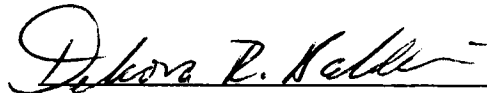


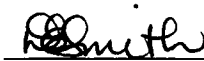
To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Allen Reginald Bellamy entitled "Socialization, Ethnic Identity, and College Environment: Factors Associated with Academic Achievement in Black College Students." I have examined the final copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts, with a major in Psychology.


Debora R. Baldwin Ph.D.
Major Professor

We have read this thesis and
recommend its acceptance:





Accepted for the Council:


Associate Vice Chancellor and
Dean of The Graduate School

**SOCIALIZATION, ETHNIC IDENTITY, AND COLLEGE
ENVIRONMENT: FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH ACADEMIC
ACHIEVEMENT IN BLACK COLLEGE STUDENTS**

**A Thesis
Presented for the
Master of Arts
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville**

**Allen Reginald Bellamy
December, 1998**

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Acknowledgment

There are many of people, friends, and family who contributed to the success of this project. The list is long and the space is too short to provide names, you all know who you are and I would like to very much thank you for your continued support and encouragement. This was the last section of my thesis I completed so I knew who to thank and how much. There are others who stand out which I will mention. First and foremost, I would like to thank God for giving me the opportunity, strength and guidance to see me through this project. Of course I would like to thank my immediate family: my fiancé, Andria Brooks, for putting up with my stress induced mood swings that were associated to this project. Mommy, Daddy, and Monica for a life long support, encouragement and having faith in my ability to accomplish just one of many feats in my life. Also, thanks for hearing me moan about the asperities of Graduate school (not to mention your generous financial support!). To my extended family, Grandmother's (Julia McCutcheon and Jeanette Bellamy) and Grandfather's (Floyd McCutcheon and the late Willie Bellamy), my Aunt Olivia, Cousin Razzie, who to provided invaluable amounts of emotional and financial support while in my graduate training as well.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research is to identify noncognitive variables that may be associated with academic achievement of Black students, in lieu of standardized testing scores and high school grade point average. More specifically, the main objective of this research project is to ascertain if racial identity, ethnic socialization and college environment (e.g., acculturative stress) are noncognitive factors contributing to academic achievement in Black students at Predominately White Universities (PWUs).

One hundred and three black participants, 45 male and 58 female undergraduate and graduate college students were obtained from two four-year PWUs, one in the Southeast and one in Midwestern region of the country. Participants were administered the Racial Identity Attitude Scale (RIAS), Acculturative Stress Scale, Social Support Questionnaire for Racial Situations (SSQRS) and demographic measures.

In general, acculturative stress, sociability factors, and various demographic variables were the only noncognitive factors correlated with academic achievement and were in support of the research hypotheses. Surprisingly, racial identity attitudes and social support were not significantly related to academic achievement. However, Immersion-Emersion states of RIAS did predict GPA for women in this college sample. While, ACT scores significantly predicted college GPA for males. Non-significant findings may be due to the low internal consistency of the RIAS found in

this study, which may be due to the out-datedness of the scale. The social support scale used in this study assessed social support for racist situations only and was not a global measure of social support. Continued research is needed for enhancing noncognitive scales measurements that may accurately predict the academic achievement of Black students.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

More than ever before, Blacks are attending college in greater numbers. According to the United States Department of Education (1994), Black student enrollment at colleges and universities is progressively increasing each year. Although Black student enrollment has been increasing for both White and historically Black colleges, many Blacks are choosing to enroll at predominantly White schools in particular. Despite the potential for hostility, racism, isolation, and insensitivity that Blacks may experience at Predominately White Universities (PWUs), many Blacks are still enrolling at these institutions in record numbers. To be successful in an environment dominated and based on Euro-American values, Black students must acquire the prevailing fundamental skills valued in that society. So, changes in Black students' speech patterns, behavior styles, and modes of interaction with various ethnic and racial cultures can be expected as they assimilate quickly to traditional European standards at PWUs (Thomas, 1971). They often are successful in accomplishing this feat, but frequently at the risk of emotional, psychological, social, and sometimes physical consequences. Black students must develop coping skills because of these inevitable changes and potentially threatening circumstances, with which White students are not ordinarily confronted (Gougis, 1983). These are bewildering phenomena that distinguish the experiences of most Black students from

the typical problems faced by White students (Henderson, 1988).

With this steady increase in Black enrollment at PWUs, school officials have been attempting to devise and develop appropriate procedures for minority admission and retention. Admission criteria and procedures used in selecting qualified minority students have conjured debate and controversy among college admission officers and advocates for Black student recruitment. Traditional cognitive measures such as High School Grade Point Average (HSGPA), and standardized examination scores (i.e., American College Testing [ACT] scores and Scholastic Aptitude Test [SAT] scores), are the main criteria used by most colleges and universities to evaluate and admit prospective applicants. These standardized measures and exams are instruments designed to capture students' previously-learned and current cognitive abilities. They essentially measure intellectual capability and academic preparation for successful matriculation at the college level. Although many more Black students are attending PWUs, many more are denied admission because of the aforementioned measures that deem particular applicants ill-prepared or unsuitable for the rigorous curriculum at the university level.

Although we have witnessed an increase in Black student enrollment into colleges and universities, retaining these students is where the difficulty seems to lie. According to the American Council on Education, 56% of Black students drop out of school before completing their degrees (Carter and Wilson, 1994). At PWUs, approximately 50% of White college students graduate within six years of enrolling,

while only approximately 25% of Black students graduate in this same period (Stewart, 1991). Although one can cite economic factors for many Black students, nonetheless some difficulties are largely attributable to academic difficulties or lack of adjustment to the university environment. In addition to these factors, however, many variables are more psychosocial in nature eventually leading to academic failure and attrition. Many Black students come from environments that foster very few interactions with Whites and experience "culture shock" (Remisk, 1972). Some say it feels like they are "strangers in a strange land" (Beckham, 1988) because of their distinctive behavioral patterns and styles (Maynard, 1980). Others say they feel like a "rejected strain" in society (Cruse, 1967), attempting to reconcile two identities (DuBois, 1953). As a result, Black students have the perception of being "a caste-like minority" (Ogbu, 1981) and may feel alienated (Suen, 1983) due to the relatively small Black student population on predominately white college campuses. The psychological and emotional dynamics that can ensue from these various factors create many problems, particularly in the academic realm. Despite the small list of the aforementioned problems that may contribute to academic and psychosocial maladjustment, the factors are numerous and very complex.

Tinto (1975; 1987) created a model that attempts to explain attrition for some college students. His hypothesis is that students who are successful and excel academically are students that are well integrated into the academic and social systems of the campus and its environment. Yet, for Black students, this is not usually

feasible or attainable because of their racial status and/or their limited social networks. He suggests that ethnicity may be a source of stability and acts as a social network when individuals of one culture are enmeshed into a culture that affords them only limited participation and is lacking in familiar subgroups and available networks. Unfortunately, when these network systems are low, it magnifies attrition at PWUs (Flemming, 1984).

Wondering whether significant factors would vary according to race in the retention of college students, O'Callaghan and Bryant (1990) examined whether noncognitive measures would differ in terms of race for 62 Black and 60 White students at a United States Military Academy. They administered the Non-Cognitive Questionnaire (Tracey and Sedlacek, 1984) which measures the psychosocial factors that are utilized in one's environment. They found that Blacks scored higher on positive self concept and could deal with and understand racism effectively. Black students in this study were able to adapt to a predominantly White environment and effectively utilized personal and social resources to help improve the system. The authors concluded that social support systems are essential for Black college students, particularly in dealing with problems related to cultural differences and aiding in the development of their self-esteem. Thus, the inclusion of noncognitive variables for college admission have great implications for the Black student persistence and retention rates at PWUs.

Trachtman (1975) reported that research using traditional measures of

cognitive functioning to predict academic achievement has accounted for only 20% of the total variance. If this is true, then there are many unidentified factors that need to be discovered. By identifying non-cognitive variables that are most relevant for Black students' academic success, college administrators could improve their student selection and identify many more promising Black students that might not otherwise be identified through traditional cognitive measures. More importantly, this information will also address one of the biggest problems faced in the recruitment of Black students: retention. Administrators and counselors may find this information useful in addressing the high attrition rate of the Black student population at many universities throughout the nation.

The purpose of this study is to identify those psychological and social variables that may be associated with academic achievement for Black students at two PWUs. The primary question posed and the main objective of this research project is to ascertain whether racial identity, ethnic socialization and college environment are factors affecting academic achievement in Black students. Using current grade point average as the dependent variable, this study will examine whether GPA is associated with various noncognitive measures (i.e., racial identity, acculturative stress, social support, socialization, college environment and demographic variables).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Ethnic and Racial Identity

In the literature, ethnic identity and racial identity have been used interchangeably as synonymous concepts. Helms and Parham (1990) contended that many people mistakenly confuse an individual's racial categorization (i.e., Black, White, Asian, etc.) with racial identity. She defined racial identity as "a sense of group or collective identity based on one's perception that he or she shares a common racial heritage with a particular racial group. . . racial identity development theory is concerned with the psychological implications of racial-group membership, that is, belief systems that evolve in reaction to perceived differential racial-group memberships" (p. 27). According to Krogman (1945), race is more of a biological construct and is defined as "a subgroup of peoples possessing a definite combination of physical characteristics, of genetic origin, the combination of which to varying degrees distinguishes the subgroup from other subgroups of mankind" (p. 48).

Identity is defined as how one gradually develops a strong, stable sense of self leading to knowledge of who one is as a person. It gives one a meaning and a purpose in life. It is comprised of the gradual, progressive change and striving for self control that allow one to integrate and organize various aspects of the self into a central core or stable personality (Loevinger, 1976). The search for identity is the

ultimate task of adolescence, which is arguably the most difficult period in individual psychological development. Still, identity development is a constant struggle and continues throughout the life span as one continues to define oneself. Thus, the equilibrium of identity can be a daunting task, even throughout adulthood.

Black identity refers to the self-perception, values, attitudes, beliefs, cultural idiosyncracies and other characteristics acquired through identification that is exclusively germane to the broader Black American population (Cross, 1978; Looney, 1988). Black identity fosters a sense of belonging and connection to ancestral heritage. It pertains to an individual's awareness of being Black and the psychological connection they feel with the values, attitudes, and beliefs commonly associated with one's Black culture.

Ethnic identity, on the other hand, allows individuals to feel accepted into a broader group by solidarity and a shared commitment through in-culture relations, other than just skin color. Ethnic identity also provides one with an effective support system when individuals of the same ethnicity are gathered (Cross, 1971). This happens largely through shared commitment of cultural characteristics that provide members of a group with a sense of pride and security to in recognizing themselves as uniquely different from other ethnic groups in the larger society.

Although the two terms are essentially two similar concepts, the term ethnic identity will be used in place of racial identity in this study, unless the term racial identity is used by authors who are referenced. As Smith (1991) contends, the term

ethnic identity is a much broader concept than racial identity. Ethnic identity includes more than just race and skin color. It includes group membership, cultural values, and various customs of many Black Americans (Smith, 1991).

In a predominantly white college environment, ethnic identity can pose a major dilemma for minority students as they must choose among various cultural modes of assimilation into mainstream society. Should one reject or distant oneself from one's cultural norms and values, reject mainstream ideas and values, or should one assimilate with a proportional balance of each? Whatever the choice, one always remains cognizant of making the appropriate choice and is aware of the consequences of each.

Historically, theorists have recognized the influence of identity on adolescent and adult behavior. Eriksons (1968) psychosocial theory emphasized the establishment of a sense of identity as the most fundamental task of adolescence. According to Erikson, the successful development of a healthy identity is crucial to the ability to master the challenges and roles of adult life. Furthermore, one cannot positively progress if one is not embedded in a "patrimony" of a cultural identity. Thus, the healthy identity development in Black adolescents is thought to be established and fostered through the socialization process of acquiring African American morals and values. Murguia, Padilla and Pavel's (1991) model of ethnicity suggested that while adolescents are developing a distinctive self-identity, the individual is concurrently acquiring an ethnic identity from the transmission of norms

and values through the socialization process with their family and community. This indoctrination facilitates the development of ethnic identity, a place in the world, with pride and inner security. Harrison, Wilson, Pine, Chan, and Buriel (1990) stated that the family, through the socialization process in childhood, is most influential and creates a life-long impact on the growing child's competencies. Boykin (1986) stated that not only family socialization but also ethnic socialization prepares the child for challenges that are to be encountered. This is done through the family helping the child to develop a positive sense of self. The family, by establishing a positive sense of ethnic identity, provides a buffer from life stressors that may be associated with the child's minority status (Hughes and Demo, 1989; Jackson, McCullough, and Gurin, 1981).

It has been argued that the American society forces European values onto Black Americans by way of education, social, and political indoctrination. This may hinder Black identity development. Fordham and Ogbu (1986) asserted that emphasizing Euro-American values tacitly implies that other ethnic cultural values are not of significance. Consequently this dynamic may have tremendous implications on the healthy identity development of Black Americans. It may stagnate their intellectual growth and interpersonal experiences (Fordham and Ogbu, 1986).

The earlier work of DuBois (1953) spoke of the "twoness" conflict that Blacks experience while residing in a foreign country or where their cultural values are not the prevailing norms. This conflict stems from the mixed signals of being made to

feel as though they are part of that society but simultaneously feeling excluded and detached from it. If not successfully resolved, Blacks may be vulnerable to developing poor self concepts and have very diffused and unintegrated identities (DuBois, 1953). The end result is what Thomas and Thomas (1971) called "negromachy." Negromachy is the confusion of a person's self-identity, with the tendency of that person to rely on society to define him/herself. This person feels the urgency to be accepted by White America and believes that "White is right," and other cultural values are insignificant. Thomas and Thomas (1971) believed this attitude compelled individuals to deny essential aspects of themselves and of their reality.

In the 1960s the late Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. headed one of the most significant movements of modern history, a movement which focused on fair and equal rights for Black Americans. Essentially the movement affected all people, regardless of race or skin color. However, the movement had its biggest impact on Black people in several domains of their lives, particularly psychologically and emotionally. Many Black Americans began to exhibit their psychological freedom from an oppressive society that implied that Blacks were "non-human." In an attempt to establish and reaffirm their African roots or heritage, many Blacks identified with everything that resembled "Blackness," and disaffirmed anything resembling "Whiteness" (Cross, 1971). This movement has been termed the "Black Consciousness Movement" or, notably, the "Black Power" movement. It peaked

shortly after the assassinations of a few of the most notable Black leaders and spokespersons of the century (e.g., Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., Malcom X, and Stokely Carmichael). This movement essentially initiated a process by which Black Americans reaffirmed who they were as individuals living in a Euro-American society.

During the peak of the Black Conscious Movement, many scholars took notice of Black Americans' identity development and noted its dynamic and continuous evolution (Cross, 1971; Jackson, 1975; Millions, 1973; Taylor, 1976; Thomas, 1971; Williams, 1975). By observing the effects of physical, social, and psychological oppression enforced by American society, many Blacks had oscillating identities (Hall, Cross, and Freedle, 1972; Krate, Leventhal, and Silverstein 1974; Millions, 1973; Wallace, 1970). This was evident in not only young Black Americans, but with middle-aged and elderly adults who were typically thought to have a stable sense of self, with external forces having an insignificant impact on their established identity.

From his observations, Cross (1978) proposed a theory of identity transformation which he believed all Black Americans essentially encounter. Cross termed this theory the *Nigrescence Model*: the process of "becoming Black." The model suggests that there are four distinct affective stages that Blacks encounter as they gradually develop their Black identity. Each stage corresponds to a distinct affective, personal and cultural frame of reference through which each Black

American passes. The developmental stages in sequential order are: *Pre-Encounter*, *Encounter*, *Immersion-Emersion*, and *Internalization*.

Pre-Encounter. Cross suggested that this was the prologue state and it typified Blacks' attitudes that are of pro-White and anti-Black sentiment. These individuals' perceptions of the world are from a White frame of reference, identifying and accepting European values in a way that degrades their own Blackness. They may behave naively in ways that are more characteristically "White" and adopt Euro-American values, attitudes and behaviors in a way that distinctively separates them from their physically and identified racial background.

Encounter. This dimensional stage typifies psychological confusion about the White values and identity one has adopted. This confusion might be precipitated by some disturbing personal or social event that causes individuals to "awaken" and reinterpret their world view of anti-Black and pro-White attitudes. Individuals identifying with this affective state are temporarily open to new views about their identity and challenges regarding their old frame of reference from their awakening. They may "straddle the fence," momentarily experimenting with their own physical, designated racial group, steadily observing and collecting information about the behavior and typical ways that are characteristically "Black." Once they perceive enough social support and their curiosity about this new Black identity becomes appealing, these individuals make a conscious decision to accept themselves as being

Black and begin an almost frantic, obsessive search for their Black identity. Although making a conscious decision to accept a Black identity, these individuals are not yet "Black" until they reach the following developmental state.

