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**Beyond The Doors of Opportunity: Exploring The Relationships
Between Alienation, Program Affiliation, and
Successful College Students of Color**

By

Nicole E. Holland

**A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Psychology in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy,
The City University of New York**

1997

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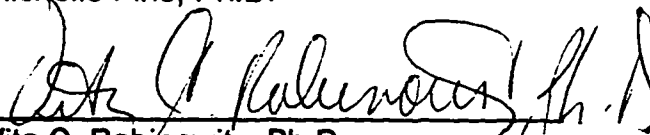
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Abstract**Beyond The Doors of Opportunity: Exploring The Relationships
Between Alienation, Program Affiliation, and
Successful College Students of Color**

by

Nicole E. Holland**Advisor: Professor Michelle Fine**

This inquiry set out to determine how the moderators, race/ethnicity and gender, affected the experience of alienation for successful college students of color. Further, it set out to determine how the mediator, program affiliation (defined as membership in a formally established and recognized academic/scholars program), affected alienation and the outcome measures (academic experiences, progression rates, grade point averages, and post-graduate aspirations).

The primary research question sought to determine the relationship between alienation and program affiliation. As expected, it was found that an inverse relationship exists between these concepts. The more benefits one associates with program affiliation, the less likely that individual is to report experiencing alienation. The second research question sought to discover how program affiliation influenced the outcome measures, particularly for students of color. Again, as expected, it was found that program affiliation positively influenced the outcome measures for students of color. A second set of questions explored the gender differentials in the perceptions of alienation for students of color. Although gender differentials were found in the way these students expressed alienation, there were no significant gender differences in the levels of alienation. And lastly, it was found that the combined influences of race/ethnicity and gender did not significantly influence the relationships between alienation, program affiliation and the proposed outcome measures.

*To My Foremothers and Forefathers
Who Paved the Road
So That I Might Be*

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The desire accomplished is sweet to the soul.

Proverbs 13: 19

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Introduction

Carter and Wilson (1996) provide comprehensive data about the participation of students of color in American higher education. Carter and Wilson's (1996) data suggest that there has been an increase over time in the number of students of color who participate in postsecondary education; however, the participation patterns of many of these students are the cause of concern for educators, researchers, and scholars. Research has shown that many college students of color: attend two-year rather than four-year institutions, are frequently enrolled in college on a part-time rather than full-time basis, take longer to complete their degrees than White students, and often prematurely withdraw from college (prior to receiving their degrees) (Carter & Wilson, 1994; Lavin & Crook, 1990; Gosman et al., 1983; Stewart, 1988). These trends are most common for African American and Hispanic students (Nettles, 1991); whereas, in relation to their national representation, Asian American students are often over represented in four-year institutions (Stewart, 1988). Carter and Wilson (1994) state that of the African American, Hispanic, and American Indian students who enter four-year institutions anywhere from 30-41% graduate within a six-year period. In comparison, within six years, 56% of all White students graduate, and within five and a half to six years, 55-65% of all Asian American students graduate.

It is important to note that the success of college students of color in higher education is not solely an issue of race, but is largely an issue confounded with race as it relates to other crucial factors such as socioeconomic status and academic preparation (Lavin & Crook, 1990; Stewart, 1988). Students of color disproportionately attend non-competitive academic elementary and

secondary schools in poor neighborhoods, and it is this relationship between race, class, and academic preparation that is often mistaken for an argument of race. Nettles (1991) states "long before reaching the age for entering a college or university, African American and Latinos attend relatively poor schools, are more frequently enrolled in non-academic tracks of their high schools, have lower levels of academic achievement, and often drop out altogether" (p.8). While the aforementioned elements are major contributors to college students' success, other factors have been found to be very influential on the students' progression and graduation rates.

To understand the participation of college students in higher education, one should first be generally acquainted with the collegiate environment. Postsecondary educational institutions have been described as being divided into two distinct, yet inter-related systems. Tinto (1993) has described the two systems as academic, where the formal education and interactions with faculty and staff take place; and social which involve interpersonal, day-to-day functions and relationships. While the academic relationships are characterized by places such as classrooms and laboratories, the social system is characterized by its fluid and interpersonal nature that may occur almost anywhere such as classrooms, dorm rooms, or student offices.

There is evidence that success in undergraduate, graduate, and professional school has a lot to do with realizing benefits in both, the academic and the social systems (DeFour & Hirsch, 1990; Guinier et al., 1994; Nettles, 1990; Steele, 1992). Students who are satisfied with the campus climate, are socially integrated, and who receive sufficient academic and social support are expected to flourish and succeed in institutions of higher education (Carter &

Wilson, 1994; DeFour & Hirsch, 1990; Fisher & Hartmann, 1995; Nettles, 1990). Treisman (1992) found that formal and informal academic support often lead formerly unsuccessful mathematics students to develop social networks, to excel in their studies, and to pursue advanced academic instruction in mathematics. It is unfortunate, however, that many students of color who attend traditional institutions of higher education are exposed to racist incidents on campus, are marginally involved in campus activities, and are not likely to engage in informal discussions with students or faculty outside of the classroom (DeFour & Hirsch, 1990; Fisher & Hartmann, 1995; Lavin & Crook, 1990; Loo & Rolinson, 1986; Nettles, 1990).

Hostile environments, minimal involvement with campus activity, and exclusion from informal scholarly exchange, can be interpreted as alienating for students in higher education, and can consequently have adverse effects on the students' academic achievement (Allen, 1992; Carter & Wilson, 1994; Guinier et al., 1994). It has been found that the scholarly ability of students who were considered academically competent upon entering an institution suffered in these types of alienating situations. (Guinier et al., 1994; Steele, 1992). Treisman (1992) found that Black students who entered college with high SAT math scores often experienced failure in college math courses when these students were isolated, and were not immersed in supportive academic and social networks. One is likely to hear that students of color attending traditional postsecondary educational institutions are experiencing isolation and alienation almost as frequently as one hears about the underrepresentation and prolonged progression of these students.

In a very general way, the theory of "institutional fit" or more specifically, "college fit", offers an explanation for the relationship between alienation, integration, and college success. Students who are detached or isolated from the academic and social communities of their college campus may not persist or graduate from the postsecondary institution. Conversely, students who are involved in the college communities and who have reaped benefits from academic and social networks are likely to realize campus satisfaction and academic success.

Research has shown that students of color attending traditional post-secondary institutions frequently report feelings of alienation, and researchers are now starting to look at the alienating components of the college campus as well as the perceptions of alienation reported by the students (Allen, 1992; Jackson & Swan, 1991; Loo & Rolinson, 1986). Although alienation has been used to describe the experiences of students in higher education there is very little systematic investigation of the concept. This is in part due to the vast field that encompasses the definition and operationalization of alienation. Other problems lie in the fact that although the concept has been empirically investigated (Loo & Rolinson, 1986; Steward, et al., 1990; Steward et al, 1992), it is more frequently referred to in lay terms (e.g. Allen, 1992; Capello, 1994; Carter & Wilson, 1994) referring to an individual who has been detached or who is uninvolved with the activities of the majority.

An empirical investigation of the role that alienation plays in the lives of college students of color may help to shed some light on the underrepresentation and the extended progression of these students. Further, if it is the case that alienation adversely influences the collegiate experiences of

these students, what steps could be taken to integrate them into the academic community? With this question in mind, the following section will delineate the purpose of the current study.

Purpose of the Study

The present inquiry sets out to investigate the relationship between alienation and program affiliation for students of color at the City University of New York (CUNY), one of the nation's largest, public, metropolitan universities. Alienation may offer a partial explanation for the underrepresentation, the prolonged progression, and the academic difficulties that many students of color experience. On the other hand, program affiliation, which for this study refers to a formally instituted and recognized organization established to enhance the academic experiences of students, may offer a method by which alienation can be reduced.

During the late sixties, the underrepresentation of students of color throughout the CUNY system (relative to their national representation) was acknowledged, and funds were secured to assist in the enrollment and support of low-income and academically disadvantaged students (Lavin & Crook, 1990). With the additional attention and financial support, the City University was able to noticeably increase the enrollment and graduation of students of color. In the mid-seventies, the funds were revoked and the participation of students of color discernibly decreased.

Recently, there has been another acknowledgment of the underrepresentation of students of color on the various CUNY college campuses, followed by a commitment to address the problem, resulting in efforts to seek

and secure funds and implement programs that are likely to racially and ethnically diversify the student body. Based on these initiatives and their results, the City University of New York is viewed as one of the nation's leading producers of college graduates of color. Of the bachelor degrees awarded by CUNY during the 1994-1995 academic year, 30% were earned by African American students, 17% were earned by Hispanic students, and 13% were earned by Asian American students (Black Issues in Higher Education; May, 1996).

Secondly, this piece sets out to empirically explore the construct of alienation which has existed in the psychology, sociology, and education literatures for close to a century. Alienation, which can include feelings of social isolation, estrangement, difference, separation, and/or "otherness" (Johnson, 1973; Keniston, 1972; Seeman, 1959), may provide an explanation for the relatively low participation of students of color in higher education. Research has suggested that many students of color who attend traditional institutions of higher education are often alienated or isolated (Allen, 1992; Bennett & Okinaka, 1990; Loo & Rolinson, 1986). In this text *traditional institutions* refers to colleges and universities that were not established for a particular group (e.g. Historically Black Colleges and Universities, American Indian Tribal Colleges, or Women's Colleges).

It is important to note that the City University is a very unique academic community. It is divided into ten senior colleges, six community colleges, a technical college, a graduate school, a law school, a medical school, and an affiliated school of medicine. In addition, the CUNY campuses are located throughout the five boroughs of New York City. One characteristic about the

senior colleges that may be particularly critical to this investigation is how the racial composition of the student body varies by campus. Specifically, some CUNY campuses report that White students make-up more than 50% of the student body (e.g. Brooklyn, Queens, and Staten Island); while other campuses report that African American students make-up more than 50% of the student body (e.g. York and Medgar Evers) (CUNY Student Data Book; June, 1996). Thus, the varied racial composition of the student body of the CUNY senior colleges has the potential to affect the students' experiences of alienation.

This investigation sets out to explore the relationship between alienation and social support. The research suggests that supportive networks in the form of faculty relationships, research/teaching opportunities, stipends, and study groups often aid in increasing students' evaluation of campus satisfaction and academic and/or social integration (DeFour & Hirsh, 1990; Loo & Rolinson, 1986; Nettles, 1990). Abrahamowicz (1993) found that students who are involved with student organizations report greater participation in college activities, better relationships with the members of the campus community, and were overall more satisfied with the college environment than students who did not belong to student organizations. Thus, this investigation seeks to determine the influence that student participation in honors or scholars programs has on feelings of alienation.

Note, however, that this is not an evaluation project. In other words, this project does not set out to evaluate or assess an academic program or a series of programs. The purpose of this research is to identify the circumstances where students of color flourish in undergraduate study. Academic and scholarly programs are being targeted because many of the programs have been

associated with the components that aid in the academic success and social integration of college students of color.

Another aspect of this project is to add to the literature about students of color in higher education. While many researchers have explored the very important factors of attrition, dropout intention, and stop-out behaviors (interrupting one's formal education, but eventually continuing), few (e.g. Bennett & Okinaka, 1990; Powers & Rossman, 1984; Steward et al. 1990; Steward et al., 1992) have thoroughly researched and reported the stories of successful students of color. The stories told by the participants in this project will provide another perspective of the college student of color. Full of rich experiences and adaptive strategies, these data give an account of students who are involved with their campus community and who are actively working towards their academic and career goals.

Lastly, there will be an attempt to understand the gender differentials in the collegiate experiences of women and men of color. Do women and men of color perceive different levels of alienation in traditional institutions of higher learning? If there is a difference in the perception of alienation in the collegiate atmosphere, how, if at all, do these feelings affect the students' college experiences and future aspirations?

This particular inquiry is concerned with the experiences of African American, Asian American, Hispanic, and Native American undergraduates at traditional four-year institutions. The objective of this study is to determine the degree to which college students of color in traditional post-secondary educational institutions are experiencing alienation, and to what extent

intervention, in the form of program affiliation will affect those feelings. The next section will outline the specific research questions that will guide this project.

Research Questions

The primary research question asks what is the relationship between alienation and program affiliation ? (Figure 1, path A). Further, for students of color attending traditional colleges and universities, what is the relationship between program affiliation, their academic experiences, progression rates, grade point averages, and career aspirations? (Figure 1, path B).

A second set of questions seeks to determine if women and men of color experience alienation differently? (Figure 1, path C). Moreover, what is the relationship between gender, alienation, program affiliation and the proposed outcome measures for students of color? (Figure 1).

Chapter 1: Literature Review

To Be Involved or Not To Be Involved

Most of the literature on college students of color addresses African American and Hispanic populations and is severely lacking in the research about American Indian college students (Tinto, 1993). The paucity of information about American Indian college students appears to be due to the relatively small numbers of these students enrolled in traditional institutions of higher learning. In 1993, there were 122,000 students enrolled in college who identified themselves as American Indian or Alaskan Natives, and this number represented less than 1% of all college enrollments at this time. Of the American Indian and Alaskan Natives enrolled in college, 52% attended two-year colleges and 11% attended tribal and Indian colleges and universities (Carter & Wilson, 1995). On the other hand, Asian American college students, as a group, are overrepresented in four-year postsecondary institutions in relation to their national representation (Stewart, 1988). Students of color do not participate or persist in postsecondary education in equal numbers to their national representation. It has also been found that in many instances, and in spite of their different academic experiences, African American, Asian American, Hispanic, and American Indian students are reported to be alienated and/or socially isolated on the college campus (Bennett & Okinaka, 1990; Loo & Rolinson, 1986; Steward et al., 1992, Steward, 1993).

There are many factors to consider when discussing the participation of students of color in higher education, several of which will be considered here as they relate to issues of alienation and campus involvement. Issues particularly relevant to this inquiry are: financial support (Bierman, 1973; Nora & Horvath, 1989; Stampen & Fenske, 1988), pre-college experiences (Bennett & Okinaka, 1990; Tinto,

1993), and collegiate experiences (Bennett & Okinaka, 1990; Steward et al., 1990; Steward et al., 1992).

Finances and College

The 1965 Higher Education Act, and the subsequent 1972 Amendments, ostensibly were attempts by the Federal government to provide access to postsecondary education and financial support to college-age students without regard to race or individual financial resource (Bierman, 1973). It was during this period that need-based awards became available for college students, and as a result, many people of color and low-income individuals were able to gain access to institutions of higher learning (Stampen & Fenske, 1988). A disproportionate number of people of color, in particular African Americans and Hispanics ages 18 and younger have been reported to live in poverty, and thus are more likely to depend on financial aid to fund their college education (Lavin & Crook, 1990; Nettles, 1991). According to recent census data, 46.1% of all Blacks and 40.9% of all Hispanics ages 18 and younger live in poverty (Statistical Abstracts, 1995).

As one might expect, a decrease in the federal support available to low income college students has an unfavorable effect on college enrollments. While federal funds were available in the early 70's, there was an increase in the number of traditionally underrepresented students who enrolled in college (Lavin & Crook, 1990); however, Stampen and Fenske (1988) state that when federal aid was rescinded in the late 70's there was a noticeable decrease in the college enrollments of racially and ethnically diverse students. The combination of rising tuition, national inflation, and the shift of grant monies (available to fund college students' education) to loans all played a role in the reduction of enrollments for

college students of color during the late seventies (Crosson, 1988). Lavin and Crook (1990) report that during the financial crisis in the mid seventies the participation of students of color at the City University of New York drastically decreased due to the imposition of tuition and the strict requirements for eligibility of financial assistance.

In the 1980s, there was a decrease in financial support for American higher education. Specifically, during the Reagan Administration, tuition increased, federal support in the form of grants decreased, and there was a shift in the availability of "free" money to student loans (Baker & Velez, 1996). The Higher Education Act of 1992 provided more assistance to middle-income students who reported being dependent on their parents, than to non-traditional (e.g. independent, low-income, and older) students. By example, more middle-income students were able to qualify for loans because their parents' homes were no longer held against them in the borrowing agreements. However, one aspect of this Act that all students were able to benefit from was the flexibility it allowed in the repayment process.

Students make decisions about attending college long before they are ready to enter college (Crosson, 1988); however, in spite of the students' early decision processes, they do not attempt to secure money until they are actually preparing to enter college (Nettles, 1991). In addition, research has suggested that the way students finance their college education often differs by race/ethnicity and class. Nettles (1991) reports that according to 1987 data from the U.S. Department of Education, students of color make up only 21% of the students enrolled in college, but they constitute 37% of the recipients of need-based financial awards.

Smith and Matthews (1991) found that Black and Hispanic students, more

so than White and Other students, rank the availability of grants and scholarships as important criteria when deciding on a college to attend. Nora and Horvath (1989) report that while White students were likely to depend on financial support from their parents to fund their college education, Black and Hispanic students were twice as likely to depend on financial aid and employment. And although many students of color rely on employment to finance their college education, Lavin and Crook (1990) found that the full-time employment of Black and Hispanic students had an adverse effect on the students' progression and graduation rates.

In addition to looking at the *type* of aid students receive, one should also consider the relationship that exists between financial support and college persistence. The inability to finance college has often been cited as one of the reasons that students interrupt their studies (Carter & Wilson, 1994; Lavin et al., 1996; Yamatani et al., 1995). Carter and Wilson (1994) found that African American college students who did not receive financial assistance were twice as likely to withdraw from school than the students who did receive aid, and Hispanic students who received any type of financial assistance were more likely to graduate from a four-year institution than their counterparts who did not receive any aid.

Grants and work-study, rather than loans, have a positive influence on the persistence for students of color and low income students (Baker & Velez, 1996; Crosson, 1988) this may be because these students want to avoid creating personal or familial circumstances of indebtedness. Further, it has been found that financial aid that helps integrate students into the campus environment (e.g. research and teaching assistantships, work-study, and grants) has a positive effect on the students' persistence (Nettles, 1990; Nora & Horvath, 1989).

Students who are unable to secure financial assistance may engage in drop-

out or stop-out behaviors. CUNY research found that undergraduates who interrupt their studies frequently cite financial difficulties (e.g. lack of money, tuition increases, need to work, etc.) as the cause (Gittell and Holdaway, 1996; Lavin et al., 1996). Yamatani et al. (1996) provide an example of the unfortunate consequences of African American students who were unable to secure funds to finance college. Over 100 African American students who applied and qualified for scholarships from one non-profit organization were denied the awards due to the organization's shortage of funds. As a result, close to 30% of these students had to interrupt their studies, and 20% had to change from full-time to part-time status. Students who were able to remain in school often sought employment and took out loans. Further, these students reported that because they did not receive the scholarships, they had to work, they had less time to study, and their grades suffered.

For several reasons, securing financial support for college can play a significant role in the reduction of alienation, or the integration of a student into the college community. First, students may not have to cognitively detach themselves from the campus community with preoccupations of obtaining funds for college, thus leaving their minds available for academic endeavors. Second, monies that become available directly from the campus community such as work-study or assistantships frequently require that the student is physically present on the college campus. The student's physical presence, as well as the responsibilities of a campus position may also aid in persistence because the student will not only be academically educated on campus, but will also be financially supported by the campus. Further, these types of opportunities can assist students in forging relationships with members of the campus community. And third, opportunities

such as research and teaching assistantships often combine the above mentioned benefits, as well as serving as apprenticeships for students who are considering academic careers. Consequently, these aspects of financial support may help to draw students into the campus, as opposed to alienating them from the college community.

Pre-College Experiences

As one would expect, pre-college academic preparation is one fundamental advantage towards success in college. Students of color, and in particular, Black and Hispanic students are less likely to attend college preparatory high schools than are their White counterparts (Nettles, 1991). Nettles acknowledges that the type of high school one attends is closely associated with socioeconomic status. Specifically, students who come from families of low socioeconomic status are less likely to attend academically competitive elementary or secondary schools. This author further addresses the cumulative effects of schooling, suggesting that while students across race and class may initially have similar academic abilities, across time, students who are able to attend better schools are more likely to excel academically.

Nettles (1991) points out that in general, Black and Latino students score lower than their White counterparts on the verbal parts of the SAT, Advanced Placement tests, and American College Testing scores. Nettles (1988) found that lower SAT scores and lower high school grade point averages negatively affected the Black students' college grade point averages. In a study of minority-status stresses and the adjustment of first-year, academically successful, college students of color, Smedley et al. (1993) found that high school grade point averages and

SAT scores were positively correlated with college GPA. As a matter of fact, high school grade point averages and SAT scores accounted for close to 25% of the variance of college grade point averages for African American, Chicano, and Latino students.

Non-cognitive factors, such as social environments and pre-college support networks, have also been found to influence a student's college career. Some research has suggested that students are more successful in college who have experienced similar environments in high school. This is especially true for academically successful students of color who attend predominately White high schools, and who plan to attend predominately White colleges. (Bennett & Okinaka, 1990; Braddock & Dawkins, 1981). Tinto (1993) suggests that having pre-college support networks that academically encourage students are beneficial to the students' college careers.

Campus Climate and Institutional Fit

The persistence of college students has also been associated with campus climate and institutional fit. Crosson (1988) describes the overall perception about a college and its community members as *campus climate*. Although many factors can play a role in determining how one evaluates the campus climate, one that is worth considering here is that of race relations on campus.

Felice (1980) found that Black high school students who chose to drop-out were more likely to report prejudice, racial discrimination, and harsher treatment of the Black students than the students who did not drop-out. Fisher and Hartmann (1995) found that about half of the Black students in their sample were the victims of racial prejudice on their college campus. In addition, these Black students were

six times as likely to report experiencing racial prejudice than were the White students. Evidence of continued racial tensions in institutions of higher education (see Cole, 1991; Gordon, 1991; Gurowitz;1991; Hirsch, 1991 in *The Racial Crisis in American Higher Education*) is the cause of concern for many educators and researchers – especially when these incidents adversely affect the participation of students of color in higher education. It has been suggested that students of color may choose to “self-segregate” on traditional college campuses to avoid racial tensions (Fisher & Hartmann, 1995). It may also be the case that students engage in the natural tendency to want to be in the company of others like themselves. Nonetheless, self-segregation and other types of avoidance behavior may be an indication that the students do not feel comfortable or well-matched with the institution at-large.

How well-matched students appear to be with their college has been an issue for researchers. The theory of “institutional fit” or more specifically, “college fit”, states that when the goals, values and attitudes of an individual are well-matched with that of an institution, “fit” is achieved (Crosson, 1988; Gosman et al., 1983, Tinto, 1993). Some have even suggested that an individual's ability to find a “fit” with an institution is closely related to how familiar with, and how well integrated that individual was previously with similar environments (Baker & Siryk, 1980; Nettles & Johnson, 1987; Tinto, 1993). Some research has shown that students of color who attended predominately White secondary institutions, or who had positive inter-racial contact before entering college, were likely to adjust better in predominately White post-secondary institutions than those students from segregated secondary settings (Bennett & Okinaka, 1990; Braddock & Dawkins, 1981). Thus, this literature lends itself to the consideration of the social/contextual

aspects of alienation. This notion in turn, challenges the solely individualistic perspective of alienation.

Students who do not achieve "fit" may be experiencing what Bennett and Okinaka (1990) refer to as *transitional trauma*. Like Tinto's (1993) idea of *incongruence*, transitional trauma refers to the student's unfamiliarity with the norms, values, and expectations of the dominant school community. The absence of "fit" and the presence of "transitional trauma" or "incongruence" may hinder the student's adjustment to the college community. Because the adjustment to college can be difficult, students may seek support networks to help them during this transitional period.

Communities of Support

One way that students of color may choose to deal with the transition to college is to rely on past communities (Ethier & Deaux, 1990; Tinto, 1993). There are benefits to this approach; however, one must also be aware of the negative consequences. Benefits are likely to occur when college students rely on past communities (e.g. family, high school peers) that support their current academic endeavors, and when those communities are not disruptive to the adjustment of college. Babbit et al. (1975) found that the proximity to a familiar community aided in the successful integration of Black students who attended a two-year commuter college. However, it has been found that past communities that distance students or pulls them away from the campus community can be harmful (Tinto, 1993). Researchers have found that campus housing aides in the integration process and positively affects persistence for students at residential institutions (Crosson, 1988; Nora & Horvath, 1989). Baker and Siryk (1980) found that first-year college

students who lived off campus were less likely to be integrated into the college environment, were more likely to be alienated, and were more likely to engage in drop-out or stop-out behaviors.

Students may also choose to seek out supportive communities within the dominant culture. Subcultures are positive in that they create smaller, more personal and accessible units for an individual (Crosson, 1988; Loo & Rolinson, 1986; Tinto, 1993) -- this can be seen as a structural issue. In general, smaller institutions are less complex, offer more social support, and are more successful in retaining and graduating students (Babbit et al, 1975; Crosson, 1988; Nettles & Johnson, 1987). By extension, subcultures may offer more manageable units to help the students adjust to the college community. Further, smaller units may help individuals align themselves with similar others (Crosson, 1988).

Seeking out a smaller community may also be a response to being a statistical minority on campus or just feeling uncertainty about the "fit" between the institution and student. Researchers have reported that when some Black students have been integrated into the mainstream of a predominately White campus, the Black students felt invisible -- their needs and concerns did not seem to be addressed and their cultural contribution appeared to be ignored (Bierman, 1973; Henderson, 1988). Semmes (1985) found that Black students on a predominately White campus often felt that issues involving their area of study were often seen as illegitimate -- especially when those issues involved perspectives from scholars of color. The Black students report that their input was often met with resistance which exacerbated their feelings of "difference". In a similar situation, Latina college students report that the lack of mention of Hispanic scholarship in their general course curriculum, coupled with the scarcity of Latino professors, stifles

their academic involvement and appreciation (Capello, 1994). Students who feel that they are "different" or "invisible" according to the dominant culture may seek out organizations or other "comfort zones" to achieve fit within the campus community.

Some students find it necessary to create their own social and cultural networks, some students will seek out student organizations, and others may rely upon residence halls or other living arrangements (Allen, 1992; Henderson, 1988; Semmes, 1985; Loo & Rolinson, 1986). Capello (1994) provides an example wherein Latina college students, who were attending a large, urban, co-ed institution, expressed concern because of their disconnection with their family and friends who were not in college. Further, these students expressed feeling academically alienated and socially isolated. However, the formation of a Latina support group offered these students a place to discuss academic, cultural, and social issues. In addition, the group helped the individual members to cope with, and adapt to, the college experience.

Steward et al. (1990) state that Black students have often reported feeling alienated from the campus-at-large, but they did not express the same concerns in smaller, same-race support networks. Similarly, Loo and Rolinson (1986) report that while Black and Chicano students often felt socially alienated from the dominant culture on the campus, they often felt comfortable when they were in residential dorms that were largely comprised of students of color. Interestingly, this "self-segregation" made the White students feel uncomfortable, but had the opposite effect on the students of color. Joining a community with people who share like characteristics or attributes (e.g. Multicultural Student Association, Science Club) may be beneficial; however, one must be aware of the potential for

negative consequences.

Subcultures and communities become problematic when they do not interact with the dominant culture (Crosson, 1988). This is especially true when the members of those communities become comfortable in isolating themselves and engaging in avoidance behaviors. Students who do not interact with the majority may not experience benefits such as the formal and informal exchanges among the members of the academic community. Crosson (1988) further suggests that these type of communities can also be problematic for the isolated members when the dominant culture rejects them. The dominant culture's rejection could be manifested by ignoring those in the minority, withholding information from them, or even assaulting them (Allen, 1992; Fisher & Hartmann, 1995).

Campus Integration

Success in college is largely dependent upon a student's integration into the college community (Allen & Haniff, 1991). Recall that the college campus is comprised of two inter-related communities: academic and social (Tinto, 1993). Traditionally, researchers have made a distinction between academic and social integration; however, it is becoming increasingly more important to acknowledge the interdependence of these communities and how they affect students' collegiate experiences. Capello (1994) reports that Latina college students who were in academic assistance programs felt more involved and more valued in classes they shared with other students from the academic assistance program. Treisman (1992) found that math students who had established informal study groups and social networks from within their math classes were more likely to excel in these courses. And DeFour and Hirsh (1990) found that graduate students of color who were

integrated in their academic departments believed they were better adjusted, were making satisfactory progress toward the degree, and were less likely to consider prematurely leaving school.

Colleges and universities are academic institutions where persisting students are supposed to show evidence of intellectual growth. It has been noted that ultimately, for college success (e.g. graduation), it is most important to be integrated in the academic sphere (Loo & Rolinson, 1986). Interactions with the faculty, both formally and informally help students to realize this institutional goal. Further, faculty-student contact has been reported to be an important predictor in student adjustment, persistence, involvement, and success (Baker & Siryk, 1980; Loo & Rolinson, 1986; Nettles & Johnson, 1987; Tinto, 1993).

However, one should not underestimate the importance of social integration. As a matter of fact, Tinto (1993) states that only 15-25% of all instances wherein students leave college are forced, academic dismissals. As a result, social issues have the potential to play an important role in the stop-out and drop-out behaviors of college students. Social integration and campus satisfaction have been found to serve as precursors to academic integration. Baker and Siryk (1980) state that first-year students who are socially connected, and who have good relationships and frequent contact with faculty members are likely to take fewer leaves of absences and are likely to persist academically.

Social integration and activities that encourage student involvement are said to positively affect student persistence and perceptions of satisfaction (Abrahamowicz, 1988; Tinto, 1993). Campus work-study, campus residency, and involvement in student organizations have all been found to have a positive affect on students' collegiate participation (Abrahamowicz, 1988; Crosson, 1988; Nora &

Horvath, 1989). Abrahamowicz (1988) found that membership in student organizations also had a positive influence on campus relationships and satisfaction. Similarly, Bennett and Okinaka (1990) found that Black students who belonged to Black organizations were more likely to express campus satisfaction.

In sum, social integration is important for persistence, and academic integration is important for intellectual development and academic success (e.g. graduation). Students who work, live, and socialize on campus have been found to express greater campus satisfaction, have better relationships with faculty and students, and have high levels of persistence. Students who have good relationships with faculty members and other students are often found to be more academically involved, more academically successful, and are less likely to engage in stop-out and drop-out behaviors.

On a final note, it is important to realize that integration in one sphere does not guarantee integration in the other. Bennett and Okinaka (1990) report that the Black college students in their sample, who were not experiencing academic difficulty, opted to leave school due to dissatisfaction with the social environment. Similarly, Loo and Rolinson (1986) report that the students of color, who were considered socially alienated by self-report and by observations of the White students, were found to be satisfied and integrated academically. Consequently, integration in both spheres should result in optimal success for college students.

Conclusion

The issue of campus integration is very important to this inquiry. Membership in academic, honors, and scholars programs appears to fulfill many of the requirements for integration and persistence of students on a college campus. First, and probably most important, most programs offer students the opportunity to forge critical campus relationships. Specifically, many academic, honors, and scholars programs offer students the opportunity to work closely with faculty members. An added bonus in several of the programs is the opportunity to work with other students like themselves, in small, personal, intimate units.

Second, while not all programs of this nature offer financial support, many do. Some financial support is offered in the form of tuition waivers, some assistance is offered in the form of stipends, and still other forms of support are offered as research or teaching assistantships. The stipends are helpful in freeing up time for academic responsibilities, and the work-related monies allow the students to earn practical experience in their area of interest, and to develop collegial relationships (with supervising faculty and/or student co-workers).

Based on the current literature in this field, it is believed that student involvement in an academic, honors or scholars program will aid in the persistence of the students in this sample, as well as, affect feelings of alienation. If students of color are alienated, then academic programs may assist these students in becoming integrated with the mainstream and reducing alienation, which could ultimately help the students to realize greater academic success.

Utility of the Concept Alienation

The concept alienation may offer some insight to understanding the experience of students of color in traditional institutions of higher education. Alienation suggests that individuals who feel detached from their environments may experience feelings of powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, social isolation, and estrangement (Seeman, 1959). Alienation and its variations have spanned many disciplines such as philosophy, theology, political science, sociology, psychiatry and psychology. Further, this concept has been applied to many areas of study such as labor, politics, and education. As evident by its presence and application in academic and popular use, alienation has the ability to cover a variety of descriptive, behavioral, and affective states. Due to the various approaches and applications of alienation, a comprehensive discussion is beyond the scope of this manuscript; however, it is important to provide a frame of reference by which the concept will be used for this project.

Definition

Alienation is often used in popular circles, so it seems appropriate to begin this section with the most basic of definitions. The first definition of alienation offered by Webster's Dictionary is "a withdrawing or separation of a person or his [her] affections from an object or position of former attachment: ISOLATION, ESTRANGEMENT <~...from the values of one's society and family>" (p.70, Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary, 1984). In addition to the notion of separation and detachment, alienation implies "otherness", difference, and non-conformity (Halleck, 1970; Johnson, 1973; Keniston, 1972). Johnson (1973) has noted that by

definition, the root of the word alienation, *alien*, has been used to describe people outside of, foreign to, or different from the dominant community.

There is also an affective tone that accompanies the notion of separation and difference as they relate to alienation. Johnson (1973) states that this separation is often associated with tension and/or feelings of anger, anguish, or defeat. In many instances, those that are alienated are believed to be inferior, unimportant, or dispensable (Johnson, 1973; Keniston, 1972; Pouissant, 1973). Although the predominant tone associated with alienation is negative, there are instances where there are positive or neutral tones associated with this concept (Johnson, 1973; Schweitzer, 1981). These instances are frequently associated with voluntary or self-imposed separations. Scholars say that this type of alienation exists for artists, philosophers, and the religious who isolate themselves for the sake of their craft or calling; as well as for groups who separate themselves for the purpose of group solidarity or achievement (Johnson, 1973; Mézaros, 1975; Pouissant, 1973).

Application

To obtain a more precise identification and understanding of alienation, Keniston (1972) has proposed a series of questions involving *focus, replacement, mode and agency*, that one should consider. The first question, "*Alienated from what?*", attempts to identify the entity from which the subject has been separated, or the relationship that the subject has been denied. The focus of alienation could be parts of the self, other individuals, or a specific activity or environment. Johnson (1973) has suggested that, in general, the experience of formal education can be alienating in that it separates individuals from their families; however, this theorist

goes on to say that separation is accentuated when those individuals being separated from their familiar environments are members of groups who have tenuous or questionable ties to the society at-large. One could easily refer to other historical contexts wherein individuals and groups have experienced alienation; however, it is the work of Karl Marx and his analysis of labor and its relation to production that have been extremely influential in the analytical and theoretical thinking about alienation. According to Marx, the source of all alienation stems from the work process, and that this type of alienation has the potential to affect other types of alienation (Keniston, 1972; LeRoy, 1965). Based on this analysis, Marx proposed that the worker could be alienated from : (1) the labor, (2) the product, (3) co-workers, and (4) the self (Schweitzer, 1981, Keniston, 1972).

