"WE'LL KEEP THE LIGHT ON FOR YOU":
THE RETENTION OF STUDENTS AT A HISTORICALLY BLACK COLLEGE
OR UNIVERSITY

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CHAPTER 1

<u>Introduction</u>

Today's society is a pluralistic one in which mission statements, including those of educational institutions, are being revised to address issues of the 21st century (Payne, 1995). Addressing issues such as curricula and admission, performance standards changes, budget cuts, technological advances, faculty downsizing, and student enrollment can provide a competitive edge for all educational institutions as society enters the 21st century. While the 1990's witnessed the enrollment of African Americans in Historically Black colleges and Universities (HBCUs) in greater numbers than before, less than 24% of African American students currently attend HBCUs (NAFEO Research Institute, 1994).

Since their inception, historically black colleges and universities have provided opportunities for generations of African Americans. These institutions were born of the belief that post Civil War Black freedmen should become immediately educated. One hundred five institutions, which were created for this purpose remain intact today. Historically Black Colleges and Universities were founded for African-Americans as centers for the development of intellectual leadership and the creation of knowledge

necessary to strengthen the African American community as it adjusts to new levels of opposition and equality (Jones, 1984).

HBCUs were established beginning as early as 1837 as the only source of higher education for African Americans. Most HBCUs were established by state or federal law and began as normal colleges or religious schools. Hence, the early education of African Americans focused on teacher, religious, or agricultural skills training. As of 1865, only 28 African Americans had received bachelor degrees from American colleges (Thomas & Green, 1993). By the turn of the century, HBCUs had produced more than 2,000 college graduates (Whiting, 1991).

The Civil War was a socio-military conflict that transformed Southern society and affected the educational development of blacks in profound ways. As a result of this historical event, African American education underwent a revolution, transforming uneducated slaves into literate human beings (Neufeldt & McGee, 1990). The first two black institutions of higher learning are still in existence today. They are Lincoln University in Pennsylvania, a Presbyterian College incorporated in 1854

and Wilberforce University, an Ohio school funded by the
Methodist Episcopal Church in 1856 (Williams, 1988).
These racially-restricted colleges provided the only
reliable opportunity for black youth to acquire some
level of higher education (Thompson, 1973).

The majority of historically black colleges were
founded after the Civil War (Williams, 1988). The details
of how black public colleges evolved is indeed unusual in
that a law passed to aid white farmers and to accelerate
industrial production led to the creation of Negro land-
grant Colleges. In 1862, during the midst of the Civil
War, Congress passed the first Land-Grant Act. It
decreed that monies from the sale of public land would be
used to support at least one college that stressed the
importance of agriculture and mechanical arts. The law
designated that one college could be developed within
each state, and consequently, only white colleges were
established. The passage of the second Land Grant Act in
1890 specifically stated that funds for higher education
be granted on a just and equitable basis. Alcorn College
in Lorman, Mississippi was founded in 1871 and has the
distinction of being the first black Land-Grant college
in the country. Consequently, between 1880 and 1899, 17

black Land-Grant colleges were established in Southern and border states that emphasized agricultural, mechanical, and industrial education. One such university later became Langston University.

Langston University was created in 1897 as the Colored Agricultural and Normal University (CA&N) and was an anomaly in the establishment of higher education institutions for the Oklahoma Territory. In 1892 three Langston citizens petitioned the Oklahoma Industrial School and College Committee for an institution of higher education for black Oklahomans at Langston. After a series of events favoring the separation of the races in educational facilities, the legislature acted on that suggestion in 1897. It was the first to be designated by race as well as the first institution where the combined functions of "all existing institutions created before 1897" were to be incorporated. Thus, in such ambiguous language, did the territorial legislature establish Oklahoma's first comprehensive university and make difficult any precise statement of just what a university was, given the political and social realities of the state's history. Consequently, Langston University fell heir to an identity crisis around which swirled

controversy among whites and blacks for nearly a century.

The doctrine of "separate but equal" as artfully refined in the second Morrill Act was fixed as a principle of law to which the United States Supreme Court gave formal sanction in the Plessy v. Ferguson ruling in 1896. The Supreme Court's dictum that "the separation of the races did not necessarily imply inferiority of either race and was a reasonable exercise of the State's police power"(Jones, 2001, p. 4). The foundation was set for a dual system of public education which was to prevail for the next 58 years. On May 17, 1954, the Supreme Court brought to an end the charade of equality in segregated education. In a unanimous ruling, the Supreme Court concluded that "in the field of public education the doctrine of separate but equal has no place. Separate education facilities are inherently unequal"(Jones, 2001, p. 5).

The purpose of the university was to instruct "both male and female Colored persons in the art of teaching various branches, which pertain to a common school education and in such higher education as may be deemed advisable, and in the fundamental laws of the United States in the rights and duties of citizens in the

agricultural, mechanical and industrial arts" (Langston
University Catalog, 1996-1998, p. 27). One stipulation
was that the land on which the college would be built
would have to be purchased by the citizens. Picnics,
auctions, and bake sales were held to raise money, and
the land was purchased within a year by black settlers
determined to provide higher education for their
children. On September 4, 1898, The CA&N University,
which was without any building on its campus, opened its
doors in the Cumberland Presbyterian Church Building in
Langston with a faculty of four persons and the president
and a first day enrollment of 41 students and 9
elementary pupils (Langston University Catalog, 1996-
1998).

<u>Issues in Retention</u>

Retention is a subject of considerable interest in the
discourse of higher education. As the nation's colleges
and universities struggle with the changes wrought by
shifting demographics, the impact of technology, and the
implications of accountability, retention of students enjoy
a front-burner status that has generated a significant
amount of scholarships and has driven numerous national
conferences. This is particularly so as it affects the

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nation's increasingly ethnically diverse and non-traditional college population. "Despite the common belief that college students usually drop out because of academic failure, less than 15% of all student departures result from academic dismissal" (Tinto, 1987 p. 17). In fact, most students leave college voluntarily; often their level of academic performance is adequate and some have grade point averages that exceed those of persisters. Instead, decisions to withdraw stem most often from personal, social, and financial problems. Four recurring themes related to retention are (A) uncertainty about what to expect from college and its rewards, (B) transition/adjustment problems, (C) financial difficulties, and (D) academic underpreparation (Creedon, 1978; Dysinger, 1970; Hackman, 1970; Noel, 1985; Pentages, 1978; Tinto, 1987).

Many students choose a college quite haphazardly and most of the information students use in deciding which college to attend comes from inaccurate sources (Tinto, 1987). Numbers indicate that many students base their decisions on information from family and friends (Astin, Hemond, & Richardson, 1982) while relatively few college choices are based on the advisement of high school teachers

and guidance counselors (Tinto, 1987). Not surprisingly, a poor choice of college is the primary cause of departure for at least 20% of those who transfer (Tinto, 1987). Although more information about specific colleges may help students to make better choices, some students simply are not clear about what they should gain from their college experience.

Tinto (1987) has argued that higher education has ignored this developmental task and has failed to become rigorously involved in helping students to make career and other important age appropriate decisions. Pointing out that students are drop-out prone unless they receive some kind of help with the decision-making process involved in declaring a major, Tinto (1987) suggests that colleges should provide students with time for, and help in, thinking through the kinds of majors and careers for which they are suited. In this effort, career counseling and mentoring relationships should be initiated during the freshman year and should continue throughout the college experience.

Parental values and attitudes towards higher education also play an important role in students' commitment to degree completion. The effects of parental values are

particularly strong in determining which students will persevere during the first critical year of college (Hackman & Dysinger, 1970; Pantages & Creedon, 1978). Students expected to complete a college degree are more determined to persist even in the face of difficult circumstances.

Students from low-socioeconomic backgrounds, whose parents are often unfamiliar with the higher education system, face special difficulties. Not only does their background provide little information on the benefits of a college education, but they may feel no peer pressure to attend college and have relatively fewer educated people with whom to identify. Students from low-income families may also experience conflict because college interferes with their ability to contribute financially to their families (Anderson, 1985).

Persistence in college requires that a student adjust both socially and intellectually to a decidedly new environment. For many students, this involves leaving behind the support systems they developed in high school and making new friends all over again. Especially for those who are away from home for the first time, the separation from family may exacerbate adjustment

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difficulties (Tinto,1987).

The stress of college adjustment is strikingly burnout by persistence rates which indicate that almost half of student retention takes place during the first year (Porter, 1990). Semester by semester persistence rates indicate that 17% of students are lost during their first semester of college, and 18.2% of students will not return for their second semester (Porter, 1990). These low retention figures suggest that many students may be dropping out of college without giving themselves a chance to adjust. If students do not have a commitment to college, the stress of adjustment may be sufficient to discourage them from sticking it out (Tinto, 1987). While some students may reenter after a brief period, a great many permanently withdraw or transfer in order to be close to home.

Astin's (1979, p. 24) "intensity of involvement" theory, helps demonstrate why living in a college residence or dormitory as opposed to off campus can significantly influence college persistence. Even after background characteristics are controlled, living in a dormitory adds about 12% to a student's chances of finishing college. Not surprisingly, students who live in residence halls have

more contact with faculty, do better academically, and are more satisfied with their college experience than commuters (Astin, 1979).

There is considerable debate among researchers on the role of financial difficulties in college retention. While some argue that many students, who experience financial difficulties, manage to endure (Dysinger & Hackman, 1970; Tinto, 1987), others point out that financial difficulty is one of the most frequently cited reasons students give for dropping our of college (Creedon & Pantages, 1978; Martin, 1985). In the "What works in Student Retention" survey, "inadequate financial resources" were ranked as the fourth most important characteristic of drop-out prone students (Beal & Noel, 1980, 8). Particularly for low-income students, financial problems may be central to their decision regarding continuance. However, one must be careful when drawing conclusions about the impact of financial aid on persistence since aid is tied closely to income, academic performance, and the student's enrollment status (Porter, 1990).

Aside from the social adjustment, many students do not realize that the standards for academic success in college are considerably more demanding than those of high school.

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Even solid high school preparation cannot guarantee students an instant and trouble-free adjustment to college work (Tinto, 1987).

It would be misleading to assume that under-prepared students are found only in open-enrollment colleges. Under-prepared students can be identified in the most prestigious Ivy League colleges, in small liberal arts colleges, and in junior and technical colleges (Moore & Carpenter, 1985). Furthermore, if one considers under-preparedness a "relative" matter, there will always be students in any class whose credentials put them in the lowest 10-15% of their class in terms of academic readiness (Noel & Levitz, 1983).

<u>Theories of Change and Development</u>

Student development models and theories have increased tremendously since the late 1960s and early '70s. Chickering (1969) noted that few theories of student development past adolescence had been hypothesized or tested and typically theories emerged from the field of psychology.

Theories and models of student development typically fall into two categories. First, developmental theories study the nature, structure, and processes of individual

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growth. Second, college impact models focus on the role

that the environment or sociological phenomena play

during the student-change process (Pascarella &

Terenzini, 1991).

Developmental theories typically depict the student

as passing through stages of developmental growth.

Included in this category are (1) person-environment, (2)

cognitive, (3) typological, and (4) psychosocial.

Person-Environment Interaction Theories are not

considered to be developmental models because, unlike

development models whose primary focus is the

characterization of internal processes, they are

concerned specifically with the environment and how it

influences students' behavior. The focus of the

interaction model is on the sociological and

environmental variables that may play instrumental roles

in the development of the student. Whereas student

development models seek to delineate how students change,

the impact models try to sort out why or what is the

source of that change. Likewise, as developmental models

concentrate attention on outcomes or the nature of

student change, college impact models focus more on the

sources of change. These variables are presumed to exert

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an influence on one or more aspects of student change, with particular emphasis on between-and-within institutional effects on change and development (Pascarella & Terenzini,1991).

Typological models differ tremendously in that the focus is directly linked to distinct characteristics of individuals. They typically concentrate on characteristic differences in the ways individuals perceive their environment or respond to conditions in it. Whereas psychosocial and cognitive-structural theories focus on the nature and processes of change, typological models emphasize distinctive but relatively stable differences among individuals (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991).

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and the Keirsey Temperament Indicators have been increasingly utilized to assess personality and temperament type. The MBTI utilizes forced choice instrumentation in order to assess personality type. The MBTI was specifically developed to assess an individual's preferred behaviors. Accordingly, MBTI describes two dominant functions (introvert or extrovert) coupled with an auxiliary function, thinking feeling (TF) and sensing-intuition (SN) or judging-

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perception (JP) that a person exhibits when making decisions or personal responses to stimuli. Briggs-type indicators result in 16 distinct personality types based on their results of dominant function and auxiliary.

The Keirsey Temperament emerged from the MBTI and is used to identify potential temperament. The sorter is typically used for training workshops and correlates significantly with the MBTI (Quinn, Lewis, & Fischer, 1992).

Typological models such as those by Myers-Brigg and Keisey continue to provide important student assessment information to student affairs administrators; however, typological models have come under increased scrutiny in recent years (Bayne, 1995). For example, their utility in assessing minority personality types has been questioned (Hammer & Mitchell, 1996; Kaufman, 1993).

Typology theories are not alone in their lack of research regarding marginalized ethnic minorities. According to Wright (1987) early research concerning black college student development was virtually ignored in the literature. While the 1960s and '70s brought about voluminous research on minority students, that research was concerned largely with comparing minorities

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to white students on several psychological and social dimensions. Rarely did investigators concern themselves with defining factors that promoted minority students overall intellectual and psychological development (Pounds, 1987; Wright, 1987).

Recent research, however, has attempted to tackle the difficult task of investigating effects that have plagued the minority student while in college. Perhaps most salient in this pursuit is the quest to deconstruct experiences that have steadfastly formed the black identity and to reconceptualize the field of student development (Scheurich & Young, 1997; Tierney, 1996).

<u>Adult Development, Stages, and Phases</u>

Although all of the sequential models provide for an unfolding of adult life in a series of phases or stages, they have different end points from becoming autonomous and independent to finding wisdom and a universal sense of faith and moral behavior. Levinson and his colleagues assert that development is bound to very specific ages (Gould, 1978, Levinson, 1986; Levinson & Levinson, 1996). Levinson and Levinson (1996), for example, from their studies of both men and women, suggest that people evolve through an orderly sequence of stable and transitional

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periods that correlate with chronological age. Components of this changing life structure include marriage and family, occupation, friendships, relationships to politics, religion, ethnicity, and community, and leisure, recreation, and memberships and roles in many social settings. The central components are those that have the greatest significance for the self and the life.

This framework of relating development to specific age periods has led a number of educators to propose a link between age-appropriate tasks and behavior and the fostering of learning activities for adults. Havighurst (1972) was one of the earliest writers to link these ideas into what he termed the teachable moment. The idea of the teachable moment is grounded in the concept of developmental tasks that arise at a certain period in a person's life such as selecting a mate, starting a family, and getting started in an occupation. Although the time frame and some of the tasks Havighurst suggested are somewhat dated, the idea of specific life tasks' giving rise to a teachable moment is not. Knowles (1980) has also viewed developmental tasks as producing "a 'readiness to learn', which at its peak presents a 'teachable moment"' and

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he outlines his own list of "life tasks" for young, old, and middle-aged adults (p. 94).

For other theorists writing from a sequential perspective, there is a step-wise upward movement, but it is not necessarily tied to chronological age (Erikson, 1963; Fowler, 1981; Kegan, 1982; Kohlberg, 1973; Loevinger, 1976; Vaillant, 1977). These scholars assert that whether the stages or steps they describe are related to age or not, they are hierarchical in nature and therefore build on one another. There is disagreement among these writers about what causes the movement between stages and whether this movement is upward only to higher stages or whether it is back and forth across stages. Kohlberg (1973) and Loevinger (1976), for example, view the movement as primarily upward only and internally driven while Erikson (1982) perceives it to be function of internal and environmental forces and allows for movement back and forth between the stages throughout the life cycle. Erikson is an often quoted theorist representing sequential development, each representing a series of crises or issues to be dealt with over the life span. For each stage there is a choice between opposites—one negative and the other

positive—and it is imperative that person achieve a favorable ratio of positive over negative prior to moving to the next stage.

Minority-Serving Institutions

Minority students now account for almost one-quarter (23%) of post-secondary education students, and their enrollment increases over the past 20 years have fueled the overall increase in higher education enrollment (NCES, 2001). Data from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) show that despite predictions to the contrary, post-secondary enrollment increased almost 30% between 1976 and 1994 (NCES, 2001). Minority students accounted for more than half of this gain, and their percentage increases in enrollment have outpaced those of Whites.

Minority students are enrolled disproportionately at a small number of institutions: NCES data show that in 2001, 1000 institutions, less than one-third of all colleges and universities nationwide, enrolled almost two-thirds of all minority students. Many of these schools are considered minority-serving institutions (MSIs), a term used to describe the groups of institutions that enroll a high proportion of African American, Hispanic, and American

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Indian students (Roche,1994). The formally designated

minority-serving institutions are:

- Historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs): This is the oldest group of institutions within this category; most of these 105 schools opened in the late nineteenth century to serve African-American students who could not attend predominantly white institutions in the southern and border states.

- Tribal colleges: These institutions currently number thirty-one, and most of them were established within the past thirty years by American Indian tribes to provide affordable and culturally sensitive postsecondary education to their members.

- Hispanic-serving institutions (HSIs): These institutions were not created to serve a specific population; rather, most of them evolved as HSIs due to their geographic proximity to Hispanic populations. This is the youngest category of MSIs, although in 1994 they numbered 125 institutions (as defined in the Higher Education Act), making them the largest of the three categories. (Taylor, 1985)

All minority-serving institutions are expected to

continue to play an important role in American higher

education because of the access they provide to these fast-

growing minority populations. Given Census Bureau

predictions that minorities, which include Asian Americans,

constituted a third of the U.S. population by 2004, it is

imperative that the higher education community improve the

college participation rates and degree completion rates of

these groups. Currently, African Americans, Hispanic

Americans, and American Indians participate in higher

education at a rate significantly lower than the national average. African Americans, American Indians, and Hispanic Americans all have higher population growth rates than Whites, and the youthfulness of these groups means that they will comprise a growing proportion of the college-age population.

One reason for the MSI enrollment gains is that these institutions have succeeded in meeting the special needs of African American, Hispanic American, and American Indian students. Although these groups are different in many ways, they also share several common characteristics. Overall, minority students are considered more likely than their White counterparts to be at risk of academic failure in elementary and secondary education; correspondingly, they have higher high school dropout rates. NCES reports that in 1998, 6% of the white adult population were high school dropouts are compared with 12% of African American adults and 30% of Hispanic American adults (NCES, 1998). These high dropout rates obviously affect access to college for these three groups.

Continued social segregation and its impact on elementary and secondary school are another risk factor for minority students. Often this means that African Americans

and Hispanic Americans receive poor academic preparation for college. A recent report indicates that African Americans and Hispanics are increasingly isolated in inferior schools and that both groups are far more likely than Whites to attend schools in areas of concentrated poverty (Orfield, 1997). Even more disturbing, recent research indicates that many African American and Hispanic American students who attend inner-city schools are victimized twice: because they are outstanding students at substandard or even average high schools, they enter college classes both under-prepared and overconfident in their ability to succeed academically (Seymour, 1996). This finding means that inner-city students may have overly optimistic views of their potential for college work.

Not surprisingly, minority students also are considered more at risk for failing to complete a postsecondary program. The following elements are risk factors for minority students: delayed enrollment, part-time, caring for a dependent, and receiving a General Education Development (GED) certificate (NCES, 1998). Higher proportions of minority students had multiple risk factors (NPSAS, 1991): 27% of Hispanic students, 31% of African American students, and 35% of American Indian students had

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four or more of these factors, compared with 22% of white students. In addition, although almost one-quarter of White students had no risk factors, fewer than one-fifth of minority students were considered not at risk.

Given their nontraditional status and all of these risk factors, it is not surprising that minority students have lower retention and graduation rates. Despite similarities, each of these minority groups—African Americans, Hispanic Americans, and American Indians—has faced unique barriers to access in higher education.