Immersion-Emersion. During this affective state, individuals idealize their Blackness and everything of value is viewed from a Black radical frame of reference. In attempts to discover their Black cultural heritage, these persons withdraw into Blackness and submerge themselves into Black stereotypical attitudes and behaviors in an attempt to distant themselves from their old White frame of reference. Glorifications of African heritage might be expressed in ways such as dressing in African attire, espousing Black Nationalist ideology, and the tendency to reject and denigrate any resemblance of European culture. It should be noted that the Immersion-Emersion racial identity stage attitudes measure very similar constructs, but are separate subscales and are considered separate when its statistically analyzed. They are traditionally thought of as Immersion ("I" [Immersion] meaning "into" as just entering into this attitudinal stage and "E" [Emersion] meaning "exit" as in this person has entered the latter phase of this attitudinal stage.)

Internalization. This is the final dimension where an individual incorporates previous developmental stage attitudes and ideologies that were once very narrow minded and constricted, and expanding them more into a bicultural identity structure. Despite these individuals acquiring a bicultural identity, they still have a very strong,

positive, and deep-rooted Black identity; they now have fewer hang-ups about race. No longer do these individuals harp on the injustice done upon the "Black man" and obsess in a paralyzing manner about such atrocities. These individuals have now acquired enough security and inner confidence in being Black that race is no longer their major concern. Furthermore, they work toward making the society a better one for all oppressed people regardless of race. Their ideological flexibility allows them an interpersonal style to mingle with various races.

Although the racial identity affective states are in sequential order, one may start at any given state, and it is not necessary that one successfully master the previous state before entering another. Racial identity is not static and will be influenced by personal experience and intellectual development (Parham, 1982). Racial identity tends to manifest itself differently according to various developmental attitudes in life (i.e., adolescence, early adulthood, middle adulthood, and late adulthood) (Cross, 1978; Parham and Helms, 1985a). More importantly, racial identity appears to not be influenced by social class and socio-economic status (Carter and Helms, 1988).

Validation of Cross's Theory

Over the last ten years, studies examining ethnic identity have dramatically increased. Approximately thirty-one studies were conducted on racial identity before

1990. However, ethnic identity studies have been around for years, dating from the early experiments conducted by Clark and Clark (1939) examining Black and White children's racial identification. Clark and Clark (1939) observed Black preschool children and they found that Black children preferred to play with White dolls more so than Black dolls when both were made available. They concluded that this exemplified that Black children had internalized much of the society's negativity about Black people and the self-hatred they had for themselves and other members of their racial group (Clark and Clark, 1947).

Still, it was not until the 1970s that William Cross (1978) began to place his racial identity construct into a systematic theory. Soon after, Parham and Helms (1981) developed a scale that would systematically measure Cross's theory of racial identity.

They conducted a study examining the correlates of self-esteem and racial identity stages of 166 Black undergraduates from various regions of the United States. Using the RIAS (Parham and Helms, 1981) and the Self-Regard subscale from the Personal Orientation Inventory (SR-POI), they hypothesized that low self-esteem values would be positively correlated with the Pre-encounter and the Encounter attitudes of the RIAS and that high self-esteem would be positively correlated with the Immersion and Internalization attitudes. What they found was that the dimensions

of Pre-encounter and Immersion attitudes of the RIAS were associated with endorsement of low self-esteem values on the SR-POI, while Encounter and Internalization attitudes were positively associated with high levels of self-esteem. They concluded that for Black students with low-self-esteem, as indicated by their Pre-encounter attitude, there was a tendency to undermine and devalue their racial identity. But, awareness and emergence of Encounter stage attitudes allowed Black individuals to confront negative feelings of their racial identity and may be indicative of an emerging, positive racial self-concept (Parham and Helms, 1985b).

Using the same data set and measurements, Parham and Helms (1985a) examined the association of racial identity, self-actualization, and affective states of those Black college students. The findings were similar to their previous study and indicated that both Pre-encounter and Immersion stage attitudes correlated with greater personal distress. Further, Pre-encounter and Immersion attitudes were negatively correlated with feelings of inferiority, anxiety, and hostility. There was also a positive correlation between Encounter racial identity development and self-actualization tendencies. They concluded that when counseling Black students who might be experiencing issues related to racial identity, the RIAS scale may be very valuable. It may assess the stage level of racial identity that students endorse at the same time, therefore allowing counselors to understand and focus on the racial identity issues that may be most troublesome (Parham and Helms, 1985a).

Since these studies were published, more than seventy studies have investigated the phenomenon of racial identity, with at least half of them examining the relationship of racial identity and academic achievement. Still, there is a paucity of research on college students and even fewer studies on the general adult population. The next section will present studies of racial identity, psychological well-being, and academic success.

Racial Identity Studies and Psychological Well-being

Studies on racial identity have found attitudes of the Pre-Encounter dimension to be associated with various emotional and psychological states. Parham and Helms (1981; 1985a; 1985b) found that Pre-Encounter attitudes were associated with low self-actualization tendencies, feelings of inferiority, high anxiety, inadequacy, and hypersensitivity. Black students classified in this developmental state preferred White counselors (Parham and Helms, 1981).

Euphoric affective states such as positive self-esteem, self-actualizing tendencies, low anxiety, and high self-actualization have been associated with the Encounter attitudes (Parham and Helms, 1985a, 1985b). Individuals with these affective states were found to have good rational problem solving and decision making skills, more so than those individuals in other stages, notably, the Pre-Encounter and Immersion-Emersion states (Helms and Parham, 1990). Encounter

attitudes have been predictive of a preference for Black counselors (Parham and Helms, 1981).

The psychological and emotional states in the Immersion-Emersion stage is one of intense rage, hostility and anger towards Whites as individuals begin to evolve a new Black identity. Agitation, rage, confusion, effrontery, and political demurring are also characteristic of this stage (Cross, 1991). Cross suggests that Black identity in this developmental state may be more superficial rather than an internalized or stable Black identity. Parham & Helms (1985a, 1985b) found that high levels of Immersion-Emersion attitudes were associated with unhealthy affective adjustment such as feelings of hostility, poor self-esteem, high anxiety, low levels of self-actualization tendencies, feelings of inferiority, inadequacy, hypersensitivity and high levels of anger. Immersion-Emersion attitudes were predictive of a preference for Black counselors (Parham & Helms, 1981).

The Internalization affective state has been associated with healthy psychological adjustment and Helms and Parham (1990) found that it predicted a rational decision-making style. Martin and Hall (1992) found that Internalization attitudes were the only dimensions associated with an internal locus of control, suggesting that people in this developmental state are more action-oriented rather than passive individuals.

Carter (1991) conducted a study of current psychological functioning and

examined its correlation to the RIAS. Measuring whether attitudes at each stage would correspond differentially to psychological functioning, Carter (1991) found that Encounter attitudes were significantly positively related to self-reported anxiety, memory impairment, paranoia, hallucinations, alcohol concerns, and global psychological distress. Pre-Encounter attitudes were significantly positively related to anxiety (denial of one's Blackness may be associated with feelings of anxiety), and memory impairment, but negatively correlated with Immersion-Emersion attitudes. Paranoid thoughts, alcohol concerns, drugs, general psychological distress were all significantly positively associated with Pre-Encounter attitudes. He concluded that Blacks may function cognitively differently depending on the racial identity level of development of that individual.

Racial Identity and Academic Achievement Studies

Greenberg (1997) examined the relationship between racial identity development and academic achievement in Black and White students at a PWU. Using students' GPA scores as the dependent measure, Greenberg administered Parham and Helms' (1981) RIAS scale to 49 Black college undergraduates and 110 White college undergraduates. For both White and Black students, they found no significant associations between endorsement of racial identity development and academic achievement. However, for Black students, their data indicated a positive

trend for students that reported higher levels of Black racial identity versus those reporting lower levels of Black racial identity development. Students in the Internalization state (stronger identity) had a higher GPA than those who endorsed Pre-encounter attitudes (lower levels of identity). She concluded that a strong, positive black identity development at a PWU is an important factor that may contribute to academic achievement. Therefore, workshops should be offered to students to increase more cultural awareness and to facilitate higher levels of Black identity on college campuses (Greenberg, 1997).

Oyserman, Grant, and Ager (1995) sampled 105 Black and White undergraduates (42 Black and 63 White) at a large Midwestern university. Using the measures of Possible Selves (Oyserman and Saltz, 1993) and Related Identity Construct (Oyserman, 1993), these researchers examined the differences between how Black and White students characterized their identities (how individuals view their sense of self) in a socially diverse context and how their sense of self influenced academic achievement. Although not reaching statistical significance, it was found that White students exercised a different approach than Black students for strategies relating to their academic achievement. For White students, individualism, the "Protestant work ethic," and a "balance" in possible selves predicted more academic achievement related strategies. For Blacks, collectivism, ethnic identity, and low endorsement of individualism tended to predict their approach. The authors

concluded that the collective world view held by many African American students in that study is consistent with traditional African American heritage and may act as a shield against self blame for academic failure. This might be useful, particularly, in a college environment that may be potentially hostile and restrictive for African American students (Oyserman, Grant, and Ager, 1995).

Shadrick (1995) examined the variables of identity and racial identity development and their relationship to academic achievement. Using GPA as a dependent measure of academic achievement, he administered the RIAS (Parham and Helms, 1981), the Extended Objective Measure of Ego Identity Status (EOMIS), the Noncognitive Questionnaire (NCQ) (Tracey and Sedlacek, 1984) and a narrative questionnaire to 147 African American students at a PWU. He found an inverse relationship between GPA and the racial identity attitudes typical of Immersion- Emersion affective states. In addition, there was a positive correlation between self-concept and GPA in the female students only. Content analysis of students' narratives suggested that students had confidence in their academic ability, with 33% attributing their confidence to religious faith. These students also reported having a strong social support system that consisted of family, friends, mentors, and faculty/staff. At least one-fourth of the students reported experiencing incidents of either subtle or blatant racism, but developed effective strategies to "brush off" and persist in their academics (Shadrick, 1995).

Cooley (1992) examined the association between ethnic identity, self-esteem, and academic achievement of seventy-five Black college freshman students that attended a PWU in the Southeast region of the country. She hypothesized that academic achievement and specific domains of self-esteem (i.e., global, academic, social, and physical appearance), would be influenced by a student's ethnic identity development. She also predicted that the various domains of self-esteem would also have a significant influence on ethnic identity and academic achievement. She obtained these students' academic aptitude scores (ACT and/or SAT scores) and examined their predictive value on GPA. She found that none of the various domains of self-esteem affected the students' academic achievement, but that there was an association between ethnic identity and reported self-concept. The stronger the students' ethnic identity, the higher their self-esteem. Also, the stronger the students' ethnic identity, the higher their GPAs. Furthermore, students who came from higher socioeconomic backgrounds were found to have higher GPA. Cooley concluded that academic aptitude scores were not significant factors predicting the academic success in her Black college students sample. She suggested that aptitude scores be interpreted in conjunction with other pertinent and reliable noncognitive factors that have been associated with the academic achievement. Furthermore, she suggested that SES and the home environments be considered in the admission process.

Evans-Hughes (1992) designed a study that examined the factors of racial

identity and locus of control on the college adjustment and academic achievement of 72 African American college students attending a PWU in the Eastern region of the country. She administered the RIAS (Parham and Helm, 1981), the Rotter Internal-External Scale (Rotter, 1966), Student Adaptation College Questionnaire (Baker and Siryk, 1984), demographic information and measured their relationship to those students' current GPAs. She found no significant association with racial identity development, college adjustment or GPA. But, there was a significant correlation between locus of control and personal-emotional adjustment subscale. Students who reported having a high internal locus of control were found to have significantly better psychosocial adjustment to their college environment. The best predictors of students' overall college adjustment were internal locus of control and involvement or membership in campus organizations. Locus of control exclusively, however, was not related to students' academic achievement. She concluded that students' sense of control over themselves and their environment may lead to better overall level of personal adjustment, more so than the students' racial identity. She suggested that school administrators involved in devising retention methods for Black students should focus on programs that increase these students' sense of control, as well as encouraging these students to become involved in various campus organizations (Evans-Hughes, 1992).

Jennings (1992) examined self-esteem levels, racial identity attitudes, and

membership in Afrocentric organizations of 93 African-American college students attending a predominantly White community college in Northern Virginia. She examined whether noncognitive variables would be associated with these students' academic achievement. Using the Self Esteem Inventory developed by Coopersmith (1967) and the RIAS (Parham and Helms, 1981), the author found that the only noncognitive variable associated with academic achievement for that sample was self esteem: the higher the reported self-esteem, the higher the GPA. The study found no significant relationship between academic achievement and the variables of racial identity and organization. She suggested that factors other than GPA should be examined as a measures of success.

Williams and Leonard (1988) examined the relationship between self-efficacy, racial identity, vocational interest, and the college environment in 196 Black college students at a PWU and examined the contribution of these variables to successfully completing the minimum requirements for these students' respective college major. Using the RIAS (Parham and Helms, 1981), Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI), Academic and Social Integration Inventory (Pascarella and Terenzini, 1980), GPA and SAT scores, they found that racial identity, vocational interest, and college environment were not factors significantly associated with high academic achievement. However, they found a significant relationship between self-efficacy and academic achievement. Students who reported higher measures of self-

efficacy did in fact have higher GPAs. Combined, cognitive factors (i.e., HSGPA and SAT scores) were more predictive than the noncognitive variables (i.e., self-efficacy, racial identity, vocational interest, and the college environment) of successful completion of students' academic majors (Williams & Leonard, 1988). This study concluded that traditional measures may be useful for predicting academic success.

Acculturative Stress

The phenomenon of acculturative stress refers to one's discomfort and conflict, whether psychological, emotional, or physical, that result from being exposed to and enmeshed in a culture that is significantly different from one's own culture (Berry and Annis, 1974). Acculturative stress is a consequence of the different and unequivocal values, opportunities and lifestyles many Black Americans face with the majority culture (Berry and Annis, 1974). Although the United States is a very diverse society with many racial and ethnic groups, socialization practices continue to emphasize and reinforce Euro-American, middle-class values and attitudes. Consequently, the acculturation process of juxtaposing new cultural values and ideas with more traditional lifestyles may be troublesome. Achieving a comfortable level of biculturalization, can thus, create conflict, stress, and confusion for Black Americans. More specifically, for incoming Black students attending a PWU, the shock can be overwhelming.

The discomfort and stress Black Americans may encounter as they interact within culturally dystonic situations may create either changes in the perception of the individual without affecting self-identity or changes associated with loss of identity. Individuals sometimes must make conflictual decisions regarding the value of maintaining the distinctiveness of their ethnic group versus the relative value of associating with other social groups in the larger society. An individual's attempts to balance group identity needs and personal desires for positive relations within the larger society may result in feelings of alienation, anxiety, and loss of identity (Berry, 1984; Berry, Kim, Power, Young, and Bujaki, 1989; Fordham and Ogbu, 1986; Spencer, Kim, and Marshall, 1987).

Major changes in self-image, personality, and specific psychological modes of functioning may be the result of the Black individual non-affirmation of their culturally unique and separate identities that differ from the larger society. Fanon (1972) postulated that the dilemma of Blacks participating in mainstream society ultimately would result in oppression and deracialization of the undervalued characteristics in the Black culture. Deracialization refers to the implicit forced process whereby one abandons one's cultural values and characteristics, such as language, physical appearance, demeanor, ideology or food for a way of life that is conforming to the more broadly accepted values of society and what seemingly may appear as an attempt to obtain a better lifestyle. Cross (1991) suggested that in a society that

reinforces European values, the acquisition of a strong Black identity may serve to protect Black individuals from the aforementioned ordeals. More importantly, acquisition of a Black identity: (1) safeguards the person from the negative psychological stress that results from having to live in a society that at times can be very racist; (2) provides a sense of purpose, meaning, and affiliation; and (3) provides a psychological mechanism that facilitates social intercourse with other cultures outside the boundaries of blackness.

Acculturative Stress and Academic Achievement Studies

Roberts and White (1989) investigated the relationship of academic and personal stressors to the overall health of 202 Black and White students at a PWU. The students were part of a specially selected group of students scoring less than a composite score of sixteen on their ACT exam. The authors found that concerns relating to career and future aspirations were the highest academic stressors identified for both Black and White students in regard to academic stressors. Personal stress changes relating to the assimilation and acculturation difficulties were equally identified as the most stressful for both Black and White students. Furthermore, both Black and female participants with lower ACT scores reported more frequent health problems and illness. Black students reported twice as many medical and emotional illnesses as White students. The authors concluded that persons with lower ACT

scores, particularly Black and women students, were more susceptible to medical and emotional illnesses when faced with stressful situations in the college environment. They suggested that periodic health screening and adequate counseling, health services, and academic tutoring be available for students with low ACT scores (Roberts and White, 1989).

Edmunds (1984) sampled 284 Black students at a PWU. An 83-item inventory that was developed by the author for identifying potential origins for stress in college students was administered. He found that Black students identified three general areas as the most salient stressors: (1) economic stress, (2) academic stress, and (3) environmental stress. Financial difficulties, including lack of financial support, were the most identified in the economic realm. Whereas, academically, students identified test anxiety, competition for grades, writing essays, heavy academic load, fear of failure and concentration difficulties most frequently. Students attributed their high levels of stress to external and environmental factors such as the limited number of Black students with whom to associate and insensitivity of the administration and staff to Black students' concerns. He concluded differential measures used to assess the needs of Black college students should focus more on personal, interpersonal, academic, environmental and economic stressors in the college environment.