The notion of exploitation and work-for-profit may be absent from the educational process; nonetheless, there are several parallels between Marx's labor analysis and the experience of college education. If one were to equate the process of labor with that of education, especially for students of color, one might see several similarities. According to Marx, the process of working and the product one ultimately produces are both said to have an independent and governing effect over the worker because the worker has no real control over either (LeRoy, 1965). It is the stifling of the worker's expressive and creative freedoms that are believed to create the experience of alienation.

The process of labor is also similar to that of education because education is often the main work of a student. The student, like the laborer, often yields to the structure and process of education by way of relinquishing expressive and creative control. Students are expected to take a certain number of courses to fulfill a general curriculum. Although, in many instances, the exception may exist for post-

secondary level students who have declared a major and participated in independent study classes. However, some limitations still exist, especially when one considers the experience from the perspective of students of color.

Asante (1991) states that the academic curricula offered to students is presented in a biased fashion that sets out to maintain the power and privilege of Whites while ignoring or degrading the contributions of people of color; however, this notion could be extended to explain several aspects of the college experience for students of color. When one considers the current challenges to the utility of affirmative action, and programs that help support students of color and low-income students (e.g. TRIO, Patricia Roberts Harris Fellowship, Michigan's Indian Tuition Waiver program, etc.), it appears that the initial purpose for policies and procedures that are intended to help correct a history of injustice is being ignored.

Affirmative action programs were created to provide access and opportunity to people who were historically denied access. The need for affirmative action policies in college admission decisions is an attempt to increase the number of qualified applicants and simultaneously diversify the student body by race and gender. As previously stated, students of color continue to be under represented in institutions of higher education. Recent survey data states that in 1992, of all the students enrolled in college, 9.9% were Black, 6.8% were Hispanic, 5.0% were Asian or Pacific Islander, and 0.8% were American Indian (Digest of Educational Statistics, 1995). At this same time the situation was worse for faculty members and staff. Of all the full-time instructional faculty and staff, 5.2% were Asian or Pacific Islander, 4.9% were Black, 2.5% were Hispanic, and 0.5% were American Indian (Digest of Educational Statistics, 1995).

The shortage of people of color in the academy is not the only indication of

inequity in higher education. The issue of devaluing and disregarding the contributions of people of color has been demonstrated by the minimal contributions presented in required courses, and the limited number of disciplines devoted entirely to the achievements of people of color. Latina college students have expressed that outside of cultural-specific departments (e.g. the Puerto Rican Studies Department) the presence of Hispanic scholarship in the college curriculum is virtually no-existent (Capello, 1994). On another level, an example is shown in the results of the National Council for Black Studies survey with data collected from 3,565 institutions. Of all the institutions surveyed, less than 10% provide evidence of institutional and academic support, (e.g. in the form of academic departments or programs), for Black Studies (Phillip, 1994). In lieu of these courses, students have attempted to include a more diverse perspective to their general studies, but their attempts have often been met with resistance. This has been expressed by African American college students who reported that when they attempted to integrate issues related to race and ethnicity into classroom discussions about their major field of study, their contributions were not welcomed. Further, they felt that they had to change their projects and perspectives to earn respect from the academic community and to maintain good grades (Semmes, 1985).

As a result of alienation in the process of education and the products that are produced, other types of alienation appear to surface. Loo and Rolinson (1986) found that both students of color and White students believed that the students of color were more socially alienated than the White students. This is an example of how students of color are perceived to be alienated from their fellow students – the equivalent to the laborer's co-workers. And lastly, as theorists have said, if students of color are not exposed to a satisfying collegiate environment, they are

likely to “disidentify” from their own academic selves (Steele, 1992).

The next question that Keniston (1972) poses is in regard to replacement. Specifically, “*What relationship, if any, replaces the lost one?*”. Scholars have suggested that alienation has biological, theological, historical, and legal foundations, and that alienation is an inherent part of individual development and social relations (Halleck, 1970, Johnson, 1973; Mészáros, 1975; Regin, 1969). Regin (1969) states that beginning with birth, and continuing throughout the life span, all individuals are expected to experience alienation. Schweitzer (1981) states that families teach the inevitability of alienation, and alienation coping strategies by way of attitude or environment adjustment.

As ever-present as the idea of alienation, so too, is the notion of association and integration. In many instances, alienation causes individuals to seek some alternative relationship (Pouissant, 1973; Regin, 1969; Stincombe, 1972). Alienated individuals may opt to seek out communities, organizations, or subcultures that support them on the dimension from which they have been alienated. Halleck (1970) suggests that when alienated individuals find sub-communities that are accepting of their dissenting opinions, these sub-communities become very influential in their lives. These alternative relationships can be negative and rebellious (e.g. gangs) or positive and productive (e.g. churches).

The education literature suggests that students who feel alienated often replace the relationship from which they are estranged. Specifically, students who are alienated by the campus community at-large have been reported to rely on past communities (e.g. families, high school friends) or groups or organizations with similar others within the college community (Capello, 1994; Crosson, 1988; Ethier & Deaux, 1990, Tinto, 1993). Mészáros (1975) suggests that when individuals

alienate themselves for the sake of solidarity in the form of "selfish isolation" that this can be a good thing; however, Crosson (1988) notes that there has to be some integration with the general community for the sake of survival. It must be noted that all relationships are not replaced, and certainly, all alienated relationships are not replaced with a group.

The third question that Keniston (1972) puts forth is "*How is the alienation expressed?*". Keniston proposes two modes by which alienation can be expressed: *alloplastic* and *autoplastic*. *Alloplastic* is the alienated's attempt to change the world, while *autoplastic* is the alienated's attempt to change the self. An example of the former would be a revolutionary, while an example of the latter would be a psychotic.

An individual's response to alienation is most likely to be contingent upon the individual and the social situation. An individual can choose to view alienation as specific to him/her and thus choose to deal with it alone. Another alternative would be for the individual to view the alienation as a social situation and join forces with others to address the issue. There are several individual and collective ways that alienation can be addressed. The individual can: (1) stay alienated physically and mentally from what he/she perceives to be alienating; (2) cognitively deal with situation, and strive to reduce any dissonance being experienced; (3) conform to the existing structure and engage in assimilated attitudes and behaviors; and (4) bond with others and perform acts of resistance by demanding change in the community.

Henderson (1988) developed a similar system of classification based on the responses from his study about the perceptions of racism and the feelings of invisibility expressed by African American students at a predominately White

southern university. In short, the categorization of three types of Black students emerged from his data: (1) *Stoics*, who felt the environment was racist, felt threatened by the community, and chose to avoid extracurricular activities; (2) *Renegades*, who perceived no racism, felt comfortable in the campus community, and interacted comfortably within the campus community at-large; and (3) *Partisans*, who felt the campus was racist and worked actively to advance and support the position of the Black students.

Lastly, Keniston (1972) asks, "*What is the agent or source of the alienation?*". As previously mentioned, some sources of alienation are voluntary and self-imposed. In other words, an individual has chosen to reject some aspect of the mainstream value or behavior. These types of separations may not be harmful or negative. In fact, some theorists have romanticized this type of isolation due to the absence of resistance or frustration (Johnson, 1973). Further, these voluntary and self-imposed alienated states are often associated with obedience, creativity, or productivity. Instances where self-imposed alienation has a negative connotation occurs when it is manifested in mental derangement, self-devaluation, or some sort of psychosocial maladjustment (Halleck, 1970; Johnson, 1973; LeRoy, 1965).

Halleck (1970) has reported on the psychiatric nature of the alienated college student. He states that in addition to feeling alienated from the values of the society in general, and one's family in particular, an alienated individual also feels separated from critical aspects of the self. Halleck goes on to describe several traits that are characteristic of the alienated student, they include: lack of commitment, temporal disengagement, lack of involvement, difficulty expressing affect, limited abilities to communicate with others, an "ill-defined" self-concept, severe depression, inability to study and concentrate, engaging in non-fulfilling,

promiscuous sexual activity, and drug/substance abuse. It appears that the individual who has been diagnosed as an alienated personality exists on the extreme and severe end of the alienation continuum.

Following the analysis provided by Marx, one must also consider circumstantially and contextually imposed alienation. This type of alienation has been said to be the result of “externally oppressive conditions” where some positive relationship or interaction has been severed or denied (Johnson, 1973; Schweitzer, 1981). In spite of the acknowledgment that there are social environments and situations that are alienating, it is the tendency to identify the individual as the source. According to Schweitzer (1981) the reason for this seems to be twofold. First, by acknowledging that social structural conditions are at fault, one is simultaneously criticizing the existing state of social affairs; and second, by identifying the individual as the source of the problem, the solutions can then be geared towards the individual.

Semmes (1985) provides an example where students perceive the academic structure on the college campus as alienating. The African American students in this study believe that the omission of scholars of color from the curriculum in their major, combined with their own desire to explore the work of these scholars, creates the frustrating feeling of “outsider” or difference. Henderson (1988) provides an example where some African American students perceive the social structure of the college campus as alienating. When the students in this study were asked to describe their perceptions of the racial atmosphere on the predominately White college campus, there were several students who indicated that the racist campus climate negatively influenced their participation in extracurricular activities.

Another useful aspect of the phenomenon alienation is its ability to cover

dual perspectives. Karl Marx, as a major contributor to the development of alienation theories, offered two distinct approaches. Contemporary Marxist theory views alienation as subjective perceptions by individuals, while classic Marxist theory views alienation in terms of objective, social conditions (Schweitzer, 1981). Johnson (1973) states that alienation has the ability to refer to "internal psychological states as well as objective, social phenomena" (p.16). It is the ability of alienation to capture both of these perspectives that makes this concept particularly useful in obtaining a full understanding of the experience of students of color attending traditional colleges and universities.

Alienation as it is being proposed here is seen as a variable that helps assess both *subjective* perceptions of individuals and *objective* social conditions, and how they affect the attitudes and behavior of students of color attending traditional colleges and universities. The concept of alienation is not being positioned here as having a positive or negative value. Intuitively, one may disagree with this statement because the act of alienation carries with it negative connotations; however, as it has been stated, some scholars have provided a case for alienation with positive-value implications (Johnson, 1973; Schweitzer, 1981). Lastly, as presented here, alienation is seen as a fluid process (a process by which individuals' perceptions and social conditions can move in and out of), and can be experienced in varying degrees.

Alienation Research and the Experiences of Post-Secondary Level Students

For the last twenty years researchers have explored the effect of alienation as it relates to the experiences of college students. Alienation has been viewed as a "free floating concept" (Babbit et al., 1975, p.53) that needs to be investigated in

terms of a specific context, as well as a “relatively stable and enduring characteristic of individuals” (Baker and Siryk, 1980, p.438). Alienation has been measured by general alienation scales (e.g. Dean Alienation Scale), context specific alienation scales (e.g. Burbach’s University Alienation Scale), structured interviews (e.g. Loo & Rolinson, 1986), and ethnomethodological participant observer approaches (Choriki, 1992).

Baker and Siryk (1980) modified Dean’s Alienation Scale to determine the relationship of alienation to the college adjustment of first-year students. These researchers found that one of the best indicators for the adjustment of first-year college students was their integration into the campus community. Social integration was exemplified by living on campus or having satisfactory relationships with faculty members. Students who were not integrated into the campus community (e.g. those students living off campus) were more likely to be alienated. The more alienated the students, the more likely they would report dissatisfaction with the campus and/or difficulty with first-year adjustments. In addition, the more alienated the students were, the less likely they would be involved with the campus community, and the more likely they would engage in drop-out or stop-out behaviors.

In a study that set out to determine the relationship between alienation and attrition, Suen (1983) found that Black students on a predominately White college campus reported significantly more alienation than the White students. Using the University Alienation Scale, Suen found that the Black students consistently scored higher on the three subscales of the measure (meaninglessness, powerlessness, and social estrangement), as well as the total scale. Significant differences were found between the Black and White students on the social estrangement scale and

the total alienation measure. For the Black students, the correlations between alienation and attrition were higher than the correlations for the White students. One of Suen's major conclusions in this study was that if an institution wanted to actively work toward reducing alienation, then a program should be developed directed towards the reduction of social estrangement.

Another approach to investigating alienation is offered by Loo and Rolinson (1986). These researchers conducted structured interviews (consisting of open-ended and close-ended items) with students of various racial and ethnic backgrounds. This study set out to investigate the role of alienation as it affects perceptions of academic difficulty and campus satisfaction. These authors viewed alienation in terms of "malintegration", or an incompatible fit between individual and institution. They also acknowledged the fact that while one might be alienated by the campus at-large, one could also feel integrated within a smaller community. Like the Suen (1983) study, these researchers found that the Black and Chicano students reported significantly higher levels of alienation than the White students. The presence of alienation appears to be diluted or negated when students are satisfied with the quality of their education and/or pleased with their relationships with faculty members.

Babbit et al. (1975) reported on the structural issue of alienation as it related to the size of educational institutions and the adaptation of Black college students. These researchers found that Black students who attended a predominately White large university or mid-size college were more alienated than those students who attended a smaller two-year institution. The authors point out a few possible reasons for these findings. First, the size of the two-year institution is smaller and less complex than the other two institutions. As a result, the process of education

may have been more manageable based on the size of the school. Second, the location of the two-year institution was physically located more closely to the students' home communities. This perspective suggests that due to relatively little disruption in a major part of the students' social life, the students could concentrate more on their academic lives. And third, the student body was comprised of more students who were similar to the respondents in the study. In other words, at the larger institutions, these students were statistical minorities, but at the two-year institution they were not.

The structural issues surrounding the Babbit et al. (1975) study are very important; however, one must interpret these findings with caution since the authors do not address the confounding issue of the number of years in school. Although the respondents in this project were first-year students and sophomores, it may make a difference if the students have another two years in the educational setting, or if they are enrolled in a two-year, terminal program. Another issue that has the potential to be confounding is the *type* of institution: university, college, and two-year center. Although the authors make it clear that all three are urban, educational institutions, they do not indicate other critical aspects of the institutions that may have affected the alienation of the students. Other important institutional characteristics that could have had an effect on these findings are the level and source of funding, or the pedagogical mission of the institutions (e.g. technical, vocational, liberal arts, etc.).

And lastly, Choriki (1992) offers an ethnomethodological approach to the study of alienation. In a participant observation study that concluded with several interviews, this author suggests that students do not develop networks with the appropriate people who can help them to reduce their feelings of alienation. Choriki

proposed that alienation exists for graduate students at a large, public, urban school because of four major factors; however, three are relevant to this discussion. He proposes that the graduate students in this study remain alienated because of: (1) *physical barriers* such as walls, doors, desks, and people; (2) *temporal barriers* such as the conflict in times that students are available to meet with administrators and the times when administrators are available to meet with students; and (3) *the inability to access information* due to the previously mentioned structural restraints. All of these components, in addition to the academic rigor, have been reported to play a role in the alienation of the graduate students.

Project Rationale

The alienation literature taken together with the campus satisfaction and the social integration literature provide a case for investigating the participation of college students of color in traditional post-secondary educational institutions. The primary research question asks "*what is the relationship between alienation and membership in an academic/scholars program?*" Based on the research presented above, it is believed that affiliation with an academic/scholars program will aid in the campus satisfaction and social integration of students while reducing feelings of alienation. This investigation specifically seeks to understand "*how do students of color at the City University of New York perceive the effects of program affiliation on their academic experiences, progression rates, grade point averages, and career aspirations?*" It is believed that based on the components of these types of programs and the success associated with these components, that the students who participate in these programs will find that overall, their membership in these programs will have a positive affect on their academic experiences and career

aspirations.

The third research question asks *"do women and men of color perceive alienation differently"*; however, a prediction of the gender differentials for students of color in higher education is not as clear. This study may provide some insight into the collegiate experiences as they relate to program affiliation and alienation for women and men. It is uncertain whether or not college women of color are more alienated or socially integrated than their male counterparts; however, somehow or another their participation and graduation rates are substantially greater than those of men. It is the intention of this project to determine if women of color are experiencing alienation to a greater or lesser degree than their male counterparts, and if so, what role is program affiliation playing in their collegial experiences.

Taken all together, the final research question asks *"what is the relationship between gender, alienation, program affiliation, and the proposed, self-reported outcome measures (academic experiences, progression rates, grade point averages, and career aspirations) for students of color?"*

Chapter 2: The Contextual Framework

The Changing Face of American Higher Education

Overview of Four-Year Nationwide College Enrollments

Carter And Wilson (1996) report that between 1984 and 1994 there was a 13.5% increase in the enrollments for all post-secondary, four-year institutions. Although these authors do not distinguish between undergraduate and graduate/professional school, Carter and Wilson report that between 1984 and 1994 there was a 24% increase in the total enrollments of female students, and an 8.7% increase in the total enrollments of male students. It is important to note that the absolute numbers of women enrolled in higher education institutions are consistently greater than the absolute numbers of men enrolled in these institutions. As a matter of fact, the number of men enrolled in post-secondary institutions in 1984 is almost 92% of the number of women enrolled at this time, but by 1994, the number of men enrolled had decreased to equal approximately 81% of the number of women enrolled. Further, in spite of the increase that each group realized between 1984 and 1994, the number of women enrolled in 1984 is almost equal to the number of men enrolled in 1994.

By race/ethnicity the enrollments of all students in four-year, post-secondary institutions increased between 1984 and 1994. In 1984, White students represented 82% of all students enrolled in four-year institutions, and students of color (including African American, Asian American, Hispanic, and Native American students) represented 15% of this population (Nonresident Aliens were reported to represent the remaining 3%). While White students realized an overall 4.2% increase in four-year enrollments between 1984 and 1994, students of color realized a 61.9% increase in enrollments during this time period. In 1994, White

students represented 75% of all students enrolled in four-year institutions, and students of color represented 21% of this population (Nonresident Aliens were reported to represent the remaining 4%).

Asian American and Hispanic students contributed the most in the gains made by the students of color between 1984 and 1994 (Carter and Wilson, 1996). The Asian American students showed consistent and substantial gains in their four-year enrollments which resulted in a 107.2% increase during this time period. Similarly, the Hispanic students showed notable gains in their enrollments in four-year institutions during this period, and as a group they realized an 88.2% increase between 1984 and 1994. American Indians also realized increases in four-year enrollments during this time period which resulted in a 60.5% increase for this group. And lastly, African Americans realized steady increases in their four-year, post-secondary enrollments, which resulted in a 35.2% increase for this group.

Nationwide Bachelor Degrees Awarded

Between 1985 and 1993, there was an increase of approximately 20% in bachelors degrees awarded (Carter and Wilson, 1996). Overall, women earned a slightly greater percentage of these degrees during this time period, and it is important to note again, that the absolute numbers of bachelors degrees earned by women were larger than the absolute numbers of degrees earned by men. The largest gains in bachelors degrees earned were reported for the Asian American students. Overall, this group had a 103% increase in bachelor degrees awarded between 1985 and 1993. Asian women realized a gain of 121%, and Asian men realized an increase of 87% in bachelors degrees earned during this period. The next largest gains were realized by the Hispanic students who are reported to have

a 75% increase in bachelors degrees earned between 1985 and 1993. The Hispanic women realized an 89% increase in bachelors degrees earned during this period while the Hispanic men earned a 60% increase. African American students demonstrated a 36% increase in bachelor's degrees earned between 1985 and 1993. The gains of the African American women were reported to be 42% for bachelors degrees earned while the gains of the men were 26% for this cohort. The American Indian students realized a 34% increase in bachelor degrees earned between 1985 and 1993. While the American Indian women earned an increase of 43%, the men earned an increase of 23%. And finally, the White students earned a 15% gain in bachelor degrees earned between 1985 and 1993. White women realized a 22% increase in bachelors degrees earned during this time period, and the men realized an increase of 7%.

Background and Profile of The City University College Students

One of the largest initiatives to increase the enrollment of low income students and students of color occurred during the seventies at the City University of New York (CUNY). Lavin and Crook (1990) provide extensive data on the City University's open admissions policy in the early seventies. The policy included several features that helped to expand and diversify the CUNY community. In addition to offering a quality, tuition free education, the City University senior colleges accepted high school graduates who demonstrated academic competence, and the community colleges accepted students who provided evidence of potential. Lavin and Crook (1990) report that during the first few years of this program the student body increased dramatically. Notably, the number of Black and Hispanic students increased by about five times the pre-policy admissions number.

During the mid seventies, amid federal and state financial crises, the open admissions policy at CUNY came to an end. In addition to making the admissions requirements more strict, the City University imposed tuition fees to a previously tuition-free institution. Lavin and Crook (1990) state that although financial assistance became available to CUNY college students, the conditions by which the funds became available had consequences. For example, these authors point out that prior to the imposition of tuition, students could self-pace their academic progress without financial strain. Once restrictions were imposed, extracurricular concerns such as their families and/or employment arose for students who had to attend school on a part-time basis. In addition, students who attended college on a part-time basis were in danger of not meeting the requirements to qualify for financial assistance. Lavin and Crook note that Black and Hispanic students frequently had to work and/or attend school on a part-time basis. In sum, the end of the open admissions policy and the imposition of tuition negatively affected the participation of the Black and Hispanic CUNY students.

CUNY Senior College Enrollments

The most recent CUNY Student Data Book: Fall 1995 reports that the senior college enrollment consists of 107,497 students, 60% (64,775) of which are women (CUNY Office of Institutional Research and Analysis; June, 1996). Thirty-five percent of these students are first-year students, 21% are sophomores, 22% are juniors, and 21% are seniors (p. 30). This report further states, that of the students enrolled in the senior colleges, 34% are White, 31% are Black, 21% are Hispanic, 13% are Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.2% are American Indian/Alaskan Native (p.91) (See Figure 2). The percentages of students of color enrolled in the CUNY

senior colleges is reported to be approximately three times the national number of Blacks and Hispanic enrolled in four-year colleges, and almost twice the national number of Asian/Pacific Islanders enrolled (p.166) (See Figure 3). For the most part, the women outnumber their male counterparts in every racial/ethnic category. Sixty-six percent of the Black students, 63% of the Hispanic students, 63% of the American Indian/Alaskan Native students, 58% of the White students, and 49% of the Asian/Pacific Islander students are females (p.96).

The CUNY Student Data Book: Fall 1995 suggests that between 1976 and 1995 there were slight changes in the enrollments of the senior college student body by race/ethnicity (p.109). Specifically, in 1976 the White students represented 56% of the senior college students, and due to consistent and steady decreases in White student enrollment, these students represented 34% of the senior college student body in 1995. This change in enrollment represents a 21% decrease between 1976 and 1995. In a similar, but not as drastic vein, the enrollments of the American Indian/Alaskan Native senior college students also showed a decrease between 1976 and 1995. Between 1976 and 1986, the enrollments of the American Indian/Alaskan Native students realized slight increases (in 1976 these students represented 1% of the senior college student enrollments and in 1986 they represented 1.4% of the senior college enrollments). However, from 1988 to 1995, the American Indian/Alaskan Native students realized an abrupt decline in their senior college enrollments. By 1995 these students represented only 0.2% of the senior college enrollment, a 1.2% decrease from their already small 1976 enrollment figure.

The CUNY Student Data Book: Fall 1995 reports that the Black, Hispanic, and Asian/Pacific Islander senior college enrollments showed overall increases

between 1976 and 1995 (p.109). In 1976, Black students were reported to comprise 26% of the CUNY senior college enrollments. This percentage continued to increase until 1982 when Black students, once again represented 26% of the CUNY senior college enrollments. However, starting in 1984, the senior college enrollments of the Black students continued to increase until reaching an all-time high of 32%. The following year, 1995, the enrollment of these students decreased slightly to 31.4%. Nonetheless, the senior college enrollments of these students realized an overall 6% increase between 1976 and 1995. Similarly, the Hispanic students showed an overall increase in their senior college enrollments between 1976 and 1995. In 1976 these students represented 12.8% of the CUNY senior college enrollments, and in spite of some subtle vacillation in enrollments, Hispanic students represented 21.3% of the senior college student body in 1995.

The Asian/Pacific Islander students represented 5.2% of the CUNY senior college enrollments, and this group realized a steady increase in enrollments until 1993 when they represented 13.1% of the total senior college student body. In 1994 the enrollment of these students decreased slightly to 12.6% and then increased slightly to 12.9% in 1995. Overall, however, the Asian/Pacific Islander students showed a 7.7% increase in the CUNY senior college enrollments.

CUNY Bachelor Degrees Awarded 1994-1995

The CUNY Student Data Book: Fall 1995 reports that the City University of New York awarded 8,886 bachelor degrees for the 1994-1995 academic year (p.122). Of the degrees awarded, 62% were said to be awarded to women. Further, 40% of the bachelor degrees were awarded to White students, 28% were awarded to Black students, 17% were awarded to Hispanic students, 14% to

Asian/Pacific Islanders, and 0.3% were awarded to American Indians/Native Alaskans. The percentage of bachelor degrees awarded by the CUNY senior colleges to Black and Hispanic students is almost four times as many as the national number, and for the Asian/Pacific Islander students CUNY awarded approximately three times the percentage of bachelor degrees (p. 167) (See Figure 4).

Reasons for Attending College

According to the CUNY Student Data Book: Fall 1995, the six most important reasons that the senior college students listed for attending college were as follows: job or career preparation (84%), to learn more about areas of interest (75%), preparation for graduate school (69%), to gain a general education and appreciation of ideas (66%), to be able to earn more money (61%), to discover personal and/or career goals (60%) (p.158). This report also offered the top six reasons that the students chose their particular institution. These responses were: relatively inexpensive (87%), the availability of a sought-after program (83%), reputation of the college for academic excellence (80%), proximity to the student's home (68%), the availability of financial aid (56%), and the ability of the student to transfer to another college at a later time (41%) (p. 159).

Educational Family Background

Fifty-one percent of the CUNY students are first generation college goers (ie. neither of their parents attended college), and 25% were the first in their immediate families to attend college (ie. neither of their parents or siblings attended college). Of the students who were not the first in their families to attend college, 38%

reported that their fathers attended college and 36% of the students reported that their mothers had attended college (p. 160).

Marital Status and Parental Obligation

Seventy-one percent of the students were never married, 17% were married, and 12% were divorced/separated/other. Twenty percent of the sample reported having children, 25% reported having at least one live-in child to support, and 9.2% reported that they were single parents with at least one live-in child to support (p. 161).

Employment Status and Household Income

Thirty-six percent of the students reported that they did not work, 36% reported that they worked part-time, and 28% reported that they worked full-time (p. 162). Thirty-six percent report a household income of less than \$20,000, 43% report a household income between \$20,000 and \$50,000, and 21% report a household income over \$50,000 (p. 163). The CUNY Student Data Book: Fall 1994 reported that of the senior college students 8.2% reported that one or more members of their household received public assistance, and 17.3% reported having trouble paying their bills during the previous year (these latter findings were not available in the Fall 1995 report), (CUNY Office of Institutional Research and Analysis; January, 1996, pp.151,155)

Attrition, Retention, and Graduation of CUNY College Students

The City University of New York has been increasingly concerned about the attrition, retention, and graduation of the students, and as a result, a CUNY wide

Retention Committee was formed in the Spring of 1995. A series of studies were conducted to investigate the progression rates of CUNY college students, to obtain a clearer picture of the students who leave CUNY, and to determine why students leave and where they go. A brief summary of two of those studies will be presented here as they relate to the current inquiry.

The Underestimates of Successful CUNY College Students

In an attempt to more accurately represent the graduation rates of students who attended CUNY colleges (at one time or another), Lavin et al (1996) conducted an investigation of the destinations of CUNY college students who engage in drop-out or stop-out behaviors. These authors report that several factors should be considered to determine CUNY college students' graduation rates.

First, these authors acknowledge that due to insufficient academic preparation, lack of proficiency in the English language, personal and family obligations, work-related responsibilities, and financial situations, many CUNY students require time beyond the standard four years to earn a bachelors degree. As a matter of fact, Lavin et al. found that for CUNY, 67% of the Black students, 57% of the Hispanic students, and 43% of the White students require more than four years to complete the requirements for the bachelors degree. Thus, graduation rates may be under represented if one only considers four years from the entrance of a first-year CUNY college student enrolled in a bachelors program. Further, students enrolled in bachelor programs who do not graduate within four years may not necessarily be academically unsuccessful, in other words they may ultimately graduate.

Second, Lavin et al. (1996) point out that one should also be cautious in

referring to students who leave CUNY as academically unsuccessful. These authors found that of all students who entered bachelors programs in the Fall of 1990, 25% had received their degrees within five years, 31% were still enrolled, and 44% had prematurely left CUNY colleges without receiving their degrees. Of the students who left, 48.3% of the students identified themselves as men and 40.9% identified themselves as women. Of the original cohort of students, 39.7% of the Asians students, 43.3% of the White students, 46.8% of the Hispanic, and 47.0% of the Black students left prematurely. Thirty-three percent of the students who left had grade point averages of 2.00 or higher.

Data about students who leave CUNY suggests that students who leave do so early on in their college careers (e.g their first or second years of college) (Lavin, et al., 1996). Men, more so than women, were more likely to leave CUNY prior to receiving their degrees. Lavin et al. attribute this finding to the fact that the women who enter CUNY colleges are prepared better academically than their male counterparts, and are thus less likely to engage in drop-out or stop-out behaviors. Further, Black and Hispanic students, more so than Asian and White students, were more likely to leave CUNY prior to receiving their degrees. Although not explicitly stated in this article, prior research by the first author suggests that Black and Hispanic students are more likely to experience the difficulties that CUNY college students face as stated in the section that profiled the CUNY college students (See Lavin, 1990). It may be because of these difficulties (e.g. work-related responsibilities, financial problems, English as a second language, etc) that Black and Hispanic students are more inclined to prematurely leave CUNY colleges.

Lavin et al. found that of all the students who left this cohort, 61% of the students with grade point averages of 2.00 or higher transferred, as did 38% of

those students with grade point averages of less than 2.00. Although the women were less likely to leave than the men, the women who did leave were more likely to transfer than the men (54% of the women who were leavers transferred and 46% of the men who were leavers transferred). By race/ethnicity, 69% of the Asian students, 52% of the White students, 44% of the Black students, and 38% of the Hispanic students who left CUNY transferred to other academic institutions. Five years after starting college, more than half of the transfer students had graduated and earned a bachelors degree. According to these authors, all graduates (including CUNY and transfer students) should be counted in the success or graduation rates of the City University of New York. The rationale for this approach is that CUNY appears to be a stepping stone for students whether or not they graduate from CUNY schools. In short, CUNY colleges appear to offer students a collegiate foundation, and prepare students (academically, financially, etc.) for college experiences that are yet to come.

Lavin et al. (1996) report that students who transferred said they did so for a variety of reasons relating to the academic and social aspects of college. The major reasons given in this article were that: the CUNY school did not offer the desired program of study, the desired classes were either closed or unavailable, or the desire for a campus (rather than commuter) college experience. Students who left, but did not transfer, cited reasons that were often related to finances (e.g. tuition was too high, not enough financial aid, work and school conflicts).

Why Do Students in Good Academic Standing Leave CUNY?

Gittell and Holdaway (1996) report the responses of students who left one of seven CUNY colleges (three junior colleges or four senior colleges) for at least

one semester during 1994. This study was specifically interested in students who left on their own accord, and not because of academic failure. In addition, the students in this study all had grade point averages of at least 2.00 when they left. These researchers found that almost 85% of the 545 students who participated in either telephone interviews and/or focus groups, stated that they had transferred to other schools (25%) or that they had planned to return to school within one or two semesters.

The main reasons these students state for interrupting their studies had to do with financial or work-related issues. Some students claimed that the increase in tuition was problematic for them, while other students stated that the inability to secure financial aid (in spite of their low to moderate incomes) was the major reason that they left school. Still other students stated conflicts in their work and school schedules.

The second most commonly stated reasons for leaving involved student services (e.g. registration, academic advisement, and scheduling). Problems with registration included long lines, unaccessible phone contacts, inconvenient registration times (e.g. conflicts with work schedule). A related problem had to do with academic counseling. Students stated that at times they did not have an academic advisor, and in some instances the students were unable to meet with the same advisor from one meeting to the next. Other problems arose when the advisor was unable to appropriately advise the students (due to the advisor's unfamiliarity with the students' academic career). Lastly, students stated that scheduling conflicts frequently arose especially when the students worked during the day.

Due to the qualitative nature of these data, students were able to elaborate

on issues that were of concern to them. One frequently mentioned theme that arose was the feeling of isolation that the students experienced. Some respondents reported that they felt unconnected and unnoticed. Further, these students stated that because of their estranged relationship to the college community, no one seemed to notice or offer assistance when the students' academic careers went awry.

Students are aware that one way of benefiting from the college community is by being associated with a supportive program or organization. For example, one student explicitly states that the experiences for he and his wife were considerable different because of his association with a special program. This student stated that as member of the Adult Degree Program at Lehman College he was assigned a specific advisor who was available and accessible. The student's wife was not eligible for the program (because of her age), and he reported that she experienced difficulty when trying to speak with a general advisor from the campus at-large.

Gittell and Holdaway (1996) report that students generally stated that their classroom relationships with the academic staff were satisfactory, however, these students did not appear to have relationships with the faculty beyond the classroom. The absence of the faculty-student relationships beyond the classroom appears to be part of the reason for the more explicitly stated problem of these students with administrative student services. In other words, if students did have relationships with faculty members, they might have been able to rely on those faculty members for academic advice. In lieu of the faculty-student relationships, many students had to rely on administrative student service. The students stated that they were dissatisfied with the administrative staff because in many instances, the staff appeared to be under prepared, unhelpful, and unfriendly.

Gittell and Holdaway attempted to derive a profile of the students who left CUNY schools in good academic standing. The 87 students (47 senior college students and 40 junior college students) who stated that they had no plans to return to school were classified as *permanent leavers*. The permanent leavers were more likely to be White students and least likely to be Black students. Although there were more women in the sample, similar percentages of women and men were reported to be permanent leavers of four-year schools. Similar to the findings of Lavin et al., Gittell and Holdaway found that permanent leavers did so during their first or second years of college. Surprisingly, permanent leavers had slightly higher grade point averages than the overall sample. The major reason that these students gave for leaving school were new or additional work responsibilities. For permanent leavers secondary reasons for leaving included additional work responsibilities, relocation, and personal/familial responsibilities. And lastly, these students did mention issues such as registration and class scheduling.

Gittell and Holdaway classified 314 students who stated that they intended to return to school as *temporary leavers*. Overall, this subsample was young and female, and these students cited financial reasons and personal/familial issues as primary reasons for leaving. Of the temporary leavers 72% were women, 33% were Black, 30% were White, 28% were Hispanic, and 9% were Asian. Forty-six percent of the temporary leavers were full-time students and 54% were part-time students. At the senior colleges, 38% of the temporary leavers were first-year students, and 24% of the temporary leavers of the senior colleges had grade point averages over 3.50. The most important reason the temporary leavers stated for interrupting their studies was a "lack of money", and this was followed by work-related conflicts. The second most important reason that temporary leavers stated for leaving was

dissatisfaction with the student services (e.g registration, poor advisement, etc.), and this was followed by personal and familial reasons.