<u>Affirmative Action in Higher Education</u>

Recent action in the Hopwood decision in Texas, Proposition 209 in California, Proposition 200 in the state of Washington, and now the One Florida Initiative have once again focused attention on Affirmative action. "Affirmative action" is a term of relatively recent origin. It was spawned in the context of President Johnson's "substantive redress" commitment to bring about social justice, which was embodied in the 1964 Civil Rights Act, the Economic Opportunity Act, and the Higher Education Act and Voting Rights Act of 1965 among other unprecedented commitments to interracial reform. On September 24, 1965, President Johnson issued Executive

Order 11246, which utilized the term "Affirmative Action" for the first time and made it a matter of public policy. The order indicated that these enactments were made to ensure that heretofore discriminated people were treated impartially "without regard for race, color, religion or national origin." Broad parameters were set by the term, but no effort was made at a precise definition.

The term affirmative action, therefore, has remained clouded and lends itself to varied applications and explanations. At the heart of the issue is the philosophy that to help overcome long and pervasive discrimination against racial minorities and others distinguished by age, sex, national origin, or religion, the nation's schools, businesses, and government have to provide opportunities to help them catch up and eventually compete fairly with White males. Tales and images, however, have become inherent to the controversies surrounding affirmative action, to some people, affirmative action means making opportunity concrete while to others it means reverse discrimination. To some, affirmative action is only a partial compensation for monumental wrongs while to others, it means replacing competent Whites with incompetent

minorities. The reality of affirmative action is much more complex than the labels both in concept and practice. The general principle behind affirmative action is that a court order to "cease and desist" from harmful activity may not be sufficient to mend the harm already done or even to prevent additional harm as a result of a pattern of events set in motion by previous illegal activity (Roche, 1994).

As the nation grapples with the reality of the demographic shifts of its citizenry, people in higher education must be willing to take the lead to challenge overt and disguised attempts to take away the one thing that aims to provide ethnic diversity in our institutions. Some would like to think that people were at a point in history where they can rely on the good will and ensure the consistency of Americans to make fair and equitable hiring and admissions decisions. People simply are not there (Tinto, 1987).

<u>Problem Statement</u>

Langston University was born with a cultural deficit—the legacy of segregation. If society has been slow to accept Blacks into a White system of education, the White majority has been even slower in its acceptance

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of Black education as a legitimate and profitable enterprise. In essence, habits of thinking among many people are such that "black" ceased to be "black" only when sufficient numbers of whites move in and their mere presence frees the enterprise from the stigma of inferiority. Thus, black education and black colleges have never attained the fullest expression of their potential. That injustice must be shared with a society that created black institutions of higher education and then saddled them with problems before they were born.

The research problem of concern in this study is the measurement of Langston University institutional effectiveness in the retention of African-American students, and the attempt to identify and describe factors, which contribute to institutional effectiveness in producing African-American baccalaureates. In recent years, African-American student retention has become an issue of nation-wide concern in the wake of significant declines in African-American student participation in higher education. As a result, many institutions are stepping up efforts to retain larger numbers of African-American students. Various programs, rewards, incentives

and other devices are being employed to address the immediate crisis-enrollment situation.

Tinto (1987) determined that aside from testing, admission standards, and financial aid, the factor most responsible for significantly impeding minority access to, and successful progress in, the collegiate experience is dropping out. Consequently, institutions have continued to grapple with their own anti-dropout initiatives and strategies that are tailored and developed to suit or meet the particular needs of each respective institution and aimed at producing the best results.

Langston University is utilizing the Nine (9) Common Initiatives from the Oklahoma State Regents in order to develop and implement the University-wide retention program. It is the goal of the University to have a significant bearing on the retention of the freshman students. By detailing the Initiatives, Langston University will be able to formulate a basic program and expand with the changing climate of the campus and students. After reviewing several programs, Noel-Levitz was selected to assist in the retention endeavor.

Noel-Levitz were invited on campus to present their program. Their information was selected by the Retention

Committee. While it is recognized that this is a very important facet of the institution, there was no funding for the retention program. A survey was be disseminated to the freshman students titled, "Getting the Most out of your College Experience". The survey from Noel-Levitz was disbursed to the freshmen students, but funding for scoring was not available at that time. Therefore, the need exists to collect and analyze this data.

<div align="center">Purpose of the Study</div>

The purpose of the study was to describe the institutional data gathered with the CSI on retention at Langston University. Education is one of the keys to economic security, and the development of economic security and power is critical to the future of the minority community in this country. W.E.B. DuBois (1929) said, "Education is the development of power and ideal" (p. 41). The importance of minority student retention and recruitment cannot be over-emphasized. Studies project a tremendous increase in the number of college-age ethnic minorities. The survival of the nation depends on having a large reservoir of well-trained, sensitive, and skilled professionals upon which to rely

for tomorrow's leadership in education, politics,
industry, medicine, science, technology, and other areas
of our literate society. Higher education holds
responsibility for refining and training these future
heads of state and boardroom who, in ever increasing
numbers, will be African American.   The American higher
education system and the secondary education system as
well are facing a crisis. That crisis is the increasing
dropout rates of minority students from colleges and
universities before graduation and the decreasing numbers
of minority students enrolling in graduate and
professional schools across the country. This crisis has
been labeled appropriately by the academic community as
the problem of "Minority Student Retention in Higher
Education."

<div align="center">Research Questions</div>

This study investigate major questions related to and
retention at Langston University.

1. What is the profile of the students on
    the College Student Inventory in terms
    of dropout proneness, predicted
    academic difficulty, educational
    stress, and receptivity to
    institutional help?

2. What is the relationship of the scales
    from the College Student Inventory to
    demographic variables?

3. Do groups exist in relationship to
    retention variables as measured by the
    College Student Inventory?

Several statistical procedures were used to analyze the data that was collected on the College Student Inventory and demographic data sheet. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the frequency and distribution of the responses on the various scales in the College Student Inventory. Analysis of variance was used to examine the relationship between the scores on the College Student Inventory and the various demographic variables. Finally, a cluster analysis was conducted using the items from the College Student Inventory to explore for various groups that may exist within the Langston student population related to retention factors.

Design

This is a descriptive research study that examines the factors influencing retention of freshmen at Langston University. A descriptive study involves collecting data in order to test hypotheses or answer questions concerning the current status of the subject of the study. A descriptive study determines and reports the way things are (Gay, 1987, pp. 10-11).

<u>Population</u>

The population is a group with a similar set of characteristics (Gay, 1987, p.102). It is "the group of interest to the researcher, the group to which she or he would like the results of study to be generalizable" (Gay, 1987, pp. 102-103). Since population is often large, a sample or subset or the population can be used from which inferences are drawn about the population (Shavelson, 1996). The population for this study included 488 first-semester freshmen students enrolled at Langston University's main campus. They were a diverse population including various age groups and genders.

A sample is the number of people chosen from a target population so that they portray the characteristics of the target population (Gay, 1987, p. 101). Ordinarily in descriptive research, a minimum of 10% of the population is recommended for a sample (Gay, 1987, p. 114). The sample of this study included all first-semester freshmen students enrolled in the Personal and Social Development class. However, a larger sample was needed in order to calculate the desired statistics for this study. Therefore, the formula for detecting a random sample was used. According

to this formula, a population of 488 needs a sample size of 215.

<div align="center">College Student Inventory</div>

To understand retention in the full sense of the term is to realize that everything and everyone at an institution affects that institution's ability, or lack thereof, to retain students. Not only is everyone on campus influential in retention success, but retention is also somewhat predetermined by the expectations set during the recruitment process. Knowing this suggests that it is necessary to consider the means through which students are brought to the college or university initially and the expectations that were created in this process. By considering the mindsets that were created, college officials are in a better situation to serve the incoming class.

The College Student Inventory (CSI) was be used to measure retention factors of first-time freshmen students. Noel-Levitz offers two forms of their Retention Management System's College Student Inventory. Form A is a 194-item survey designed for existing students at a college or university; it takes about 60 minutes to complete. Form B has 100 items and can be completed in 30 minutes. The

primary purpose of the College Student Inventory (CIS) is to help foster effective communication between students and their advisors. The CIS accomplishes this by identifying students' needs, strengths, attitudes, motivational patterns, resources, coping mechanisms, and receptivity to intervention.

Validity is the degree to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure. There are three basic approaches to validity of tests and measures (Mason & Bramble, 1989). These are content validity, construct validity, and criterion-related validity.

Construct validity refers to the degree to which a test measures an intended hypothetical construct. A construct is a non-observable trait, such as intelligence, which explains behavior (Gay, 1987, p. 131). The term construct in this instance is defined as a property that is offered to explain some aspect of human behavior such as mechanical ability, intelligence, or introversion (Van Dalen, 1979). The construct validity approach concerns the degree to which the test measures the construct it was designed to measure.

The construct validity of the CSI has been evaluated through two types of analyses. First, this was done by examining the theoretical and empirical basis for the CSI's

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scales. To be a valid measure of the background and motivational variables pertinent to student outcomes in college, the CSI's scales were relevant to variables that general research in education and psychology have shown to be relevant to that goal. Second, several empirical studies were reviewed and related to variables in the CSI that relate theoretically to the educational process or to the characteristics of successful students rather than directly to student outcomes.

Content validity measures the degree to which the test items represent the domain or universe of the trait or property being measured (Gay, 1987, p. 129). In order to establish the content validity of a measuring instrument, the researcher must identify the overall content to be represented. Items must then be chosen from this content that will accurately represent the information in all areas. By using this method the researcher should obtain a group of items which is representative of the content of the trait or property to be measured.

The CSI's content validity is evidenced in the relationship between its practical purpose and its factor structure (Stratil, 1984, p. 7). The general purpose of the CSI is to measure the background and motivational

underpinnings of college success (Stratil, 1984 p. 8). A number of methods have been used to build a high degree of validity into the CSI. The items for each scale were written with the express intent of measuring a particular background or motivational variable as accurately as possible. Its primary scales form into factors that match very closely with that goal. A principal components factor analysis using a varimax rotation extracted six factors for CSI-B (Stratil, 1984, p. 9). Great care was taken to ensure that the nuances in each item were appropriate to that intent. In addition, a defensiveness scale was used to eliminate items eliciting a tendency to generate falsely positive response(p. 8). Through a five-year course of empirical testing and modification and further testing, a concerted effort was been made to maximize the discrimination between the scales. As a result of these efforts, all of the CSI's scales have a very high level of content validity (p. 8).

Criterion-related validity is concerned with detecting the presence or absence of one or more criteria considered to represent traits or constructs of interest (Gay, 1987, p. 134). One of the easiest ways to test for criterion-related validity is to administer the instrument to a group that is

known to exhibit the trait to be measured.

This principle of measurement can be applied to the type of situation of interest here. The CSI is a psychometric instrument designed primarily to measure the motivational traits and social background factors related to student academic outcomes. It was designed primarily to assist advisors and counselors in rapidly gaining an understanding of a student's attitudes toward the self, the educational process, and the institution. If each of the traits it measures is considered a distinct entity and if these entities interact with one another within the primary system, then it is clear that the situation is a very complex one. The initial entities certainly do not possess sharp, stable boundaries. They can be expected to change, in some cases substantially, over the course of the study. In addition, they can be expected to interact with one another during this period. Furthermore, they can be expected to interact with a large array of environmental variables during the study. Concurrent validity is the degree to which the scores on a test are related to the scores on another already established test administered at the same time or to some other valid criterion available at the same time (Stratil, 1984, p. 14). Concurrent validity

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was used to establish criterion-related validity for the CSI. One can conceptualize an institution's admissions procedures as constituting a systematic method of assessing student preparedness for college. Based on these premises, Morrison's (1999) research on the CSI-A was considered as a study of concurrent validity. She compared the CSI-A's scale scores for a group of conditionally admitted students. The assumption is that the conditionally admitted students were academically less prepared than the rest of the freshman population. If the CSI-A is valid, then scores of the conditionally admitted students should be less favorable than those of the overall freshman class. Morrison found this to be true for 13 of the 17 scales examined in the CSI (Stratil, 1984, p. 12).

Reliability is the degree to which a test consistently measures whatever it measures (Gay, 1987, p. 135). The more reliable a test is, the more confidence one can have that the scores obtained from the administration of the test are essentially the same scores that would be obtained if the test were readministered (Gay, 1987, pp. 135). Reliability is expressed numerically, usually as a coefficient; a high coefficient indicates high reliability.

General statistical principles indicate that, when

other factors are held constant, scale reliability tends to increase as scale length increases up to a point of diminishing returns. Throughout the CSI's development, the central goal was to maximize the homogeneity of each scale while keeping the inventory's total length relatively short. As a result of these procedures, CSI-B's 18 major independent scales have an average homogeneity coefficient of .80 despite an average length of only 5.2. items (Stratil, 1984, p. 6). With this solid homogeneity as a base, the CSI-B's stability is quite good.

<u>Procedure</u>

The CSI was administered to all students in the Fall 2003 freshman Personal and Social Development (PSD) class. This class was conducted as a 16-week semester course and designed to acclimate freshmen to college life by introducing study skills/habits, test taking tips, social behaviors, cultural activities and other basic college survival guidelines. The PSD class was selected primarily because it has a concentration of freshmen and because of the purpose and make up of the course.

The freshman class at Langston University has a Retention Program, which has identified the freshman class as a group in which to work with to pinpoint study habits and those

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other academic and social behaviors or problems that hinder a freshman from completing the first year. Freshmen are identified by their instructor after the first three weeks of class if they are not progressing academically or their attendance is poor in the Retention Program. These students are then contacted by faculty/staff members identified to work with them and their advisor. Other programs that are contacted include their TRIO program Student Support Services and L.I.O.N.S. Mentoring program.

The survey was administered on Tuesday and Thursday at 11:00 a.m. to classes of 40-45 students each. This is the regular meeting time of PSD and was considered the best time to administer the test. There are 12 classes for the Fall 2003 semester with a total of 488 students were surveyed. Permission was obtained to conduct the survey by the Institutional Review Board (IRB), Chaired by Dr. Yvonne Montgomery.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

<u>Introduction</u>

Historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs) are institutions established prior to 1964, whose principal misson was and is, the education of African Americans (Roebuck & Murty, 1993, p.3).

An African American is an American of predominantly, or at least partial, African descent, or rather a black American. Most African Americans are descendants of persons brought to the Americas as slaves between the seventeenth and nineteenth centuries. Those whose ancestors were brought as slaves to the Caribbean, or to Latin America, but who have come to the United States as free people, are sometimes classified as African-American, but are sometimes classified as Latin-American or Caribbean-American instead. Those who have come from Africa in the 20th or 21st centuries are often identified by their country of origin. While the term had been used in print in some circles at least since the 1920s and often shortened to Afro-American, it came to much wider use in the United States since the 1970s as the preferred term, as requested by some black Americans themselves. As

of 2000, the U.S. Census Bureau identifies 12.9% of the US

population as Black or African-American. The term's use

has sometimes been criticized as political correctness,

while those who prefer the term say it is a matter of

respect and politeness. However, using the word black is

accepted by most, while some object to African American

because it incorrectly implies that all Africans are

black. However, the term Negro, which was widely used

until the 1960s, is today generally considered

inappropriate and derogatory by many, largely because of

its close association with the term nigger (U.S.

Department of Education, 1999, pp. 1-2).

The history of black colleges and universities is a

unique chapter in the development of American education.

Although most HBCUs are 4-year institutions in the

Southern region of the United States, they represent the

diversity of higher education institutions. HBCUs

encompass a variety of institution types including public

and private; single-sex and coed; predominately black and

predominately white; 2-year and 4-year colleges, research

universities, professional schools, as well as small

liberal arts colleges.

The story of HBCUS began prior to the Civil War. The

earliest of these colleges was formed during the 1830s
(Cheyney University of Pennsylvania) to counter the
prevailing practice of limiting or prohibiting altogether
the education of blacks, most of whom were still slaves.
Lincoln University in Pennsylvania and Wilberforce College
in Ohio were the only two black schools established in the
1850s by blacks in their effort toward self-education.
However, it was not until after the Civil War that the
federal government, the black community, and various
philanthropic organizations began intensive, organized
efforts to educate the former slaves. Many of the schools
founded during this period were primarily religious
schools such as Edward Waters College in Florida, Fisk
University in Tennessee, and Talladega College in Alabama.
Public support, aside from that provided by the freedmen's
Bureau, came primarily in the form of land grants for the
purpose of constructing educational institutions (Hoffman,
Snyder, Sonnenberg, 1996).

The first land grant college provisions, known as the
First Morrill Act, were enacted by the Congress on July 2,
1862. The statute articulate the apportionment of public
lands to the states based on their representation in
Congress in 1860(30,000 acres to each Senator and

Congressman). The statute does not specifically mention

equal educational opportunity, but the Morrill Act was one

of the first congressional actions to benefit from the

post-Civil War constitutional amendments. By the late

1860s, Morrill Act funds were being distributed to the

states, with the intention that they would foster

educational opportunity for all students, especially newly

freed blacks.

The creation of public land-grant colleges and

universities in the United States is one of the most

important developments in American higher education.

Prior to the establishment of the system in 1862, access

to higher education in America was limited to the very

elite. The National Land-Grant Colleges Act of 1862

facilitated the establishment of public land-grant

colleges in the existing states, making higher education

available to less wealthy Americans.

The Freedmen's Bureau existed from the close of the

Civil War until 1873 to provide support for recently freed

slaves. One of the newly formed educational institutions

supported by the Freedmen's Bureau was the future Howard

University. In 1866, a group of District of Columbia

Congregational Church members and clergy founded an

institution for the religious education of blacks in the

nation's capital, called Howard Normal and Theological

Institute, after Major General Oliver Howard, a Union

general, and Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau.

General Howard later served as Howard University's

president (U.S. Department of Education, 1999, p.2). The

federal government, through the Freedmen's Bureau,

provided most of Howard's funding, restricting federal

dollars to support of nonreligious education. Following

the closing of the Freedmen's Bureau in 1873, Howard faced

5 sometimes difficult years of private funding until 1879

when Congress began providing annual appropriations.

However, not until 1928 did these appropriations become

statutory obligations by Congress rather than gifts.

Ironically, since it's founding, Howard has maintained its

status as a private institution, even though it has nearly

always been predominantly funded by the federal government

(U.S. Department of Education, 1999).

Following the Civil War, the expansion of the land-

grant college system continued, with its implied focus on

educational opportunities. But, with the close of the

army's occupation of the old South, funds from the Morrill

Act began to flow systematically to schools offering only

all-white education. Congress attempted by various

legislation to force racial equality, including equality

of education opportunity. However, the U.S. Supreme Court

initiated a series of interpretations of the post-Civil

war constitutional legislative efforts. Culminating with

its landmark 1882 decision finding the first Civil Rights

Act unconstitutional, the Supreme Court held that the 14th

amendment only protected against direct discriminatory

action by a state government (U.S. Department of

Education, 1999).

What followed was a period of nearly 75 years when

only modest gains were made in higher educational

opportunity for minorities. Congress did pass a Second

Morrill Act (1890), which required states with dual

systems of higher education to provide land-grant

institutions for both systems. Basing their jurisdiction

on the 1882 Supreme Court decision, Congress acted to curb

direct state-sponsored discrimination. Eventually, 19

black higher education institutions were organized as

land-grant institutions, which were initially non-degree-

granting agricultural, mechanical, and industrial schools

(Niba & Norman, 1989). These institutions were founded to

raise the hopes and aspirations of a generation of

children of former slaves and to provide quality higher education to Americans of all races. While efforts persisted throughout the late 19th and early 20th centuries to reduce the funding to these colleges, they continued to function based on land-grant funds. However, substantial increases in public funding for black colleges would have to wait until much later (U.S. Department of Education, 1999, p.4).

Private philanthropic aid continued to provide a small amount of assistance to those black schools active during the first quarter of the 20th century. A number of wealthy citizens established education foundations to assist groups of these black colleges, often emphasizing certain kinds of training. A study by the U.S. Bureau of Education in 1915 provides some clues as to the nature of the higher education of blacks at that time. According to the study, there were 33 black educational institutions providing college-level instruction. However, a significant portion of the instruction at these institutions was at the elementary-secondary level. There were some outstanding examples of professional education, including Howard University and Meharry Medical College schools of medicine, dentistry, and pharmacy. In

addition, Howard offered degrees in law. At this time,

many northern institutions were not officially segregated

and included black students in their enrollments. But, as

of the 1915 study, only 18 blacks were enrolled in legal

education programs other than Howard's. In addition to

professional programs, a few black institutions, such as

Fisk University and Howard, had significant undergraduate

and graduate programs (Southern Education Foundation,

1984).