Gougis (1983) conducted an experimental study to examine the effects of the academic learning style and emotional consequence to Black college students when

they were exposed to environmental stressors, i.e. racial prejudice, at a PWU.

Ninety students were randomly selected and placed into two groups, control and experimental. Both groups were given the same lecture lines from a weather broadcast to rehearse but they were given in different contexts. The control group was placed in an environment that displayed pictures of friendly and safe surroundings for Black people, while the lines for rehearsal given to the experimental group was in a context where pictures of hostility, racial prejudice, and oppression towards Black people were displayed.

Gougis timed and recorded the amount of material recalled and the amount of time spent preparing for rehearsal of each group. Izard's Differential Emotion Scale (Izard, 1969) was used to assess the emotional effects of these materials. The authors found that feelings of emotional distress, disgust, and anger were reported by the experimental students. That same group also recalled significantly less material than the control participants. It was concluded that emotional stress resulting from racial prejudice adversely affected study behavior and learning of the experimental group participants (Gougis, 1983).

Stress can ultimately result from situations which bring about confusion, ambiguity, indifference, rage, and anger (Willis, 1995). The end result of this stress may precipitate loss of concentration, ineffective use of valuable time, lower productivity, problems in socialization, and fewer opportunities to develop individual

strengths and capacities (Cohen & Willis, 1985). Stress is likely to have an adverse effect on students' academic performance by reducing their willingness to persist at academic tasks and interfering with cognitive processes involved in learning (Gougis, 1983). For example, Somova, Diarra, and Jacobs (1995) found that students who were not able to cope with stress and/or had poor academic performance were at a higher risk for hypertension than students who were able to cope with stress. Williams and Anderson (1985) reported that Black students who obtained high acculturative stress scores were typically more anxious, had lower self-esteem, had less experience with other racial groups, and had a small Black support system at a PWU. However, this was not true for students attending a predominantly Black University (PBUs).

Influenced by the results of Flemming's (1984) study, Nottingham, Rosen, and Parks (1992) conducted a study comparing the psychological adjustment of 202 Black students at a PWU and a PBU. They administered the Beck Depression Inventory, the Hopelessness Scale, the Life Experience Survey (Sarason, Johnson, and Siegel, 1978), the University Alienation Scale (Dean, 1961), the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965), the Environmental Satisfaction Questionnaire (Corazzini, Wilson, and Huebner, 1977), and the RIAS (Parham and Helms, 1981). They found that students did in fact differ on their perceived levels of psychosocial stress and the implications it had on their academic adjustment. Students at the PBU were more socially and culturally active as compared to those at the PWU who

experienced more social estrangement. Also students at the PWU reported more feelings of isolation, less adequate information on Black students, fewer opportunities to date, and more experiences with racism (Nottingham, Rosen, and Parks 1992). The authors concluded that prevention programs that students in dealing with various psychosocial stressors that affect college students are warranted for both institutions.

Social Support

Social support appears to buffer the negative effects of stress through a supportive didactic relationship that neutralizes distressing emotions and facilitates restructuring of cognitive distortions (Cohen and Wills, 1985; Thoits, 1986). Research examining social support indicated that such support has a positive effect on those who are clinically depressed (Brown and Gray, 1987; Coyne and Downey, 1991), enhances psychological and physical well-being (Cohen and Wills, 1985; Pagel, Erdly, and Becker, 1987), can lengthen the life span (Berkman and Syme, 1979; Sarason, 1988), decreases the likelihood of alcohol dependency (Ford and Carr, 1990), facilitates social integration and self-esteem (Griffin, 1991), and is associated with active coping skills and college adjustment (Zea, Jarama, and Bianchi, 1995).

Due to economic hardships and avoidance of mental health facilities, informal social support networks have been the agent for maintaining social, economic, and

psychological equilibrium in the Black community (Harrison, et al., 1990; Hill, 1971; McAdoo, 1981). The Black family is the largest and primary mechanism utilized, next to the church, for support and guidance through good and bad times in the Black community. This trend seems to carry over into the university setting as well. For the most part, Black students are still reluctant to seek out consultation and tend not to utilize available resources. Many Black students continue to lean heavily on their family and/or the "kinship" of other Black students on campus as their primary social support system (Stewart and Vaux, 1986).

Some of this reluctance of Black students to utilize campus resources may be attributed to ignorance of such services available to them. But much of this hesitancy, as well as their utilization of social support systems that are not staffed by people of the same race as themselves, may also be attributed to the concept of "racism reaction." This refers to the protective suspicious stance some African Americans assume when they perceive White Americans are singling them out for differential treatment (Thompson, Milburn, Brown, and Gray, 1990). "Racism reaction" is believed to be more common among African American students than of White American students at PWUs (Thompson et al., 1990). In their study examining this construct, Thompson et al. (1990) found that African American students believed they were being singled out for differential and unfair treatment, more so than White American students. It is a healthy adaption to a threatening social environment.

Racism reaction can be considered a paranoid perception of Black Americans, but has been commonly referred to as a "healthy cultural paranoia" (Grier and Cobbs, 1968). This phenomenon has been distinguished from a pathological "paranoia" by the fact that it is the anxiety and suspiciousness that Black Americans acquire as a result of negative past experiences with the majority culture (Grier and Cobbs, 1968). Black Americans feel that they may be perceived negatively or receive unfair treatment as a direct result of their minority status. As a result, every interaction involving a Black student and someone from a different race can ultimately be perceived racially as a negative interpersonal interaction, creating potential problems in how they think they are perceived because of their race. In the campus setting, this consequently leads to feelings of ambivalence among Black students to seek outside assistance in their time of need.

Boyce (1994) found that Blacks identified having a significantly smaller social support network for issues dealing with racism and found this support system as less satisfying than for globally stressful situations. Boyce concluded that common everyday stressors are significantly different from stressors created by racism. Furthermore, many Blacks may have sufficient resources for general stressors but inadequate resources to deal with stressors involving racism. Everyone is vulnerable to some kind of stress in daily life, but racism is almost an inevitable phenomenon that Blacks are unlikely to escape (Boyce, 1994).

Watson and Siler (1984) suggested that campus perception and social support were positively related to Black students' integration within their university setting. They looked at individual personality factors that may be associated with active participation/integration with faculty and campus organizations in 84 Black college undergraduate students. The authors developed an instrument measuring dogmatism, communication anxiety, social concerns, and attitudes concerning their campus environments. They found the more positive Black students' attitudes were towards their campus environment, the less communication apprehension they exhibited. Furthermore, this enhanced attitude was positively related to the degree of social support given by their peers.

Social support has been shown to have significant consequences for educational outcomes (Allen, 1987; Ford and Carr, 1990; Jay and D'Augelli, 1991). For example, Jay and D'Augelli (1991) examined the degree of social support reported by 81 White and 84 African American incoming first year students at a PWU in the Midwest. They found that African American students reported less social support, had more difficulty adjusting to their campus environment, and had significantly lower GPAs than did White students. They concluded that Black students should develop a more bicultural interactive perspective, thereby increasing their social support systems.

Mallinckrodt (1988) found that the amount of social support, particularly

from the university community, was a crucial factor for the retention of Black students at a PWU. Mallinckrodt (1988) examined factors of college persistence and perceived social support from the university community, family, and friends of 101 White and 42 Black college undergraduates at a PWU. One year later, 24 White and 10 Black students had dropped out of school. Mallinckrodt found that those students who dropped out of school had lower levels of social support and reported more health problems than those who persisted. He concluded that lack of social support rendered students open to various problems that ultimately had a significant adverse impact on students' psychological functioning and academic achievement.

Jung and Khalsa (1989) examined social support, coping strategies, hassles and their relationship to depression among 96 Black and 64 White students at a PWU. They found Blacks had significantly more hassles than White students and Blacks were more likely to seek support from family members than from friends. The opposite was true for White students. It was found that active problem solving and social support mechanisms were equally reported by both groups in coping with stress. With regard to psychological well being, perceived social support from family was related to lower depression for Black students and perceived social support from friends was related to lower depression for White students. Overall, they found that hassles were directly related to depression in both groups, but apparently the perceived family support for Black students was associated with lower rates of

depression (Jung and Khalsa, 1989).

Barnett (1995) conducted a study of 50 Black college students at a PWU to examine the factors that contributed to their academic persistence. She hypothesized that the amount of social support received while attending college would effect the academic persistence of college students. Barnett (1995) administered The Cultural Mistrusts Inventory, The Racism Reaction Scale, and an interview consisting of open-and-closed ended questions. She found a significant correlation between in-group social networks and academic persistence; the stronger and larger the student's social network consisting primarily of Black students, the more likely it was for them to persist in their academic study. Also, family support helped to decrease the stress of college by providing an emotional outlet. She suggests that the family support system promoted self-confidence in these students with regard to intellectual competence. Moreover, the kinship social networks that were established by these students helped them to adapt and become more involved within their university environment. Barnett concludes by stating that Black students are prone to seek support systems which will enable them to preserve their emotional and academic stability.

O'Leary (1991) conducted a study at a large Midwestern university of 51 Anglo American, 22 Asian American, 44 Black American, and 20 Hispanic successful graduating college seniors. She examined cultural differences in theses students' use of social support systems. O'Leary administered the Perceived Support

Network Inventory that measured perceived social support, network size, types and sources of support, initiation of support-seeking behavior, perceived availability, multi-dimensionality and reciprocity of support, felt satisfaction with support, and perceived network conflict. She found that these students did not differ in terms of their reported reliance and perceived social support of immediate (i.e., close friends and family) and professional mentors. Specifically, Black students were more likely to seek out and initiate support than the other racial groups. Furthermore, they were also more inclined to join student and minority organizations and be more active in extra-curricular activities. O'Leary (1991) suggested that perceived racist attitudes experienced by these Black students may contribute to their support seeking and greater participation in cultural organizations. She concluded that more research examining social support networking trends of all students will help universities obtain a better understanding of how students can maximize their full potential in an academic setting.

Cognitive Measures of Academic Achievement

Over the past twenty five years, there have been several studies conducted that have challenged the use of traditional academic measures as the primary standard on which to base college admission for minority students (Beasley and Sease, 1974; Henry, Bryson, and Henry, 1990; Morgan, 1990; Nettles, Thoeny, and Gosman,

1986; Young and Sowa, 1992). As mentioned previously, HSGPA, SAT, ACT are currently the primary cognitive criteria used to assess academic achievement. The assumption for these exams are that they can accurately predict subsequent college performance, and do so equally well for different subgroups (e.g. minorities vs. nonminorities) (Petrie, 1993). These researchers found that standardized test scores were an unreliable source for predicting academic achievement, and that they were unrelated to college GPA, specifically for Black students (Beasley and Sease, 1974; Henry et al., 1990; Morgan, 1990; Nettles et al., 1986; Young and Sowa, 1992). Studies looking at high school grade point average and SAT or ACT scores indicate that these measures do not predict college first semester grade point averages accurately for Black Americans (Pfeifer and Sedlacek, 1971; Young and Sowa, 1992), particularly for Black men attending White institutions (Dawkins and Braddock, 1982). But both (standardized exam scores and HSGPA) can be misleading, particularly when these scores are the primary determinants for admission (Allen, 1988).

Corley, Goodjoin, and York (1991) examined rural and urban Black students HSGPA, SAT scores, and college GPA and found that rural Black students had significantly lower SAT scores than urban Black students. However, rural Black students had significantly higher HSGPA and college GPA than urban Black students. They suggested that the rural student population tended to be highly motivated and

were academic over-achievers, despite the inability of the SAT test to capture such skills. They contended that this motivation is generalized into their college achievement (Corley, Goodjoin, & York, 1991).

Researchers have found that ACT and SAT scores obtained from both Black and White students were inclined to significantly over-predict academic performance, more so for Black college students than for White students (Breland, 1978; Cleary, 1968). Based on the assumption that these are adequate measures for predicting subsequent academic performance for both races, the findings of Breland (1978) and Cleary (1968) implied that neither of these measures is, in fact, adequate predictors for Black students' academic achievement. Furthermore, there may be some phenomena in the college experience that may have an adverse effect for Black students more so than for White students (Nettles, 1991). Nettles (1991) suggested that exploration of noncognitive variables and how they may impact Black students' academic performance may be a start at unraveling this mystery.

Based on the findings and conclusions of these aforementioned studies, considerable doubt exists regarding the validity of using standardized testing as a major selection criteria for Black students. The results to date also make a strong case for exploring alternate methods, such as nonintellectual factors, that may enhance the predictive ability of standardized measures.

Purpose

Research that focuses on cognitive factors alone may fail to include developmental processes and exclude variables that capture the unique traits and experiences of Black students in White educational settings. Therefore, the current study includes noncognitive variables in an effort to examine factors affecting Black students in the college environment. By identifying noncognitive variables that may be most relevant for Black students' academic success and exploring the relationship between stress and social support and how these variables relate to academic performance, college administrators and counselors can reduce the high attrition rate that plagues Black students attending PWUs.

Hypotheses

1. Noncognitive variables (i.e., ethnic identity, acculturative stress, social support and socialization) will be significantly correlated with GPA.
2. College students' GPA will vary according to the developmental attitudes of racial identity:
 - a) Students identifying with Pre-encounter attitudes will have significantly lower GPAs than students identifying with Encounter, Immersion, Emersion and Internalization affective states.
 - b) Students identifying with Encounter attitudes will have significantly

higher GPAs than students identifying with Pre-encounter, Immersion, and Emersion affective states, but significantly lower GPAs than students with Internalization attitudes.

c) Students identifying with Immersion-Emersion attitudes will have significantly higher GPAs than students identifying with Pre-encounter affective states, but significantly lower GPAs than students in the Encounter and Internalization attitudes.

d) Students identifying with Internalization attitudes will have significantly higher GPAs than students with pre-encounter, Encounter, Immersion, and Emersion affective states. Attitudes characteristic of Internalization states will also be correlated with age. Older students will more likely be in the Internalization attitudes.

3. Social support will moderate the effects of stress on GPA.

4. There will be significant differences between gender and college classification on each of the dependent variables (i.e., racial identity, acculturative stress, social support, and socialization).

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Participants

One hundred and three Black (male 45 [44%] and 58 [56%] female) undergraduate college students from two PWUs participated in this investigative study. Eighty-eight students from The University of Tennessee-Knoxville (UTK) and fifteen students from Eastern Michigan University (EMU) were recruited from Psychology, African-American Studies, and Technology courses. Announcements regarding the study were made in these classes and sign-up sheets were posted on the University of Tennessee Psychology Department bulletin board with prearranged times when questionnaires could be completed for the UTK population. Students obtained from UTK completed questionnaires in the Austin Peay Building's suite study area. Announcements regarding the study at EMU were made in these classes as well, but students completed the questionnaires during class time. Completion of the questionnaire took approximately twenty-five minutes, and students received extra credit for participating in both samples.

In order to participate in this study, participants had to read, sign and date the Informed Consent form. The form briefly described the purpose of the project and gave a listing of the measures being used. It further provided an explanation as to why social security numbers were needed and how they would be used for this study.

Because GPA is the dependent measure of students academic achievement in this study and ACT scores are an important variable used to predict academic achievement, it was necessary that students' social security numbers (which are used as their student school ID numbers) be obtained from the schools record offices in order to obtain their official GPA and ACT scores. Participants were informed that all information gathered from this study would remain confidential and names, social security numbers that contained their GPA and ACT scores, would be coded to maintain their confidentiality. They were also informed that their participation was voluntary and they could withdraw from the study at any point without penalty.

Measures

Racial Identity Attitude Scale. The Racial Identity Attitude Scale (RIAS-B) is a self-report inventory (30-items) developed by Parham and Helms (1981) to measure the psychological aspects of Blacks' acquisition of racial identity under the conditions of oppression. The measure is reflective of the four development racial identity attitudes. Each state reflects a distinctive cognitive and affective world view or attitude. The four dimensions depict an individual's movement from racial identity development characterized by negative self-perceptions to a self-actualized state where the individual has a positive acceptance of his/her racial identity. The four affective states are Pre-Encounter, Encounter, Immersion-Emersion and Internalization.

The RIAS-B, to date, is the most widely-referenced scale in the literature on racial identity in Black Americans. It was developed as a measurement tool for academic counselors, so its use has mainly been in the university setting. The RIAS-B has been well documented as producing moderately reliable and valid results. Parham and Helms (1985a) computed coefficient alphas and reported internal consistency reliability coefficients for the four stages of RIAS-B as the following: Pre-Encounter = .76, Encounter = .51, Immersion- Emersion = .69, and Internalization = .80. Ponterro and Wise (1987) have examined the construct validity of the RIAS-B and found strong support for the constructs of Pre-Encounter, Immersion, Emersion, and Internalization.

The measure is set on a five point Likert scale with respondents indicating their level of agreement on a continuum ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree). Scores for each stage are computed by adding the total responses to the keyed subscale items and dividing by the number of items in that particular scale, producing an average score.

Social Support Questionnaire for Racial Situations. Modifying the 27-item Social Support Questionnaire developed by Sarason, Levine, Basham, & Sarason (1983), Boyce (1994) developed a five-item questionnaire to measure the size of and satisfaction with the social support systems of Black students, particularly when racism may be the primary stressor. This Social Support Questionnaire for Racial Situations (SSQRS) was developed after Boyce found traditional social

support measures to be inherently global and did not address the issue of racism or the coping mechanism of many Black Americans when racism is either perceived or experienced.