Gittell and Holdaway identified 133 students (76 senior college students and 57 junior college students) as transfer students. These authors state that the transfer students were generally younger than the overall sample (interestingly, the senior college transfer students were younger than the junior college transfer students). As previously stated, the students who left school did so early in their college careers. For the transfer students who were enrolled in four-year schools, 47% were in their first year of college and 32% were in their sophomore year. The transfer students fairly represented the overall sample by gender. By race/ethnicity, the percentages of Black and White students fairly represented their representation of the overall sample. However, Hispanic students were under represented in transfer students, while Asian students were over represented. Fifty-one percent of the transfer students had grade point averages over 3.00.

Like the Lavin et al. (1996) findings, slightly more than a quarter of the students said they transferred because their program of interest was not available at their current institution. Students also expressed desires to attend colleges with "different environments" (it was suggested that these students were referring to residential rather than commuter colleges). However, although academic reasons were not the major reasons for transferring, they were seen as important contributing factors. Secondary reasons for leaving school included student services (registration, counseling and scheduling problems). Financial issues represented the smallest percentage of secondary reasons for transferring.

Summary

Taken together, these data offer a contextual framework for the participants in the current research project. Between 1984 and 1994, there was an nationwide increase in enrollments in bachelors degree programs, and during this period, women out numbered men in all aspects of higher education. Between 1984 and 1994, students of color (African American, Asian American, and Hispanic students) realized a 62% increase in all four-year college enrollments. In 1994, students of color represented one-fifth of all college enrollments, this is in comparison to White students who represented three-quarters of this population. There was a 20% increase of bachelor degrees awarded nationwide between 1985 and 1993. As one might expect, a greater percentage and number of women, more so than men, earned bachelor degrees during this time. By race/ethnicity, the Asian American students realized the greatest gains in bachelor degrees awarded, while the White students realized the smallest gains.

Like the nationwide data, a greater percentage of women, rather than men, are enrolled in the CUNY senior colleges. Further, 61% of the 1993-1994 CUNY bachelors degrees were awarded to women. In comparison to the national statistics, the enrollment statistics for the CUNY senior colleges report to have three times the percentages of Blacks and Hispanic students, and twice the percentages of Asian American students. Further, four times as many bachelors degrees were awarded to Black and Hispanic CUNY students as were awarded to the general population. For the Asian American/Pacific Islander students, CUNY awarded three times as many bachelors degrees as the national statistics.

Over half of the CUNY senior college students are first generation college-goers, approximately 25% have children to support, and almost 10% are single

parents. Almost two-thirds of the students report that they work either part-time or full-time. A little more than one-third of the students reported a household income of less than \$20, 000. Almost 10% report that at least one member of their household received some form of public assistance, and close to 20% of the students reported having had some trouble paying their bills.

In attempt to understand the participation of CUNY undergraduates, a Retention Committee was formed and a series of studies were conducted. One of the first and most important findings was that based on the demographic factors summarized above, insufficient academic preparation, and the fact that English is not the native language of many CUNY students, the students enrolled in CUNY bachelors programs take longer than the expected four years to complete the requirements for the bachelors degree. It was found that six to eight years after entering college more accurately represents the CUNY students who complete the requirements for the bachelors degree.

In addition to the fact that CUNY students take a longer time to complete the requirements for the bachelors degree, one should also be aware that many students interrupt their studies at CUNY and complete their degrees at other institutions. Although this is not considered a traditional method of assessing the success of students who entered CUNY colleges, it may more accurately represent the success of the students.

Attrition is a realistic factor in higher education. Generally, the CUNY students who leave do so in their first or second years of college. Men, more so than women are found to leave the CUNY senior colleges, and Blacks and Hispanics, more so than Asians or Whites leave. Although many students leave because of academic difficulties and failures, other students depart for other

reasons. Students who left temporarily did so primarily because of financial issues or work-related responsibilities. Students who transferred to other institutions did so mainly in search of a better academic and institutional fit. And students who left permanently did so mostly because of work or personal/family related reasons. Across all the groups who left CUNY schools, the secondary reasons for leaving were related to administrative student services (e.g. registration, advisement, scheduling).

An important and consistent theme that emerged from the qualitative data was that of support. Noticeably absent from the qualitative responses, were admissions of faculty-student relationships. These students turned to administrative student services, which many of the students were dissatisfied with, for academic guidance and support. Most students who left for one reason or another stated that the support from the administrative offices was frequently lacking. Students explicitly stated that due to lack of advisement or guidance, they felt disconnected and unimportant. Further, students identified membership in special programs as one solution. It was stated that these programs offer students individualized attention that not only effected them academically, but also emotionally.

For the transfer students in particular, the issue of financial support appeared to be very important. Students' college careers were adversely effected by tuition increases to the point where students said they had to leave school because of a "lack of money". In addition, students who had to work to support themselves (and in some instances their families) often had conflicts in scheduling school and work related responsibilities. The absence of financial support and academic advice in college has been found to have an adverse effect on one's

college career. It is therefore the intention of this inquiry to discover if perceived support, in the form of program affiliation, will have a positive effect on the college experience for students.

Chapter 3: Methods

Review

Recall that the primary research question asks what is the relationship between alienation and program affiliation? Further, this project sets out to explore the relationship between program affiliation, academic experiences, progression rates, grade point averages, and career aspirations for students of color.

In addition, a second set of questions sets out to determine if women and men of color experience alienation differently? Taken all together, this research project seeks to discover the relationship between gender, alienation, program affiliation and the proposed outcome measures for students of color?

In order to investigate the aforementioned research questions, the following methods were employed.

Subjects

The research questions in this study specifically address the issues of alienation, academic program affiliation, and feelings of collegial involvement for students of color. In order to address these questions, several academic, honors, and scholars programs were sought from within the senior colleges of the City University of New York. Academic programs were defined as any formally established organization that was comprised of students who are considered to be scholastically competent and competitive. This usually included students who had at least a B average or better. Further, the research questions sought to understand the participation of students of color who were associated with these types of programs. Where possible, programs that specifically targeted students of color were sought.

Nine independent program directors and coordinators were contacted between Spring, 1995 and Spring, 1996. Each of the contact people agreed to allow the researcher to introduce the project to the students in their program. While some of the programs were nationally renowned and endowed, others were established and run specifically by the individual institutions. It is important to note that some of the nationally-funded programs existed on several campuses, but they operated autonomously. Further, some of the programs had campus-wide membership; in other words, the program was a university-wide initiative that had students on several of the individual college campuses.

Based on the above criteria, over 170 students were contacted via direct mailing, advertisement flyers, and classroom announcements. Of the students who were contacted, approximately 135 students were present for the researcher's introduction and explanation of the project. In total, 122 consent forms and surveys were distributed, and data were collected from 107 City University students -- an overall response rate of approximately 88%. (The response rate was determined based on the number of consent forms and surveys that were distributed and returned -- see Table 1 for summary). These students represent 10 college campuses and over 10 scholars/honors programs. The sample includes African American, $n=35$, (32.7%); Hispanic, $n=21$, (19.6%); White, $n=20$, (18.7%); Asian American, $n=16$, (15.0%); and "Other", $n=14$, (13.1%) students (see Figure 5). In addition, the sample consists of 68 women, 38 men, and one subject who did not identify his/her gender (see Figures 6 and 6a). The respondents' ages range from 16 to 45, with a mean of 24.18. The majority (approximately 89%) of the respondents reported attending school full-time. The participants represent first-year students, $n=18$, (about 17%); sophomore, $n=4$, (almost 4%); juniors, $n=36$;

(nearly 34%); and seniors, $n=48$, (approximately 45%). It is unfortunate that demographic data from the actual programs were not collected; however, based on the response rates, this sample seems to accurately represent the program membership.

Procedure

Although various strategies were employed to secure students for this sample, the overall procedure was as follows. First the researcher contacted the program director or coordinator to explain the nature of the project. If the contact person agreed to allow the students in his/her program to hear about the project, the researcher scheduled an appropriate time and place. For the majority of the respondents in this project, the researcher attended a regularly scheduled program meeting. Thus, the data were collected in familiar surroundings. In the instances where the meetings were scheduled by the researcher, the data collection sessions were scheduled to take place at a City University college campus.

The researcher was either introduced, or introduced herself, as a doctoral student at the Graduate School and University Center of the City University of New York. She described the general ideas of the project as a study that sought to investigate how students in honor's programs viewed the college experience. Afterwards, the students were handed a cover letter that explained the project and a consent/participation form (see Appendix A). The students were told that they were under no obligation to take part in any aspect of the project, but if they wanted to participate, they should detach the cover letter to keep for themselves, and return the second sheet, (the participation information and consent form) to the researcher. When they handed in the second sheet they were then given a copy

of the survey (see *Measures* section for a description of the survey).

In the instances where the researcher was present during the data collection session, she informed the participants that she was available to answer any questions they had at anytime. Once the surveys were returned (whether or not the researcher was present at the data collection session) the participants were thanked and reminded that they should hold on to the cover letter in case they wanted to contact the researcher, the researcher's dissertation advisor, or the Office of Sponsored Research at the CUNY Graduate School and University Center

Variables

Based on the research questions, the subject variables and moderators for this study are *race/ethnicity, and gender*. The *race/ethnicity* and *gender* variables, are categorical, and are each tapped by one item. Participation in, and benefits from, program affiliation are viewed as mediators in this study. The program affiliation and its benefits are tapped by several items addressing many aspects of participation (e.g. type of participation, length of participation, effect of participation, etc.).

Alienation, the major independent variable in this study, is measured by two standard measures as well as some open-ended and forced-choice items. The dependent variables in this study, *effect of program, progression rates, grade point averages, and career aspirations*, are all self-reported, are measured by forced-choice, open-ended, and Likert-type items.

Measures

The data for this research project were collected by survey. The survey

consisted of two standard alienation measures: the Alienation Test (Maddi et al., 1979) and the Alienation Scale (Jessor & Jessor, 1977); and several forced-choice (e.g. "How do you think being a part of this program has *helped* your progress towards the degree?") and open-ended (e.g. "Give an example of how the program has *hurt* your progress towards the degree") items developed specifically for this study. In total the survey consisted of 115 items (See Appendix B).

The Alienation Test (Maddi, et al., 1979) is a 60-item, self-administered Likert-type scale that taps an individual's feelings of alienation in five different social contexts (work, self, social institutions, interpersonal relationships, and family). Examples from this measure include: "*Life is empty and has no meaning for me*", and "*I am better off when I keep to myself*". (This measure can be found in its entirety in the survey, Appendix B, pages 1-4). In the original version, the responses to the items ranged from 0 (not at all true) to 100 (completely true). Some slight modifications of the measure were made for its use in this survey. One change is that the response set for the Alienation Test was altered so that it ranged from 0 (not at all true) to 10 (completely true).

A second change exists in some of the wording of the items. The "work" section in the Alienation Test was worded to reflect the students' work as it pertains to school. The changes in wording were agreed upon by a research team and then independently given to a panel of expert judges to make sure the meaning of the items was not lost in the change. An example from this measure is, "*I don't like my school or enjoy my work, I just put in my time to get my degree*".

In its original form, the Alienation Test (Maddi et al., 1979) was self-administered within a battery of other measures. The survey was administered in several different contexts with various populations ranging from high school

students to upper level managers. For the purposes of this study, the reliability of the academic samples is most important, and in particular, that of the college sample. For the sample of the college students (who were paid for their participation) the internal consistency was found to be high for the different social contexts. Specifically, Maddi et al. report the following alphas: work -- .83, social institutions -- .80, interpersonal relationships -- .75, and family -- .77. Further, these authors report high intercorrelations between the subscales of the Alienation Test.

For the current sample, the alphas were quite comparable for the Alienation Test and the intercorrelations between the subscales. For the current sample, the alphas were as follows: work -- .84, social institutions -- .79, interpersonal relationships -- .75, and family -- .79.

The second standard alienation measure, the Alienation Scale (Jessor & Jessor, 1977), consists of a 15-item, self-administered, Likert-type scale. Examples of the items from this scale include: *"I often feel left out of things that others are doing"* (The scale can be found in its entirety in the survey, Appendix B, page 5). In the original version, there are four responses to the items: strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree. In order to provide parallel construction to the response set of the Alienation Test used in this survey, the responses for the Alienation Scale were extended to range from 0 (not at all true) to 10 (completely true).

Jessor and Jessor (1977) had one sample of high school students and one sample of college students self-administer the Alienation Scale as it appeared within an extensive questionnaire. The internal consistency for the high school and college samples was determined by the Cronbach alpha as .81, for the current sample the Cronbach alpha is .56.

Items for high school and college involvement, program participation, and support networks were created based on the existing research in this area, the comments from a doctoral student survey (that the author was a collaborator on), and the comments from students and program directors/coordinators of various academic/scholars programs.

The analysis plan for this project is largely contingent upon correlational, univariate, multivariate, and regression analyses, and the data will be analyzed by gender and race/ethnicity. The categorical data will be analyzed via chi-squares. These data include the campus alienation variables, the individual school-related activities, the categorical representations in the support network, the effects of program affiliation, and the attrition variables. The continuous data will be analyzed via t-tests, ANOVAs, and MANOVAs. To determine the importance of the different components of the programs, regression analyses will be employed. The variables included in these analyses will be the parents' level of education, perceived percentages of students of color in school, the average scores of the standard alienation measures, the school related involvement scores, the support network scores, the index for the benefits of program affiliation, and the score that indicates the extent to which the program helped the students progress toward the degree.

Based on the manner in which the data will be presented and the way the research questions will be answered, both non-parametric and inferential statistics will be employed in most sections where appropriate.

Chapter 4 Results

General Information

First, general information about the sample is presented to give the reader a sense of the students in this sample prior to college. Be advised that these are not longitudinal data and that the students answered the questions retrospectively regarding their high school experiences as best as they could. The purpose of this section is to incorporate some critical pre-college experiences and demographic information with the college data. Second, where appropriate, these data will be presented and discussed in terms of gender and race/ethnicity. In instances where the data, according to these variables, are similar to, or not significantly different from the sample mean, this information will simply be noted.

These data represent the responses of African American, Asian American, Caucasian/White, Hispanic, and "Other" students. Unfortunately, there were no Native American students in this sample -- this is a nationally recognized problem with research of this type. Be advised that although the main purpose of this research project was to investigate the collegiate experiences of students of color, the data collection process yielded responses from White students. Although these data were unexpected, they will be used for comparative purposes in the research findings. Further, the students who identified themselves as "Other" represent an important part of this sample (13.2%), and thus, they are included in most of the analyses. Although the category "Other" represents various races and ethnicities (e.g. Biracial, first-generation immigrants, Jewish students), this category offers interesting findings on many of the major variables associated with this study, and so, unless otherwise noted, this category is included in the analyses.

There will be a general discussion about the respondents' experiences in

college. And lastly, these data will be presented in terms of the important variables and research questions. By presenting the data in this manner, the reader will have a foundation on which to base the research findings.

Parents' Education

Research has suggested that there is a positive relationship between the educational attainment level of students' parents and the students themselves (Bennett & Okinanka, 1990). Specifically, the higher the level of education attained by the parents, the more likely the students will strive for, and achieve, higher levels of education for themselves.

The respondents in this sample report various levels of education for their parents. Many of the respondents, however, have exceeded the education levels of their parents (See Table 2). A little more than 50% of the participants indicated that their mothers' highest level of education was either grammar school or high school. A similar trend is reported for the fathers of the participants. Forty-six percent of the fathers are reported to have completed grammar school or high school.

Eighteen percent of the respondents' mothers are reported to have some college, while approximately 10% of the respondents' fathers are reported to have some college. Respondents report that 19% of their mothers have completed college and had some graduate or professional school, while the respondents make this claim for approximately 20% of their fathers. Eleven percent of the respondents' mothers and almost 21% of the respondents' fathers are reported to have completed graduate or professional school.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed significant differences by

gender in the respondents' mothers education levels $F(1,102) = 4.97, p = .03$. The average education level of the mothers of the female respondents ($M = 3.08, SD = 1.69$) was significantly higher than the average education level of the male respondents' mothers ($M = 2.37, SD = 1.28$). Interestingly, there were no significant differences by gender in the respondents' fathers education $F(1,99) = 2.30, p = ns$.

An ANOVA revealed significant differences by race/ethnicity in the levels of the respondents' mothers education $F(4,99) = 7.77, p = .00$. (See Table 3). The education levels of the mothers of the Hispanic students ($M = 2.14, SD = 1.46$), the African American students ($M = 2.26, SD = 1.27$), and the "Other" students ($M = 2.69, SD = 1.38$) were significantly lower than the education levels of the mothers of the White students ($M = 4.10, SD = 1.65$). Similarly, the education levels of the Hispanic and African American students' mothers were significantly lower than the education levels of the Asian students' mothers ($M = 3.67, SD = 1.54$).

An ANOVA revealed that the findings regarding the fathers' educational attainment levels were similar to the reports about the education of the mothers $F(4,96) = 8.05, p = .00$. (See Table 4). Specifically, the education levels of the Hispanic students' fathers ($M = 2.10, SD = 1.59$) and the African American students' fathers ($M = 2.42, SD = 1.68$) were significantly lower than the education levels of the Asian American students' fathers ($M = 4.00, SD = 1.65$) and the White students' fathers ($M = 4.40, SD = 1.85$). Interestingly, the education level of the fathers of the "Other" students was significantly higher ($M = 4.08, SD = 1.71$) than the educational level of the African American and Hispanic students' fathers.

As one might expect, the combination of gender and race/ethnicity revealed significant differences in regard to the respondents' mothers' level of education, $F(9,93) = 4.32, p = .0001$. (See Table 5). The education levels of the White

women's mothers ($M=4.38$, $SD=1.61$) were significantly higher than the education levels of the mothers of the Hispanic men ($M=1.64$, $SD=.67$), the African American men ($M=2.17$, $SD=1.40$), the "Other" women ($M=2.29$, $SD=1.38$), and the African American women ($M=2.30$, $SD=1.22$). Further, the education levels of the Asian women's mothers ($M=3.92$, $SD=1.62$) were significantly higher than the education levels of the mothers of the Hispanic men and the African American women.

Similarly, the combination of gender and race/ethnicity revealed significant differences in regard to the respondents' fathers' level of education, $F(9,90) = 3.48$, $p=.001$. (See Table 6). It was found that the education levels of the White women's fathers ($M=4.31$, $SD=1.84$), were significantly higher than the education levels of the fathers of the Hispanic men ($M=1.80$, $SD=1.14$) and the African American men ($M=2.08$, $SD=1.51$). In addition, the education levels of the Asian women's fathers ($M=4.18$, $SD=1.80$) were significantly higher than the education levels of the Hispanic men's fathers.

These data are consistent with the existing literature that states that the education levels of people of color, in particular the Blacks and Hispanics, are lower than the education levels of Whites and Asian Americans (Carter & Wilson, 1994; Nettles, 1990). In general, the education levels of the Asian American and White students' parents in this sample are higher than that of the educational levels of the African American and Hispanic students' parents. The issue of education for parents has been shown to have an impact on other issues that are related to the education of students of color. For example, there is evidence that the higher the levels of education, the higher the socioeconomic status (U.S. Department of Education, 1995). Further, factors such as education levels and socioeconomic status have been shown to be positively related to the type of schools that students

of color attend. Students whose parents have higher levels of education and socioeconomic status are likely to attend better schools.

High School Experiences

Pre-college factors are believed to influence student interactions within, and attitudes about, the college community. This section provides the reader with some information about the respondents before they entered college. This information becomes relevant when one attempts to understand the transitions from high school to college. Recall that there is evidence that transitions are most effective when they involve two similar environments (Baker & Siryk, 1980). Further, students who take advantage of pre-college programs and services are believed to be better prepared for college experiences (Crosson, 1988).

Racial Composition of the High School Student Body

Respondents were asked about their perceptions of the racial and ethnic compositions of the student body of their high schools. On a scale of 0 - 10, where each level represented a progressively increasing 10% increment, the participants were asked to indicate the percentage of students of color that attended their high school. The average score for this sample was 4.97 ($SD = 3.44$) which indicates that the students believed that their high school student body consisted of anywhere from 41 - 50% of students of color. For the women, the mean score is 5.18 ($SD = 3.52$) and, for the men, the mean score is 4.53 ($SD = 3.31$). However, a t-test revealed that this difference was not statistically significant.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed significant differences by race/ethnicity and the perceived percentage of students of color in high school,

$F(4,99) = 5.72, p = .0004$. (See Table 7). The African American ($M=6.60, SD=3.31$) and Hispanic ($M=5.48, SD=3.49$) students reported significantly higher percentages of students of color in their high school than the White students ($M=2.55, SD=2.52$). Thus, the White students believe that the student body of their high school had anywhere from 11-30% students of color. On the other hand, the African American and Hispanic students believed that the student body of their high schools consisted of anywhere from 41-70% students of color. These data suggest that the students of color report that they attended more integrated high schools, while the White students report that they attended more segregated White high schools. These findings may be revealing a matter of perspective. Specifically, it may be the case that the students of color are more inclined to be around students of color, and thus, are more likely to report integrated student bodies. Similarly, the White students may be more inclined to socialize with other White students, and thus, are more likely to report more White, segregated academic communities.

This information may be helpful in understanding the social integration patterns of the students in their previous and current academic institutions. The literature reviewed revealed that being a statistical minority contributed to one's feelings of alienation. Conversely then, perceiving that one is not a statistical minority may have some influence on one's involvement with high school activities.

High School Activities

In order to get a picture of the academic lives of the respondents prior to college, some questions were asked about their involvement in high school programs and activities. The participants were asked to identify how involved they were with the following high school activities: academic/scholarly programs,

athletics, political organizations, professional associations, and social clubs. Specifically, the students were asked to rate their involvement with each individual activity according to the following choices: 0 – “not at all involved”, 1 – “somewhat involved”, and 2 – “very involved”. The responses given to these items suggest that overall, these students are moderately involved with high school activities (see Table 8).

Involvement with scholarly programs was one of the categories listed in the inventory of high school activities. A chi-square test revealed that there were no significant differences in the representation of students across the three categories of involvement (“not at all involved”, “somewhat involved”, and “very involved”). There were, however, differences in scholarly activities based on gender. A chi-square test revealed that women were significantly more involved with scholarly activities in high school than the men, $\chi^2 = (1, N = 42) = 9.52, p = .002$. Forty-six percent of the women stated that they were “very involved” with the academic/scholarly programs, whereas 31% of the men in this sample made the same claim. For the men, this percentage was the same as for the men who claimed that they were “somewhat involved” with the academic/scholarly programs in high school. Twenty-seven percent of the sample said that they were “not at all” involved with academic/scholarly activities (21% of the women and 39% of the men made this claim).

The responses by race/ethnicity ranged from 29% of the Hispanic students to 49% of the African American students saying that they were “very involved” with scholarly activities in high school. A chi-square test revealed that the African American students were significantly more likely to report involvement with high school scholarly activities than the other racial/ethnic groups, $\chi^2 = (4, N = 42) =$

9.67, $p = .04$. On the other hand, the responses for students who were “not at all involved” in academic activities ranged from 15% of the Caucasian/White students to 38% of the Hispanic students.

With regard to political organizations and professional associations, approximately two-thirds of the students responded that they were “not at all involved”. For high school athletics, close to 45% the sample stated that they were “not at all involved” – 46% of the women and 42% of the men. Equal percentages of women and men (34%) stated that they were “somewhat involved” with high school athletics, and 18% of the women and 24% of the men said they were “very involved”. As far as social clubs were concerned, the respondents were almost equally divided among the three choices.

Recall that the five high school activities had the following choices: 0 – “not at all involved”, 1 – “somewhat involved”, and 2 – “very involved”. A cumulative high school involvement score was created by adding the responses of these five items. (See Table 9 for a summary of high school involvement scores). On a scale of 0 - 10, where 0 indicates “not all involved” and where 10 indicates “very involved”, the average score for the group was 3.61 ($SD= 2.63$) with the women averaging 3.69 ($SD= 2.64$) and the men averaging 3.29 ($SD= 2.44$). A t-test revealed that the high school involvement scores of the women and men were not statistically different from one another.

By race/ethnicity the cumulative high school involvement scores ranged from an average score of 2.71, ($SD= 2.81$) for the Hispanic students to 4.06 ($SD= 2.85$) for the African American students. An ANOVA revealed that no two racial/ethnic groups were significantly different, $F(4, 101) = .890$, $p = ns$. When considering the combined influence of gender and race/ethnicity, these scores ranged from 2.36

($SD=2.11$) from the Hispanic men to 4.30 ($SD=2.74$) from the African American women. As expected, an ANOVA revealed that the combination of gender and race/ethnicity had no effect on the cumulative high school involvement scores.

Pre-College Support Networks

In addition to asking about the students' involvement in high school activities, the respondents were asked to list the people who played a role in their decision to go to college. In an open-ended item, the participants were asked to list the people who were the most important and/or supportive of their decision to go to college. The list could include family members, friends, faculty members, students, staff, etc. (See Table 10 for high school support network summary by gender and Table 11 for high school support network summary by race/ethnicity).

Overwhelmingly, family members were listed in the high school support network. As a matter of fact, when only one type of person was listed in the high school support network, 76% of the time that category represented a family member. Eighty-eight percent of the women and 84% of the men listed at least one family member as being important and/or supportive in the decision to go to college. These findings are consistent by race/ethnicity where the listing of family members ranged from 64.3% for the "Other" students to 95.2% for the Hispanic students.

Approximately 25% of the sample stated that they (the respondents themselves) were either the only, the most, or, one of the most important people in their decision to go to college. Close to 33% of the sample listed at least one friend as supportive, and 28% listed "others" who were important in their decision.

Less than one-third, (31%), of the respondents listed someone from the academic community (e.g. teacher or guidance counselor) as being supportive

and/or important in their decision to go to college. A chi-square test revealed that a significantly greater percentage of this sample did not list a member of the academic community in their support network, $\chi^2 = (1, N=107), 15.71, p=.0001$. Thirty-five percent of the women and twenty-four percent of the men listed at least one person from the academic community in their high school network. A chi-square test revealed that women, more so than men, indicated a member of the academic community in their high school network, $\chi^2 = (1, N=33), 6.82, p=.009$. By race/ethnicity, the range for students who included at least one person from the academic community in their high school network was as follows: from a little more than 21% of the "Other" students to 40% of the Caucasian/White students. A Kruskal-Wallis 1-Way ANOVA revealed that there were no significant differences by race/ethnicity.

Respondents received a cumulative high school support network score based on the "categories" of people listed in their network, thus the scores could range from 0 to 5. The network score does not indicate the number of people in the respondent's network, but the number of categories that are represented. (See Table 12 for the average cumulative high school support network scores). The average high school support network score for the total sample was 2.05, $SD=.969$. By gender, the average scores were 2.19, $SD=.950$ for the women and 1.79, $SD=.963$ for the men. The average high school network scores of the women were significantly higher than the scores of the men $F(1, 104) = 4.31, p < .05$ indicating that the women in the sample had more categories represented in their high school support networks.

The range for the high school support scores by race/ethnicity was 1.64 ("Other" students) to 2.29 (Hispanic students). By race/ethnicity, no two groups'

cumulative high school network scores were significantly different at the .05 level of significance. The combined influence of gender and race/ethnicity revealed that the lowest average score was 1.00 for Asian men and the highest score was 2.54 for Hispanic men. A one-way ANOVA revealed that the combination of race/ethnicity and gender yielded significant differences on the cumulative high school network scores, $F(9,95) = 2.43, p < .05$ (see Table 13). Specifically, the high school support network scores of the Hispanic men ($M=2.55, SD=.82$) and the African American women ($M=2.43, SD=1.04$) were higher than the scores of the Asian men ($M=1.00, SD=1.00$), the African American men ($M=1.42, SD=.51$), and the "Other" women ($M=1.63, SD=.74$). The scores of the Caucasian/White women ($M=2.31, SD=1.03$) were higher than the scores of the Asian American and African American men. And the scores of the Asian American women ($M=2.15, SD=1.07$) were higher than the scores of the African American men.

Section Summary

The high school experiences reported here suggest that, in general, the students of color attended fairly integrated high schools. On the other hand, the White students attended predominately White, segregated schools. While in high school, the participants were somewhat involved with a variety of activities. Out of all the activities listed, academic/scholarly programs were the most popular. Seventy-two percent of the respondents said they were either "very involved" or "somewhat involved" with these type of activities while in high school. By gender it was found that the women, more so than the men, were more inclined to report involvement in academic/scholarly activities.

In addition to being involved in academic activities in high school, these

students reported a variety of people who supported their decisions to go on to college. The greatest support came from members of the family. As involved as these students were in academic activities, they did not overwhelmingly list members of the academic community in their support networks. A little less than a third of the students listed someone from the academic community in their high school network. For the women, this category was the third most popular, and for the men, it was the fourth. A member from the academic community was the second most popular category listed by the White students. For African American and Asian American students, the "academic community member" category was the third most popular category (and it was tied with the "other" category). For the Hispanic and "Other" students this category was tied for the fourth and last place.

This might indicate that the students' involvement in high school academics was at a general, rather than a personal level. In other words, these students may have been identified to participate in the academic/scholarly program by their academic discipline or their grade point average. They may not have received individual and personal academic guidance. However, in spite of the limited academic presence in their high school support networks, these students went on to college. As it will be shown, the support network the students had, and their exposure to academic activities, had a positive influence on their collegiate experiences.

Collegial Experiences

Racial Composition of College Student Body

The respondents were asked about their perceptions of the racial/ethnic composition of the student body of their college community. Again, on a scale of

0 - 10 where each level represented progressively increasing 10% increments, the respondents were asked to indicate the percentage of students of color who attend their college. The average score for this sample was 5.99, ($SD=2.17$) which indicates that the respondents believe that their student body consists of anywhere from 51-60% of students of color. For the women the mean score is 6.28, ($SD=2.08$), and for the men, the mean score is 5.54, ($SD=2.27$). A t-test revealed that, by gender, there were no significant differences in the perceptions of students of color in college. Similarly, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed that by race/ethnicity the perception of students of color in college was not significantly different for any two groups.

High School and College Comparisons:

The percentage of students of color in high school was significantly correlated with the percentage of students of color in college ($.4204, p=.00$). Further, a t-test revealed that the respondents, as a whole, perceived a significantly greater percentage of students of color in college ($M=5.99, SD=2.17$) than in high school, ($M=4.97, SD=3.41$), $t(100) = 3.15, p = .002$. Women perceived a significantly greater percentage of students of color in college ($M=6.28, SD=2.08$) than in high school ($M=5.18, SD=3.42$), $t(62) = -2.67, p=.01$. Men also perceived a greater percentage of students of color in college ($M=5.54, SD=2.27$) than in high school ($M=4.53, SD=3.31$; however, the difference only approached significance, $t(36) = 1.95, p=.06$).

Individual t-tests among the five race/ethnicity groups revealed that for four of the groups (African American, Asian American, Hispanic, and "Others") there were no significant differences between the perceptions of students of color in high

school and college. However, the White students reported a significantly greater percentage of students of color in college ($M=5.37$, $SD=1.34$) than in high school ($M=2.63$, $SD=2.57$), $t(18) = 4.28$, $p < .001$.

Particularly for the students of color, the composition of the student body from their high schools and colleges is similar. The importance of this finding is that some researchers have asserted that when students of color feel they are under represented within the student body, they express dissatisfaction with the campus community (Semmes, 1985; Capello, 1994). Specifically, it has been suggested that frequently, when students of color are a statistical minority, they believe that the campus community, activities, and organizations within the community do not represent students of color as a whole (Henderson, 1988). This discussion will now report on how involved with campus activities and organizations the students in this sample purport to be.

College Activities

The participants were asked to identify how involved they were with the following college activities: academic/scholarly programs, athletics, political organizations, professional associations, and social clubs. Specifically, the students were asked to rate their involvement with each individual activity based on the following choices: 0 – “not at all involved”, 1 – “somewhat involved”, and 2 – “very involved”. The reports of students’ overall college involvement suggests that in general, these students are only moderately involved with college activities (see Table 14).

In regard to involvement with college activities, the following was found. Close to 90% of the sample stated they were “not at all involved” with athletic

teams, (95% of the women and 77% of the men). Sixty-eight percent of the participants said they were "not at all involved" with political organizations (70% of the women and 63% of the men made this claim). Forty-six percent of the sample said that they were "not at all involved" with professional associations (47% of the women and 43% of the men). Thirty-six percent of the respondents stated that they were "not at all" involved with social clubs (35% of the women and 36% of the men).

These students report that they are substantially involved with academic activities in college. Fifty-seven percent of the respondents reported being "very involved" with academic/scholarly programs. As a matter of fact, a chi-square test revealed that a significantly greater number of respondents indicated that they were "very involved" (rather than the lesser two categories) with academic college activities, $\chi^2 = (2, N=104) = 29.85, p=.00$. Twenty-seven percent of the respondents said they were "somewhat involved" with academic/scholarly programs in college, and 16% of the respondents said they were "not at all involved" with these types of programs (15% of the women and 14% of the men made this claim).

A chi-square test revealed that a significantly greater number of women, more so than men, indicated that they were "very" involved with academic/scholarly programs in college, $\chi^2 (1, N=60) = 8.07, p=.005$. Sixty-two percent of the women and 51% of the men claimed that they were "very" involved with academic activities in college.

The majority of the students by race/ethnicity claimed that they were either "very" or "somewhat" involved with scholarly activities in college. The percentage of these students who claimed that they were "not at all" involved with academic activities in college ranged from 4.8% of the Hispanic students to 25% of the Asian American students. A Kruskal Wallis 1- Way ANOVA revealed that the college

scholarly activity scores did not significantly differ by race/ethnicity.

In addition to the scores for the individual college activities, the students' overall involvement with college activities was determined. (See Table 15 for a summary of these scores). The college involvement scores were derived by combining the scores for all the college activities. The college involvement scores, which have the potential to range from 0 (not at all involved) to 10 (very involved), are relatively low for this group. The average overall college involvement score for this sample is 3.37, ($SD=2.26$). For the women the average college involvement score is 3.29, ($SD=2.21$); and for the men, the average score is 3.62, ($SD= 2.31$). Based on a one-way ANOVA, the college involvement scores are not statistically different by gender. Similarly, a one-way ANOVA revealed that the college involvement scores were not significantly different by race/ethnicity. And as expected, a one-way ANOVA revealed that the combined influence of gender and race/ethnicity did not have a significant effect on the college involvement scores.

High School and College Comparisons:

. A chi-square test revealed that a significantly greater number of students reported being "very involved" with scholarly activities in college more so than in high school, $\chi^2 = (2, N=104), = 29.85, p=.00$. Almost 57% of the respondents reported being "very involved" with academic/scholarly programs in college compared to close to 41% of the respondents who reported being "very involved" with these activities in high school. Only 16% of the respondents said they were "not at all involved" with these types of programs in college, and this is in contrast to 28% who made this claim in high school. A Wilcoxon Matched Pair test revealed that, overall, scores for the scholarly programs in college were significantly greater

($Z = -2.92$, $p = .004$) than the scores for the scholarly programs in high school. By gender, a Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Signed Ranks test revealed that, while the involvement with high school and college scholarly activity was not significantly different for the women in this sample, the involvement with college scholarly activity was significantly higher than the involvement with these activities in high school ($Z = -3.13$, $p = .002$) for the men.

