

College Adjustment, Discrimination, and Social Support among Students of Color

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## Dedication

Con mucho cariño y amor quiero dedicarle mi trabajo a mi familia. Mami, gracias por siempre creer en mí y por sacarte la cresta tratando de darnos lo mejor. Siempre te he visto como un alma feroz que no le tiene miedo a nada, y que puede ganarle a cualquier obstáculo. Tú me enseñaste que nunca debo darme por vencida hasta no darle el todo, y también me enseñaste que todo mundo tiene derecho a una vida digna y todo persona tiene una historia que contar. Paire mío, gracias por mostrarme la importancia de ser feliz, y por siempre apoyarme incondicionalmente en mi viaje. Tu imaginación y conexión con el universo me inspira a ver el mundo con la mente abierta. Siempre valoras mi opinión y me has enseñado que no tengo que dudarme en mí misma. Mi familia me inculcó la pasión de pelear por los derechos de la gente que han sido silenciadas en el mundo.

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## Abstract

Despite efforts to increase underrepresented student enrollment, Students of Color continue to have significantly lower college retention rates compared to their White counterparts on many U.S. college campuses. This study investigated associations between general ethnic discrimination, emotional adjustment to college, and attachment to college in Students of Color at one predominantly White public institution in the Southeastern U.S. Students who were the first in their immediate family to attend college were compared to those with a parent who attended college. Social support from family and friends at home, as well as social integration in school were investigated as buffers of the impact of perceived discrimination. General ethnic discrimination stress was found to be a predictor of personal emotional adjustment. Social support and social integration were both predictors of personal emotional adjustment and institutional attachment. There were no significant buffering effects either for social support from home or from college. First-generation Students of Color were found to be at higher risk of experiencing lower levels of adjustment to college and higher frequency and stress of general ethnic discrimination.

*Keywords:* race and ethnic discrimination, college environment, college academic achievement, social support

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## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

Students of Color have historically been underrepresented in postsecondary education. Despite the increase in racial diversity in the United States, underrepresentation remains a serious problem (Kim, 2011; Swail, 2003). Although Asian and White students attending college in the present day have made gains in obtaining postsecondary degrees, all other racial groups have not been able to increase the rate of postsecondary degrees (Kim, 2011). In addition, Students of Color in postsecondary education are at a high risk of attrition from college. A study conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics collected a national sample of students beginning postsecondary education in 2003-2004 and followed up with the sample in 2006 (Berkner, He, Mason, & Wheelless, 2007). These data suggest rates for students not obtaining a degree and not enrolling in college after four years based on race/ethnicity were highest among Black and Latino students. Other data demonstrate between 1992 and 2000 only 25.7% of Hispanics, 34% of African-American, and 31% of American Indian students enrolled in postsecondary education institutions earned bachelor's degrees, as compared to 50.1% of Whites and 51.1% of Asians (Chen & Carroll, 2005).

Students who are the first-generation in their family to complete a college degree are also significantly underrepresented in postsecondary education. Such students are more likely to take remedial courses in college as well as have lower rates of retention and degree attainment (Chen & Carroll, 2005; Langhout, Drake, & Rosselli, 2009). First-generation students also have lower academic engagement, indicated by lower "frequency with which students interacted with faculty, contributed to class discussions, brought up ideas from different courses during class discussions, and asked insightful question" (Soria, & Stebleton, 2012, p. 677). Between 2003 and 2006, drop-out rates for students with parents who had high school education or less were

twice as high as continuing-generation students, or students with parents who had a bachelor's degree or higher (Berkner, He, Mason, & Wheeless, 2007). Additionally, only 23.5% of students with parents who did not have a bachelor's degree or higher obtained a bachelors degree after being enrolled in postsecondary education between 1992 to 2000, compared to 67.5% of students with parents who had a bachelor's degree or higher. First-generation students are generally thought of as students whose parents do not have experience in higher education (Saenz & Barrera, 2007). Our current study refers to students as *first-generation* when they identify neither of their parents as having completed a college degree prior to them (the students) attending college. Thus, in this study *first-generation* will be used to refer to students who have parents attending college concurrently with them, or students whose parents have taken some courses in higher education or technical school, because although these parents can provide valuable advice, their knowledge of what it takes to complete a four-year undergraduate degree is not as extensive as parents with this experience. First-generation students in our study also included those who had older siblings attending or having attended college. Some research has pointed out that older siblings can also be a source of motivation and information for first-generation students to apply to college and attend college (Ceja, 2006). However, research evaluating the role of older siblings in college adjustment is limited. Students who did not meet the operational definition of first-generation will be referred in this paper as *continuing-generation* students. This study will evaluate specific campus climate factors that may play a role in the adjustment to college, and intentions to depart college of Students of Color, including (but not exclusively) Students of Color who identify with their first-generation status.

Recent research has emphasized the necessity to increase postsecondary academic success in underrepresented groups such as Students of Color and first-generation students of all

racess and ethnicities, yet there is a dearth of literature examining the intersection of these identities, and how they create unique obstacles to college achievement. First-generation students are more likely to come from lower income households, and identify as racial and/or ethnic minorities (Chen & Carroll, 2005; Engle, 2007). Therefore there is a need to understand the burdens faced by first-generation of Students of Color, and how the intersection of these identities presents both coping advantages and challenges.

Additionally, although researchers have examined specific barriers to postsecondary education attainment, this literature tends to emphasize individual attributes of students, such as personality styles and student characteristics, leading to stereotypes that identify the students as the source of their own failure (Tinto, 1987). Tinto (1987) developed a longitudinal model of departure from institutions of higher education, which not only emphasizes “individual attributes, skills and dispositions,” but also describes the importance of how individual factors interact with institutional experiences, both academically and socially. This study will discuss this student departure model and how some of the obstacles experienced by first-generation and continuing-generation Students of Color in achieving academic success – including racial discrimination, and lack of institutional support – fit in this model. This study will also address and evaluate how the intersection of race and first-generation student status may further impede college adjustment through the above campus climate factors.

### **Longitudinal Model of Departure of Education**

One of the most well-known models of college retention and academic adjustment is Tinto’s (1987) Longitudinal Model of Student Departure (LMSD). This model denotes different attributes students have when coming to college, such as family background, prior schooling, skills, and abilities. It also denotes how different cultural backgrounds, values, and abilities play a role in the intention and commitments of students attending college (Figure 1). In the LMSD

model, intention and commitment are not sufficient to predict retention. Rather, they interact with institutional experiences that lead to a re-evaluation of goals and commitments. Tinto discussed two different types of institutional experiences that lead to two different levels of integration among students: academic integration and social integration (Figure 1). Academic experiences, such as interactions with faculty and staff, and overall academic performance lead to a student's evaluation of academic integration. Social integration, on the other hand, includes extracurricular activities in which the student is involved, as well as supportive and rewarding peer interactions in the college setting. Tinto therefore highlights how the environment plays a significant role in student retention and departure, and also highlights the importance of student engagement as a predictor of college success (Tinto, 1998).

Further studies have noted how engagement, both academic and social, is particularly important for Students of Color (Allen, 1992). African-American students experience both higher academic achievement and higher social integration when attending a Historically Black College or University (HBCU), as compared to a Predominantly White Institution (PWI). In addition, African American, and Hispanic students have higher attrition rates than White students and Asian students in PWI. Among those students who persist in college, African American and Asian students reported lower levels of engagement and academic satisfaction than their White and Hispanic counterparts (Bennett & Okinaka, 1990). Tinto's model (1987) not only provides a multimodal perspective on the influences that impact college attrition, but it also emphasizes the responsibility institutions hold in assisting students feel welcomed and integrated. Tinto (2006) made a call to action to institutions to establish policies and structures that would help students who are underrepresented such as Students of Color and first-generation students.

The LMSD takes into account some internal factors in students, as well as outside structures in the college or university. However one area the model does not account for are incidents of oppression on campus. Institutions can play a significant role in creating programs that will support underrepresented students (e.g., mentorship programs, tutoring, and extracurricular activities), yet it is equally important to understand the campus climate of a university and how it impacts students' well-being, sense of adjustment, and integration. For example, university can offer additional tutoring for a low-income student whose high school was not competitive to provide additional knowledge and support, but the university also has a role in understanding that student's experiences of racism and how they are impacting the student's engagement and retention. We therefore hypothesize an additional element impacting university commitment is university climate, and how welcoming students perceive their university setting. Since there has been less focus on environmental factors impacting university commitment, our study evaluated campus climate factors, such as discrimination and institutional support, as well as support from home. The next section describes experiences of racial oppression and discrimination Students of Color and Students of Color who are first-generation may deal with on a college campus and how that may tie further to retention and adjustment.

### **Students of Color in Predominantly White Institutions (PWI)**

Freire (2000) described the concept of "banking" in education as a method of passing down knowledge in traditional school systems. In a banking system, students are viewed as passively absorbing information from teachers as truth, rather than engaging in dialogue and critical analysis of the information. Therefore, the majority of high school and college students in the current education system "bank" information, as one stores a receipt, directly from the

educators who are in power, and who also, in turn, have received this information from those with privilege. Freire's perspective helps highlight the stark difference between White children and children of Color attending school. For example, one can say early in U.S. history, Students of Color had limited access to schooling. Racial/ethnic minority students therefore attend an education setting that was originally forged from a White cultural perspective. To succeed, all students must accept the information passed to them by the school, but White students and Students of Color do not come with equal knowledge about the social environment and systems of their school. Although White students have continued to build on their education through multiple generations of information being passed down, Students of Color experience a silence of their own history and knowledge in the school setting. This silence highlights how inequality and oppression are made invisible by assuming equal footing between individuals of color, and White individuals (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). Therefore White students continue to gain from a system they are familiar with, while Students of Color are expected to adapt to the unfamiliar White structures set up in the school system, and are blamed for when they do not succeed in this system.