At the beginning of the 20th century, black colleges

were predominately controlled by white administrators and

teaching staffs. But this situation began to change as

almost 400,000 black members of the Armed Forces returned

from World War l. Some of the first places to feel the

effect were the black schools. In 1926, Howard University

offered the presidency to Mordecai Johnson, Howard's first

black president. By 1927, the date of a second federal

study of black colleges, there were 77 institutions

enrolling almost 14,000 students. Despite the effects of

the economic depression, between 1929-30 and 1939-40,

enrollment at HBCUs rose by 66% compared to a rise of 36 %

at all colleges. By 1939-40, current expenditures at

HBCUs were more than double the amounts expended in 1929-

30, after adjustment for inflation (U.S. Department of Education, 1999, p.4).

Following World War II, demand increased rapidly for higher education. Black soldiers returning form the war had money from the GI Bill of Rights to spend on higher education, and veterans made up as much as a third of black college enrollment. But another contentious struggle arose, whose ultimate effects are still being felt today.

During the late 1940s, a series of Supreme Court cases signaled an intention to question the separate-but-equal classification as applied to education. In 1950, in McLaurin v. Oklahoma, the court found that public graduate schools could not be segregated. Also in 1950, in Sweatt v. Painter, the court announced that "a segregated law school for Negroes could not provide them equal educational opportunities."(Jones, 2001, p.42).

Thus, it was no accident that, in 1952 and again in 1953, several groups of plaintiffs from Kansas, Virginia, Delaware, and South Carolina were combined into one case, commonly known as Brown v. Board of Education. Specifically, the plaintiffs in the named case were from Topeka, Kansas, where public elementary-secondary school

systems were allowed, but not required, to have separate but equal schools. These plaintiffs sued their public school systems charging that the separate but equal standard previously in place did not provide equal opportunity for education. Brown was finally decided in 1955, and at the instigation of the Supreme Court, the nation began desegregation public education (Astin, 1990).

Langston University was originally founded as the Colored Agricultural and Normal University prior to Oklahoma's statehood. The creation of Langston University began as a community initiative developed by the citizens of Langston City. Langston City was unofficially founded on April 22, 1890, when a band of Black settlers established their homestead 12 miles northeast of Guthrie, Oklahoma. The settlers of the community desired a proper means of educating their children. Since Blacks were not allowed to attend any of the institutions of higher education in Oklahoma, the Black citizens appeared before the Oklahoma Industrial School and College Commission in July of 1892 to petition that Langston have a college (Langston University Catalogue, 2001).

The purpose of the university was to instruct "both male and female Colored persons in the art of teaching

various branches which pertain to a common school education and in such higher education as may be deemed advisable, and in the fundamental laws of the United States in the rights and duties of citizens in the agricultural, mechanical and industrial arts." One stipulation was that the land on which the college would be built would have to be purchased by the citizens. Picnics, auctions, and bake sales were held to raise money, and the land was purchased within a year by black settlers determined to provide higher education for their children (Langston University Catalogue, 2001).

On September 3, 1898, the school was opened in a Presbyterian Church in Langston with an initial budget of $5,000. The first president was Dr. Inman E. Page (1898-1915), the son of a former slave who had purchased freedom for himself and his family. During the Page administration the campus expanded to 160 acres, enrollment increased from 41 to 650 and faculty from 4 to 35, classroom buildings and dormitories were constructed, and the curriculum was strengthened (Langston University Catalogue, 2001).

As the years progressed, Langston University strived to succeed through adversity and meager funding. From a

small church building on 40 acres, Langston University

increased in size to 100,000 acres consisting of research,

classroom, housing, and administration buildings. As a

Historically Black College and University (HBCU), Langston

continues to face challenges similar to many Historically

Black Colleges and Universities across the nation.

(Stourmire, 2002, p. 20).

For more than 150 years, HBCUs have provided access

to higher education for many black students. While the

nation has struggled, often violently, to pursue the ideal

of equal educational opportunity, these colleges and

universities continue to be a critical force in American

higher education, enriching a great tradition of

educational choice and diversity in this country. HBCUs

inspire and enhance opportunities for leadership and

citizenship by mentoring and supporting students as well

as providing remedial programs that address the

educational needs of their communities.

Today, there are 105 HBCUs, 40 public 4-year

colleges, 49 private 4-year colleges, 10 public 2-year

colleges, and 4 private 2-year colleges. Although HBCUs

constitute only 3% of the nation's 3,688 institutions of

higher learning, they enroll almost 19% of the black

students in colleges. In 1997, the 4-year HBCUs enrolled

28% of all black students enrolled in 4-year colleges, and

awarded 32% of all bachelor's degrees earned by blacks

nationwide. Thus today, as in the past, HBCUs still

assume a significant share of the nation's responsibility

for providing educational opportunities for blacks

(Southern Education Foundation, 1984, p. 23).

HBCUs serve a large number of the disadvantaged

college-bound students, including many who require

remedial training, and expose these students to resources

they would not otherwise receive. These colleges continue

to educate sizeable numbers of blacks choosing to attend

other institutions. However, increases in enrollment and

degrees at HBCUs trailed the growth occurring at other

colleges and universities during the 1976 to 1997 period.

In the past, many HBCUs were primary and secondary

schools, but gradually developed into normal schools and

college programs for the education of black teachers.

Once, HBCUs produced half of America's black teachers. By

1928, most HBCUs had eliminated their elementary and

secondary departments and concentrated on the college-

level liberal arts curriculum. Even today, HBCUs still

have an important role in the education of black teachers

as well as the education of young blacks in some scientific and technical disciplines. In 1997, 51% of blacks receiving bachelor's degrees in agriculture and natural resources, 45% in mathematics, 44% in physical sciences, 40% in biological sciences, 38% in education, and 37% in computer sciences and information sciences were graduates from HBCUs.

The 103 HBCUs tend to be smaller than other higher education institutions. Average enrollment of the HBCUs was about 2,719 in 1997 compared to an average of about 3,872 for all institutions. A number of the HBCUs were very small, with 14 having enrollments under 500. The largest HBCUs were the University of the District of Columbia (10,599), Howard University (10,115), Florida A&M (10,084), and Texas Southern (10,078). Another distinguishing characteristic of HBCUs is the relatively high proportion of women students. In 1997, about 61 % of the students were women compared to 55% at all institutions (U.S. Department of Education, 1999, p.12). The institutional composition of the HBCUs also differs from the rest of the higher education community. Compared to other higher education students, a larger proportion of the students at HBCUs enroll in 4-year and in private

institutions. In 1997, about 93% of students at HBCUs
were enrolled in 4-year colleges compared to 61% of all
college students. The proportion of black 4-year college
students attending HBCUs was relatively high while the
proportion of black 2-year college students attending
HBCUs was only 2%. In 1997, about 29% of HBCU students
attended private colleges compared to 22% for all
students. Black enrollment in private HBCUs as a percent
of all black enrollment in 1997 was 27 % (U.S. Department
of Education, 1999, p. 4).

     In 1993-97, more than 1 in 4 black bachelor's degree
recipients received their degrees from HBCUs. The
proportion of blacks earning their advanced degrees from
HBCUs was somewhat lower than at the bachelor's degree
level. Relatively few blacks earned degrees from HBCUs at
the associate degree level. Compared to other 4-year
colleges, HBCUs awarded a higher proportion of their
bachelor's, master's, doctor's, and first-professional
degrees at the bachelor's level. In 1993-97, 82% of all
degree awards at 4-year HBCUs were at the bachelor's
degree level, compared to 70% at all 4-year colleges.
About 3% of all awards at all 4-year colleges were at the
doctor's degree level compared to 1% of awards at 4-year

HBCUs.

The number of degrees conferred by HBCUs had been falling since the late 1970s at the bachelor's and master's degree levels, but after 1988-89 the numbers of both bachelor's and master's degrees began to rise. At the doctoral level, the number fluctuated between 1976-77 and 1981-82, and then began rising. The number of first-professional degrees rose between 1976-77 and 1985-86, and then declined, but started showing an increase in 1992-97. The enrollment increases during the late 1980s noted above are probably the reason the number of degrees conferred has risen. The numbers of HBCU associate, bachelor's, and master's degrees did not increase at the same rates as at other higher education institution. In fact, the number of master's degrees decreased in HBCUs between 1976 and 1997 (U.S. Department of Education, 1999, p.4).

Taken as a group, HBCUs entered a period of growth during the late 1980s. After a decade of stable enrollments prior to 1986, enrollments at HBCUs rose rapidly through 1992. At least some of this recent increase has been due to a larger proportion of black students choosing to attend HBCUs. But over the entire 1976 to 1997 period, the racial/ethnic student composition

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at HBCUs has diversified. The numbers of degrees

conferred by HBCUs has been rising since 1990, mainly due

to the rising enrollment levels during the late 1980s.

The increased diversity of students is more evident in

degree recipients than the overall student population at

HBCUs (Astin, 1990, p.14).

  After a decade of stable enrollments prior to 1986,

enrollments at HBCUs rose rapidly between 1988 and 1992.

There was little change in enrollments at HBCUs between

1992 and 1994. The proportion of black students choosing

to attend HBCUs in 1994 was slightly lower than in 1988.

Degrees conferred by HBCUs have been rising at all levels,

mainly because of the rising enrollment levels during the

late 1980s.

  The financial and faculty salary picture at the HBCUs

generally looks less robust than at other institutions,

especially at private HBCUs. Some private HBCUs show

difficulty in maintaining enrollments, funding, and staff

resources comparable to other private institutions.

  Despite the historical role of HBCUs in moving blacks

into the mainstream of American life, they have been under

pressure to justify their continued existence since the

U.S. Supreme Court's 1954 decision in Brown v. Board of

Education. Some black and white educators and policy
makers maintain that the HBCUs' mission-to provide higher
education for blacks who by law and/or custom were barred
from attending white private and public colleges and
universities prior to 1954-has been accomplished. Some
claim that prior to the late 1960s separate sets of
standards were developed for black and white colleges, but
that these no longer exist; that is, black schools are
being evaluated now on the same criteria as are other
colleges and universities. Therefore, in a society that
is striving for racial integration, the further
duplication of physical facilities, academic programs, and
services within a racially segregated, two tiered higher
education system is counterproductive financially,
philosophically, and pedagogically (Fleming, 1984, pp. 1-
2; Harvey and Williams, 1989). Some critics define HBCUs
as diploma-mill service centers for those who could not
get into college anywhere else because of low Scholastic
Aptitude Test (SAT) scores. Reportedly, most HBCUs
provide an intellectual disservice to students and are
characterized by insufficient financial resources,
underpaid and incompetent teachers, a dearth of research
scholars, and a semiliterate student culture (Junod,

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1987). Some contend, explicitly or implicitly, that black students must be educated in white colleges if they are to compete in an integrated society (Hacker, 1990). Sowell (1972), a so-called black neo-conservative, argues that many black schools have vested interests in maintaining mediocrity, that it is difficult for them to retain good faculty, and that bright students do not develop intellectually there. According to Sowell, no HBCU ranks with a decent white state university. These critics, among others (Jones 1971; Jones and Weathersby, 1978), have denounced the administrative leadership in black colleges as an in-group of mismanagers who are uninterested in academic standards, but most interested in protecting their turf.

While blacks and whites agree that HBCUs have proven themselves useful, they are now viewed by many whites and some blacks as ineffective and dispensable institutions that do not meet the academic levels of white institutions. In a poll of its subscribers in 1980, Black Enterprise magazine reported that 82 % of the respondents thought HBCUs were serving a purpose that could not be met by other colleges, but that only half of this percentage hoped their children would attend a black college. Many

blacks, though admiring HBCUs, prefer white institution for themselves and their children (Branson, 1987).

A review of the literature is needed to determine critical issues affecting performance, persistence, and graduation rates of African-American students attending postsecondary institutions. The literature suggests that students' likelihood of remaining through graduation depends on the level of social and academic integration into college life. Social and academic integration depends on a number of cognitive and non-cognitive factors shared by many African-American students (Roebuck & Murty, 1993).

Nearly one-third of the students enrolled in higher education in the United States are considered first-generation college students, defined as those individuals whose parents have not "experienced a college education" (Billson & Terry, 1982, p. 57). This population of undergraduate students will continue to expand over the next 10 years (Terenzini, Springer, Yaeger, Pascarella, & Nora, 1996). Despite the magnitude of this group, "surprisingly little is known specifically about first-generation students" and comparatively few research initiatives have focused on the cognitive development,

college experiences, and psychosocial development of first-generation college students (Terenzini et al., 1996, p. 1).

A caveat is in order. For years, researchers have studied African-American students as a single entity, making comparisons to majority students as a single group. The more recent trend is to study specific ethnic groups and subgroups and then compare various groups to the majority group. Acknowledging the need to understand the expectations and experiences of specific groups and subgroups in order to propose programmatic institutional changes to meet their unique needs, we suggest that there are factors common to various ethnic groups across campus that can guide efforts to encourage participation and success in the university experience.

Declining numbers of black students graduating from colleges, graduate and professional schools in the United States have caused considerable concern among a vast and diverse array of audiences during recent years (Niba & Norman, 1989, p.1). This concern has stimulated intense debate, research, and actions at various levels, and has prompted a number of institutions to develop programs to address the need to improve the retention of black

students and reduce their dropout rates from college.
Nowhere has this concern been more significant than at
predominantly and historically black colleges and
universities where the majority of black students still
receive their undergraduate degree.

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college experiences, and psychosocial development of
first-generation college students (Terenzini et al., 1996,
p. 1).

The American higher education system, and the
secondary education system as well, are facing a crisis.
That crisis is the increasing dropout rates of black
students from colleges and universities before graduation

and the decreasing numbers of black students enrolling in graduate and professional schools across the country. This crisis has been labeled appropriately by the academic community as the problem of "Black Student Retention in Higher Education". Clewell and Ficklen (1986) have indicated that the attrition of minority students from postsecondary education is one of the major obstacles to the attainment of educational equity, and is a serious threat to eroding the gains that have been made in enrolling minorities in postsecondary education over the past decade. Thus, as the gap widens between the proportions of minorities and non-minorities receiving college degrees and graduate and professional degrees, it is logical that the gap between the access to opportunities and career success between the two groups will also widen.

Over the past few years much debate has been raised about the increasing attrition rates of African-American from postsecondary education and the corollary problem of African-American student retention in institutions of higher education. This debate has centered on several critical areas that affect these problem: (1) the preparedness of African-American students for

matriculation in higher education; (2) the intellective and non-intellective factors that affect African-American students' performance and success in college; (3) the institutional barriers and amenities to African-American student success or failure; and (4) the intrinsic social and economic problems of African-American students. While these are not the exclusive issues that affect African-American students' retention and attrition, they are certainly among the most pertinent and summarize the crux of the intelligent debate on these problems (Tinto, 1993, p.70-71).

When it comes to getting beyond the current myths and identifying just who the dropout-prone student is, just what tips the cost-benefit scale, we find that it is almost impossible to pinpoint the single, specific reason why a student leaves. Dropping out of college is a complex decision that is nearly always the result of a combination of factors. We therefore have come to think in terms of the themes of dropping out, the forces of attrition, and what we can do to counter them. The major themes that have been found is academic boredom and uncertainty about what to study, transition/adjustment problems, limited and/or unrealistic expectations of

college, academic underpreparedness, incompatibility, and irrelevancy (Tinto, 1989).

The excitement ahead in higher education lies in what an institution can do to deliver learning-student growth and success-that leads to reenrollment, to the desire on the part of students to come back (Levitz, Noel, Saluri, 1985, p. 1). Recent national reports on the status of education suggest that the key in the 2000s is going to be quality. The more students learn, the more they sense they are finding and developing a talent, the more likely they are to persist; and when we get student success, satisfaction and learning together, persistence is the outcome.

Re-enrollment or retention is not then the goal; retention is the result or by-product of improved programs and services in our classrooms and elsewhere on campus that contribute to student success. If retention alone becomes the goal, institutions will find themselves engaged in trying to hold students at all costs. Pressuring students to stay when it is not in their best interests to do so is not only wrong morally but also counter-productive; it often results in an accelerated attrition rate. Pressuring or trapping behavior from

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institutional personnel has a spreading effect: dissatisfied students who are leaving take others with them. There are no magical tricks. Gimmicks to attract and retain students in the 2000s simply will not work over any extended period of time. Researchers are finding that what really encourages students to enter and to persist is the institution giving them the chance to think through their futures, to discover their talents, to grow and develop. This takes hard work and resources—human and financial—on the part of the institution (Noel, 1986).

As the bottom line, we find that students re-enroll when they are having an exciting, substantive learning and personal growth experience that they can relate to their future.

As indicated, entering college freshmen often lack the maturity to identify and resolve conflicts that may be impeding their progress. They simply do not have the developmental skills needed to approach career and life decisions in a mature way. It is clear that certain developmental tasks must be accomplished before these students are capable of making the types of decisions that will have far-reaching impact on their lives (Gordon, 1981).

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Chickering's Stages. Chickering (1969) places college students' development within stages or vectors involving certain developmental tasks which students need to accomplish if they are to move confidently into adulthood. There is a directionality and content to these developmental tasks that greatly influences when students can be expected to make career decisions. According to Chickering, students must achieve intellectual, physical, and social competence; learn to manage their emotions; and become independent before they have the capacity to establish their self-identity. Although these issues are usually not resolved until the sophomore or junior year in college, students are often forced or expected to make choices at the beginning of or during their freshman year; thus is created a stressful and confusing situation for many (Chickering, 1969, p.121).

Link with Self-Identity. Identity issues are not only closely tied to career development (Crites, 1981), but are often related to indecision (Maier and Herman, 1974; and Resnick, Fauble, and Osipow, 1970). Developing and identifying one's self-concept are critical components of the choice process. Rose and Elton (1971) conclude that all freshmen entering college experience varying

degrees of identity confusion and some undecided students who drop out of college may do so because they find the identity issue too confusing to resolve at that point in their lives. Students who are able to resolve identity issues while in college are more apt to persist to graduation.

Super's Five Stages. Super (1957), who postulates that there are certain tasks, attitudes, and behaviors associated with different stages of career development, identifies five life stages in establishing a career identity. These stages are growth (birth to age fourteen), exploration (age fifteen to twenty-four), establishment (age twenty-five to forty-four), maintenance (age forty-five to sixty-four), and decline (age sixty-five and older). Inherent in each of these stages are certain developmental tasks that need to be accomplished. The tasks that college students are concerned with are crystallizing a vocational preference, specifying it and implementing it.

Many undecided students enter college in the exploration stage, still trying to crystallize and specify a vocational choice. Since they can formulate and specify academic and occupational choices only after a period of

purposeful exploration, they need to test their tentative ideas through course work, field experiences, personal contact with workers, or actual work experience. According to Super, these are normal developmental tasks that all students experience during the college years.

Dualistic State. Another developmental theorist whose work has great relevance for understanding undecided students is Perry (1970). In outlining the natural evolution of cognitive development during the college years, Perry contends that many entering freshmen are incapable of understanding a relativistic world. Because they tend to approach events and decisions in a very dualistic way, they are looking for the one right major or career field. Since it limits the amount and type of exploration and knowledge a student is capable of undertaking and assimilating, this dualistic state of reasoning often frustrates academic advisers, career counselors, and faculty.

Many dualistic students who select a specific major as they enter college, viewing it as the right choice, do, however, eventually discover that there are multiple alternatives for reaching their goals. As these students develop a more relativistic view of their world, they may

radically change decisions that they made as dualistic,
dependent freshmen. Perry's theory thus helps explain why
so many students change their majors.

A strong developmental emphasis must be an integral
part of any retention effort geared to undecided students.
To ensure that students receive the help and support they
need at critical decision points, especially during their
first few months in college, Sheffield and Meskill (1974)
suggest that retention programs include an ongoing
orientation program, a strong academic advising component,
and a greater emphasis on counseling effort. Teaching,
advising, and counseling efforts should be coordinated to
provide the type of developmental approach that is
responsive to undecided students' needs at every juncture
of their search.