By gender, the findings regarding the students' involvement with academic/scholarly activities suggests that while women are relatively consistent and involved with these activities from high school to college, the men use their college experiences as a time to become more focused and involved with academic/scholarly activities (See Table 16 for comparison of involvement with high school and college scholarly activities by gender).

The majority of the students by race/ethnicity claimed that they were either "very" or "somewhat" involved with scholarly activities in college. In general, these assertions are similar to their reports of involvement with scholarly activities in high school. A series of chi-square tests revealed that the African American, Hispanic, White, and "Other" students were significantly more involved with academic programs in college ($p < .02$), more so than their involvement in these activities in high school. For the most part, these students were more inclined to indicate that they were "very involved" with scholarly activities in college (more so than the lesser two categories) (See Table 17 for comparison of involvement with high school and college activity by race/ethnicity).

Like the high school involvement scores, the college involvement scores are relatively low for this group. The average overall college involvement score for this sample is 3.53, ($SD = 2.76$) compared to the average high school involvement score

of 3.61 ($SD= 2.63$). The difference between the high school and college involvement scores is not statistically significant. Also note, that the high school and college involvement scores are not significantly correlated.

The average college involvement score for the women is 3.29 ($SD=2.21$), which is lower than their average high school involvement score 3.69 ($SD= 2.64$); however, this difference is not significant. For the men in this group, the difference is more pronounced. The average college involvement score for the men is 4.05 ($SD= 3.50$) as opposed to their average high school involvement score of 3.29 ($SD= 2.44$); however, this difference is not statistically significant. (See Table 18 for a summary of these data).

For the African American, Asian American, and Caucasian/White students, the average college involvement scores were lower than their high school involvement scores. Of these groups, the White students had the largest drop between their high school and their college involvement scores. The reverse was true for the average scores of the Hispanic and "Other" students who showed an increase in their involvement scores from high school to college (Refer to Table 18 for a summary of these data). However, no racial/ethnic group showed significant differences between their individual group high school and college involvement scores.

When considering the combined influence of gender and race/ethnicity, the greatest change for college involvement scores is shown by Hispanic men who report a high school involvement score of 2.54 and a college involvement score of 5.27. African American men indicate the same high school and college involvement score of 3.58. African American women report the greatest drop in involvement scores from 4.30 in high school to 3.39 in college.

College Support Networks

Participants were asked to indicate their support network as it pertained to their college career. Specifically, respondents were asked to list the people who were the most important and/or supportive in their decision to go to, and stay in, college. Based on the data, five general categories emerged: Self, Family, Friends, People in the Academic Community, and Others. (See Table 19A for summary of these data by gender and Table 19B for a summary of these data by race/ethnicity). If at least one member from one of the above mentioned categories was listed, an indication was made by the researcher in a simple nominal format (0 = no, 1= yes).

Family was the most notable group listed in the college support networks. As a matter of fact, 71% of the respondents listed family members as supportive, (66% of the women and 79% of the men). In most cases, the majority of the students by race/ethnicity listed family members and members of the academic community in their college support networks. The listing of family members by racial/ethnic group ranged from 57% of the students who identified themselves as "Other" to 87.5% of the Asian students. No significant difference was found in the listing of family members by race/ethnicity.

After family, the next largest group listed for support came from the academic community. This included faculty members, mentors, program directors, and coordinators, students/classmates, and staff. Sixty-one percent of the respondents, 61% of the women and 63% of the men, listed members of the academic community in their college support networks. By gender the presence of an academic in the college support network was not significantly different. The listing of members from the academic community ranged from 18.3% of the Asian students to 81% of the Hispanic students. A Kruskal Wallis 1-Way ANOVA

revealed that the listing of members from the academic community for African American and Hispanic students was significantly higher ($p = .0003$) than the listing of this category for the White and Asian American students.

Based on the categories represented, a cumulative college support network score was formed. This score was formulated by adding the total number of categories represented in the student's college support network. Thus, the possible range for the network score was 0 to 5, no matter how many people one included in the list of supporters (see Table 20). The average cumulative college support network score for this sample is 2.08 ($SD = 1.02$). For the women, the average score is 2.10, ($SD = 1.04$), and for the men, the average score is 2.04 ($SD = 1.00$). The cumulative college support network scores are not significantly different by gender.

A one-way analysis of variance revealed significant differences in the college support network scores by race/ethnicity $F(4, 101) = 3.82, p = .006$. (See Table 21). The college network scores of the African American ($M = 2.37, SD = .91$) and Hispanic ($M = 2.43, SD = 1.03$) students were significantly higher than the college network scores of the Asian students ($M = 1.63, SD = .89$) and White students ($M = 1.56, SD = .89$). The most noticeable difference occurs in the listing of members in the academic community. While 81% of the Hispanic and 77% of the African American students listed a member of the academic community, 45% of the White students listed someone from this category.

The college support network scores were significantly different by the combination of gender and race/ethnicity $F(9, 95) = 2.82, p = .005$, (see Table 22). Specifically, the network scores of the Hispanic men ($M = 2.73, SD = .90$) were significantly higher than the network scores of the White women ($M = 1.46, SD = .97$),

and the network scores of the African American women ($M=2.65$, $SD=.88$) were significantly higher than the network scores of the White women.

High School and College Comparisons:

The college support network looked somewhat different than the high school support network (See Table 23a for comparisons of high school and college support networks by gender and Table 23b for comparisons by race/ethnicity). Specifically, changes occurred in the percentages of the "types" of people represented in the respondents' college support networks. Nonetheless, the high school and college cumulative support network scores were significantly correlated, ($.2831$, $p = .003$).

Approximately 25% of the respondents listed themselves in the high school support network, yet only four percent listed themselves in the college support network. This may speak to the issue of needing to find support outside of the self, and in particular, the need to receive support from specific others in one's academic life.

Family was the most notable group listed for support; however, the college endorsements were not as strong as the high school endorsements. A Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test revealed that a significantly greater number of students stated that family members were in their high school networks, more so than in their college networks ($Z= -3.16$, $p=.002$). In college, 66% of the women and 79% of the men listed the family as supportive, whereas in high school, 88% of the women and 84% of the men listed family. A chi-square test revealed that the decreases between the high school and college family endorsements by gender were not significant (although they approached significance at .06 for the women and .08 for the men).

There could be a couple of reasons for the change in family endorsements. First, it could be the case that as people advance in their academic careers they are more inclined to seek support from others within the academic community. Evidence from this sample supports this claim because members of the academic community are more prevalent in the college support network. Second, it may also be the case that there is a shift in the family dynamic. Specifically, some of the students may have gone from referencing their family of origin to their own, newly-created, families.

A concrete example is demonstrated by a respondent who had a high school cumulative score of 2 and a college cumulative score of 2. Further similarities in the cumulative scores of this student are shown when one considers the "type" of people that this student chose to include. In both instances, the respondent chose a family member and a mentor. In high school, however, the family member was the respondent's mother and in college the family member was the respondent's husband.

After family, the next largest group listed for support came from the academic community. This included faculty members, mentors, program directors, and coordinators, students/classmates, and staff. A Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test revealed that a significantly greater number of students stated that members of the academic community were more prevalent in the college networks than in the high school networks ($Z = -4.53, p = .00$). Sixty percent of the women and 63% of the men listed members of the academic community in their college support network, by gender, these differences were not significant. This is in contrast to 35% of the women and 24% of the men who listed members of the academic community in their high school support networks. The changes between the high

school and college listings of academics in the support network were significantly different. A Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test revealed that the women ($Z = -3.05$, $p = .002$) and the men ($Z = -3.44$, $p = .001$) were more likely to endorse academics in their college support networks than in their high school networks.

The listing of friends increased slightly from high school to college. Forty-seven percent of the women and 34% of the men listed friends in their college support network as opposed to 40% of the women and 21% of the men who listed friends in their high school support network. Overall, for the students in this sample, the college support network showed less of an indication of the self and family, and more of the presence of friends and academic others.

Section Summary

These data suggest that the respondents attend substantially integrated colleges. For the students of color, the composition of the student body of their colleges is comparable to that of their high schools, but for the White students there are significantly more students of color in their college community than in high school. This information has the potential to influence the degree to which students are involved with the activities and organizations on their college campuses. As Baker and Siryk (1980) suggest, students are more likely to be successful in environments that are similar to other familiar environments.

It was found that while, overall, students are only moderately involved in campus activities, they are substantially involved with academic and scholarly programs. These trends are similar to their involvement in academic activities in high school. Thus, these data add support for consistency between the high school and college environments which in turn should have a positive effect on their

collegial experiences.

Further similarities exist between the social support these students received prior to, and once enrolled in, college. These data reveal that the pre-college and college networks were very similar. The differences that did exist were in the types of people the students chose to include in the networks. While family members remained the most prevalent in the students' networks, members of the academic community became more popular in the college networks than in the high school networks. This is important because the literature suggests that students who have better relationships with people from the academic community, and, in particular, who have good relationships with faculty members, are more likely to be satisfied with the college community, are more likely to persist, and are more likely to be academically successful (Abrahamowicz, 1988; Tinto, 1993).

Major Variables

This section has been arranged in the following way. First, the findings in regard to the major variables are presented, followed by the research questions. Be reminded that the empirical relationship between these variables has not been extensively explored, thus, this study can be considered exploratory in nature. As a result, the findings for the research questions will be presented in a somewhat non-traditional format in an attempt to discover any relationship that may exist between the major variables. Therefore, in some instances where the multivariate analyses did not reveal significant results, univariate analyses were employed and reported. Although these are not conventional procedures, it is helpful to identify some of the more subtle relationships that have been found to exist.

Alienation

One of the key elements in this investigation is the respondents' perceptions of alienation. In order to tap this phenomenon, the survey consisted of two standard alienation measures totaling 75 items, and several open-ended and forced choice items.

The Alienation Test is divided into five subsections: *school, self, social institutions, interpersonal relationships* and *family*. Each subsection has 12 items for a total measure of 60 items. The original scoring procedure is based on a 100 point Likert scale that was modified to a 10 point scale for this study. Participants could score anywhere from 0 to 10 on each item where scores of 0 indicate complete disagreement with an item, and scores of 10 indicate complete agreement with an item. Each subscale score has the potential range of 0 to 120, and the total Alienation measure has the potential range of 0 to 600.

The individual subscales, as well as the total measure, were scored. This procedure was employed to determine if the students were experiencing alienation in one aspect of their lives differently from other aspects of their lives. Once the subscales were scored, each student received an average score. Because the average scores are representative of the way the students responded to the individual subscale items, the students' average scores will be used in the following discussion. Overall, the alienation scores of the students in this sample were low. The *school* section had average scores that ranged from 0-6.58 with an average of 1.98, *SD* 1.49. The *self* section had averages that ranged from 0-7.42 with an average of 1.91, *SD* 1.34. The *social institution* section had averages that ranged from .17-6.75 with an average of 3.32, *SD* 1.61. The *interpersonal relationship* section had averages that ranged from .08-6.92 with an average of 3.02, *SD* 1.50. And the *family* section has averages that ranged from 0-5.83 with an average of 2.07, *SD* 1.52. The overall Alienation Test had averages that ranged from .09-5.92, with an average of 2.47, *SD* 1.20.

For consistency, the 15 item Alienation Scale was scored in the same way as the Alienation Test. Participants could score anywhere from 0 to 10 on each item where a score of 0 indicates complete disagreement with an item, and a score of 10 indicates complete agreement with an item. The potential range of scores for this scale was 0 - 150. There was more variance in the responses to the Alienation Scale items than in the Alienation Test items. The average scores in the Alienation Scale ranged from 1.47-8.53 with an average score of 4.16, *SD* 1.41. The respondents' average scores for all of the Alienation items (the 60 items from the Alienation Test and the 15 items from the Alienation Scale) were highly correlated (see Table 24).

The average Alienation subscale, scale, and test scores were consistently lower for the women in this sample than for the men (see Table 25), which would suggest that women in this sample are reporting less alienation than their male counterparts. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), which consisted of all the standard alienation subscales and scale average scores, was put into an equation with sex as the independent variable. This analysis revealed that gender did not have a significant influence on the average scores of the alienation measures.

A series of one-way ANOVAs were conducted to determine if the average alienation scores were significantly different by gender. A univariate analysis of variance revealed that the *self* alienation scores of the women were significantly lower than the scores of the men, $F(1,104) = 8.43, p = .005$. Another one-way ANOVA revealed that the *school* alienation scores of the women were significantly lower than the scores of the men $F(1,104) = 4.96, p < .03$. Although the remainder of the Alienation Test subscales and the Alienation Scale scores also revealed lower scores for the women, they were not statistically significant.

Of particular note are the average *school* subscale scores of the Alienation Test which specifically addresses school-related alienation. Examples of the *school* subscale from the Alienation Test would include: "I wonder why I go to school at all" and "I don't like my school or enjoy my work; I just put in my time to get my degree". As previously mentioned, the average *school* subscale scores for the women in this sample are significantly lower than the scores of the men.

By race/ethnicity, the average alienation subscale scores were highest for people who identified themselves as "Other". For five out of six of the Alienation Test subscales (school, self, social institutions, family, and the total Alienation Test

averages), the students who identified themselves as "Other" had the highest subscale and scale scores. The average Alienation Scale scores were highest for Asian American students and lowest for Hispanic students. Overall, for the average alienation scores, the scores were highest for "Other" students and lowest for Hispanic students (see Table 26).

Using a series of one-way ANOVAs it was found that out of the eight categories of alienation scores, only three revealed significant differences between race/ethnicity groups. The average *school* alienation scores of the "Other" students ($M=3.27$, $SD=1.86$) were significantly higher than the scores of the Asian American ($M=1.65$, $SD=1.10$), African American ($M=1.71$, $SD=1.25$), and Hispanic ($M=1.44$, $SD=1.30$) students, $F(4,101) = 4.81$, $p=.001$. The average *self* alienation scores of the "Other" students ($M=2.97$, $SD=1.75$) were significantly higher than the scores of the Hispanic ($M=1.53$, $SD=1.15$) and African American ($M=1.71$, $SD=1.22$) students, $F(1,101) = 3.13$, $p=.018$. And lastly, the overall Alienation Test scores of the "Other" students ($M=3.24$, $SD=1.42$) were significantly higher than the scores of the Hispanic students ($M=1.91$, $SD=1.26$), $F(4,101) = 2.94$, $p=.024$.

For three out of eight of the average alienation scores, significant differences were found based on the combination of gender and race/ethnicity. First, differences were found on the average *school* alienation scores $F(9,95) = 3.28$, $p=.002$. The average scores of the "Other" men ($M=3.96$, $SD=1.64$) were significantly higher than the scores of the Hispanic women ($M=1.18$, $SD=1.20$), African American women ($M=1.61$, $SD=1.40$), Asian women ($M=1.65$, $SD=.95$), the Hispanic men ($M=1.68$, $SD=1.40$), and the White women ($M=1.95$, $SD=1.65$). Also, the scores of the White men ($M=3.59$, $SD=1.11$) are significantly higher than the scores of the Hispanic women.

Second, the average *self* alienation scores were different based on the combination of gender and race/ethnicity $F(9,95) = 2.89, p=.005$. The scores of the "Other" men are significantly higher than the scores of the Hispanic women ($M=1.09, SD=.77$), African American women ($M=1.60, SD=1.07$), White women ($M=1.75, SD=1.25$), Hispanic men ($M=1.92, SD=1.33$), and African American men ($M=1.93, SD=1.49$). And lastly, the average Alienation Test scores, $F(9,95) = 2.18, p=.03$; revealed that the scores of the "Other" men ($M=3.96, SD=1.31$) were significantly higher than the scores of the Hispanic men ($M=2.13, SD=1.31$) and African American women ($M=2.25, SD=1.19$).

Based on the responses to the standard alienation measures, one ought to consider alternative aspects of alienation. Specifically, most of the items from the measures address subjective perceptions of alienation. Recall, however, that there is also an objective, social structural aspect to this construct. In order to address this issue, some alienation items were developed about specific others that may be related to the collegial experience. The forced-choice items that were developed for this project, as well as the cumulative campus alienation index, were found to be significantly correlated with the average scores of the standard alienation measures (Refer to Table 24).

When directly asked if the college experience was an alienating one, 78% of the respondents said "no" while 22% said "yes" ($n=23$). A chi-square test revealed that significantly more students ($p < .0001$) reported that college was not an alienating experience. Yet, 27% percent of the women and 14% of the men said that college was an alienating experience. A chi-square test revealed that a significantly greater number of women, more so than men, claimed that the college experience was alienating, $X^2(1, N=27) = 7.35, p=.007$. When directly asked in

this manner, greater percentages of women, more so than men, were inclined to report the college experience to be alienating. However, the overall alienation scores of the women on the standard alienation measures were consistently lower than those of their male counterparts.

For the women, the sum of alienation may be greater than the sum of the individual parts. In other words, the items in the standard measures taken individually may not tap the alienating components of the collegiate experience. However, the cumulative experience may offer some unidentifiable and ambiguous alienation for the women in this sample.

When directly asked if the college experience was alienating, the following affirmative responses were found by race/ethnicity. Ten percent of the Hispanic students, 15% of the White students, 17% of the African American students, 38% of the Asian American students, and 42% of the "Other" students agreed that the college experience was alienating.

In order to determine what parts of the academic community were alienating to these students, they were directly asked about certain groups within the college community. (See Table 27). A little more than 41% of the respondents said they felt alienated by the administrators, close to 32% said they felt alienated by faculty members, 29% said they felt alienated by the staff, and 29% said they felt alienated by the students. The only significant gender split is seen in the item regarding alienation from the students. Thirty-seven percent of the women felt alienated from the students, whereas, 16% of the men made the same assertion. A Mann-Whitney U - Wilcoxon Rank Sum W test revealed that the women were significantly more alienated from the students than the men ($Z = -2.27, p = .02$).

By race/ethnicity, the following was found about alienation on campus. Over

60% of the African American students did not indicate that they found members of the academic community alienating. However, 42% of the African American men found the administrators alienating. Fifty percent of the Asian American students indicated that they found the staff alienating while fifty percent said they did not find the staff alienating. Forty-four percent of the Asian American students said they found the faculty alienating while over 55% of these students said they did not find faculty or administrators alienating.

Forty-five percent of the White students found other students alienating and, of these students, 54% of the women and 33% of the men made this assertion. Forty percent of the White students found the administrators alienating and, of these students, 50% of the men made this claim. Over 60% of the Hispanic students indicated that they did not find the academic community alienating, but 50% of the women stated that they found the administrators alienating.

Sixty-four percent of the "Other" students asserted that the administrators were alienating and, of these students, 50% of the women and 83% of the men agreed with this statement. Close to 43% of these students indicated that the staff was alienating and, of these students, half of the men agreed.

Although the respondents did not overwhelmingly perceive the academic community as alienating, many of the students found specific sub-communities to be alienating. Specifically, as a group, administrators were reported to be alienating. When asked in the open-ended items why one would consider leaving school, one student stated, "Not a very supportive environment especially when dealing w/administrators, financial aid, & even student services" (Respondent #30). These data are consistent with other CUNY research findings (See Gittel and Holdaway, 1996).

These students may find the administrators alienating because, in general, the students do not interact with administrators on a regular basis. Many students only come into contact with these offices during major events (e.g. registration) or when they have a problem (e.g. financial aid). In the former case, the administrative office staff may appear to be alienating because of the volume of students they are servicing. In the latter case, the administrative staff may appear to be alienating because the student may not have gotten the result that he/she wanted.

The college students in this sample not only expressed alienation from members of the campus community, but they also expressed alienation from members of their home communities. Ranging from 14% of the sample feeling alienated from their parents to 26% of the sample feeling alienated from their friends, the respondents also expressed feeling alienated from others who were not specifically associated with the academic community.

In spite of these specific accounts of alienation, only 29% of the participants admitted that they had ever considered leaving their current institutions. Alienation was found to be correlated to the students' desire to prematurely leave school. For example, four out of eight of the standard alienation measures had average scores that were significantly correlated with the students' intention to leave school. The average scores for the *self* (.2088, $p=.032$) and the *school* (.2105, $p=.030$) subscales, the Alienation Scale (.2132, $p=.028$), and the sum of *all* of the average standard alienation items (.1922, $p=.048$) were significantly correlated with the "have you considered leaving prematurely" item. Of particular notice are the correlations with the average school alienation subscale scores and the Alienation Scale scores since they specifically address the experience of alienation in school.

It was found that the more likely the students were to indicate that they were experiencing alienation in school, the more likely these students were to consider prematurely withdrawing from school. Further, students' intention to leave school was significantly correlated with their perceptions of alienation within the campus community. An index was formed from the students' responses to the forced-choice items that identified alienation on the college campus and specific sub-communities (administrators, faculty, staff, and students) on the campus. The higher the students' score on this item, the more likely they were to consider leaving (.2079, $p=.033$).

Of those who ever considered leaving the college, only eight percent ever left. Interestingly, the item that tapped stop-out behaviors was not significantly correlated with any of the alienation items. The items that were correlated with this item were related to high school networks and academic college activity. It was found that the more categories that were represented in a student's high school support network, the more likely that individual was to report that he/she had left school prematurely (.4905, $p = .001$). This finding may be related to individuals who are experiencing "homesickness". It may be the case that these students miss the company of those people from their high school networks. In addition, it was found that the students who reported that they were less involved with scholarly activities in college (-.4130, $p = .007$), and the students who reported that their program affiliation made them less involved with school (.4400, $p = .006$) were the students who reported that they had already engaged in stop-out behaviors.

As one might expect, there are a variety of reasons why students would consider leaving an academic institution, as well as many reasons why students actually leave. Based on the responses to the open-ended items, the reasons for

leaving and for considering leaving fell into six broad categories: Personal, Familial, and/or Financial issues; Academic Concerns; Desire to attend another academic institution; and Dissatisfaction with the current college atmosphere.

Program Involvement

The next critical component of this inquiry involves the respondents' perception of their program membership. Recall that one of the primary research questions of this study is to explore the relationship between program affiliation and alienation. Before exploring this relationship, let us first see what the students said about their program involvement.

About half of the respondents reported belonging to a scholars program prior to the year when they filled out the survey. A little more than 84% reported currently belonging to an academic/honors/scholars program. This is very interesting because these data were collected at meetings that specifically targeted these students. It could be that there were some visitors to the program meetings, that the students completed the requirements for the programs to which they belonged, or the question's meaning was unclear to the participants.

Slightly more than 42% of the respondents became involved with their current program because of a faculty mentor (44% of the women and 58% of the men). Twenty-nine percent of the students became involved with their current program because of a student, 18% became involved because of an advertisement, and 16% became involved because of something or someone else.

Close to 89% of the students in this sample agreed that being a part of an academic/scholars program had several benefits such as faculty mentorships, financial support and stipends, preparation for graduate/professional school,

research opportunities, student study groups, and teaching opportunities. Students also mentioned that being a part of these types of programs had other benefits. Some of the benefits listed were very specific such as “early registration and honors credits” (Respondent #100), while others were more general such as “to improve my academic experience, & the exposure to another level of academia” (Respondent #34).

The respondents were asked to indicate how, if at all, the program helped their progress towards the degree. (See Table 28) Based on responses from a likert-type scale that ranged from 0 (not at all) to 5 (helped a lot), overall, the students indicated that they believed the program at least “helped” their progress towards the degree ($M = 3.73$, $SD=1.51$). The men ($M = 4.09$, $SD = 1.17$), more so than the women ($M = 3.47$, $SD 1.65$), were more likely to indicate that the program helped their progress toward the degree. An ANOVA revealed that the differences of the means by gender only approached significance $F (1,88) 3.64$, $p=.0598$. By race/ethnicity the average scores on the *program help* variable ranged from 3.06 for the White students to 4.17 for the “Other” students. An ANOVA revealed that there were no significant differences by race/ethnicity.

Seventy-one percent of the respondents claimed that the program “helped”, “helped considerably” or “helped a lot” in their progress towards the degree. Twenty-eight percent of the women and 45% of the men said the program “helped a lot” towards the progress of the degree. The respondents were asked to give examples of how the program has helped them. These responses reflected issues of organization, focus, preparation, and support for the future such as graduate/professional school or a career. Examples include “It is putting me on a schedule and in focus”, “By providing [a] strong foundation in research and GRE

prep...By being supportive of my goals”, “I am more confident in my choice of becoming a college professor as a result...” (Respondents #16, 9 and 21).

Similarly, students were asked how, if at all, has the program hindered their progress towards the degree. Seventy-one percent of the total sample said that being a part of the program has “not hurt at all” the progress towards the degree. Thirteen percent said the program “hurt slightly” or “hurt somewhat”. For those who indicated that program membership had hindered progress towards the degree, the following types of answers were given: “Not much free time, but that’s nothing new”, “demanding”, and “it will take me longer to finish, but I am better prepared” (Respondents #11, 29, and 31).

Although 82% of the respondents indicated that being a part of the program *had not* changed their overall school experiences, more than half of the sample went on to identify ways in which the program had actually changed their school experiences. This discrepancy in response to the initial item asking if being a part of their program changed their overall school experiences may be due to the interpretation of the item. Specifically, the respondents may have inferred an affective tone to the item (e.g. positive or negative) – one with which they did not agree. Another possibility is that the change was not “major” enough (e.g. grade or level change), but it was a matter of a few subtle adjustments in their college career. Further, college may be “just college”, a means to an end, and so the destination is already planned; it is just a matter of how one gets there. Another explanation for these responses could be that without knowing what was meant by “changing” the school experience, the respondents did not want to choose this item. And lastly, it could be the case that because most of the students claimed that they had previously been involved with these types of programs their involvement in their

current programs may not have been seen as “a change in their overall school experiences”.

Nonetheless, slightly more than 50% said they felt more involved with school because of their program (54% of the women, 45% of the men). Close to 48% said they were more interested in school because of the program (46% of the women, 52% of the men). Almost 62% said that the program provided them with more academic direction (63% of the women, 61% of the men). A little more than 56% said the program provided them with a clearer career direction (60% of the women, 50% of the men). Fifteen percent said the program changed their college experiences in other ways. Taken together, these variables formed an index score called *involve*. This score reflected the respondents’ overall perceived benefits of program affiliation. The *involve* score had the potential to range from 0 – 4. (See Table 29 for a summary of these data). The *involve* scores were not significantly different by gender or race/ethnicity.

In the open-ended items, respondents indicated that the program helped them in a variety of ways that ranged from helping them through mundane administrative tasks to providing them with valuable academic and career information for the future. One of the more frequently mentioned items was the financial support that programs offered and how that assistance related to the students’ participation in school. One respondent stated that the program, “...gave me the money I needed to work less and spend more time with school” (Respondent #104). Students also indicated that their program affiliation had a positive influence on the way they felt about themselves, school, and others within the academic community. Students indicated that being a part of their academic/scholarly program changed their overall school experiences by eliciting praise from faculty

and peers, providing emotional and academic support, and generating an overall better school experience.

Grade Point Average

The self-reported, overall grade point averages of the students in this sample ranged from 2.00 to 4.00 ($M=3.44$, $SD=38.08$), and their major grade point averages ranged from 3.00 to 4.00 ($M=3.69$, $SD=30.38$). No significant differences were found to exist for grade point average by gender or race/ethnicity. As expected, the overall grade point average and the major grade point average were found to be significantly correlated ($.5915$, $p=.00$).

Career

The following was found in regard to the post-graduate academic and career goals of these students. Close to 92% of the sample said that they had a career objective. Their career goals included writer, college professor in a variety of fields (Anthropology, English, Computer Science, etc.), counselor, business person, forensic evaluator, physician, and attorney. Almost all of the respondents indicated that they would be enrolled in a graduate or professional program within the next five years to prepare for their chosen careers.

These findings were consistent across gender and race/ethnicity. Ninety-three percent of the women and 92% of the men stated that they had chosen a career. Sixty-eight percent of the women and 53% of the men stated that the program had helped clarify their career direction. However, the men were more likely than the women to report that the program had confused their career direction. This could be because the women had been thinking about their careers

early on and so they were just solidifying their plans; whereas, the men in this sample who seem to be late academic “bloomers” may also be late in thinking about career decisions. By race/ethnicity, 93% of the sample had claimed that they had chosen a career. There were no distinctions in this group by race/ethnicity in the likelihood that they had chosen a career, or that the program had helped clarify or confuse their career goals.

Research Questions

The primary research question in this investigation is, “***what is the relationship between alienation and program affiliation***”? In order to determine the most basic relationship between these two concepts, all of the alienation and program affiliation variables were put into a correlation matrix. A negative relationship was anticipated between the alienation and program affiliation variables, and that was what was found. Of the five alienation subscales of the Alienation Test, the average scores of the *family* subscale ($-.2225, p=.028$), the *interpersonal relationship* subscale ($-.2273, p=.025$), the *school* subscale ($-.2876, p=.004$), and the *self* subscale ($-.3239, p=.001$) were all found to have significant and negative relationships with the *involve* index (the cumulative score of the benefits associated with program affiliation). The fifth subscale of the Alienation Test, the *social institution* subscale, had average scores that only approached a significant relationship with the program involvement score ($-.1866, p=.067$). The average scores of the entire Alienation Test, which is comprised of the five aforementioned subscales, was also found to have a significant and negative relationship with the *involve* index ($-.3084, p=.002$). Lastly, the total of *all* of the average scores of the standard alienation measures also revealed a significant and negative relationship with the *involve* index ($-.2718, p=.007$).

Significant relationships that were anticipated, but were not found, were relationships between the program involvement score, the campus alienation index, and the scores representing alienation with the individual sub-communities (e.g. faculty, students, etc.). Lastly, the relationship between the *involve* index and the cumulative campus alienation index (the sum of all of the alienating components of the college community) was not significant.

Alienation and Benefits Associated with Program Affiliation

A stepwise regression analysis revealed that several variables influenced the *involve* index (the cumulative score of the benefits associated with program affiliation). In an equation with the alienation variables and the program affiliation variables, the average *self alienation* scores, the *program help* score, and the *alienation by the administrators* score were shown to have a significant effect on the *involve* index. The average *self alienation* score was the only variable among the three that indicated a negative relationship. This would suggest that the higher one's perception of self alienation the less likely that individual would find program membership to be beneficial. This might indicate that the students with high average *self alienation* scores have trouble seeking help outside themselves because of the desire to stay to themselves.

The second step in the above regression analysis, the *program help* score, indicated that the more the students believed that the program was helping their progress towards the degree the more likely the students were to find benefits based on program membership. Recall that the benefits of the program included becoming more interested and/or involved with school and having a clearer academic and/or career direction.

The last step included in this analysis was the *alienation by the administrators* score. The interpretation of this finding would suggest that the more alienated the students felt by the administrators the more helpful their program membership. As a group, administrators are reported to be the most alienating community on campus by the respondents in this sample. One respondent stated, " Not a very supportive environment especially when dealing with administrators, financial aid, & even student services" (Respondent # 30).

Thus, any organization that intervenes on behalf of the students, or provides the students with information or assistance when dealing with the administrators, is seen as helpful.

In their open-ended responses, students indicated that being a part of the program has helped with the registration process and the receipt of financial aid information. Students who feel alienated by the administrators may welcome any program or organization that (1) offers them information or services that comes from the administrators; (2) helps them to forge better relationships with administrators; or (3) intervenes on behalf of the student in student-administrator relationships.

In another regression analysis that included the average alienation scores, the campus alienation index, the campus activity involvement scores, the *program help* score, the *program hurt* score, and the percentage of students of color in college score with *involve* index as the dependent variable, the following results were found. The first step revealed that the average *self* alienation scores had a negative effect on the *involve* index ($p=.002$), and the second step revealed that the *program help* variable significantly influenced the *involve* index ($p=.001$).

A MANOVA was conducted to determine the influence of the alienation variables on the *involve* index, but, as a group, these variables did not have a significant effect on the involvement score. However, univariate analyses revealed that the average *school* alienation scores ($p=.011$), the average *self* alienation scores ($p=.004$), the average Alienation Test scores ($p=.008$), and the average of all the standard alienation items ($p=.049$) had a significant effect on the *involve* index.

Alienation and Progress Toward the Degree

A second set of regression analyses revealed that several variables had some influence on the *program help* score (the degree to which the students believed the program helped their progress towards the degree). Specifically, the *involve* index, the *social institutions* average alienation score, and the *interpersonal relationship* average alienation score, all influenced the degree to which the students perceived that the program influenced their progress towards the degree. The *involve* index, which indicates the benefits associated with program participation, is significantly correlated with the *program help* score at (.2068, $p < .05$). Thus, the reciprocal relationship between the *program help* score and the *involve* index was expected.

The second step in this analysis was the average *social institution* alienation score which indicated that the more alienated one felt in a social institution, the more the program helped with the progress towards the degree. This makes sense based on the structural issue that was made earlier which was simply that large institutions may seem impersonal and overwhelming, and this may stifle students' desire to seek advice on the best way to progress towards the degree. However, being a part of a smaller, and usually more intimate unit is beneficial in many ways such as: (1) the overall structure appears less intimidating, (2) the information you need is usually offered to you so you do not have to ask, and (3) others very close to you are experiencing the same academic challenges. Maybe the dependency on the smaller groups and the frequency with which one meets with these groups helps to reduce the discomfort associated with interpersonal relationships. In other words, one begins to trust in, depend on, and communicate with, individuals who are instrumental in that individual's academic advancement.

The third step suggested that the higher one's average *interpersonal relationship* scores, the more likely that individual was to see the program as helpful in the progress toward the degree. Related to the second step, it may be the case that students who have trouble creating and keeping relationships, and in particular relationships in the academic community with faculty members, students, and administrators, may welcome a program that assists them in this venture. This third step represents the importance of the program as a community of support for the students.

In another regression analysis that included the average alienation scores, the campus alienation index, the campus activity involvement scores, the *program help* score, the *program hurt* score, and the percentage of students of color in college score with *program help* as the dependent variable, none of the variables were found to have a significant influence on the dependent variable. In a similar analysis, with the same independent variables mentioned above and the *program hurt* score as the dependent variable, only the *self* alienation average scores were shown to have a significant effect ($p=.014$).

In an equation including the *program help* score, the *program hurt* score, the *involve* index, the college involvement scores, and the percentage of students of color on the college campus, with the campus alienation index as the dependent variable, no significant relationship was found. Using the same previously mentioned variables, it was found that none of them had a significant effect on the *program hurt* variable either.

Lastly, MANOVAs were conducted to see if the alienation variables had any effect on the students' perception of how the program helped their progress towards the degree; however, no significance was found for either the alienation variables

as a group or the individual variables on the *program help* score.

