in the census data.

This similarity in student groups based on college attended also existed with regard to the number of siblings in the families. The difference between blacks and whites (see table 17) was significant, but this difference was due largely to the influence of the predominantly black college sample. The blacks at the predominantly white college were not different from their white counterparts in this regard.

Parents level of education was higher for those students attending the predominantly white college, even though the difference between the black groups was not very large. Epps (1972) reported similar findings. The fathers in the white sample had higher levels of educational attainment than those in the black sample. Black

mothers tended to be more educated than black fathers. Astin and Cross (1981) reported similar findings among black mothers. However, they also found that the mothers of black students at the predominantly black college in their study tended to be better educated than those of black students at the predominantly white college, a finding not supported by this study.

The findings with regard to family income are supported by Epps (1972) earlier work. He reported that blacks in predominantly white colleges had family incomes that were lower than those whites, but those black students were more affluent than black students at predominantly black colleges. Astin and Cross (1981) reported no differences between black students at either type of college with regard to family income. In this study the difference in family income between the groups is certainly related to the educational and occupational levels of the parents in the samples.

Students in the sample for the most part attended same-race institutions. The black students at the predominantly white college were more evenly distributed across school types than were the other two groups. The majority of them attended mixed high schools, with a large percentage attending predominantly white high schools. This would suggest that these students than those students who attended predominantly black high schools.

With regard to high school grades, Group C was similar to the Group. Group C did, however, have a higher percentage of students in the "C" range. Group C students had higher high school GPAs than the Group A students. This is consistent with other research reports (Astin and Cross, 1981; Bayer, 1972). All the subjects in the study reported lower GPAs in college than in high school. The biggest difference occurred with those students in the predominantly white college. The students at the predominantly black college very little change, the change was enough however, to suggest that these students received better grades in college than those black students who attended predominantly white colleges. Boyd (1974) reported similar findings in his study.

ACT scores were reported by 85% of the predominantly white college sample, compared to 21% of the predominantly black college sample. It was unclear whether the predominantly black college group did not take the ACT, did not remember their scores, or simply refused to report their scores. The ones that did report their scores scored significantly lower than students in the other two groups. The Group B sample scoared nearly twice as high as Group C. The mean score of 23.29 achieved by the Group B sample is higher than the mean of the general population in that institution, suggesting that this sample may very well be

in the upper levels of academic achievement. These findings are again similar to other available data on college entrance exam scores (Epps, 1972).

Business appeared to be the modal field of choice of all the students in this study. This is consistent with other reports on black students (Bayer, 1972; Astin and Cross, 1981). The Group C sample reported a significantly higher percentage of students majoring in engineering. This was probably due to a selection factor: About 20% of the entering black students at the predominantly white college enter the university through a special minority engineering program, and these students tend to function on campus as a group, so in recruiting students for this study, questionnaires were distributed in the Minority Engineering Program office. Both Astin and Cross (1981) and Bayer (1972) reported that blacks in white colleges also tended towards the health-related and social science occupations, but this was not evident in this study. In fact, there were no social science majors in Group C, and only three percent in Group A. The sciences were, however, well represented in both groups (9%). These authors also reported that white students tended towards the physical sciences at higher rates than did black students. This was not consistent with present findings. White students appeared to prefer the arts and humanities after business. Incidentally, the distribution of majors

in the arts and humanities was similar for Group A and Group B, these students chose this major three times more often than those in Group C.

Previous research studies on black college students have reported that these students tend to have equal or higher educational aspirations than their white counterparts (Bayer, 1972; Astin and Bisconti, 1972, 1973; Astin et al., 1972; Gurin and Epps, 1975; Astin and Cross, 1981; E.E.O.B., 1976)) The findings in the present study were not different. Astin et al. also reported that blacks in predominantly white colleges had higher degree aspirations than those at predominantly white colleges. The differences between these groups in the present study were very slight, with a little over 61% of the predominantly black college group compared to 57% of the blacks at predominantly white colleges aspiring to a master's degree or better.

The reasons for attending college reported by the subjects in this sample are consistent with studies done by Bayer (1972) and Astin and Cross (1981). The major reasons for attending college reported by the present students and those ten years ago were for better job and financial opportunities. In deciding where they would attend college, ten years ago black students who attended predominantly white colleges reported that they went to their particular school because of its reputation (Bayer,

1972). In the Astin and Cross (1981) study, these same students reported that they attended the predominantly white college because of financial reasons, while those attending predominantly black college were more influenced by relatives, teachers and friends. In this study, location of the college was the most important reason for white students, while black students at the predominantly white college said money was a factor. Location and money were tied for the students in the predominantly black college sample. Since the predominantly white college is a state school and as such costs significantly less than the predominantly black college, which is private, it is understandable that money would be a major factor in the decision-making of those students who elected to attend a predominantly white college. An important factor, ethnic makeup of the college, was rated third by the students at the predominantly black college. This factor was not chosen by any of the members, black or white, at the predominantly white college. White students at the predominantly white college may take the ethnicity factor for granted, this would not see it as a variable in decision making, and therefore would not report it.

A large number of students at the predominantly black college planned to transfer from their current institution to another one. Of those that had decided where they

would transfer, two thirds reported that they would transfer to another black college, indicating that their dissatisfaction may not be with the racial make-up of the school but with the school itself or other personal factors.

2. PERSONALITY VARIABLES

The mean of 10 on the Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control scale for the total sample was higher than that reported by Rotter (1966) in his original monograph. In the past, I-E Scale means have been skewed in the internal direction, especially in college populations (Phares, 1976). Rotter reported a mean score of 8.3 for his 1966 sample. Recently reported scores have moved in the external direction by at least two to four points. Schneider (1971) reported mean I-E scores for University of Oklahoma students that ranged from 7.42 in 1966 to 10.38 in 1970. Similar score differences have been reported by Phares (1976) for University of Kansas students. Rotter (1975) in a more recent publication reported that the scores were shifting towards externality.

Phares (1976) has speculated that a possible relationship with the general spirit of alienation that has prevailed in the country over the past ten years may have been a factor in the shift on Rotter scores. He suggests that events such as the Vietnam conflict and the Watergate

scandal could indicate that young people may be particularly sensitive to such events and may feel that such events indicate that they no longer effectively control or influence what happens to them.

In the present study, there were significant differences between racial groups. Groups A and C scored within one tenth of a point of each other. Both groups differed significantly from Group B (the white sample). Chi-square and t-tests indicated differences at the .05 level. Racial differences on locus of control measures are prevalent in the literature, and the majority of them indicate that blacks in general tend to score more in the external range than whites (Battle and Rotter, 1963; Rotter, 1966; Scott and Phelan, 1969; Zytoskee et al., 1971; Phares, 1976; Gaa, Williams and Johnson, 1981).

The results of the present study do not support any of the above findings. The trend was reversed: White students in the sample scored significantly higher in the external range than did the black students. There are very few other studies that support this. Wolfgang and Weiss (1980) found that Canadian whites were more internal than West Indian Blacks and Garza and Arms (1974) had previously described similar differences on a matched sample of Mexican-American and white college students.

Sex did not play a significant part in the role of external-internal locus of control. This finding is consistent with Rotter's (1966) earlier finding. There was a

trend however, for the females in the sample to score in the external range. Sex differences, with females scoring in the external range, have been found by Feather (1968) and Tolor, Brannigan and Murphy (1970).

A significant percentage (30%) of the sample scored in the depressive range (mild to severe). These results are higher than in previously published studies. Oliver and burkham (1979) found that depression scores occurred ten times more often in the mildly depressed range than in the severely depressed range in college students. In this study depression scores occurred three times as much in the mildly depressed range.

It was hypothesized that black students in the sample would show higher rated of depression than the white students, and that the black students in the predominantly white college sample would have the highest depression rates. This hypothesis was supported and is consistent with community studies done by Schwab, McGinnis and Warheit,, (1973) with black and white subjects and by Gibbs (1974) and Fleming (1981) with college student samples. There was no relationship between sex and depression in the present study. similar results were found by Oliver and Burkham (1979).

A large number of black students in the sample are alienated. It was hypothesized that alienation scores

would be highest for Group C. Based on previous literature regarding black students, the overwhelming conclusion was that this group of students would be the most vulnerable with regard to feelings of alienation. This was not supported in this study however, alienation was highest in the Group A sample. The higher alienation seen in this group may be due to an apparent dissatisfaction with the college. This was evident in the number of these students who planned to transfer (see Table 33).

The results on the College Inventory of Academic Adjustment were similar to the other measures: Black students tended to score at the bottom end of the scale, which indicated poor adjustment to college life. The black students at predominantly white college had the lowest mean scores on all the subtests except the mental health subtest. These students appeared to be the most maladjusted group with regard to college adjustment.

The FIRO-COPE presented a number of difficulties in the data analysis. The instrument itself may have created problems for subjects in completing the items. the six short stories used involved male subjects, and as a result may have created some conflict for female respondents. The respondents who questioned this approach were told to substitute feminine names and pronouns in each story. Since this was not part of the standardized instructions, it was unclear just how much of a problem this may have caused.

A large number of the subjects had difficulty completing this instrument. A number of those that were omitted from the data analysis were due to incorrect rankings, i.e., giving all items the same rank or using only one or two ranks throughout the whole measure. There were a few subjects that answered the instrument in a set manner. Since the options in each case were worded in the same manner, it was very easy to see the pattern and develop a response set for each case. These cases were nonetheless used in the analysis. Classifying individuals into particular categories was a difficult task because of the scatter of the responses.

While pressure to make good grades is common to all the subjects in the sample, the white students appear to have reported this more often as their major problem area. These students were also more concerned with the future than were the black students in the sample. Financial difficulties appeared to be of significant concern to the black students. Financial difficulties among black college students is prevalent in the literature on black college students, thus there are some consistencies here (Smith, 1980, Fleming, 1981).

Contrary to previous research (Gibbs, 1974, Fleming, 1981) a large percentage of the black students in the sample did not use denial, either by ignoring or withdrawing from problem situations. These subjects (black and white)

by and large preferred contact with others. This was also evident when asked with whom they shared their problems, the overwhelming response was with either parents or friends. It would appear then that contact with others could be further clarified to mean contact with familiar others.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

The single most important finding in this study is that the three groups differed significantly with respect to demographic variables. Thus care should be taken before any major conclusions or generalizations are made about the impact of the college environment. The black students as a group were significantly different from the white students in overall demographic and personality variables. When viewed separately, the differences between the groups are more evident.

It was hypothesized at the beginning of the study that the black students at both institutions would come from similar backgrounds. This hypothesis was not completely supported. While they were more similar to each other than to the white students, these groups differed significantly from each other on a number of variables. The black and white students at the predominantly white college resembled each other with respect to region of residence and with respect to family structure and composition. Over 80 percent of both groups had grown up in two parent homes and had an average of four siblings. This was significantly different from the black students

at the predominantly black college who grew up with a larger number of siblings and more frequently in single parent homes (66% reported living in two parent homes). The family structure reported by Group A (the predominantly black college sample) is a more accurate reflection of the black family data reported by the census bureau.

Another interesting finding relates to the subjects high school experience. The black students who attended the predominantly white college attended high schools that were predominantly white or mixed. Black students at the predominantly black college, on the other hand, attended high schools that were predominantly black. The notion that black students who enter predominantly white colleges are entering a white environment for the first time does not appear to be true in this situation.

The changes in grade point average from high school to college across the groups was also interesting. While all students experienced a decrease in grade point average from high school to college it is important to note the variation in the groups. The students at the predominantly white college reported larger differences than those at the predominantly black college, with largest differences between high school and college grades occurring in the predominantly white college blacks. The decrease in grade point average for the predominantly black college students was relatively small by comparison. The differences

suggest that high grades may be harder to come by at a predominantly white college than at a predominantly black schools. One possible explanation may be that the academic environment is more demanding in college than in high school, and the black students in the predominantly white college may feel more pressure to achieve under difficult circumstances. Those at the black college may be in an environment that is motivating, or at least comfortable enough for them to deal with the immediate task of academics. Grade inflation at the predominantly black college may also account for this difference.

The most important finding with regard to personality variables was on the Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale. White students reported scores that were significantly higher (thus more external) than those of the black students. This contradicts a large number of research studies in the area. The rates of depression were also much higher among black students. The black students at the predominantly white college reported more difficulties in adjusting to the academic environment, especially in the areas of study skills and relationships with faculty members. They also reported more instances of social isolation. These students, however, used methods that were similar to their white counterparts when dealing with problems.

It would appear then that blacks who attend white colleges when compared to those who attend black colleges are more likely to come from smaller intact (both parents present) families who are better educated and have higher incomes. These students also tend to come from predominantly white or mixed high schools where they received higher grades than the black students who entered predominantly black college.