Participants are asked to respond to their perceived levels of social support for racial situations in two parts: first, they identify people they can depend on and with whom they feel comfortable discussing racial issues. Respondents write the initials of the person(s) identified (e.g., J.D. = John Doe), their relation to the respondent (i.e., father, friend, employer, etc.), and the race of the person(s) identified (i.e., B = Black, White = W, or Other). The second part requires respondents to rate how satisfied they are with their social support system and with the people identified on the specific issue. The measure is set on a six-point Likert scale (i.e. 6 = very satisfied, 5 = fairly satisfied, 4 = a little satisfied, 3 = a little dissatisfied, 2 = fairly dissatisfied, 1 = very dissatisfied). The first part yields a score measuring the Number of Perceived Availability or Network Score, and the second part yields the Satisfaction Score for that question pertaining to a particular incident. Scores are obtained by mathematically computing the mean for perceived social support system and the mean amount of satisfaction with this support system. Reliability analyses for the two scales on this measure have been reported to be: Cronbach's alpha = .89 for the Network Score and alpha = .88 for the Satisfaction Score (Boyce, 1994).

Socialization. Socialization in this study was operationally defined as the

amount of activities and the number of organizations in which a student is involved. The term implicitly refers to the students relatedness and level of social involvement (for example, membership in campus, cultural, or Greek organizations) compared to individual isolation. Attendance at campus events and entertainment (i.e., guest lectures, plays, concerts, etc.) and utilization of campus recreational facilities were also considered socialization variables. This information was obtained via the demographic survey (see Appendix G).

Acculturative Stress Scale. The Acculturative Stress Scale was developed by Williams and Anderson (1985). The scale is designed to measure factors of anxiety, acculturative stress, and self-esteem. In particular, this scale measures the reactions, coping mechanisms, and choices Black Americans make in a integrated social environment where there may be a potential for one to endure stress.

Borrowing items from the Race Anxiety subscales of the Racial Awareness Questionnaire developed by Bowler and Rauch (1983), the authors created the Acculturative Stress Scale to measure Black students' alienation, stressful interactions with other ethnic groups, and change in group affiliation or style of interaction with any particular peer group whose behavior has changed as a result of assimilation. The nine-item measure is set on a five-point Likert rating scale, ranging from 1 (Disagree) thru 5 (Strongly Agree). The items refer to one's personal feelings and attitudes in regards to anxiety as a result of certain situations where skin color or race is a primary factor for stress. The scale measures both trait anxiety and state anxiety.

Trait anxiety refers to personal characteristics which are pervasive across time and situations, while state anxiety refers to temporary movement into particular environmental situations. The items of this scale appear to be representative of the domain of the measured construct.

William and Anderson (1985) reported the reliability of the trait and state anxiety scales to be the following: Cronbach's alpha coefficient for trait anxiety = .85 and state anxiety = .84. Construct validity of the scale items has been documented to measure both trait and state dimensions and are representative of the measured construct (William and Anderson, 1985). Concurrent validity of the Acculturative Stress Scale has been based on significant correlations ($p < .05$) the with Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965)(0.32) and Spielberger's Trait Anxiety Scale (Spielberger, 1972) (0.33).

Academic Achievement. Academic achievement was defined as current grade point average based on a 4.0 grading scale. Grades and ACT scores were obtained from academic records for each student. All information was confidential and was secured by the researcher from both universities.

Procedures

All students were briefed before they were given the questionnaire. See Appendix E for a complete description of the briefing script. On the informed consent, the students were instructed that this was a survey assessing their political

attitudes and general feelings they have about themselves, their identity, and how they perceive their college environment. Subjects were told to read the informed consent form first and proceed to complete the questionnaire if they did not have any questions. Directions and instructions for each measure were printed at the beginning of each survey. See Appendix F for complete details of the questionnaire.

After the questionnaire packets were completed, the primary investigator at UTK assigned a coded number to each packet. The informed consent form was then sent to Student Data Analysis to obtain each student participants official grade point average and American College Test (ACT) scores. The completed questionnaire data were entered into computer format and then filed. Student Data Analysis then returned the informed consent forms, along with GPAs and ACT scores of each participant, in coded form, to the primary investigator. Consent forms and questionnaire packets were filed separately in a locked file cabinet.

At EMU, the designated professor, followed the same procedure for the UTK sample except that consent forms and questionnaires were separated in coded form and hand delivered to the primary investigator in a sealed envelope. The completed questionnaire data were then entered into computer format and filed in a locked file cabinet.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The results section will be organized into two sections. The first will present the descriptive statistics of all variables measured; the second will include summary tables and findings of the statistical analyses performed to address each of the research hypotheses. The SPSS statistical package was used to analyze all the data gathered in this study. Statistical procedures included Cronbach's alpha reliability, Pearson correlation coefficients, ANOVA, t-tests, and regression analyses. Significance level was set at .05.

Descriptive Statistics

Demographic Data. A total of 103 Black college students participated in this research project. Eighty-five percent came from The University of Tennessee, Knoxville and 15% (N=15) from Eastern Michigan University. Forty-four percent (N=45) were males and 56% (N=58) females. Thirty-eight percent of the participants at UTK (N=39) were males and 47% (N=49) were females. Six percent (N=6) of the participants from EMU were males and 9% (N=9) females. The demographic data by college classification indicated 19% (N=20) freshman, 18% (N=19) sophomores, 25% (N=26) juniors, 21% (N=22) seniors, and 16% (N=16) graduate students. See Appendix H for sample demographic illustration.

The age of this sample ranged from 17 to 51 years of age with a mean age of 24.02 and a standard deviation of 8.41. Males ranged from 17 to 42 years with a mean of 21.73, standard deviation of 4.71 and females' ages ranged from 18 to 51 years, with a mean age of 25.82, standard deviation 10.14. The majority of this student sample classified themselves as single, 86.4% (N=89); 6.8% (N=7) reported being presently married; 5.8% (N=6) reported that they were divorced; and 1% (N=1) identified themselves as widowed. Seventy-nine percent (N=81) of the students reported they had no children, while 20% (21) reported having children, and one student did not respond to this question. As for residence, 50.5% (N=52) lived on campus, 39.8% (N=41) lived off-campus, and 9.7% (N=9) students did not reply to this question. Twenty-eight (N=29) percent reported they were unemployed, 44% (N=45) reported part-time employment, and 28% (N=29) reported being employed full-time. The majority of the students (75%, N=75) received some kind of financial aid.

With regard to fathers' level of education, 7.8% (N=8) of the respondents' fathers had earned a graduate or professional degree, 45.6% (N=47) had obtained a college degree or at least earned college credits, 31.1% (N=32) had earned a high school diploma or attended high school but did not obtain their diploma, and 5.8% (N=3) had less than a high school education. Ten (9.7%) participants did not respond to this question. For the mothers level of education, 11.7% (N=12) earned a graduate or professional degree, 46.6% (N=48) had at least earned college credits

or had obtained a college degree, 35.9% (N=37) earned a high school diploma or attended high school but did not obtain their diploma, and 1% (N=1) had less than a high school education. Five female participants did not respond to this question. Fifty-one and one half percent (N=53) of the students reported being raised in a two-parent home with their biological parents, while 48.5% (50) percent reported being raised in a environment other than the traditional biological, two-parent home environment. The mean number of brothers and sisters reported were 1.68% and 1.64%, respectively, with a range of 0 to 8. Thirty-seven percent (N=38) reported living in a racially diverse neighborhood and 39% (N=40) reported living in a racially segregated neighborhood. Unfortunately, 24% (N=25) of the participants did not respond to this question.

In response to previous colleges/universities attended, 48.5% (N=50) reported having attended another college institution. Also, in response to racial percentage makeup of their high school attended, 55.3% (N=57) reported attending a high school that was over 51% majority Black, 29.1% (N=30) reported attending a high school that was primarily White (with less than 40% black students). Fifteen percent (N=16) of the students did not respond to this question.

In response to the question how participants labeled their racial identification, 40.8% (N=42) identified themselves as African-American, 38.8% (N=40) identified themselves as Black, 7.8% (N=8) wanted to be labeled American, 3.9% (N=4) preferred either being identified as African-American and/or Black, 1.9% (N=2)

preferred Black American, and 6.8% (N=2) reported other ideographic labels (i.e. all the above, individual, "child of God," etc.). Also, 69.9% (N=72) reported that the majority of people they associated with were Black, 8.7% (N=9) reported associating with only Black individuals, while 5.8% (N=6) reported that they associated with mostly White people. Fifteen percent (N=16) of the participants reported they had an integrated social network and did not limit their association to any particular race.

Attempts were also made at measuring the students' college socialization. Various questions solicited information about participants' involvement in campus organizations and participation in recreational and scholastic activities. Together, they were classified as the "socialization" variable. Twenty-seven percent reported being (N=103) in an academic honors program, 19.8% (N=103) were in a Greek organization, 32.3% (N=103) reported being involved in a cultural organization (i.e., African Student Association; Association of Black Students), 37.9% (N=103) attested to involvement in campus political and social organizations, 9.8% (N=103) were active members of the Army's ROTC program, 80.4% (N=103) reported attending campus events, 71.8% (N=103) reported attending campus programs (e.g., guest lecturers), 83.3% (N=103) utilization of campus recreational facilities, 87.1% (N=103) indicated that they attended college parties, 81.4% (N=103) reported meeting in study groups with other students outside of class, 69.6% (N=103) reported that they spoke with administration about student concerns, and 64.1%

(N=103) indicated they prayed with other students.

Reliability of the Scales

A preliminary analysis using Cronbach's alpha was used to determine the reliabilities of the scales used in this research. An alpha level of .70 or greater is accepted among behavioral researchers, but an alpha as low as .50 has been acceptable (Nunally and Bernstein, 1993). Of the three scales administered in this study, the RIAS had the lowest internal consistency with an alpha of .59 (N items =30). Specifically, the five scales that make up the RIAS, Pre-Encounter, Immersion, Emersion, and Internalization had alpha scores of .58, .44, .40, and .53, respectively.

The Acculturative Stress Scale is made up of two subscales, trait anxiety and state anxiety. The Trait scale had an internal reliability coefficient alpha of .80, while the State scale had an coefficient of .67. The full scale had an overall coefficient of .81.

The Social Support Scale was the most reliable. It too is made up of two subscales, Network Social Support (quantity) and Network Satisfaction (quality). They had reliabilities of .95 and .94, respectively, and a full scale reliability of .92.

Hypotheses

1. Non-cognitive variables (i.e., ethnic identity, acculturative stress, social support and sociability) will be significantly correlated with GPA.

A correlational analysis was conducted using Pearson's correlation for each of the independent measures to assess any relationship with GPA. This hypothesis was not supported for the RIAS Encounter state $r = -.17, p > .05$, Pre-Encounter state $r = -.04, p > .05$, Emersion state $r = -.15, p > .05$, Immersion state $r = .06, p > .05$, Internalization state $r = .03, p > .05$, or the SSQRS (Network, $r = .12, p > .05$; Satisfaction, $r = .09, p > .05$). That is, there was no statistical evidence that the racial identity development and a student's social support network were correlated with current GPA in this study. For acculturative stress, there was a significant negative correlation between trait anxiety and GPA $r = -0.31, p > .01$. More specifically, the higher the students' trait anxiety scores, the lower were their GPAs. The results are displayed in Tables 1, 2, and 3. T-test analyses were computed to test for differences between GPA and specific college environment variables classified as socialization. Significant differences were found for students who participated in a cultural organization $t(96) = -2.577, p < .01$, social organizations $t(79) = -2.799, p < .01$, attended campus events and entertainment activities $t(27) = -2.650, p < .01$, were members of an honor society $t(48) = -2.811, p < .01$, attended guest lectures of special issues $t(46) = -3.071, p < .004$, and attended a college or university previously before enrolling at their present university $t(96) = -5.743, p < .001$.

Table 1
Hypothesis I: RIAS and GPA Correlation Coefficients

	Pre- Encounter	Encounter	Immersion	Emers.	Intern
GPA	-.171	-.040	-.146	.056	.028
Pre-Encounter		.038	.082	-.193	-.209*
Encounter			.511*	.378*	.241*
Immersion				.212*	.149
Emersion					.370*
*p<.05					

Table 2
Acculturative Stress and GPA Correlation Coefficients

	Trait Anxiety	State Anxiety
GPA	-.31**	-.16
Trait Anxiety		.45**
**p<.01		

Table 3
Hypothesis I: Social Support and GPA Correlation Coefficients

	Network	Satisfaction
GPA	.12	.09
Network		.44**
**p<.01		

Students who were actively involved in these organizations and activities and those students who did previously attend a different college had significantly higher GPAs than their counterparts. Further, group differences in regards to GPA were found for gender $t(86) = -2.164, p < .03$, college classification $F(4) = 13.625, p < .001$ and residence $t(3) = 3.261, p < .025$. More specifically, female students had significantly higher GPA than males. Upper class students (i.e., junior, seniors, and graduate students) who lived off campus had significantly higher GPAs than lower class students and students who lived on campus.

2. College GPA and age will vary between the various independent stages of racial identity development and that persons identified racial identity.

The statistical analysis for this hypothesis could not be computed because the students in this sample concurrently identified with more than one affective identity state. These were racial attitudes that were predominantly classified into two identity states. It is imperative that students identify with only one particular racial identity attitude in order to correlate the RIAS with GPA. The RIAS scale was constructed so that a participants' highest score determined what racial identity attitude he or she identified with. For example, there are a total of four identity states ranging from score from 0 to 5, five meaning, a person strongly identifies with the racial attitude of that particular stage. If a person obtains a score of 4.3 of the Internalization state and it is their highest score they are classified as identifying with the racial attitude in this affective state only. This scale was not constructed to be

mutually exclusive. But, it was found that participants in this sample had bimodal scores across identity states. More specifically, they essentially identified with more than one affective state and they could not be grouped into single categories. Because this was not accomplished, a proper statistical analysis could not be conducted. Therefore, interpretation of these statistical results might be misleading. Figure 1 presents the students average RIAS scores and you may note that most of the higher average scores of this sample appeared to aggregate mostly in the Emersion and Internalization affective states. In fact, all but two students identified with the Internalization affective state. Table 4 presents the frequencies for the racial identity development as reported by the participants. Furthermore, the hypothesis that age would progressively be correlated with the RIAS could not be tested as well due to the lack of an independent racial identity stage.

A correlational analyses was conducted between bimodal identity and GPA, acculturative stress and social support. Because the majority of this sample endorsed bimodal racial identity states, the modal number of identity states were totaled for each participant and was correlated with acculturative stress, social support and GPA. This is not a normative scoring procedure or analyses, however, it may be one method for addressing the hypothesis put forth in this study. This analyses may be beneficial in ascertaining whether a persons bimodal identity would be associated with the various factors. There were no statistical significant ($p > .05$) findings that bimodal racial identity is associated with GPA, acculturative stress, or

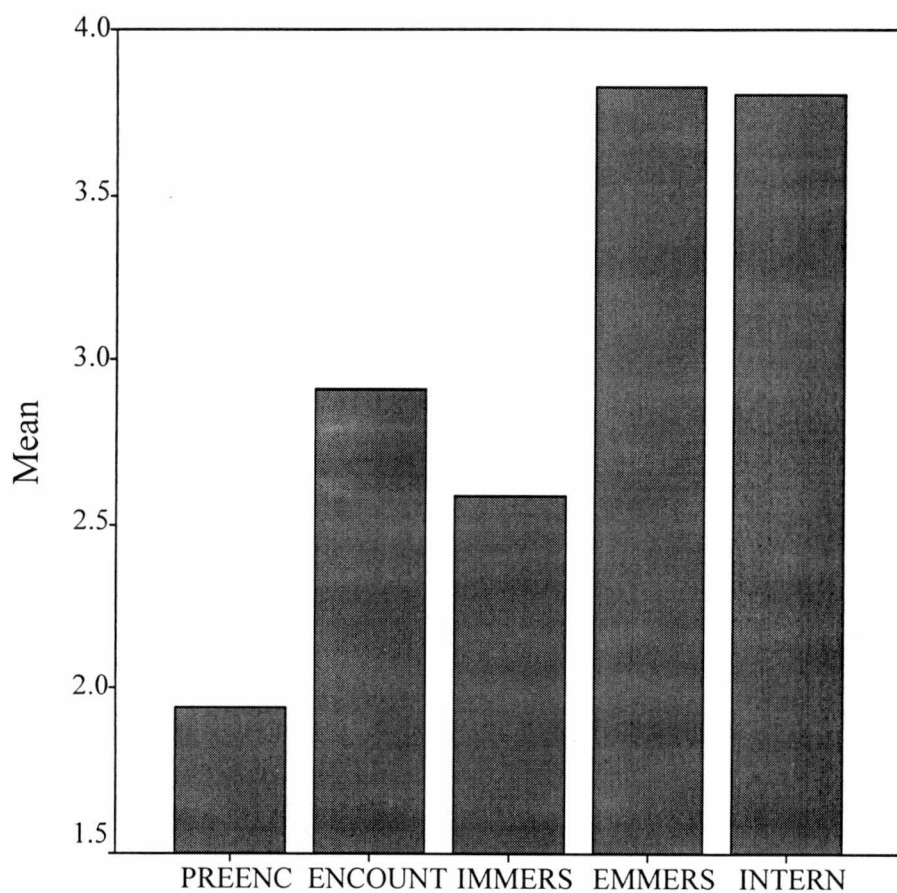


Figure 1. Group scores for the RIAS (scores equal the raw score for the RIAS scale divided by the number of items per scale).