As youth graduate from high school and begin attending college, Students of Color in PWI often begin interacting with White students who have historically been provided with more opportunities for success, have little knowledge of minority cultures, and who are familiar with a structure that benefits Whites (Gusa, 2010). In addition, Students of Color are constantly exposed to White students and staff, as well as structures, such as building names and art that represent a primarily White dominant history. This highlights the oppression experienced by racial/ethnic minorities (Gusa, 2010). This perspective provides an alternative explanation for the research findings suggesting that first-generation ethnic minority students have poorer

academic performance and higher drop-out rates than other students (Billson & Terry, 1982; Dennis, Phinney, & Chuateco, 2005).

### **General Ethnic Discrimination**

One way in which Students of Color experience inequality and institutional oppression is through stereotyping and discrimination (Harper, 2012). Underrepresented students also experience higher levels of discrimination and marginalization. Efforts to increase recruitment of Students of Color in PWI, such as affirmative action, reduce the privilege of White students, and may lead to a backlash towards Students of Color creating a more hostile environment that marginalizes these students (Gusa, 2010). Reports of Students of Color experiencing microaggressions and discrimination have been widely published, and discrimination has been tied to poorer academic achievement in various settings, as well as students dropping classes or leaving campus (Minikel-Lacocque, 2012; Umaña-Taylor, Wong, Gonzalez, & Dumka, 2012; Yosso, Smith, Ceja, & Solórzano, 2009). Umaña-Taylor and colleagues identified how perceived discrimination by Mexican-American adolescents was directly related to lower GPAs and higher numbers of reports by teachers of externalizing behavior (Umaña-Taylor, Wong, Gonzalez, & Dumka, 2012). Additionally, it has been argued that Students of Color who become ostracized based on their race experience a negative impact on their academic self-esteem (Allen, 1992). Some of these experiences of prejudice may be subtle, yet they still pose a burden on students who feel marginalized and oppressed by their peers (Jackson, Smith, & Hill, 2003). Disparities in educational outcomes therefore may be perpetuated due to the experiences of discrimination and minority stress faced by underrepresented students (Allen, Epps, Guillory, Suh & Bonous-Hammarth, 2000; Chao, Mallinckrodt, & Wei, 2012; Gloria & Hird, 1999; Gusa, 2010).

## **Underrepresented Students and the Need for Support**

Despite increased efforts to recruit and retain underrepresented students disparities in degree attainment and college retention, still remain high, and college attrition of these students has not improved much (Tinto, 2006). One reason for this inconsistency in recruitment and graduation rates could be a lack of institutional support for the unique identities of these students (Johnson et al., 2007; Pyne & Means, 2013; Yosso, Smith, Ceja, & Solórzano). Research suggests that Students of Color and first-generation students may lack of sense of belonging in traditional college campuses, and feel like “impostors” or unwelcomed in the higher education setting (Pyne & Means, 2013). Students of Color may experience a lack of connection with some of their peers, due to differences in cultural background and experience a sense of isolation (Jackson et al., 2003; Minikel-Lacocque, 2013)

In addition, universities foster independent environments where students are meant to succeed by expressing themselves and taking charge of their education, yet many underrepresented students, such as first-generation students or Native American students, may come from an interdependent culture where the student is focusing on her/his role in the community of origin (Jackson et al., 2003; Stephens, Townsend, Markus, & Phillips, 2012). Students moving away for education may experience a need to maintain a connection and commitment to the family, which can conflict with the need to maintain a commitment to the university, and may feel unacceptable to their home communities (Jackson et al., 2003). Still, other research has found different impacts of family connection and support on racialized students. Kenny and colleagues found racial and ethnic minority youth benefit from close and extended family support, as it is tied with improved grades, and stronger career aspirations among high school students (Kenny, Blustein, Chaves, Grossman, & Gallagher, 2003). In

addition, immigrant students, such as Latinos, may begin college without family knowledge of U.S. college success, and are less likely to seek services for emotional support at PWIs (Cerezo & McWhirter, 2012). Research on first-generation students has highlighted how students with lower college adjustment identified a lack of peer and family support, and college students in general identified peer support as a positive coping strategy in school (Dennis, Phinney, & Chuateco, 2005). Furthermore, lack of family and peer support was more strongly associated to college outcome than reported availability of family support.

Validation studies of Tinto's (1987) model for first-generation students suggest family support plays a significant role in college success, yet institutional support also can have an important independent impact on student retention and success (Woosley & Shepler, 2011). It is important to consider the implementation of university policies to provide support to first-generation students (Langhout, Drake, & Rosselli, 2009; Woosley & Shepler, 2011). Support from the university can create a significant benefit for students. Faculty-student informal and formal contact has also been tied to increased retention of students (Harper, 2012; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1980). A qualitative study reported Native American students felt more connected to their university when encountering a warm faculty member, or when having access to student groups emphasizing Native American background (Jackson et al., 2013). Other research suggested that being involved in multicultural experiences was positively associated with retention of African-American students, but events that left students feeling undervalued had a negative association with retention (Furr & Elling, 2002). On the other hand students who did not have knowledge of the campus were also more likely to drop out from school. It is therefore important to further evaluate how support at school compares with support in the family setting,

and to understand in what way these two types of support may have an impact on college adjustment.

### **The Current Study**

Tinto's (1987) model is one of the most well-researched theories for understanding student attrition, and highlights the importance of both external and internal factors in the success of student retention. One method to measure college adjustment and student retention is through the Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire SACQ, a self-report measure, which operationalizes college adjustment on four dimensions: (a) academic adjustment, (b) social integration, (c) personal/emotional adjustment, and (d) institutional attachment (Baker & Siryk, 1984). Academic adjustment evaluates the various educational demands placed on students by a college setting; Social integration measures interpersonal interactions in the college setting; Personal/emotional adjustment measures psychological and physical health of the student; Institutional attachment evaluates the students feelings about being in college and the bond towards the institution itself (Baker & Siryk, 1986). The current study conceptualized three of these dimensions of college adjustment as a method to evaluate institutional commitment within Tinto's model (Figure 1). (We believe that fourth dimension of the SACQ, social integration, serves as a protective factor for enhancing the other three, as explained below.) Despite the very large body of research on Tinto's model, relatively few studies have investigated the effect of discrimination in the campus climate on these critical dimensions of adjustment. In addition, there is a dearth in the literature examining how the intersection between race and family educational history interact with environmental factors of support and campus climate.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to test part of Tinto's model to evaluate whether campus climate risk factors, such as ethnic discrimination, have a significant impact on

institutional commitment (Figure 2). Specifically we measured Tinto's institutional commitment through two dimensions of adjustment to college measured by the SACQ: personal/emotional adjustment, and institutional attachment. Because this study was more interested in overall connectedness to the university, rather than self-efficacy, we did not include the third factor SACQ factor of academic adjustment. In addition, we measured social integration of students through the fourth SACQ subscale: social adjustment. Tinto's model (1987) addresses social and academic integration within the college campus environment, and also accounts for family attributes and background that help the student. Tinto's model however does not account for family support. Literature has addressed the importance of support and resources from family and friends from one's home culture. We therefore evaluated the support received from home as an additional factor impacting student commitment, (Figure 2). Finally, we evaluated whether campus climate risk factors are associated with institutional commitment. The campus climate risk factors examined were frequency and level of distress experienced by perceptions of ethnic discrimination on campus among racial/ethnic minority students, and racial/ethnic minority students who have first generation status. Hypothesis 1 holds that ethnic discrimination frequency and stress will be negatively associated with the personal/emotional adjustment and institutional attachment. Hypothesis 2 predicts that social integration and support from home will be positively correlated with both dimensions of adjustment. Finally, Hypothesis 3 involves moderating, "buffering" protective effects of support from home and social integration (Figure 3). This hypothesis predicts a statistical interaction, such that high levels of these forms of support buffering factors will be associated with reduced impact of perceived discrimination on college adjustment.

## **Chapter 2: Method**

### **Participants**

Participants in this study were required to be at least 18 years of age, currently enrolled in college, and to identify as People of Color. Students had the option to select one or more of the following options: American Indian or Alaskan Native, Asian American, Black or African-American, Hispanic or Latina/o, Multiracial or Biracial, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, White or European American, or Other. In addition, students were asked to identify whether one or both parents had earned a college degree, and/or whether another caregiver had done so. Participants were solicited through two sources. First, students were recruited through an undergraduate student research pool through the department of psychology at a large, public university in the Southeastern United States ( $n = 421$ ). Psychology courses require students to obtain research credits, and an announcement of our research was posted on the online research site. Students were provided with half of a credit for participation in the research study, and were also provided with the option to enter in a \$25.00 gift-card raffle as incentive for participation. The department announcement explicitly recruited Students of Color, but did not mention first-generation status because no data was excluded on this basis.

The second method of soliciting participants was through Internet-based recruitment. An email was sent out to student organizations that targeted Students of Color, such as multicultural student organizations and fraternities and sororities, at large universities across the country describing the purpose of the study, and requesting organizations to forward the research announcement to their email listserv. In addition, announcements were placed in social media sites, through Facebook advertisement pages, and in Reddit sites. These potential participants were offered an incentive in the form of entering a gift-card raffle of \$25. Unfortunately, a total

of only 19 subjects responded through this method, yielding a total of  $N = 440$  subjects who provided data before screening.

## Measures

**Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SACQ).** This 67-item self-report measure was developed to assess student adjustment to college (Baker & Siryk, 1984). Respondents used a 9-point response scale ranging from 1 (*applies very closely to me*) to 9 (*does not apply to me at all*). The measure contains four subscales: (a) Academic Adjustment (24 items), (b) Social Adjustment (20 items), (c) Personal/Emotional Adjustment (15 items), and (d) Institutional Attachment (15 items). Of these subscales, Personal/Emotional Adjustment, and Institutional Attachment were used in the current study as outcome measures of college adjustment. The Social Adjustment subscale was used to measure social integration at a college level. Higher scores represented higher levels of adjustment for each of these subscales. The Personal/Emotional subscales assess psychological and physical health of students while attending college. An example item is, “Lately I have been feeling blue and moody a lot.” The SACQ Institutional Attachment subscale measures strong connection to the university, satisfaction with the decision to attend, and low intention to drop out or transfer. An example item is, “I am pleased now about my decision to go to college.” The SACQ Social Adjustment subscale measures perceived social interactions at college, relationships with peers, faculty and staff at college, and perceived environment at college. An example item is, “I am meeting as many people, and making as many friends as I would like in college.” We made a very deliberate decision to label the construct measured by the SACQ Social Adjustment subscale, *Social Integration*, because we believe this term captures better the person-environment interaction that can be influenced by discrimination on campus. “Social Adjustment” too easily

suggests that difficulties in this area are entirely an individual problem. Baker and Syrik (1984) reported in their original scale development the following internal reliability (Cronbach's alpha) scores: for the Institutional Attachment subscale alpha ranged from .82 to .87; for the Personal/Emotional Subscale, alpha ranged .73 to .79; for the Social Adjustment subscale, alpha ranged from .83 to .89. Subsequent evaluations of reliability demonstrated all subscales fell within a .82-.91 alpha coefficient (Baker & Syrik, 1986). In addition, validity tests demonstrated the subscales were significantly correlated with independent evaluations of adjustment in college students (Baker & Syrik, 1984). Internal reliability (coefficient alpha) in the current study was .87, for Personal/Emotional Adjustment, .86 for Institutional Attachment, and .88 for Social Adjustment.