Once these students get to college, the predominantly black college students tend to receive higher grades and appear to be better adjusted academically. The black students in general reported higher rates of depression and alienation. While blacks at the black school reported more powerlessness on the alienation scale, those at the white school indicated alienation in the realm of social isolation. This is certainly a function of their school environment. White colleges have made a concerted effort to involve black students in decision making processes at these institutions. Black colleges have not made a similar effort with their students and consequently these students for the most part are not an active agent in the decision making process at their schools. This leads to feelings of powerlessness as measured by the Dean scale. Social isolation is not a problem for these students, however; being in a black environment does provide them with necessary social outlets that are not evident on predominantly white campuses.

The above results have given some insight into the problems of black students at both predominantly black and predominantly white colleges, and should be a significant contribution to the literature in this area. The results are nonetheless inconclusive and open doors for future research projects.

1. RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are solely those of the researcher and are based on the findings of this study as well as on personal observations.

Administrators of predominantly white colleges should make an effort to:

1. Reduce social isolation through peer counseling and group activities in order to foster social skills among their black student population.
2. Provide social programs geared to the needs of their black students.
3. Develop relationships with students at the secondary school level to help smooth the transition from high school to college.
4. Make sure black students have a voice in the planning of social, cultural and academic events at the predominantly white college.

5. Continue to make efforts to recruit and hire more black administrators and faculty members.

Administrators at the predominately black college should make an effort to:

1. Involve their students in the decision making process at their schools.
2. Provide appropriate counseling and programming to develop necessary social and coping skills in their students.

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VITA

Jennifer Corinne Friday was born on the island of Barbuda in the West Indies on October 8, 1954. She graduated from All Saints Parish School in June, 1973, and received her Bachelor of Arts Degree in Biology from Millikin University, Decatur, Illinois in May, 1977. She entered the graduate program in Psychology at the University of Tennessee in the Fall of 1978. She completed the required school psychology internship with the Knox County School System.

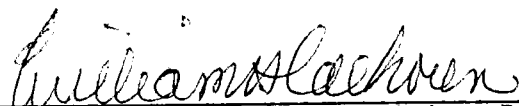
Ms. Friday was elected an APA Minority Fellow between 1979 and 1982, and was also awarded a fellowship for academic year 1981-1982 by the National Institute of Education-Advance Research in Education. She was also elected Outstanding Young Women of America in 1981. She received the Doctor of Philosophy degree with a major in School/-Community Psychology in December 1983.

The author is a member of the Southeastern Psychological Association, National Association of Black Studies and a student affiliate of the American Psychological Association.

She is currently employed as an instructor in the psychology department at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville and Knoxville College.

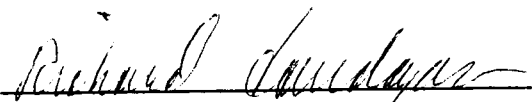
To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Jennifer Corinne Friday entitled "Personality and Demographic Variables of Black and White College Freshmen in Two Academic Settings: A Comparative Study." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Psychology.

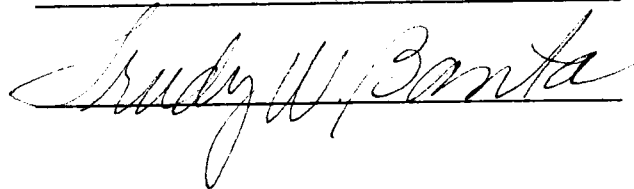


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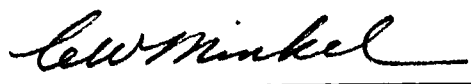
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The Graduate School

PERSONALITY AND DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES OF
BLACK AND WHITE COLLEGE FRESHMEN
IN TWO ACADEMIC SETTINGS:
A COMPARATIVE STUDY

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Jennifer Corinne Friday

December 1983

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DEDICATION

TO MY PARENTS

Lillian Friday and Clement Friday Sr.

TO MY GRANDMOTHERS

Iris Parker and the late Ellen Thomas

This one's for you.

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ABSTRACT

The present study investigated and compared differences among black college students enrolled in two different academic settings, a predominantly black college and a predominantly white college. The subjects were 238 freshman students. All the subjects from the predominantly black college (77) were black. In the predominantly white college sample, 59 were black and 102 were white.

Data were collected on the subjects' family and educational backgrounds and on specific personality variables. These variables included depression, control of reinforcement, alienation, academic adjustment, and coping styles. Several scales and inventories were used in measuring the previously mentioned personality variables, including the Coping Styles Inventory developed by the author.

There were differences with regard to one's college for such factors as region of residence and the distance the students traveled to attend college. The black and white students at the predominantly white college were similar to each other on a number of factors. They both came from families that were roughly the same size, they both grew up in families where both parents were present to a much higher degree than for students at the predominantly black college. The black students differed from

the white students on factors such as family size, parents' level of educational attainment, family income and religious preference.

The two groups of black students in general were similar with respect to the personality factors measured. Both groups scored significantly in the internal range of locus of control, while the white students scored towards the external end of the scale. Reported depression and alienation were higher in the black sample than in the white student group. All three groups had similar academic adjustment scores and the coping styles. They were all different, however, on the coping choices.

The results suggest that the black students at the predominantly white college were more similar to their white counterparts than to the black students at the predominantly black college on a number of demographic variables. The two groups of black students were similar with respect to personality variables.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The Supreme Court Decision, *Brown vs. the Board of Education* in 1954 was a major catalyst for large numbers of blacks to enter white institutions of higher learning. Prior to that time, black colleges and universities had been the chief source of higher education for black students. Affirmative Action programs by heretofore white institutions, and the civil rights movement, both of which began in the late 1960s, helped to increase the number of blacks attending white institutions. For example, between 1966 and 1977, black student enrollment increased 277 percent as compared with a white increase of 51% (Mingle, 1978). The growth of black student enrollment occurred primarily in previously all white institutions. This growth was even more dramatic in the South, where between 1965 and 1970, black enrollment in white institutions more than tripled (Mingle, 1981).

As a result of the black enrollment in predominantly white colleges, the enrollment in black colleges and universities dropped from 80% in 1965 to 40% in 1978 (Mingle, 1978a). By 1981, for the first time in history, a majority of the black students in higher education were enrolled

in predominantly white institutions. The most recent estimates suggest that about 70% of black college students attend predominantly white institutions (Mingle, 1981).

The impact of this influx of black students at predominantly white institutions has generated much research which seeks to investigate the short and long term effects on black students of an integrated educational experience. Predominantly white institutions prior to 1960, according to Bowles and DaCosta (1971), had very little contact with black students, and thus very little experience in meeting the needs of these students. Hedegard and Brown (1971) suggested that black students at predominantly white colleges find themselves in a world that was tailored for someone else. Epps (1979) believes that white college environments in most cases have been shaped by and for a primarily white and middle class student body.

One body of research suggests that the differences between the experiences of black students and the structure of the college they choose may create conflict for black students. Harper (1971) suggested that since university administration is an "isolated, intricate and rigid bureaucracy, it is impersonal and very resistive to change and this reflects a history of American racism and ethnocentrism." Further, since white administrators and black students are from different socioeconomic backgrounds and from different generations, they bring to the

university perceptions which are very much at odds. This suggests that white students attending predominantly white colleges may have more in common with the administration and are therefore perceived as being different from the black students. Thus the conflict for the black students occur not only at the administrative level, but also at the student level. If this statement is indeed true, then there is some support for Blackburn's (1978) statement that prior to the influx of black students in the late 1960s, faculty and administrators could count on a fairly homogeneous student body with the necessary academic preparation and motivation to adapt fairly easily to the academic program and collegiate environment. Thus the black students who were attracted to these predominantly white institutions because of their stated affirmative action goals brought experiences and values that were markedly different not only from the white student population, but also from the white faculty and administrators. Gibbs (1973) suggests that this difference in expectations between black college students and university officials may be the source of problems experienced by black students.

A significant portion of the research has attempted to explore the compounded factors of racism and cultural differences between the majority white students and the minority black students. Even though this is a difficult

area to assess, some authors (Winston, 1974; Resnick, 1979) have pointed out that when entering a predominantly white institution, black students experience a much more severe "culture shock" than do white students. Black students entering a predominantly white institution for the first time will be much more aware of their minority status than if they had matriculated at a predominantly black institution (Centra, 1970). Furthermore, as Blackburn (1978) pointed out, black students will be forced to recognize that their friendships will be affected greatly by their racial background, rather than by such other social factors as might operate in a predominantly black institution.

These authors seem to suggest that race is a significant factor in the selection of friendships for black students at predominantly white institutions, and that other factors (eg. SES, dormitory residence, major area of study) have more of an influence on the white student body in the development of their friendships. Black students at predominantly black institutions may choose friends along similar lines, since race may be an irrelevant factor at their schools.

As mentioned, Bowles and DaCosta (1971), found that white institutions prior to 1954 had little experience in dealing with large black populations, and therefore were not prepared to deal with the psychosocial needs of black students. This may be caused in part by the institutions

themselves, which as Fleming (1981a) indicates, perceived themselves primarily as educational institutions with only limited responsibilities for the non-academic life of students. In a survey done by McDaniel and McKee (1971) and cited by Fleming (1981a), it was found that there was a substantial lack of commitment by these universities in mobilizing their energies toward providing a comfortable environment for populations with special needs. This lack of commitment may in part be responsible for the overall dissatisfaction with the white collegiate experience of minority students discussed by Centra (1970) in his study of black students at predominantly white institutions. This general conclusion was also reached by Klienbaum and Klienbaum (1976) in their study of black students at the University of North Carolina-Chapel Hill. They referred to the dissatisfaction, however, as disenchantment.

While a large number of the studies of black college students are primarily anecdotal rather than empirical, the authors raise relevant questions regarding the status of black students at predominantly white institutions.

The general conclusion that can be derived from these studies is that black students attending predominantly white institutions are not just black counterparts to their white classmates. Even though the economic standing of blacks in the United States has increased significantly, and a solid black middle class has emerged, students

from these families still make up a small percentage of the black college population.

There is evidence to suggest that the whole sociocultural process involved in a black attending college is different from the process for a white (Sedlacek, 1974). The differences between white and black college students are not just those of race or economic factors. The differences also include social and cultural patterns, lifestyles, educational backgrounds and values (Centra, 1970; Jones, 1979). The onset of the problems in adjustment by black students may occur when they abruptly discover these differences.

David Elkind (1971) emphasized that there are very large differences between being a student at a black high school and at a predominantly white college. He hypothesized that for the black students from a black high school, the cultural shock of entering a predominantly white institution can be a significant factor, and as a result black students may be required to make more personal and emotional adjustments than the average white student. Among these differences he indicated several key factors that he referred to as discontinuities, that changed when black students left their segregated high schools to enter predominantly white colleges. The discontinuities mentioned by Elkind are such factors as:

1. Automatic promotion in the black school as

opposed to promotion on an academic basis in college: In many high schools, students would often be "socially promoted" based on non-academic factors such as age, and physical size. In college however, theoretically one can only be promoted on their academic achievements.

2. Failure attributed to lack of ability and intelligence in the black school as opposed to attribution of failure on cultural deprivation: When black students failed in predominantly white institutions, it is often suggested that it is due to deficits in their academic and social environments.
3. School culture dominated by black majority and college culture dominated by white majority.

Elkind (1971), for the most part, is referring to those black students who will enter white institutions from predominantly black high schools, where the rules are different than in predominantly white high schools. Even with desegregation and busing policies, many school systems continue to be segregated and in most cities in this country, there is at least one high school that is predominantly black. As a result there are still a large number of college students who are entering colleges from predominantly black high schools.

Thus, entering college for the first time may be for many black students their first significant exposure to an integrated social environment. These students realize early that the only way to get ahead in their new college environment is to perform academically, and they must also deal with the notion that failure may not necessarily be

due to their lack of ability or intelligence, but to their cultural backgrounds that did not adequately prepare them for this new environment. Elkind (1971) stated that the black high school is a different socio-psychological milieu from the college campus, whereas the white high school has taken on many of the modes, practices and styles of the college domain.

High school students make adjustments as they are assimilated into the college environments, however research by Hedegard and Brown (1969), Allen (1981), and Fleming (1981) seems to suggest that adjustment problems for black students tend to be compounded. In addition to a recovery from "culture shock" some black students must face other problems associated with such things as poor academic counseling, poor relationships with faculty, inadequate advising and inappropriate counseling (Allen, 1981; Fleming, 1981). There is no doubt that these same problems often affect white students, but the adjustment problems of black students are not common to all students, and tend to be specific to the black student in the white institution.