Table 4
Student Frequencies of RIAS Stage Endorsements

RIAS Stage	<u>Male</u>		<u>Female</u>	
	N	%	N	%
Pre-encounter				
Agree	1	2.2%	3	5.2%
Disagree	43	95.6%	55	94.8%
Neutral	1	2.2%		
Encounter				
Agree	20	44.4%	22	37.9%
Disagree	19	42.4%	28	48.3%
Neutral	6	13.3%	8	13.8%
Immersion				
Agree	9	20.0%	8	13.8%
Disagree	33	73.3%	46	79.3%
Neutral	3	6.7%	4	6.9%
Emersion				
Agree	34	75.6%	40	69.0%
Disagree	3	6.7%	7	12.0%
Neutral	8	17.8%	11	19.0%
Internalization				
Agree	44	97.8%	52	89.7%
Disagree	1	2.2%	6	10.3%
Neutral				

social support. The results are displayed in Table 5.

Table 5 RIAS Mode Correlations

	GPA	Trait	State	Network	Satisfact.
Mode	-.09	.12	.19	.15	-.008

3. Social support will moderate the effects of stress on GPA.

A Partial correlational analysis was conducted to test this hypothesis and it reveals associations between two continuous variables while a third variable is held constant. As reported earlier, bivariate correlational coefficients suggest that trait anxiety is negatively correlated with GPA, meaning that higher levels of stress were related to lower academic achievement. However, this hypothesis that acculturative stress will have an adverse effect on GPA while controlling for social support was retained. A partial correlational analysis controlling for the effects of social support, still suggests that trait anxiety is significantly correlated with GPA $r = -.30$, $p > .002$. The results from this analysis are presented in Table 6.

4. There will be significant differences between gender, and college classification on each of the dependent variables (i.e., racial identity, acculturative stress, social support, and socialization).

Separate analysis of variance (ANOVAs) repeated measures were conducted to investigate differences with respect to gender and college classification for the dependent measures of racial identity, acculturative stress, and social

Table 6
Stress & GPA Correlations Controlling for Social Support

	Trait	State
GPA	-.31**	-.16
Trait		.45*
<u>Controlling for Social Support</u>		
GPA	-.30**	-.17
Trait		.47*
** p<.01		

support. A two-way ANOVA (2 [male, female] X 5 [Encounter, Pre-encounter, Immersion, Emersion and Internalization]) revealed no significant differences, for gender $F(1,103) = 3.443, p > .05$, college classification 5 (freshman, sophomores, juniors, seniors, and graduate students) X 5 (Encounter, Pre-encounter, Immersion, Emersion and Internalization) $F(4,103) = .618, p > .05$, on racial identity. There was not a significant interaction for gender or classification on racial identity ($p > .05$). There were no significant findings as well for Acculturative Stress by gender, 2 (male, female) X 2 (trait, state) $F(2,103) = .957, p > .05$, or class, 5 (freshman, sophomores, juniors, seniors, and graduate students) X 2 (trait, state) $F(8,103) = 1.591, p > .05$. There was not a significant interaction as well ($p > .05$). Similarly, for Social Support, there were no significant findings for gender, 2

(male, female) X 2 (network, satisfaction) $F(1,103) = .604, p > .05$, or college classification, 5 (freshman, sophomores, juniors, seniors, and graduate students) X 2 (network, satisfaction) $F(4,103) = 1.948, p > .05$. There was no significant interaction among variables ($p > .05$). Mean scores and standard deviations for each of these groups with respect to the dependent measures are presented in Appendix I.

A chi-square test of independence was computed for socialization variables by college classification and gender. For college classification variables, there was a significant difference between college classification and marital status $\chi^2(12) = 23.828, p < .02$. Most of the students in this sample identified themselves as being single. There was a significant difference between college classification and students' current residence $\chi^2(12) = 41.725, p < .001$. More lower class students (i.e. freshman and sophomores) reported living on campus, while more upper class students (i.e. seniors and graduate students) lived off-campus. There was a significant finding for college classification and employment $\chi^2(8) = 19.287, p < .01$. There was a significant difference between college classification and previous college attendance at another institution. More upper class students (i.e. junior, seniors, and graduate students) reported previous college attendance significantly $\chi^2(4) = 36.107, p < .001$ more than lower class students (i.e., freshman and sophomores). There was a significant difference between college classification and participation in study groups $\chi^2(4) = 9.462, p < .05$. The remainder of the analyses are presented

in Appendix I.

For gender, there was a significant difference with respect to employment. More females reported being employed, than male students $\chi^2 (1) = 9.056, p < .01$. There was a significant difference between gender and being an academic honor student $\chi^2 (1) = 5.437, p < .02$ with more females in this particular organization. There was a significant difference between gender and attendance to special campus lectures $\chi^2 (1) = 5.543, p < .02$ with more females attending these events. The remainder of the analyses is presented in Appendix I.

A stepwise multiple regression analysis was computed to obtain the explained variances and predictability of the scales in regards to the students' grade point average. Results of the multiple regression analysis indicate that overall, ACT scores and age were the best predictors of academic achievement in this study ($R^2 = .23, F [2, 103] = 7.343, p < .002$), together accounting for 23% of the variance in GPA. ACT scores alone explained the majority of the variance ($R^2 = .16, F [1, 103] = 9.089, p < .004$). An examination of the Beta weights for the individual variables in the regression model suggests that ACT ($\beta = .547, t [1, 103] = 3.015, p < .004$) and age ($\beta = .317, t [1, 103] = 2.208, p < .032$) together made significant contributions to the variance in GPA. These data are presented in Tables 7 and 8.

Interestingly enough, when split by gender, multiple regression analysis indicated different factors that explained students GPA. For males, the predictors were the same variables of ACT and age ($R^2 = .575, F [2,103] = 14.880, p <$

Table 7
Regression Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.396 ^a	.156	.139	.6688
2	.484 ^b	.234	.202	.6438

a. Predictors: (Constant), ACT

b. Predictors: (Constant), ACT, Age

Table 8
Regression Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Error of Estimate	F	Sign.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	-.648	.845		-.767	.447
ACT	1.0E-01	.026	.547	3.806	.000
Age	4.7E-02	.021	.317	2.208	.032

a. Dependent Variable: GPA

.001). More specifically, ACT accounted for 47% and age explained 11% of the variance in academic achievement. An examination of the Beta weights for the individual variables in the regression model suggests that ACT ($\beta = .614$, $t [1, 103] = 4.322$, $p < .001$) and age ($\beta = .335$, $t [1, 103] = 2.357$, $p < .028$) together made significant contributions to the variance in GPA. For females, the only predictors were Emersion and Immersion racial identity attitude stages ($R^2 = .357$, $F [2, 103] = 6.378$, $p < .006$). An examination of the Beta weights for the individual variables in the regression model suggests that Emersion ($\beta = .550$, $t [1, 103] = 3.224$, $p < .004$) and Immersion ($\beta = -.367$, $t [1, 103] = -2.149$, $p < .04$) made significant contributions to the variance in GPA. These data are presented in Table 9 and 10. Complete multiple regression analysis are presented in Appendix I.

Table 9
Regression Model Summary by Gender

Gender	Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Male	1	.684 ^a	.468	.444	.5615
	2	.758 ^b	.575	.536	.5129
Female	1	.477 ^c	.228	.195	.5776
	2	.597 ^d	.357	.301	.5384

a. Predictors: (Constant), ACT

b. Predictors: (Constant), ACT, Age

c. Predictors: (Constant), Emersion

d. Predictors: (Constant), Emersion, Immersion

Table 10
Regression Coefficients by Gender

Gender	Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Std Error of Estimate	F	Sig.
		B	Std. Err.	Beta		
male	1	-.623	.629		-.990	.333
	(Constant)					
	Act	.133	.030	.684	4.494	.000*
	2	-3.350	1.292		-2.593	.017*
	(Constant)					
female	Act	.120	.028	.614	4.322	.000*
	Age	.154	.065	.335	2.357	.028*
	1	1.152	.540		2.134	.043*
	(Constant)					
	Emers.	.388	.146	.477	2.660	.014*
	2	2.082	.664		3.137	.005*
	(Constant)					
	Emers.	.448	.139	.550	3.224	.004*
	Immers.	-.429	.200	-.367	-2.149	.042*

* p < .05

a: Dependent Variable: GPA

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine if racial identity, social support, socialization and acculturative stress were factors in the academic achievement of Black college students at two PWUs. In general, acculturative stress, sociability factors, and various demographic variables were the only noncognitive factors that correlated with academic achievement and supported the research hypotheses. Racial identity and social support were not significantly related to academic achievement overall. However, ACT scores significantly predicted college GPA for males and the RIAS Immersion-Emersion significantly predicted college GPA for females in this sample. Implications of the research findings, limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research will be discussed.

Hypothesis 1.

Non-cognitive variables (i.e., ethnic identity, acculturative stress, social support, and college environment and socialization) will be significantly correlated with GPA.

In this study, identified racial identity states were not found to be related to the academic achievement of Black college students. However, there did appear to be a negative correlational trend with the Pre-encounter and Immersion states. These results are congruent with previous research that reported similar results

between ethnic identity and academic achievement (Boyland, Adelman, Stevens, 1978; White, 1988; Cheatham, Slaney and Coleman, 1990). However, the present study findings are contradictory to other research that found significant associations between racial identity and academic achievement. For example, Cooley (1992) found that a person's ethnic identity did have a significant positive influence on Black students' academic achievement at a PWU. Other studies have suggested that a students racial awareness and racial identification are associated with their academic achievement (Comer & Poussaint, 1975; Jackson, McCullough & Gurin, 1981). Fordham (1988) found that there was a positive relationship between "racelessness" and academic achievement (which is congruent to the RIAS Pre-encounter stage).

The fact that there was no significant correlation between RIAS and GPA is surprising in light of other research findings. The literature does suggest that there is a positive relationship between the variables among those who endorse Internalization attitudes. Students with higher scores on Internalization typically have higher GPAs, self-esteem, internal locus of control, make better rational decisions, have healthier psychological adjustment and are more open minded. (Cooley, 1992; Jennings, 1992; Parham and Helms, 1985b). Furthermore, people characterized as endorsing Internalization attitudes have been found to be more action-oriented and are able to handle problematic situations more appropriately. Parham and Helms (1985b) indicated that those participants endorsing Internalization attitudes in their study were more capable of dealing with and confronting problems such as racism and

persevered academically. O'Callaghan and Bryant (1990) found Blacks who had a strong positive self concept were able to deal with and understand racism effectively. They adapted to a predominately White environment and utilized personal and social resources to excel academically. Evans-Hughes (1992) found that students that endorsed Internalization stage attitudes displayed a higher locus of control and had better personal-emotional adjustment to their college environment.

One explanation for the nonsignificant findings in this study may be attributed to the low internal reliability of the RIAS. Parham and Helms (1985a) suggested that modern-day personal and social factors may impact the racial identity development of Blacks in different ways than during the time that Cross developed his theory of Nigrescence. Since the RIAS is based Cross's (1971) original theoretical position, both may need to be modified. Modification can be further justified by the many comments, written and verbally expressed by participants in the current study, after completing this scale. Many students were outraged by the wording of the questions and the obsolete derogatory statements towards Whites. For example, these reactions to the RIAS are similar to Jennings' (1992) findings where she classified the comments of students about the scale as "I am confused" and "I am appalled" over this scale.

Acculturative stress, specifically trait anxiety, was significantly negatively correlated with academic achievement. This scale measured whether the anxiety level of Black students at these PWUs could be attributed to situational or

personality characteristics. The findings from this study suggest that anxiety which is persistent and pervasive across time has a negative impact on a students academic achievement. State anxiety was not found to be associated with academic achievement. This was a surprising finding which may reflect the personal strength and resiliency of these Black students to adapt to a potentially stressful environment and to perform well academically (Williams and Anderson, 1985). Williams and Anderson (1985) assert that the contextual factors, utilization of personnel coping resources, personality factors and high levels of self-esteem, are factors that enable these students to function effectively.

The finding in this study that students did not experience stress as a result of their minority status at a PWU, differs from other studies that found an association between acculturative stress and academic achievement. This may be due to the fact that these students were actively involved in their campus environment and appeared not to be socially isolated at these PWUs as reported in past studies (Nottingham, Rosen, Parks, 1992; Parham and Helms, 1981). Tinto (1987) suggested that Black students are typically isolated and not well integrated into the social systems of PWU campuses and as a result suffer academically. The students in this study appeared to be well integrated into their campus social systems and were not excluded because of their race. On average, these students belonged to 3.5 organizations, some of which were multi-ethnically diverse. This is congruent with the RIAS findings that these students report having a bicultural identity and are able

to be active in various organizations with people from various cultures.

Acculturative stress has great implications on how Black students are able to adapt to the demands of matriculating through a college environment where they are the minority. Anxiety has been found to have adverse effects on students' academic achievement (Bruch, Pearl, and Giordano, 1986). Anxiety can interfere with one's ability to concentrate (Edmunds, 1984), impact studying behavior and learning (Gougis, 1983), and can lead one to physical and emotional illness (Roberts & White, 1989).

Gougis (1983) found in his experimental study that, academically, Black students are adversely impacted by the environmental stressors of racism. He suggests that the emotional stress of racism has a great impact on a student's ability to concentrate and persist academically. Robert and White (1989) found an association between mental aptitude and physical and emotional illness. The more intelligent and resourceful one is, the less likely one is to succumb to emotional stress and physical illness.

It is not surprising that many of these students did not report high levels of state anxiety. This may be attributed to the fact that many of them identified with the Internalization affective state, which is characteristic of rational decision making and psychological maturity. Parham and Helms (1985b) suggested that Internalization students are capable of dealing and confronting problems such as racism because of their increased level of self-esteem. Greenberg (1997) found an association

between Internalization and high levels of academic achievement. Furthermore, the stronger their racial identity, the more subjects were able to withstand the stressors of the college environment, including racism. Prior studies investigating acculturative stress has found that students who attend schools that have a higher proportion of Black students and experience close contact amongst Blacks have lower stress. Those students are less likely to experience anxiety in a predominantly White environment. Furthermore, students who have a good self concept and high levels of self-esteem have lower levels of anxiety.

Surprisingly, social support was not found to be a factor that was associated with the academic achievement of students in this study. This finding was contrary to previous research that reported social support as an important factor for academic achievement (Barnett, 1995; Ford and Carr, 1990). Thomas, Milburn, Brown, & Gray (1988) suggests that the network of social support systems is critical for Blacks to cope and deal with environmental stressors. More specifically, Boyce (1994) suggests that racism is a critical stressor for many Black Americans and she postulates that it is imperative to measure the support for racism due to its pervasiveness that is so readily faced daily among Blacks. When support levels are adequate and considered satisfactory by students, it tends to have positive impact on the academic achievement in college students (Boyce, 1994).

The findings from the present study suggest that social support alone does not reduce trait anxiety within the context of a college situation. Although there was

no significant relationship between social support and GPA, this may be due to the lack of racism experienced. Further, the nonsignificant results can possibly be explained by the scale used in this study. The SSQRS was not a global measure of social support, but attempted to measure perceived social support when racism is the only stressor. This scale suggests that in this study racism did not have a impact on Black students academic achievement. Moreover, this may be due to the lack of racism perceived by these students at this university. This study did not obtain data whether or not students were in fact experiencing racism, but only the perceptions and support systems available for such experiences. Some of the students in this study came from integrated neighborhoods and high schools. Therefore, the campus experience may be very similar. When considering whether one has been treated differently because of their race, evaluating the situation in terms of racist implications will no doubt vary for each individual.

Triandis, Kurowoski, Tecktiel, and Darius (1993) conducted a qualitative study examining the "common themes" of Black, Hispanic, and White students, faculty and staff at a Midwestern college. They interviewed participants inquiring about barriers that contributed to their positive adjustment to their university environment and what behaviors displayed by the university administrators and/or students made their experience in that particular setting a negative one. They found that Blacks interpreted ambiguous behaviors as "prejudice," and minorities, particularly women, take offense at and react negatively to ethnic jokes and

humiliating language unless they are told by members of the same ethnic group. Blacks were more active in dealing with racism and prejudice, believing that strong action must be taken rather than just bringing attention to the matter. Blacks also believed that they must stick together within their own social networks. They opposed the "melting pot" idea that implied that Blacks should "act white" and "forget their friends" if they are to be successful in America.

Undoubtedly, some of these students may have been exposed to some racist incidents whose racist significance they might have down played. Others may rationalize it, minimize, deny, internalize or passively let it go by. Finally, the instrument used to measure social support focused on racial events. A more traditional instrument may have yielded different results.

Results of the socialization analysis suggest that students were more actively involved in campus organizations and events tended to have higher academic achievement. This finding is contradictory to previous findings suggesting that Black students are not socially active in most organizations on PWUs (Cheatham, Slaney, & Coleman, 1990; Flemming, 1984). In this study, Black students appear to be socially active in their college environments'. It is possible that these students are highly motivated and that their interest in extracurricular activities may have a positive influence on their academic achievement.