Using the variables mentioned above on the *program hurt* score, the MANOVA revealed no significant results, but the univariate analyses revealed significance for the average *self* alienation scores ($p=.002$), the average Alienation Test scores ($p=.009$), and *all* of the average alienation item scores ($p=.008$). These analyses also revealed some near significant relationships in the *social institutions* scores ($p=.064$), average *family* alienation scores ($p=.078$), and the average Alienation Scale scores ($p=.058$).

Summary Statement

In general, alienation was found to be negatively correlated with the benefits associated with program affiliation. Of particular notice are the relationships between the average *school* subscale and the average Alienation Scale scores with the *involve* index. It was found that the more likely one is to perceive benefits associated with academic/scholarly programs, the less likely that individual is to perceive alienation in the college community. It was also found that the more alienated an individual is (as indicated by the *self* alienation subscale), the less likely that individual would be to report benefits associated with program membership. In addition, students who found administrators, as a sub-community of the college campus, to be alienating, the more likely those students were to express benefits associated with program affiliation.

Students who had high average *social institution* subscale scores were more inclined to report that the program helped their progress towards the degree. It appears that these students who may have had trouble interacting with the larger, bureaucratic, campus-at-large, found comfort in a smaller, more intimate community

of support that helped them with their academic endeavors. In a similar fashion, students with higher average *interpersonal relationship* scores were more likely to indicate that the program helped their progress toward the degree. It appears that an organization that helps students to form critical campus relationships is seen as supportive and desirable.

Research Question #2 –How do students of color attending traditional colleges and universities perceive the effects of program affiliation on their academic experiences (e.g. involvement, interest, direction), progression rates, grade point averages, and career aspirations?

In the *Results* section there was an extensive account of how the respondents in this sample view program affiliation as it relates to their academic experiences and the outcome measures. A review of that material will be offered here, including a presentation of program affiliation as it relates to the students' academic experiences, progression rates, grade point averages, and career aspirations.

The remainder of this section will address the actual research question which specifically addresses the student of color sub-sample. Within the sections designated to answer the specific research question, however, there will be some comparative data mentioned about the White and "Other" students since these data were collected.

Review

Program Affiliation:

A majority of the respondents in this sample report advantages associated

with their program membership. Almost 90% of the sample expressed a range of benefits that includes faculty and student relationships, financial awards, teaching and research opportunities, preparation for advanced academic study, and career guidance. On the average, the respondents reported that the program (at least) "helped" in the progress toward their current degree; however, many respondents reported that the program "helped considerably" or "helped a lot" in this process. Further, the respondents stated that because of the program, they were more involved (50%) and more interested (48%) in school. At least 60% of the respondents stated that the program provided them with a clearer academic direction, and more than 50% said that the program provided them with a clearer career direction.

In a correlation matrix that included all of the alienation, college support and involvement, progression rates, persistence, grade point averages, and career aspiration variables, the following significant relationships were found.

An index called *involve* was developed based on the students' responses to the benefits of program affiliation. The *involve* index reflected the sum of the way the students perceived that their program membership influenced their involvement in school, interest in school, academic direction, and career direction. In regard to academic experiences, it was found that the *involve* index was negatively correlated to six out of eight of the average scores for the standard alienation subscales, scales, and tests (See Table 30). Of particular note is the relationship between the *involve* index and the average *school* alienation score ($-.2876, p=.004$). This relationship suggests that the more benefits one perceives from program membership, the less likely one is to perceive alienation in school.

Other significant relationships exist between the *involve* index and the

support network scores. Specifically, the *involve* index is positively related to the high school (.2323, $p=.02$) and the college (.3942, $p<.001$) support network scores. These data suggest that the more social support one has for academic endeavors, the more likely that individual is to report benefits associated with program affiliation. Of particular note is the relationship between the *involve* index and the presence of a member of the academic community in the high school (.2509, $p=.013$) and college (.2666, $p=.008$) support networks. An interpretation of these data suggests that students who have social networks are likely to have important others who assist them with their academic careers and who may help them to identify or realize the benefits associated with program membership. Further, once one has had a member of the academic community in his/her support network in high school, it is likely that that individual will assist the student in developing strong networks in college and guide the student into taking full advantage of the collegiate experience. And lastly, there is a positive relationship between the high school and college support network scores (.2831, $p=.003$). This relationship indicates that the more likely one was to have had a support network in high school, the more likely that individual is to have a support network in college.

In regard to the outcome measures (progression rates, grade point averages, and career aspirations) and their relationship to the *involve* index, the following was found. First, there is a positive relationship between the *involve* index and the belief that the program has helped the students' progress toward the degree (.2068, $p=.048$). In other words, the more benefits students associate with their program membership, the more likely the students are to believe that the program is helping their progress towards the degree. Further, as one might expect, the variables that comprise the *involve* index (more involvement with school, more interest in school,

clearer academic direction, and clearer career direction) are all significantly ($p=.00$) correlated with the *involve* index.

Other significant relationships existed between the *program help* variable and the students' potential for attrition. Specifically, the more likely the students were to report that the program helped their progress towards the degree, the less likely they were to consider leaving school prior to receiving their degree ($-.2877$, $p=.05$). The relationship between the *program help* variable and the gender variable suggested that the men were more inclined to report that program membership helped their progress toward the degree. Recall that this relationship was suggested earlier (see "Program Involvement" in the *Results* section). Although only approaching significance, an ANOVA revealed that the average *program help* scores of the men were greater than the scores of the women.

Some other interesting factors related to persistence concern the students' involvement in scholarly activity. It was found that the more likely one was to have ever left school, the less likely that individual was to be involved with scholarly activities in college ($-.4130$, $p=.007$). And lastly, the more likely that a student ever left school, the more likely that student was to report that the program made him/her less involved in school ($.4400$, $p=.006$).

Grade Point Averages:

The overall self-reported grade point averages were found to have significant relationships with several variables. As previously reported, the overall grade point averages were significantly correlated with the major grade point averages ($.5915$, $p=.00$). Recall that there were no significant differences by gender or race/ethnicity for the self-reported grade point averages.

Grade point average was also found to be correlated with the fathers' level of education (.2352, $p=.03$), suggesting that the fathers, more so than the mothers, offer a standard by which the respondents' measure their own education. This may be because, for this sample, the education levels of the respondents' fathers are statistically higher than the education levels of the respondents' mothers $t(101) = 2.30, p=.024$. Other significant relationships exist between grade point average and the students' involvement with college activities (.2689, $p=.01$), and academic programs (.3399, $p=.001$). The more involved students are with college activities, and in particular, academic programs, the higher the students' grade point averages. One conclusion that can be drawn from these data is that the more involved one is with academic activities, the sharper one's scholastic skills become. As a matter of fact, it was found that the higher one's grade point average, the less likely that individual was to report that being a part of the academic program made him/her less involved with school ($-.2690, p=.015$). These findings indicate the students' realization that in order for them to excel in their academics, they must be involved with scholarly activity. And lastly, it was found that the higher the grade point average, the more likely the students were to have indicated that they had chosen a career (.2223, $p=.035$). This last finding, taken together with some of the above mentioned data, suggests that the students in these programs who are involved with scholarly activity, have specific academic and career plans.

Career:

Recall that 93% of the students in this sample stated that they had chosen a career – these claims did not differ by gender or race/ethnicity. The *career* score was significantly and negatively correlated with the likelihood that the students

believed that the program helped their progress toward the degree. ($-.2038$, $p=.051$). This finding suggests that the more likely students were to report that they did not have a career choice, the more likely they were to claim that the program had helped their progress toward the degree. This may be because the program offered the students structure and guidance which in turn helped them to identify a career and work towards that goal. In addition, the *career* score was significantly correlated with the students' self-reported grade point averages ($.2223$, $p=.035$). This finding suggests that students who have chosen a career are probably more focused, and are taking classes that they like (which are probably classes that will help them meet their career goals). Taking classes of interest and classes that are related to one's ultimate career goal may be the reason that the students are academically successful.

Although there was a significant relationship between the *involve* index and the "*clearer career direction*" score, there was no significant relationship between the *involve* index and the *career* score. Specifically, whether or not the students reported that they had a career was not related to the benefits that the students associated with the program. This could be because long before the students entered the program, or even college, these students may have had an idea of the career that they wanted to pursue. The academic support that these students received in high school may have encouraged them to enter college as a way of preparing for their chosen careers. As a matter of fact, the high school network scores were significantly correlated with the likelihood that the students believed that the program helped to clarify their career goals ($.2127$, $p=.036$). This finding, in combination with the presence of an academic in the high school network ($.5398$, $p=.00$), suggests that these students may have had career goals as early as high

school, and that they had the academic support that encouraged them to go on to college to help them to realize their career goals.

Another variable that helped identify the benefits of one's program affiliation is the "*program help*" variable. This item asked the students to indicate on a 5 point likert-type scale (where 0 indicated "not at all" and 5 indicated "helped a lot") the extent to which the program helped their progress toward the degree. The *program help* variable was found to be significantly correlated with the belief that the program helped clarify the students' career direction (.2323, $p=.026$). This finding has several interpretations. First, it demonstrates that students who sense the current benefits of the program also perceive the program's long-term benefits. Although there may not be a relationship between the students perception of program benefits and choosing a career, it shows that the program helps to clarify the career that they have chosen. This is an important finding because many people may think they know what a certain career entails; however, this may not always be the case. For example, one student stated, "Team teaching [with] a professor of my major depart[ment] gave me first-hand knowledge [about] what it is like to be a teacher" (Respondent #61). College is often the time that people gain more insight into their chosen career -- especially when those students are associated with programs that offer career guidance. In a similar finding, there was a negative relationship between the extent to which the program helped the students' progress toward the degree and the students' beliefs that they had chosen a career (-.2038, $p=.05$). In other words, the more likely the students were to believe that the program helped their progress towards the degree, the less likely they were to report that they had not chosen a career. And lastly, the more likely students were to report that the program helped their progress towards the degree,

the more inclined they were to report the benefits of the program (.2068, $p=.048$). These benefits, as previously mentioned, included feeling more involved and interested in school, and having a clearer academic and career direction.

Students of Color

To determine how students of color attending traditional colleges perceive the effects of program affiliation on their academic experiences, progression rates, grade point averages, and career aspirations, the following procedures were employed. First, the students who identified themselves as "African American", "Asian American", and "Hispanic" were pooled together to form a new variable called "students of color". This group included 72 students (46 women and 26 men). Although African American, Asian American, and Hispanic students are reported to have very different academic experiences, these students have been reported to share a likeness in their social experiences (Bennett & Okinaka, 1990; Steward et al., 1992; Steward, 1993). Specifically, in spite of their individual academic preparation and experiences, the students in these groups have often been found to be socially isolated on traditional college and university campuses.

Program Affiliation and School Alienation

Recall that for the total sample the *involve* index (the index of the benefits associated with program affiliation) was significantly and negatively correlated with six out of eight of the standard alienation measures. This trend was similar for the students of color whose *involve* scores were correlated with five out of eight of the standard alienation scores (refer to Table 31). One major difference is that for the overall sample there was a negative relationship between the average *school*

subscale scores and the *involve* index ($-.2876, p=.004$); however, for the students of color this relationship was not significant. Further, like the overall sample, no significant relationships existed between the *involve* index and the average Alienation Scale scores or the campus community alienation index.

For the White students, the *involve* index was only correlated with the average alienation scores from the *family* subscale ($.5224, p=.026$). These data suggest that the more alienated one is from his/her family, the more likely that individual is to find benefits associated with program membership. It could be the case that because these students are so involved with their academics they have become alienated from their families. Another possibility is that because these students were alienated from their families they sought their own niche in program affiliation.

Like the students of color, the *involve* indices of the "Other" students were negatively correlated with five out of eight of the standard measures (refer to Table 31). Of particular notice is the relationship between the average *school* alienation subscale scores and the *involve* index ($-.6611, p=.019$). Unlike the scores of the students of color and the White students, the scores of the "Other" students suggests that the more benefits that these students associate with program affiliation, the less likely they are to experience alienation in school. For these students in particular then, the program works to reduce alienation that they are experiencing in school.

Recall that for the total sample, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with the averages of the *school* alienation scores revealed significant differences by race $F(4,101)=4.81, p=.001$. The average *school* alienation scores of the Hispanic students ($M=1.44, SD= 1.30$) were significantly lower than the scores of

the White students ($M=2.44$, $SD=1.62$) and the "Other" students ($M=3.27$, $SD=1.86$). Further, the scores of the "Other" students were found to be significantly higher than the scores of the Hispanic, Asian American ($M=1.65$, $SD= 1.10$), and the African American ($M=1.71$, $SD=1.25$) students.

An interpretation of these data suggests that for the students of color, one's program membership does not substantially influence the experience of alienation in college. One should also recall that the student bodies of the colleges that the students of color attend are integrated, which is similar to the student bodies of the high schools they attended. Thus, due to the similarity of their high school and college environments, these students may feel socially comfortable or have developed their own coping strategies, and are therefore not in need of the program to affect any experience of school alienation.

Similarly, the White students are reporting that their program membership does not affect their experiences of school alienation. Recall that out of the racial/ethnic groups represented, the White students reported one of the higher levels of school alienation. Further, the colleges that these students are attending are significantly more integrated than the segregated White high schools that they attended. Taken together, it may be the case that the White students are reporting more school alienation because of the differences in the racial composition of the student body. Nonetheless, in spite of the dissonant academic environments, the White students are not reporting that their program membership is affecting their experience of school alienation.

And lastly, the "Other" students, who reported experiencing the highest levels of school alienation, also reported that their program membership is inversely related to the experience of school alienation. In other words, these students report

that the more benefits that they associate with program affiliation, the less likely they are to report school alienation. It may be the case that for these students, who self-identify themselves as being “different” from the community at-large, there is a willingness to admit to their alienated status, and a willingness to accept any help in reducing that alienation.

Program Affiliation and Support Networks

For the students of color, the *involve* index was significantly correlated with the college support network score (.3179, $p=.009$), which suggests that the more “types” of people represented in these students’ networks, the more likely these students are to report the benefits associated with their program membership. Unlike the total sample, the *involve* scores of the students of color were not significantly correlated with the high school network. However, the more likely the students of color were to report the presence of a member of the academic community in their high school support network, the more likely these students were to express benefits associated with their program membership (.3070, $p=.012$). This finding addresses the importance of an academic member in the students’ support networks.

Whereas the overall high school network scores of the students of color were not significantly different from the White or “Other” students high school network scores, it was the presence of an academic that made the difference. In other words, it was not enough to have a well-represented network, but it was important to have an *academic* in the network who could help the students to involve themselves with, and appreciate, scholarly activity. It was also found that unlike the total sample, the more likely the students of color were to have an

academic in their high school network, the more likely it was that those students would have an academic in their college network (.2938, $p=.012$). And lastly, all of the variables that comprised the *involve* index, the items that stated that the program made the students feel more involved and more interested in school, and the program gave them a clearer academic and career direction, were all significantly correlated ($p=.00$).

It should be noted that a one-way ANOVA revealed that the college support network scores of the students of color (pooled together) were significantly higher than the college support network scores of the White students, $F(2, 103) = 3.56$, $p=.03$. Further, as a group, the White students were the least inclined to indicate benefits associated with program affiliation. For the White students, the *involve* index was not correlated with the high school or college support network scores, or with the presence of an academic in the high school or college support networks. Lastly, the presence of an academic in the high school support network was not correlated with the presence of an academic in the college support network.

In general, for the "Other" students, the correlations with the *involve* index were similar to the findings for the White students. The one exception was the correlation between the *involve* index and the college support network score (.8208, $p=.001$). This finding suggests, that like the students of color (and unlike the White students), the more "types" of people represented in these students' network, the more likely these students are to report the benefits associated with their program membership.

Progression Rates

A one-way ANOVA revealed that, by individual racial/ethnic group (across

the total sample), there were no significant differences in the extent to which the students believed that the program helped their progress toward the degree $F(4,86) = 1.5, p=ns$. Thus, the following discussion will, once again, consider students of color as a group.

For the students of color, and unlike the total sample, the only significant relationship with the *program help* score was a negative correlation with the average *interpersonal relationship* alienation score. The lower the average *interpersonal relationship* subscale scores, the greater the likelihood that these students believed the program helped their progress toward the degree ($-.2684, p=.035$). This may address the issue of forging and maintaining critical relationships in the academic community. In other words, students who may not have difficulty with interpersonal relationships may be skilled in seeking out and accessing critical and helpful information from others in the academic environment.

For the White students, there were several significant relationships with the *program help* score. First, it was found that the higher the average *school* (.4769, $p=.053$) and *social institution* (.5480, $p=.023$) alienation scores, the more likely these students were to report that the program was helping their progress toward the degree. This may once again address the issue of having important academic others work on the students' behalf. Specifically, the more alienated an individual is in school or any social institution, the less likely that individual is to initiate interaction with others who will help his or her success within that environment. Therefore, individuals and organizations that intercede on the students' behalf are probably welcomed and appreciated. Interestingly, these students do not enthusiastically endorse the benefits associated with being in the program; however, they do seem to appreciate the program's ability to help with their

progress toward the degree.

It was also found that the more involved the White students were with high school activities (.6248, $p=.007$) and the less involved they were with college activities (-.5338, $p=.027$), the more likely they were to believe that their current program was helping in the progress toward the degree. This may be due to the fact that while in high school, these students participated in a variety of activities in order to establish a firm academic blueprint for their college careers. Once enrolled in college, these students were less inclined to be involved in a variety of activities, but concentrated on the one area (e.g. scholarly programs) that would help them to meet their immediate academic goals. Other significant relationships existed between the *program help* score and the presence of a friend in the college support network (-.6222, $p=.008$). For the White students in this sample, the less likely they were to have a friend in the college support network, the more likely they were to believe that the program was helping their progress toward the degree. It may be the case that for these students their friends were a distraction to the students' academic experiences and goals (especially if their friends did not have the same scholarly investment as the respondents).

And lastly, for the "Other" students, it was found that their fathers' level of education was the only variable that was significantly correlated with their belief that the program helped their progress toward the degree (.6702, $p=.024$). Recall that for the "Other" students, their mothers' levels of education was similar to the African American and Hispanic mothers' levels of education. However, the "Other" students' fathers' education levels were significantly higher than education levels of the African American and Hispanic students' fathers. It may be the case that for the "Other" students, the father is the academic yardstick by which they measure

their scholarly activity. Thus, the fathers may be the ones who advise these students as to how program affiliation can help their progress toward the degree.

Grade Point Average

For the students of color, the overall, self-reported grade point average was found to be significantly correlated with the major grade point average (.5346, $p=.00$). Other significant relationships exist between the grade point average and variables that represent interpersonal experiences with alienation, school related alienation, one's involvement with and support for scholarly activity, and career choices.

First, a negative relationship was found with grade point average and the experience of alienation from friends (-.2574, $p= .037$), college staff (-.2788, $p=.023$), and faculty members (-.2635, $p=.033$). In other words, the less likely these students were to report that friends, college staff, and faculty members were alienating, the higher the grade point average. The importance of not being alienated by college staff and faculty members seems self-explanatory – these are the people who can affect the students' academic advancement, and therefore, it is important for the students to communicate with these people, and not feel detached from, or alienated by them. As for the friends, a little more explanation may be required. Of the total sample, 33% stated that friends were a part of their high school support network, and 43% made the same claim for the college network – suggesting that friends play an important role in the students' academic lives. By extension, then, the absence of friends' support may be detrimental to the students' schooling. Students need to have continuity in their academic lives. If these students receive support in school, but no support from their friends, these students

may be distracted from their academic journeys. Due to the power of peer pressure, it is helpful that these students have friends who support their academic endeavors.

The next group of significant relationships with grade point average exists with the academic atmosphere. The average Alienation Scale scores (-.2676, $p=.03$), and the average *school* subscale scores (-.3324, $p=.006$) revealed significant and negative relationships with the grade point average. These data suggest that the higher the self-reported grade point average, the less likely the students of color are to report alienation in school. A similar finding, that only approached significance, exists between grade point average and the average *social institution* alienation scores (-.2377, $p=.055$). These data suggest that students who are not alienated by social environments, and in particular the school environment, are likely to be successful academically. By not feeling alienated by the environment, students are more inclined to seek and find communities that will support their academic careers. It may also be the case that students of color do not feel alienated by the academic environment because of the similarity between the student body of their high schools and colleges -- if the overall social environment of school is not distracting, then the students can pay more attention to the academic environment.

The grade point averages of the students of color were found to be significantly correlated with their overall involvement with college activities (.3060, $p=.012$), involvement with scholarly activities in college (.2941, $p=.018$), and the presence of academics in the college support networks (.2419, $p=.05$). These data suggest that the more involved students of color are with college activities, and in particular, with scholarly activities, the higher their grade point averages. Further,

the more likely these students are to indicate the presence of a member of the academic community in the support network, the higher the students' grade point averages. An academic in one's network is helpful in navigating the academic experience in an attempt to realize the full advantages of one's college participation. Another relevant finding is the relationship between the students' grade point averages and the students' likelihood to indicate that their scholarly programs have made them less involved in school ($-.2645, p=.041$). Taken together, one interpretation of these data is that when students of color are immersed in the academic environment, engaged with scholastic activity, and receive support from a member of the academic community, their grade point averages will flourish. And lastly, it was found that the grade point averages of the students of color were significantly correlated with these students having had chosen a career ($.2867, p=.02$).

When placed in a regression analysis with several campus experiences including alienation, effect of program on progress towards the degree, benefits of the program, and overall college activity involvement on grade point average, the following was found. For the African American students, the *program hurt* variable revealed a significant and negative relationship with the grade point average ($p=.01$). For the Hispanic students, the *program help* score had a significant effect on the grade point average ($p=.045$). None of these variables had a significant effect on grade point average for the Asian American students. When all three of these groups of students were pooled together into a new variable called "students of color", only the *program hurt* variable revealed a significant F (.012) in a negative relationship with grade point average.

For the White students, only two variables were found to be significantly

correlated with the self-reported grade point average. The “*conleave*” variable which tapped the students desire to leave school before receiving the degree (-.6808, $p=.015$) and the presence of a friend in the college support network (-.7367, $p=.006$) were found to be inversely related to the college grade point average. These data suggest that the higher the students’ self-reported grade point average, the less likely the students would be to consider engaging in drop-out or stop-out behaviors. In addition, consistent with previous findings for this group, these students report that the higher the grade point average, the less likely these students are to report friends in their college support network. Recall that for this same cohort, there was a negative relationship between the belief that program membership helped in the progress toward the degree and the presence of a friend in the college support network. These data taken together suggest that for the White students, their friendships do not help their academic success. As alluded to earlier, it may be the case that these friends are not in the academic arena and thus, are a distraction to the students’ academic endeavors.

For the “Other” students, five out of the eight average scores for the standard alienation measures were found to be significantly correlated with the self-reported grade point averages. The total of all the standard alienation items (-.7004, $p=.016$), the total of the average Alienation Test items (-.6405, $p=.034$), the average *family* alienation items (-.6961, $p=.017$), the average *interpersonal relationship* alienation items (-.7192, $p=.013$), and the average *school* alienation items (-.6925, $p=.018$) were negatively correlated with the self-reported grade point average. Of particular notice is the relationship between the “Other” students’ grade point averages and their average *school* alienation scores. This finding indicates that, for a member of this cohort, the higher one’s grade point average, the lower his/her

school alienation. It appears that if one is involved, and successful with academic activity, that individual is not likely to be alienated by the school community. As a matter of fact, it was found that for the "Other" students, the more likely they were to indicate benefits associated with their program membership (as indicated by the *involve* index), the higher their self-reported grade point averages (.7218, $p=.018$). Recall that three of the variables that comprise the *involve* index are more interest in school, more involvement in school, and clearer academic direction. Therefore, if students are asserting these benefits, and actually realizing them, then it is likely that the results would be realized in high grade point averages.

Career:

Other benefits of the program are expressed by the students in terms of their career direction. Sixty-six percent of the African American students, 62% of the Hispanic students, and 50% of the Asian American students claimed that being a part of the program has given them a clearer career direction. Recall that across the total sample there were no significant differences by race/ethnicity in the likelihood that the students had chosen a career, or that program affiliation helped to clarify or confuse the chosen career path.

For the students of color, the *involve* index (the benefits associated with program membership) was not significantly associated with having chosen a career; however, the extent to which the program helped their progress toward the degree revealed a significant and negative relationship ($-.2538$, $p=.047$). In other words, the more likely the students were to report that the program had helped their progress toward the degree, the less likely the students were to report that they had not not chosen a career. Similarly, the more likely the students were to indicate that

the program had helped their progress toward the degree, the more likely they were to indicate that the program had helped clarify their career direction (2367, $p=.06$).

The more likely the students were to have chosen a career, the less likely they were to claim that the program confused their career direction (-.3265, $p=.007$), or that the program caused them to be less involved with school (-.2489, $p=.044$). The belief that the program helped clarify the students' career direction was correlated with the average scores of four out of eight of the standard alienation measures: the total of *all* the alienation items (-.2600, $p=.035$), the Alienation Scale items (-.2802, $p=.023$), the Alienation Test items (-.2708, $p=.028$), and the *school* subscale items (-.2438, $p=.048$). These findings suggest that the more likely these students are to report that the program helped to clarify their career direction, the less likely they are to report experiencing alienation.

In addition, the likelihood that the program helped to clarify the career direction for the students of color was significantly correlated with these students having: a clearer academic direction due to the program (.5390, $p=.00$), a well-represented college support network (.4836, $p=.00$), academics (.3031, $p=.013$), family members (.2450, $p=.047$), and friends (.2412, $p=.051$) in the college support network, a faculty member introduce them to the program (.2615, $p=.034$), and expressed benefits associated with program affiliation (6370, $p=.00$).

For the White students, the *career* variable was positively correlated with the average Alienation Scale items (.4474, $p=.048$) and negatively correlated with the involvement with high school activities variable (-.4713, $p=.036$). Both relationships are somewhat counterintuitive. First, recall that the Alienation Scale specifically taps alienation in the school community. Therefore, this correlation indicates that the higher these students' average scores on this measure, the more likely they will

have been to have chosen a career. It may be the case that in spite of their alienation from the academic community, these students have decided on a career and believe that they know what is required of them to achieve their career goals. As a result, they may not feel dependent on the academic community to help them realize their goals, especially if they are working outside of school and earning on-the-job training. The second correlation states that the less involved these students were with high school activities, the more likely that they had chosen a career. An interpretation of this relationship (related to the previous interpretation) is that these students may have already started working in high school (e.g. an internship or work-study program), and they did not have the time for high school activities. However, their career goals were already established, and they had plans to enter college to help them realize their goals.

Unfortunately, SPSS was unable to compute correlation coefficients with the career variable for the "Other" students. This may have been due to the small n in each category.

Summary Statement

The students of color in this sample report that program affiliation had some influence on their academic experiences; however, for these students, program affiliation had no significant effect on the experience of alienation in school. Specifically, there were no significant correlations between the *involve* index (benefits associated with program affiliation) and the average *school* subscale scores, the Alienation Scale, or the campus community alienation index. Recall that for the overall sample there, was a significant and negative relationship between the *involve* scores and the average *school* subscale scores.

These data, taken together with the similarity of the student body from high school to college, suggest that: (1) students of color do not rely on their program membership to reduce their feelings of alienation, and (2) it may be the case that because the college student body is so similar to their high school student body, these students are less inclined to experience alienation in school. It may also be the case that while program membership does not help reduce experiences of alienation, program membership helps to keep students focused and engaged in academic activity. Further, it keeps these students connected to a network where important academic information is available and accessible. And so, while students of color do not report a relationship between school alienation and benefits associated with program membership, what may be occurring is a mediating effect that prohibits or hinders school alienation.

One significant finding between program affiliation and alienation was that the lower the average *interpersonal relationship* alienation scores, the more inclined these students were to report that the program helped their progress toward the degree. Once again suggesting that program membership helps to forge and maintain critical relationships that have the potential to positively affect the students' academic goals.

The benefits of program affiliation were found to be significantly correlated with the pre-college and college support networks for the students of color. In other words, the more types of people represented in the students' college support networks, and the more likely these students were to have an academic in their support network, the more likely the students were to express benefits associated with program membership. Further, the more likely one is to have a member of the academic community in the high school network, the more likely that individual is

to have a member of the academic community in the college network. College networks, and the presence of academics in support networks, appear to be very important for students, and in particular, students of color. It may be the case that students who are first generation college goers, and who may not have attended college preparatory high schools, rely heavily upon support from individuals that can offer quality academic guidance. Further, members from the academic community can help students to recognize and take advantage of program benefits.

The students of color were equally as likely as the White or "Other" students to report the benefits of program affiliation, and express the extent to which the program helped their progress toward the degree. The majority of the students of color claimed that because of the program, they were more involved and interested in school, and that they had clearer academic and career directions. It appears that program membership teaches students "academic resource skills". This notion suggests that program affiliation makes students aware of the appropriate academic paths (e.g. course selection), critical networks (e.g. mentor relationships), and career options. It further suggests that the most successful students are those who have mastered the ability to benefit from the resources offered by the academic community.

It was also found that the more likely the students of color were to be involved with college activities, and in particular academic activities, the higher these students' grade point averages. In a similar finding, the more likely these students were to indicate the presence of an academic in their college support network, the higher their grade point averages. Activities, organizations, and people who encourage these students to be involved with, and excel at, academic activities have been found to have a positive influence on the students' grade point averages.

And lastly, the students of color were as likely as the White students and the "Other" students to express that they had chosen a career. However, for the students of color, the benefits associated with the program were not significantly correlated with having had chosen a career. As previously mentioned, the students in this sample probably chose their career long before entering their academic programs, or maybe before entering college. However, a significant percentage of the students of color did claim that the program helped to clarify their career goals.

Research Question #3 -- Do women and men of color perceive alienation differently?

The findings for alienation as it relates to gender were reported in-depth at the beginning of the *Results* section. Here, that material will be summarized and discussed in terms of alienation, gender, and race/ethnicity.

The women in this sample consistently scored lower than the men on all of the standard alienation measures. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) revealed that gender did not have a significant influence on alienation. Due to the exploratory nature of this study, some non-traditional procedures were employed to determine if there were any outstanding relationships between alienation and gender, therefore, several univariate analyses were performed. A series of one-way ANOVAs revealed that the average *self* alienation scores of the women were significantly lower than the scores of the men ($p < .01$) and the average *school* alienation scores of the women were significantly lower than the scores of the men ($p < .05$). In addition, a chi-square test revealed that a significantly greater percentage of women reported that the college community was alienating. Out of several sub-communities that included administrators, faculty members, staff, and

students, the only gender differences occurred by the women in this sample who were significantly more inclined than the men to identify students as an alienating sub-community ($p=.02$).

Students of Color

To determine if the women and men of color perceived alienation differently several procedures were employed. The students who identified themselves as "African American", "Asian American", and "Hispanic" were pooled together to form a new variable called "students of color". Recall that this group included 72 students (46 women and 26 men). A series of one-way ANOVAs revealed that by gender, these two groups did not significantly differ on any of the standard alienation measures.

The students of color were as likely to report that the campus community was alienating as were the students who identified themselves as "White" or "Other", and a Kruskal Wallis 1-Way ANOVA revealed that there were no significant differences by race/ethnicity. Interestingly, among the students of color, the men were more likely than the women to view the college community as alienating. A Mann-Whitney U Wilcoxon Rank Sum test revealed that this difference was significant $Z = -1.88, p=.06$. Recall that for the total sample, the women were more likely than the men to report that the college experience was alienating. Consistent with the overall sample, there were no significant gender differences for the students of color when asked about the perception of alienation in the following sub-communities: administrators, faculty, and staff. Further similarities exist when it was revealed that women of color were more likely to report the students to be an alienating sub-community on the college campus. For the students of color, an

ANOVA revealed that there were no significant differences by gender in the campus alienation index, $F(1,70) = .5721, p=ns$.

Research Question #4 – What is the relationship between gender, alienation, program affiliation, and the proposed, self-reported outcome measures (academic experiences, progression rates, grade point averages, and career aspirations) for students of color?

Taken together, the three previous research questions have addressed the bulk of this question. Question one addressed the relationship between alienation and program affiliation, and it was found that in general, an inverse relationship exists between these phenomena. Question two looked at the relationship between program affiliation and the proposed, self-reported outcome measures, for the total sample and students of color in particular. For the most part, it was found that program affiliation has a positive influence on academic experiences, progression rates, grade point averages, and career aspirations. And lastly, the third research question asked if women and men of color perceive alienation differently. Similarities were found between the total sample and the sub-group of students of color, but generally, only subtle gender differences were found between the women and men's reports of alienation. In order to add to the final level of analysis, the final research question will include data for a variable called "sexrace" to determine the influence of gender and race/ethnicity on the major research variables.

Alienation

A series of regression analyses were employed to determine which variables could predict the experience of alienation on the college campus. In the first

analysis, the independent variables were: the average scores from the eight standard alienation measures, the *program hurt* score (the extent to which program membership hindered the progress toward the degree), the *sexrace* variable; and the dependent variable was the *campus alienation* index. The first and only step entered in this stepwise regression analysis was the total of all the average scores from the standard alienation measures. Thus, the students' perception of alienation in all aspects of their lives was the greatest predictor that they would report experiencing alienation on the college campus.

A second stepwise regression was run to determine the effect of the involvement and support variables on the experience of alienation on the college campus. The independent variables in this analysis were: high school and college support network scores, the high school and college involvement scores, the index of the benefits associated with program affiliation, the *college grade point average*, the *career*, *sex* and *race* variables. The dependent variable in this equation was the *campus alienation* index. Again, the first and only step entered in this equation was the high school involvement score. These data seem to suggest that for the students who were more involved in high school activities, they were also more likely to experience alienation on the campus community. This is similar to the earlier finding which suggested that students with more categories represented in their high school networks were more likely to have engaged in stop-out behavior. Taken together, it seems that for some students who were very involved with their high school community, college is seen as very alienating, and they become "homesick". This may be because these students have left a comfortable and familiar environment where they might have been considered "big frogs in little ponds", as opposed to being a tadpole lost in the waters.

And lastly, a stepwise regression analysis with the college involvement and support variables, the variables that represent the benefits associated with program affiliation, sex, and race/ethnicity were put into an equation with the average *school* alienation subscale scores as the dependent variable. The first step entered into this equation was the *involve* index (the score that represents the benefits associated with program membership), and the second step entered into this equation was the race/ethnicity variable. These data suggest that knowing that one associates benefits to program affiliation, and knowing one's race will be the best predictors of the average *school* alienation subscale scores. Recall that the students of color were more inclined (although not significantly) to express the benefits of program affiliation than their White counterparts. Further, the average *school* alienation subscale scores of the White students were significantly higher than the scores of the Hispanic students, and noticeably higher than the other students of color (African Americans and Asian Americans). And lastly, the White students attended more segregated high schools and more integrated colleges, this change in the student body may play a role in their proclivity toward school alienation.