**Social Provisions Scale.** Social support from family and friends from home was measured through the Social Provisions Scale (SPS), a 24-item measure that evaluates six different types of social support, each evaluated by four items (Cutrona & Russell, 1984). Respondents use a 4-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 4 (*strongly agree*). Subscales included Guidance (having someone to provide knowledgeable advice), Reliable Alliance (having someone to count and rely on to provide tangible assistance), Social Integration (feeling part of a group with shared interests and beliefs), Reassurance of Worth (receiving praise and respect from others), Attachment (experiencing safety, and emotional well-being from a close emotional bond), and Opportunity to Provide Nurturance (feeling needed by others). However, Opportunity to Provide Nurturance, the sixth subscale was not used in this study due to inconsistencies on how feeling responsible for others increases experience of support (Mallinckrodt, Armer, & Heppner, 2012). After dropping this subscale, 20 items remained. A specific statement was added to the instructions reminding students to think about

their current relationship with friends, family members, coworkers, and community members from their home environment. Higher scores indicated higher perception of social support by the respondent. Reliability (Cronbach's alpha) coefficients for SPS subscales ranged from .65 to .76 (Cutrona, Cole, Colangelo, Assouline, & Russell, 1994). Kenny and colleagues (2003) reported reliability specifically for Youth of Color in high school and college for a shortened version of the SPS as .68. Furthermore, construct validity was supported through significant correlations in samples of college students with measures of loneliness and interpersonal relationships (Cutrona et al., 1994). Other validity studies with college students demonstrated that the total SPS score was significantly related to social support measures such as number of supportive persons, number of helping behaviors, satisfaction with support, and attitudes towards support, yet provides additional influence than the above variables. The reliability in the current sample had a Cronbach's alpha of .93.

**General Ethnic Discrimination Scale.** The GED scale (Landrine, Klonoff, Corral, Fernandez, & Roesch, 2006) consists of 18 questions, each with three sub-questions about: (a) the frequency of ethnic discrimination in the past year, (b) the frequency of ethnic discrimination over one's entire life, and (c) the stress experienced by the discriminatory event. Respondents used a 6-point frequency scale ranging from 1 (*Never*) to 6 (*Almost all the time*) to describe the frequency of events. Because this study focused on the experiences of college students, respondents were asked only to address the frequency of ethnic discrimination in the past year on the college campus but not elsewhere, or over their entire lifetime. To assess the magnitude of impact, each item presents a second 6-point response scale ranging from 1 (*Not at all stressful*) to 6 (*Extremely stressful*). This scale was intended to measure the appraisal of discriminatory events. Items in this scale include, "How often have you been treated unfairly by teachers and

professors because of your race/ethnic group?” and “How often have people misunderstood your intentions and motives because of your race/ethnic group?” Confirmatory factor analysis yielded significant factor loadings in both recent discrimination subscale and appraised discrimination subscale for White, African-American, Asian American, and Latino/Hispanic groups, ranging from .80 to .98 in college samples (Landrine et al., 2006). In addition, subscales had a high internal consistency with Cronbach’s alpha ranging from .91-.92 for Whites, .93-.95 for African-Americans, .93-.94 for Latinos/Hispanics, and .91-.94 for Asian Americans (Landrine et al., 2006). Cronbach’s alpha for the current sample was .89 for the frequency subscale, and .91 for the stress subscale.

### **Procedure**

Participants were recruited through email from campus organizations and groups, as well as the online undergraduate research pool through the department of psychology. Students were directed from the online recruitment to an anonymous online survey developed using the Qualtrics Software. Students who participated through the undergraduate research pool were offered half a research credit towards their undergraduate psychology course, which equated to about 30 minutes of time. The Qualtrics survey link directed students to the informed consent of the study and asked students to agree to the terms before allowing them to continue to the study. After completing the survey all students were granted the option to enter a raffle for \$25 gift cards by providing their university e-mail. All surveys were assigned a random ID number. Emails of the students who chose to provide them were kept in a separate document with the matched id number from the survey.

We conducted a power analysis for the required sample sized based on conventions described by Frazier, Tix, and Barron (2004). We assumed a small to medium buffering effect

size ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.06$ ), a desired .80 power, and a total of four predictors. We calculated the total required sample size using G\*Power 3.1.9.2 (Faul, Erdfelder, & Lang, 2009). The analysis yielded a minimum of 164 cases for hierarchical multiple regression analyses.

Beginning with a total of 440 participants, 43 cases were screened out because more than 20% of their data were missing. Of these 43 respondents, 33 provided no usable data at all. Next we screened the remaining 397 students for answers on one or more of the validity check items that indicated random or inattentive responding (e.g., “Please leave this item blank” or “Please code a five for this item.”). We found that 31% ( $n = 123$ ) answered one or more of these four items in a direction that suggested random or inattentive responding. Further analysis demonstrated that students who had at least one invalid response took a significantly shorter time ( $M = 13.38$  minutes) to respond to the survey than students who did not have invalid responses ( $M = 16.64$  minutes). In fact, 5.5% of students took less than 5 minutes to complete the survey. We decided that it was impossible for students to carefully consider more than 120 items and read the consent form in less than 600 seconds. Therefore after screening out 123 cases based on answers to the validity check items, we screened out an additional 39 students who took less than 10 minutes to complete the survey – even though all validity items were answered in the correct direction for these 39 students. After screening, data from a total of 235 participants remained. Of these, 36 identified as white, and were therefore also dropped from the analysis.

Analyses were based on the remaining 199 participating students, all of whom were students at our local campus. Of the 199 students 69 identified as Black or African-American (34.7%), 38 identified as Asian-American (19.1%), 21 identified as Hispanic or Latin@ (10.6%), 34 identified as Multiracial or Biracial (17.1%), 22 identified as American Indian or Alaskan Native (11.1%), 5 identified as Hawaiian or Pacific Islander (2.5%), and 10 identified as Other

(5.0%). Additionally 150 students identified as Freshmen (75.6%), 30 identified as Sophomores (15.1%), 11 identified as Juniors (5.5%), and 8 identified as Seniors (4.0%). Women comprised 62.3% of the total sample ( $n = 124$ ) and men comprised 37.6% of the total sample ( $n = 75$ ). Finally, 55 students identified as first-generation (27.6%) and 144 identified as continuing-generation students (72.3%). With regard to missing data, 74% of the items were answered by all participants, and 77% of students answered every item. We used the SPSS Expectation Maximization procedure to estimate missing data. This procedure uses all available information of all variables and cases to estimate missing data.

## Chapter 3: Results

### Preliminary Analyses

Descriptive statistics and correlations were performed for each of the variables using SPSS-22. We first conducted a one-way ANOVA to compare group differences between all racial identities (Table 1). Since only 5 identified as Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, and 10 identified as Other we did not include these two groups in the analysis. MANOVA analyses indicated there was no overall statistically significant difference based on race/ethnic identity,  $F(6,174) = 1.12, p = .315$ . We therefore decided to continue all analyses combining Students of Color into one group. Table 2 presents *t*-test comparisons of mean differences for men and women. MANOVA analyses indicated there was an overall statistically significant difference based on gender,  $F(6,192) = 4.73, p < .001$ . *T*-tests suggest these overall differences resulted from women scoring on average lower than men on levels of social integration, personal/emotional adjustment, and institutional attachment.

Table 3 presents results of *t*-tests comparing students who were and were not first-generation college students. MANOVA analyses indicated there was an overall statistically significant difference between first-generation students and continuing generation students,  $F(6,192) = 2.16, p = .049$ . *T*-test comparison of individual variables indicated the overall difference between these two groups was due to first-generation students experiencing lower levels of social integration, personal/emotional adjustment, and institutional attachment. In addition, first-generation students reported significantly higher overall frequency and stress of discrimination events

## Tests of Hypotheses

Our first hypothesis sought to evaluate whether general ethnic discrimination had a significant impact on college adjustment. We evaluated the effects of frequency of discrimination events and level of stress reported by the events on personal emotional adjustment and institutional attachment. To test these hypotheses we conducted bivariate correlational analyses among all variables. Table 4 presents correlations between these variables separately for men and women. Women's experiences of discrimination were significantly correlated with college adjustment. The strongest relationship was between general ethnic discrimination stress and personal emotional adjustment ( $r = -.39$ ). For men, experiences of discrimination were not significantly related to outcomes of college adjustment. Note that correlations between social integration and institutional attachment were high (.87 for women and .84 for men) because these variables were both measured with subscales of the SACQ. Table 5 presents the bivariate correlation of all variables based on the generation status of the student. Continuing-generation students' discrimination frequency (GEDF) and discrimination stress (GEDS) scores were significantly related to personal emotional adjustment ( $r = -.19$ , and  $r = -.29$  respectively) and institutional attachment ( $r = -.21$  for both GEDF and GEDS). Only GEDS was significantly related to Support from home among continuing-generation students ( $r = -.17$ ). Similarly, first-generation students' GEDF and GEDS were significantly related to both personal emotional adjustment ( $r = -.46$ , and  $r = -.45$  respectively) and institutional attachment ( $r = -.29$ , and  $r = -.27$ ). Moreover, among first-generation students, both GEDF and GEDS scores were significantly related to social integration ( $r = -.29$ , and  $r = -.39$  respectively) and to support from home ( $r = -.33$ , and  $r = -.38$ ).