Recently, for various reasons, many colleges and universities find the numbers of black students entering white institutions have decreased significantly. Since 1976, black undergraduate enrollment is no longer increasing, even though the enrollment of other minority groups

is on the rise (Morris, 1981). This has caused some concern among college officials. What is of even more concern however, is that from these very small numbers entering these institutions, only a very small percentage graduate.

This indicates that some serious problems which may not be due entirely to academic difficulties occur between their matriculation and the time they leave the institution. It would appear then that the difficulties black students encounter in a white institution may be too much for them to handle, and as a result many of them will voluntarily leave. This might suggest that they are unable to meet the demands of their new environment, and are therefore unable to adjust.

In light of these areas of concern, it appears that black students attending colleges and universities in the United States are at a disadvantage for one reason or another. These reasons aren't clearly delineated, and appear to be a combination of demographic and personality factors.

2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The following review of the literature is designed to provide some evidence of specific adjustment problems of black students on college campuses. Its focus is upon

selected personality variables that may affect adjustment, including Alienation, Locus of Control and Depression. Consideration is given to studies involving both black students who attend predominantly white institutions, and those in predominantly black schools.

This review will be divided into five sections:

- 1) Black Students in Predominantly White Institutions,
- 2) Black Students in Predominantly Black Institutions,
- 3) Alienation Studies,
- 4) Locus of Control Studies, and
- 5) Depression Studies.

Black Students in Predominantly White Institutions

A review of the available literature suggests that, black students on white campuses tend to see themselves in a hostile environment (Smith, 1981), and find themselves having to deal with loneliness (Smith, 1980; 1981); alienation (Burbach and Thompson, 1971; Pulliams, 1977; Allen, 1981; Braddock, 1981; Smith 1981); and isolation (Willie and Levy, 1972; Epps, 1979; Jones, 1979); as well as being ignored by, discriminated against, and denied support by the white faculty and students (Jones, 1979; Smith, 1980).

Willie and Levy (1972) summed up the experience of black students in white institutions by saying it is a "story of hope, frustration and dissillusionnment; of individual and institutional racism; and of defensive

separation." Black students, not unlike their white counterparts, seem to enter these institutions with high hopes, idealism and expectations, but many black students will realize early in their college careers that their minority status in a majority white institution will have a major effect on what is available to them in their new environment. This realization can lead to the frustration and disillusionment referred to by Willie and Levy (1982).

Several studies have investigated personality characteristics and related clinical issues of black students that surface on predominantly white campuses. In one such study of black college students in California, Fleming (1981b) reported that the frequent clinical problems of role confusion, anxiety and depression found in black students signaled symptoms of the "classic identity crisis" suggested by Erickson (1968). Similar sociopsychological evidence showing that black students in white colleges undergo a "classic identity crisis," was found earlier by Gibbs (1974) using southern college students. Black students are expected to blend into their new environment when they enter predominantly white institutions and to adapt the modes and values of the majority. As a result confusion over one's loss of identity often occurs. Both authors (Gibbs and Fleming) indicated that these students use the defense mechanisms of repression and withdrawal as the major coping methods to deal with their environments.

Gibbs (1974) stated that this mode of withdrawal for black students is characterized by apathy, depression, feelings of hopelessness, alienation and depersonalization.

In summary, most researchers investigating personality factors have reported alienation, loneliness and a general lack of support from the environment as the most serious problems for black students in predominantly white colleges and universities (Rosser, 1972; Gibbs, 1974; Fleming, 1981; Smith, 1981; Thomas, 1981). To deal with some of these problems, black students in many cases are forced to create their own social and cultural networks (Buncombe, 1973). Many black students in predominantly white institutions tend to isolate themselves from the mainstream of the student body. The grouping together of black students in dining halls, dormitories, classrooms and in all black social and fraternal groups serves not only to provide these students with some racial identity, but may also be the only source of support that some of these students have (Willie and McCord, 1973).

This movement by black students to all black groups and away from white student activities was seen by Harper (1971) as a form of alienation. What appears to be a positive movement for black students is usually perceived in a negative light by university officials.

Peterson and Rodriquez (1978) observed that minority students perceive university and community activities on a

predominantly white campus as being designed principally for the benefit of white students. This is evident in the activities and the entertainment offered, not only by the university, but also by its surrounding communities and the local stores in their inventories of clothes, books, and even the foods they serve. It seems that the problems associated with the adjustment of black students in predominantly white schools are many, and contribute to a dismal forecast for the ultimate academic success of these students.

Another major area of concern for black students in predominantly white institutions is related to their relationship with faculty members. Gurin and Epps (1975) have shown that informal contact with faculty outside the classroom is a critical factor in fostering high aspirations among black students. In predominantly white institutions, black students find it difficult to establish rapport with faculty members. The lack of black faculty members at majority white institutions has been an area of concern for black students and the institutions as well. In a study by Boyd (1974) 60% of respondents expressed dissatisfaction with the percentage of black faculty. Forty-nine percent of these students had experienced some form of racial discrimination at their institutions, and the incidents most often involved treatment by white faculty members.

Willie and McCord (1972) also reported that black students felt that white faculty ignored them as well as the black experience in their subject matter. These students also reported that they received little if any help from faculty or administration, and about half of them never conferred with their teachers during the course of the semester. The relationship of black students to white faculty is probably best exhibited in a study by Fleming (1977). She reported that white students evaluations of faculty and administration became more positive from freshman to senior year, while those of black students became more negative.

Black Students in Predominantly Black Institutions

Another important body of literature contains an investigation of lifestyles of black students on predominantly black campuses. Approximately one-third of the black college students in the United States are enrolled in predominantly black institutions (Astin and Cross, 1981). Yet 40% of all the baccalaureate degrees that are awarded to blacks are earned at predominantly black institutions (Berry, 1983; Thomas, Mingle and McPartland, 1981; Brown and Stent, 1977). This figure has decreased since 1975 when the percentage of blacks receiving baccalaureate degrees from predominantly black institutions was 65%

(Astin, 1982). In the Southern states in 1980, predominantly black colleges award 69% of the baccalaureate degrees earned by blacks (Thomas, Mingle and McPartland, 1981). What are the factors that not only attract black students to predominantly black institutions, but also aid in their persistence? Because very little systematic research has been done on the experiences of black students at predominantly black colleges, this question for the most part remains unanswered (Hedegard, 1972).

Historically, black colleges have been the major institutions for meeting the educational needs of black college students. Not only do they provide a wide range of social contacts and dating opportunities, but they also encourage students to assume leadership positions in academics, as well as in extracurricular activities. Consequently they have to a great extent provided the setting for the development of a positive self-concept among black students (Miller, 1981).

In view of the research cited previously, one would expect that the stresses and pressures students face in a predominantly black environment would be different from those experienced in a predominantly white environment. According to Hedegard (1972), the experience of being lonely and isolated in a hostile or indifferent environment should be far less prevalent at a predominantly black

institution than at a large predominantly white institution. Gurin and Epps (1975) suggested that black colleges offer an environment in which learning can take place without a high level of conflict and social isolation. They also noted that the factors contributing to academic achievement on black campuses are the very ones missing or unavailable to black students on white campuses. Raymondo (1977) reports that the higher the concentration of blacks in an area, the less likely blacks are to feel the negative effects associated with race. This would appear to be the situation on a predominantly black college campus.

The notion of a built-in support system, where students can deal with the immediate task of academic performance rather than having to develop and establish a cultural and personal identity, is not consistent in the literature. Fleming (1981b), for example, wrote that one of the problems faced by black students on black campuses is the assumption that the better social life at black colleges may come at the expense of optimal intellectual outcomes. Another side of this issue is that a large percentage of black students at black colleges feel that these institutions do not respond to the individual needs and interests of the students, who are, for the most part, dissatisfied with the academic programs of the college (Chandra, 1976). In a soon to be released study, Joan

Baratz and her colleagues report that graduates of traditionally black institutions were more satisfied with the social environment and less satisfied with school facilities than were black graduates of predominantly white institutions (Ballas, 1983). That black students are dissatisfied with their academic environment is also supported by data in the National Urban League's State of Black America 1983 report (Berry, 1983) and by Astin (1982) in his most recent study of minorities in higher education. Astin reported that attending a predominantly black institution has a negative effect on the undergraduate satisfaction of these black college students, but has a positive effect on their grades. Thus, black students tend to get higher grades at a black college than at other colleges, but they may also be less satisfied (Astin 1982).

It appears from the brief review of the literature that predominantly black colleges are graduating a higher percentage of black students who tend to get higher grades than their counterparts at other colleges. Yet at the same time, the students indicate dissatisfaction with the academic and administrative environment of the black college.

Alienation Studies

Alienation is mentioned often as a source of dissatisfaction for black college students. The research on

alienation in adults is extensive, but very limited however, with regard to college students (Rich and Jolicoeur, 1978).

The concept and usage of the term alienation varies in the literature. As Robinson and Shaver (1969) point out, the concept has become a widely used and misused term in our time. Alienation may be viewed as an individual attribute or attitude, or as a societal attribute. Merton (1949) defined alienation as a symptom of dissociation between prescribed aspirations (cultural norms and goals), and socially structured avenues for realizing these attitudes. This definition looks at alienation in a sociological way. That is, society determines what the cultural norms and goals are, and those person who are unable to act in accord with these goals may become alienated from that society. Durkheim (1951) described alienation as occurring when aspirations and expectations were inflated beyond the ability of a society's members to attain them.

Seeman (1959) did a major review of the previous definition of alienation and devised five theoretically distinct dimensions of the alienation concept. They are powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, isolation and self-estrangement. Dean (1961) defined and divided the concept of alienation by operationalizing three of

Seeman's underlying dimensions: Powerlessness, Normlessness and Social Isolation. Dean suggested that alienation in this context may not be a personality trait, but rather a situational variable or even a syndrome. Based on this definition, Dean validated a scale to measure these components.

Some have expressed concern regarding the usefulness of Dean's scale in measuring alienation in a university setting. Suen (1983) felt that since the Dean Alienation Scale measured alienation from society at large, it would be inappropriate to use the scale to measure alienation in a university setting.

The purpose of this study was to look at the overall concept of alienation from a social system. If alienation is viewed as a basic feeling of uneasiness or discomfort which causes persons to exclude themselves from social participation, then the collegiate environment can be viewed as a social system, which can induce feelings of alienation in students.

Traditionally, blacks in general have been reported to have higher alienation scores than whites. Among black college students, similar results have been found (Stone, 1977; Shingles, 1979). In fact, Shingles (1979) reported that the depth of alienation is greater among college educated blacks and black students in college than it is for blacks in general. He also reported that alienation is

greater among black students who attend predominantly white colleges than those at traditionally black institutions. He further suggested that college itself may be inadvertently serving to alienate young blacks from American society.

The literature on alienation in black college students is very limited in terms of empirical evidence using standardized instruments. Many of the studies done in this area of research have used interviews and questionnaire methods that simply asked students if they did indeed feel alienated or isolated from their particular environment (Smith, 1980; Allen, 1981; Braddock, 1978; Fleming, 1981b).

Concepts such as powerlessness, normlessness and social isolation are difficult to measure with interviews and questionnaires. However these concepts have been measured and validated using other instruments. Tolor (1974), for example, used three different instruments to measure alienation in college students. Using the Dean Alienation Scale, Manifest Alienation Scale and Rotter's I-E Scale, he suggested that even though these instruments did not measure the same aspects of the alienation syndrome, they did have much in common.

Many of the studies of alienation in black students suggest that these students exhibit more feelings of alienation than do white students. Middleton (1963) was

one of the first researchers to indicate that there might be stronger feelings of alienation among blacks. High alienation among blacks is probably the result of the lingering low status accorded to minority groups in general. The alienated conditions of blacks in U.S. society is evident in many of the popular works in black literature (Baldwin, 1962; Malcolm X, 1964; Carmichael and Hamilton, 1967; Ellison, 1957). One might expect that if alienation does exist in higher rates in black society in general, it would also be exhibited in black subgroups such as college students.

Using the Dean Alienation Scale, Burbach and Thompson (1971) looked at entering freshmen at a predominantly white institution in three ethnic categories, black, white and Puerto Rican, and found that blacks scored significantly higher on the powerlessness and normlessness subscales, indicating that these students felt less in control of their own lives than did the other two groups.

Braddock (1981) found that the kind of college attended affected the kind of alienation experienced. In his study of black students who attended predominantly black colleges and predominantly white colleges in Florida, he found that those students who attended the predominantly white institutions exhibited higher rates of alienation from the educational system, while blacks at the predominantly black institutions exhibited more of a political

kind of alienation. Braddock also found significant sex differences in his sample. Black women in both settings tended to be more alienated than their male counterparts. Allen (1981) found similar results in a study of black students in North Carolina. He also found that those students with the highest high school grades and more academic anxiety tended to have higher levels of alienation.