Program Affiliation

Relationship with Alienation

In an attempt to identify the variables that influence the perception of benefits associated with program affiliation, several regression analyses were performed. To determine the influence of alienation on the benefits associated with program affiliation, the average scores for the eight standard alienation measures, the campus alienation index, and the race and sex variables were put into an equation

with the *involve* index as the dependent variable. The first and only variable entered in this stepwise analysis was the average *self* alienation subscale score. This finding suggests that people who report their own self-alienation are not inclined to express benefits associated with their program membership. This may be because these people are inclined to be detached from their social environment, and therefore, they may not notice or appreciate the benefits of social organizations.

The second analysis used the same above mentioned independent variables with *program help* score (the extent to which one believes that the program helped their progress toward the degree) as the dependent variable. Once again, only one step was entered in this equation, and that was the sex variable. This finding, in addition to the ANOVA performed with the *program help* score and sex variable, reveals that the men are more likely to indicate that the program has helped their progress toward the degree. Recall that men use the college experience to help them become more academically involved; thus, any academic guidance is seen as helping them realize their goals.

Benefits of Program Affiliation

This group of regression analyses sought to determine which of the support variables were the best at predicting the benefits of program affiliation. In an equation with high school and college support network scores, the high school and college involvement scores, and the *career*, *colgpa*, *sex* and *race* as the independent variables, and the *involve* index as the dependent variable, the following was found. *Program help* was the first variable entered in the equation, and the *college network* score was the second. This finding suggests that

individuals who are going to express benefits associated with their program affiliation want to believe that their membership is not only helping their current academic plan, but also their long-range academic plans at their current institution. Based on the relationship between the *college network* and *involve* index, the latter step is understandable. People who are in the college network are likely to advise the students about the benefits associated with program membership, and probably help the students to realize these benefits.

Outcome Variables

In order to determine which variables were most useful in predicting the students' perceived progression rates, stepwise regression analyses were performed. First, to determine if alienation would be useful in predicting the perceived progression of these students, the average scores for the eight standard alienation measures, the *campus alienation* index, and the race and sex variables were put into an equation with the *program help* variable. The only variable entered in this equation was sex, suggesting that the knowledge of the men's alienation scores, more so than the women's scores, will be useful in determining the extent to which these students believe that the program helped their progress toward the degree. Recall that the average alienation scores of the men were consistently higher than the scores of the women. In addition, the collegiate experience was an opportunity for the men to catch up to the women in regard to involvement with scholarly activities. These data taken together help to reveal the importance of having an academic road map for the men. The college experience may be more alienating for the men because of their late academic "bloom". Therefore, any organization that offers structure to their academic activity may be more inviting to

the men than the women.

In a second regression analysis, the intention was to discover which involvement and support variables were the most useful in predicting the students belief that the program helped their progress toward the degree. In an equation with high school and college support network scores, the high school and college involvement scores, and the *career*, *colgpa*, *sex* and *race* as the independent variables; and the *program help* score as the dependent variable, the following was found. As expected, based on the relationship between the *program help* and *involve* index, the *involve* index was the most significant variable identified in predicting the *program help* variable. Students who are inclined to report benefits associated with program affiliation probably consider the progress toward the degree to be a benefit of the program. It is understood that the students in these programs are ambitious and goal-oriented. It is therefore likely that they engage in academic activities that will help them meet their goals. One of the more immediate goals is graduating from their currently enrolled institutions, and program membership can be seen as a way of meeting this end.

College Grade Point Average

To determine the influence of alienation on the *college grade point average*, the average scores for the eight standard alienation measures, the campus alienation index, the *program hurt score*, and the *race* and *sex* variables were put into a stepwise regression equation with the *college gpa* as the dependent variable. Once again, only one variable, the average *Alienation Scale* score, was entered into the equation. This finding suggests that the higher the average Alienation Scale scores, the lower the college grade point average. An

interpretation of this finding is that the students who feel alienated by the school community may avoid it or remain detached from it. This would consequently have a negative effect on the students' grade point average. Students who are detached are less likely to be involved with the scholarly activities which have been found to positively influence the college grade point average.

Another regression analysis was performed to determine which of the involvement and support variables were the most useful in predicting the college grade point average. In an equation with high school and college support network scores, the high school and college involvement scores, and the *career*, *sex* and *race* as the independent variables, and the *college grade point average* as the dependent variable, the following was found. Of the variables presented, the best predictor of college grade point average was the *career* variable. Specifically, the students who had chosen a career were the ones who were likely to have the higher college grade point averages. Considering the trajectory of the students in these programs, this finding is not surprising. As previously mentioned, students who have specific career goals are expected to be working toward those goals. Therefore, students are likely to take classes in which they are interested, and they expect to do well.

The last regression analysis for this dependent variable involved determining the best predictor of the *college grade point average* when there are both, alienation and involvement/support, variables in the equation. The average Alienation scale scores and the college involvement scores were the best predictors for college grade point average in this equation. The first step involved an inverse relationship between the average Alienation scale scores and the college grade point average. The second step revealed the college involvement score as the next

best predictor of college grade point average. Taking these two steps together, these findings suggest that the one cannot be detached from the academic experience, but should be involved with that experience to realize academic success.

Career

To determine the influence of alienation on the *career* variable, the average scores for the eight standard alienation measures, the campus alienation index, the *program hurt score*, and the race and sex variables were put into a stepwise regression equation with the *career* as the dependent variable; however, no significant relationships emerged.

In an equation with high school and college support network scores, the high school and college involvement scores, and the *colgpa*, *sex* and *race* as the independent variables; and the *career* as the dependent variable, the following was found. College grade point average was the only variable that revealed a significant relationship. Specifically, the students with the higher college grade point averages are more likely to be the students who have chosen a career. As stated above, these students are striving for a goal, and in order to reach that goal, it is important to be academically prepared.

Chapter 5 Discussion

These data appear to be consistent with the data about students of color in college in many ways – the number of women in this sample is greater than that of the men. In most cases, the respondents have exceeded the education levels of their parents, and in general the high schools that the respondents attended were not college preparatory. Further, the White students, and, in some instances, the “Other” students, are coming into college and these programs with more years of parental education behind them. Nonetheless, the stories of these students are somewhat different from many of the stories that are usually told about students of color in college. Unlike many students of color who attend traditional institutions of higher education, and who are reported to be alienated and isolated, the students in this sample are academically involved and socially integrated. What is it about the stories of these students that makes them different from the stories that are usually told by students such as these? Based on the findings from this research project a different perspective of college of students will be presented.

Alienation

The concept of alienation was very popular for approximately twenty years between the late fifties and the late seventies. Alienation, in forms such as powerlessness, normlessness, meaninglessness, estrangement, isolation and detachment, occurred in the macro systems (e.g. labor, politics, and education) by which the world functioned. Many variants of alienation have been associated with current post-secondary experiences for students of color, albeit not necessarily in an empirical sense (e.g. Allen, 1992; Nettles, 1990). For this reason, this inquiry set out to determine if there is a need for an empirical revival of the concept

alienation, and how, if at all, the concept can be applied to the college experiences of students of color. What was found in this study was encouraging for the students, and somewhat promising for the utility of the concept alienation.

The measures used in this project set out to identify alienation in areas such as school, self, social institutions, interpersonal relationships, and family. The average alienation scores for this sample never exceeded the half-way mark of five for any of the scales or subscales. As a matter of fact, the average scores ranged from 1.91 to 4.16 on a 10 point Likert-type scale (where 0 indicated does not at all agree and 10 indicated strongly agree). There are several reasons why the alienation scores of this sample may have ranged from minimal to barely moderate, a few of which will be explored here.

First, the participants in this sample could have been expressing “socially desirable” responses to the standard alienation items. In other words, due to the tone or affect that the students may have interpreted from the items, the students may have wanted to appear well adjusted and satisfied, and they did not want to appear detached, isolated, or any other form of alienation. This may be especially true since the research project was conducted by a doctoral student in a psychology program. Many lay people solely associate psychology with clinical practice, therapy, and psychological assessment. Although the respondents were informed, both verbally and in writing, that the researcher was a doctoral student in a *Social-Personality Psychology* program, several students were inclined to ask “clinically” related, rather than research related, questions. Consequently, participants may have responded to the standard measures in a way that may be considered “socially desirable”.

A second explanation for the relatively low scores on the alienation items

could be that the measures were not tapping alienation as the students view the concept. Recall, that both of the standard measures employed in this project, although two of the most recent, were approximately twenty years old (the Alienation Test, Maddi, et al., 1979; the Alienation Scale, Jessor & Jessor, 1977). It may be the case that how researchers operationalized the concept 20 years ago may be different than the way the concept should be operationalized today. In a related fashion, the way that individuals perceive alienation may be different today than the way individuals perceived the concept 20 years ago. This is further accentuated when one considers how the participants responded to the various alienation items. The standard items addressed a variety of general situations, and were answered on a 10 point Likert-type scale. Overall, the responses to these items were minimal to moderate. However, when the respondents were presented with forced-choice items about specific communities on the college campus that actually existed, different results were found. Specifically, respondents were able to definitively identify *specific* alienating communities (e.g. students or administrators). This could be a methodological as much as a conceptual issue, in as much as the items about alienation in the college community were structured differently (i.e. forced-choice) than the items from the standard measures (i.e. 10 point Likert-type scale).

Third, it could be the case that students in this sample are not experiencing large degrees of alienation. Recall, that these students were asked to indicate who supported them while they were in college. Ninety-three percent of the sample had at least one critical relationship with someone who supported the respondents' college career. Of those relationships that were listed, 61% of the sample listed members of the academic community, and 71% of the sample listed members from

their family as supportive in their college career. Being a part of at least one important relationship may be enough to reduce feelings of alienation. Further, the areas that were addressed were largely social (i.e. outside of the self) – school, social institutions, interpersonal relationships, and family. A reference of at least one person from the academic community may suffice to address alienation for the school and social institution subscales, and a reference of at least one person from their family may suffice to address alienation for the interpersonal relationship and family subscales. Thus, the respondents in this sample may have had sufficient support upon entering school and during their academic careers to the extent that alienation in their lives was minimal, if it existed at all.

Lastly, and critical to the research questions that guided this study, it may be the case that program affiliation works in reducing or negating alienation. Specifically, program involvement has been shown to draw individuals into the campus community both academically and socially. As this project, and previous research has shown, students who are integrated academically and socially are more likely to express campus satisfaction, are more likely to persist, and are less likely to consider prematurely withdrawing from school. An additional point that was found in this study is that students not only appear to express current benefits of integration such as becoming more involved and interested academically, but they also express benefits of having a place of belonging in their future plans. Specifically, the respondents not only expressed current benefits, but they expressed having future academic and career plans. Thus, part of the benefit from these programs may actually reduce or negate current feelings of alienation, as well as help students avoid large degrees of potentially alienating situations by providing them with a road map for the future and developing the students' social and

academic skills.

Program Affiliation

The respondents indicated that there were several benefits associated with their program affiliation. The benefits included faculty mentorship, financial support and stipends, preparation for graduate/professional school, research opportunities, student study groups, and teaching opportunities. In addition, 70% of the respondents indicated that their program membership helped their progress towards their current degree, and at least half of the respondents said that because of the program, they were more involved and interested in school, and that they had clearer academic and career directions. The forced-choice items allowed the respondents to identify general benefits associated with their program affiliation; however, when the respondents were asked to express in their own words the advantages of program membership, some interesting things were found.

First, the way that the participants responded to the open-ended items about the manner in which the program helped them provided convergence both *methodologically* and *pragmatically*. The respondents were asked to provide examples of how the program helped them, and their answers fell into several broad categories: the dissemination of Information, Structure/ Focus, General Support/Motivation, Financial Assistance, Graduate/Professional School Preparation, Research/Teaching Opportunities, Career Guidance, Mentor/Faculty Relationships, Peer Relationships, as well as by providing support for academic skills and administrative tasks. Methodologically, the responses that the students provided in the open-ended items helped to validate the choices that were provided for them in the forced-choice items. This is an important issue because, outside of

the standard alienation measures, the survey was developed specifically to address the benefits of program affiliation. In order to develop these items, the literature was consulted, as well as program coordinators and directors, students in academic programs and students who had not benefited from these programs. In this way, this study is really exploratory in nature, empirically investigating the relationship between alienation and program affiliation. The responses to the importance of program affiliation indicate the methodological validity of the items developed for this survey.

On a larger, and more important level of convergence, *pragmatic convergence* was found. Pragmatic convergence refers to the ability of a program to serve its consumers as it professes. It is important to determine what the benefits of the program are intended to be as per the program directors and coordinators, and how the program is perceived by the program participants. Based on the mission of the programs that participated in this study it is their job to offer academic support as well as academic and career guidance to the students. Once again, based on the responses offered by the participants in this study, program affiliation has been found to provide the students with the support and guidance intended. Thus, the issue of convergence has been achieved both methodologically and pragmatically.

Program Affiliation as Communities of Support

On a more conceptual level, this inquiry set out to determine what it is about one's involvement with an academic/scholars program that helps students in their academic careers. Based on the findings from this research project it appears that program affiliation offers students available and accessible *communities of support*.

In most instances, these communities have already existed (e.g. family, friends, faculty, administrative offices), but it is the students' academic experience and program membership that brings the support network together. The respondents offer at least three levels by which program membership influences their academic and career paths: cognitive, affective, and behavioral.

First, on a cognitive level, academic/scholars programs provide students with information that ranges from basic administrative assistance (e.g. course registration, financial aid) to academic and career guidance (e.g. graduate/professional school information, research/teaching opportunities). As one might expect, colleges and universities are fraught with this type of information; however, program membership gives students specific communities where they can seek information, ask questions, and address concerns. One respondent stated, " I know where to ask for help and direction/assistance" (Respondent #70). As it has been pointed out, this can be seen as a structural issue. Students' membership connects them with a small and intimate group of people who know them and are available to provide the students with one-on-one advice. Further, this information is provided with the students' particular academic/career goals in mind. Thus, students who are considering a career in research and college level teaching are more likely to be given information about pursuing a Ph.D. rather than information about pursuing an MBA or a J.D.

In addition to providing students with information, programs also help students to organize, prioritize, and utilize the information. One student stated, "they provided me with a lot of information and they tell us what we should do next" (Respondent #4). Another student stated that the program "...gave me guidance and helped me focus on my goal..." (Respondent #44). Programs provide students

with information in a different way than the campus-at-large. The programs offer concentrated information with the goals of specific students in mind. In addition, the programs help students structure their academic experiences in a way that will benefit the students' ultimate goals by suggesting, and in many instances offering financial awards, research and/or teaching opportunities, mentor relationships, and peer study groups.

Some students rely on programs to provide them with information because they believe they cannot access this information from the campus-at-large. One respondent stated, "the program gives me information that is otherwise unavailable" (Respondent #5). Programs not only make the information available, but they also help to direct students as to the best way to benefit from courses, mentor-relationships, and work opportunities. One respondent stated, "I was able to work one-on-one with mentor to choose my classes. Because of the program I was able to substitute some requirements for classes that were more related to my interests without being set back" (Respondent #23).

In addition to programs offering information as to the best way to maneuver the current academic experience, students report that these programs have given them valuable information for preparing to enter graduate or professional school and their chosen careers. One student stated, "I did not have to worry about graduate school while doing undergraduate studies, I felt that others were caring and offering answers therefor[e] I could concentrate on the materials I was studying" (Respondent #51). Another student wrote, "...less worried about my goal of getting to medical school" (Respondent #82). And still other students conveyed that the program was helpful in offering insight into the actual process of applying for advanced study. One respondents stated, "Provided information about GRE

preparation, writing of personal statement, financial aid" (Respondent #52).

Program affiliation offers students a community that not only provides them with information, but also offers ideas as to the best way to organize and utilize this information. Students may be aware of the abundance of information that is available on the college campus, and they may know where they can go for that information, but they seem to appreciate having smaller, constant communities of support where people know them and respond to them as valued members of the academic community.

By way of affect, program affiliation offers students an emotional level of support. Students report that program membership influences the way they feel about themselves, school, and others within the academic community. Students have stated that program membership has raised their confidence, enhanced their esteem, and served as a source of "encouragement and motivation" (Respondent #91). One respondent stated, "[the students] are encouraged and rewarded for working hard and doing well in school" (Respondent #32). Students have been especially aware of the difference that their program affiliation has made on their status in the academic community. It is important that students are not only integrated in the academic community, but appreciated, respected, and valued within that community. Students have reported that program membership has made others within the academic community not only take notice, but offer them praise as well. One respondent stated, "I get congratulated constantly, which of course is always welcome" (Respondent #17). Program membership not only changes the way that students feel about themselves, but also the way they believe that they are perceived. One respondent stated, "my peers and professors have a higher regard for me (Respondent # 105).

Further, program affiliation influences the way students feel about school -- they have stated that this association has helped their progress towards their current degree, has made them more involved and interested in school, and has given them a clear academic and career direction. In addition, respondents comment on how important it is to be a part of a community of students like themselves. One respondent stated that the program made available "emotional and educational support from fellow students" (Respondent #86). Another respondent stated that the program "helped me to focus on my goal with other students who have the same interests" (Respondent #85).

And lastly, on a behavioral level, program affiliation helps physically to draw the students into the academic environment. Many programs have regularly scheduled meetings where students gather for workshops, seminars, and the presentation of their own progress. In addition, some programs have a lounge area where students, faculty and staff meet to exchange information (formally and informally), and where there is a bulletin board with academic, fellowship, and work opportunities. One respondent stated that the program "...gave me the money I needed to work less and spend more time with school" (Respondent #104). By having access to a familiar and intimate area to work and socialize with others in the program, students are found to take advantage of the above mentioned benefits of their program membership.

The issue of financial aid is one benefit of program membership that has several advantages. In some instances, students' financial awards help draw them into the academic community by providing the students with teaching and research opportunities. In other instances, program affiliation is accompanied by some monetary reward in the form of tuition waiver or as a stipend which affords students

more time to spend in the academic arena. Students have expressed that this type of support has played a critical role in their college experience. As one respondent states, "It has allowed me not to work outside school this semester so that I can concentrate on my studies" (Respondent #58). Another respondent stated, "...it would be impossible for me to attend school without the [money]" (Respondent #33). Financial support is not only important for students who have financial need, but it also shows that as academics the students are worth a financial investment.

Program affiliation offers students an entry to the academic and professional community by providing students with communities of support. Students state that family and friends also support their academic and career endeavors. It is important to include these individuals in the community of support for the sake of continuity across their academic and personal lives. Having an established community of support in the academic sphere gives family members and friends something to attach themselves to -- especially if the student is a first generation college-goer.

Gender

One of the first significant differences by gender is the respondents' mothers' level of education. The education levels of the female respondents' mothers are significantly higher than the education levels of the male respondents' mothers. This distinction may be enough to offer the female students, rather than the male students, a stronger and earlier academic foundation. It appears that the women in this sample were serious about education early in their academic careers, but the men needed some assistance. These data are consistent with other CUNY research that states that the women come into CUNY college academically more prepared

than their male counterparts (see Lavin et al., 1996)

By gender, the participants in this sample responded similarly to their overall involvement in high school and college activities. Out of a range of activities which included academic/scholarly programs, athletic teams, political organizations, professional organizations and social clubs, the respondents revealed overall moderate involvement scores. Distinctions did occur between the involvement that the women and men had with high school academic and scholarly programs. The women were significantly more involved than the men with these programs in high school. By the time this cohort reached college however, the academic/scholarly involvement scores of the men were similar to the scores of the women. Suggesting that, in college, the academic involvement of the men catches up to the involvement of the women.

What seems to happen is that men use college as an opportunity to become more academically involved, and based on their admissions, their involvement is largely due to relationships that they have with members of the academic community. A greater percentage of men, more so than women, admit that they became involved with their current program because of a faculty member. This suggests that men receive and are receptive to the invitation into the academic community, but it also suggests that they need the personal invitation. Further, like the women, the men increase the presence of academics in their college networks. In addition, the men in this sample, more so than the women, were more inclined to indicate that the academic program helped their progress toward the degree. The men seem to want assistance in focusing, structuring, and realizing their academic potential.

Another noteworthy difference occurs between the way that the women and

men in this sample responded to the alienation items, as those items pertain to school. First, the average *school* subscale scores of the women were significantly lower than the scores of the men. The reason that the men may be reporting larger degrees of alienation than the women may be due to the fact that the men are getting acclimated to the “seriousness” of academics. The relative “newness” of the development of their academic selves and their involvement and interest in school may be enough to cause the men to feel alienated by the school community. Conversely, the academic selves of the women may be stronger due to the continuity experienced in their academic interest and involvement between high school and college.

Interestingly, in the forced-choice items, a greater percentage of the women indicated that they found the college community alienating. Further, out of several sub-communities on the college campus, women were significantly more likely than the men to identify the students as an alienating sub-community. This could be because when women think of college, they strictly think in terms of the academics with which they may be more comfortable; however, when the issue of the social climate comes into play, women might consider this aspect of school alienating.

And lastly, it must be noted that women and men are, at best, experiencing moderate levels of alienation. The fact is that they seem to be responding to different things – men appear to be alienated by the academic environment, while women seem to be alienated by the social environment. And the methodological issue should not go unmentioned. Men were significantly more alienated on the standard alienation measures where the responses ranged from 1 to 10 on a likert-type scale, and the women were significantly more alienated on forced-choice, categorical items.

Students of All Colors

This inquiry set out to determine if students of color are less successful than their White counterparts because they are less involved with the academic community. It was found that whoever is uninvolved with the academic community is less likely to be academically successful.

One of the first unexpected findings from this research project is the range of individuals who were reluctant to classify themselves in the predetermined racial/ethnic categories. Although these students were provided with 5 categories (African American, Asian American, Caucasian/White, Hispanic, and Native American), several students chose to identify themselves as "Others". Some of whom identified their "otherness" as Biracial, Jewish, Italian-American, and West Indian. As one might expect, this category may have offered more within-group distinctions than between-group distinctions. It seems that by self-categorizing oneself as "Other", one has already admitted some degree of alienation. The data revealed that, in many instances, where the scores of these students were not significantly different from the rest of the sample, their scores were still extreme. For example, the "Other" students represented the largest percentage of the racial/ethnic groups who claimed that the college experience was an alienating one. In other instances, the scores for the "Other" students did reveal significant differences. The average *school* alienation subscale scores of the "Other" students were significantly higher than the scores of the African American, Asian American, and Hispanic students. And so it appears that part of the problem of alienation is not fitting in to pre-conceived categories.

A second interesting finding involves the students who identified themselves as White. It has been suggested that comfort in the academic atmosphere is

related to being a part of the statistical majority. While this experience existed for the White students in high school it was compromised in college. In other words, White students reported that they attended predominately White high schools; however, upon entering college, they expressed that the student body was significantly more integrated. This change in environment may be enough to create an experience of alienation for the White students. Although not significantly different, the White students showed the largest decrease between their high school and college involvement scores. In addition, the presence of academics in the White students college network, was significantly lower than the listings of academics in the college networks of the African American and Hispanic students. Further, the White students' overall college network scores were significantly lower than the African-American and Hispanic students' network scores. And although not statistically different by race/ethnicity, the White students were the least inclined to express benefits associated with program affiliation, and the least likely to claim that the program helped their progress toward the degree. It could be that the college atmosphere is more constricting, and therefore, more alienating to the White students based on the relative comparison to their high school atmosphere. For this reason, these students may be less involved with school activities, less likely to seek out social support, and less likely to be impressed with program membership.

And so, when asked if students of color fare worse than their White counterparts in college because of alienation, the answer is, perhaps. For the students of color in this sample, however, that is not the case. When the African American, Asian American, and Hispanic students were put into one variable called "students of color", a series of ANOVAs revealed that they did not statistically differ

from the White or "Other" students on most of the major variables. For instances, no significant differences existed between these groups on the following variables: the high school involvement scores, the high school network scores, the college involvement scores, or the program affiliation benefits index. However, the students of color did have significantly higher college network scores than the White and "Other" students.

These data may appear encouraging for students of color, but it seems that the students in this sample do not represent the "average" student of color. The students in this sample are academically competent and involved, and have support for their academic and career plans. In general, the students in this sample do not represent the "average" student, let alone the "average" student of color. The literature about students of color usually reflects their lack of involvement, their prolonged progression rates, and their mediocre grade point averages. Based on the literature review presented earlier, most students of color are not very engaged with activities on campus, and college "success stories" for these students are rare. The difference with the students in this sample is that they have talent, and a community that is willing to invest in, and develop that talent. In addition, because these students are engaged in academic activities, they have already identified people within that community who are supportive of their academic and career plans. In short, these students have tapped into the resources that have been found to have a positive influence on their college experiences.

Limitations

Research of this type is important and necessary. As with any research project this endeavor could have been better in several ways.

Sample

One of the most glaring points to address is that of sample size. While this was in many ways a sample of availability (not convenience), it may not represent all successful students of color in the senior colleges of the City University of New York. As one might expect, bright students are frequently recruited for, and accepted by honors and scholars programs. The City University of New York is no different in this respect. Students of color are frequently sought by programs that seek to enhance their academic experiences. However, many programs are bound by the numbers of participants that can be supported. Although the response rate per program was actually quite high, the results could have been enhanced if there were substantially larger numbers of students of color. Specifically, if each racial/ethnic group had at least 50-60 students per cell, the interpretation of the results by race/ethnicity could have been stronger. Further, due to insufficient *n*'s it was impossible to determine the effect that the very unique campus environments had on the students' experiences of alienation.

Another issue about the sample that would have been helpful would have been to include successful students in programs and also successful students who are not associated with programs. This would have given the research a perspective of successful students who do not have the formal aspects of support in place. A comparison of this type would allow one to see the importance of these programs and the importance of the components associated with them. In lieu of this type of comparison is a point that will be brought up again later in the "data collection" section. It might have been helpful if these students filled out some pre-program, college information about their academic experiences, and how, if at all, their program affiliation affected their collegiate experiences.

Lastly, it would be helpful to collect data from students who may not have been identified as “successful students”. Ideally, a case could be made for randomization in this scenario. If one were able to recruit students who were not initially academically successful and randomly assigned them to a scholars’ program condition or not, one could really get a sense of the work that these types of programs are doing.

Data Collection

There are many ways that this phase of the project could have been improved. First, as previously mentioned, data collection could have occurred in a longitudinal rather than cross-sectional method. This would have helped gain a more accurate perspective of the respondents prior to their association with the program. It could have offered a more precise within-subject comparison, and thus, a more accurate assessment of the effects of the programs.

In addition, this longitudinal data might help to identify points wherein students might feel and manifest alienation. For example, are there common points where students engage in dropout or stop-out behaviors? Did the perception of alienation change as one progressed academically (i.e. did the alienation score increase or decrease as one became more advanced academically)? If the alienation scores did change, was it because the students believed that they had achieved a better “fit”, or was there a more cognitive adjustment?

Another way to enhance the data of this type is to supplement the survey data with data collected from focus groups and interviews. This became clear when the researcher became privy to some conversations that resulted from the survey, or heard discussions that were related to the topics covered in the survey.

Students appeared to express some of this type of information in the open-ended items in the survey, but not to the extent and with the richness heard in their conversations.

And lastly, it would have been helpful to collect data from the program directors and coordinators regarding the demographics and history of their program (e.g. race, sex, SES, history of program, length of student involvement, benefits to students, etc.). Although the response rate by program was high and seems to accurately represent the students in each of the programs, this objective information would provide yet another contextual level to interpret the data. Further, although this was not an evaluation project, it would have been helpful to determine what aspects of each of the programs have been found to be most beneficial by the students.

Survey

Based on the data collected from the survey, one can tell that the participants were thoughtful and informative in their responses; nonetheless, there are several aspects of the actual survey that could have been changed. First, one should consider that the standard measures used in this study were almost twenty years old. Although this type of research is not as popular as it was in the late sixties and seventies, a more up-to-date measure is necessary. One that might more accurately tap issues relevant to today's college students. For example, it was found that women responded differently to the standard school alienation items than they responded to the questions that asked them about specific communities on the college campus. It may be the case that if questions were asked that directly addressed potentially alienating situations such as with administrators or other

students, different results regarding alienation may have been found.

Second, one major omission was a series of questions regarding the respondents' financial situation. Based on conversations that the researcher had with program coordinators and directors, and based on some of the participants' responses to the open-ended items, it is clear that several of the programs offer financial support (e.g. tuition waivers, stipends, assistantships); however, there was no component built into the survey to assess the respondents' financial situation. In addition, it is not clear how many students work, or if their work is academically related. Thus, more explicit information regarding the students' finances would have been helpful in understanding the importance of this component of support.

It might have also been beneficial to collect some information from standard and objective sources such as the registrar's or student records offices. This would have been especially helpful when collecting information for the outcome measures such as grade point averages and progression rates.

Lastly, the demographics section could have been enhanced by providing the respondents with a list of racial/ethnic categories that more accurately represented the diversity of the CUNY college students.

Implications and Conclusion

Exploring the relationship between alienation and program affiliation has proven to be very useful. In general, students have acknowledged that they experience some degree of detachment, isolation, or estrangement. Further, they have acknowledged the benefits associated with membership in an academic/scholarly program. As expected, a negative relationship emerged between alienation and program affiliation. In other words, the more likely one was

to express benefits associated with the program membership, the less likely that individual was to express alienation. The results of this study have several implications.

One of the major benefits of program affiliation to consider is that of communities of support. These data suggest that academic success is not just a matter of attending classes, but of being a part of an academic community that respects, values, and supports the academic and career aspirations of the student. Program affiliation creates and offers students communities of support to help them in their academic journey. One aspect of these communities is the social support network. Although these networks can represent a variety of people, it has been found most beneficial when the networks represent members of the academic community. As one might expect, a member of the academic community might be one of the best people to offer advice on class selection, financial awards, relevant work opportunities, appropriate study habits, advanced academic pursuits, and career aspirations.

An advantage that is related to communities of support is the structural issue. Students have stated that one of the advantages of program affiliation is knowing where to go for information. Students seem appreciative of a small, intimate community that knows them personally and knows their academic needs and goals. Students have also suggested that it is helpful to know where and from whom to seek out information. The program offers a microcosm of the campus where students can locate information. Further, due to the nature of the programs, many students do not have to ask for information, it is offered to them. These data suggest that students appreciate communities that work on their behalf. Students have stated that they can concentrate on, and spend more time with, their

schoolwork because of their program membership. These students realize that there is a community of individuals who actively work on the students' academic behalf. Students have also been found to utilize the program as a way of creating and maintaining important campus relationships. And lastly, students have been appreciative when the program staff has intervened, or acted on the behalf of the students.

Another issue that emerged from this data is the importance of *continuity*. It has been found that the students who are the most successful are those who have continuity in their academic lives. For example, the social atmosphere of school has been found to influence the academic experience of students. While students' involvement in college is largely contingent upon academic competence, one should not underestimate the importance of the social environment. Students have been found to be distracted from their studies because of their social environment. This could happen because students are dissatisfied with their environment, or they are too involved with social activities. In this project, it was found that for the White students who attended segregated secondary schools and went on to integrated post-secondary institutions experienced some social and academic adjustments. In other words, the change in, and adaptation to, the social environment may have distracted the students from their academics. As a matter of fact, the involvement of these students in school activities dropped noticeably from high school to college. Similarly, the presence of academics in their college network decreased from high school to college. And so, some attention should be paid to the influence that continuity in the social climate has on the students' academic progress.

This case for continuity does not endorse the position that students who

attend high schools in which they were part of a statistical majority must therefore attend colleges in which they will be part of the statistical majority. This perspective would support segregated, and in many instances, unequal, education, and this is not the position of this paper. The endorsement for similar environments stems from the desire for the students to feel familiar and comfortable with their social environments to the extent that the students can concentrate on their academic work. Further, the suggestion for a college environment with others who are similar to those from high school is not necessarily an argument for demographic similarity, but for others, including and beyond those of similar race/ethnicity, who are interested in academic challenge and intellectual growth.

Continuity in social support has been found to positively affect one's academic career. In general, it was found that people who had well-represented high school support networks were more likely to have well-represented college networks. More importantly, as these students entered college, the presence of academics became more prevalent. Students who had academics in their high school networks were more likely to have academics in their college networks. These data suggest that students with strong pre-college networks are likely to benefit from their associations, and find themselves in stronger academic networks in college.

It is also important to realize that there needs to be continuity between the academic and social spheres. As it has been mentioned, these are two distinct, yet inter-related communities. This research, and the research of others, has found that students who are socially engaged in the campus community are more likely to be engaged academically, to forge critical campus relationships, and be academically successful. Thus, although social integration may not be a requisite

for graduation, it appears to serve as an important precursor to academic integration and ultimately academic success.

The last issue to be considered here is that of recruitment into academic/scholars programs. These data suggest that the benefits of program affiliation are likely to go to those who are already goal-oriented. Most of the students in these programs are already involved with academic activity, and already have a supportive college network. In addition, these students have chosen a career and are actively working toward that goal. These students are ambitious, driven, and directed. Many of these students credit faculty members with introducing them to their current program. However, based on the type of students that they are, it is likely that they: (1) would have identified the program (or a similar one) on their own, or (2) would have found another route to help them achieve their goals. It is important to note that all students are not ambitious, driven, and directed, as a matter of fact, most students are not.

Program affiliation has many benefits; however, not all students are equally likely to assume membership and realize the advantages associated with that membership. What these programs have been found to do is attract students, or faculty members who are aware of students who are academically competent and involved, and further develop their scholastic talents. As a matter of fact, it is probably true that the students who would benefit the most from program affiliation are the least likely to be part of these programs. Students who may be alienated, academically floundering, uninterested, and without direction, are the ones who would benefit the most from program membership. However, due to these circumstances, these students are: (1) unlikely to be aware of these programs, (2) unlikely to be qualified for these programs, or (3) unlikely to have relationships with

others (especially in the academic community) who can help them to appropriately engage themselves in academic activity. These programs might be more effective if they offered a component wherein, the program staff identifies those students early in their college career who may not have shown evidence of academic excellence (e.g. high grades), but who show potential. One way of doing this is by incorporating program affiliation into the general academic structure. In this way, students would not have to seek out the programs, but the programs would be part of every student's "academic entitlement". As one student stated in the open-ended items, "It made me realize that students are short changed without these programs and that they [the programs] should be more main-stream" (Respondent #46).



Appendix A

Student Opinions About The Collegial Experience

Dear Student,

My name is Nicole Holland, and I am a Social-Personality Psychology doctoral student at the Graduate School and University Center of the City University of New York. I am conducting a research project about how students view their college experiences and *I need your help!*

This research project sets out to explore students' opinions and attitudes about a variety of topics including college experiences. Your participation in this project would consist of filling out this survey. Further, if you decide to participate in an individual and/or group interview, I will schedule it with you at a later date. The interviews will be audio taped in order to capture all relevant responses. If you participate in an interview, you may request to hear the audio tape with your responses. After hearing the tape, you have the option to withdraw portions or all of your responses. The survey should take approximately a half an hour to fill out, and the interviews can range anywhere from fifteen minutes to an hour.

If you agree to participate in this research project, detach the following page, fill it out, and return it to me separate from the survey. Participation in this project is voluntary and may be discontinued at anytime without penalty. Your participation does not affect your grades or college records in any way. Participation in this project does not involve any foreseeable risk.