Our second hypothesis predicted that support from home and social integration should be significantly positively associated with college adjustment. Bivariate correlations for men and women are shown in Table 4. There was a significant relationship for support from home and social integration on both outcomes of college adjustment for both women and men. Table 5 shows that social integration was also significantly related to adjustment outcomes in first-generation students and continuing-generation students, with the strongest association to institutional attachment ( $r = .86$  and  $r = .86$  respectively). Additionally, support from home was significantly correlated to both outcomes in continuing-generation students; however support from home was not related to personal emotional adjustment among first-generation students.

To continue analysis of our first and second hypotheses, we then conducted multiple regression analyses to compare the relative strength of all four predictors on emotional adjustment, as well as institutional attachment. Predictors were GEDF, GEDS, social integration (SOCADJ), and support from home (SPS). Table 6 shows results of these analyses. Panel A shows that with personal/emotional adjustment as a criterion, two variables were significant unique predictors: General ethnic discrimination stress ( $\beta = -.33$ ), and social integration ( $\beta = .48$ ), Panel B shows that with institutional attachment as the criterion, only social integration was a significant unique predictor ( $\beta = .83$ ), perhaps because these two variables had very high bivariate correlations.

Our third hypothesis predicted an interaction or “buffering” effect between ethnic discrimination and social support on college adjustment, specifically that high levels of support would ameliorate effects of discrimination on adaptation to college. These effects were examined through hierarchical multiple regression analyses, which followed the steps recommended by Frazier, Tix, and Barron (2004) to determine moderating effects. In

comparisons of GED stress and frequency, stress was the stronger unique predictor of outcomes in previous analyses. Therefore, to avoid problems with multicollinearity between these two closely related measures, in the buffering analyses only GEDS (not GEDF) was examined. Descriptive statistics for GEDS determined the variable was strongly positively skewed, meaning the majority of students had lower scores in both of these scales, and relatively fewer students scored significantly higher on this scale. To ensure higher normality and kurtosis within the scores, we used rank order transformation to recode GEDS into percentile ranks. We then centered the variables, and created interaction terms by multiplying GEDS with support from home and GEDS with social integration. We conducted separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses for each interaction term and for each dependent variable, yielding four regressions (Table 7). In Step 1 we included the main effect terms and in Step 2 we included the interaction term. Unstandardized betas were examined in the output on interaction terms, since standardized scores in moderation analyses are considered not interpretable (Frazier et al., 2004).

Table 7, Panel A, step 2 evaluated the buffering effects of college social integration for the impact of GEDS on institutional attachment. Although there was a significant main effect for social integration ( $B = .86$ ) there was no significant buffering effect for social integration in blunting the effects of GEDS on institutional attachment. The analyses shown in Panel B of Table 7 also examined institutional attachment as the criterion, but in this case support from home was the potential buffering variable. Once again, although support from home had a significant direct effect ( $B = 1.37$ ), there was no significant buffering effect between support from home and GEDS.

Table 7, Panel C, evaluated the buffering effects of social integration for the impact GEDS on personal/emotional adjustment. Although there were significant main effects for both

social integration ( $B = .54$ ) and for GEDS ( $B = -.01$ ) there was no significant buffering effect for social integration in blunting the effects of GEDS on personal/emotional adjustment. Finally, the analyses shown in Panel D of Table 7 examined emotional adjustment as the criterion, but with home support as the potential buffering variable. The final (second) step model statistics of this analysis showed that although support from home had a significant direct effect ( $B = .76$ ), there was no significant buffering effect in the interaction between support from home and GEDS.

### **Follow-Up Analyses**

We anticipated that the administration on our campus would be curious about the differential impact for various experiences of discrimination. That is, what types of discrimination experiences have the most detrimental impact on Students of Color on our campus? Thus, to follow up our tests of hypotheses we examined individual items from the General Ethnic Discrimination scale to determine which experiences of discrimination occurred with the most frequency and which had the most impact on Students of Color. Table 8 presents the percentage of students who reported experiencing a particular discrimination event at least once in the past year on campus, and the average level of stress for students who reported experiencing the event in the past year.

The three most frequent discriminatory events from the GEDF scale, based on the percentage of students from our total sample who indicated that event happening at least once in a while in the past year, were “How often did you want to tell someone off for being racist towards you but didn’t say anything?” (64.8%), “How often have you been called a racist name?” (63.3%), and “How often have you been treated unfairly by strangers because of your race/ethnic group?” (61.3%). The three most stressful discriminatory events reported by students were “How often have you been accused or suspected of doing something wrong (such as telling,

cheating, not doing your share of work, or breaking the law) because of your race/ethnic group?” ( $M = 3.51$ ), which 33.7% of student experienced in the past year; “How often did you want to tell someone off for being racist towards you but didn’t say anything?” ( $M = 3.47$ ; 64.8%); and “How often have you been really angry about something racist that was done to you?” ( $M = 3.47$ ), which occurred to 60.8% of students in the past year. Thus, two of the most frequently occurring experiences also were two of the most impactful.

Our campus, like many others, is concerned with retention of students from underrepresented groups. Thus, our final follow-up exploratory analysis involved evaluating potential retention among Students of Color. Five items from the SACQ institutional attachment subscale specifically ask about a student’s desire to leave their institution. These are: “I wish I were at another college or university,” “I expect to stay at this college for a bachelor’s degree,” “Lately I have been giving a lot of thought to transferring to another college,” “Lately I have been giving a lot of thought of dropping out of college altogether and for good,” and “I find myself giving considerable thought to taking time off from college and finishing later.” A separate “Intention to Leave” subscale was calculated from answers to these five items.

Table 9 reports correlations between individual items from the GEDS subscale with Intention to Leave scores. The three items most highly correlated with intention to leave were “How often have you been treated unfairly by your co-workers, fellow students and colleagues because of your race/ethnic group?” ( $r = .24$ ), How often have you been treated unfairly by strangers because of your race/ethnic group? ( $r = .21$ ), and “How often did you want to tell someone off for being racist towards you but didn’t say anything? ( $r = .20$ ).

## Chapter 4: Discussion

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the experiences of ethnic discrimination, social support, and college adjustment in continuing-generation and first-generation Students of Color as a test of Tinto's (1987) Longitudinal Model of Student Departure (LMSD). Specifically we theorized racial and ethnic discrimination would be a significant campus climate risk factor impacting college adjustment. In addition, we examined social integration and its impact on college adjustment, and we also hypothesized support from the home environment would have a significant impact on overall college adjustment. In preliminary analyses we examined sex differences between women and men, and differences between first-generation students and continuing-generation students. We found that women experienced lower levels of social integration, personal/emotional adjustment, and institutional attachment than men. Additionally, although experiences of discrimination were not correlated with support from home or social integration in men, women's experiences of discrimination were negatively correlated to support from home, social integration, and both dimensions of college adjustment. Thus, although women did not experience significantly *higher* levels of discrimination, their experiences of discrimination were more closely related to negative emotional adjustment outcomes than men.

The above findings are consistent with previous studies that found experiences of racism for women in college, but not in men, predicted symptoms of depression and worsened psychological health (Donovan, Galban, Grace, Bennett, & Felicie, 2012; Greer, 2011; Wei, Chao, Carrera, & Sue., 2013). A longitudinal study by English, Lambert and Ialongo (2014) identified adolescent girls having a stronger relationship between racial discrimination and worsened depression symptoms than adolescent boys, consistent with our findings. On the other hand, Buchanan and Bergman (2009) found Black women reported higher levels of clinical

symptoms at low levels of racial harassment compared to men, yet reported lower levels of clinical symptoms at higher levels of racial harassment compared to men). They explained this tapering down of intensity in clinical symptoms resulting probably from stress inoculation, where women have already experienced distress at lower levels of harassment and therefore are better equipped to deal with it at higher levels. In our study, part of this stronger relationship in women between emotional adjustment and ethnic discrimination may be explained by intersection of sex and race perspectives, in which Women of Color have unique lived experiences due to their sex, as compared to men of color. Black women are more likely to experience objectification, sexualization and sexual harassment than Black men and White women (Buchanan & Bergman, 2009; Collins, 2000). Thus, in college settings women may be already experiencing sexualization and discrimination by their peers as a result of their intersectional identities (Collins, 2000).

With regard to differences in family education, consistent with the literature (e.g., Soria & Stableton, 2012) first-generation students, compared to their peers with a college family caregiver, experienced lower levels of support from home, social integration at university, and institutional attachment. Additionally, they experienced significantly higher levels of ethnic discrimination frequency and stress. Thus, among Students of Color, those who also identified as first-generation students appeared to be more susceptible to discriminatory events than continuing-generation students. Prior studies have identified first-generation students as being more likely to come from a working class background and therefore experience discrimination due to this identity (Cho, Hudley, Lee, Barry, & Kelly, 2008), yet a gap still remains in research examining the intersections of race and family education in the experiences of discrimination, and their impact on college adjustment. These results corroborate that Students of Color who are

the first members in their family completing a degree in college are at higher risk of experiencing an unwelcoming college environment, and also are more likely to feel disconnected from the university, than either White students, or Students of Color who are not first-generation.

Additionally, prior research has noted how first-generation status moderates the experience of college adjustment, such that attributing academic achievement to internal locus of control and self esteem tend to be more strongly linked to college adjustment in first-generation students (Aspelmeier, Love, McGill, Elliott, & Pierce, 2012). It is clear certain factors appear to more strongly impact students who are first generation in their family completing a college degree, and ethnic discrimination appears to be a factor impacting such adjustment.

Furthermore, in this study continuing-generation students' use of support at home and social integration at school were both significantly related to personal/emotional adjustment and institutional attachment. For first-generation students, social integration was also related to personal/emotional adjustment and institutional attachment; however support from home was only related to institutional attachment, and not related to personal emotional adjustment.