Studies examining campus environments of either Black or White institutions have yielded inconclusive results regarding the conduciveness and facilitative

mechanisms that may contribute to students academic achievement. But there appears to be support that the campus environment does have an effect on the personal development, cultural awareness, educational outcomes for Black college students (Allen, 1988). Also, findings suggest that personal and psychological development of the individual and appropriate personality matches at either environment may contribute more to the personal and academic adjustment of that student (Cheatham, Tomlinson, Ward, 1990).

There is a belief among some researchers (Allen, 1985; Baldwin, Duncan & Bell, 1987; Cheatham, Shelton, & Ray, 1987; Fleming, 1984; Hughs, 1987; Sedlacek, 1987; Taylor, 1986) that Black students are better off attending historically Black Universities rather than attending PWUs. The argument contends that the commonality of being Black may minimize the number of potential stressors that would ordinarily be found at PWUs. Allen (1985) found that Black students became much more acclimated to the campus environment, exhibited more cultural awareness, held higher academic standards and performed better academically at PBUs.

Flemming (1984) conducted a study examining college environment and achievement between Black and White students in various college settings. She found that Black students had a reduced drive for achievement and experienced intellectual stagnation at PWUs. She concluded that too often Black students at PWUs suffer from campus environments that do not embrace students in such a way

that may allow them to prosper individually and reach their full potential. She contends that the interaction amongst faculty and fellow peers at predominately Black institutions is more positive and that also contributes to better adjustment.

Although this study did not compare racial groups on the dependent measures, the findings clearly show that, at least among this sample, involvement in campus organizations increases academic success in Black students. Thus, the findings from this study suggest that there is multicultural diversity within the campus environment at the PWUs studied and that Black students were not experiencing academic stagnation at these institutions.

Hypothesis 2. College GPA and age will vary between the various independent stages of racial identity development and that persons identified racial identity.

The theoretical assumption behind the RIAS is that it seeks to measure ones racial identity development from items that correspond to five distinct affective levels ranging from low self-esteem to having a stable identity and multifaceted outlook, as theorized by Cross (1978). The Pre-encounter stage is a position of denial as one attempts to distance oneself from ones own ethnic culture. Cognitive and affective components have been found to be associated with various emotional states are: high anxiety, global psychological distress, feelings of inferiority and low self-actualizing tendencies (Parham and Helms, 1981); the Encounter stage characterizes a perceptual restructuring and challenge of a new identity. It typifies positive self-

esteem, high self-regard, and high self-actualization states; the Immersion-Emersion dimension typifies a withdrawal into "blackness" and rejection of anything with resembling European culture and values. Intense rage, hostility, and anger have been associated with attitudes in this developmental state; finally, the Internalization stage, where individuals have a stable and secure sense of self, but are still flexible, adopting a bicultural identity. Healthy psychological adjustment, and the ability to make rational decisions, are typical states of this stage. Because each affective state represents a gradual incline in self-actualization and better psychological functioning, it was expected that students GPA would have been positively correlated with the various dimensions of racial identity.

Most of this sample endorsed primarily the Immersion-Emersion and Internalization attitudes. Therefore, most of these participants indicated that they are either "Black radicals" or that they have a stable, multi-cultural identity or they are able to assimilate well with various cultures. What was even more interesting is the number of stage attitudes these students endorsed. According to how the scores were factored, anything above a 3.01 signified that a person agreed with attitudes representing a particular stage. Sixty-seven percent of this sample endorsed items that were characteristic of at least two stages and two subjects identified with four racial identity stages. The fact that students could not be neatly placed into a racial identity category, however, may suggest the influence of situational and environmental factors on how they identified themselves. Most of the students in this

study endorsed Emersion and Internalization affective states of racial identity simultaneously. The Internalization state is characteristic of a multi-cultural identity, but the individual still exhibits a very strong Black identity. This multi-cultural identity may be exemplified from the bimodal RIAS stage endorsement of these students which suggest their bicultural identity. These students may be reporting that they may identify with the Emersion stage attitude in a predominantly Black situation and Internalization stage attitudes in a more culturally diverse environment. In one sense, this finding further suggests the complexity of ethnic identity and the need for revisions of the RIAS. But on the other hand, this suggests that students may identify having a different way of interacting and expressing their identity according to specific situations and circumstances.

The fact that the students in this sample were actively engaged into their campus environments and did not report a high level of state anxiety is supported by the findings that almost the entire student sample endorsed Internalization developmental affective attitudes, suggesting they have a bi-cultural identity. Surprisingly there were no correlations between those who endorsed several racial identity states and academic achievement.

Hypothesis 3. Students who report higher levels of stress will display a lower GPA, controlling for the effects of social support.

The finding that social support by itself is not associated with GPA, is not surprising. Because participants in this study reported that they did not experience a

significant amount of anxiety due to their minority status at this campus, one would not expect the questionnaire of social support for racial situations to produce significant results. However, the significant finding between trait anxiety and GPA suggests that general anxiety, that is not attributed to being a minority at this PWU, may not have an influence on these students' academic achievement. This finding supports of other research findings that general anxiety does affect students academic achievement.

Spielberger, (1966), in his multiple studies examining the effects of anxiety on academic achievement found that "blocking" and "misinterpretation" were the main factors that contributed to low academic achievement. He theorized that anxiety impaired these students ability to study effectively and actively interfered with their thought processes during examinations, subsequently impacting their academic achievement. Low academic achievement was true only for those students who exhibited a high level of anxiety, more so than students indicated low anxiety. Moreover, he found that students exhibiting high anxiety were more likely to drop out of school due to academic failure more often than low anxiety students. Spielberger concluded that confidence in their academic abilities may debilitate students who exhibit high amounts of stress and they may not perform at their intellectual potentials.

Supporting the findings of Spielberger (1966), Garrity and Ries (1985) and Loyd, Alexander, Rice, and Greenfield (1980) both found an association between

high levels of stress and GPA, concluding that stress had an adverse effect on these students cumulative GPAs. Mitchell and Piatrowska (1974) found that students who performed low academically experienced significantly higher levels of anxiety than higher academic achieving students. Furthermore, they found that low academic performing students were not very conscientious about studying and lacked the academic persistence that was found in the high achieving students.

Anxiety, in general, is a condition that dominates cognitive functioning, has debilitating consequences and imposes dramatic physiological disruption (Grady, 1978; Tobias, 1979). Felsten and Wilcox (1992) found that stress, particularly for students with low levels of mastery, was associated with increased psychosomatic symptoms and decreased GPA. Students that displayed high mastery level skills were found to have lower psychosomatic symptomatology (anxiety), particularly when satisfaction with thier support system increased.

Borkovec, Grayson, and Cooper (1978) found that one-fifth of a group of college students reported feeling tense during at least fifty percent of each day. Greenblatt and Shadder (1974) suggested that general feelings of tension and physiological symptoms of stress may contribute to the use of anti-anxiety agents, drugs, and alcohol among college students to reduce such feelings of anxiety. All these medications have the potential to create difficulties and counteract general tension and impact academic achievement (Russell & Gribble, 1982). Spielberger (1966) estimated that fifteen percent of college students are test anxious and perhaps

thier anxiety may be attributed to the contention that some of this daily tension may result from test anxiety (Williams, Decker, and Libassi, 1983). Students who experience anxiety may find it difficult to function efficiently and to maintain enough self-control to follow a study-skills regimen (Williams, Decker, and Libassi, 1983). The negative symptoms reported by anxious people (i.e., headaches, sleep disturbances, and digestive upsets) without a doubt impair their current functioning and will have significant implications for their academic achievement (Robbins, Spence, and Clark, 1991).

The fact that social support was not associated with GPA in this study may be explained by the fact that most of the students were actively involved in a variety of campus organizations. This is consistent with Osyerman, Grant, and Ager's (1995) study that found that Blacks believe that group effort versus individualism, is the best approach to academic success. Thus, group cohesion and active campus involvement of the students in this sample may have acted as an informal social support network which helped students deal with stress and possibly used as a stress buffer. This is also consistent with Shadrick's (1995) study that found that students used informal networks as their social support systems to help them manage their stress. Furthermore, she found that despite these students stress levels, they developed effective, active approaches to deal with racism that apparently allowed them to persist academically.

Stikes (1975) examined studies that researched various socioacademic

difficulties that contribute to the academic achievement of Black students on PWU campuses. He found most studies reported that Black students tend to seclude themselves within social groups that shared the same racial attitude and awareness as themselves. Furthermore, they were very untrustworthy of other students, faculty and staff with differing perceptions (Centra, 1970; Ervin, 1971; Napper, 1973, Willie & McCord, 1972). Stikes (1975) reported that Black students had a "superficial sociability," and struggled from the anxiety with developing and maintaining a stable identity at PWUs (Centra, 1970; Ervin, 1971; Willie & McCord, 1972). The fact that most of the students in this sample endorsed identifying with more than one developmental racial identity may lend support to these findings. However, because most of the students in this study have acquired a bicultural interactive perspective (as suggested by their multi-cultural campus involvement and as suggested by bimodal racial identity developmental stages) has enabled them to adjust positively to their college environment by increasing their social networks (i.e., to interact with various cultures).

Hypothesis 4. There will be significant relationships between gender, college classification and each of the dependent variables (i.e., racial identity, acculturative stress, social support, and socialization).

There were no significant differences by gender, college classification, or gender-college classification interactions for any of the main scales. Both men and women had similar scores on all these scales. However, differences for the RIAS by

gender did approach significance ($p < .067$), particularly with the Immersion-Emersion stages of identity. Males tended to endorse items that suggested they were enmeshed into a lifestyle that characterizes pro-black radical attitudes more so than females. This finding of the RIAS endorsement is consistent with other studies that administered this scale to similar populations and was not a surprise finding. Parham and Helms (1985a) found that racial identity attitudes could be predicted by sex, with men more likely to endorse Immersion-Emersion attitudes and less likely to endorse Internalization attitudes than women. Although not finding a significant difference by gender, Cheatham, Slaney, and Coleman (1990) found that students were most likely to endorse Internalization and Emersion stage attitudes. This finding supports the results of this study that most of the students in this sample highly endorsed both Internalization and Emersion developmental attitudes.

Although there were not any significant statistical findings for the Social Support Questionnaire for Racial Situations, differences in the level of satisfaction for social support, however, approached significance by gender. Women tended to report that they were more satisfied with their social support system for racial situations, more so than men. This finding may be attributed to the possibility that women tend to socialize more, are more open with their problems, and tend to utilize the same sex network more so than men. This is supported by Allen's (1985) study that found Black male students who expressed strong "pro-black" racial attitudes were more than likely to report low social involvement and were more independent

than females. The males in this study highly endorsed having pro-black racial attitudes and perhaps developmental attitudes associated with these beliefs is independence translated as "machoism." This may explain why males reported a smaller support system with which they were content. Furthermore, as previous research indicates, Black males are more likely to perceive institutional and social support as lacking (Allen and Haniff, 1991; Flemming, 1984) and often they persist through college without expecting to receive such support (Davis, 1995).

The significant findings with college classification and socialization variables all seem to flow in the direction of lower and upper college classification significant differences, lower class being freshman and sophomore students. More upper class students reported being married, although this sample was a fairly homogenous group with most of the subjects reporting they were single. More upper class students reported living off-campus, which is a general trend on most college campuses where many students want to live off-campus after a few years of living on campus in student dormitories. Upper class students reported that they had attended a previous college before enrolling at UTK significantly more frequently than lower class students. This may be because these students are transfer students from junior colleges who typically enter four-year institutions as upper classmen. This explanation is more plausible than students transferring from another four year institution or transferring from junior college prematurely. Also many participants of this sample were graduate students, and more than likely had attended a previous

college. Finally, there was a significant difference between utilization of study groups between undergraduate students and graduate students. Undergraduate students reported utilizing study groups more so than graduate students. Graduates students take on a different responsibility and type of work they must complete, which usually requires more independent study than is involved in undergraduate work.

Furthermore, part of the graduate school recruitment process is obtaining those students who are able to work autonomously. This significant difference may also in part may be due to the small number of graduate students sampled.

In this study, overall, ACT and age were the best predictors of GPA. When split by gender, different factors entered the equation that explained academic achievement. For men, the variables remained the same, but with a much stronger magnitude. Immersion-Emersion racial attitudes, however, were the best factors predicting academic achievement for females. These are interesting findings in light of previous studies regarding both ACT and the Immersion-Emersion state predictions. There are inconclusive findings regarding the validity of ACT scores to predict academic achievement for Black students. However, there does appear to be consensus in the literature that ACT scores predicting college success are misleading for Black males in particular (Allen, 1988; Dawkins and Braddock, 1982). The findings in this study that ACT was a very strong predictor of Black males, nevertheless, is not easy to explain. Thus, within certain Black male populations, ACT maybe a useful predictor of college achievement. More research

is needed. The fact that Immersion-Emersion factored into the regression equation for females and not males, although more males endorsed attitudes of this stage suggest that females may be using the affective attitudes of this stage more constructively to help them excel academically.

Furthermore, this study found a positive correlation between college classification and GPA, and Age and GPA, suggesting that maturity is a factor explaining academic achievement as well as ACT scores for these Black students. This was an interesting finding that not only is ACT a good predictor academic achievement for these students, but age is a viable factor that must be examined when determining academic admission. This suggests that maturity and academic persistence is related to academic performance. As students stay in school and mature, they may have better academic success. This interpretation is logical since after the first two-years of college (which arguably is the hardest), students move into their major courses. This would further add credence to Allen's (1985) contention of the "cooling out" process that suggests that over time, students who consistently receive poor grades will eventually drop out of school.

There was also a significant difference in regards to gender and GPA, with women having higher GPAs than men. This finding is consistent with previous studies. Hood (1992) found that males did not take college seriously and were hesitant to seek academic counseling or tutoring until it was too late. This may further exemplify males independence and "machoism" by their reluctance to seek help in

their time of need. Flemming (1984) found that African-American males suffer academic stagnation at PWUs and had lower GPAs than females. Furthermore, Black males reported that they experienced more negative feelings and unhappiness about college life, feel they were often mistreated, experienced academic demoralization, and thought less of their academic ability. Pascarella, Smart, Etherington, and Nettles (1987) found that academic interaction while attending PWUs had a negative effect on the academic self-concept of African American males. The fact that students in this sample who were actively involved in their campuses had higher academic achievement contradicts Pascarella et al. (1987) findings. However, there is literature that suggests that males consistently value the development of social skills over academic skills, but often with disastrous consequences of their school performance (Allen, 1985).

The possibility of more flagrant sexual discrimination in favor of Black women over Black men in the assignment of grades must also be considered. There is data suggesting that ethnic and gender status greatly influences faculty-student relations and academic and social integration (Nettles & Johnson, 1987). The negative stereotypes of Black males that is often portrayed in society and in the media may influence perceptions of Black males performance in the classrooms. Given this possibility, it may be likely that students academic ability may be influenced by gender. More research on this phenomenon is warranted. Lack of support in the form of absence of encouragement and positive feedback from faculty

members, termed the "null environment hypothesis," has been identified by Freeman (1979). Betz (1979) suggests that this places a significant barrier to men and women of color, specifically men in this sample.

Tinto (1987) found that student persistence rates were viewed as products of student interaction with college academic and social systems. The better integrated into these systems, the more likely students would persist and graduate. The academic persistence and the positive academic achievement of Black students in this study may have numerous viable explanations. It is possible that these students had positive perceptions because of their integration into their college campuses. However, students were not asked directly if they liked their college environments. This supports the results of Hayes and Franks (1975) study finding that students perceptions of their college environment had a positive effect on their academic performance. Further, these findings are supported by the study of Davis (1995) that students with higher academic integration performed better academically.

Allen (1988) proposed a "interpersonal accomplishment" theory to explain Black students positive academic achievement. Interpersonally accomplished Black students are more involved with the general campus life. Their expertise in interpersonal relations leads to regular participation in Black student organization activities, better relations with faculty, and more favorable views of university support services (since personable, interpersonally competent people are usually better able to manipulate bureaucracies to their advantage). Drawing on their

learned interpersonal skills, these Black students manage to create and maintain favorable social relationships with Blacks and Whites, faculty and students, on the campus. Apparently their accumulated repertoire of interpersonal or social skills carries over into greater social involvement with general campus life. Similarly, frequent participants in Black student organization activities are likely to be more "social" than are infrequent participants. Their gregariousness, interpersonal skills, and "feel" for people would naturally lead to greater involvement with the general social life on campus.

The students in the current sample appear to be taking advantage of the opportunity to succeed in life, possibly because of the few alternatives that may be available for them elsewhere (Hood, 1992). Perhaps the lack of alternatives, other than college persistence, may explain why some students with low GPAs persist, despite having poor academic achievement (Hood, 1992). Surprising, these students seem to set their aspirations outside of considerations of their demonstrated academic abilities. Apart from their recognition of personal limitations, the crushing realization that their attainments will inevitably be limited by the reality of sex, race, and class discriminations, nevertheless, the aspirations of these Black students remain high in relative terms even in cases where grades seem not to justify their being so. In maintaining such high aspirations, perhaps the students are adhering to the old maternal adage purported by Allen (1985) which encourages Black children to "shoot for the moon, you may land on the stars."