Socialization into the college culture has been noted
as an important factor in student lives. Many students
feel peer pressure to minimize their interest in academic
pursuits (Katz, 1968). Because of fear of competition or
fear of unfamiliar intellectual activities, freshman
students pressure each other to minimize their interest in
academics. This peer pressure is obviously
counterproductive to what the university would like to

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instill in freshman students.

Another model of student attrition views integration as a process by which students bring to college characteristics such as ability, background, and intentions which interact with the structures, sub-groups, and members of the institution, leading to varying degrees of integration into the college community (Tinto, 1975, 1993). Tinto views integration as the extent to which the student shares the normative feelings and beliefs and the extent to which the student accepts the formal and informal rules and structures of both the members of the whole institution and the sub-groups to which the student belongs. Although Tinto's theory concentrates on student attrition, Pascarella and Terenzini (1991, pp. 51-53) note that this model has been successfully used in researching other student outcomes such as academic skill acquisition, personal change, and academic major change.

Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) noted that Tinto's interactionalist model of individual student departure is "quite similar to Astin's (Theory of Involvement) in its dynamics" (p. 51). It is rather surprising that even though Tinto's interactionalist model of student departure (1975, 1993) and Astin's theory of involvement (1984) both

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deal with the issue of persistence in college and are among the most widely cited approaches in the higher education literature, the relationship between the two rarely has been studied empirically.

"Quite simply, student involvement refers to the amount of physical and psychological energy that the student devotes to the academic experience" (Astin, 1984, p. 297). Astin was clearly describing involvement as behavioral in meaning. "It is not so much what the individual thinks or feels, but what the individual does, how he or she behaves, that defines and identifies involvement" (p. 298). This theory of involvement is rooted in a longitudinal study of college student persistence from which Astin (1975) concluded that factors contributing to persistence were associated with students' involvement in college life, whereas, factors contributing to departure from college were associated with students; noninvolvement.

Astin (1984) suggested five basic postulates in his theory: (a) involvement means the investment of physical and psychological energy in different "objects" that range in the degree of their specificity; (b) involvement occurs along a continuum, with different students investing

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different amounts of energy in various objects at various times; (c) involvement includes quantitative and qualitative components; (d) the amount of student learning and personal development is directly proportional to the quality and quantity of involvement; and (e) "the effectiveness of any educational practice is directly related to the capacity of that policy or practice to increase involvement" (p. 298). Astin maintained that the final two postulates provide helpful "clues for designing more effective educational programs for students" (p. 298).

In his interactionalist model of student departure, Vincent Tinto (1993) also supported the critical role of student involvement in positive educational outcomes for college students. Moreover, he emphasized the need to better understand the relationship between student involvement in learning and the impact that involvement has on student persistence. In Tinto's words, "There appears to be an important link between learning and persistence that arises from the interplay of involvement and the quality of student effort. Involvement with one's peers and with the faculty, both inside and outside the classroom, is itself positively related to the quality of

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student effort and in turn to both learning and

persistence' (Tinto, 1993, p. 71). Tinto argued that

learning is linked to persistence given that "The more

students learn, the more likely are they to persist"

(Tinto, 1993, p. 131).

Tinto's (1993) revision of his initial conceptual

model (Tinto, 1975) included a more detailed discussion of

the interaction between behavior and perception by

students as they move toward greater integration with

their social and academic environments. In fact, in the

discussion of his revised model, Tinto (1993) explicitly

described ways in which students "experience" and

"interact with" the campus environments phrasing that

implies a strong behavioral component. Most of the

existing empirical literature testing the Tinto model

(Braxton & Brier, 1989; Halpin, 1990; Pascarella &

Terenzini, 1980) has focused on the perceptual component

of academic and social integration, while ignoring

measures of actual behaviors. A few studies have included

some behavioral measures with perceptual measures in the

social and academic integration scales (Nora & Rendon,

1990; Pascarella & Chapman, 1983). However, Astin (1973,

1991) warned that researchers should be careful about

clearly distinguishing between behavioral and perceptual

measures because they measure different types of data.

Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) also articulated the

importance of distinguishing between these types of

measures. Tinto's model of individual student departure

is among the most widely discussed and explored in the

higher education literature.

Institutional factors that impact student attrition

can be viewed in two categories; Organizational policies

and institutional or campus climate. Organizational

policies extend throughout an entire college/university

system, from student services and student affairs to

academic areas and majors. McNairy (1996) highlighted

financial aid as a difficult area given the students'

unfamiliarity with financial-aid applications; and

erroneous assumptions made by white financial-aid staff

members; and family emergencies that may affect the

financial status of the student. Love (1993) had similar

findings with regard to African-American students' lack of

information on financial aid but notes cutbacks in

funding, the shift from grant assistance to more loan

assistance, and an assurance by the institution to the

students for continuous financial support. In another

study of African-American student attrition at a large
predominately white northwestern university, Sailes (1993)
found that 45% of the participants in the study indicated
that they received inadequate financial aid, while another
35% reported that they received no aid. Although the
delivery of financial aid relies on sophisticated federal
and state methodologies, it is one area of a vast number
of areas that is crucial in determining student
persistence and should be explored by institutions.

Campus or institutional climate is another area that
impacts student attrition. Love (1993) discusses the
climate of most predominately white institutions,
indicating that they were established under the law and/or
practice that excluded black students and other
minorities, which was built into the structure and fabric
of the institution. Throughout time we have seen racism
manifested in student-student interactions, staff-student
interactions, and faculty-student interactions, and
faculty-student interactions. For example, low
expectations by white faculty based on presumption of lack
of preparation, lack of ability, and prior disadvantage
can block communication with students of color (Love,
1993). In addition, the ignorance of the cultures and

contributions, as well as the lack of professional role
models for students of color, all impact student retention
(McNairy, 1996). This supports Tinto's (1987) theory that
the lack of academic integration whether formal or
informal can influence student departure.

As described in the causes of student attrition, both
students and institutions are very much involved in the
process. Students of color are completely responsible for
their performance in school. However if they are placed
in environments that are not welcoming, chances of these
students feeling alienated can increase, consequently
increasing student attrition rates.

Getting students started right on their path to
success in college is an exciting and challenging goal.
The College Student Inventory (CSI) is the foundation of
the Noel-Levitz Retention Management System and designed
especially for incoming first-year students. Form B,
which will be used in this study, is comprised of 100
items comprised of 100 items contained in 16 different
scales, organized under the three main categories of:
Academic Motivation, General Coping Skills, Receptivity to
Support services.

The CSI Form B also contains a number of single items

reporting such background characteristics as planned work

hours, high school grades, and family background. With

information from this inventory, an advisor or counselor

can know where to begin fruitful conversation with a

student. Students typically complete the CSI before the

term begins or early in the term.

The heart of the CSI-B consists of the 16 independent

motivational scales. The student's standing on each scale

is indicated in two ways: as a percentile rank and on a

bar graph. If you are interested in the exact score, you

can refer directly to the percentile rank. But if you

want a general and immediate sense of the student's

motivational pattern, the bar graph will give you a

general overview at a glance. Each category in the visual

profile represents 20% of the normative distribution; a

very high thus corresponds to the top 20%. A percentile

rank indicates the proportion of students in the normative

sample who scored below that student. These scores are

organized into three sections: academic motivation,

general coping, receptivity to support services.

    1. Academic Motivation
        (A) Study Habits. This scale measures the student
            willingness to make the sacrifices needed to
            achieve academic success. It focuses on a
            student's effort, rather than interest in
            intellectual matters or the desire for a

degree.

(B) Intellectual Interests. This scale measures how much the student enjoys the actual learning process, not the extent to which the student is striving to attain high grades or to complete a degree. It measures the degree to which the student enjoys reading and discussing serious ideas.

(C) Verbal Confidence. This scale measures the degree to which the student feels capable of doing well in courses that heavily emphasize reading, writing, and public speaking. It is not intended as a substitute for aptitude assessment, but rather as an indicator of self-esteem relative to this type of task.

(D) Math and Science Confidence. This scale measures the degree to which the student feels capable of doing well in math and science courses. It is an indicator of self-esteem relative to this type of task and is not intended as a substitute for aptitude assessment.

(E) Desire to Finish College. This scale measures the degree to which the student values a college education, the satisfactions of college life and the long-term benefits of graduation. It identifies students who possess a keen interest in persisting, regardless of their prior level of achievement.

(F) Attitude Toward Educators. This scale measures the student's attitudes toward teachers and administrators in general, as acquired through his/her pre-college experiences. Students with poor academic achievement often express a general hostility toward teachers and this attitude often interferes with their work.

2. General Coping

(A) Sociability. This scale measures the student's general inclination to join in social activities.

(B) Family Emotional Support. This scale measures students' satisfaction with the quality of communication, understanding, and respect that they have experienced in their family.

(C) Opinion Tolerance. This scale measures the degree to which the student feels that he or she can accept people without regard to their political and social opinions. Most directly, it indicates whether a student will be able to tolerate the diversity of social backgrounds to which he or she is exposed at college.

(D) Career Closure. This scale measures the degree to which the student has defined a career goal and developed a firm commitment to it.

(E) Sense of Financial Security. This scale measures the extent to which the student feels secure about his/her current and future college enrollment.

3. Receptivity to Support Services

(A) Academic Assistance. This scale measures the student's desire to receive course-specific tutoring or individual help with study habits, reading skills, examination skills, writing skills, or mathematics skills.

(B) Personal Counseling. This scale measures the student's felt need for help with personal problems. The scale is a very useful aid in deciding whether to encourage the student to seek counseling for motivational problems.

(C) Social Enrichment. This scale measures the student's desire to meet other students and to participate in group activities.

(D) Career Counseling. This scale measures the student's desire for help in selecting a major or career.

(E) Financial Guidance. This scale measures the student's desire to discuss ways of increasing his or her financial resources for college.

The CSI provides information about the student's attitudes and motivations in percentile rank. Tinto spoke often about early intervention, many campuses wait for poor academic performance, spotty attendance, or other visible indicators as triggers for early interventions.

Yet these approaches are often too late.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

<u>Review of the Study's Purpose</u>

The research problem of concern in this study was the measurement of Langston University institutional effectiveness in the retention of African-American students, and the attempt to identify and describe factors, which contribute to institutional effectiveness in producing African-American baccalaureates. The purpose of the study was to describe the institutional data gathered with the CSI on retention at Langston University. Such a design is conducive to the investigation of a situation involving several variables to determine the factors and relationships among the factors that have resulted in the current behavior or status of the subject of the study (Gay, 1992, p. 236).

<u>Design</u>

This study involves descriptive research which entails collecting data in order to test hypotheses or answer questions concerning the current status of the subject of the study. A descriptive study determines and reports the way things are. One common type of descriptive research involves assessing attitudes or

opinions toward individuals, organizations, events, or procedures. Descriptive data are typically collected through a questionnaire survey, an interview, or observation (Gay, 1987, pp. 10-11).

<div align="center">Sample</div>

This study was conducted at Langston University. Langston University in Langston, Oklahoma, is a land-grant institution that was established in 1897 under the Morrill Act of 1890. The Colored Agricultural and Normal University (CA&N) was an anomaly in the establishment of higher education institutions for the Oklahoma Territory. The population for this study included 488 first semester freshmen enrolled at Langston University main campus. They were a diverse population including various age groups, genders, ethnics/races, and verity of majors.

A sample is the number of people chosen from a target population so that they portray the characteristics of the target population (Gay, 1987, p. 101). Ordinarily in descriptive research, a minimum of 10% of the population is recommended for a sample (Gay, 1987, p. 114). The sample of this study were 270 first semester freshmen students enrolled in Personal and Social Development class. However, a larger sample is

needed in order to calculate the desired statistics for
this study. Therefore, the formula for detecting a
random sample was used. According to this formula, a
population of 488 needs a sample size of 215.

<center>Instrument</center>

Both quantitative and a qualitative element, was used
in this study. The instrument used in the collection of
data most appropriate for this study was the CSI. The
College Student Inventory (CSI) is the foundation of the
Noel-Levitz Retention Management System. The College
Student Inventory (CSI) measured retention rates of first-
time freshman students. There are two versions of the CSI:
Form A and Form B. Form A is a 194-item questionnaire that
accesses a variety of motives and background information
related to college success. Most students can complete it
in about an hour. Form B is a 100-item questionnaire that
also assesses student's motives related to college success.
This can be completed in approximately 30 minutes. Designed
especially for incoming first-year students, the 100 items
contain 16 different scales. These are organized under
the three main categories of: academic motivation, general
coping skills, and receptivity to support services. The
CSI also contains a number of single items reporting such

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background characteristics as planned work hours, high school grades, and family background. Form B was be used in this study.

The CSI began as a derivation from psycho-system theory, arising from the author's interest in the role played by emotion and self-esteem in human motivation (Stratil, 1986). Stratil's goals were (a) to identify the specific motivational variables that are most closely related to persistence and academic success in college and (b) to develop a reliable and valid instrument for measuring those variables. As a member of the American Psychological Association (APA), the author's development of the CSI was guided by the Ethical Principles of Psychologists (APA, 1985). He was further guided by the Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing which after a careful examination of many issues and case histories have been published in a well-known manual developed by a joint committee of the American Psychological Association (APA), the American Educational Research Association, and the National Council on Measurement in Education (Noel-Levitz, 2003, p.42).

The CSI Form B is a assessment tool that provides an effective means of promoting the academic and social

integration of the student into the campus. The primary purpose of the CSI is to foster effective communication between students and their advisors, a purpose that is accomplished by identifying students' needs, attitudes, motivational patterns, resources, coping mechanisms and receptivity to intervention. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the frequency and distribution of the responses on the various scales in the College Student Inventory. Analysis of variance was used to examine the relationship between the scores on the College Student Inventory and the various demographic variables. Finally, a cluster analysis was conducted using the items from the College Student Inventory to explore for various groups that may exist within the Langston student population related to retention factors.

<div align="center">Validity</div>

Validity is as the degree to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure. There are three basic approaches to validity of tests and measures (Mason & Bramble, 1989). These are content validity, construct validity, and criterion-related validity. Assessing the CSI's validity is an on-going process. A number of methods have been used to build a high degree of validity

into the CSI. Rather than rely on post hoc factor
analysis to define scales, for example, the items for
each scale were written with the express intent of
measuring a particular background or motivational
variable as accurately as possible. Great care was taken
to ensure that the nuances in each item were appropriate
to that intent. In addition, a defensiveness scale
(Stratil, 1984) was used to eliminate items eliciting a
tendency to generate falsely positive responses. Through
a five-year course of empirical testing, modification and
further testing, a concerted effort has been made to
maximize the discrimination between the scales. As a
result of these efforts, all of the CSI's scales have a
very high level of content validity (Stratil, 1988, p.
8).

A considerable body of empirical data supports the
CSI's reliability and validity. Its reliability is solid
when assessed in terms of both homogeneity and stability.
Its validity is also very solid. The content of its
items closely parallels the motivational constructs that
it attempts to measure, and these constructs are closely
related to the established principles of academic
achievement and retention at the post-secondary level.

Research on the CSI's concurrent validity has shown that it relates well with other indicators of the variables it measures. Its results are consistent with general theory, thus establishing its construct validity. The CSI's predictive validity is very solid because of the complexity of the social and academic factors involved. Finally, an extensive study of motivational styles derived form CSI-B demonstrates the instrument's considerable promise as a methodology for studying the more complex, configural aspects of academic performance and retention among college students. Thus, the CSI appears to be a very valuable instrument for helping identifying the needs of entering students.

Construct Validity

Construct validity refers to the degree to which a test measures an intended hypothetical construct. A construct is a non-observable trait, such as intelligence, which explains behavior (Gay, 1987, p. 131). The term construct in this instance is defined as a property that is offered to explain some aspect of human behavior such as mechanical ability, intelligence, or introversion (Van Dalen, 1979). The construct validity approach concerns the degree to which the test measures the construct it was designed to

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measure.

The construct validity of the CSI has been evaluated through two types of analyses. First, this was done by examining the theoretical and empirical basis for the CSI's scales. To be a valid measure of the background and motivational variables pertinent to student outcomes in college, the CSI's scales were relevant to variables that general research in education and psychology have shown to be relevant to that goal. Second, several empirical studies were reviewed and related to variables in the CSI that relate theoretically to the educational process or to the characteristics of successful students rather than directly to student outcomes.

Content Validity

Content validity measures the degree to which the test items represent the domain or universe of the trait or property being measured (Gay, 1987, p. 129). In order to establish the content validity of a measuring instrument, the researcher must identify the overall content to be represented. Items must then be chosen from this content that will accurately represent the information in all areas. By using this method the researcher should obtain a group of items which is representative of the content of

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the trait or property to be measured.

The CSI's content validity is evidenced in the relationship between its practical purpose and its factor structure (Stratil, 1984, p. 7). The general purpose of the CSI is to measure the background and motivational underpinnings of college success (Stratil, 1984 p. 8). A number of methods have been used to build a high degree of validity into the CSI. The items for each scale were written with the express intent of measuring a particular background or motivational variable as accurately as possible. Its primary scales form into factors that match very closely with that goal. A principal components factor analysis using a varimax rotation extracted six factors for CSI-B (Stratil, 1984, p. 9). Great care was taken to ensure that the nuances in each item were appropriate to that intent. In addition, a defensiveness scale was used to eliminate items eliciting a tendency to generate falsely positive response(p. 8). Through a five-year course of empirical testing and modification and further testing, a concerted effort was been made to maximize the discrimination between the scales. As a result of these efforts, all of the CSI's scales have a very high level of content validity (p. 8).

Criterion-Related Validity

Criterion-related validity is concerned with detecting the presence or absence of one or more criteria considered to represent traits or constructs of interest (Gay, 1987, p. 134). One of the easiest ways to test for criterion-related validity is to administer the instrument to a group that is known to exhibit the trait to be measured.

This principle of measurement can be applied to the type of situation of interest here. The CSI is a psychometric instrument designed primarily to measure the motivational traits and social background factors related to student academic outcomes. It was designed primarily to assist advisors and counselors in rapidly gaining an understanding of a student's attitudes toward the self, the educational process, and the institution. If each of the traits it measures is considered a distinct entity and if these entities interact with one another within the primary system, then it is clear that the situation is a very complex one. The initial entities certainly do not possess sharp, stable boundaries. They can be expected to change, in some cases substantially, over the course of the study. In addition, they can be expected to interact with one another during this period. Furthermore, they can be

expected to interact with a large array of environmental variables during the study. Concurrent validity is the degree to which the scores on a test are related to the scores on another already established test administered at the same time or to some other valid criterion available at the same time (Stratil, 1984, p. 14). Concurrent validity was used to establish criterion-related validity for the CSI. One can conceptualize an institution's admissions procedures as constituting a systematic method of assessing student preparedness for college. Based on these premises, Morrison's (1999) research on the CSI-A was considered as a study of concurrent validity. She compared the CSI-B's scale scores for a group of conditionally admitted students. The assumption is that the conditionally admitted students were academically less prepared than the rest of the freshman population. If the CSI-B is valid, then scores of the conditionally admitted students should be less favorable than those of the overall freshman class. Morrison found this to be true for 13 of the 16 scales examined in the CSI (Stratil, 1984, p. 12).

Reliability

    Reliability is the degree to which a test consistently

measures whatever it measures (Gay, 1987, p. 135). The more reliable a test is, the more confidence one can have that the scores obtained from the administration of the test are essentially the same scores that would be obtained if the test were re-administered (Gay, 1987, pp. 135). Reliability is expressed numerically, usually as a coefficient; a high coefficient indicates high reliability.

General statistical principles indicate that, when other factors are held constant, scale reliability tends to increase as scale length increases up to a point of diminishing returns. Throughout the CSI's development, the central goal was to maximize the homogeneity of each scale while keeping the inventory's total length relatively short. As a result of these procedures, CSI-B's 16 major independent scales have an average homogeneity coefficient of .80 despite an average length of only 5.2. items (Stratil, 1984, p. 6). With this solid homogeneity as a base, the CSI-B's stability is quite good.

<u>Interviews</u>

Over the past 20 years, one of the most controversial topics in research is whether a researcher should use focus groups or the one-on-one interview methodology, also known as in-depth interviews.