Continuing-generation students and first-generation students both reported equivalent mean level of support from family and friends at home, however only continuing-generation students had a positive association with personal/emotional well-being through this type of support. Several studies have concluded the reliance on social support from peers, and need for a positive social climate in college as more important predictors than family support for college success in first-generation students (Cho et al., 2003; Dennis et al., 2005). Findings of this study suggest that for first-generation students, support from peers and faculty appears to be a crucial supplement to support from home so as to maintain emotional and psychological well-being.

Our first hypothesis stated ethnic and racial discrimination would be a campus climate

risk factor which would impact Tinto's institutional commitment through college adjustment scores. Specifically, we stated discrimination frequency and stress would predict higher levels of personal/emotional adjustment, as well as institutional attachment. This hypothesis was partially supported by our results. General ethnic discrimination stress was a strong predictor for personal/emotional adjustment, yet it was not a predictor for institutional attachment.

Personal/emotional adjustment included psychological indicators of adjustment, as well as the physical indicators of adjustment while in school. It therefore addresses the physical and psychological signs of a person's overall well-being. Several studies have addressed the connection between experiences of discrimination and its impact on mental health. Ethnic discrimination has been tied to higher levels of distress, as well higher levels of negative affect, and lower levels of subjective well being (Jackson, Yoo, Guevarra, & Harrington, 2012; Ong, Burrow, Fuller-Rowell, Ja, & Sue, 2013; Villegas-Gold & Yoo, 2014). Carter (2007) and Wei, Wang, Heppner and Du (2012) referred to experiences of discrimination as predictors of post-traumatic stress symptoms, above and beyond experiences of general stress. Additionally, other studies describe the connection between discrimination and lower levels of self-esteem in college students (Moradi & Risco, 2006). Our results are therefore consistent with prior research identifying ethnic discrimination as a source of higher emotional distress.

Although preliminary bivariate correlation analyses showed a relationship between general ethnic discrimination and institutional attachment, we did not find significant effects in our regression analyses of discrimination to be a predictor of institutional attachment. Prior qualitative research has identified the impact of racism and discrimination in college adjustment (Minikel-Lacocque, 2013; Umaña-Taylor et al., 2012; Yosso et al., 2004), yet less evidence has been published tying college adjustment to events of racism, and contrary to our expectations

discrimination did not predict lower feelings of connection to school. It therefore appears environmental factors such as ethnic discrimination play a partial role in college adjustment, however may have less of a role in attachment and commitment to school.

Our second hypothesis examined social integration and support from home as two potential protective factors in Tinto's LMSD model (1987). Specifically we predicted that support from home and social integration would be associated with increased personal/emotional adjustment and institutional attachment. This hypothesis was fully supported by correlational and regression analyses. Social integration and support from home were significant predictors of personal/emotional adjustment, and institutional attachment. One interesting finding was that although both dimensions of social support were significant in predicting higher levels of college adjustment, when examining social support from family and from campus sources concurrently, social integration (i.e., on campus) appeared to be a much stronger predictor of college adjustment. This was similar to Dennis and colleagues' (2005) findings that family support is related to academic success in students, but the effects however are diminished after controlling for peer support. Additionally McCallum, McCoy, and Winkle-Wagner (2012) described after reviewing the literature the way in which faculty mentorship and peer support played pivotal roles in the academic success of black graduate students. These results imply having social connections at the university setting, such as friends, and good relationship with faculty and staff appear to be even more important than having a good support system with family and friends from home. Such social connections at the university level seem particularly relevant for first-generation students who already report lower levels of support in their home environment.

Our final hypothesis predicted a buffering effect in which support from home and social integration at the institution would diminish the effects of ethnic discrimination on college

adjustment. Our analyses did not support this hypothesis in any of the four tests shown in Table 6, which contradicts some of the prior research examining the buffering effects of peer and family support on ethnic discrimination in Students of Color. Prior studies have identified the use of family support and social connectedness to same peer group as moderating the effects of ethnic discrimination particularly on psychological distress symptoms (Wei et al., 2010; Wei et al., 2012; Wei et al., 2013), although we did not find studies which evaluated this moderating effect on institutional attachment and connectedness. Our inability to find interaction effects reflects how experiencing social integration in college acts as a more important indicator of college adjustment, independent from students' experience of racism.

Follow up exploratory analysis evaluated how specific discriminatory events are more likely to predict students' intention to leave the university. Of the several situations that are assessed by the GED, the events that seemed to have the highest relationship with intention to leave included perceptions of unfair treatment by students and colleagues, unfair treatment by strangers, and racist events in which students were not able to confront the perpetrator.

Thus, facing discriminatory events by peers appears to be one of the more detrimental experiences for students. This means peer interactions among students can have both positive effects, and negative effects on student's college adjustment. Additionally, students reported unfair treatment by strangers to be one of the most common experiences on campus, with over half of participants reporting such an event in the past year. Since this event is one of the most commonly reported, and it is also highly related to intention of student departure, it highlights the importance of college campuses to address treatment of students inside and outside the classroom. Similarly, the statement, "How often did you want to tell someone off for being racist towards you but didn't say anything?" was significantly related to student intention of

departure, and was also one of the most commonly reported and most stressful event reported by participants. While the two last items are not items directly related to interactions with student, staff, or faculty, they do address the overall safety of an environment. So students who walk in a campus setting where they have the expectation of being called out or treated differently due to their race, and feel unable to confront that racist event, are more susceptible to feeling less engaged to the university.

### **Limitations**

Several important limitations in the current study should be noted. The high correlation between social integration and institutional attachment is likely inflated by the fact both of these subscales are part of the same questionnaire, and are scored to share some items in common. This shared variance is likely taking away from the variance of some of the other predictors in the analysis, such as support from home.

The variance in discrimination measured by the GED scale was very small and slightly skewed. This may reflect little variability among all students on experiences of racism. It is therefore possible our current study was limited by obtaining data which did not include students who experienced a high number of racist events, or who experienced little to no racist events. Campus climate may be a significantly more relevant factor in college adjustment when students are experiencing higher levels of distress resulting from racist experiences.

Although experiences of overt discrimination still happen in colleges, a problem that is becoming more widely recognized is racism in a more ambiguous and covert form, making it more difficult to identify (Sue et al., 2007). Generally these messages invalidate the experiences of racial minority people, and perpetuate the marginalization of oppressed groups and have an effect on the person's access to opportunities (Sue, 2010). Students have reported lower sense of

belonging and feelings of marginalization through non-inclusive residence halls, an example of more covert forms of racism (Harwood, Hunt, Mendenhall & Lewis, 2012). Although the GED assesses overt racism, such as being called a racist name, it does not examine more subtle behaviors that may still maintain oppression in Students of Color, such as microaggressions. Prior qualitative studies have suggested a connection between discrimination, psychological well-being, and sense of belongingness at school (Harwood et al., 2012; Jackson et al., 2003; Minikel-Lacocque, 2013; Pyne & Means, 2013). Follow up studies with a qualitative component may be able to detect further these covert incidents of discrimination and how they affect college adjustment in Students of Color.

Additionally, Students of Color were analyzed as one whole group, which fails to account for differing experiences of students with different identities. For example, past research has indicated racist events may be different for students based on their racial identity. Asian American students have reported primarily experiencing forms of invalidation of race as discrimination (Ong et al., 2013), and students who identified as multiracial reported higher levels racial harassment than Black or Asian students (Buchanan & Bergman, 2009). Furthermore, protective factors may also differ based on racial identity. Social involvement in school organizations has been found to be a stronger predictor of success for African-American students than Latino students, while discussion about college with parents was a stronger predictor of college success in Latinos (Strayhorn, 2010). Social integration in college seemed to be the biggest predictor of institutional attachment and personal/emotional adjustment, yet our study did not evaluate which sources of support students relied on most. Future research evaluating the sources of support that students benefited from at a collegiate level may help foster a safer climate which protects students from experiences of distress, such as racism.

### **Implications for Practice and Future Research**

If the results of this study are confirmed through further research that minimized the limitations mentioned in the previous section, several tentative recommendations follow regarding the specific experiences of discrimination identified as the most frequent, stressful, and having the most potentially harmful for student retention. Since this was a quantitative study, it provided information on the relationship between discrimination, support, and college adjustment. However, richer information about student's experience of discrimination and support could be obtained through qualitative work. Further studies could compliment this research by specifically asking about campus climate for students of color, as well as encouraging students to identify major sources of social integration in the college campus. Such qualitative work could advocate for increased resources based on students voiced needs, something this current study lacks. Research frameworks that could emphasize the voice and experiences of Students of Color include Critical Race Theory and Community Cultural Wealth (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001; Yosso, 2006). Such perspectives could provide further insights in how systemic factors, such as campus climate and systemic discrimination on campus, impact the adjustment of students to college. Furthermore, focus groups for first-generation Students of Color could enhance the richness in understanding incidents of discrimination, increase their impact in adjustment to college, and advocate on methods by which universities can provide support for such students by listening to their needs. Additionally qualitative studies may help evaluate more subtle forms of racism, and further inspect the specific events which were found in this study to be the most detrimental towards institutional commitment.

Experiencing discriminatory events by peers appears to be one of the more detrimental experiences for Students of Color. Therefore it is important for universities not only to foster a

supportive network for these students, but to also foster better understanding of racial attitudes and biases in the student population. Additionally, students reported unfair treatment by strangers to be one of the most common experiences on campus, with over half of participants reporting such an event in the past year. Since this event is one of the most commonly reported, and it is also highly related to dropout intention, it highlights the importance of college campuses to address treatment of students inside and outside the classroom. Harper (2012) recently made a call to institutions on the importance of institutions to address racism on campus as a method to engage Students of Color, rather than focusing on individual student attributes. Creating a safer campus climate where students, staff and faculty are all better aware of racial discrimination may reduce the events in which students experience unfair treatment by strangers on campus.