Do not write your name anywhere on the survey. This will insure your anonymity. Feel free to be candid in your responses. The information collected for this project will only be used for research purposes. All information collected is confidential.

If you have any questions about the research project feel free to contact one of the following people: Nicole Holland at (212) 642-2547 or Dr. Michelle Fine at (212) 642-2509. If you have any questions about your rights as a participant contact: the Office of Sponsored Research, City University of New York at (212) 642-2059.

Sincerely,

Nicole E. Holland
Doctoral Candidate

THE GRADUATE SCHOOL AND UNIVERSITY CENTER

IS THE CITY UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK'S DOCTORATE-GRANTING INSTITUTION WHICH OPERATES IN CONSORTIUM WITH ALL THE CUNY CAMPUSES

BERNARD M. BARUCH COLLEGE
BOROUGH OF MANHATTAN
COMMUNITY COLLEGE
BRONX COMMUNITY COLLEGE
BROOKLYN COLLEGE
THE CITY COLLEGE

THE CITY UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK
MEDICAL SCHOOL
THE CITY UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK
SCHOOL OF LAW AT QUEENS COLLEGE
THE COLLEGE OF STATEN ISLAND
EUGENIO MARIA DE HOSTOS
COMMUNITY COLLEGE

HUNTER COLLEGE
JOHN JAY COLLEGE OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE
KINGSBOROUGH COMMUNITY COLLEGE
FIORELLO H. LAGUARDIA COMMUNITY COLLEGE
HERBERT H. LEHMAN COLLEGE
MEDGAR EVERS COLLEGE

MOUNT SINAI SCHOOL OF MEDICINE
(AFFILIATED)
NEW YORK CITY TECHNICAL COLLEGE
QUEENS COLLEGE
QUEENSBOROUGH COMMUNITY COLLEGE
YORK COLLEGE

Appendix A

**Student Opinions About The Collegial Experience
Consent Form**

_____ (Today's Date)

I have read and received a brief description of the research project that I have been asked to participate in and I agree to:

_____ Fill out this survey;

_____ Fill out this survey, and participate in an individual interview
(fill out information below);

_____ Fill out this survey, and participate in a group interview
(fill out information below).



If you agreed to participate in an individual and/or group interview please fill out the information below:

_____ Name (Please Print)

_____ College Campus

_____ Area Code and Phone Number

_____ Best Day and Time to Call

Appendix B -- Survey

ID _____
(do not write in this space)

Instructions. The items below consist of statements with which you may agree or disagree. Please indicate how you feel about each item by placing a number from zero to 10 in the space provided. A zero indicates that you feel this item is not at all true; 10 indicates that you feel this item is completely true.

As you will see, *many of the items are worded very strongly*. This is so you will be able to decide the degree to which you agree or disagree.

Please read the items carefully. Be sure to answer on the basis of the way you feel right now. Answer honestly. Keep in mind there are no right or wrong answers, and remember, your responses are confidential.

These items have to do with your attitude toward SCHOOL.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Not at all true										Completely true

- _____ 1. Those who attend college are manipulated by college professors or administrators.
- _____ 2. I wonder why I go to school at all.
- _____ 3. Most of life is wasted in meaningless activity.
- _____ 4. If you have to go to school, you might as well choose a major that deals with matters of life or death.
- _____ 5. No matter how hard you work, you never seem to reach your goals.
- _____ 6. I find it difficult to imagine enthusiasm concerning school work.
- _____ 7. It doesn't matter if students work hard; only a few benefit.
- _____ 8. School work is too boring to be worth doing.
- _____ 9. I feel no need to try my best at school work for it makes no difference anyway.
- _____ 10. I don't like my school or enjoy my work; I just put in my time to get my degree.
- _____ 11. I find it hard to believe people who actually feel that going to school is a value to society.
- _____ 12. If there are risks at school, that makes it all the better.

The items below consist of statements with which you may agree or disagree. Please indicate how you feel about each item by placing a number from zero to 10 in the space provided. A zero indicates that you feel this item is not at all true; 10 indicates that you feel this item is completely true.

These items have to do with your attitude toward SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Not at all true										Completely true

- ___ 29. Most of my activities are determined by what society demands.
- ___ 30. In order to avoid being hassled by society, I feel I must go my own way and not get involved.
- ___ 31. No matter how sincerely you work for social change, society never really seems to improve.
- ___ 32. My most meaningful experiences have come through participation in social movements.
- ___ 33. There are only certain strict paths to follow if one is to be successful in our society.
- ___ 34. Our society holds no worthwhile values or goals.
- ___ 35. Why should I bother to vote; none of the candidates will be able to change things for the better.
- ___ 36. I admire those who participate in protest movements that are full of danger and drama.

These items have to do with your attitude toward INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS on this campus.

- ___ 37. Everyone is out to manipulate you toward his/her own ends.
- ___ 38. I am better off when I keep to myself.
- ___ 39. Most people are happy not to know that what they call love is really self-interest.
- ___ 40. Big parties are very exciting to me.
- ___ 41. Often when I interact with others, I feel insecure over the outcome.
- ___ 42. There is no point in socializing -- it goes nowhere and is nothing.
- ___ 43. Why bother to try to love and care for people; they'll only hurt you in the end.
- ___ 44. What really turns me on about socializing is the challenge of a group of people disagreeing and arguing.

The items below consist of statements with which you may agree or disagree. Please indicate how you feel about each item by placing a number from zero to 10 in the space provided. A zero indicates that you feel this item is not at all true; 10 indicates that you feel this item is completely true.

These items have to do with your attitude toward INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS on this campus.

- | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------------------------|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| Not at all
true | | | | | | | | | | Completely
true |
- ___ 45. I try to avoid close relationships with people so that I will not be obligated to them.
- ___ 46. Most social relationships are meaningless.
- ___ 47. People who believe that "Love makes the world go around" are fooling themselves.
- ___ 48. The best reason for getting involved with other people is participation in some action that can catch everybody up.

These items have to do with your attitude toward FAMILY.

- ___ 49. When you marry and have children you have lost your freedom of choice.
- ___ 50. I would just as soon avoid any contact with my parents except an occasional letter.
- ___ 51. The idea of a family is a social invention to limit individual freedom of action.
- ___ 52. It would be really exciting to have another, secret life to supplement your family life.
- ___ 53. My parents imposed their wishes and standards on me too much.
- ___ 54. Parents work hard for their children only to be disappointed and rejected.
- ___ 55. The only reason to marry is for convenience and security.
- ___ 56. Strange though it may seem, it is at times of family crisis that I feel most alive.
- ___ 57. I am not sure I want to be married because I don't want to feel tied down.
- ___ 58. For me, home and family never had much positive meaning.
- ___ 59. Families do not provide security and warmth; they just restrict a person and give him/her many unnecessary responsibilities.
- ___ 60. What I really like about family is the huge, action-filled reunions at holiday times.

The items below consist of statements with which you may agree or disagree. Please indicate how you feel about each item by placing a number from zero to 10 in the space provided. A zero indicates that you feel this item is not at all true; 10 indicates that you feel this item is completely true.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Not at all true										Completely true

- _____ 61. I sometimes feel that the students I know are not too friendly.
- _____ 62. Most of my academic work in school seems worthwhile and meaningful to me.
- _____ 63. I sometimes feel uncertain about who I really am.
- _____ 64. I feel that my family is not as close to me as I would like.
- _____ 65. When students I know are having problems, it's my responsibility to try to help.
- _____ 66. I often wonder whether I'm becoming the kind of person I want to be.
- _____ 67. It's hard to know how to act most of the time since you can't tell what others expect.
- _____ 68. I often feel left out of things that others are doing.
- _____ 69. Nowadays you can't really count on other people when you have problems or need help.
- _____ 70. Most people don't seem to accept me when I'm just being myself.
- _____ 71. I often find it difficult to feel involved in things I'm doing.
- _____ 72. Hardly anyone I know is interested in how I really feel inside.
- _____ 73. I generally feel that I have a lot of interests in common with the other students in this school.
- _____ 74. I often feel alone when I am with other people.
- _____ 75. If I really had my choice I'd live my life in a very different way than I do.

Alienation and Program Affiliation
176

76. Indicate the highest level of education completed by your parents. (Check **one** in each column.)

	<u>Mother</u>	<u>Father</u>
Grammar School	_____	_____
High School	_____	_____
Some College	_____	_____
College	_____	_____
Some Graduate/Professional School	_____	_____
Graduate/Professional School	_____	_____

77. What high school did you attend?

78. Approximate percentage of students of color attending your high school.

- | | |
|-----------------|------------------|
| _____ 0 to 10% | _____ 51 to 60% |
| _____ 11 to 20% | _____ 61 to 70% |
| _____ 21 to 30% | _____ 71 to 80% |
| _____ 31 to 40% | _____ 81 to 90% |
| _____ 41 to 50% | _____ 91 to 100% |

Alienation and Program Affiliation
177

79. Some people were very involved with high school clubs, organizations and scholarly programs. Indicate how involved you were with the following high school activities. (Circle one number on each line.)

		<u>Not At All</u>	<u>Somewhat Involved</u>	<u>Very I n v o l v e d</u>
A.	Academic/Scholarly Programs	0	1	2
B.	Athletic Teams	0	1	2
C.	Political Organizations	0	1	2
D.	Professional Organizations	0	1	2
E.	Social Clubs	0	1	2

80. List the most important and/or supportive people in your decision to go to college and their relation to you (Include family, friends, faculty, students, staff, etc.).

81. Approximate percentage of students of color attending your college.

- | | |
|-----------------|------------------|
| _____ 0 to 10% | _____ 51 to 60% |
| _____ 11 to 20% | _____ 61 to 70% |
| _____ 21 to 30% | _____ 71 to 80% |
| _____ 31 to 40% | _____ 81 to 90% |
| _____ 41 to 50% | _____ 91 to 100% |

Alienation and Program Affiliation
178

82. Some people are very involved with college clubs, organizations and scholarly programs. Indicate how involved you are with the following college activities. (Circle one number on each line.)

		<u>Not At All</u>	<u>Somewhat Involved</u>	<u>Very I n v o l v e d</u>
A.	Academic/Scholarly Programs	0	1	2
B.	Athletic Teams	0	1	2
C.	Political Organizations	0	1	2
D.	Professional Organizations	0	1	2
E.	Social Clubs	0	1	2

83. Prior to this year, have you ever belonged to a scholars or honors program (such as ASCEND, CUNY Pipeline, MARC/COR, MELLON, etc.)?

_____ Yes _____ No

84. Do you currently belong to a scholarly or honor's program (such as ASCEND, CUNY Pipeline, MARC/COR, MELLON etc.)? If you have or had membership to more than one of these programs, please consistently refer to only one program for the rest of the items.

_____ Yes (Which Program _____)

_____ No (Go on to question #93)

85. How long have you been a part of this program? _____

86. How did you get involved with this program? (Check all that apply)

_____ Faculty member

_____ Student

_____ Advertisement

_____ Other _____

87. Rank order the following items according to what *you* believe to be the most important component of your program. In other words, put a number 1 next to the most important reason, followed by the numbers 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6. If an item is not important indicate that by a 0; if an item does not apply to your program, indicate that by writing N/A.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| _____ Faculty Mentor | _____ Research Opportunities |
| _____ Financial Support/Stipends | _____ Student Support Groups |
| _____ Preparation for Graduate School | _____ Teaching Opportunities |
| Other _____ | |

88. How do you think being a part of this program has *helped* your progress towards the degree? (Circle one.)

- | | | | | | |
|------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------|------------------------|-----------------|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Did Not Help
At All | Helped
Slightly | Helped
Somewhat | Helped | Helped
Considerably | Helped
A lot |

89. Give an example of how the program helped your progress to the degree.

90. How do you think being a part of this program has *hurt* your progress towards the degree? (Circle one.)

- | | | | | | |
|------------------------|------------------|------------------|------|----------------------|---------------|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Did Not Hurt
At All | Hurt
Slightly | Hurt
Somewhat | Hurt | Hurt
Considerably | Hurt
A lot |

91. Give an example of how the program hurt your progress towards the degree.

92. Has being a part of this program changed your overall experiences at school? (Check all that apply.)

It has not changed my overall experiences at school.

I'm not sure if it has changed my overall experiences at school.

I feel more involved at school.

I feel less involved at school.

I feel more interested in school.

I feel less interested in school.

I have a clear(er) sense of my academic direction.

I am more confused about my academic direction.

I have a clear(er) sense of my career direction.

I am more confused about my career direction.

Other _____

93. Describe your participation in scholarly programs and indicate the reason. (Choose only one.)

I did not want to apply.

I applied, but did not get accepted.

I applied, was accepted, but could not attend.

I applied, was accepted, and I am currently enrolled in the program.

I applied, was accepted, and completed the requirements for the program.

Other _____

94. List the most important and/or supportive people in your college career and their relation to you. (Include family, friends, faculty, students, staff, etc.)

95. Some people say that the college experience is an alienating one. Do you agree or disagree?

Agree Disagree

96. Some students feel alienated on the college campus. Have you ever felt left out, overlooked, isolated, or unimportant on this campus? If so, by whom? (Check all that apply).

Administrators Staff
 Faculty members/Professors Students
 Other _____

97. Some students feel alienated from their family and friends while they are in college. Have you ever felt left out, overlooked, isolated, or unimportant by your family or friends? If so, by whom? (Check all that apply)

Brothers and/or Sisters Neighbors
 Extended Family Parents
 (Grandparents, cousins, etc)
 Friends Other _____

98. Have you ever considered leaving this college?

Yes No (Go on to item # 103)

99. Why did you consider leaving?

100. Have you ever left?

Yes No (Go on to item # 102)

101. If you left, why did you return?

102. Are you planning to leave before you receive your degree? Why or why not?

103. What are your immediate plans after graduation? In other words, where do you see your self in the next three to five years? (Include academic, career, and personal goals)

104. What are your long-term plans after graduation? In other words, where do you see your self in the next ten to twenty years? (Include academic, career, and personal goals)

105. Do you have an idea of what career you want to pursue?

Yes No

If so, what? _____

This section asks demographic information.

106. Age _____
107. Sex : Female _____
Male _____
108. Race/Ethnicity:
- | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------|
| African American/ Black _____ | Hispanic/ Latino(a) _____ |
| Asian American _____ | Native American _____ |
| Caucasian/White _____ | Other _____ |
109. College Name _____
110. Year entered this institution _____
111. Attending: Full-time _____ Part-time _____
112. Current Class Standing: First Year _____ Junior _____
Sophomore _____ Senior _____
113. Years in college _____
How many colleges have you attended? _____
How many years have you been at this particular college? _____
114. College Major _____
College Minor _____
115. Overall Grade Point Average _____
Major Grade Point Average _____

Thank You For Filling Out This Survey!!

Figure 1

Conceptual Framework

Investigated Relationships Between Race/Ethnicity, Gender, Alienation, and Program Affiliation as they relate to Progression Rates, Grade Point Averages, and Career Aspirations.

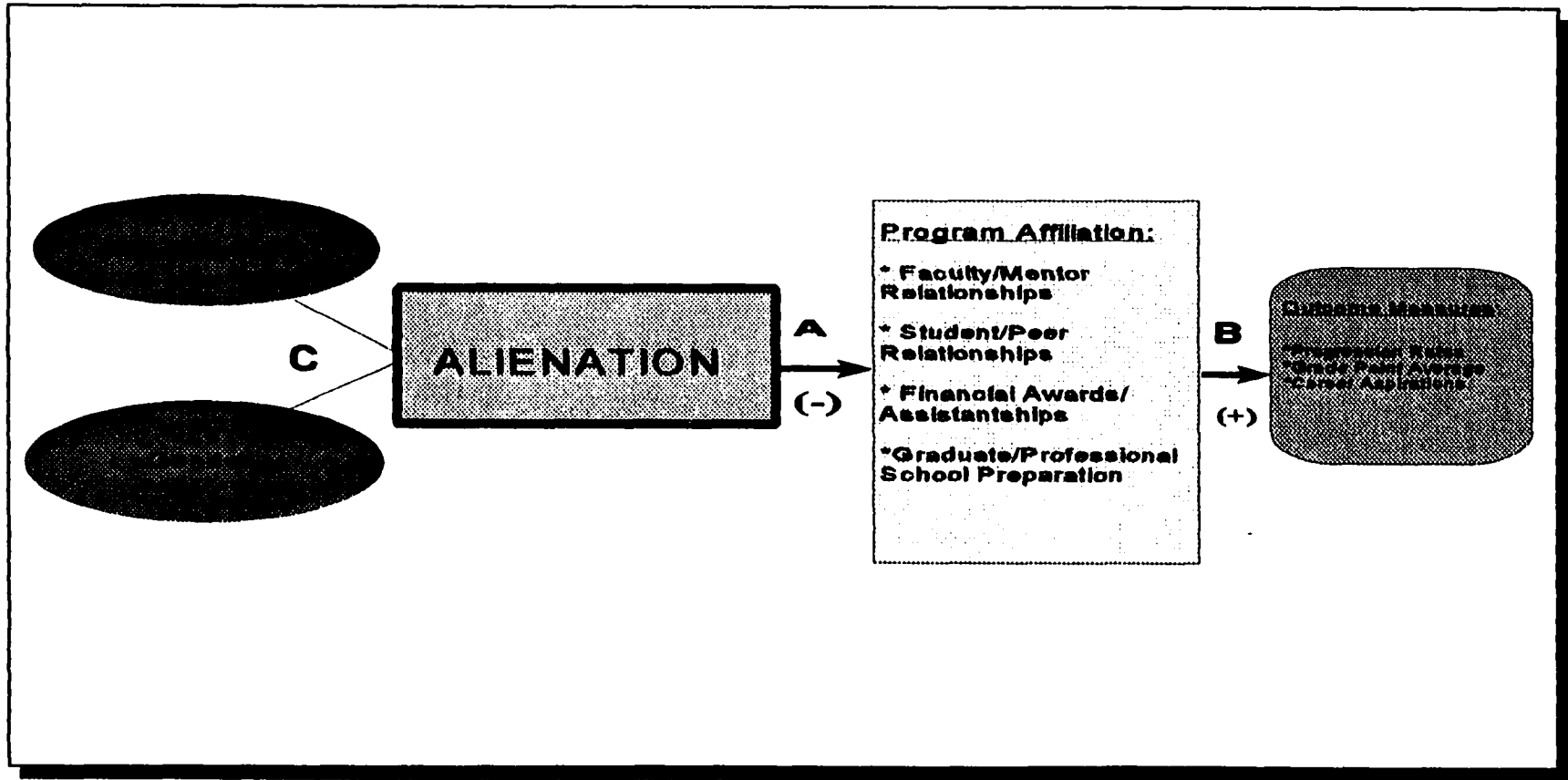
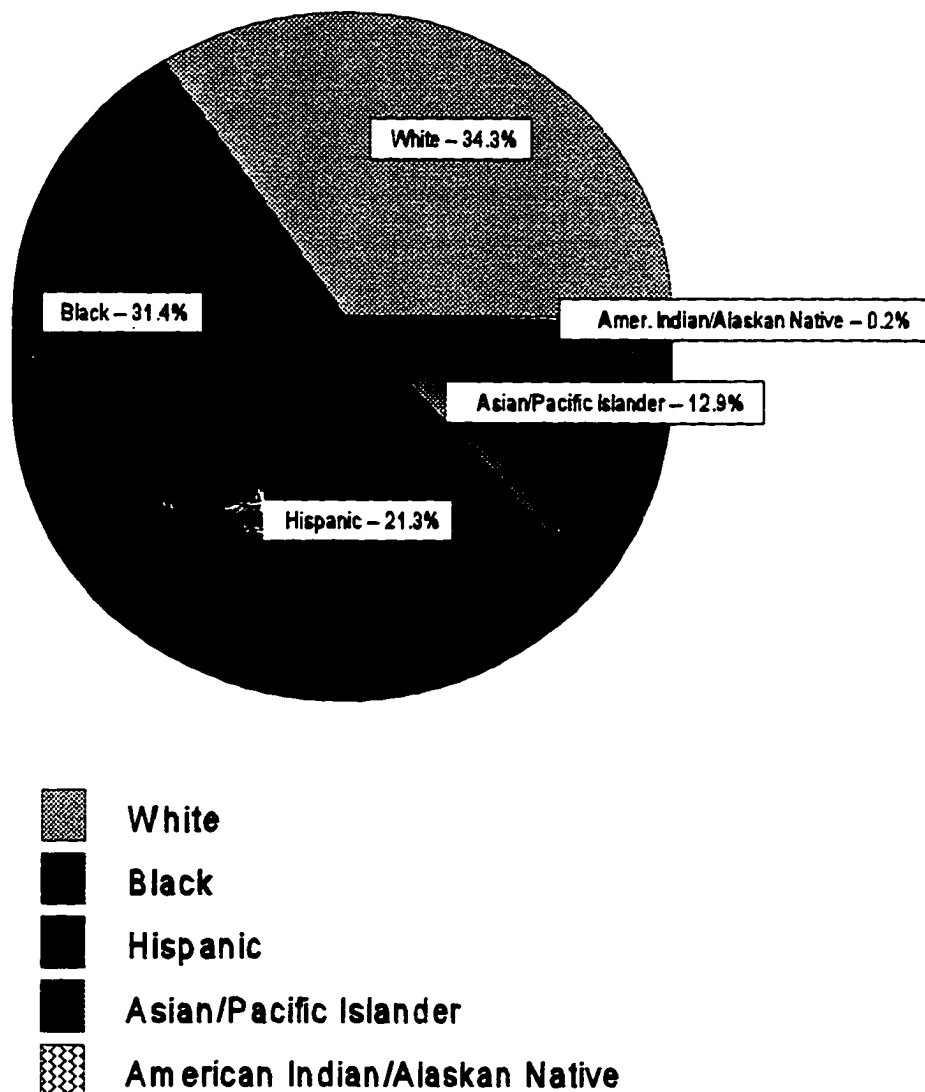


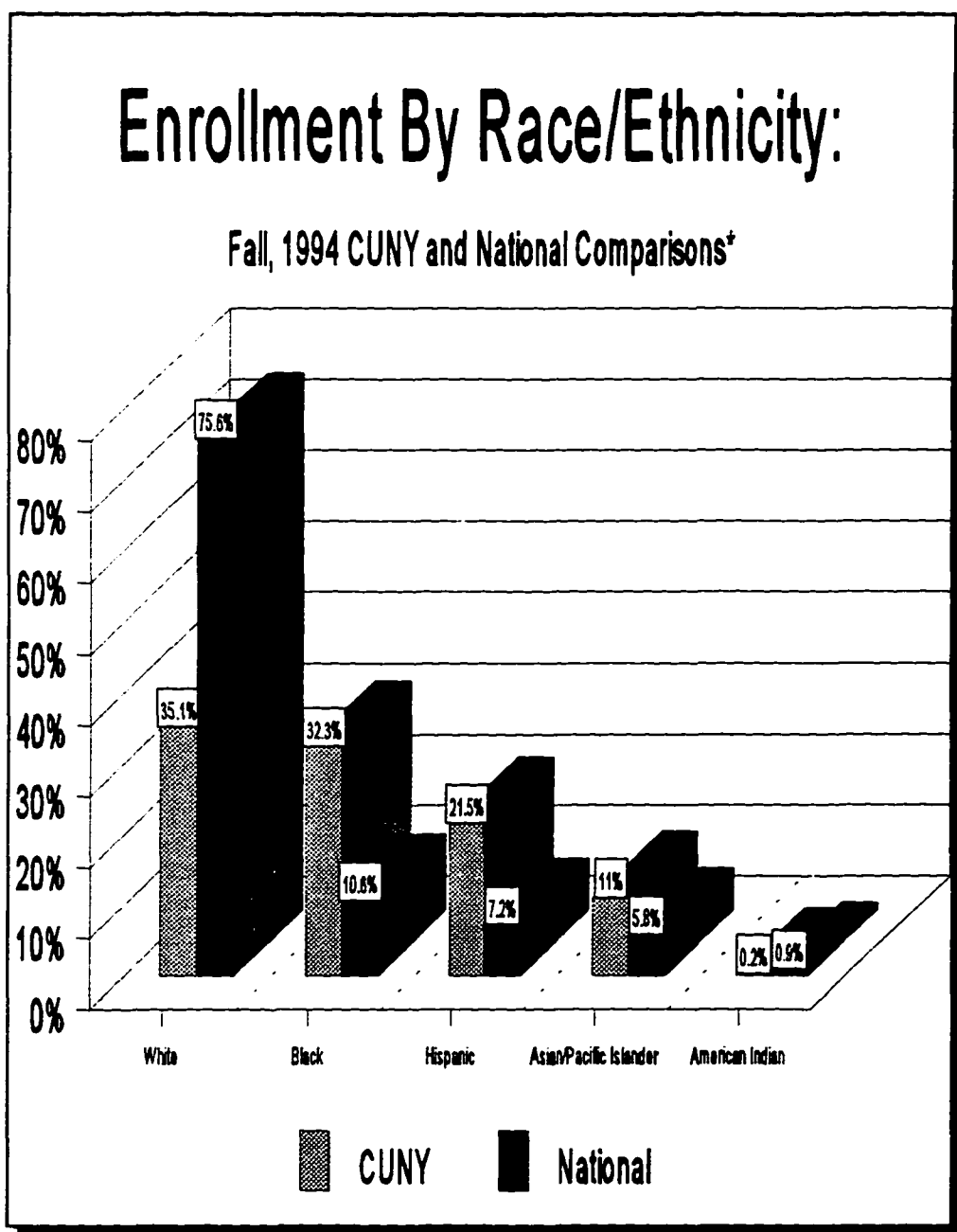
Figure 2

Enrollment of CUNY Undergraduates by Race/Ethnicity*: 1995
Senior College Students



Note: *The data for this chart were taken from *The CUNY Data Book: Fall 1995*, Table 34, "Trends in Enrollment by Race/Ethnicity of CUNY Undergraduates: 1976 to 1995, p. 109.

Figure 3

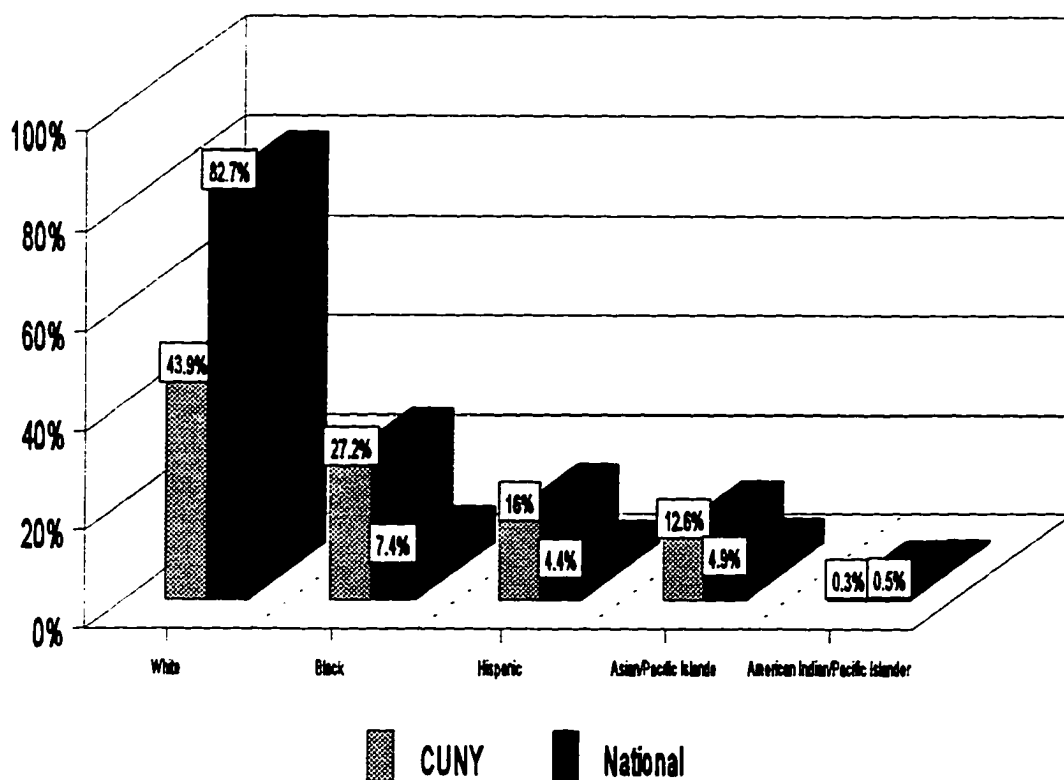


Note: *The data for this figure were taken from *The CUNY Student Data Book: Fall 1995*, Table 46, "Enrollment by Race/Ethnicity and Gender by Level: CUNY and National Comparisons", p.166.

Figure 4

Bachelor's Degrees Granted By Race/Ethnicity*

1993-1994 CUNY and National Comparisons



Note: *The data for this figure was taken from *The CUNY Student Data Book: Fall 1995*, Table 47, "Degrees Granted, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: CUNY and National Comparisons", p.167

Figure 5

Participants

Participants By Race/Ethnicity

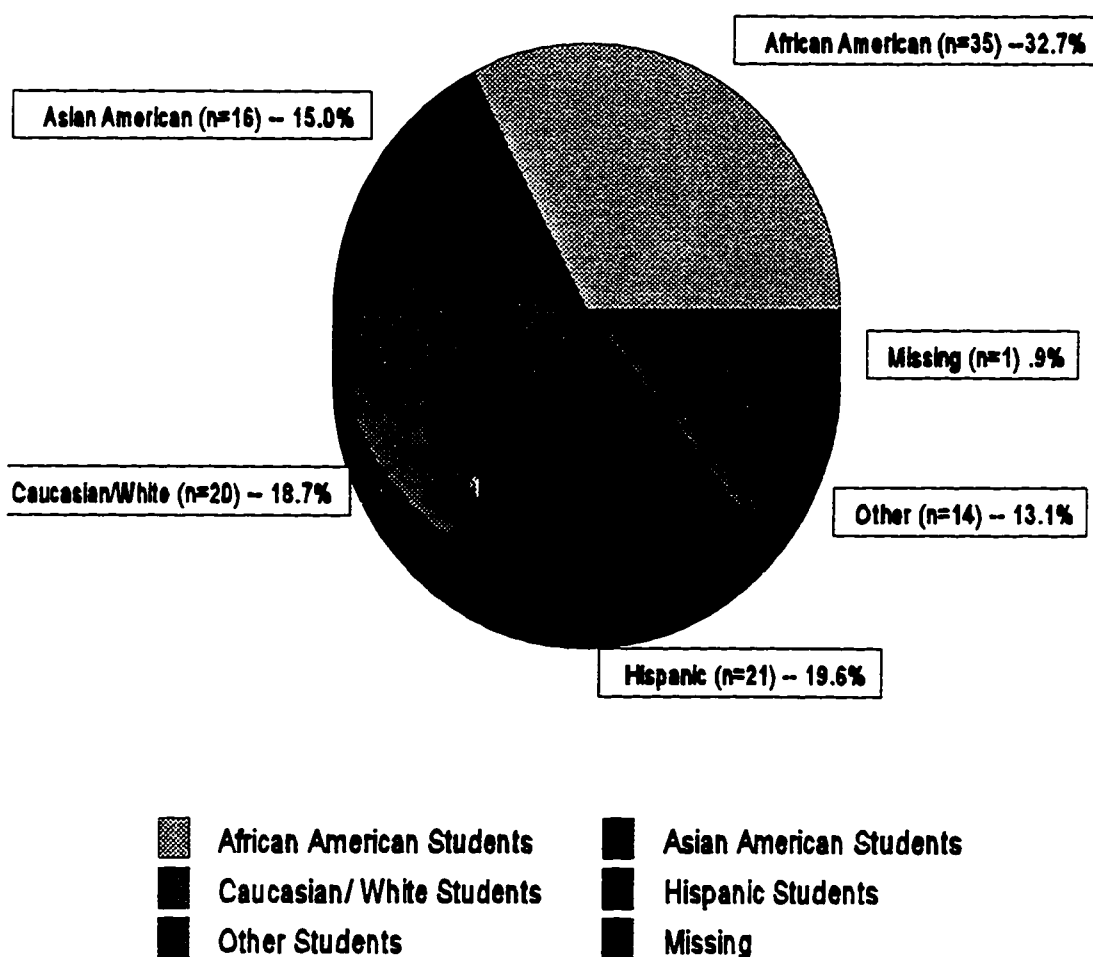


Figure 6

Sex of Participants

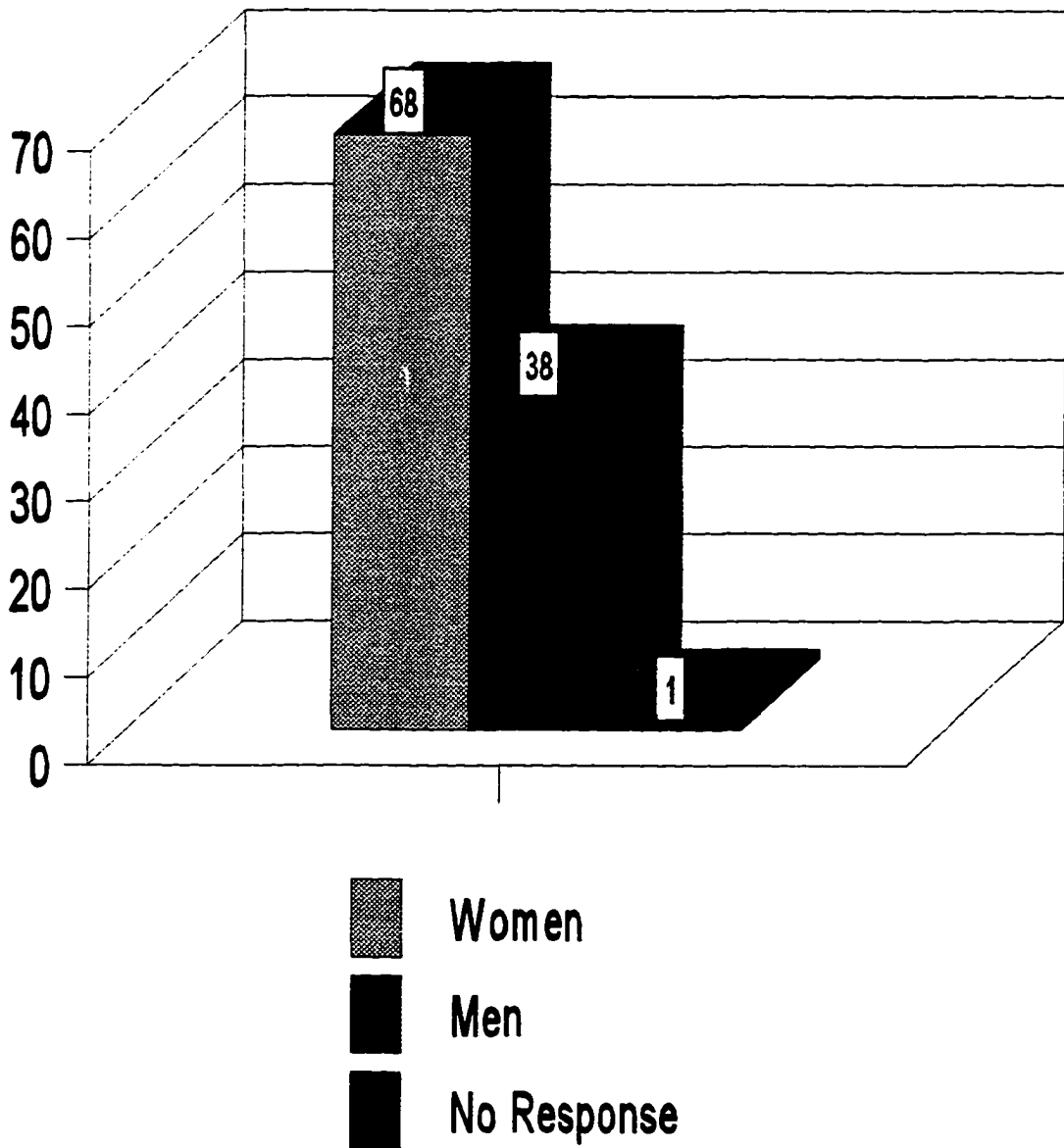


Figure 6A

Participants

Participants by Gender and Race/Ethnicity

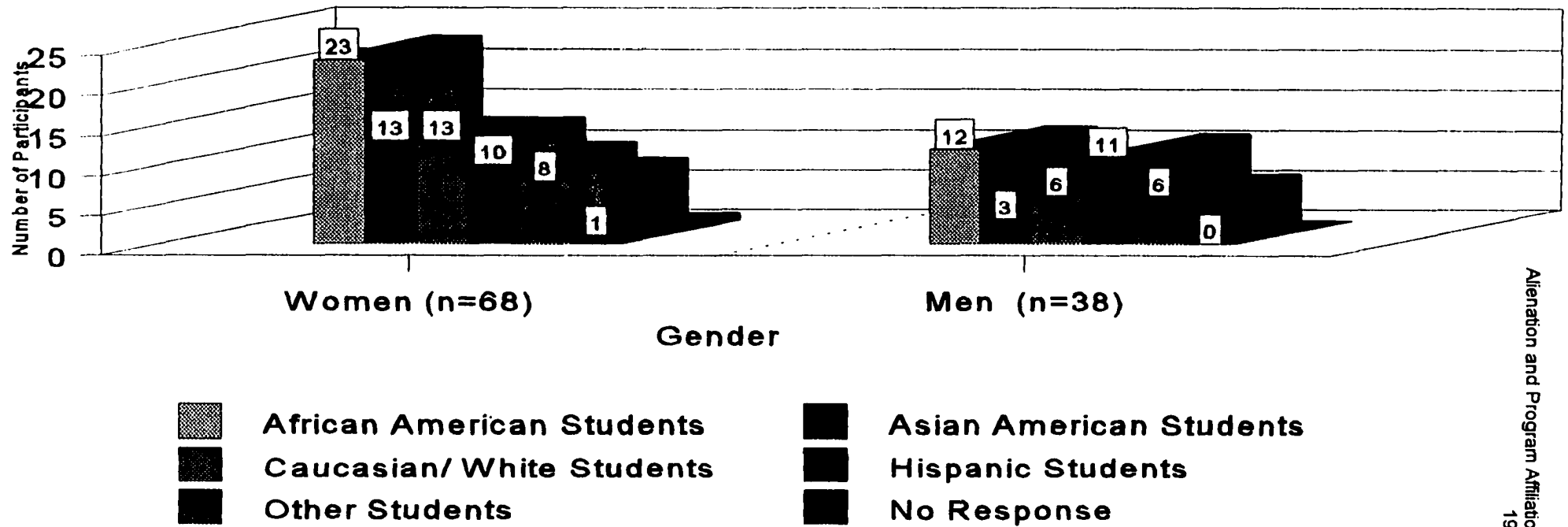


Table 1

Participant Response Rate

This table represents the response rate (by program) based on the number of consent forms and surveys that were distributed and returned.