Gibbs (1974), suggested that the alienation exhibited by black students in a predominantly white institution is part of a withdrawal mode used by these students to cope with their environments. Astin's (1977) research indicated that alienation in black students, may be fostered by black militancy and white backlash on predominantly white campuses, and may in turn prompt black students to drop out, Davis and Borders-Patterson (1973) agree and suggest that feelings of alienation in black students is a result of racial prejudice, and force black students to take refuge in black separation. Willie and McCord (1972) view this separation as an indication of failure in this relationship between the black individual and white society, and as an adaptation to stress due to rejection, that is a form of self-protection. According to Astin, these students are not coping adequately with their environment. Other authors (Cortina, 1980; Goodrich, 1980) support Astin's view that alienation is a significant factor in black attrition. A more recent

study done by Suen (1983) in the Midwest with black students at a predominantly white institution, produced similar findings. Suen did find however that while the powerlessness and normlessness scores were higher in black students than white students, the differences were not statistically significant. He did find that the difference on the social estrangement scale was statistically significant. Using the University Alienation Scale (Burbach, 1972) he found that black students were significantly more alienated than white students especially in the area of social estrangement, and that a significant relationship existed between alienation and attrition for black students.

One author has found that being alienated from a system is not always a negative factor for black students. Shade (1976) found that black students in public elementary schools who got along well and performed at an adequate level tended to be rather reserved and detached instead of affiliative and participatory. This kind of self-imposed alienation may be similar to the kind of withdrawal blacks use to cope with their environment, that Gibbs (1974) described. What is unclear however, is whether this method of alienation which works for grade school children continues to be effective through the college years.

Irrespective of the questions regarding appropriateness of the scales and methods used to measure alienation, it appears from studies previously cited that blacks in general and black students at predominantly white institutions in particular tend to have higher levels of alienation than their white counterparts.

Locus of Control Studies

The concept of locus of control was developed out of social learning theory wherein behavior is based on reinforcement and expectancies. Locus of control describes the degree to which individuals perceive that they are in control of the events that shape their lives. Individuals who are internally oriented believe that they are in control of their destinies. Externally controlled individuals on the other hand, believe that reinforcements are not under their personal control, but rather are controlled by chance or luck.

Rotter (1966) defined the concept in this way:

"When a reinforcement is perceived by the subject as following some action of his own but not being entirely contingent upon his action, then, in our culture, it is typically perceived as the result of luck, chance, fate, as under the control of powerful other, or as unpredictable because of the great complexity of the forces surrounding him. When the event is interpreted in this way, by an individual, we have labeled this a belief in external control. If the person perceived that the event is contingent upon his own

behavior his own relatively this a belief in internal control." (p. 1)

Rotter (1966) believed that the sources of reinforcement in each person's life can be perceived and learned differently depending on past reinforcement experiences. With this in mind, it is expected that since the backgrounds of blacks and whites in this country tend to be different, their reinforcement expectancies also will differ. Blacks have been perceived in this society as a rather powerless group and as a result, have often seen themselves in situations where reinforcements were manipulated by others.

Since the development of the concept of locus of control, a number of studies have been done to investigate ethnic and social class differences. Rotter (1966) himself reported differences between ethnic groups in his original monograph. Most of the evidence indicates that blacks and individuals from lower socioeconomic groups who have very little access to power, social mobility and opportunity, are relatively more external in their beliefs (Phares, 1976; Steele, 1978).

Battle and Rotter (1963); Lefcourt and Ladwig (1965, 1966) were among the first to report that blacks generally have higher external scores than whites, and lower class individuals are more external than middle class persons. In one study using blacks, Indian-Americans and Mexican

Americans, Coleman et al. (1966) found similar results. Among unemployed males, Scott and Phelan (1969) found that white males were significantly more internal than blacks of Mexican-Americans. In a more recent study using 9th graders from a California public high school, Zytoskee, Strickland, James and Watson (1971) found that black students in the low socio-economic group were more external than their white counterparts. They also suggested that these adolescents had developed differing expectancies with regard to behavior reinforcements.

Some studies have shown minority groups to be more internal than whites, or that there are no differences between groups. Gaa, Williams and Johnson (1981) found that among high school students from predominantly middle class backgrounds in an industrial city, chicanos were more internal than whites, who were more internal than blacks. Gaa and Shore (1979) found that blacks have an external orientation with regard to failure in the physical and intellectual areas.

Rotter (1966) reported no sex difference on the scale. However a number of studies since then have shown that one's sex may influence an individual's belief regarding locus of control (Joe, 1971). Savage, Stearns and Friedman (1979) found in black college women at the freshman and senior level a more external orientation, and did not find any differences in classification of students.

Eisenmann and Platt (1968) found that first-born males were more external than other groups. Feather (1968) also reported sex differences, as did Tolor, Brannigan and Murphy (1970). Platt, Pomeranz, Eisenman, and Delisser (1970) examined sex differences on the locus of control concept, and utilized the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory to look at the relationship between personality factors and the construct.. They concluded that differences that may be attributed to sex may be related to the varying effects of culture, class and region.

Along the same lines, when paired with academic achievement, Gurin et al. (1969) found that the locus of control variable is a critical determinant of academic performance. Coleman (1966) found that minority group children who had higher achievement showed a greater sense of control of the environment. Eisenman and Platt (1968), and Hjelle (1970) found no significant relationships when they compared locus of control and achievement. Eisenman and Platt (1968), however, found that non-southern subjects were more internal than southern subjects. Among college populations, Warehime (1972) found negligible correlations between locus of control and grades at the end of the quarter. Brown and Strickland (1972) found that college students who were internal tended to have significantly higher GPA's, be office holders and to be male.

The data suggest that internality is associated with

better overall adjustment. Based on the literature on locus of control, it would appear that black students, especially those who attend predominantly white institutions, have more difficulty adjusting, and can be expected to score in the external range on the locus of control scale.

In summary the literature on locus of control may be characterized as inconsistent. Overall it appears that blacks, lower class persons and females are more likely to score in the external range. There is evidence to suggest that this may be situational or at least result in differing scores depending on what life area the instrument is measuring.

Depression Studies

Another major area of clinical research cited in the literature on black college students is related to the concept of depression. Depression is frequent among college students, touching about one in six at any point in time. According to McLean (1976) and Wolpe (1971) depression results when an individual fails to effectively control the interpersonal environment.

Depression can be viewed in a cognitive manner, as suggested by Beck (1967) who defines depression as "any change in mood, or activity level, or a physical change such as insomnia, loss of libido, plus any desires to

escape, die or a negative self concept and self-blame."

Miller and Seligman (1973) also provide a cognitive view of depression in their learned helplessness model . They suggest that depression results from learning that reinforcement is independent of voluntary responses, thus a depressed person would perceive reinforcement or goal attainment as independent of any response he could make. Behaviorists see depression as resulting from a diminution of positive reinforcement (Lewinsohn, 1974). According to this view, learned helplessness and depression should occur at a much higher rate in externals since they see reinforcement as outside themselves and in the control of others.

Another model of depression is based on life changes. Beck and Worthen (1972), Paykel (1974), and Warheit (1979) have all pointed out that undesirable events, especially exits and losses from the social field were important factors in depression among their subjects. College students, especially freshmen may exhibit some level of depression due to the amount of life changes produced by entering college itself. Separation from family and friends, and adjusting to the new environment itself may produce depressive symptomatology. Blacks in general have been found to experience a greater number of stressful life change events (Steele, 1978).

The study of depression in college students is a subject of controversy, primarily because not all researchers believe that the depression exhibited by college students is the same clinical depression that is seen in mental patients. Blumberry, Oliver and McClure (1978) suggest that depression in students does bear some resemblance to clinical depression. Depue and Morgan (1978), on the other hand, believe that it could be a "normal depression," either situational or due to dislocation. Whatever the kind, there is no question that a large amount of depression as measured by clinical instruments is found in college students.

Utilizing a sample of 400 college freshmen in California, Hammen (1980) observed clinically diagnosable depression in half the students who scored in the moderately depressed range on the Beck. She found that many of these students were similar in symptomatology and impairment to clinically depressed persons, and that many of them revealed possible family antecedents of affective disorders. Oliver and Burkham (1979) found that students who scored in the depressed range were ten times more likely to be mildly than severely depressed. They also found that depression occurred more frequently among underclassmen than in upperclassmen or graduate students. They suggested that depressed underclassmen may leave college before they get to be upperclassmen, hence the larger numbers at the freshmen and sophomore levels.

It has been widely believed that depression is more frequent in women than in men. Studies of depression in the general population show depression to be more common among women than men (Becker, 1964; Chesler, 1972; Radloff, 1975). Weissman and Klerman, (1977) reviewed evidence for different rates of depression over the last 40 years and found a 2:1 female to male ratio. Biological and psychosocial factors such as cultural attitudes and expectations, social status, and learned helplessness have been utilized to explain the higher rates for women (Schuyler, 1974). The differences may also be due to difference in help-seeking behavior and in diagnosis, as women are more likely to seek help for any kind of illness. Oliver and Burkham (1979) however, did not find evidence to support the differences between depression and gender. Blacks have also been found to have higher depression rates than whites. In a study of psychiatric patients, both inpatient and outpatient, Tonks, Paykel, and Klerman (1970) found that blacks were overrepresented in the depression category, with an even higher representation of black females. Simon et al. (1973) found depression rare in blacks than whites and Steele (1978) found no differences with regard to race.

With respect to college students, studies show that depressed students have lower expectancies for achievement

(Gurtman, 1981). Rizley (1978) found that depressed students viewed internal factors as more important in causing their failures, but at the same time, they viewed external factors as reasons for successes. Along similar lines, Seligman et al. found that compared to non-depressed students, depressed students reported internal attributions for bad outcomes. In addition mildly depressed college students show impaired performance on anagram tasks (Seligman, Klein and Miller, 1974). Joe (1971) reported that subjects who scored in the external range on the Rotter I-E Scale reported more feelings of depression than internals. Williams and Vantress (1969) reported similar findings earlier. Abramowitz (1969), Miller and Seligman (1973) and Calhoun et al. (1974) also found positive correlation between locus of control and depression, that is those who scored high on measures of locus of control (external) were more likely also to score high on measures of depression. Phares (1972) postulated that the relationship between depression and I-E locus of control occurs in persons who score on the extreme ends of the I-E scale, suggesting that both extremes are maladjusted. He further suggested that since the extreme externals have very little control, they feel that they cannot do anything about their plight, and are depressed. The extreme internals are depressed because of the guilt and responsibilities they feel over incompetence or lack of ability. Williams

and Nichols (1969) found that an external orientation was directly related to suicide proneness, and that externals reported more feelings of anger and depression than did internals.

Due to the contradictory nature of the previous studies, it is difficult to come to any clear conclusions. What is clear however, is that depression among college students does exist, and affects an alarming number of students. While the source of depression of college students is unclear from the literature, it does appear that familiar, personal and academic factors in combination or separately may be responsible.

3. SUMMARY

Based on the above review, it would appear that whether black students attend a predominantly black or predominantly white college, there will be problems that have a serious impact on their academic performance and personal well being.

The review of the literature suggests that blacks in general appear to be more alienated, exhibit more depressive symptomatology and more often perceive sources of reinforcement as coming from external sources, than whites. The literature provides a number of contradictory

studies, some indicating that the above factors may be reversed or that there are no difference between the groups.

Black students who attend predominantly white colleges seem to show higher rates of alienation and depression than do the white students at those colleges. The environment of a predominantly white institution clearly places blacks in a situation where they are socially isolated from the mainstream student population. The research suggests that as a result these students have difficulties coping and adjusting to their environment. This in turn increases their academic difficulties and may increase the attrition rates at these institutions.

Black students at predominantly black colleges are at an advantage for social and cultural contacts, and as a result these students would not be expected to exhibit the alienation and depressive symptomatology to the same extent as their black counterparts in white colleges.

To determine the extent to which the above trends exist in today's black college students, a preliminary study was undertaken. The method and results of this study will follow in Chapter II.

CHAPTER II

PRELIMINARY STUDY

A preliminary study was conducted to compare black and white students at a predominantly white college and with black students at predominantly black college. The three types of students were characterized according to a series of demographic variables, levels of college adjustment, and selected personality factors such as locus of control, depression, and alienation. The study also considered the problems these students encountered in their environments and the methods they used to cope with them.