An interview is essentially the oral, in-person, and administration of a questionnaire to each member of a sample. The interview has a number of unique advantages and disadvantages. When well conducted it can produce in-depth data not possible with a questionnaire; on the other hand, it is expensive and time consuming, and generally involves smaller samples. The interview is most appropriate for asking questions, which cannot effectively be structured into a multiple-choice format, such as questions of a personal nature. In contrast to the questionnaire, the interview is flexible; the interviewer can adapt the situation to each subject. By establishing rapport and a trust relationship, the interviewer can often obtain data that subjects would not give on a questionnaire. The interview may also result in more accurate and honest responses since the interviewer can explain and clarify both the purpose of the research and individual questions. Another advantage of the interview is that the interviewer can follow up on incomplete or unclear responses by asking additional probing questions. Reasons for particular responses can also be determined (Gay, 1987, p.202-203).

The purpose of in-depth interviewing is not to get

answers to questions, nor to test hypotheses, and not to

"evaluate" as the term is normally used (Patton, 1989).

At the root of in-depth interviewing is an interest in

understanding the experience of other people and the

meaning they make of that experience. Interviewing

provides access to the context of people's behavior and

thereby provides a way for researchers to understand the

meaning of that behavior. A basic assumption of in-depth

interviewing research is that the meaning people make of

their experience affects the way they carry out that

experience.

Considering more systematic and methodical efforts

at information gathering, some estimate that interviews

are involved in up to 90% of social science

investigations (Briggs, 1986). Few would dispute that

interviewing is most widely used technique for conducting

systematic social inquiry. Put simply, interviewing

provides a way of generating empirical data about the

social world by asking people to talk about their lives.

Interviews are special conversations. While these

conversations vary from highly structured, standardized,

survey interviews, to semiformal-guided conversations, to

free-flowing informational exchange, all interviews are

interactional. The narratives that emerge may be as

truncated as forced-choice survey response or as

elaborate as oral life histories (Briggs, 1986).

One strategy used to integrate interviews into this

study, would involve the use of structured interviews to

assess the degree to which the proposed interpretations

and scripts are accurate. These interviews would focus

on initially establishing good rapport with the student

and then asking her or him questions pertinent to her or

his family background, education experience in high

school and earlier grades, expectations about college

studying and performance, social adjustment, receptivity

to assistance, and so forth. The introduction and

questions would be worded to reduce defensiveness as much

as possible, stressing the objective research goals, the

sensitivity of the issues, the confidentiality of the

student responses, and the need to be as open and honest

as possible.

Interview Design

The naturalistic component of this research project

was chosen to discover new variables that might influence

retention of African-American student at Langston

University. Because of its elusive nature, this open

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discovery cannot take place with just a questionnaire, survey, or fixed test. The aim of the research is to understand human behavior in its own setting (Owens, 1982, p.5). This included reactions, behaviors, tones, and expressions. The data collection was an ongoing iterative process where each interview suggested new information to be explored. Interviews were conducted with the four groups that were identified by cluster analysis.

Procedures

The CSI was administered to all students in the Fall 2003 freshman Personal and Social Development (PSD) class. This class was conducted as a 16-week semester course and is designed to acclimate freshmen students to college life by introducing study skills/habits, test taking tips, social behaviors, cultural activities and other basic college survival guidelines. The PSD class was selected primarily because it has a concentration of freshmen students and because of the purpose and make up of the course.

The freshman class at Langston University has a Retention Program. The Retention Program has identified the freshman class as a group with which to work with to

pinpoint study habits and those other academic and social behaviors or problems that hinder a freshman from completing the first year. Freshmen were identified after the first three weeks of class if they were not progressing academically or attendance was poor by their instructor in the Retention Program. These students were then contacted by a faculty or staff member identified to work with them and their advisor.

The survey were administered on Tuesday and Thursday at 11:00 a.m. to the twelve classes with a total of 488 students. This was the regular meeting time of PSD and is considered the best time to administer the test. There were 12 classes for the Fall 2003 semester with a total of approximately 488 students in which to survey.

The interviews were structured to allow the students to expand in their own style. It was explained that the interview would be kept confidential, and the results would be used for educational purposes only. Names were not revealed. The use of a tape recorder was requested in order to achieve a more accurate record. This allowed the interviewer to observe behavior, expressions, and body language. Each student interviewed was asked several questions. These were not fixed questions, and

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more were added as new ideas and theories emerged. An

outline of representative questions is presented (see

page 125). These elicited similar information through

many different questions. The interviews flowed through

a conversational format. The students felt at ease after

they knew the researcher was interested in their opinions

and they voluntarily answered these and many more

question.

Four-hundred-eighty-eight students took the survey,

270 cases had usable data, which formed four distinct

groups. Twenty-four students were interviewed, six from

each distinct group.

Notes were taken on the experience and ideas

stimulated by the interview. Each interview was

transcribe in full before being analyzed, coding was

used. Coding is the practice of taking narrative

information and slotting it into a set of categories that

capture the essence of their meaning (Weiss, 1998, p.

168). Once the completed version of the transcript with

side-column notes derived from post-interview debriefing

and from notes and theoretical memos developed while

doing the transcribing, the task of analyzing and

interpretation of all the data began. To explore to see

if there were natural groups in the sample a cluster

analysis was run.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

<u>Introduction</u>

This study was conducted at Langston University. Langston University in Langston, Oklahoma, is a historically black land-grant institution that was established in 1897 under the Morrill Act of 1890. The population for this study included 488 first semester freshmen students enrolled at Langston University's main campus.

The gender distribution of the participants was fairly even (see Table 1). For the 262 participants that reported their age (eight participants did not report their age), slightly more than half were males, and slightly less than half were females. According to a 2003 national survey of Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs), a distinguishing characteristic of 4-year public HBCUs is the relatively high proportion of women students; in 2003, about 59% of the students were women. However, in the same year, about 47% of the students at Langston University were women. Thus, while Langston University differs somewhat from other HBCUs in its gender distribution, the distribution in this study is similar to previous years.

Table 1: Gender Distribution of Students

Gender	Number	%
Male	138	52.67
Female	124	47.33
Total	262	100.00

The age profile of the participants in this study reveal a traditional-aged student group. The average age of the respondent was 19.8 with a standard deviation of 2.5, and the median age was 18 (see Table 2). Thus, most of the participants were young, typical high school graduates who were going immediately to college. The average age of a first year student at a 4-year HBCU was 18.4 (Historically Black Colleges and Universities, 2003, p. 4) compared to 19.8 at Langston University.

Table 2: Age Distribution of Participants

| Age	Number	%
17	6	2.36
18	140	55.12
19	58	22.83
20	18	7.09
21	11	4.33
22	4	1.57
23	4	1.57
24	3	1.18
25	1	0.39
26	3	1.18
27	1	0.39
28	3	1.18
32	1	0.39
34	1	0.39
Total	254	100.00

CSI Scores

The College Student Inventory (CSI) is designed especially for incoming first-year students. Form B is comprised of 100 items contained in 16 independent motivational scales. In the scales, 83 items of the 100 were used organized under the three main categories of; Academic Motivation, General Coping Skills, and Receptivity to Support Services.

Each section is made up of several scales. The Academic Motivation section contains (a) Study habits, (b) Intellectual Interests, (c) Verbal Confidence, (d) Math and Science Confidence, (e) Desire to Finish College, and (f) Attitude Toward Educators. The General Coping section contains five areas which are (a) Sociability, (b) Family Emotional Support, (c) Opinion Tolerance, (d) Career Closure, and (e) Sense of Financial Security. The Receptivity to Support Services section contains (a) Academic Assistance, (b) Personal Counseling, (c) Social Enrichment, (d) Career Counseling, and (e) Financial Guidance. The CSI Form B also contains a number of single items that are not part of the scales and are used for reporting such background

characteristics as planned work hours, high school

grades, and family background. Students typically

complete the CSI before the term begins or early in the

term.

Figure 1. Distribution of Study Habits Scores
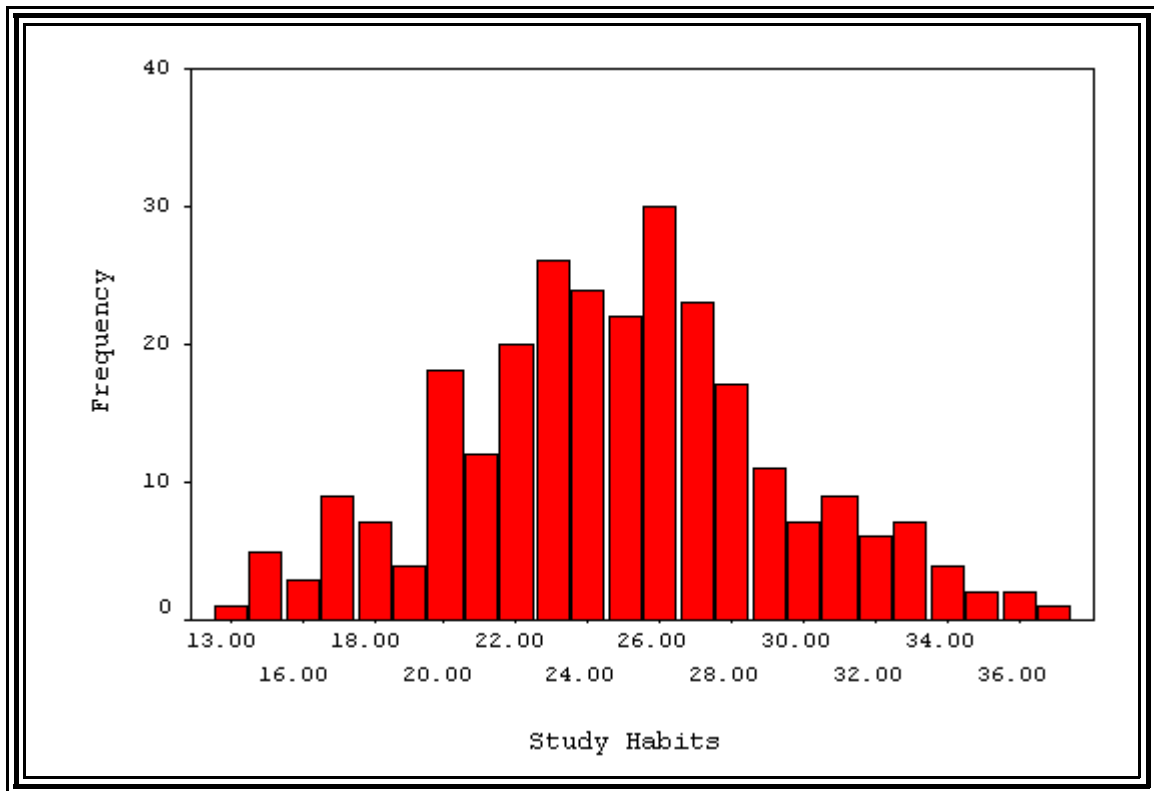
The Study Habits scale measures the student's
willingness to make the sacrifices needed to achieve
academic success. The Study Habits scale consists of six
items with a possible range of 6 to 42. Scores on the
Study Habits scale ranged from 13 to 42 (see Figure 1).
The mean score was 24.7 with a standard deviation of 4.5,
and the median score was 25. The distributed was in a bell
shaped with the bulk of the scores near the mean with
other scores tapering off toward the extremes.

Figure 2. Distribution of Intellectual Interests Scores

The Intellectual Interests scale measures how much the student enjoys the actual learning process and not the extent to which the student is striving for high grades or to complete a degree. The Intellectual Interests scale consists of four items with a possible range of 4 to 28. Scores on the Intellectual Interests scale ranged from 3 to 28 (see Figure 2). The mean score was 16.6 with a standard deviation of 3.3, and the median score was 16. The distribution was in a generally bell shaped with the bulk of the scores were near the mean with other scores tapering off toward the extremes.

Figure 3. Distribution of Verbal Confidence Scores
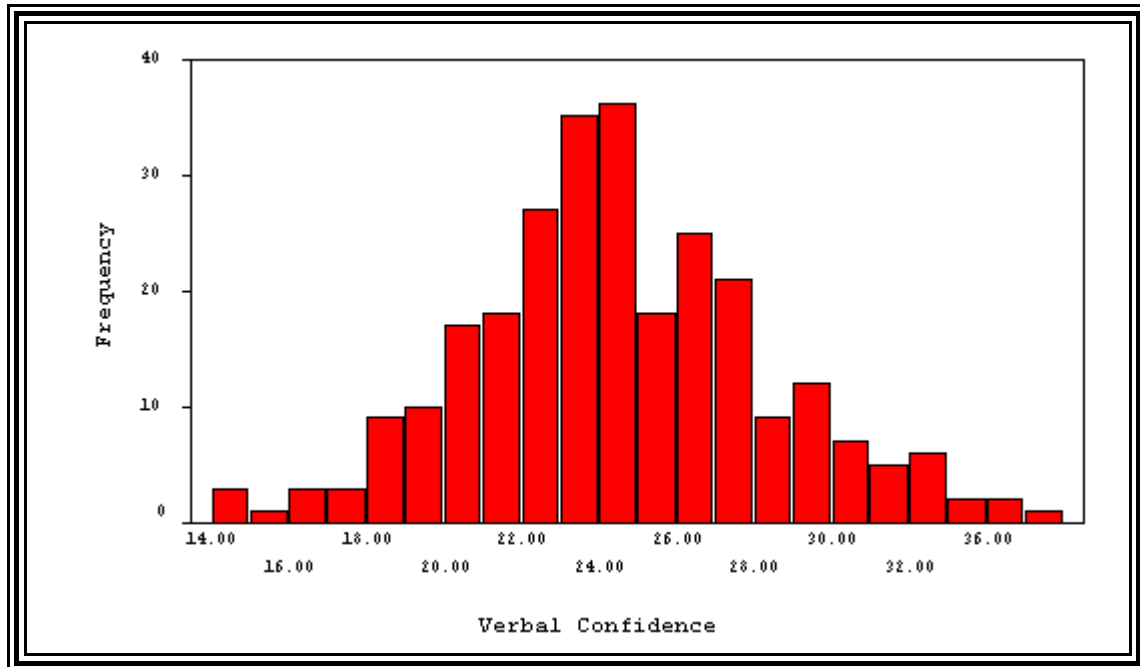
The Verbal Confidence scale measures the degree to
which the student feels capable of doing well in courses
that heavily emphasize reading, writing, and public
speaking. The Verbal Confidence scale consists of six
items with a possible range of 6 to 42. Scores on the
Verbal Confidence scale ranged from 14 to 42 (see Figure
3). The mean score was 24 with a standard deviation of
3.9, and the median score was 24. The distribution was in
a bell shaped with the bulk of the scores were near the
mean with other scores tapering off toward the extremes.
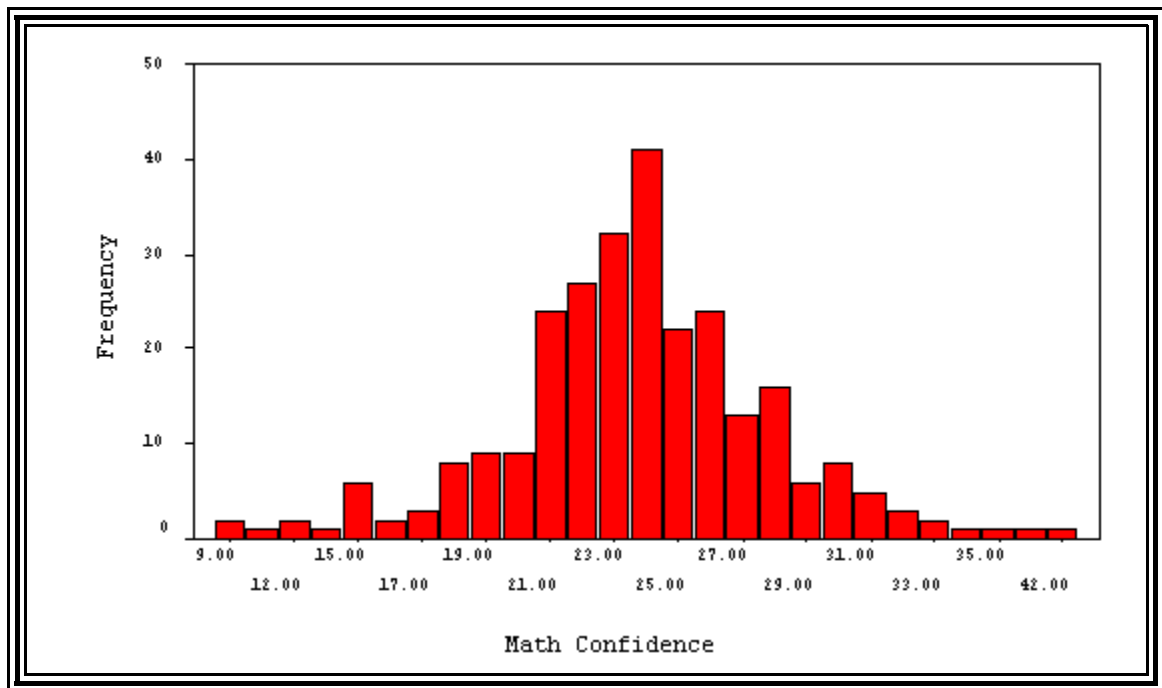
Figure 4. Distribution of Math and Science Confidence
        Scores

The Math and Science Confidence scale measures the degree to which the student feels capable of doing well in math and science courses. It is an indicator of self-esteem relative to this type of task and is not intended as a substitute for aptitude assessment. The Math and Science Confidence scale consists of six items with a possible range of 6 to 42. Scores on the Math and Science Confidence scale ranged from 9 to 42 (see Figure 4). The mean score was 23 with a standard deviation of 4.3, and the median score was 24. The distribution was in a bell shaped pattern.

Figure 5. Distribution of Desire to Finish College Scores
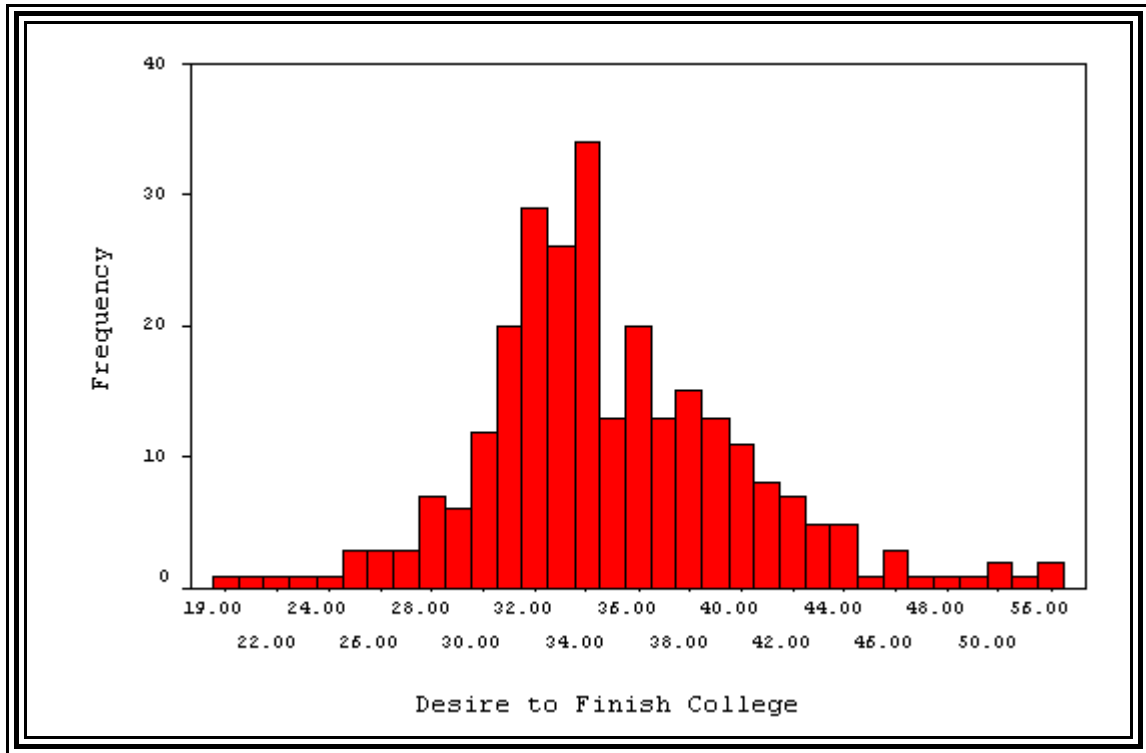
The Desire to Finish College scale measures the
degree to which the student values a college education,
the satisfactions of college life, and the long-term
benefits of graduation. The Desire to Finish College scale
consists of eight items with a possible range of 8 to 56.
Scores on the Desire to Finish College scale ranged from
19 to 56 (see Figure 5). The mean score was 23 with a
standard deviation of 5.3, the median score was 34. The
distribution was generally in a bell shaped pattern.