Limitations of the Study

The following limitations should be kept in mind in interpreting the results of this study:

The results of this study are based on a narrow sample drawn from two schools in different geographic regions. The schools were not equal with respect to sample size. See appendix H for this information.

Although including several psychosocial variables, it is impossible to include all pertinent variables and to know all factors associated with academic achievement. The data obtained from these students relied on self-report measures with their inherent methodological biases and limitations. Particularly, the RIAS clearly did not have a good internal reliability in this study and the interpretations made from this measurement must be taken with caution.

Greenberg (1997) pointed out that the phenomenon of racism may be so troublesome for Black students at a PWU that they may not trust researchers, which may partially account for the low response rate to this questionnaire. Many students believed that the questionnaire for this study was too long and refused to fill it out. The students who did not complete this questionnaire may have been different on several personal characteristics. They may have been the students who were more active in their campus organizations, and possibly better students academically than those who did not volunteer.

Suggestions for Future Research

The results of this study suggest that more research is needed to investigate other non-cognitive variables pertinent to GPA and identify factors related to academic achievement in Black students, particularly how racial identity is related, if at all. Future studies might consider the following:

1.) Obtaining a more heterogenous sample from various regions of the country and from different major disciplines of study. Most of the data were collected from students in the Arts and Social Sciences Departments, and were from the Southeast and Midwestern region of the country. Samples obtained elsewhere might produce different results.

2.) Finding alternate ways to assess academic achievement, such as motivation, persistence, personal satisfaction, etc. One might obtain samples in companies and industry, measuring the influence of racial identity and its association with various forms of achievement and motivation, rather than with just students and academic achievement.

3.) As suggested by Cooley (1992), a longitudinal approach assessing changes in ethnic identity and other psychosocial factors over the span of the students' undergraduate tenure would be helpful in understanding the experience of Black students. This would allow one to observe various phenomena such as change in identity, psychosocial factors, GPA, socialization, retention/drop out rate, etc. Conducting interviews and obtaining self-narratives of Black students' would be very

revealing and valuable as well.

Replication of this study with other minority students and with Black students at historically Black universities to assess whether the variables used in this study are pertinent for other minorities and differing situations. Although including several psychosocial variables, it is impossible to include all relevant variables and to ascertain all factors associated with academic achievement. Using multiple measures may also increase the reliability and validity of the scale used.

Conclusion

This study adds to the current body of research on factors that influence academic achievement by the inclusion of ethnic identity, stressors of racism, social support and socialization variables as potential contributions to academic achievement. For many Black students, factors that contribute to academic success are not readily apparent through cognitive measures, particularly if the cognitive measures are the sole factors used in making a determination. Furthermore, research that focuses primarily on cognitive factors fails to include developmental processes and often excludes variables that capture the unique traits and experiences of Black students. More investigation is needed on how non-cognitive variables impact academic achievement in order to identify the most meaningful factors. By focusing on these other factors, it will allow professions to understand the Black college student's experience at PWUs .

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Solicitation

Dear Instructor:

I am currently a Clinical Psychology graduate student in the Doctoral Program here at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, and I am collecting data for the completion of my Master's thesis, titled, 'Socialization, Ethnic Identity, and College Environment: Factors Associated with Academic Achievement in Black College Students.' I am requesting your permission to solicit the students that are currently enrolled in your class for the 1997 Fall Session.

Here is a synopsis regarding this study: The specific aim of this project is to identify psychological and social variables that may be associated with academic achievement of Black students. Using grade point average as the dependent variable, this study will examine whether GPA is associated with racial identity, socialization, college environment and specific demographic data.

Participants who take part in this study will be instructed by the researcher that the questionnaire given is an assessment of their political attitudes and general feelings that they have about themselves, their identity, and how they perceive their college environment. Participants will then be asked to complete a three page questionnaire packet. Instructions, brief overview of the study, and consent form are printed on the front page of each packet. I only intend to pass packets out in your class, therefore I will not use your class time for students to complete questionnaires. Should you allow me access to your students, arrangements will be made by the researcher for collection. Full completion of this questionnaire should take approximately twenty minutes.

This is a brief overview of my research project. Should you have any questions regarding this study, please feel free to give me a call. My office address and phone number is: 410D Austin Peay Building, 974-8796 (Email: abell@utk.edu). My home phone number is 609-8866. You may contact me at any of the above numbers for a day and time that will be convenient for you, should you allow your students to participate. I thank you for your time and consideration regarding this research project.

Sincerely,

Allen Bellamy
Psychology Graduate Student

Appendix B

ANNOUNCEMENT

A research project titled "Socialization, Ethnic Identity, and College Environment: Factors Associated with Academic Achievement in Black College Students," is attempting to identify factors, other than grade point average and ACT scores, that contribute to the academic success of Black college students, but they need your help. They need Black students that are willing to participate and be a part of this research endeavor. Your participation may have great implications on increasing student enrollment and retention of Black college students. If you are interested, there will be a sign up sheet posted in the Austin Peay Building extra credit bulletin board next to the main office for you to sign up. Full completion of the questionnaire should only take twenty minutes to complete.

P.S. Students may call 974-8796 for questions pertaining to this study.

Thanks,

Allen Bellamy
Psychology Graduate Student

Appendix C

Posted Announcement

EXTRA CREDIT FOR PSY 110 STUDENTS Academic Achievement Questionnaire

Psychology 110 students may earn extra credit by filling out a questionnaire that assess your political attitudes and general feelings that you have about yourself, your identity, and how you perceive your college environment. Full completion of the survey takes twenty-minutes to complete. To insure complete confidentiality, your questionnaire will be identified by a coded number. Thus, your name will not appear on any forms of the questionnaire.

Black students enrolled in any psychology 110 course is eligible and you may earn extra credit points by participating in this study. Check with your instructor to insure you are eligible to receive extra credit. The number of extra credit points given and authorization to participate in this study is subject to your particular class policy as prescribed by your instructor.

The times are listed below in which you may participate:

Monday, October 13	Austin Peay Building, Rm. 410	8:30AM
Monday, October 13	Austin Peay Building, Rm. 410	3:00PM
Wednesday, October 15	Austin Peay Building, Rm. 410	12:00PM
Wednesday, October 15	Austin Peay Building, Rm. 410	3:30PM

If you have any questions, feel free to call Allen Bellamy at 974-8796.

Appendix D

Posted Sign up Sheet

ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT STUDY FOR PSY 110

MONDAY, OCTOBER 13, 8:30AM

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| 13. | 14. | 15. |
| 16. | 17. | 18. |

MONDAY, OCTOBER 13, 3:00PM

- | | | |
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WEDNESDAY, OCTOBER 15, 12:00PM

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WEDNESDAY, OCTOBER 15, 3:30PM

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Appendix E

Briefing Script

for UTK Sample

“My name is Allen Bellamy and I currently a graduate student in the Department of Psychology working on my Master's Thesis. As a requirement of the Graduate School, I am conducting research on factors that may be associated with academic achievement. The traditional measures for admitting students by most universities rely heavily on cognitive measures such as ACT, SAT, and HSGPA as the sole basis for the decisions to admit students. But research has shown that for minority students, particularly Black students, that these tests are not valid measures for predicting academic achievement accurately. So, I am attempting to look at non-cognitive variables that may be associated with academic achievement in the black student, but I need your help. I am requesting (begging) your assistance to help me collect such data by completing this packet of questionnaires. It should only take about 20-25 minutes to complete it.”

Appendix F

Briefing Script for EMU Sample

“This study is for Allen Bellamy who is currently a graduate student in the Department of Psychology at UTK working on my Master's Thesis. As a requirement of the Graduate School, he is conducting research on factors that may be associated with academic achievement. The traditional measures for admitting students by most universities rely heavily on cognitive measures such as ACT, SAT, and HSGPA as the sole basis for the decisions to admit students. But research has shown that for minority students, particularly black students, that these tests are not valid measures for predicting academic achievement accurately. So, he is attempting to look at non-cognitive variables that may be associated with academic achievement in the black student, but needs your help. He is requesting your assistance to collect such data by completing this packet of questionnaires. It should only take about 20-25 minutes to complete it.”

Appendix G

Consent Form

Socialization, Ethnic Identity, and College Environment: Factors Associated with Academic Achievement in Black College Students

Informed Consent

You are invited to participate in a research project for the purpose of identifying non-cognitive variables that may be associated with the academic achievement for Black students.

This research requires that you complete, three questionnaires: (1) Racial Identity Scale, (2) Acculturative Stress Scale, (3) Social Support Questionnaire, as well as demographic information that should take approximately twenty minutes to complete. In this time period, you will be asked to identify your attitudes about yourself and others. There are no right or wrong answers to any of the items.

To insure complete confidentiality, your questionnaire will be identified by a coded number. Thus, your name will not appear on any forms of the questionnaire. Consent forms will be stored separately from questionnaires in a locked file cabinet. Since this study is utilizing academic achievement, I will need to obtain Student Identification Numbers (Social Security Number) in order to link your inventory to grade point average and college entrance exam scores. Social Security Numbers will only be used for academic purposes. Only myself (primary investigator) and Dr. Deborah Baldwin, faculty advisor, will have access to the data obtained. Your individual questionnaire will be destroyed as soon as the results are statistically compiled.

The present and past decisions whether to admit students into College's and Universities has been primarily based on students academic promise of obtaining acceptable entrance requirements. Although the study may have no direct benefits to you at this time, your participation will help contribute to the advancement of the field of psychology by better understanding pertinent variables associated with academic achievement in Black students.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary, and you may refuse to participate. Signing this consent form does not obligate you in any way. You may withdraw at any time during collection of the research study without penalty or loss of benefits. At such point, your questionnaire will be shredded. If you have any questions about this research, either now or later, or would like to obtain the results, please contact Allen Bellamy, University of Tennessee, 410C Austin Peay Building, Knoxville, Tennessee 37996, or call 974-8796. Thank you for your participation.

Allen Bellamy
Psychology Graduate Student

I have read this form and understand the explanation of this study. All my questions have been answered and I agree to participate in this study. By signing this form, with the inclusion of my Social Security Number and returning this completed form back to the primary researcher, I am allowing the researcher to check with academic records regarding my GPA and entrance exam scores. I understand that failing to include my student identification number will result in my exclusion from the study. My participation in this study is completely voluntary and may choose to withdraw from the study at any time, without penalty or loss of benefits.

Print Name /Signature

Date

Social Security Number/Student Identification Number

Researcher

Date

Appendix H

Questionnaire Packet

RACIAL IDENTITY ATTITUDE SCALE

This questionnaire is designed to measure people's social and political attitudes. There are no right or wrong answers. Use the scale below to respond to each statement. Circle the number that describes how you feel.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I believe that being Black is a positive experience	1	2	3	4 5
2. I know through experience what being Black in America means	2	3	4	5
3. I feel unable to involve myself in White experiences and am increasing my involvement in Black experience	1	2	3	4 5
4. I believe that large numbers of Blacks are untrustworthy .	1	2	3	4 5
5. I feel an overwhelming attachment to Black people	1	2	3	4 5
6. I involve myself in causes that will help oppressed people	1	2	3	4 5
7. I feel comfortable wherever I am	1	2	3	4 5
8. I believe that White people look and express themselves better than Blacks	1	2	3	4 5
9. I feel very uncomfortable around Black people	1	2	3	4 5
10. I feel good about being Black, but do not limit myself to Black activities	1	2	3	4 5
11. I often find myself referring to White people as honkies, devils, pigs, etc	1	2	3	4 5
12. I believe that to be Black is not necessarily good.	1	2	3	4 5
13. I believe that certain aspects of the Black experience apply to me, and others do not	1	2	3	4 5
14. I frequently confront the system and the man	1	2	3	4 5
15. I constantly involve myself in Black political and social activities (art shows, political meetings, Black theater, etc.)	1	2	3	4 5
16. I involve myself in social action & political groups even if there are no other Blacks involved	1	2	3	4 5
17. I believe that Black people should learn to think and experience life in ways similar to White people	1	2	3	4 5
18. I believe that the world should be interpreted from a Black perspective	1	2	3	4 5
19. I have changed my style of life to fit my beliefs about				

- Black people 1 2 3 4 5
20. I feel excitement and joy Black surroundings 1 2 3 4 5
21. I believe that Black people came from a strange, dark,
and uncivilized continent 1 2 3 4 5
22. People, regardless of their race, have strengths and limitations 2 3 4 5
23. I find myself reading a lot of Black literature and thinking about
being black 1 2 3 4 5
24. I feel guilty and/or anxious about some of the things I believe
about Black people 1 2 3 4 5
25. I believe that a Black person's most effective weapon for solving
problems is to become a part of the White person's world 2 3 4 5
26. I speak my mind regardless of the consequences (e.g. being kicked
out of school, being imprisoned, being exposed to danger) 1 2 3 4 5
27. I believe that everything Black is good, and consequently,
I limit myself to Black activities 1 2 3 4 5
28. I am determined to find my Black identity 1 2 3 4 5
29. I believe that White people are intellectually superior to Blacks 2 3 4 5
30. I believe that because I am Black, I have many strengths . 1 2 3 4 5

Acculturative Stress Measure

Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal feelings or attitudes that you might have. Please indicate that most appropriate answer to each question on your answer sheet using the following:

A	B	C	D	E
Disagree	Somewhat	Somewhat	Agree	Strongly
Agree	Disagree	Agree		
1a. I get especially nervous going into a room full of people if I am going to be the only one of my racial group ...				
A	B	C	D	E
2a. I get nervous when several people from a different racial group approach me				
A	B	C	D	E
3a. I feel pretty uneasy in classes or meetings when there's no one from own racial group nearby				
A	B	C	D	E
4a. People from other racial groups seem to talk and act strangely and often don't know how to behave properly toward me.				
A	B	C	D	E
5a. It is difficult to really trust someone if they're from a different racial background				
A	B	C	D	E
6a. Students from other racial backgrounds often act as if they don't want to get to know me just because I'm of a different race				
A	B	C	D	E

- 7b. In this school, I am often treated more like a member of ~~any~~ B C D E racial group than as an individual person.
- 8b. Students from certain racial backgrounds generally get treated better than others in this school. A B C D E
- 9b. Many kids at school put people down just because they're from C D E racial groups other than their own.

Social Support Questionnaire for Racial Situations

The following questions ask about people in your environment who provide you with help or support. Each question has two parts. For the first part, list all the people you know, excluding yourself, whom you can count on for help or support in the manner described. Give the *persons initials*, their *relationship to you*, and their *race* (B=Black, W=White, O=other; see example). Do not list more than one person next to each of the letters beneath the question. If you have no support for a question, check the words "No one," but still rate your level of satisfaction. Do not list more than nine persons per question.

For the second part, indicate how satisfied you are with the overall support you have (on a scale from 1 to 6).

Example:

Who do you know whom you can trust with information that could get you in trouble?

- 0) No one 1) T.N. (brother) B 2) L.M. (friend) B 3) R.S. (friend) W
 4) T.N. (father) B
 5) L.N. (employer) W 6) _____ 7) _____

1a. With whom can you count on to help you feel better after you have experienced a racial incident?

- 1) No one 2) _____ 3) _____ 4) _____
 5) _____ 6) _____ 7) _____ 8) _____
 9) _____

How satisfied are you with the overall support concerning this issue?

- 6) very satisfied 5) fairly satisfied 4) a little satisfied
 3) a little dissatisfied 2) fairly dissatisfied 1) very dissatisfied

2a. With whom can you comfortably talk about racial issues?

1)No one 2)_____ 3)_____ 4)_____
5)_____6)_____ 7)_____ 8)_____
9)_____

How satisfied are you with the overall support concerning this issue?

6)very satisfied 5)fairly satisfied 4)a little satisfied
3)a little dissatisfied 2)fairly dissatisfied 1) very dissatisfied

3a. With whom can you really count on to help you deal with a racial incident?

1)No one 2)_____ 3)_____ 4)_____
5)_____6)_____ 7)_____ 8)_____
9)_____

How satisfied are you with the overall support concerning this issue?

6)very satisfied 5)fairly satisfied 4)a little satisfied
3)a little dissatisfied 2)fairly dissatisfied 1) very dissatisfied

4a. To whom can you go for advice on how to handle racial issues?

1)No one 2)_____ 3)_____ 4)_____
5)_____6)_____ 7)_____ 8)_____
9)_____

How satisfied are you with the overall support concerning this issue?

6)very satisfied 5)fairly satisfied 4)a little satisfied
3)a little dissatisfied 2)fairly dissatisfied 1) very dissatisfied

5a. Who can help you cope with encounters with persons you perceive as racist?

1)No one 2)_____ 3)_____ 4)_____
5)_____6)_____ 7)_____ 8)_____
9)_____

How satisfied are you with the overall support concerning this issue?

6)very satisfied 5)fairly satisfied 4)a little satisfied 3)a
little dissatisfied 2)fairly dissatisfied 1) very dissatisfied

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Please read the following questions and circle the answer that applies to yourself.
Where applicable, please elaborate your answer to the questions.