1. SUBJECTS

The subjects in this study were chosen from a predominantly black college (Group A) and from a predominantly white college (Groups B) in the same city. The predominantly white college sample consisted of twenty-eight students twenty-five of whom were white, two were black and one Mexican-American. The predominantly black college sample consisted of twelve black students. The students in both samples were recruited from introductory psychology classes in which extra credit was granted for participation in research projects. This is the standard procedure approved by the psychology department. Classes

are large, and these students are frequently recruited as research subjects. Students voluntarily sign up for research projects in order to receive extra credit points for their classes.

2. INSTRUMENTS

The measures used in this study were:

- 1) A Background Questionnaire
- 2) The Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale
- 3) The Beck Depression Inventory
- 4) The College Inventory of Academic Adjustment
- 5) The Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Coping Operations Preference
- 6) The Dean Alienation Scale
- 7) The Coping Styles Inventory

Background Questionnaire

The Background Questionnaire was designed to assess the following:

1. Demographic Characteristics: age, sex, race, hometown, size of hometown and distance from college.
2. Family Background: family composition, number of children in family, parents education, occupation and income, and religious affiliation.
3. Educational History: kind of high school, racial

composition of high school, college now attending, high school and college GPA, college board scores, major and highest degree objectives.

These questions were chosen because it was felt that each potentially had some effect on one's adjustment into the college environment.

Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) (Beck, 1967)

The Beck Depression Inventory is a 21 item self-report instrument. Depression as measured by this instrument is defined in terms of the following attributes:

1. A specific alteration in mood; sadness, loneliness, apathy.
2. A negative self-concept associated with self-reproaches and self-blame.
3. Regressive and self-punitive wishes: desires to escape, hide or die.
4. Vegetative changes: anorexia, insomnia, loss of libido.
5. Change in activity level: retardation or agitation.

The BDI was standardized on a sample of 966 psychiatric patients. Beck (1967) reports a split-half reliability coefficient ranging from .86 to .93. Item analysis showed that the 21 categories correlated positively with the total BDI score. The coefficients ranged from .31 to .68.

In studies comparing the BDI and clinical judgments of depression, correlation coefficients ranged from .61 to .73. The BDI correlated well with the Depression Adjective Checklist (.40 to .66) and the D scale of the MMPI (.75) (Beck, 1967). More recent data, indicate a coefficient of .67 between the BDI and the Zung Self-Rating Depression scale (Reynolds and Gould, 1981).

This instrument was chosen because it is a widely used measure that has been found to be a reliable and valid measure for the assessment of depression. The Beck also has been used extensively on college populations, thus making normative data for the present study readily available.

Rotter Internal External Locus of Control Scale (I-E Scale)
(Rotter, 1966).

Rotter's I-E Scale is a 29 item scale in which the subject indicates agreement or disagreement with specific statements. Six filler items are included, and the score for the scale is the number of items endorsed in the direction of externality, giving a possible range of 0-23.

The I-E scale measures the degree to which people feel that control of their successes and failures depends on chance determined factors (external locus of control) or the degree to which they attribute their successes to personally controlled factors (internal locus of control).

Rotter (1966) refers to the scale as an additive one because the items represent an attempt to sample I-E beliefs across a range of situations, such as interpersonal, school, government, work and politics, may be considered a generalized expectancy scale.

Internal consistency coefficients reported by Rotter are estimated to range from .65 to .79. Rotter felt that since you could not compare the items on a scale of this type, it would be difficult to achieve a high estimate of internal consistency. The test-retest reliability reported by Rotter varies from .49 to .83 depending on the length of time between testing. Hersch and Schiebe (1967) reported similar findings over a two month interval.

This measure was chosen, because it is the most often utilized measure in locus of control studies, and has been validated primarily on a college population, thus providing normative data for the sample to be used in this study.

College Inventory of Academic Adjustment (CIAA) Borow (1951)

The CIAA is a self-administered questionnaire designed to identify certain attributes apart from scholastic aptitude which have been shown to be significantly related to the college student's academic performance (Borow, 1951). These identified attributes may facilitate or hinder academic adjustment or satisfaction in college.

The inventory consists of 90 items which are classified in the following six categories:

1. Curricular Adjustment-this category measures the students expressed satisfaction with the college routine in general and his curriculum in particular.
2. Maturity of Goals and Level of Aspiration-this category measures the student's educational and life goals, and his desire and effort to achieve them and his sense of values.
3. Personal Efficiency: Planning and the Use of Time-this category measures the way the student schedules and carries out his daily activities.
4. Study Skills and Practices-this category measures the student's characteristic study behavior at his desk and in the classroom.
5. Mental Health-this category identifies whether the student believes himself beset by recurring worries and emotional upset which interfere with an outward, efficient attack upon real problems.
6. Personal Relations with Faculty and Associates-this category measures the students ability to get along with instructors and colleagues.

The CIAA was standardized on 691 college students (85% freshmen and sophomores) at Penn State University and the University of Minnesota. Split-half reliability coefficients were .92 for men and .90 for women. Test-Retest reliability was .92. When validated against grade averages, the validity coefficient reached was .44.

This measure was chosen because it helps to ascertain the sources of a student's academic maladjustment. The manual also indicates that the CIAA serves as a research

tool in investigating the academic adjustment characteristics of segments of the college population.

Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Coping
Operations Preference Enquiry (FIRO-COPE) Schutz, (1967)

The FIRO-COPE is one of a set of instruments designed to look at a three dimensional theory of interpersonal behavior called the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation Scales.

The FIRO-COPE is a measure of the respondent's preference for certain types of defense mechanisms. He is given a series of situations based on the various types of interpersonal anxiety suggested by the FIRO theory, and a choice of reactions to these situations, all phrased in terms of defenses and presented in a semi-protective format. The respondent must then express his preference among the following defense mechanisms:

1. Denial-lack of recognition of feeling toward a significant object.
2. Isolation-recognition of the discrepancy between actual and ideal behavior, but with denial of the affect which would ordinarily result of the discrepancy.
3. Projection-reversing the subject and object of the feeling.
4. Regression-an alteration in the ego itself to the point where an earlier role is taken.
5. Turning Against the Self-changing the object of the feeling from another object, toward which affect cannot be expressed or felt to the self

The FIRO-COPE was developed with the help of over 6000 college students and school personnel. It is geared specifically to college age and young adult groups. It was chosen as a measure of coping styles and to increase the validity of findings derived from the Coping Styles Inventory.

Dean Alienation Scale (DAS) (Dean, 1961)

The DAS is a 24 item instrument employing a five point Likert scale ranging from 0 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). The scale measures the variable alienation, defined and measured through three components:

1. Powerlessness-not being able to understand or to influence the outcome of one's behavior.
2. Normlessness-society has no norms to live by, or that the norms that do exist does not apply.
3. Social Isolation-the feeling of being alone, seperation from society.

Dean (1961) reports a reliability coefficient for the full scale of .78. With regard to validation, the DAS had correlation coefficients in the .30s with Srole's scale and Nettler's scale.

Coping Styles Inventory (CSI)

The CSI was developed specifically for this study, using a modified approach to the Delphi method. Students

in an introductory psychology class ($n=130$) were asked to do the following:

1. Make a list of problem situations that the average college student encounters from day to day.
2. List three problem situations that they were involved in during the past week, and the way in which they dealt with them.
3. Make a list of coping strategies used by college student.

The information provided in this first stage was compiled and categorized. A list of 25 of the most frequent responses in both the problem and coping categories was developed.

The students were given this new list one week later, and asked to rank their top ten choices in both categories. From this ranking, a measure was designed using the top ten in each category as the most frequent problems encountered by these students and the manner in which they cope with their difficulties. The CSI also asked questions regarding sources of aid during difficult times in high school and in college.

3. PROCEDURES

Sign-up sheets requesting subjects were posted on designated psychology department bulletin boards. The sign

up sheet described the nature of the research project and asked students to voluntarily participate in the study. Subjects completed the measures in group settings. They were informed of the nature of the experiment and given oral instructions for completing the measures. Additionally, specific instructions for completing each measure were included on the instruments. On the Beck Depression Inventory, the students were asked to complete one form based on their present feelings, and another based on their recollections of their feelings in the fall when they entered college.

4. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

All measures were hand scored then coded onto computer cards. Frequencies, means, medians, and standard deviations were computed for all variables. In the preliminary study, the t-test, Mann-Whitney U and Chi-square statistic were used to determine differences between specific variables and to test the hypothesis.

In the principal study, crosstabulations were made with demographic, familial and educational data as independent variables and the scores on the Beck Depression Inventory, Internal-External Locus of Control Scale, Dean Alienation Scale and the College Inventory of Academic Adjustment as dependent variables. Relationships were

tested by the chi-square test and Pearson Product Moment Correlations. T-tests were calculated to test the difference between the group means.

Programs for all statistical procedures were taken from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, second edition by Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner and Bent (1975) and from the SPSS Update 7-9 by Hull and Nie (1981).

5. RESULTS

Demographic Variables

The students from the predominantly white college were on the average younger than those who attended the predominantly black college. They also tended to come from suburban areas and traveled smaller distances to attend college. The students from the predominantly white college came from smaller families, and their parents had attained higher educational levels than those at the predominantly black college. A result, they had significantly higher incomes.

The predominantly white college sample indicated that their main reason for attending college was for the better job possibilities it offered. This was followed very closely by better financial standing. The predominantly black college sample on the other hand overwhelmingly

indicated that their parents or other relatives were the deciding factor. Better job possibilities was tied with preparation for graduate or professional school for second, with better financial standing a distant third. The students in the predominantly black college did not mention friends or high school personnel as factors in their decision-making. In deciding where they would go to college, the predominantly white college sample indicated that location of the college was the major factor, while the predominantly black college sample indicated ethnic makeup as being most important. Ethnicity was not indicated as a factor in the predominantly white college sample. Money, which was a concern for the predominantly white college sample, was not mentioned by the predominantly black college sample as a factor in deciding where they would go to college.

Beck Depression Inventory (BDI)

The subjects were asked to complete the Beck Depression Inventory twice, once to indicate their present state and a second time as they believed they would have done in the previous fall.

The mean score for the Group A sample for the past fall ratings was in the moderately depressed range ($X=14.5$) and in the non-depressed range ($X=11.8$) for their present ratings. By contrast the predominantly white

college sample's means were in the non-depressed range for both measures (Present $X=6.23$; Previous fall $X=5.85$). The Group A sample had higher scores (more depressed) on the previous fall measure than for the present measure, and was higher than the Group B sample at both times. The group B sample was slightly different between the previous fall and present measure but was quite lower than the Group A sample. Table 1 shows the distribution of the mean scores for the previous fall, and present scores.

It was hypothesized that the scores of the BDI for the sample would be lower than those of the group A sample. A t-test yielded a value of 3.13 for the previous fall scores and 2.21 for the present scores. Both tests employed 36 degrees of freedom and were significant at the .05 level.

The results suggest that black students exhibit higher rates of depression than the white student population. Reasons for their depression were not tapped in this assessment. The results however, do follow the same lines as other empirical studies in the literature.

Dean Alienation Scale

The results of the Dean Alienation Scale indicate higher rates of alienation in the Group A sample than in the Group B sample. The range for Group A was significantly larger than that for the Group B. Table 2

TABLE 1

BECK DEPRESSION INVENTORY SCORES FOR PREVIOUS FALL
AND PRESENT IN THE PRELIMINARY STUDY

Group	Previous Fall	Present
Group A	14.50	11.80
Group B	5.85	6.23

TABLE 2

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND T-TEST VALUE
FOR DEAN ALIENATION SCALE

	Group A	Group B
N	12	27
Range	59	31
Mean	56	43
SD	16.1	7.9
t-test	3.38	
degrees of freedom	36	
Significance	.05	

shows the ranges, means and standard deviations of the alienation scores for each group. The mean for the predominately black college sample was 56, and 43 for the predominantly white college sample. On the Dean scale, the higher the score, the higher the level of alienation. The t-test and Mann-Whitney U were computed for the scores. Both samples scored above the mean for the published norms with the predominately black college sample scoring over one and one-half standard deviations above the mean.

Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (I-E)

The results of the I-E scale showed no significant differences between groups. The tendency of the PBC groups towards the external end of the scale (higher scores) was evident however. The small sample size may have been a factor in the results of this measure. The groups did however score slightly above the 1966 norms published by Rotter. Table 3 shows the results of the I-E scale.

College Inventory of Academic Adjustment (CIAA)

The CIAA was assessed for the total academic score and two subtests, the mental health subtest and the personal relations subtest. The mean score for the predominantly black college sample on the mental health

TABLE 3

MEANS, RANGES, AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF
I-E SCORES BY GROUP

Group	N	X	S	Range
Group A	12	10.25	2.65	1
Group B	26	9.08	3.49	9

and the personal relations subject was 12 for each, compared to 17 for the predominantly white college sample on both subtests. On the full scale of the CIAA, the predominantly white college mean was 110. Both the t-test and Mann-Whitney U test were significant at the .05 level, indicating better academic adjustment among the predominantly white college sample. Table 4 show the results of the CIAA.