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Figure 6. Distribution of Attitude toward Educators Scores
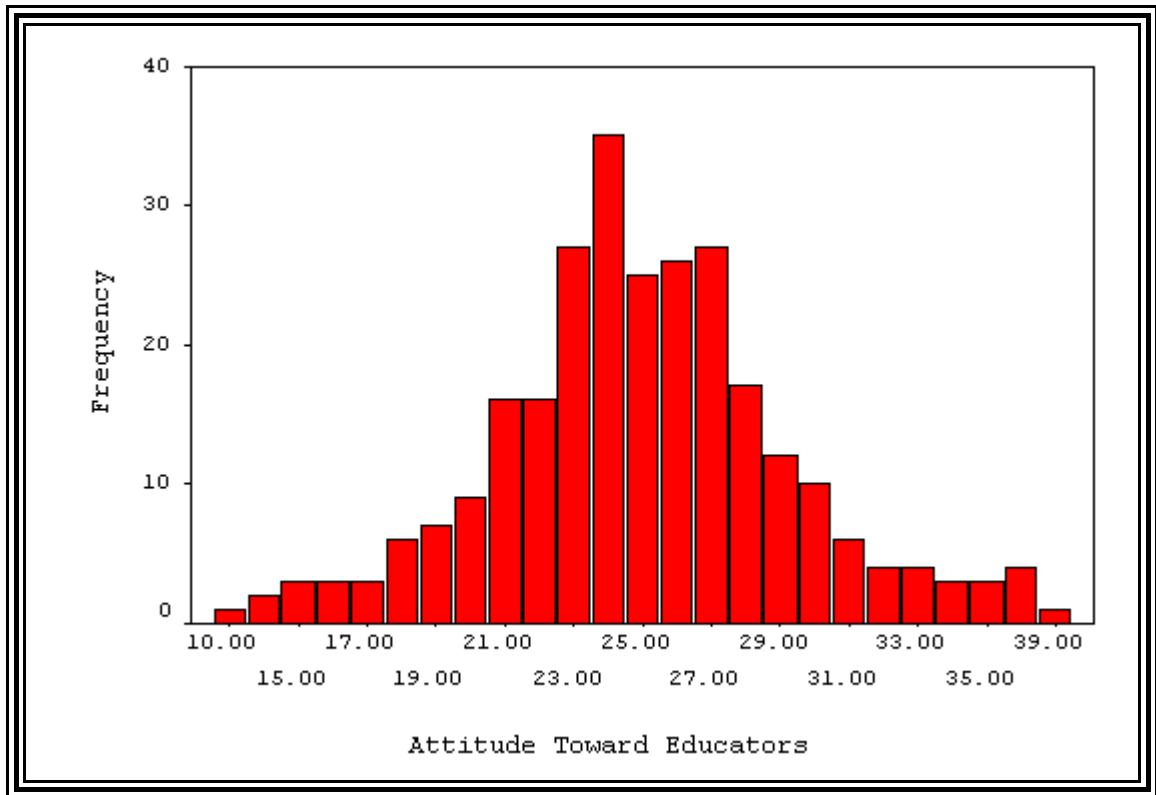
The Attitude Toward Educators scale measures the
student's attitudes toward teachers and administrators in
general as acquired through pre-college experiences. The
Attitude Toward Educators scale consists of six items with
a possible range of 6 to 39. Scores on the Attitude
Toward Educators scale ranged from 10 to 39 (see Figure
6). The mean score was 24 with a standard deviation of 4.3
and the median score was 25. The distribution was in a
bell shaped pattern.

Figure 7. Distribution of Sociability Scores
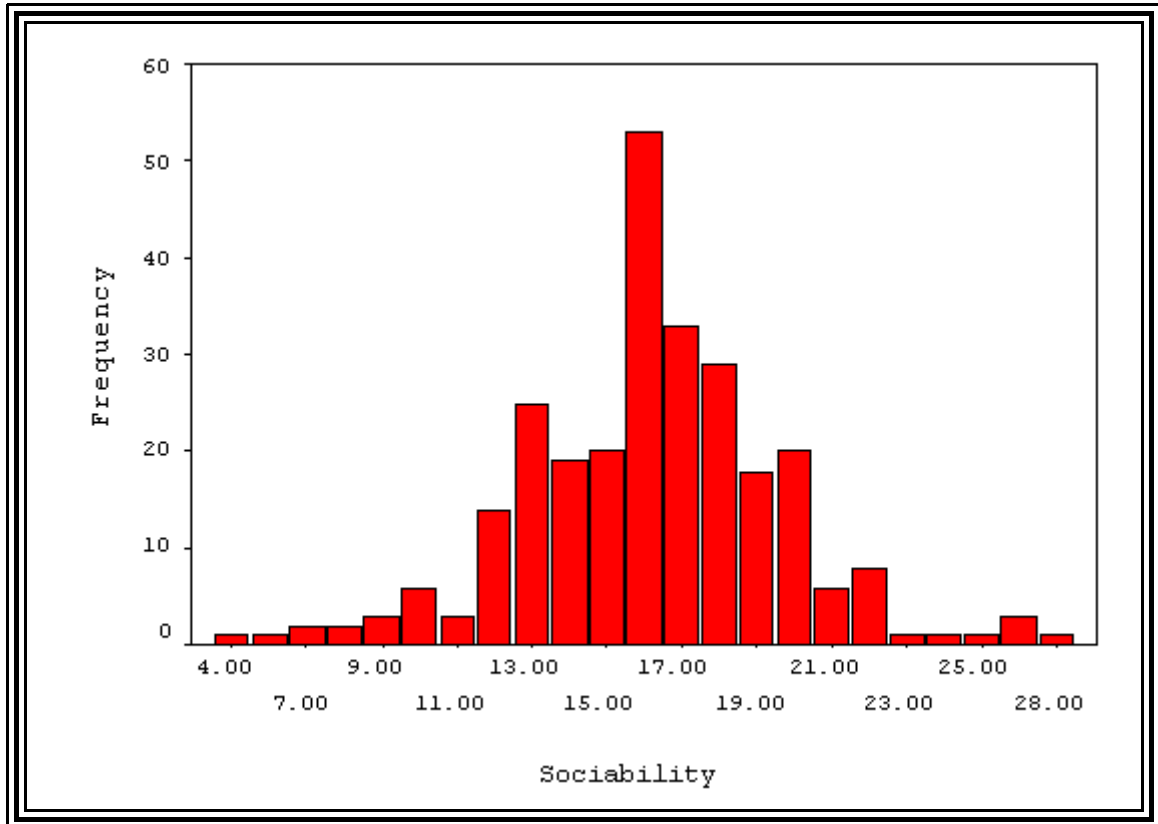
The Sociability scale measures the student's general inclination to join in social activities. The Sociability scale consists of four items with a possible range of 4 to 28. Scores on the Sociability scale ranged from 4 to 28 (see Figure 7). The mean score was 16 with a standard deviation of 3.4, and the median score was 16. The distribution was in a bell shaped pattern with the extremes somewhat low.

Figure 8. Distribution of Family Emotional Support Scores
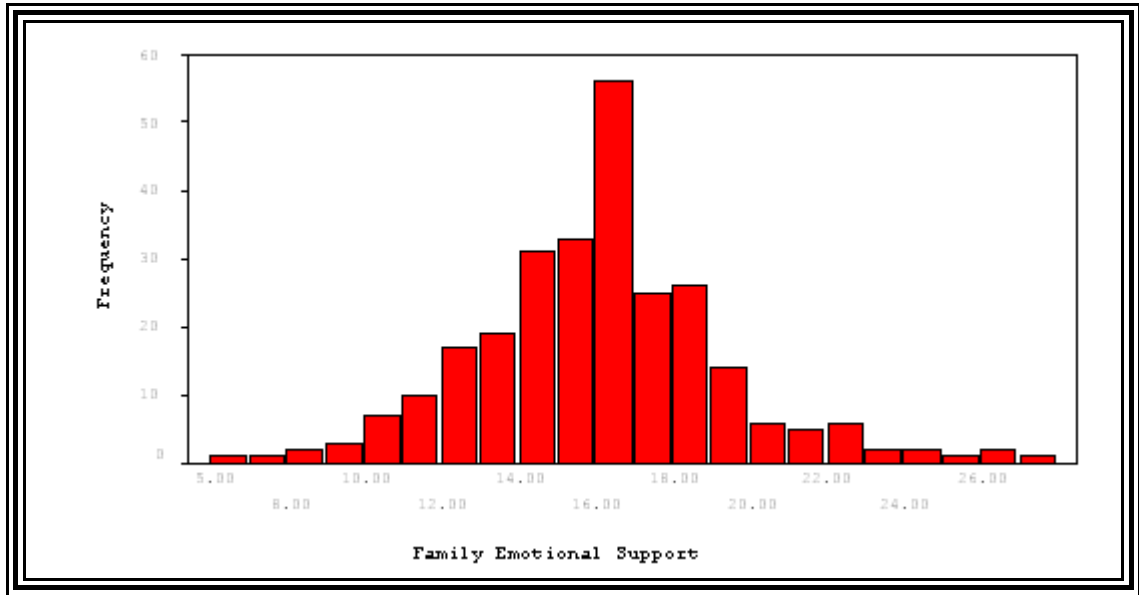
The Family Emotional Support scale measures students'
satisfaction with the quality of communication,
understanding, and respect that they have experienced in
their family. These are factors that can influence their
ability to adapt to the stresses of college life. The
Family Emotional Support scale consists of four items with
a possible range of 4 to 28. Scores on the Family
Emotional Support scale ranged from 5 to 28 (see Figure
8). The mean score was 15 with a standard deviation of
3.2, and the median score was 16. The distribution was
generally in a bell shaped pattern with the numbers
somewhat low on the high end of the scores.

Figure 9. Distribution of Opinion Tolerance Scores

The Opinion Tolerance scale measures the degree to
which the students feel that they can accept people
without regard to their political and social opinions.
The Opinion Tolerance scale consists of six items with a
possible range of 6 to 42. Scores on the Opinion
Tolerance scale ranged from 6 to 42 (see Figure 9). The
mean score was 22 with a standard deviation of 4.5, and
the median score was 22. The distribution was generally in
a bell shaped pattern.
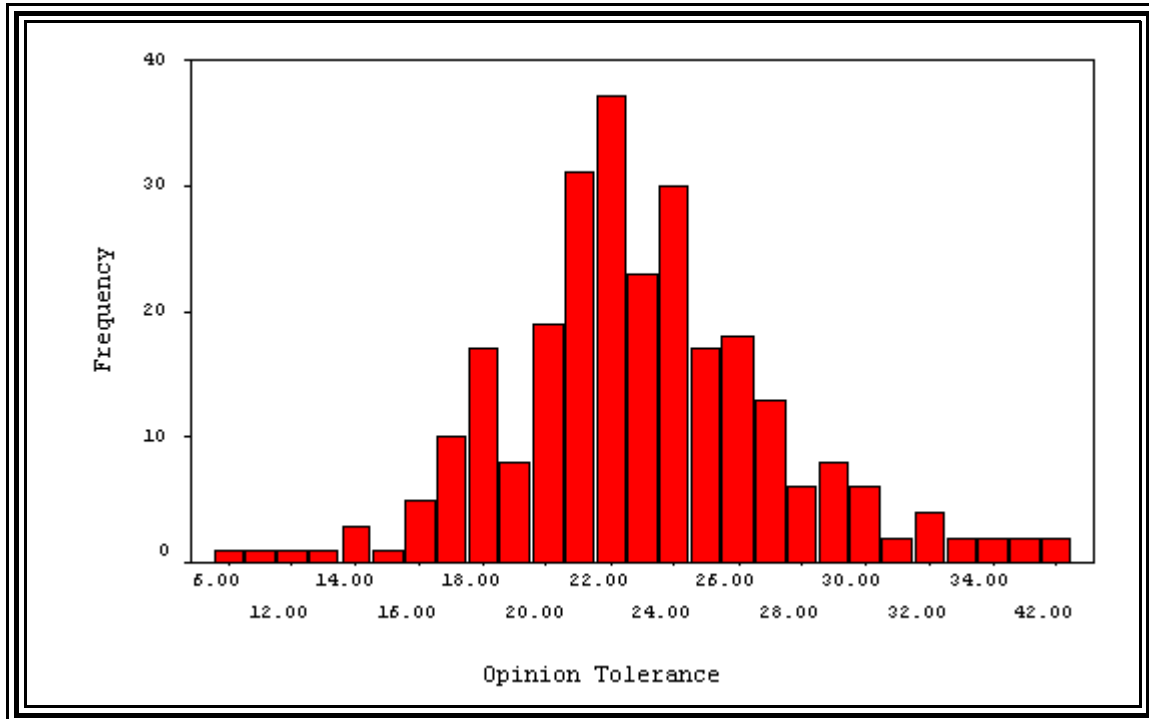
Figure 10. Distribution of Career Closure Scores
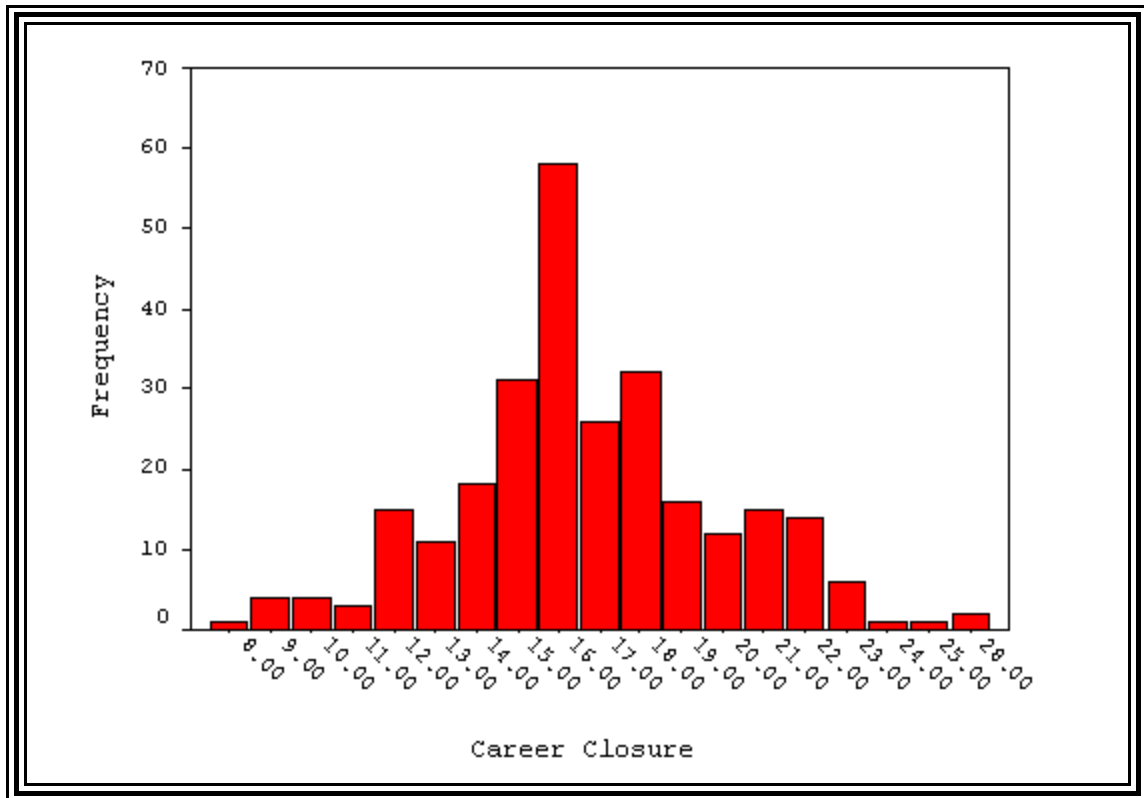
The Career Closure scale measures the degree to which the student has defined a career goal and developed a firm commitment to it. The Career Closure scale consists of four items with a possible range of 4 to 28. Scores on the Career Closure scale ranged from 8 to 28 (see Figure 10). The mean score was 16 with a standard deviation of 3.2, and the median score was 16. The distribution was generally in a bell shaped pattern with slightly fewer responses on the high end of the distribution.

Figure 11.   Distribution of the Sense of Financial
                  Security Scores
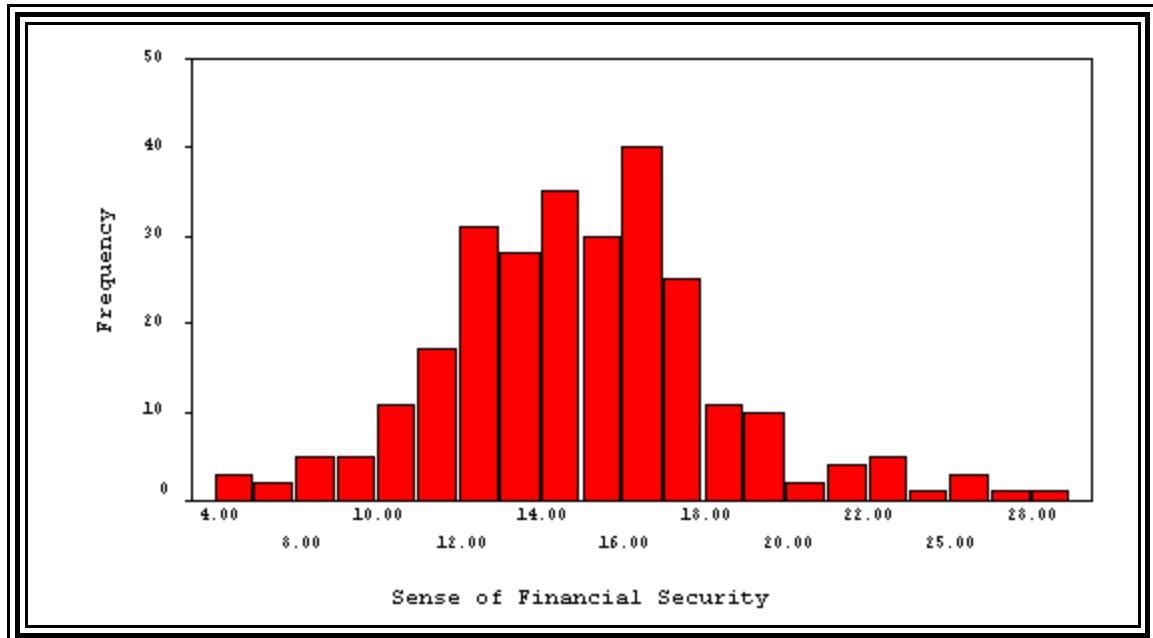
The Sense of Financial Security scale measures the
extent to which students feel secure about their financial
situation, especially as it relates to their current and
future college enrollment. The Sense of Financial
Security scale consists of four items with a possible
range of 4 to 28. Scores on the Sense of Financial
Security scale ranged from 4 to 28 (see Figure 11). The
mean score was 14 with a standard deviation of 3.5, and
the median score was 14. The distributed was generally in
a bell shaped pattern with slightly fewer responses on the
high end of the distribution.