	Consent Forms And Surveys Distrubuted	Consent Forms And Surveys Returned	Response Rate
<i>Program A</i>	25	25	100%
<i>Program B</i>	9	8	89%
<i>Program C</i>	20	15	75%
<i>Program D</i>	6	6	100%
<i>Program E</i>	6	5	83%
<i>Program F</i>	17	11	64%
<i>Program G</i>	21	20	95%
<i>Program H</i>	9	8	89%
<i>Program I</i>	9	9	100%
<i>Total</i>	122	107	88%

Table 2

Parents' Education

The following chart represents the percentage of respondents who indicated the highest level of education completed by their parents.

	Mother's Education		Father's Education	
	N	%	N	%
<i>Grammar School</i>	24	(22.4)	27	(25.2)
<i>High School</i>	30	(28.0)	22	(20.6)
<i>Some College</i>	19	(17.8)	10	(9.3)
<i>College</i>	14	(13.1)	13	(12.1)
<i>Some Graduate or Professional School</i>	6	(5.6)	8	(7.5)
<i>Graduate or Professional School</i>	12	(11.2)	22	(20.6)
<i>No Response</i>	2	(1.8)	5	(4.7)
<i>Total</i>	107	(100)	107	(100)

Table 3

**Analysis of Variance for
Mothers' Education by Race**

ONEWAY Analysis of Variance

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	4	64.38	16.09	7.77	.0000
Within Groups	99	205.16	2.07		
Total	103	269.54			

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Minimum	Maximum
African American	35	2.26	1.27	.21	1.00	6.00
Asian American	15	3.67	1.54	.40	1.00	6.00
Caucasian/White	20	4.10	1.65	.37	1.00	6.00
Hispanic	21	2.14	1.46	.32	1.00	6.00
Other	13	2.69	1.38	.38	1.00	5.00
Total	104	2.85	1.62	.16	1.00	6.00

Based on a Tukey-B test with a .05 significance level, the following groups were found to be significant from one another:

	Hispanic	African American	Other	Asian American	Caucasian/White
Hispanic					
African American					
Other					
Asian American	*	*			
Caucasian/White	*	*	*		

Table 4

**Analysis of Variance for
Fathers' Education by Race**

ONEWAY Analysis of Variance

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	4	92.46	23.11	8.05	.000
Within Groups	96	275.58	2.87		
Total	100	368.04			

Group	N	Standard Mean	Standard Deviation	Error	Minimum	Maximum
African American	33	2.42	1.68	.29	1.00	6.00
Asian American	15	4.00	1.65	.43	1.00	6.00
Caucasian/White	20	4.40	1.85	.41	1.00	6.00
Hispanic	20	2.10	1.59	.35	1.00	6.00
Others	13	4.08	1.71	.47	1.00	6.00
Total	101	3.20	1.92	.19	1.00	6.00

Based on a Tukey-B test with a .05 significance level, the following groups were found to be significant from one another:

	Hispanic	African American	Asian American	Other	Caucasian/White
Hispanic					
African American					
Asian American	*	*			
Other	*	*			
Caucasian/White	*	*			

Table 5
Analysis of Variance for
Mothers' Education By Gender and Race/ Ethnicity

ONEWAY Analysis of Variance

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	9	76.56	8.51	4.32	.0001
Within Groups	93	182.94	1.97		
Total	102	259.50			

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Minimum	Maximum
African American Women	23	2.30	1.22	.25	1.00	6.00
Asian American Women	12	3.92	1.62	.47	1.00	6.00
Caucasian/White Women	13	4.38	1.61	.45	2.00	6.00
Hispanic Women	10	2.70	1.89	.60	1.00	6.00
"Other" Women	7	2.29	1.38	.52	1.00	5.00
African American Men	12	2.17	1.40	.41	1.00	5.00
Asian American Men	3	2.67	.58	.33	2.00	3.00
Caucasian/White Men	6	3.17	1.47	.60	1.00	5.00
Hispanic Men	11	1.64	.67	.20	1.00	3.00
"Other" Men	6	3.17	1.32	.54	2.00	5.00
Total	103	2.81	1.60	.16	1.00	6.00

Based on a Tukey-B test with a .05 significance level, the following groups were found to be significantly different from one another:

Group	Hispanic Men	Af-Am Men	"Other" Women	Af Am Women	As Am Men	Hispanic Women	C/White Men	"Other" Men
Hispanic Men								
African American Men								
"Other" Women								
African American Women								
Asian American Men								
Hispanic Women								
Caucasian/White Men								
"Other" Men								
Asian American Women	*			*				
Caucasian/White Women	*	*	*	*				

Table 6
Analysis of Variance for
Fathers' Education By Gender and Race/ Ethnicity

ONEWAY Analysis of Variance

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	9	92.94	10.33	3.48	.0010
Within Groups	90	267.16	2.97		
Total	99	360.11			

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Minimum	Maximum
African American Women	21	2.62	1.77	.39	1.00	6.00
Asian American Women	12	4.17	1.80	.52	1.00	6.00
Caucasian/White Women	13	4.31	1.84	.51	2.00	6.00
Hispanic Women	10	2.40	1.96	.62	1.00	6.00
"Other" Women	7	4.14	1.68	.63	1.00	6.00
African American Men	12	2.08	1.51	.43	1.00	5.00
Asian American Men	3	3.33	.57	.33	3.00	4.00
Caucasian/White Men	6	4.33	2.07	.84	1.00	6.00
Hispanic Men	10	1.80	1.14	.36	1.00	4.00
"Other" Men	6	4.00	1.90	.77	2.00	6.00
Total	100	3.17	1.91	.19	1.00	6.00

Based on a Tukey-B test with a .05 significance level, the following groups were found to be significantly different from one another:

Group	Hispanic Men	Af Am Men	Hispanic Women	Af Am Women	As Am Men	"Other" Men	"Other" Women	As Am Women	C/White Women	C/White Men
Hispanic Men										
African American Men										
Hispanic Women										
African American Women										
Asian American Men										
"Other" Men										
"Other" Women										
Asian American Women										
C/White Women										
Caucasian/White Men										

Table 7
Analysis of Variance for
Percentage of Students of Color in High School by Race

ONEWAY Analysis of Variance

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	4	230.59	57.65	5.72	.0004
Within Groups	99	998.32	10.08		
Total	103	1228.91			

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Minimum	Maximum
African American	35	6.60	3.31	.56	1.00	10.00
Asian American	15	4.53	3.11	.80	1.00	10.00
Caucasian/White	20	2.55	2.52	.56	1.00	8.00
Hispanic	21	5.48	3.49	.76	1.00	10.00
Others	13	4.00	3.24	.90	1.00	10.00
Total	104	4.97	3.45	.34	1.00	10.00

Based on a Tukey-B test with a .05 significance level, the following groups were found to be significantly different from one another:

	Caucasian/ White	Other	Asian American	Hispanic	African American
Caucasian/White					
Other					
Asian American					
Hispanic				*	
African American					*

Table 8

High School Involvement

The following table represents how involved respondents were, by gender, with high school activities.

	Women	Men
<i>Academic/Scholarly Programs</i>	46.3% very involved 32.8% somewhat involved 20.9% not at all involved	30.6% very involved 30.6% somewhat involved 38.9% not at all involved
<i>Social Clubs</i>	30.3% very involved 33.3% somewhat involved 36.4% not at all involved	27.8% very involved 33.3% somewhat involved 38.9% not at all involved
<i>Athletic Teams</i>	18.2% very involved 34.8% somewhat involved 47.0% not at all involved	23.7% very involved 34.2% somewhat involved 42.1% not at all involved
<i>Professional Organizations</i>	12.7% very involved 15.9% somewhat involved 71.4% not at all involved	8.6% very involved 22.9% somewhat involved 68.6% not at all involved
<i>Political Organizations</i>	12.3% very involved 16.9% somewhat involved 70.8% not at all involved	8.6% very involved 25.7% somewhat involved 65.7% not at all involved

Table 9

Cumulative High School Involvement Scores

The Average Cumulative High School Involvement Scores
by Gender* and Race/Ethnicity**

Group	Total (n=107)	Women (n=68)	Men (n=38)
<i>Total</i> (n=107)	3.61	3.69	3.29
<i>African American</i> (n=35)	4.06	4.30	3.58
<i>Asian American</i> (n=16)	3.56	3.69	3.00
<i>Caucasian/White</i> (n=20)	3.70	3.00	4.16
<i>Hispanic</i> (n=21)	2.71	3.10	2.36
<i>Other</i> (n=14)	3.43	3.25	3.67

Note: The range for the Cumulative High School Involvement score was 0-10.

*Based on a t-test these two groups are not significantly different from one another.

** Based on a one-way ANOVA no two racial/ethnic groups are significantly different from one another.

Table 10

**Categories Represented in the
High School Support Networks By Gender**

This table represents the percentage of respondents' who indicated that the following categories exist in their high school support networks.

Categories	Women (n=68)	Men (n=38)
<i>Self</i>	27%	28%
<i>Family</i>	88%	84%
<i>Friend</i>	40%	21%
<i>A Member of the Academic Community</i>	35%	24%
<i>Other</i>	29%	26%

Table 11

**Categories Represented in the
High School Support Networks By Race/Ethnicity**

This table represents the percentage of respondents' who indicated that the following categories exist in their high school support networks.

Categories	African American (n=35)	Asian American (n=16)	Caucasian/White (n=20)	Hispanic (n=21)	Others (n=14)
<i>Self</i>	14.3%	18.8%	25.0%	33.3%	42.9%
<i>Family</i>	88.6%	87.5%	90.0%	95.2%	64.3%
<i>Friend</i>	37.1%	37.5%	35.0%	42.9%	0.0%
<i>A Member of the Academic Community</i>	34.3%	25.0%	40.0%	28.6%	21.4%
<i>Others</i>	34.3%	25.0%	15.0%	28.6%	35.7%

Table 12

Average High School Support Network Cumulative Scorest

Average scores for the different categories of support in respondents' high school support networks by gender* and race/ethnicity**.

Group	Total (n=107)	Women (n=68)	Men (n=38)
<i>Total (n=107)</i>	2.04	2.19	1.79
<i>African American (n=35)</i>	2.09	2.43	1.42
<i>Asian American (n=16)</i>	1.94	2.15	1.00
<i>Caucasian/White (n=20)</i>	2.05	2.31	1.67
<i>Hispanic (n=21)</i>	2.29	2.00	2.55
<i>Other (n=14)</i>	1.64	1.63	1.67

Note: †High School Network Scores range from 0 to 5.
 *Based on a one-way ANOVA the network scores of the women were significantly higher than the scores of the men, $p < .05$.
 ** Based on a one-way ANOVA no two racial/ethnic groups are significantly different from one another.

Table 13

**Analysis of Variance for
High School Support Network Scores
By Gender and Race/ Ethnicity**

ONEWAY Analysis of Variance

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	9	18.46	2.05	2.43	.0158
Within Groups	95	80.30	.85		
Total	104	98.76			

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Minimum	Maximum
African American Women	23	2.43	1.04	.22	1.00	4.00
Asian American Women	13	2.15	1.07	.30	1.00	5.00
Caucasian/White Women	13	2.31	1.03	.29	1.00	5.00
Hispanic Women	10	2.00	.47	.15	1.00	3.00
"Other" Women	8	1.63	.74	.26	1.00	3.00
African American Men	12	1.42	.51	.15	1.00	2.00
Asian American Men	3	1.00	1.00	.58	.00	2.00
Caucasian/White Men	6	1.67	1.21	.49	1.00	4.00
Hispanic Men	11	2.55	.82	.25	1.00	4.00
"Other" Men	6	1.67	1.03	.42	1.00	3.00
Total	105	2.05	.97	.10	.00	5.00

Based on a LSD range test with a .05 significance level, the following groups were found to be significantly different from one another:

Group	As Am Men	Af Am Men	"Other" Women	C./White Men	"Other" Men	Hispanic Women	As Am Women	C./White Women	Af. Am. Women	Hispanic Men
Asian American Men										
African American Men										
"Other" Women										
Caucasian/White Men										
"Other" Men										
Hispanic Women										
Asian American Women			*							
Caucasian/White Women	*		*							
African American Women	*		*		*					
Hispanic Men	*		*		*					

Table 14

College Involvement

The following table represents how involved respondents were, by gender, with college activities.

	Women	Men
<i>Academic/Scholarly Programs</i>	62.1% very involved 22.7% somewhat involved 15.2% not at all involved	51.4% very involved 35.1% somewhat involved 13.5% not at all involved
<i>Social Clubs</i>	22.7% very involved 42.4% somewhat involved 34.8% not at all involved	30.6% very involved 33.3% somewhat involved 36.1% not at all involved
<i>Professional Organizations</i>	23.4% very involved 29.7% somewhat involved 46.9% not at all involved	14.3% very involved 42.9% somewhat involved 42.9% not at all involved
<i>Political Organizations</i>	9.4% very involved 20.3% somewhat involved 70.3% not at all involved	14.3% very involved 22.9% somewhat involved 62.9% not at all involved
<i>Athletic Teams</i>	1.6% very involved 3.2% somewhat involved 95.2% not at all involved	5.7% very involved 17.1% somewhat involved 77.1% not at all involved

Table 15

Cumulative College Involvement Scores†

The Cumulative College Involvement Scores of the Respondents by Gender* and Race/Ethnicity**

Group	Total (n=107)	Women (n=68)	Men (n=38)
<i>Total (n=107)</i>	3.53	3.29	4.05
<i>African American (n=35)</i>	3.46	3.39	3.58
<i>Asian American (n=16)</i>	3.25	3.08	4.00
<i>Caucasian/White (n=20)</i>	2.65	2.54	3.33
<i>Hispanic (n=21)</i>	4.29	3.20	5.27
<i>Other (n=14)</i>	3.79	4.00	3.50

Note: †Based on a one-way ANOVA, the college involvement scores were not found to significantly different by gender and race/ethnicity.
 *Based on a one-way ANOVA, the college involvement scores of the men and women were not found to be significantly different.
 **Based on a one-way ANOVA, the college involvement scores were not found to be significantly different by race/ethnicity.

Table 16

Comparison of High School and College Scholarly Activity By Gender

	High School Academic Activity	College Academic Activity
<i>Women</i>	46.3% very involved 32.8% somewhat involved 20.9% not at all involved	62.1% very involved 22.7% somewhat involved 15.2% not at all involved
<i>Men</i>	30.6% very involved 30.6% somewhat involved 38.9% not at all involved	51.4% very involved 35.1% somewhat involved 13.5% not at all involved

Table 17

Comparison of High School and College Scholarly Activity By Race/Ethnicity

	High School Academic Activity	College Academic Activity
African American Students (n=35)	45.2% very involved 25.8% somewhat involved 29.0% not at all involved	61.3% very involved 16.1% somewhat involved 22.6% not at all involved
Asian American Students (n=16)	37.5% very involved 31.3% somewhat involved 31.3% not at all involved	31.3% very involved 43.8% somewhat involved 25.0% not at all involved
Caucasian/White Students (n=20)	45.0% very involved 40.0% somewhat involved 15.0% not at all involved	70.0% very involved 15.0% somewhat involved 15.0% not at all involved
Hispanic Students (n=21)	28.6% very involved 33.3% somewhat involved 38.1% not at all involved	52.4% very involved 42.9% somewhat involved 4.8% not at all involved
"Other" Students (n=14)	33.3% very involved 41.7% somewhat involved 25.0% not at all involved	75.0% very involved 16.7% somewhat involved 8.3% not at all involved

Table 18

Comparison of High School* and College
Cumulative Involvement Scores by Gender and Race/Ethnicity**

Group	High School Involvement Scores	College Involvement Scores
<i>Total (n=107)</i>	3.61	3.53
<i>Women (n=68)</i>	3.69	3.29
<i>Men (n=38)</i>	3.29	4.05
<i>African American Students (n=35)</i>	4.06	3.46
<i>Asian American Students (n=16)</i>	3.56	3.25
<i>Caucasian/White Students (n=20)</i>	3.70	2.65
<i>Hispanic Students (n=21)</i>	2.71	4.29
<i>"Other" Students (n=14)</i>	3.43	3.79

Note: †Based on a t-test, the high school and college involvement scores were not found to be significantly different from one another. These findings were consistent across gender and race/ethnicity.
 *Based on a t-test, the high school involvement scores of the women were not found to be significantly different the scores of the men.
 **Based on a t-test, the college involvement scores of the women were not found to be significantly different from the scores of the men.

Table 19A

College Support Networks

This table represents the percentage of respondents who indicated that the following categories exist in their college support networks.

Categories	Women (N=68)	Men (N=38)
<i>Self</i>	3%	5%
<i>Family</i>	66%	79%
<i>Friends</i>	47%	34%
<i>A Member of the Academic Community</i>	60%	63%
<i>Others</i>	34%	21%

Table 19B

College Support Networks

This table represents the percentage of respondents who indicated that the following categories exist in their college support networks.

Categories	African American (N=35)	Asian American (N=16)	Caucasian/White (N=20)	Hispanic (N=21)	"Others" (N=14)
<i>Self</i>	3%	6%	0%	5%	7%
<i>Family</i>	77%	88%	65%	62%	57%
<i>Friend</i>	43%	44%	40%	43%	43%
<i>A Member of the Academic Community</i>	77%	18%	45%	81%	57%
<i>Others</i>	37%	6%	5%	52%	36%

Table 20

Average College Support Network Cumulative Scores

Average scores for the different categories of support in respondents' college support networks by gender and race/ethnicity.

Group	Total (n=107)	Women (n=68)	Men (n=38)
<i>Total (n=107)</i>	2.07	2.10	2.03
<i>African American (n=35)</i>	2.37	2.65	1.83
<i>Asian American (n=16)</i>	1.63	1.69	1.33
<i>Caucasian/White (n=20)</i>	1.55	1.46	1.83
<i>Hispanic (n=21)</i>	2.43	2.10	2.73
<i>Other (n=14)</i>	2.00	2.25	1.67

Note: A one-way ANOVA revealed that the college network scores of the African American and Hispanic students are significantly higher than the scores of the Caucasian/White and Asian American students, $p < .05$.

Table 21

**Analysis of Variance for
College Network Scores by Race**

ONEWAY Analysis of Variance

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	4	14.52	3.63	3.82	.0062
Within Groups	101	96.01	.95		
Total	105	110.54			

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Minimum	Maximum
African American	35	2.37	.91	.15	1.00	4.00
Asian American	16	1.63	.89	.22	.00	3.00
Caucasian/White	20	1.55	.89	.20	.00	3.00
Hispanic	21	2.43	1.03	.22	.00	4.00
Others	14	2.00	1.24	.33	.00	4.00
Total	106	2.07	1.03	.10	1.00	4.00

Based on a Tukey-B test with a .05 significance level, the following groups were found to be significant from one another:

	Caucasian/ White	Asian American	Other	African American	Hispanic
Caucasian/White					
Asian American					
Other					
African American				*	
Hispanic					*

Table 22

**Analysis of Variance for
College Support Network Scores
By Gender and Race/ Ethnicity**

ONEWAY Analysis of Variance

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	9	23.09	2.57	2.82	.0055
Within Groups	95	86.30	.91		
Total	104	109.39			

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Minimum	Maximum
African American Women	23	2.65	.88	.18	1.00	4.00
Asian American Women	13	1.69	.95	.26	.00	3.00
Caucasian/White Women	13	1.46	.97	.27	.00	3.00
Hispanic Women	10	2.10	1.10	.35	.00	4.00
"Other" Women	8	2.25	1.04	.37	1.00	4.00
African American Men	12	1.83	.72	.21	1.00	3.00
Asian American Men	3	1.33	.58	.33	1.00	2.00
Caucasian/White Men	6	1.83	1.21	.31	1.00	3.00
Hispanic Men	11	2.73	.75	.27	1.00	4.00
"Other" Men	6	1.67	1.51	.61	.00	4.00
Total	105	2.08	1.03	.10	.00	4.00

Based on a LSD range test with a .05 significance level, the following groups were found to be significantly different from one another:

Group	As. Am. Men	C./White Women	"Other" Men	As. Am. Women	Af. Am. Men	C./White Men	Hispanic Women	"Other" Women	Af.Am. Women	Hispanic Men
As Am Men										
C/White Women										
"Other" Men										
As Am Women										
Af Am Men										
C/White Men										
Hispanic Women										
"Other" Women										
Af Am Women										
Hispanic Men										

Table 23A

**Comparison of High School and College
Support Network Representations By Gender**

This table represents the various categories of people listed in the respondents high school and college support networks* by gender**.

	<u>High School</u>		<u>College</u>	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
<i>Self</i>	27%	28%	3%	8%
<i>Family</i>	88%	84%	66%	79%
<i>Friend</i>	40%	21%	47%	34%
<i>A Member of the Academic Community</i>	35%	24%	60%	53%
<i>Others</i>	29%	25%	34%	21%

Note: *Based on a chi-square, no significant differences between any of the high school and college network representations were found.
** Based on a chi-square, no significant differences in the support networks of the women and men were found.

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Table 23B

**Comparison of High School and College Support Networks
By Race/Ethnicity**

Percentages of categories represented in respondents' support networks.

	African American		Asian American		Caucasian/White		Hispanic		Other	
	H.S.	College	H.S.	College	H.S.	College	H.S.	College	H.S.	College
<i>Self</i>	14.3%	2.9%	18.8%	8.3%	25.0%	0.0%	33.3%	4.8%	42.9%	7.1%
<i>Family</i>	88.6%	77.1%	87.5%	87.5%	90.0%	65.0%	95.2%	61.9%	64.3%	57.1%
<i>Friend</i>	37.1%	42.9%	37.5%	43.8%	35.0%	40.0%	42.9%	42.9%	0.0%	42.9%
<i>A Member of the Academic Community</i>	34.3%	77.1%	25.0%	18.3%	40.0%	45.0%	28.6%	61.0%	21.4%	57.1%
<i>Others</i>	34.3%	37.1%	25.0%	6.3%	15.0%	5.0%	28.6%	52.4%	35.7%	35.7%

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Table 24

Correlations of the Average Scores of the Alienation Scales

This matrix includes the School, Self, Social Institution, Interpersonal Relationship, and Family Subscale Average Scores; the Alienation Test Average Score (the combination of the above subscales); the Alienation Scale Score; the Total Alienation Items; and the Campus Alienation Index.

	Schlav	Selfav	Socinav	Intrelav	Familyav	Atestav	Scaleav	Altensav	Callen
Schlav	1.0000	.6804**	.6601**	.5890**	.5120**	.8433**	.2897**	.7885**	.2184*
Selfav	.6804**	1.0000	.5283**	.4978**	.5084**	.7833**	.3570**	.7500**	.2130*
Socinav	.6601**	.5283**	1.0000	.5532**	.5116**	.7656**	.3743**	.7880**	.1959*
Intrelav	.5890**	.4978**	.5532**	1.0000	.5876**	.7619**	.5099**	.8052**	.2447*
Familyav	.5120**	.5084**	.5116**	.5876**	1.0000	.7541**	.5651**	.7929**	.2876**
Atestav	.8433**	.7833**	.7656**	.7619**	.7541**	1.0000	.5150**	.9465**	.3063**
Scaleav	.2897**	.3570**	.3743**	.5099**	.5651**	.5150**	1.0000	.6864**	.2623**
Altensav	.7885**	.7500**	.7880**	.8052**	.7929**	.9465**	.6864**	1.0000	.3096**
Callen	.2184*	.2130*	.1959*	.2447*	.2876**	.3063**	.2613**	.3096**	1.0000

* - Significance Level .05 (two-tailed test)

** - Significance Level .01 (two-tailed test)

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Table 25

Average Alienation Scores

Average Alienation Scores By Gender

Variable	Total	Women	Men
<i>School Average</i>	1.98	1.74*	2.41
<i>Self Average</i>	1.91	1.63*	2.40
<i>Social Institutions Average</i>	3.32	3.14	3.65
<i>Interpersonal Relationship Average</i>	3.02	2.90	3.29
<i>Family Average</i>	2.07	2.01	2.19
<i>Alienation Test Average</i>	2.44	2.28	2.74
<i>Alienation Scale Average</i>	4.16	4.13	4.27
<i>Alienation Item Average</i>	2.80	2.65	3.08

Note: *A series of ANOVAs revealed that the women's scores indicated with an asterisk are significantly lower than the scores of the men at the .05 level of significance.

Table 26

Average Alienation Scores

Average Alienation Scores by Race/Ethnicity

Variable	African American	Asian American	Caucasian/White	Hispanic	Other
<i>School Average</i>	1.71	1.64	2.44	1.44	3.27
<i>Self Average</i>	1.71	1.76	2.07	1.52	2.97
<i>Social Institutions Average</i>	3.51	3.50	2.87	2.78	3.97
<i>Interpersonal relationship Average</i>	2.75	3.59	3.10	2.62	3.45
<i>Family Average</i>	1.83	2.33	2.17	1.77	2.67
<i>Alienation Test Average</i>	2.33	2.57	2.54	1.90	3.24
<i>Alienation Scale Average</i>	4.23	4.58	4.17	3.62	4.12
<i>Total Alienation Items Average</i>	2.69	2.97	2.86	2.32	3.44

Table 27

Perceptions of Alienation Within the College Community

This chart represents the respondents by gender* and race/ethnicity who find the following members of the academic community alienating.

	Administrators	Faculty Members	Staff Members	Students
<i>Total Sample (n=107)</i>	41.1%	31.8%	29.0%	29.0%
<i>Women (n=68)</i>	39.7%	32.4%	27.9%	36.8%
<i>Men (n=38)</i>	44.7%	28.9%	31.6%	15.8%
<i>African American Students (n=35)</i>	37.1%	34.3%	22.9%	28.6%
<i>Asian American Students (n=16)</i>	31.3%	43.8%	50.0%	31.3%
<i>Caucasian/White Students (n=20)</i>	40.0%	30.0%	20.0%	45.0%
<i>Hispanic Students (n=21)</i>	38.1%	23.8%	23.8%	14.3%
<i>"Other" Students (n=14)</i>	64.3%	28.6%	42.9%	28.6%

Note: *A chi-square test revealed that a significantly greater percentage of women indicated that students were an alienating sub-community on the college campus.

Table 28

Extent To Which the Program Helped the Respondents' Progress Towards the Degree By Gender* and Race/Ethnicity.**

	Total (n=91)	Women (n=56)	Men (n=35)
<i>Total Sample (n=91)</i>	3.73	3.41	4.09
<i>African American Students (n=35)</i>	3.59	3.50	3.72
<i>Asian American Students (n=16)</i>	3.46	3.20	4.33
<i>Caucasian/White Students (n=20)</i>	2.94	2.72	3.40
<i>Hispanic Students (n=21)</i>	4.15	3.78	4.45
<i>"Other" Students (n=14)</i>	4.17	3.86	4.60

Note: The "Program Help" score ranged from 0 (not at all) to 5 (helped a lot).
 *An ANOVA revealed that there were no significant differences by gender.
 **An ANOVA revealed that there were no significant differences by race/ethnicity.

Table 29

**Index Scores of Benefits Associated With Program Affiliation
by Gender* and Race/Ethnicity****

	Total (n=97)	Women (n=60)	Men (n=36)
<i>Total Sample (n=97)</i>	2.39	2.53	2.19
<i>African American Students (n=33)</i>	2.36	2.68	1.73
<i>Asian American Students (n=13)</i>	2.08	2.10	2.00
<i>Caucasian/White Students (n=17)</i>	2.00	2.09	1.83
<i>Hispanic Students (n=20)</i>	3.00	3.00	3.00
<i>"Other" Students (n=12)</i>	2.33	2.57	2.00

Note: The Program Involvement scores range from 0 (no benefits associated with program affiliation) to 4 (four benefits associated with program affiliation)
 * An ANOVA revealed that the Program Involvement scores were not significantly different by gender.
 **An ANOVA revealed that the Program Involvement scores were not significantly different by race/ethnicity.

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Table 30
Correlation Matrix for Alienation and Program Affiliation Benefits Variables

<i>Involve Scores</i>	<i>Altemsav</i>	<i>Ascaleav</i>	<i>Atestav</i>	<i>Callen</i>	<i>Familyav</i>	<i>Interlav</i>	<i>Schoolav</i>	<i>Selfav</i>	<i>Sociallav</i>
<i>Total Sample</i>	-.2718 (97) p=.007	-.1159 (97) p=.258	-.3091 (97) p=.002	.0092 (97) p=.929	-.2225 (97) p=.028	-.2273 (97) p=.025	-.2876 (97) p=.004	-.3239 (97) p=.001	-.1866 (97) p=.067
<i>Students Of Color</i> (African American, Asian American, and Hispanic Students)	-.2764 (66) p=.025	-.1992 (66) p=.109	-.3167 (66) p=.010	-.1217 (66) p=.330	-.2666 (66) p=.030	-.3265 (66) p=.007	-.2010 (66) p=.106	-.2436 (66) p=.049	-.1886 (66) p=.129
<i>White Students</i>	.1709 (18) p=.498	.3275 (18) p=.185	.1039 (18) p=.682	.3930 (18) p=.107	.5224 (18) p=.026	.4058 (18) p=.095	-.1412 (18) p=.576	-.4356 (18) p=.071	-.0427 (18) p=.866
<i>"Other" Students</i>	-.7297 (12) p=.007	-.5160 (12) p=.086	-.7380 (12) p=.006	.3146 (12) p=.319	.7413 (12) p=.006	-.7829 (12) p=.003	-.6611 (12) p=.019	-.4885 (12) p=.107	-.5537 (12) p=.062

<i>Involve Scores</i>	Scores that represented the benefits associated with program affiliation
<i>Altemsav</i>	The average scores of all of the continuous alienation items
<i>Ascale</i>	The average scores of the Alienation Scale items
<i>Atestav</i>	The average scores of the Alienation Test items
<i>Callen</i>	The index of the campus alienation and alienation from sub-communities on the campus
<i>Familyav</i>	The average scores of the family alienation items
<i>Interlav</i>	The average scores of the interpersonal relationships alienation items
<i>Schoolav</i>	The average scores of the school alienation items
<i>Selfav</i>	The average scores of the self alienation items
<i>Sociallav</i>	The average scores of the social institutions alienation items

Table 31

**Benefits Associated With Program Affiliation
By Gender and Race/Ethnicity**

Percentage of Respondents who agreed to the following benefits
associated with program membership.

	Clearer Academic Direction	Clearer Career Direction	More Interested W/School	More Involved W/School
<i>Total Sample (n=97)</i>	68%	62%	54%	56%
<i>Women (n=60)</i>	72%	68%	52%	62%
<i>Men (n=36)</i>	64%	53%	56%	47%
<i>African American Students (n=33)</i>	76%	70%	42%	49%
<i>Asian American Students (n=13)</i>	62%	62%	46%	39%
<i>Caucasian/White Students (n=18)</i>	44%	39%	56%	56%
<i>Hispanic Students (n=20)</i>	80%	65%	80%	75%
<i>"Other" Students (n=12)</i>	67%	66%	42%	58%

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