Fundamental (FIRO-COPE)	Interpersonal	Relations	Orientation-COPE
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Table 5 shows the distribution of the coping styles used most often by subjects in the sample. Subjects from Group B indicated more regressive means of dealing with stressful situations, while those in Group A used projection and denial most often. The results for Group A are consistent with available data on the coping styles of black students. Earlier studies have indicated that black students use denial as a coping mechanism more often than any other method. The regression method used by the Group B may not be as independent as the Group A sample. The assumption here is that if one is using regression as a coping mechanism, they may be reflecting on an earlier period when things were easier and of a more dependent nature. Black students in the sample may have learned to

TABLE 4
DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL CIAA SCORES AND OF
SUBSCALES V AND VI BY GROUP

Group	N	Subscale V		Subscale VI		CIAA Total Scale
		Mental Health	Personal Relations	Range	X	
Group A	12	12	22	12	12	94.4
Group B	26	17	16	11	17	110
						100

TABLE 5
DISTRIBUTION OF PREFERRED COPING STYLES
BY GROUP
(Percentages)

Coping Style ^a	Group A	Group B
1. Projection	15	25
2. Denial	12	25
3. Turning Against Self	12	8
4. Isolation	12	17
5. Regression	23	-

^aTied methods were not used in the calculations.

be independent earlier than white students, and as a result will not necessarily choose regression as a coping behavior.

Coping Styles Inventory

The Group A sample ranked pressure to make good grades as their most frequent problem. Studying, concerns about the future, and career concerns were tied for second. These subjects also ranked financial difficulties and studying as their most important problems. Table 6 shows the rank distribution for the problems encountered by the sample.

Solitude was the method of choice for the PWC sample in their attempts to cope with difficult situations, whereas the PBC sample preferred to talk with their parents. Table 7 shows the distribution for the coping methods chosen. This is different from the scores on the FIRO-COPE, where Group B appeared to utilize the parent figure more often as a means of dealing with stressful situations.

In an attempt to simplify the coping mechanisms used, the coping options were placed into the following five categories: 1) Thought/Behavior/Emotional Control; 2) Distracting Activity; 3) Contact with Others; 4) Loosen Controls; and 5) Denial. When analyzed by school, both groups appeared to use distracting methods more

TABLE 6

RANKINGS OF THE MOST FREQUENT PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED
BY THE SAMPLE

Item #	Content	Rank	
		Group A	Group B
1.	Pressure to make good grades	4.5	1
2.	Concern for the future	4.5	2
3.	Financial difficulties	1.5	5
4.	How to study/finding time to	1.5	3
5.	Dating	4.5	6
6.	Concerns about career	4.5	4

TABLE 7

RANKINGS OF THE MOST FREQUENT COPING METHODS
USED BY GROUPS

Item #	Content	Rank	
		Group A	Group B
1.	Talk to friends	4	2
2.	Solitude	4	1
3.	Engage in exercise	-	6
4.	Sleep	6.5	4.5
5.	Pray/Go to church	-	7
6.	Go to a bar	6.5	8.5
7.	Talk to parents	1	3
9.	Cry	4	8.5
11.	Go for a walk	6.5	4.5

often. Black students however, did not choose several of the available alternatives. They did not choose to engage in exercise, pray or go to church, neither did they ignore the problem, nor did they eat or write letters as a way to cope with their specific situations. This appears to be somewhat unusual, since some of these things have been a major source of support for many blacks. For example, sources of support such as praying and going to church were not chosen at all by this sample.

Group B reported that while in college, they chose friends most often to share their problems. In high school, however, they utilized parents and friends equally. Group A on the other hand chose their parents in college and their friends in high school. Neither group chose ministers or related church personnel.

Intercorrelations

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was calculated for the Beck Depression Inventory and the Dean Alienation Scale, the Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale, and the College Inventory of Academic Adjustment. There was no appreciable relationships between the measures. The strongest relationships was between the Rotter ($r=.33$) and the Beck Depression Inventory, indicating a small relationship between depression and internality; that is, perceiving the self

as a source of reinforcement. Table 8 shows the intercorrelation matrix for the personality measures.

6. SUMMARY

A small sample of students from a predominantly black and a predominantly white college was studied to test the feasibility of the study and to suggest trends. Hypotheses regarding differences between the groups were deduced from the literature review. It was hypothesized that: Students at a predominantly black college would be more alienated, more externally oriented, more depressed and less academically adjusted than students attending a predominantly white college.

The results in this study have for the most part supported the hypotheses presented. This is consistent with the data that is available on these student populations. Even those measures that weren't statistically significant (Rotter), did have some indication towards possible differences.

As was expected, sample size may have been the major cause for the weak relationships found. Since the black sample at the PWC only consisted of two members, no conclusions could be made on that particular group. It was anticipated then that with a larger sample and more controls in the study, that more consistent relationships could be possibly be found.

TABLE 8

PEARSON CORRELATION OF THE BECK DEPRESSION INVENTORY
AND SELECT PERSONALITY MEASURES

BECK with	r
Dean Alienation Scale	.19
Rotter I-E Scale	-.33
CIAA	-.21

CHAPTER III

PRINCIPAL STUDY

Based on the information obtained in this study, it was decided that a larger sample would be obtained and the same measures would be utilized to again look at differences between the groups.

1. PROCEDURES

Data for the principal study were collected during the spring quarter of the academic year 1982-1983. Subjects were solicited in the same manner previously described in Chapter II. The sign up sheet described the nature of the research project and indicated that only freshmen students were needed. Scheduled times and places for the study were posted. They were scheduled for two hour blocks during the lunch period on several different days, so that those who were willing to participate would have a choice of times and places to participate.

Questionnaires were again distributed in group settings. Subjects were all informed of the nature of the experiment and given oral instructions for completing the measures. The instructions for specific measures were clearly delineated on each measure.

The instruments described previously were also utilized in the principal study. The only difference regarding instruments was that the Beck Depression Inventory was only administered once to obtain present responses. Data were analyzed with the same statistical procedures that were described in the previous chapter.

Subjects

The 238 subjects used in this study were freshmen students at a predominantly black college (N=77), and a predominantly white college (N=161) in the same city. The subjects from the predominantly black college (Group A) were members of a freshman studies class in which all freshmen students at the college were enrolled. The questionnaires were completed during regular class time, when the freshmen class was meeting as a group.

Most of the subjects from the predominantly white college (Group B and Group C) were enrolled in the introductory psychology class. They were recruited through standard psychology department procedure. Since the percentage of black students in these classes was quite small however, this sampling procedure did not provide an adequate number of black students. Therefore an alternative recruiting method had to be employed to obtain black students. Black students were recruited with the aid of black faculty members who had classes with large numbers

of black students, others were recruited directly in dormitories and campus cafeterias.

There were 59 black students in the predominantly white college sample, which represents 40% of the actual fall enrollment of black students on this campus. The 77 black students from the PBC was 32% of the fall enrollment. Since the questionnaires were distributed during the spring quarter, it is assumed that due to attrition, both colleges may have lost some of these students, therefore the actual percentages would be somewhat higher.

2. RESULTS: DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Description of Sample

Two hundred and thirty-eight students were studied. Seventy seven of these were from a predominantly black college and 161 were from a predominantly white college. Of the 77 in the predominantly black college sample, there were 48 men, and 27 women, and all were black. There were 102 whites in the predominantly white college sample, of these 33 were men and 66 were women. The remaining 59 of the predominantly white college sample were black, and equally divided between males and females.

For purposes of simplicity, we will call the predominantly black college sample Group A, the white students from the predominantly white college, Group B, and the black students from the predominantly white college Group

C. Table 9 shows the frequency distribution of the groups by sex. Group A had nearly twice as many men as women, Group B had just the opposite and Group C had a nearly equal distribution of males and females.

The average age of these students was 19.02. When broken down by college, the average age for the predominantly black college students was 19.15 and the mean age of the predominantly white college sample was 18.89. Table 10 shows the frequency distribution, means and standard deviations of the sample by age.

About 90% of the predominantly white college students were from the Southern states (the southern states represented in the sample were, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, North and South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia) compared to 57% of the predominantly black college students. Fifty-four percent of the sample were from the state of Tennessee. Ten percent were from Georgia, 7% from Michigan and 6% from Alabama. The other 25% were distributed over 17 other states. Seventy-five percent of Groups B and C were from Tennessee compared to 10% of the Group A sample. Table 11 shows the distribution by state of residence and Table 12 shows the distribution of the sample by region of residence. Of those subjects from the state of Tennessee, Knox County and Shelby County each accounted for 11% of the total sample. The Knox County seat is located in Knoxville where the schools are located.

TABLE 9

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE BY SEX

Sex	Group			Total (N=238)
	A (N=77)	B (N=102)	C (N=59)	
Males	48	33	28	109
Females	27	66	29	122
No Response	2	3	2	7

TABLE 10

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION, MEANS AND STANDARD
DEVIATIONS OF SAMPLE BY AGE

Age	Group			Total (N=238)
	A (N=77)	B (N=102)	C (N=59)	
44		1		1
27		1		1
24	2	1		3
23	1	2		3
22	1	2		3
21	5		1	6
20	6	3	2	11
19	38	54	25	117
18	18	37	27	82
17	2		1	3
Missing Data	4	1	3	8
Mean	19.15	19.17	18.55	19.02
SD	1.32	2.83	0.69	2.1

*Group A=PBC sample, Group B=PWC whites, Group C=PWC blacks.

TABLE 11

DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE BY STATE OF RESIDENCE
(Percentages)

State	Group			Total
	A	B	C	
Alabama*	13.0	1.0	3.4	5.5
California		2.0		0.8
Delaware		1.0		0.4
Florida*	3.9	1.0		1.7
Georgia*	14.3	2.0	17.2	9.7
Illinois	2.6			1.3
Kentucky*			3.4	0.8
Michigan	18.0	2.0		6.7
Mississippi*	2.6			0.8
Missouri	1.3			0.4
New Jersey	1.3			0.4
New York	1.3	2.0	1.7	1.7
North Carolina*	2.6	2.0	1.7	
Ohio	3.9			
Pennsylvania	2.6	1.0	1.7	1.7
South Carolina*	10.4		1.7	3.8
<u>TENNESSEE*</u>	10.4	80.4	63.8	53.8
Texas	5.2	2.0		2.5
Virginia*		2.0	3.4	1.7
Wyoming	1.3			0.4
Other			3.4	0.8

*Southern States

TABLE 12

DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE BY REGION OF RESIDENCE

Region	A		B		C		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
South	44	57.1	90	88.2	55	93.2	189	79
Non South	33	42.9	12	11.8	4	6.8	49	21

Eighteen percent of the Group A sample came from Michigan, and as a result that group as a whole traveled the longest distances to attend college. Thirty-nine percent of the subjects in Group A, 11% of the subjects in Group B, and 7% of the Group C subjects traveled over 500 miles to attend college. The distribution of the distances traveled is shown in Table 13. Knoxville, where both college campuses are located. Memphis, the largest city in the state is the seat for Shelby County.

Many of the black students in the sample were from large cities with populations over 500,000. The majority of the white students lived in suburban areas. Farms were the least represented area of residence, with only 6% of the total sample living on farms. Table 14 shows the distribution of the sample by size of hometown.

Almost all of the subjects in the samples grew up in homes where both parents (79%) were present. Sixty-six percent of Group A compared to 85% and 83% of groups B and C, respectively, were raised by both parents. Table 15 shows the family composition, that is, the individuals with whom the subjects in the sample grew up. The second largest group grew up with their mothers. Twice as many of the Group A members grew up with their mothers as compared to the black students in the predominantly white college sample. Fathers were not mentioned by any of the subjects.