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Figure 12. Distribution of Academic Assistance Scores
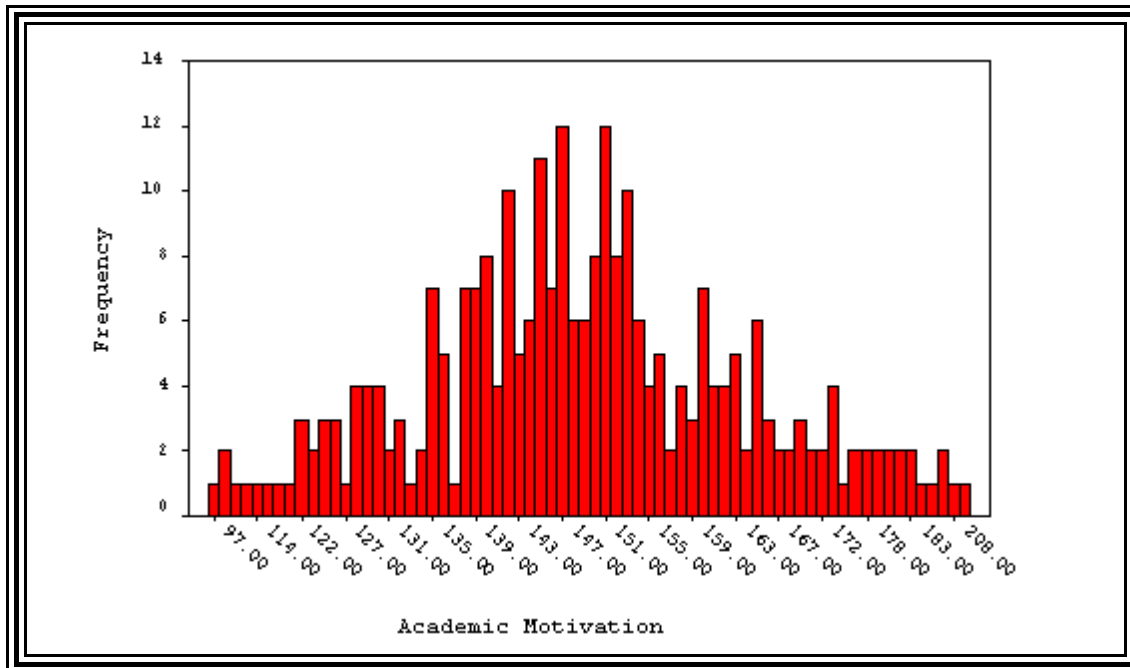
The Academic Assistance scale measures the student's
desire to receive course-specific tutoring or individual
help with study habits, reading skills, examination
skills, writing skills, or mathematics skills. The
Academic Assistance scale consists of four items with a
possible range of 4 to 42. Scores on the Academic
Assistance scale ranged from 6 to 42 (see Figure 12). The
mean score was 28 with a standard deviation of 7.4, and
the median score was 29. The distribution was skewed with
more responses on the high end of the distribution.

Figure 13. Distribution of Personal Counseling Scores
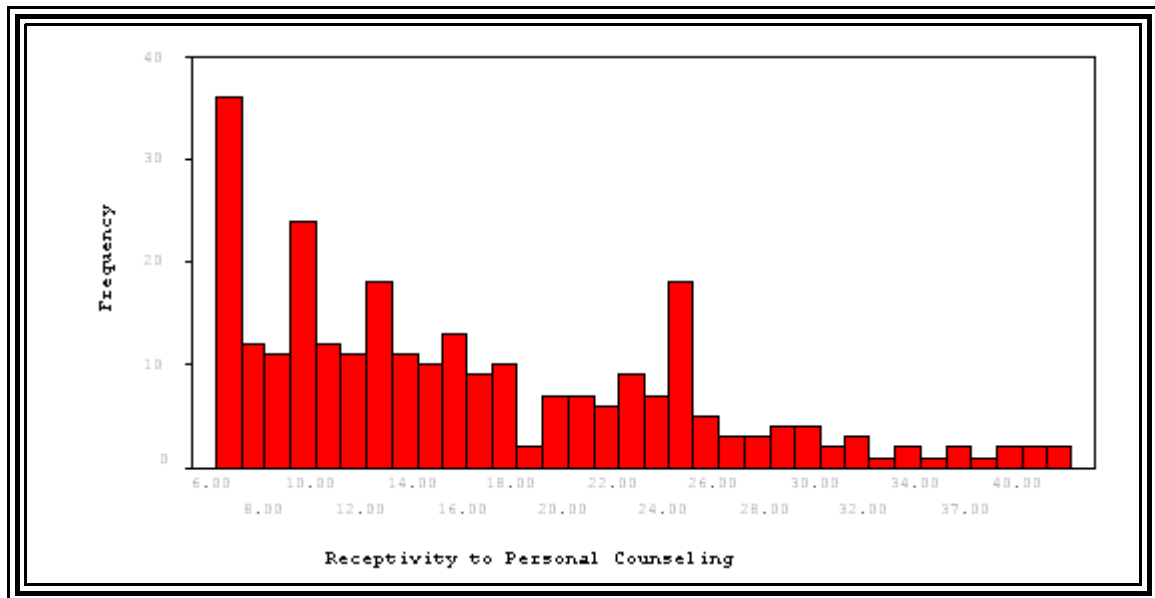
The Personal Counseling scale measures the student's felt need for help with personal problems. It covers attitudes toward school, instructor problems, roommate problems, family problems, general tensions, problems relating to dating and friendships, and problems in controlling an unwanted habit. The Personal Counseling scale consists of six items with a possible range of 6 to 42. Scores on the Personal Counseling scale ranged from 6 to 42 (see Figure 13). The mean score was 15 with a standard deviation of 8.4, and the median score was 13. The distribution was skewed with more responses on the low end of the distribution.

Figure 14. Distribution of Social Enhancement Scores
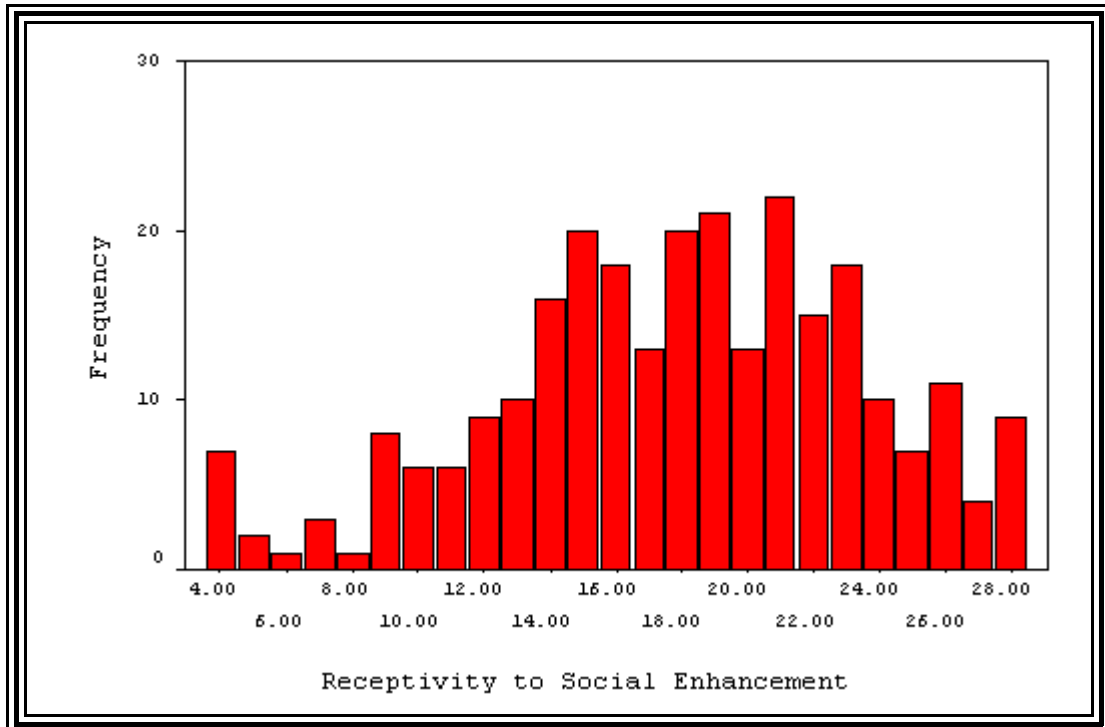
The Social Enhancement scale measures the student's desire to meet other students and to participate in group activities. The Social Enhancement scale consists of four items with a possible range of 4 to 28. Scores on the Social Enhancement scale ranged from 4 to 28 (see Figure 14). The mean score was 17 with a standard deviation of 5.5, and the median score was 18. The distribution was somewhat bell shaped; however, the bulk of the scores were skewed toward the high end of the distribution.

Figure 15. Distribution of Career Counseling Scores
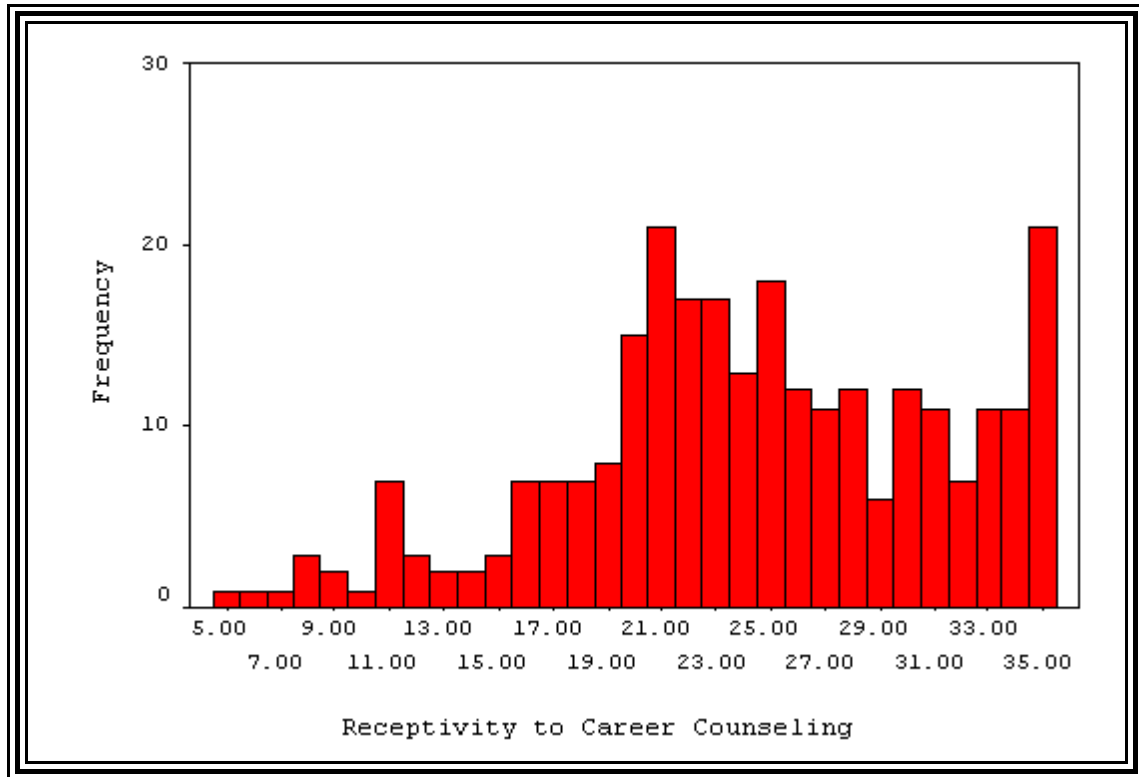
The Career Counseling scale measures the student's

desire for help in selecting a major or career. The

Career Counseling scale consists of five items with a

possible range of 5 to 35. Scores on the Career

Counseling scale ranged from 5 to 35 (see Figure 15). The

mean score was 24.35 with a standard deviation of 6.9, and

the median score was 24. The distribution was skewed with

more responses on the high end of the distribution.

Figure 16. Distribution of Financial Guidance Scores
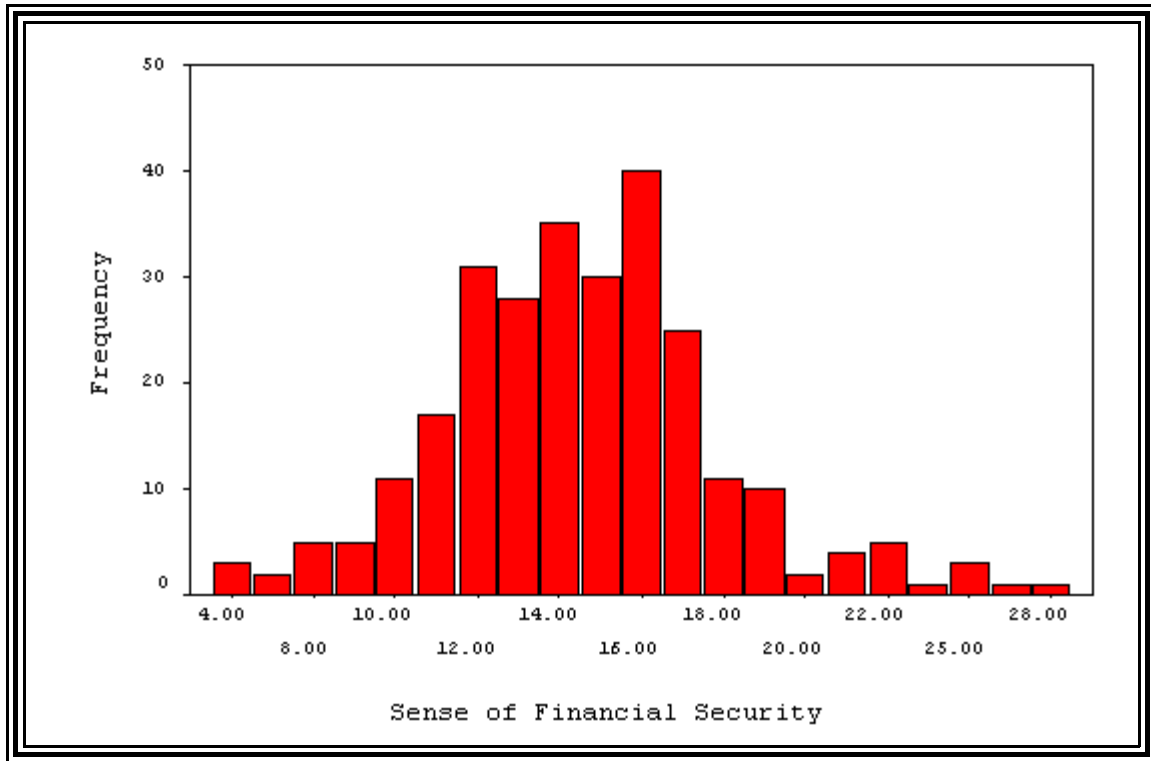
The Financial Security scale measures the desire of
students to discuss ways of increasing their financial
resources for college. The Financial Guidance scale
consists of four items with a possible range of 4 to 28.
Scores on the Financial Guidance scale ranged from 4 to 28
(see Figure 16). The mean score was 14 with a standard
deviation of 3.5, and the median score was 14. The
distribution was somewhat bell shaped; however, there were
fewer responses on the high end of the distribution.

CSI and Demographic Variables

Analysis of variance was used to investigate the relationship between the CSI scores and the demographic variables of gender and of age. Simple, or one-way, analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to determine whether there is a significant difference between two or more means at a selected probability level (Gay, 1987, p. 392). Analysis of variance was used to investigate the relationship of the two demographic variables of gender and of age with the individual CSI scales. With a probability level of .05, there were no significant differences between the means for the males and females for any of the 16 scales that make up the CSI (see Table 3).

Table 3: ANOVA of CSI Scores by Gender

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Academic Motivation					
Between	52.69	1	52.69	0.19	0.667
Within	74013.27	260	284.67		
Study Habits					
Between	32.82	1	32.82	1.58	0.210
Within	5402.45	260	20.78		
Intellectual Interests					
Between	11.04	1	11.04	0.99	0.321
Within	2898.55	260	11.15		
Verbal Confidence					
Between	1.36	1	1.36	0.09	0.769
Within	4103.61	260	15.78		

Math Confidence					
Between	29.52	1	29.52	1.65	0.200
Within	4642.07	260	17.85		
Desire to Finish College					
Between	4.79	1	4.79	0.17	0.678
Within	7202.02	260	27.70		
Desire to Finish College					
Between	0.08	1	0.08	0.00	0.948
Within	4990.73	260	19.20		
General Coping Ability					
Between	325.41	1	325.41	2.36	0.126
Within	35840.34	260	137.85		
Family Emotional Support					
Between	0.27	1	0.27	0.02	0.875
Within	2829.79	260	10.88		
Opinion Tolerance					
Between	26.95	1	26.95	1.30	0.256
Within	5400.95	260	20.77		
Career Closure					
Between	0.87	1	0.87	0.08	0.777
Within	2815.50	260	10.83		
Sociability					
Between	7.18	1	7.18	0.61	0.436
Within	3065.65	260	11.79		
Receptivity to Support Services					
Between	24.45	1	24.45	0.05	0.831
Within	139870.60	260	537.96		
Receptivity to Academic Assistance					
Between	3.44	1	3.44	0.06	0.805
Within	14736.06	260	56.68		
Receptivity to Personal Counseling					
Between	238.39	1	238.39	3.37	0.067
Within	18376.33	260	70.68		
Receptivity to Social Enhancement					
Between	49.28	1	49.28	1.61	0.206
Within	7966.34	260	30.64		
Receptivity to Career Counseling					
Between	34.75	1	34.75	0.71	0.400
Within	12712.55	260	48.89		
Receptivity to Financial Guidance					
Between	56.46	1	56.46	1.99	0.159
Within	7363.83	260	28.32		

For the analysis of variance for age and the CSI scale scores, the participants were grouped into three age categories. Since over half (57.48%) of the participants were 18 years of age or younger, they were placed in one group. Another group consisted of 19-year olds who made up nearly one-fourth (22.83%) of the participants. The third group (19.69%) consisted of those over the age of 19 and ranged in age from 20 to 34 years of age (see Table 2). For the 16 CSI scales, there were differences on 3 scales; these were Family Emotional Support, Career Closure, and Receptivity to Social Enhancement (see Table 4).

Post hoc analysis with the Scheffe multiple comparisons test were conducted on these three scales. Although there was a significant difference reported by the ANOVA for Family Emotional Support scale, no group differences were found because "it is entirely possible…to find no significant differences even thought the $\underline{F}$ for the analysis of variance was significant" (Gay, 1987, p. 393).

For Career Closure, the 19-year old group (15.79) scored lower than the 20-and-older group (17.40). Although a significant difference was found between these groups, the average response for this 4-item scale was 3.95 for the 19-year old group and 4.35 for the 20-and-older group.

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Both scores fall nearly in the middle of the 7-point

rating scale and are so close that they do not represent a

meaningful or practical difference; this type of

statistical but not practical difference can occur when

there is a small difference in the mean on a multiple-item

scale that is used with a large sample (Borg & Gall, 1983,

p. 226-227).

For Social Enhancement, the 20-and-older group

(16.12) scored lower than the 18-and-younger group

(18.68). The average response for this 4-item scale was

4.03 for the 20-and-older group and 4.67 for the 18-and-

younger group. Although this is nearly two-thirds of an

increment on the 7-point scale, both scores are close to

the middle of the rating scale indicating that the items

are neither completely true of them or not at all true.

Since both are fairly neutral scores, this is not a

practical difference. Thus, even though some statistical

differences were found, no practical differences exist for

the 16 CSI scales and the three age groups.

Table 4: ANOVA of CSI Scores by Three Age Groups

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Academic Motivation					
Between	820.40	2	410.20	1.64	0.196
Within	62677.07	251	249.71		

Study Habits					
Between	47.10	2	23.55	1.19	0.307
Within	4980.61	251	19.84		
Intellectual Interests					
Between	11.78	2	5.89	0.51	0.599
Within	2881.82	251	11.48		
Verbal Confidence					
Between	49.26	2	24.63	1.63	0.197
Within	3786.47	251	15.09		
Math and Science Confidence					
Between	18.73	2	9.36	0.55	0.580
Within	4306.53	251	17.16		
Desire to Finish College					
Between	62.15	2	31.07	1.23	0.295
Within	6350.06	251	25.30		
Attitude toward Educators					
Between	17.85	2	8.92	0.49	0.616
Within	4617.24	251	18.40		
General Coping Ability					
Between	380.07	2	190.04	1.53	0.219
Within	31240.65	251	124.46		
Family Emotional Support					
Between	69.73	2	34.87	3.58	0.029
Within	2445.73	251	9.74		
Sense of Financial Security					
Between	50.19	2	25.09	2.14	0.120
Within	2946.92	251	11.74		
Opinion Tolerance					
Between	33.61	2	16.80	0.85	0.427
Within	4945.75	251	19.70		
Career Closure					
Between	71.55	2	35.78	3.54	0.030
Within	2534.56	251	10.10		
Sociability					
Between	4.02	2	2.01	0.18	0.839
Within	2875.04	251	11.45		
Receptivity to Support Services					
Between	367.14	2	183.57	0.35	0.707

Within	132857.23	251	529.31		
Receptivity to Academic Assistance					
Between	0.54	2	0.27	0.00	0.995
Within	14377.95	251	57.28		
Receptivity to Personal Counseling					
Between	60.05	2	30.02	0.43	0.649
Within	17373.31	251	69.22		
Receptivity to Social Enhancement					
Between	286.42	2	143.21	4.75	0.009
Within	7570.51	251	30.16		
Receptivity to Career Counseling					
Between	65.55	2	32.77	0.68	0.509
Within	12135.69	251	48.35		
Receptivity to Financial Guidance					
Between	84.54	2	42.27	1.50	0.225
Within	7069.82	251	28.17		

CSI and Grade Point Average

The relationship of overall grade point average to the various CSI scales was examined with analysis of various. For these analyses, the scores for each CSI scale were divided into three groups with approximately one-third of the participants in each group. The range for the bottom third, middle third, and top third of the scales varied depending on the number of items in the scale and the score distribution for each scale (see Table 5).