Another experience of discrimination significantly related to student intention to consider leaving was, “How often did you want to tell someone off for being racist towards you but didn’t say anything?” We found this statement to be of particular importance because it is not only one of the statements most highly related to student departure intention, but it is the most commonly reported event by students (64.8%) and the most stressful event reported by students ( $M = 3.47$ ). This means that nearly two thirds of students in our study reported experiencing a racist event directly towards them, and did not feel they could confront the event. Universities may play a significant role by providing Students of Color and White students support and training on how to address racist events with others. Some universities have begun implementing programs which ensure a safer environment for racially and ethnically diverse students, such as involving people of Color in leadership, setting up connections with local groups or organizations from diverse backgrounds, and/or developing multicultural curriculums among some examples (Davis, 2002). One way to create a safer space for racially diverse students is to move away from the

“banking” method of education and instead allowing Students of Color to have a voice and be an active agent in voicing their needs and knowledge (Howard-Hamilton & Holmes, 2013). This allows students to bring traditions, cultural background, and values to the campus setting, integrating into a more welcoming space. Institutions can therefore be purposeful about listening to students’ needs and inquiries and encourage faculty and staff ask feedback from students to foster a change in climate. One way to build formalized curriculum, is through intergroup dialogue. Intergroup dialogue is a structured form of group interaction between dominant and oppressed members of a social identity, such as race, which encourages multicultural understanding of experiences (Nagda & Zuñiga, 2003). Students participating in Intergroup Dialogues have reported overall increased awareness in talking issues about race, increased perspective-taking by white students about multicultural issues, as well as increased engagement in Students of Color and a more positive perspective on conflict or decrease in experience of conflict (Miles & Kivlighan, 2012; Nagda & Zuñiga, 2003). Thus, such structured interventions may help White students have more awareness on issues surrounding race, and may help Students of Color have more tools on how to approach conflict surrounding racial issues.

Consistent with Tinto’s (1987) Longitudinal Model of Student Departure we identified social integration at the university as a pivotal element for college adjustment for students at school. However experiences of social support differed based on the family education background of the student, with first-generation students experiencing less of a relationship between home support and personal emotional adjustment at school. One potential reason for such a difference is the knowledge of families on how to support students transitioning to college. Parents and family members of continuing-generation students are more likely to have knowledge about the university setting: registering for classes, who to call for financial aid,

writing papers, communicating with faculty, among many other expectations. One potential way to maximize the support students receive from their home environment is by providing training to families who never have had a child attend college, on how to be supportive to such students. Several universities and institutions across the nation have begun programs to help *first year parents* be supportive during the first academic year of school for their children. Research could therefore examine the effects of implementing training on how first-year parents can provide support to their children who are attending college for the first time.

Furthermore ethnic discrimination did appear to have some impact in student's adjustment to school. Tinto's LMDS should be reviewed with some caution when addressing underrepresented students of color as it may not fully address all the factors impacting commitment to school for that student's social identities.

This study stresses the importance on finding further evidence to how campus climate factors may need to be included in a model of departure. Finally, continued research on evaluating the specific sources of support that students benefited from at a collegiate level may help foster a safer climate which protects students from experiences of distress, such as racism.

This study highlighted the way in which intersection of oppressed identities, such as race and gender or race and family education, experience more difficulties in adjustment to college and higher levels of distress surrounding ethnic discrimination. It is important in future directions to continue evaluating and understanding how the intersection of identities uniquely affects students' experience of college, their connection to the school and how campus climate impacts them. It also stressed the importance of social connections in college and of fostering a safe environment where students are able to engage with one another without fearing potential discrimination or stereotyping. It is therefore imperative to continue evaluating interventions

that foster a more welcoming and inclusive student environment for Students of Color, particularly those with first-generation status, to increase retention and overall college success.

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## Appendices

Table 1

*Mean Comparisons by Race/Ethnic Identity*

|                                     | Black or<br>African American<br>( <i>n</i> = 69) |             | Asian American<br>( <i>n</i> = 38) |             | Hispanic or<br>Latin<br>( <i>n</i> = 21) |             | Multiracial or<br>Biracial<br>( <i>n</i> = 34) |            | American Indian or<br>Alaskan Native<br>( <i>n</i> = 22) |            |            |            |             |             |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|-------------|------------------------------------|-------------|------------------------------------------|-------------|------------------------------------------------|------------|----------------------------------------------------------|------------|------------|------------|-------------|-------------|
|                                     | <i>M</i>                                         | <i>SD</i>   | <i>M</i>                           | <i>SD</i>   | <i>M</i>                                 | <i>SD</i>   | <i>M</i>                                       | <i>SD</i>  | <i>M</i>                                                 | <i>SD</i>  | <i>df1</i> | <i>df2</i> | <i>F</i>    | <i>p</i>    |
| Social integration                  | 6.08                                             | 1.28        | 6.28                               | 1.26        | 5.50                                     | 1.28        | 6.43                                           | 1.15       | 6.40                                                     | 1.22       | 4          | 179        | 2.24        | .067        |
| Personal/emotional adj.             | 5.44                                             | 1.49        | 5.51                               | 1.46        | 5.19                                     | 1.49        | 5.45                                           | 1.57       | 5.45                                                     | .87        | 4          | 179        | 0.19        | .946        |
| Institutional attachment            | 6.99                                             | 1.24        | 7.10                               | 1.19        | 6.62                                     | 1.43        | 7.04                                           | 1.25       | 7.25                                                     | 1.14       | 4          | 179        | 0.78        | .543        |
| Support from home                   | 3.43                                             | 0.46        | 3.37                               | 0.41        | 3.27                                     | .61         | 3.49                                           | .40        | 3.43                                                     | .46        | 4          | 179        | 1.16        | .350        |
| Ethnic discrimination freq.         | 1.80                                             | 0.73        | 1.99                               | 0.69        | 1.74                                     | .78         | 1.75                                           | .77        | 1.55                                                     | .59        | 4          | 179        | 1.39        | .240        |
| <u>Ethnic discrimination stress</u> | <u>1.81</u>                                      | <u>0.92</u> | <u>2.06</u>                        | <u>0.92</u> | <u>1.79</u>                              | <u>1.05</u> | <u>1.70</u>                                    | <u>.92</u> | <u>1.50</u>                                              | <u>.48</u> | <u>4</u>   | <u>179</u> | <u>1.22</u> | <u>.199</u> |

*Note.* *N* = 184. MANOVA Analysis:  $F(6,174) = 1.12, p = .315$

Table 2

*Mean Comparisons of Men and Women*

|                              | Women     |      | Men      |      |        |      |
|------------------------------|-----------|------|----------|------|--------|------|
|                              | (n = 124) |      | (n = 75) |      |        |      |
|                              | M         | SD   | M        | SD   | t(198) | p    |
| Social Integration           | 6.00      | 1.32 | 6.47     | 1.06 | 2.62   | .010 |
| Personal Emotional Adj.      | 5.13      | 1.43 | 5.94     | 1.22 | 4.10   | .000 |
| Institutional Attachment     | 6.90      | 1.28 | 7.30     | 1.09 | 2.03   | .044 |
| Support from Home            | 3.43      | 0.45 | 3.38     | 0.41 | 0.79   | .456 |
| Ethnic Discrimination Freq.  | 1.81      | 0.79 | 1.71     | 0.56 | 0.99   | .323 |
| Ethnic Discrimination Stress | 1.88      | 0.98 | 1.64     | 0.69 | 1.89   | .060 |

*Note.* *N* = 199; MANOVA Analysis:  $F(6,192) = 4.73, p < .0001$

Table 3

*Mean Comparisons of First-generation and Non-First-generation Students*

|                              | Non-First<br>Generation<br>( <i>n</i> = 55) |           | First<br>Generation<br>( <i>n</i> = 144) |           | <i>t</i> (198) | <i>p</i> |
|------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|-----------|------------------------------------------|-----------|----------------|----------|
|                              | <i>M</i>                                    | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i>                                 | <i>SD</i> |                |          |
|                              |                                             |           |                                          |           |                |          |
| Social Integration           | 6.36                                        | 1.18      | 5.74                                     | 1.35      | 3.09           | .00      |
| Personal Emotional Adj.      | 5.56                                        | 1.39      | 5.14                                     | 1.45      | 1.85           | .06      |
| Institutional Attachment     | 7.22                                        | 1.15      | 6.67                                     | 1.38      | 2.84           | .00      |
| Support from Home            | 3.44                                        | 0.43      | 3.34                                     | 0.46      | 1.53           | .13      |
| Ethnic Discrimination Freq.  | 1.70                                        | 0.65      | 1.96                                     | 0.82      | 2.36           | .02      |
| Ethnic Discrimination Stress | 1.70                                        | 0.81      | 2.03                                     | 1.05      | 2.35           | .02      |

*Note.* *N* = 199; MANOVA Analysis:  $F(6,192) = 2.16, p = .049$

Table 4

*Correlations between Social Support, Adjustment, and Ethnic Discrimination by Sex*

| Measure                            | 1      | 2      | 3      | 4      | 5     | 6     |
|------------------------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|-------|
| 1. Social integration              | --     | .20**  | .84**  | .63**  | -.02  | .00   |
| 2. Personal-emotional adjustment   | .64**  | --     | .24    | .33**  | -.06  | -.20  |
| 3. Institutional Attachment        | .87**  | .61**  | --     | .63**  | -.11  | -.02  |
| 4. Support from home               | .55**  | .32**  | .48**  | --     | .06   | .00   |
| 5. Ethnic discrimination frequency | -.27*  | -.38** | -.31** | -.35** | --    | .77** |
| 6. Ethnic discrimination stress    | -.28** | -.39** | -.32** | -.38** | .90** | --    |

*Note:* Correlations for male participants ( $n = 75$ ) are represented above the diagonal, and correlations for female participants ( $n = 124$ ) are presented below the diagonal.

\*\*  $p < 0.01$     \*  $p < 0.05$ .

Table 5

Correlations for Social Support, Adjustment, and Ethnic Discrimination by First-generation and Continuing-generation Students

| Measure                            | 1     | 2      | 3     | 4     | 5      | 6      |
|------------------------------------|-------|--------|-------|-------|--------|--------|
| 1. Social integration              | --    | .49**  | .86** | .53** | -.29*  | -.30*  |
| 2. Personal-emotional adjustment   | .53** | --     | .49*  | .13   | -.46** | -.45** |
| 3. Institutional attachment        | .86** | .50**  | --    | .50** | -.29*  | -.27*  |
| 4. Support from home               | .55** | .35**  | .51** | --    | -.33*  | -.38** |
| 5. Ethnic discrimination frequency | -.13  | -.19*  | -.21* | -.16  | --     | .91**  |
| 6. Ethnic discrimination stress    | -.14  | -.29** | -.21* | -.17* | .84**  | --     |

Note: Correlations for First-generation participants ( $n = 55$ ) are represented above the diagonal, and correlations for Continuing-generation participants ( $n = 144$ ) are presented below the diagonal.