Overall GPA (as of last completed semester): _____

1. Educational classification (circle the highest level obtained):
Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior 5th year Senior
Other (please specify) _____
2. Age: _____
3. Gender: Male Female
4. Marital Status: Single Married Separated/Divorced
Widow
5. Do you have any children? Yes No
6. Academic major: _____ Minor, if any _____
7. Residence: campus housing Off-campus apartment
living with parent(s) living with relative
8. Are you presently employed? Yes No
If yes, full or part-time? Full Part-time
9. Do you receive any kind of financial assistance? Yes No
10. Did you attend another College or University before enrolling here? Yes No
If yes, please specify where: _____
11. Why did you decide to attend this university (Rank these by importance: 1 (first),
2(second), etc?)
___Academic reputation ___Family encouraged ___Friends encouraged
___Location ___Program(s) offered ___Financial
consideration ___Wanted integrated setting ___Lacked
sufficient information
___Other reasons (please specify) _____

12. Did you ever consider attending a historically Black college or university?

Yes No

If yes, why did you decide not to attend a Black college? (Rank these by importance: 1 (first), 2 (second), etc.

___ Academic reputation ___ Family encouraged ___ Friends encouraged

___ Location ___ Program(s) offered ___ Financial
consideration ___ Wanted integrated setting ___ Lacked
sufficient information ___ Other reasons (please specify) _____

If no, what are the reasons you did not consider attending a Black college?

(Rank these by importance: 1 (first), 2 (second), etc. ___

Academic reputation

___ Family encouraged ___ Friends encouraged ___

Location

___ Program(s) offered ___ Financial consideration
___ Wanted integrated setting ___ Lacked sufficient information
___ Other reasons (please specify) _____

13. Racial percentage of high school (i.e. percent black, white, etc):

(1) 0 to 10% (2) 11 to 20% (3) 21 to 40 (4) 41% to 50% (5) 51
to 75 %

(6) 76 to 100%

Blacks _____ Whites _____ Other (please
specify) _____

14. The people you most frequently associate with are (select only one)

All Black Majority Black Majority White Other (specify race) _____

15. Did you grow up in a racially separate or racially diverse neighborhood (circle one)?

16. How do you identify yourself?

Black African African-American American Other
(please specify) _

17. Did you grow up in a household with both of your biological parents?

Yes No

If no, specify whom _____

18. How many siblings do you have? # of Brothers_____ # of Sisters__

19. What is the highest level of education obtained and present occupation of your:
Mother_____ Father _____

20. Are you a Member or participate in the following:

Scholastic/academic honor society (specify)	Yes	No	_____
Belong to Fraternity or sorority (specify)	Yes	No	_____
Participate in cultural organization (specify)	Yes	No	_____
Participate in ROTC/military organizations	Yes	No	
Participate in political/social organizations	Yes	No	
Go to campus entertainment/events (movies, plays, concerts)	Yes	No	
Attend special issue lectures/ guest speakers	Yes	No	
Use recreational facilities (weight rooms, basketball aerobics , etc.)	Yes	No	
Go to parties or social get-togethers.	Yes	No	
Meet with students outside of class to discuss/ study notes.	Yes	No	
Speak with administration about your concern.	Yes	No	
Pray or engage in spiritual activities with other students.	Yes	No	

Appendix I

Table 11: Demographic Statistics

Variables	Total		<u>Gender</u>			
	N	%	Male N	%	Female N	%
Age	24.02		21.7		25.82	
Population	103	100	45	44.0	58	56.
Class Rank						
Freshman	20	19.	10	22.2	10	17.
Sophomores	19	18.	8	17.8	11	19.
Junior	26	25.	13	28.9	13	22.
Seniors	22	21.	10	22.2	12	20.
Graduate Students	16	16.	4	8.9	12	20.
Marital Status						
Single	89	86.	44	97.8	45	77.
Married	7	6.8	1	2.2	6	10.
Divorced	6	0.0	0	0	6	10.
Widowed	1	1.0	0	0	1	1.7
Children						
Yes	21	20.	6	13.3	15	26.
No	81	79.	39	86.7	42	73.
Residence						
On-Campus	52	55. 9	26	60.5	26	52. 0
Off-Campus	41	44. 1	17	39.5	24	48. 0
Employed						
Unemployed	28	27. 5	18	40.0	10	17. 5
Part-time	45	44. 1	13	28.9	32	56. 1

Variables	Total		<u>Gender</u>			
	N	%	Male N	%	Female N	%
Full-time	29	28.4	14	31.1	15	26.3
Reception of Finacial Aid						
Yes	75	75.0	32	72.7	43	76.8
No	25	25.0	12	27.3	13	23.2
Attended Previous College						
Yes	50	48.5	19	42.2	31	53.4
No	53	51.5	26	57.8	27	46.6
HS Racial Makeup by %						
0-10	9	5	11.1	4	6.9	
11-20	7	2	4.4	5	8.6	
21-40	9	4	8.9	5	8.6	
41-50	12	6	13.3	6	10.3	
51-75	14	2	4.4	12	20.7	
76-100	52	26	57.8	26	44.8	
HS Racial Majority						
Black	57	64.8	21	36	69.2	
White	30	34.1	14	16	30.8	
Black/White	1	1.1	1	0	0	

Variables	Total		<u>Gender</u>			
	N	%	Male N	%	Female N	%
Race Mostly Associate						
All Black	9	8.7	7	15.6	2	3.4
Majority Black	72	69.9	29	64.4	43	74.1
Majority White	6	5.8	3	6.7	3	5.2
Integrated Evenly	16	15.5	6	13.3	10	17.2
Neighborhood Diversity						
Separate	40	38.8	18	40.0	22	37.9
Diverse	38	35.9	15	33.3	22	37.9
Racial Label						
Black	40	38.8	19	42.2	21	36.8
African-American	42	40.8	18	40.0	24	42.1
American	8	7.8	1	2.2	7	12.3
African-American/Black	4	3.9	2	4.4	2	3.5
Black American	2	1.9	2	4.4	0	0.0
Other	6	6.0	3	6.6	3	5.4
Two Parent Home						
Yes	53	51.5	25	55.6	28	48.3

Variables	Total		Gender			
	N	%	Male N	%	Female N	%
No	50	48.5	20	44.4	30	51.7
Mothers Education						
Junior High School	1	1.0	0	0	1	1.9
High School	37	37.8	15	34.1	22	40.7
College	48	49.0	23	52.3	25	46.3
Graduate/Professional	12	12.2	6	13.6	6	11.1
Fathers Education						
Junior High School	3	3.2	1	2.4	2	3.9
High School	32	34.4	14	33.3	18	35.3
College	47	50.5	20	47.6	27	52.9
Graduate/Professional	8	8.6	6	14.3	2	3.9
Academic Honors Prog.						
Yes	27	27.0	7	15.6	20	36.4
No	73	73.0	38	84.4	35	63.6
Greek Member						
Yes	20	19.8	6	13.3	14	25.0
No	81	80.2	39	86.7	42	75.0

Variables	Total		<u>Gender</u>			
	N	%	Male N	%	Female N	%
Cultural Organization						
Yes	32	32.3	11	24.4	21	38.9
No	67	67.7	34	75.6	33	61.1
ROTC Member						
Yes	10	9.8	5	11.1	5	8.8
No	92	90.2	40	88.9	52	91.2
Political/Social Organ.						
Yes	39	37.9	14	31.1	25	43.1
No	64	62.1	31	68.9	33	56.9
Attends Campus Events						
Yes	82	80.4	34	75.6	48	84.2
No	20	19.6	11	24.4	9	15.8
Attends Guest Lectures						
Yes	74	71.8	27	60.0	47	81.0
No	29	28.2	18	40.0	11	19.0
Use Rec Facilities						
Yes	85	83.3	38	84.4	47	82.5

Variables	Total		<u>Gender</u>			
	N	%	Male N	%	Female N	%
No	17	16.7	7	15.6	10	17.5
Attend Parties						
Yes	88	87.1	40	88.9	48	85.7
No	13	12.9	5	11.1	8	14.3
Study Groups						
Yes	83	81.4	35	77.8	48	84.2
No	19	18.6	10	22.2	9	15.8
Speak to Administr.						
Yes	71	69.6	28	62.2	43	75.4
No	31	30.4	17	37.8	14	24.6
Pray with other Students						
Yes	66	64.1	25	55.6	41	70.7
No	37	35.9	20	44.4	17	29.3

Table 12
Acculturative Stress Multivariate Analyses

	Value	F	df	error df	Sign.
Gender	.980	.957	2	92	.388
Class	.875	1.591	8	184	.130
Gender X Class	.878	1.544	8	184	.145

Table 13
RIAS Between-Subject Effects

Source	df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Class	4	.426	.618	.650
Gender	1	2.374	3.443	.067
Class X Gender	4	1.177	1.707	.155

Table 14
Social Support Between-Subjects Effects

Source	df	MS	F	Sign.
Class	4	10.912	1.948	.109
Gender	1	3.381	.604	.439
Class* Gender	4	5.030	.898	.469
DV:Networ k				

Mean's for Scale Measurements, GPA & ACT Scores

	N	Mininum	Maximun	Mean	SD
GPA	102	1.00	4.00	2.7305	.7638
ACT	51	7	31	20.35	3.95
Pre-enc.	103	1.00	3.22	1.9461	.5441
Encounter	103	1.25	4.75	2.9126	.7424
Immers	103	1.50	4.17	2.5858	.5342
Emmers	103	1.50	5.00	3.8252	.8276
Intern	103	1.89	4.67	3.8058	.5017
RISUM	103	62.00	115.00	86.5825	9.4594
Trait	103	.83	4.33	2.0914	.8049
State	103	1.00	5.00	3.0065	1.0512
Network	103	.00	9.00	3.3165	2.3659
Satisfact.	103	.00	6.00	4.5650	1.8497
Valid N (listwise)	51				

Table 15**Hypothesis 4: Pearson Chi-Square Analysis by Gender**

	Value	df	Significance
Marital Status	9.087	3	.03
Residence	1.429	3	.70
Employment	9.056	2	.01
Financial Aid Reception	.216	1	.64
Previous College	1.278	1	.26
Racial Associates	4.938	3	.18
Racial Identification	12.214	10	.27
Mother Education	1.402	3	.71
Father Education	4.043	5	.54
Honor Student	5.437	1	.02
Greek	2.138	1	.14
ROTC	.156	1	.69
Social Organization	1.549	1	.21
Attend Campus Events	1.195	1	.27
Attend Special Lecture	5.543	1	.02
Recreation Usage	.072	1	.79
Attend Parties	.224	1	.64
Study Groups	.687	1	.41
Cultural Organization	2.341	1	.13
Speak with Admin.	2.076	1	.15
Pray with other student	2.521	1	.11

Table 16
Hypothesis 4: Pearson Chi-Square Analysis by Class

	Value	df	Significance
Marital Status	23.828	12	.02
Residence	41.725	12	.001
Employment	19.287	8	.01
Financial Aid Reception	4.939	4	.29
Previous College	36.107	4	.001
Racial Associates	17.185	12	.143
Racial Identification	47.250	40	.20
Mother Education	18.291	12	.11
Father Education	34.165	20	.025
Honor Student	1.982	4	.739
Greek	8.392	4	.08
ROTC	3.463	4	.48
Social Organization	4.350	4	.36
Attend Campus Events	1.146	4	.89
Attend Special Lecture	4.647	4	.33
Recreation Usage	1.592	4	.81
Attend Parties	1.776	4	.78
Study Groups	9.462	4	.05
Cultural Organization	4.111	4	.39
Speak with Admin.	4.329	4	.36
Pray with other students	4.179	4	.38

Regression ANOVA^c

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.066	1	4.066	9.089	.004 ^a
	Residual	21.919	49	.447		
	Total	25.985	50			
2	Regression	6.087	2	3.044	7.343	.002 ^b
	Residual	19.897	48	.415		
	Total	25.985	50			

a. Predictors: (Constant), ACT

b. Predictors: (Constant), ACT, AGE

c. Dependent Variable: GPA

Regression ANOVA by Gender^e

gender	Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
male	1	Regression	6.368	1	6.368	20.200	.000 ^a
		Residual	7.250	23	.315		
		Total	13.618	24			
	2	Regression	7.830	2	3.915	14.880	.000 ^b
		Residual	5.788	22	.263		
		Total	13.618	24			
female	1	Regression	2.360	1	2.360	7.073	.014 ^c
		Residual	8.007	24	.334		
		Total	10.366	25			
	2	Regression	3.698	2	1.849	6.378	.006 ^d
		Residual	6.668	23	.290		
		Total	10.366	25			

a. Predictors: (Constant), ACT

b. Predictors: (Constant), ACT, AGE

c. Predictors: (Constant), EMMERS

d. Predictors: (Constant), EMMERS, IMMERS

e. Dependent Variable: GPA

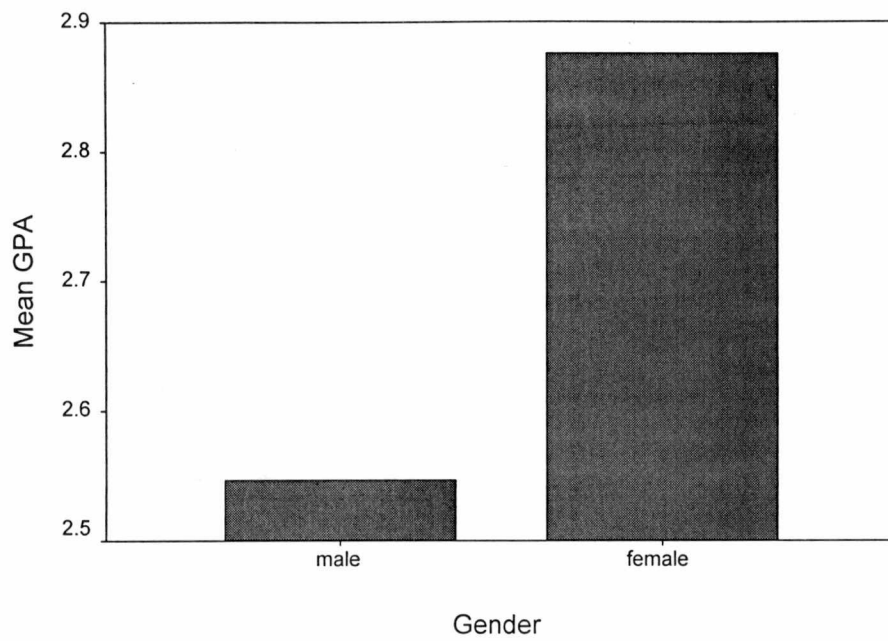


Figure 2. Mean GPA scores by gender.

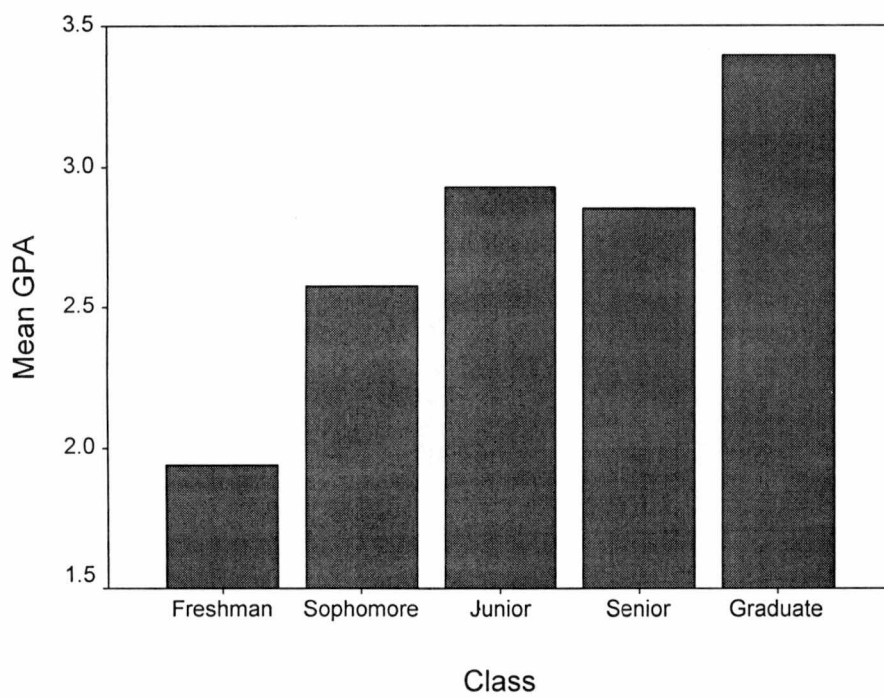


Figure 3. Mean GPA scores by college classification.

VITA

Allen Bellamy was born in Cleveland, Ohio on October 21, 1972. He attended public schools in the Avondale School District in Auburn Hills, Michigan, where he graduated in June, 1990. He entered Oakland Community College in August of 1990 and transferred to Oakland University, Rochester Hills, Michigan in January, 1992. In 1995 he recieved his Bachelor of Arts in Psychology and entered into the Doctorate Program in Clinical Psychology at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville in August of 1995. He officially received his Master's degree in December, 1998 while completing course requirements and clinical practicum in Clinical Psychology.

He is presently pursuing his Doctorate of Psychology in Clinical and intends to extend the work of this present research for his dissertation. Meanwhile, he continues to work as a clinician in psychology at the University of Tennessee Psychological Clinic and in the Community at Cherokee Health Systems.