TABLE 13

DISTANCE TRAVELED TO COLLEGE BY GROUP
(Percentages)

Distance	Group			Total
	A	B	C	
Less than 10	2.6	9.8	1.7	5.5
11-50 miles		35.3	6.8	16.8
51-200 miles		9.8	1.7	4.6
101-300 miles	14.3	24.5	33.9	23.5
301-500 miles	40.3	9.8	49.2	29.4
More than 500	39.0	10.8	6.8	18.9
No Response	3.9			

TABLE 14

DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE BY SIZE OF HOMETOWN
(Percentages)

	Group			Total
	A	B	C	
Urban (More than 500,000)	42.9	12.7	33.9	27.7
Urban (300,000-500,000)	18.2	7.8	15.3	13.0
Urban (less than 300,000)	10.4	17.6	18.6	15.5
Suburban	11.7	36.3	11.9	22.3
Rural (non-farm)	9.1	16.7	11.9	13.0
Rural (farm)	5.2	6.9	5.1	5.9
No Response	2.6	2.0	3.4	2.5

TABLE 15
DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE BY FAMILY COMPOSITION
(Frequencies and Percentages)

Family Composition	Group					
	A		B		C	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Both Parents	51	66.0	87	85.3	49	83.1
Mother Only	19	24.7	9	8.8	7	11.9
Other	7	9.1	6	5.9	3	5.1
					16	6.7
					187	78.6
					35	14.7
					16	6.7

The black subjects in general came from larger families than the white subjects. Table 16 shows the means and the t-test results by race. When broken down by group, the subjects in Group A came from families that were significantly larger than the other two groups. There were no differences between the means of Groups B and C. Table 17 shows the means and t-test results for the number of siblings in each group.

Table 18 shows the mean level of parents' education, both mother and father, by group. Parents of the Group B sample had the highest level of educational attainment. Figure 1 shows the distribution of parents' educational attainment. Thirty-six percent of the Group B mothers were high school graduates, 17% had done some college work and 16% had completed a four year degree. In Group A nearly 27% of these mothers had completed high school and 16% had a college degree. Group C had the largest percentages of mothers with advanced degrees. Figure 2 shows a distribution of the educational attainment of all the mothers in the sample.

Figure 3 shows the comparative distribution of the fathers by group. Thirty four percent of the Group A fathers and 26% of the Group C fathers had completed high school. Thirty percent of the fathers in Group B had four year college degrees, compared to 16% of Group A fathers and 19% of Group C fathers.

TABLE 16

MEAN NUMBER OF SIBLINGS BY RACE

Race	N	X	SD	t	df	p
Black	126	4.70	2.97	4.82	224	.05
White	100	3.15	1.39			

TABLE 17
MEAN NUMBER OF SIBLINGS BY GROUP

Group	X	SD	df	t	p*
A	5.45	3.15			
B	3.15	1.39			
C	3.66	2.36			
AB			171	6.51	.001
BC			151	1.68	.09
AC			124	3.49	.001
Total	4.01				

*two-tailed test

TABLE 18

MEAN LEVEL OF PARENTS EDUCATION BY GROUP

	A	B	C	Total
Mother	4.47	5.34	4.95	4.96
Father	4.03	6.17	4.72	5.15

4 = H.S Graduate
 6 = Associate's Degree
 8 = Advanced Degree

5 = Some college
 7 = Bachelor's Degree

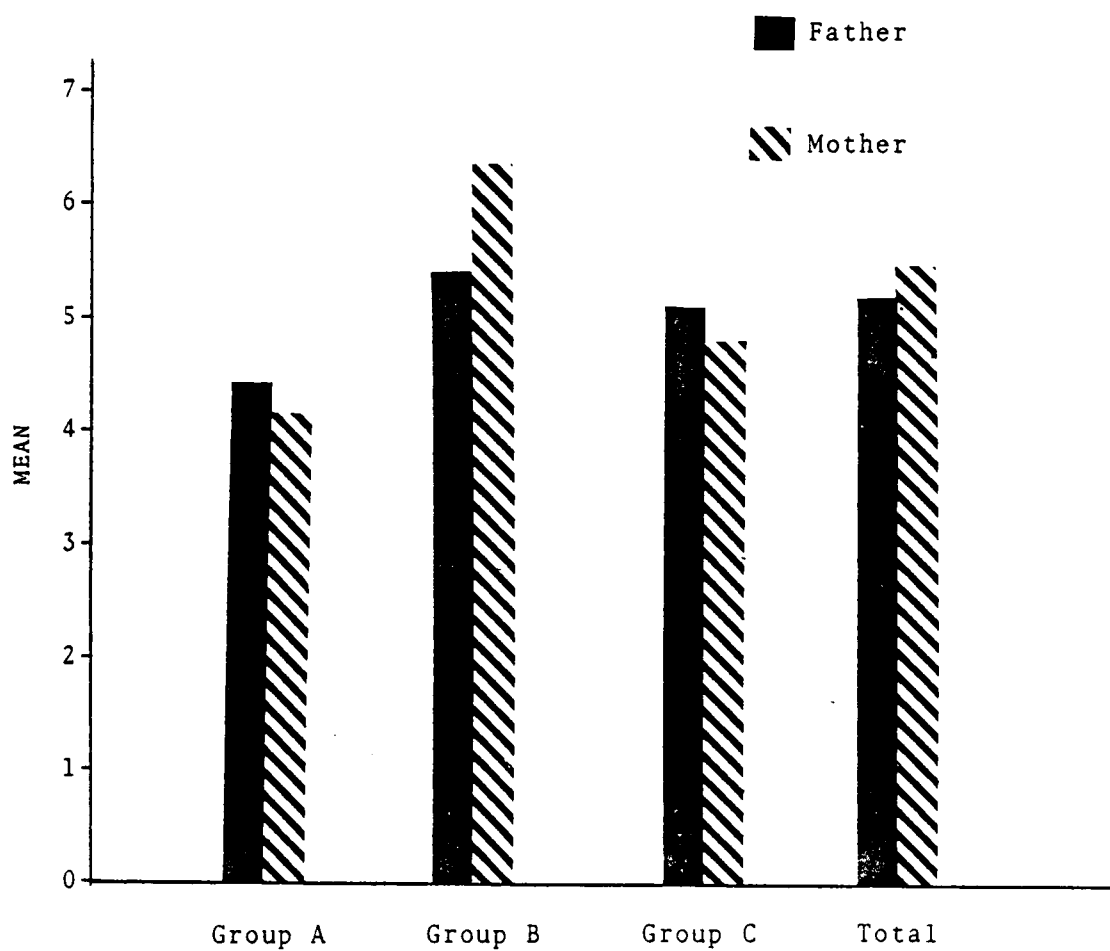


FIGURE 1

PARENT'S MEAN LEVEL OF EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

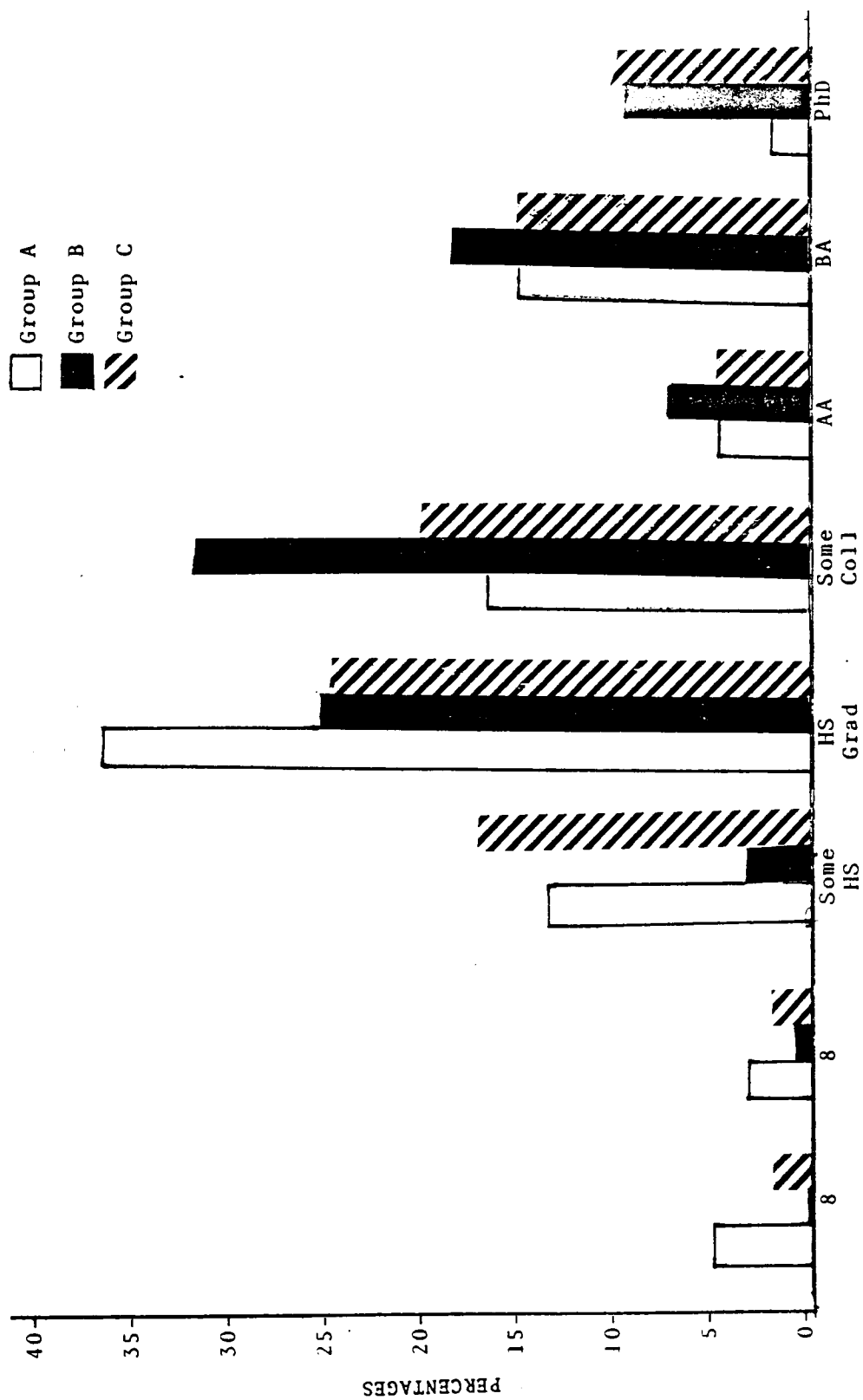


FIGURE 2
MOTHER'S LEVEL OF EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

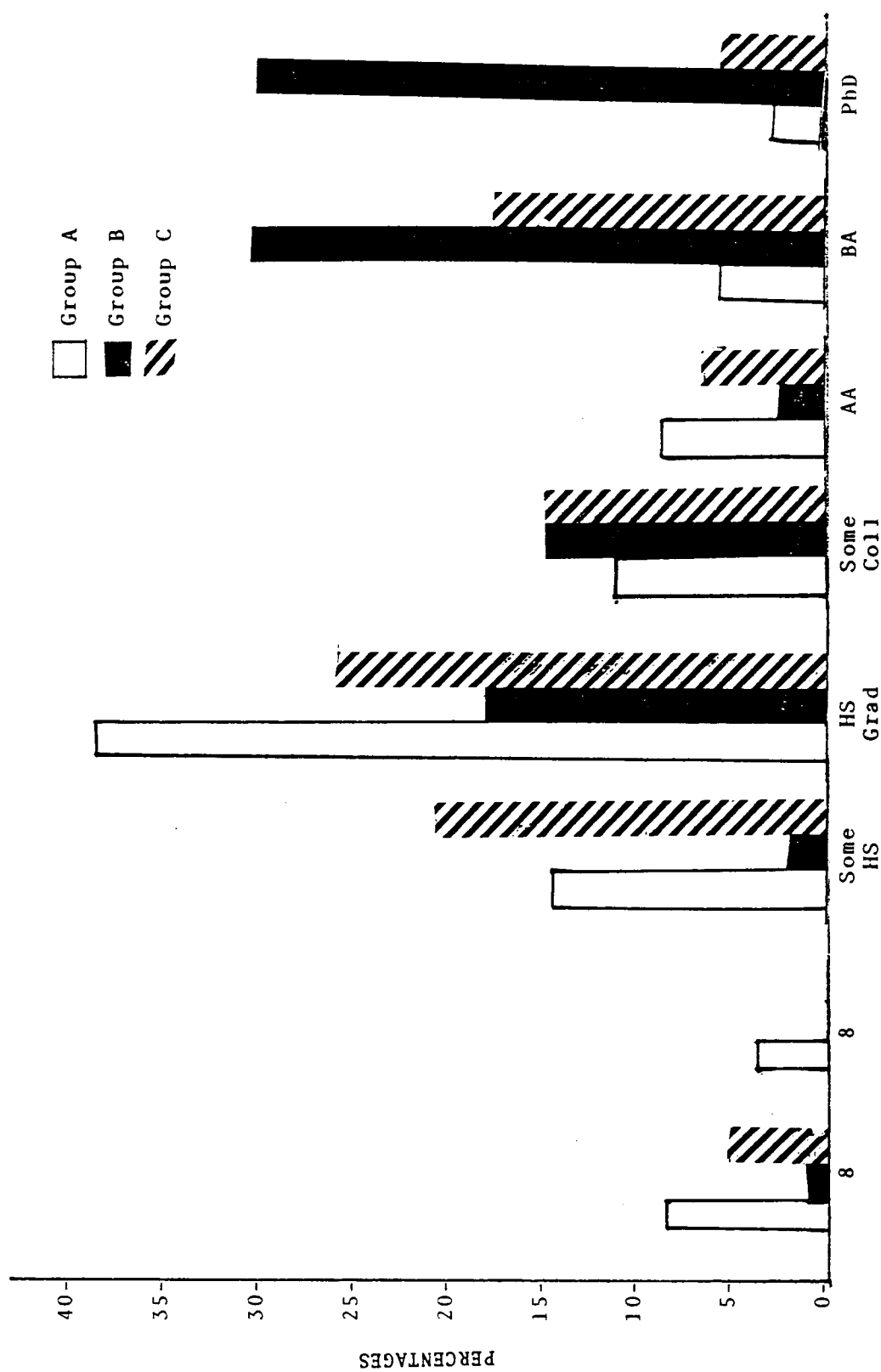


FIGURE 3
FATHER'S LEVEL OF EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

The majority of mothers in the sample were employed in clerical or sales jobs, while the fathers were in laborer or service oriented jobs. When broken down by group, the mothers and fathers of Group A students were employed in laborer or service jobs, and the others were scattered over the other occupational fields. As is evident in Table 19, a large percentage of the mothers in this group were employed in professional positions. Thirty-two percent of the mothers of the Group B students were housewives, a role represented about 9% of the time in the other groups. Twenty-two percent of Group B mothers were in clerical or sales jobs. Twenty-eight percent of the fathers in the sample were employed in professional jobs and 17% were in managerial positions. Group C mothers were equally distributed between laborer or service occupations and roles as educators. Twenty-five percent of the fathers in the sample were employed in laborer or service jobs.