\*\*  $p < 0.01$     \*  $p < 0.05$ .

Table 6

*Multiple Regression Analyses of Academic Engagement and Personal Emotional Adjustment*

| Predictor variable                      | <i>R</i> | <i>Adj. R</i> <sup>2</sup> | $\Delta R^2$ | <i>F</i> | <i>df</i> | ----- Block Statistics ----- |          |            |         |          |
|-----------------------------------------|----------|----------------------------|--------------|----------|-----------|------------------------------|----------|------------|---------|----------|
|                                         |          |                            |              |          |           | <i>sr</i>                    | <i>B</i> | <i>SEB</i> | $\beta$ | <i>t</i> |
| A: Criterion = Personal Emotional Adj.  | .60      | .35                        | .36          | 27.11    | 4         |                              |          |            |         |          |
| GEDS                                    |          |                            |              |          |           | -.20                         | -.02     | .01        | -.33    | -3.46**  |
| GEDF                                    |          |                            |              |          |           | .03                          | .11      | .19        | .06     | .59      |
| Support from home (SPS)                 |          |                            |              |          |           | -.02                         | -.08     | .23        | -.03    | -.36     |
| Social Integration (SOCADJ)             |          |                            |              |          |           | .39                          | .54      | .08        | .48     | 6.79**   |
| B: Criterion = Institutional Attachment | .87      | .75                        | .76          | 152.38   | 4         |                              |          |            |         |          |
| GEDS                                    |          |                            |              |          |           | .02                          | .00      | .00        | .03     | .54      |
| GEDF                                    |          |                            |              |          |           | -.06                         | -.17     | .10        | -.10    | -1.66    |
| SPS                                     |          |                            |              |          |           | .03                          | .11      | .12        | .04     | .89      |
| SOCADJ                                  |          |                            |              |          |           | .68                          | .82      | .04        | .83     | 19.41**  |

Note: *N* = 199. GEDS =General Ethnic Discrimination Stress , GEDF = General Ethnic Discrimination Frequency, SPS = Support from home , SOCADJ = Social Integration.



Table 7. Continued.

| Step and predictor variable | $R^2$ | Adj.<br>$R^2$ | $\Delta R^2$ | $F$<br>change | df  | ----- Block Statistics ----- |      |     |         |        |
|-----------------------------|-------|---------------|--------------|---------------|-----|------------------------------|------|-----|---------|--------|
|                             |       |               |              |               |     | sr                           | B    | SEB | $\beta$ | t      |
| Step 2                      | .28   | .27           | .00          | .24           | 195 |                              |      |     |         |        |
| __GEDS                      |       |               |              |               | .01 | .00                          | .02  | .08 | .18     |        |
| SPS                         |       |               |              |               |     | .47                          | 1.37 | .18 | .49     | 7.78** |
| GEDS X SPS                  |       |               |              |               |     | -.03                         | -.00 | .00 | -.22    | -.49   |

C: Criterion = Personal emotional adjustment

|              |     |     |     |       |     |      |      |     |      |            |
|--------------|-----|-----|-----|-------|-----|------|------|-----|------|------------|
| Step 1       | .34 | .34 | .34 | 51.08 | 196 |      |      |     |      |            |
| GEDS         |     |     |     |       |     |      |      |     |      |            |
| SOCADJ       |     |     |     |       |     |      |      |     |      |            |
| Step 2       | .34 | .33 | .00 | .00   | 195 |      |      |     |      |            |
| GEDS         |     |     |     |       |     | -.24 | -.01 | .00 | -.25 | -4.18**    |
| SOCADJ       |     |     |     |       |     |      | .46  | .54 | .07  | .48 7.94** |
| GEDS X SOCAJ |     |     |     |       |     |      | .04  | .00 | .00  | .00 -.04   |

D: Criterion = Personal emotional adjustment

|        |     |     |     |       |     |
|--------|-----|-----|-----|-------|-----|
| Step 1 | .18 | .17 | .17 | 21.12 | 196 |
| GEDS   |     |     |     |       |     |
| SPS    |     |     |     |       |     |

Table 7. Continued.

| Step and predictor variable | $R^2$ | Adj.<br>$R^2$ | $\Delta R^2$ | $F$<br>change | $df$ | ----- Block Statistics ----- |      |       |         |        |
|-----------------------------|-------|---------------|--------------|---------------|------|------------------------------|------|-------|---------|--------|
|                             |       |               |              |               |      | $sr$                         | $B$  | $SEB$ | $\beta$ | $t$    |
| Step 2                      | .18   | .16           | .00          | .32           | 195  |                              |      |       |         |        |
| GEDS                        |       |               |              |               | -.36 | -.00                         | .02  | -.03  | -.07    |        |
| SPS                         |       |               |              |               |      | .29                          | .76  | .22   | .23     | 3.50** |
| GEDS X SPS                  |       |               |              |               |      | -.35                         | -.00 | .01   | -.28    | -.566  |

Note:  $sr$  = semipartial correlation coefficient.  $N = 199$ . GEDS =General Ethnic Discrimination Stress , GEDF = General Ethnic Discrimination Frequency, SPS = Support from home , SOCADJ = Social Integration.\*  $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$

Table 8

*Frequency and impact of GEDS items for UT Students*

| GEDS Item |                                                                                                                                                                                                                              | Frequency<br>of event<br>(% reporting) | M<br>Stress |
|-----------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------|-------------|
| 1         | How often have you been treated unfairly by teachers and professors because of your race/ethnic group?                                                                                                                       | 24.6                                   | 3.18        |
| 2         | How often have you been treated unfairly by your employers, bosses and supervisors because of your race/ethnic group?                                                                                                        | 24.6                                   | 2.98        |
| 3         | How often have you been treated unfairly by your co-workers, fellow students and colleagues because of your race/ethnic group?                                                                                               | 45.7                                   | 2.82        |
| 4         | How often have you been treated unfairly by people in service jobs (by store clerks, waiters, bartenders, bank tellers, and others) because of your race/ethnic group?                                                       | 39.2                                   | 2.96        |
| 5         | How often have you been treated unfairly by strangers because of your race/ethnic group?                                                                                                                                     | 61.3                                   | 2.65        |
| 6         | How often have you been treated unfairly by people in helping jobs (by doctors, nurses, psychiatrists, case workers, dentists, school counselors, therapists, social workers, and others) because of your race/ethnic group? | 15.1                                   | 2.70        |
| 7         | How often have you been treated unfairly by neighbors because of your race/ethnic group?                                                                                                                                     | 27.1                                   | 2.46        |
| 8         | How often have you been treated unfairly by institutions (schools, universities, law firm, the police, courts, the Department of Social Services, the Unemployment Office and others) because of your race/ethnic group?     | 30.7                                   | 3.20        |
| 9         | How often have you been treated unfairly by people that you thought were your friends because of your race/ethnic group?                                                                                                     | 33.2                                   | 2.92        |

Table 8. Continued.

| GEDS Item |                                                                                                                                                                                                               | Frequency<br>of event<br>(% reporting) | M<br>Stress |
|-----------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------|-------------|
| 10        | How often have you been accused or suspected of doing something wrong (such as telling, cheating, not doing your share of work, or breaking the law) because of your race/ethnic group?                       | 33.7                                   | 3.51        |
| 11        | How often have people misunderstood your intentions and motives because of your race/ethnic group?                                                                                                            | 48.2                                   | 2.81        |
| 12        | How often did you want to tell someone off for being racist towards you but didn't say anything?                                                                                                              | 64.8                                   | 3.47        |
| 13        | How often have you been really angry about something racist that was done to you?                                                                                                                             | 60.8                                   | 3.47        |
| 14        | How often have you been forced to take drastic steps (such as filling a grievance, filling a lawsuit, quitting your job, moving away, and other actions) to deal with some racist thing that was done to you? | 6.5                                    | 3.38        |
| 15        | How often have you been called a racist name?                                                                                                                                                                 | 63.3                                   | 2.69        |
| 16        | How often have you gotten into an argument or a fight about something racist that was done to you or done to another member of your race/ethnic group?                                                        | 47.7                                   | 3.09        |
| 17        | How often have you been made fun of, picked on, punched, shoved, hit, or threatened with harm because of your race/ethnic group?                                                                              | 28.6                                   | 3.00        |
| 18        | How different would your life be now if you HAD NOT BEEN treated in a racist unfair way?                                                                                                                      | 40.7                                   | 2.43        |

Note: *N* = 199

Table 9

*General Ethnic Discrimination- Stress Item Means and Correlation with Intention to Leave Subscale*

| GEDS Item |                                                                                                                                                                                                                              | M GEDS | r GEDS with<br>Intention to leave |
|-----------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|-----------------------------------|
| 3         | How often have you been treated unfairly by your co-workers, fellow students and colleagues because of your race/ethnic group?                                                                                               | 2.82   | -.24**                            |
| 5         | How often have you been treated unfairly by strangers because of your race/ethnic group?                                                                                                                                     | 2.65   | -.21**                            |
| 12        | How often did you want to tell someone off for being racist towards you but didn't say anything?                                                                                                                             | 3.47   | -.20**                            |
| 8         | How different would your life be now if you HAD NOT BEEN treated in a racist unfair way?                                                                                                                                     | 2.43   | -.19**                            |
| 2         | How often have you been treated unfairly by your employers, bosses and supervisors because of your race/ethnic group?                                                                                                        | 2.98   | -.16*                             |
| 4         | How often have you been treated unfairly by people in service jobs (by store clerks, waiters, bartenders, bank tellers, and others) because of your race/ethnic group?                                                       | 2.96   | -.16*                             |
| 6         | How often have you been treated unfairly by people in helping jobs (by doctors, nurses, psychiatrists, case workers, dentists, school counselors, therapists, social workers, and others) because of your race/ethnic group? | 2.70   | -.16*                             |
| 9         | How often have you been treated unfairly by people that you thought were your friends because of your race/ethnic group?                                                                                                     | 2.92   | -.16*                             |
| 13        | How often have you been really angry about something racist that was done to you?                                                                                                                                            | 3.47   | -.16                              |