The higher occupational status of the fathers in Group B is also reflected in the higher family income of the group. The mean family income of the total group was a little over \$25,000. The black subjects in the sample had a significantly lower median income than the white subjects, with Group A having the lowest median of \$15,000 which was half of Group B's median of \$30,000. Table 20 shows the distribution of family income for all three

TABLE 19

PARENTS OCCUPATION DISTRIBUTION
(Percentages)

Occupation	A			B			C			Total	
	Mother	Father		Mother	Father		Mother	Father		Mother	Father
Managerial	2.6	3.9		2.9	16.7		5.1	5.1		3.4	19.7
Professional	18.2	3.9		11.8	28.4		10.2	6.8		13.4	15.1
Educator	5.2	1.3		8.8	7.8		16.9	8.5		9.7	5.9
Clerical/ Sales	11.7	5.2		21.6	9.8		15.3	8.5		16.8	8.0
Laborer/ Service	22.1	37.7		4.9	10.8		16.9	33.9		13.4	25.2
Housewife	10.4			32.4			16.9			21.4	
Self-Employed	1.3	3.9		2.9	9.8					1.7	5.5
Retired/ Disabled/											
Deceased	2.6	3.9		1.0	5.9		1.7	13.6		1.7	7.1
Unemployed	6.5			3.9			1.7	5.2		5.2	
Other	5.2	3.9		.	4.9		1.7	5.1		2.1	4.6
Missing	14.3	36.4		9.81	5.9		13.6	18.6			

TABLE 20

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE
BY FAMILY INCOME

Family Income	A	B	C	Total
Less than \$5,000	15.6	1.0	3.4	6.3
5,001-10,000	10.4	2.0	3.4	5.0
10,001-15,000	18.2	5.9	15.3	12.2
15,001-20,000	9.1	2.0	1.7	4.3
20,001-25,000	13.0	14.7	22.0	16.0
25,001-30,000	7.8	7.8	6.8	7.6
30,001-40,000	10.4	14.7	18.6	16.0
40,001-50,000		12.7	5.1	6.7
More than 50,001	5.2	33.3	10.2	18.5
Missing	10.4	5.9	13.5	9.2

groups, and Table 21 shows the means, medians and t-test results for the samples. Table 22 shows the means, standard deviations and t-test results for the samples by race.

Three religious affiliations accounted for 73% of the total sample. Baptists were the most frequently represented religious group. Sixty-two percent of Group C, 58% of Group A and 27% of Group B fell in this category. Methodists were represented almost equally in the sample, about 14% in each group. Twenty percent of Group B compared to 10% and 7% of Groups A and C, respectively, were Catholic. Seventeen other religious groups were represented in the sample. Table 23 shows the religious distribution of the sample.

Educational Background

The majority of the subjects in the sample attended high schools where their own racial group was in the majority. The exception was Group C, where 41% attended racially mixed high schools, and 36% attended predominantly white high schools (less than 10% black). Table 24 shows the racial composition of the high school attended by the subjects in the sample. Table 25 shows the distribution of the type of high school attended. Eighty seven percent attended public schools.

Reported high school GPAs were higher for the subjects in the predominantly white college sample. Both

TABLE 21

MEDIAN FAMILY INCOME AND T-TEST DISTRIBUTION
BY GROUP

Group	N	Median	t	df	p
A	73	15,000			
B	100	30,000			
C	53	19,000			
AB			-8.62	163	.001
BC			3.94	145	.001
AC			-3.61	118	.001
Total	226	25,000			

TABLE 22

MEAN FAMILY INCOME AND T-TEST DISTRIBUTION
OF SAMPLES BY RACE

Race	N	X	SD	t	df	p
Black	120	\$4.64	2.38			
White	96	6.97	2.09			
				-7.54	214	.001

Income range	
1. Less than \$5,000	
2. \$5,001-10,000	
3. \$10,001-15,000	
4. \$15,001-20,000	
5. \$20,001-25,000	
6. \$25,001-30,000	
7. \$30,001-40,000	
8. \$40,001-50,001	
9. More than \$50,001	

TABLE 23

RELIGIOUS DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE
(Percentages)

	Group			Total
	A	B	C	
Baptist	58.4	27.5	61.0	45.8
Methodist	13.0	14.7	13.6	13.9
Catholic	6.5	19.6	10.2	13.0
Presbyterian	5.2	7.8	3.4	5.9
Episcopal		4.9	1.7	2.5
Lutheran		2.9		1.3
Other	15.6	21.6	6.8	16.0
No Response	1.3	1.0	3.4	1.7

TABLE 24

RACIAL COMPOSITION OF HIGH SCHOOL ATTENDED
BY SUBJECTS IN SAMPLE
(Percentages)

	Group			Total
	A	B	C	
Predominantly White ($<10\%$ Black)	5.2	81.4	37.3	45.8
Predominantly Black ($<10\%$ White)	54.5		20.7	22.7
Mixed	40.3	16.6	40.7	30.3
Other		2.0		1.0
No Response			1.7	1.0

TABLE 25

DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE BY TYPE
OF HIGH SCHOOL ATTENDED

High School Type	Group			Total
	A	B	C	
Public	94.8	81.4	89.1	87.4
Private	5.2	11.8	8.5	8.8
Other*		6.8	1.7	
No Response			1.7	1.0

*Includes parochial, and military schools.

Groups B and C reported a high school GPA of between 3.0 and 3.5, or a letter grade of B. Both groups also reported college GPAs that were lower than their high school grades. The subjects in Group A maintained the same GPAs in high school and college. The college grades for all the groups were basically the same. Table 26 shows the distribution of college and high school grades for the sample. Figures 4, 5, and 6 show the grade distribution for each group.

ACT scores were reported by 85% of the PWC sample, and by 21% of the PBC sample. Table 27 shows the means and standard deviations of the reported ACT scores. Group B had the highest mean score (23.29), almost twice as high as the mean for Group A ($X=12.44$). Black students in general scored significantly lower than the white students. Table 28 shows the distribution of ACT scores by race. Figure 7 shows the frequency distribution of the reported ACT scores.

Table 29 shows the distribution of college majors by group. Engineering, business and communications are the most frequently represented majors.

All the subjects in the study indicated that their two major reasons for attending college were to have better job opportunities, and financial reasons. The groups differed, however, on the third choice. Black students mentioned parents as the third choice, while the white sample chose preparation for graduate and professional school as their third choice. Table 30 shows this distribution.

TABLE 26

DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE BY HIGH SCHOOL
AND COLLEGE GPA
(Percentages)

GPA	Group							
	A		B		C		Total	
	HS	Coll.	HS	Coll.	HS	Coll.	HS	Coll.
A	1.3	3.9	21.6	10.8	15.3	1.7	13.4	6.3
B+	13.0	6.5	22.5	3.9	22.0	3.4	19.3	4.6
B	18.2	14.3	38.2	28.4	39.0	15.3	31.9	20.6
C+	40.3	35.1	16.7	23.5	11.9	16.9	23.1	25.6
C	26.0	20.8	1.0	23.5	8.5	27.1	10.9	23.5
D	1.3	2.6		5.9		8.5	0.4	5.5
No Response		16.9		3.9	3.4	27.1	1.0	13.9

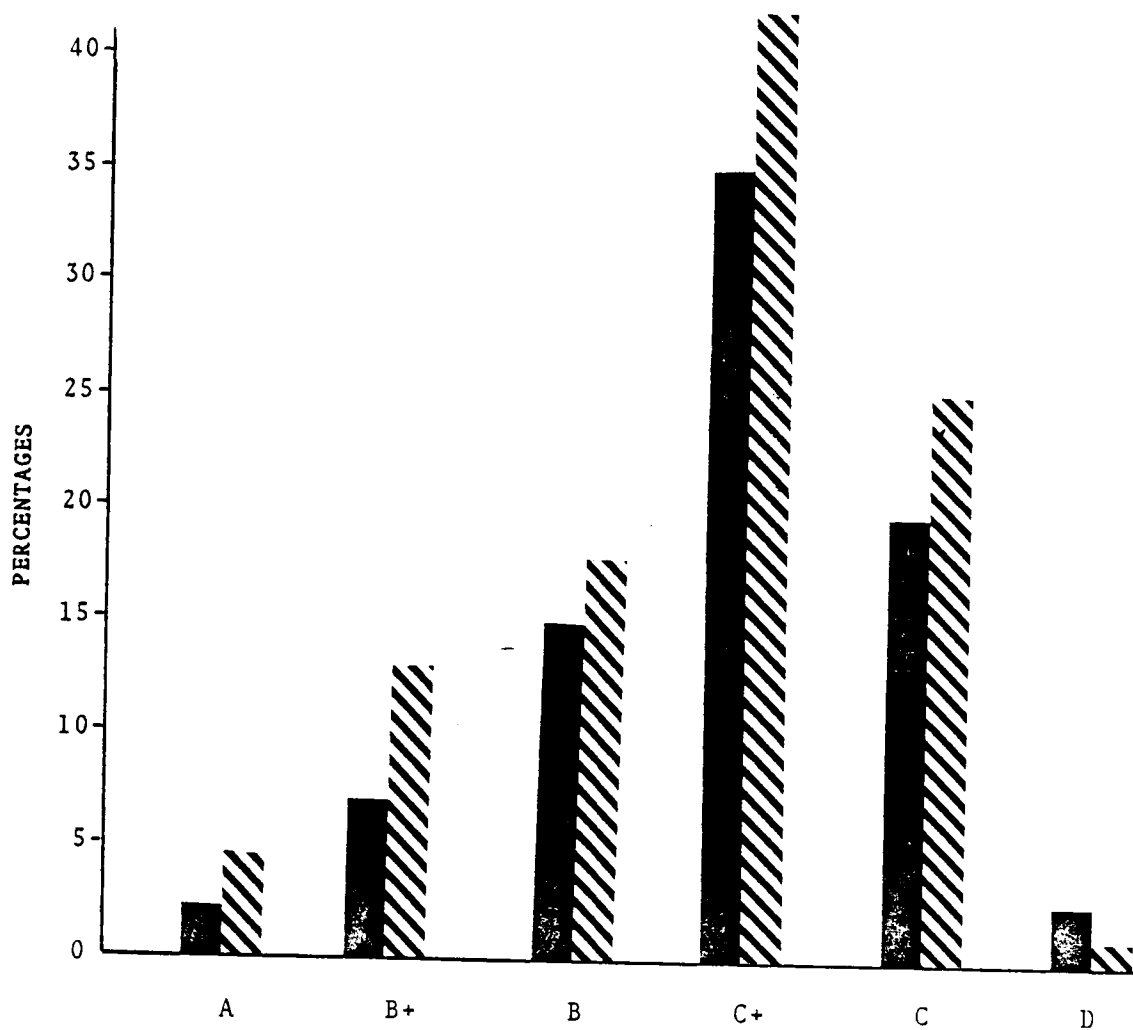


FIGURE 4

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF COLLEGE AND
HIGH SCHOOL GPA FOR GROUP A