Table 9. Continued

| GEDS Item |                                                                                                                                                                                                               | <i>M</i> GEDS | <i>r</i> GEDS with<br>Intention to leave |
|-----------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------|------------------------------------------|
| 1         | How often have you been treated unfairly by teachers and professors because of your race/ethnic group?                                                                                                        | 3.18          | -.14                                     |
| 7         | How often have you been treated unfairly by neighbors because of your race/ethnic group?                                                                                                                      | 2.46          | -.13                                     |
| 14        | How often have you been forced to take drastic steps (such as filling a grievance, filling a lawsuit, quitting your job, moving away, and other actions) to deal with some racist thing that was done to you? | 3.38          | -.12                                     |
| 17        | How often have you been made fun of, picked on, punched, shoved, hit, or threatened with harm because of your race/ethnic group?                                                                              | 3.00          | -.09                                     |
| 16        | How often have you gotten into an argument or a fight about something racist that was done to you or done to another member of your race/ethnic group?                                                        | 3.01          | -.08                                     |
| 15        | How often have you been called a racist name?                                                                                                                                                                 | 2.69          | -.05                                     |
| 11        | How often have people misunderstood your intentions and motives because of your race/ethnic group?                                                                                                            | 2.81          | -.05                                     |
| 10        | How often have you been accused or suspected of doing something wrong (such as telling, cheating, not doing your share of work, or breaking the law) because of your race/ethnic group?                       | 3.91          | -.03                                     |

Table 9. Continued

| GEDS Item                                                                                                                                                                                                                  | <i>M</i> GEDS | <i>r</i> GEDS with        |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------|---------------------------|
|                                                                                                                                                                                                                            |               | <u>Intention to leave</u> |
| 8 How often have you been treated unfairly by institutions (schools, universities, law firm, the police, courts, the Department of Social Services, the Unemployment Office and others) because of your race/ethnic group? | 3.20          | -.03                      |

Note:  $N = 199$ .

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

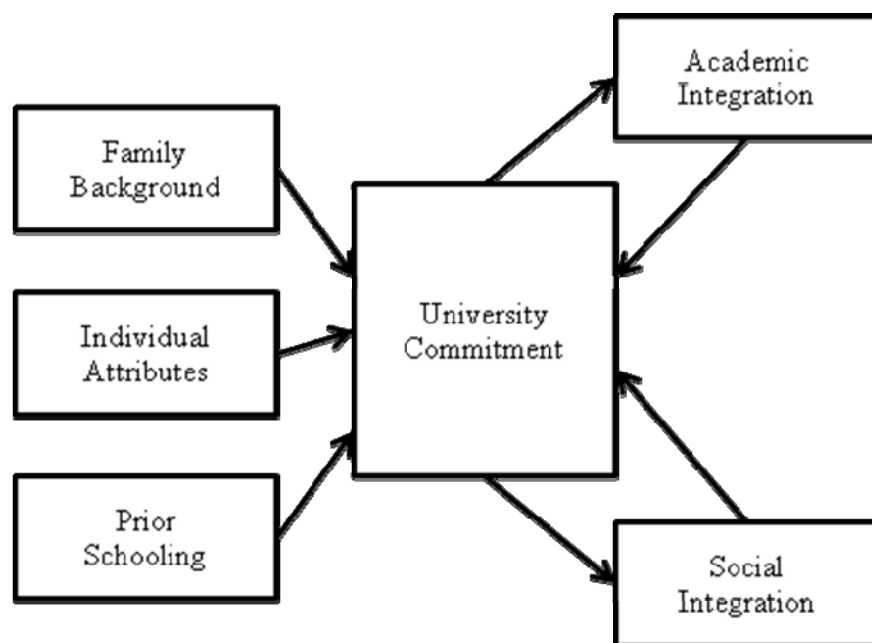


Figure 1

*Tinto's (1987) Longitudinal Model of Student Departure*

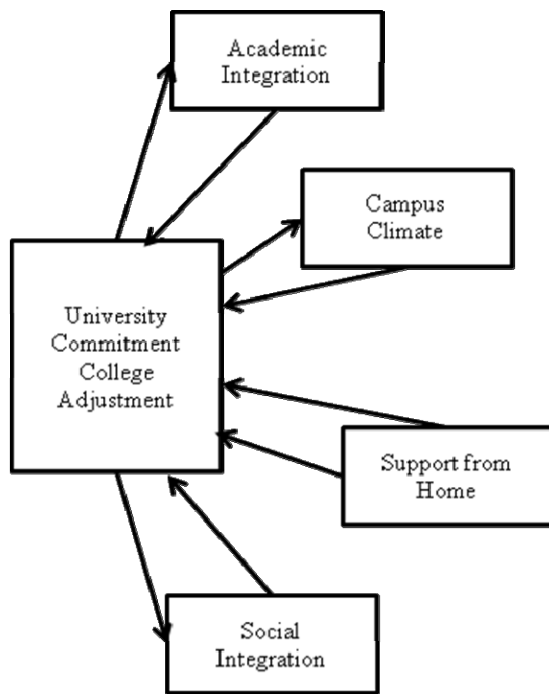


Figure 2

*Hypothesized Longitudinal Model of Student Departure with Campus Climate and Support from Home*

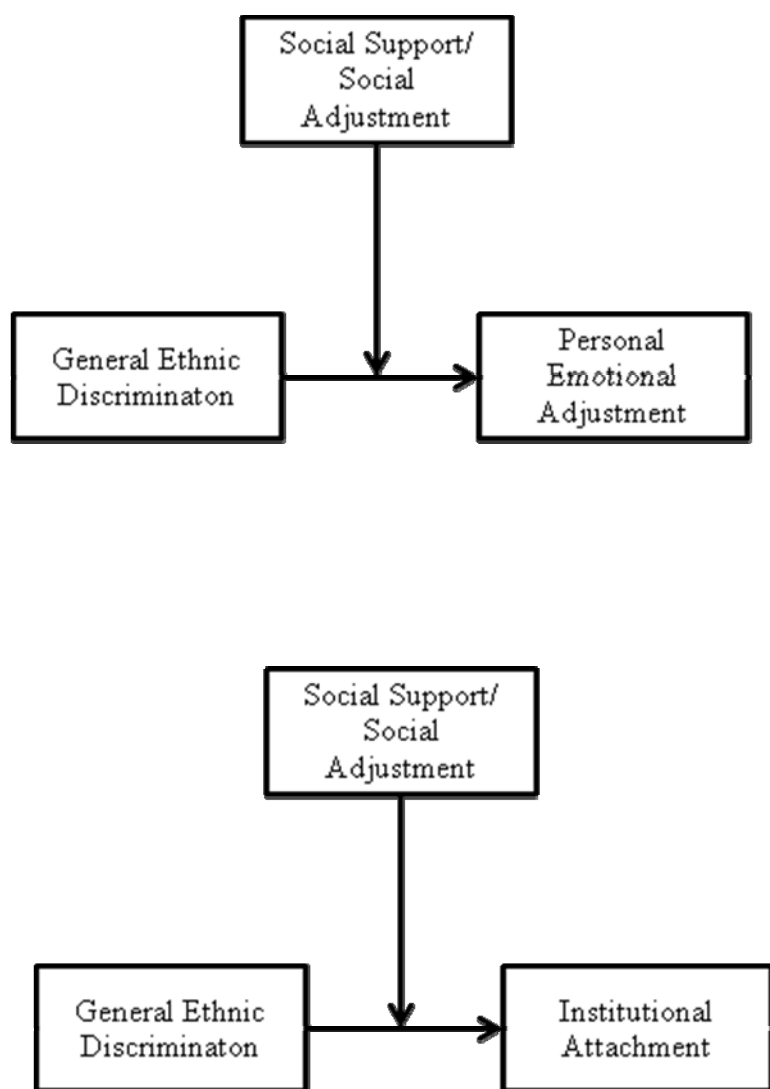


Figure 3

*Hypothesized Moderation Effect between Social Support Predictors and General Ethnic Discrimination on College Adjustment Outcomes*

### **Vita**

Daniela Andrea Recabarren Bustamante was born in Huntington Beach, California to the parents Paula Bustamante Osorio and Claudio Recabarren Madrid. She moved at 2 years old with her parents to their home in Santiago, Chile, and returned to United States with her mother and sister at 16 years old. Daniela graduated with her Bachelor's of Science from University of Miami in Psychology and Spanish, and then continued to obtain her Master's of Science in Education Degree in Counseling and Research at University of Miami. During that time Daniela became interested in multiculturalism and how experiences of individuals of color, specifically Latin@s, impacted mental health, physical health, and academic success. Daniela joined The University of Tennessee, Knoxville Counseling Psychology program to work under Dr. Brent Mallinckrodt. Some of her research work has included understanding the experiences Women of Color diagnosed with cancer have had with their medical institutions, and retention of student of color in post-secondary education.

Daniela was the recipient of the Homer A. and Dorothy B. Thompson Fellowship which covered her stipend at UT for 4 years. She was also the recipient of NIH/NIMHD-funded Minority Health and Health Disparities International Research Training (MHIRT), which allowed her to travel to Mexico and conduct research focused on understanding the experiences of schizophrenia in rural Latin@s from a feminist perspective. Daniela was a participant of the Minority Fellowship Program Psychology Summer Institute, where she developed further skills on how to conduct research, teach, and advocate with and for racially diverse individuals. Daniela taught undergraduate courses in intro to psychology, abnormal psychology and research methods. She additionally taught a course in introduction to counseling psychology theory for incoming counseling staff in Cornerstone of Recovery, and conducted trainings in diversity and

counseling, as well as diagnostic assessment summary reports to staff at that same site. Daniela hopes to continue working in an academic setting where she is able to teach, conduct research, and provide community outreach to underrepresented students in higher education.