Table 5: Grouping of CSI scales by Thirds

CSI Subscales	Third		
	Bottom	Middle	Top
Study Habits	6-22	23-25	26-42
Intellectual Interests	4-14	15-17	18-28

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Verbal Confidence	6-21	22-24	25-42
Math and Science Confidence	6-21	22-24	25-42
Desire to Finish College	8-32	33-35	36-48
Attitude toward Educators	6-22	23-26	27-42
Family Emotional Support	4-13	14-15	16-28
Sense of Financial Security	4-12	13-15	16-28
Opinion Tolerance	6-20	21-23	24-42
Career Closure	4-15	16-17	18-28
Sociability	4-14	15-16	17-28
Rec. Academic Assistance	6-25	26-31	32-42
Rec. Personal Counseling	6-9	10-18	19-42
Rec. Social Enhancement	4-15	16-20	21-28
Rec. Career Counseling	5-20	21-27	28-35
Rec. Financial Guidance	4-16	17-21	22-28

A separate ANOVA was calculated for each CSI scale with the participants placed the in the three groups. Using a probability level of .05 for these 16 analyses, significant differences were found on only 2 scales; these were Attitude Toward Educators and Receptivity to Personal Counseling (see Table 6). The Scheffe post hoc analysis for Attitude Toward Educators scale showed that the bottom-third group had a lower GPA than middle-third group. The middle-third group had a GPA of 2.29 while the bottom-third group had a GPA of 1.94. The post hoc analysis for the Personal Counseling scale showed that the top-third group had a lower GPA than the bottom-third group. The bottom-third group had a GPA of 2.32 while the top-third group had a GPA of 1.99. Thus, the group that

did not want personal counseling had a higher GPA.

Table 6: ANOVA of CSI Scores Grouped by Thirds and GPA

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Study Habits					
Between	0.36	2	0.18	0.23	0.79
Within	197.95	258	0.77		
Intellectual Interests					
Between	1.98	2	0.99	1.30	0.27
Within	196.33	258	0.76		
Verbal Confidence					
Between	1.40	2	0.70	0.92	0.40
Within	196.90	258	0.76		
Math and Science Confidence					
Between	0.34	2	0.17	0.22	0.80
Within	197.96	258	0.77		
Desire to Finish College					
Between	0.10	2	0.05	0.07	0.93
Within	198.20	258	0.77		
Attitude toward Educators					
Between	5.22	2	2.61	3.49	0.03
Within	193.08	258	0.75		
Family Emotional Support					
Between	0.21	2	0.11	0.14	0.87
Within	198.09	258	0.77		
Sense of Financial Security					
Between	3.87	2	1.94	2.57	0.08
Within	194.43	258	0.75		
Opinion Tolerance					
Between	0.73	2	0.37	0.48	0.62
Within	197.57	258	0.77		
Career Closure					
Between	2.59	2	1.29	1.71	0.18
Within	195.71	258	0.76		
Sociability					
Between	0.09	2	0.05	0.06	0.94
Within	198.21	258	0.77		

Receptivity to Academic Assistance					
Between	2.97	2	1.48	1.96	0.14
Within	195.33	258	0.76		
Receptivity to Personal Counseling					
Between	6.18	2	3.09	4.15	0.02
Within	192.12	258	0.74		
Receptivity to Social Enhancement					
Between	0.55	2	0.27	0.36	0.70
Within	197.76	258	0.77		
Receptivity to Career Counseling					
Between	3.05	2	1.52	2.01	0.14
Within	195.26	258	0.76		
Receptivity to Financial Guidance					
Between	0.02	2	0.01	0.01	0.99
Within	198.28	258	0.77		

Cluster Analysis

To explore to see if there were natural groups in the sample a cluster analysis was run. Cluster analysis is a multivariate statistical procedure that seeks to identify homogeneous groups or clusters (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984, p. 71). Its powers lies in its ability to examine the person in a holistic manner rather than as a set of unrelated variables (Conti, 1996, p. 67). Once clusters are identified, other qualitative and quantitative techniques should be used to help name and describe the clusters (Conti, 1996, pp. 70-71).

The 100 items from the CSI was used to conduct a cluster analysis on the 270 participants with answers to

all items on the survey. This agglomerative hierarchical analysis used the squared Euclidean to measure distance between cases and the Ward's method to form cluster. Using these methods the four cluster solution was determined as the best solution for explaining the data. This produced four distinct groups of 99, 56, 64, and 51.

"The final data analysis technique that can be used to assist with the interpretation of the meaning of the clusters is discriminant analysis" (Conti, 1996, p. 71).

Discriminant analysis is a powerful multivariate statistical procedure "for examining the difference between two or more groups of objects with respect to several variables simultaneously" (Klecka, 1980, p. 5). The results of the discriminant analysis can be used for two purposes: (a) prediction of group membership and (b) describing the way groups differ (Huberty & Barton, 1989).

In this study, discriminant analysis was used to describe the group because, "Discriminant analysis is a useful tool for identifying the process that separates the clusters and therefore for helping to describe the clusters. By using the various clusters as the groups and by using the variables from the cluster analysis as the set of discriminating variables, an analysis can be

generated which produces a structure matrix which describes the process that separates the various clusters into distinct groups" (Conti, 1996, p. 71).

Three separate discriminant analyses were conducted. One was conducted at the 2-cluster level to determine what separated these groups. Since each of the clusters split into two groups, two other discriminant analyses were conducted. Each of these analyses used only the two groups from the 4-cluster level that combined to make a group at the 2-cluster level. The discriminating variables for each analyses were the 100 items from the CSI. The results of the analyses were first examined to see how accurate the discriminant function was in placing the participants in the correct group. If this placement was high, then the structure matrix was used to name the process that separated the groups.

The first cluster discriminant analyses was done at the 2 cluster level. The two groups of 99 and 56 form one group of 155 at the 2 group level. The two groups of 64 and 51 formed another group of 115 at the 2- cluster level. The discriminate function that placed the people in the groups was 96.7% accurate in getting the participants in the right groups. The structure matrix

shows the correlation between each item used in the analysis and the overall discriminant function. The ones with the highest correlations can be used to name the process that separates the groups (Conti, 1993, pp. 93-94). The items in order of their strength that contributed to this are 84, 39, 97, 61, 46, 60, 73, 45, and 51. Since these items deal with the advising function, the process that separates these two groups is their desire for counseling in the personal, nonacademic areas because of their commitment to completing college. The group of 155 scored about 1.75 on the 7-point scale on this which indicates that this need for counseling is not true of them, and they have a strong commitment to finishing college. However, for the group of 115, their average score was around 4. This score is in the middle of the scale, so it applies to them to some degree.

The second discriminant analysis was with the group of 155 that did not want personal counseling. They split into groups of 99 and 56. The discriminant function that placed the participants in these groups was 100% accurate. The items from the structure matrix that identified the groups were 82, 28, 58, 72, 83, 42, and 47. These items deal with study skills. The study skills items divided

the two groups based on the desire for individual help
(tutoring) in basic study skills and writing for learning
more effectively and in basic academic skills math and
science. Overall, this group of 155 was dedicated to
finishing college. The group of 99 was fairly strong with
an average score of around 5 in their desire for this
tutoring help. The other group was fairly weak with an
average score of around 3 for this tutoring. Thus, the
group of 99 desired individual help in both study skills
and basic academic subjects while the group of 56 just
wanted to be left along. Based on these characteristics
the group of 99 was named "Students Desiring Tutoring in
Basic Skills", and the group of 56 was named "Students Not
Desiring ".

The third discriminant analysis was with the group of
115 that was fairly strong in wanting personal counseling.
This group of 115 split into groups of 64 and 51. This
discriminant function that placed the participants in
these groups was also 100% accurate. The items from the
structure matrix that identified the groups were 92, 44,
60, 55, 98, 29, 48, and 80. These items deal with the job
opportunities. The groups differed on the desire to talk
to counselors about job opportunities. The group of 64

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scored about 4 on the items in the structure matrix; this placed them in the middle of the 7-point scale. However, the group of 51 were very strong in this area with an average score of around 6 on the 7-point scale. Based on these characteristics, the group of 64 was named "Students Desiring Some Personal Counseling Related to Job Opportunities", and the group of 51 was named "Students Desiring Strong Personal Counseling Related to Job Opportunities".

<div align="center">Interviews</div>

The quantitative procedures of cluster analysis and discriminant analysis identified four groups among the Langston University students based on CSI responses and provided a general description of the groups. However, in order to get a more comprehensive and personal description of the groups, interviews were conducted. Twenty-four students were interviewed with six from each of the distinct groups. Three males and three females were interviewed for each group.

The purpose of in-depth interviewing is not to get answers to questions nor to test hypotheses, and not to "evaluate" as the term is normally used (Seidman, 1991, p. 2). Interviewing, then, is a basic mode of inquiry.

Recounting narratives of experience has been the major way throughout recorded history that humans have made sense of their experience (Seidman, 1991, p. 2).

The interviews were semi-structured. The questions and their order were determined but they were open-ended which allowed both a range of responses from the participants and for the interviewer to probe deeper (Gay & Airasian, 2000, p. 221). "Even when an interview guide is employed" as in this study, qualitative interviews offer the interviewer considerable latitude to pursue a range of topics and offer the subject a chance to shape the content of the interview" (Bogdon & Biklen, 1982, p. 136). It was explained to the participants that the interview would be kept confidential, that the results would be used for educational purposes only, and that names would not be revealed.

The primary method of creating text from interviews is to tape-record the interviews and to transcribe them. Each word a participant speaks reflects that person's consciousness (Vygotsky, 1987, p. 87). The use of a tape recorder was requested in order to achieve a more accurate record. This allowed the interviewer to observe the participants' expressions, and body language. Each student interviewed was asked several questions that flowed through

a conversation format. "Good interviews are ones in which the subjects are at ease and talk freely about their point of view" (Bogdon & Biklen, 1982, p. 136). The students appeared at ease after they knew the researcher was interested in their opinions and they voluntarily answered these and many more question.

Each of the four groups had distinct characteristics that caused them to differ from the other groups:

Group 1: Desired some individual help or tutoring in basic skills such as study skills and writing and for basic academic skills such as math and science.

Group 2: Did not have a need for any special tutoring or help in any way.

Group 3: Desired some personal counseling especially related to job opportunities.

Group 4: Had a strong desire for personal counseling especially related to job opportunities.

These characteristics were used to tailor the interview protocol for each group. The interview questions for each group were as follows:

<u>Students Desiring Tutoring in Basic Skills</u>

a. In your responses on the College Student Inventory, you indicated that you would like to have some individual help or tutoring in basic skills such as study skills and writing and for basic academic skills such as math and science.
b. Tell me, why do you think you need these?
c. Give me some examples of where (or how) you have had trouble in these areas.
   Time Management

Note Taking
        Proofreading
        Test Taking
        Study Strategies
        Other
        All of above
d. Which study skills do you need help with? Tell me about
    your experiences in this area.
e. Describe your view of the "ideal" tutor.
f. Describe how the idea tutoring situation could be set
    up for you?
g. Tell me
    1. About your motivation to finish college.
    2. What does finishing college mean to you?
h. Which basic academic subjects do you need help with?
    Math
    English
    Others
i. Have you sought counseling in these areas before? If
    yes, which areas and what was your experiences? If no,
    why not?

<div align="center">Students Not Desiring Counseling</div>

a. In your responses on the College Student Inventory, you
    did NOT indicate a need for any special tutoring or
    help in any way. Therefore, what can the university do
    to help you be successful in college?
b. Tell me
    1. About your motivation to finish college.
    2. What does finishing college mean to you?
c. Tell me about your skills in the academic areas. What
    are your strengths and weaknesses? Tell me about an
    academic situation that happened to you in high school
    that you think is a good example to show your academic
    ability. How about a similar story to show an area
    where you have some weakness?
d. Let's do the same thing with study skills. What are
    your strengths and weaknesses in terms of study skills?
    Tell me about an situation that happened to you in high
    school that you think is a good example to show your
    strength in study skills. How about a similar story to
    show an area where you have some weakness?
e. What resources are you using to help your through your
    college experience?
    Catalog

Class schedule
        Degree Plan
        Family
        Friends
        Tutoring
        Advising
        Others
f. Have the resources answered all of your questions and
    concerns?
g. Why do you feel that you do not need either personal or
    academic counseling?
h. Do you consider yourself well informed when it come to
    your Major and career goals and objectives? If so, why?
i. Who do you think is the most instrumental person or
    persons in helping you in your decision to attend
    college? Did that person attend college? How long?

<u>Students Desiring Some Personal
Counseling Related to Job Opportunities</u>

a. In your responses on the College Student Inventory, you
    indicated that you have a desire for SOME personal
    counseling especially related to job opportunities.
    Given that, tell me: How do you think college should
    fit into your long-term career development?
b. What kind of help would you like to have related to:
    1. Identifying good career opportunities?
    2. Identifying the requirements you need for a good
        job?
    3. Designing an educational plan to prepare you to get
        a good job?
    4. Finding summer employment?
c. How important is it for you get together with a crowd
    of people and have a lively time? (This is Question 48
    from the CSI).
    1. Give me an example of this?
    2. How does this fit into your going to college?
d. Have you sought personal counseling in this area
    before? If yes, which area and what was your
    experiences? If no, why not?
e. Did you have problems in this area in high school? If
    so, what assistance did you receive?
f. Please define for me what you mean by personal
    counseling.
g. Do you believe that these personal issues are
    interfering with your ability to succeed in school?

h. Who do you think is the most instrumental person or persons in helping you in your decision to attend college? Did that person attend college? How long?

<u>Students Desiring Strong Personal
Counseling Related to Job Opportunities</u>

a. In your responses on the College Student Inventory, you indicated that you have a STRONG desire for personal counseling especially related to job opportunities. Given that, tell me: How do you think college should fit into your long term career development?
b. What kind of help would you like to have related to:
    1. Identifying good career opportunities?
    2. Identifying the requirements you need for a good job?
    3. Designing an educational plan to prepare you to get a good job?
    4. Finding summer employment?
c. How important is it for you get together with a crowd of people and have a lively time? (This is Question 48 from the CSI).
    1. Give me an example of this?
    2. How does this fit into your going to college?
d. Do you know what your major will be?
e. Have you sought counseling in this area before? If yes, which area and from whom? What was your experiences? If no, why not?
f. What is more important to you, career happiness, or job income? Why?
g. Do you have career goal? If so, what are they?
h. Who do you think is the most instrumental person or persons in helping you in your decision to attend college? Did that person attend college? How long?

   Overall, the Students that Desired Tutoring in Basic

Skills seemed to know their academic shortcomings and the

areas in which they needed assistance. Most of them

reported that they needed help in english, math and

science courses. They indicated that they needed help in

these courses because they were weak in these areas and they needed to improve test scores. Students indicated the following regarding basic skills:

English is hard to get started.

I am having trouble with Math. I am not performing well.

In science the way the teacher talks makes it difficult for me to understand the subject

I need help understanding Algebra II and Chemistry.

They also reported that they needed assistance in study skills. These skills included time management, note taking, proofreading, test taking, and study strategies. These areas are not new to the majority of these students in that they were problem areas in high school. Only one student indicated that he did not have this problem in high school. The remaining students reported having the same problems and that they had sought tutoring from parents, friends, and teachers.

When asked about tutoring, most could identify the type of tutor they would want and what situation would help them the most. One-on-one was the setting most requested by the students with a few stating they preferred a group setting. They strongly emphasized that they wanted a tutor that was helpful, friendly and an expert in their

subject area. The typical response from these students regarding tutoring was:

A person who is experience and willing to help me understand and knows what is going on.

Open space and with someone who is knowledgeable about the subject.

Even though the Students that Desired Tutoring in Basic Skills showed that even with the knowledge that they had problem areas and that these subjects were causing them problems in college, the majority of the students either did not seek tutoring or were not consistent with the service for one reason or another. If they had a problem with a tutor, it was not reported and the student did not seek another tutor. This is potentially detrimental to the students because problem areas such as English and reading that were reported by the students are crucial to their academic success.

Students that Desired Tutoring in Basic Skills indicated various influences that are motivating them to finish college. Family was expressed as the motivating factor by each student in the group. Some were first generation college students and others came from families where everyone had a degree. Other motivating factors included wanting to attend graduate school and self-

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respect. Two student's response regarding motivating

factors was:

> I am the last child and the second to go to
> college and I want to prove people wrong. It
> means self-respect and me being on my own.

> It means self-respect and me being on my own.

Students who did not Desire Tutoring in any way were

the most difficult to contact and initially seemed annoyed

with the interview process. This may be because they feel

they have their academic success under control and know

what to do if they are having a problem. They also

expressed that the university was providing them with all

of the assistance they needed. Three students described

their experience as follows:

> The university is helping me now because I am
> attending SI (tutoring) sessions for most of my
> classes and they encourage me to work hard and
> succeed.

> I don't think there is anything that the
> university could do, it is up to me.

> The instructors are very helpful and
> encouraging.

Because the students feel they were successful, they

did not seek assistance because they feel that if they

fail, it is their responsibility. Moreover, they feel

that they know how to fix any academic shortcomings. It

was difficult for the students who did reveal a weakness

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to do so. Their facial expressions or body language
demonstrated uneasiness in confessing a problem area or
weakness although their tone usually stayed even. Those
in this group used whatever resources are available for
them to quickly recover or correct any weak areas in order
to ensure (or almost prove) that they have their academic
success under control.

Most Students that did not Desire Tutoring in any way
indicated that they did not have any academic weaknesses
but that they could use some help in English and math
occasionally. Because these students were academically
strong, they tend to procrastinate and lack motivation at
time, because the subjects come naturally to them. The
typical response from these students regarding their
academic strengths and weaknesses was as follows:

> I find myself bored so I don't participate as
> much as I should but, it does not affect my
> performance. In my statistics class on my first
> test I got a 100% on it but on the second test I
> got bored and I got a low B.

> In academics my weakness is that I am a
> procrastinator, my strength is getting
> assignments in on time.

Most indicated that they had strong grade point averages
coming out of high school and that they were well prepared
by their high schools.

The resources most used by this group were family, friends, the school catalog, plan of study and advisor. They indicated that these resources were adequate in answering their questions and concerns. By using these resources the students indicated that they were well informed regarding their degree requirements. Theses students were conscientious about reviewing their plan of study and seeking help when they had questions so that they would remain on track to complete their degree. They also used the same resources to keep informed about career goals and opportunities.

As with Students that Desired Tutoring in Basic Skills, these students considered family and friends as the people most instrumental in helping them decide to attend college. Students that did not Desire Tutoring in any way also indicated that obtaining a good job, family, and attending graduate school were motivating factors in finishing college. All but two of the students had parents that had completed at least a bachelor's degree.

The Students that Desired Some Personal Counseling Related to Job Opportunities expressed that college was very important to their long-term career goals. Because, it gave them the opportunity go as far as they wanted to life and a

greater chance of accomplishing their career goals. They
believe that without a degree their career objectives could
not be met.

Two of the six students stated that social interaction
was very important to them and their college career. The
other three students did not see it as very important but
did think for the sake of balance interacting with others
socially was good overall. Two students indicated the
following:

> It is not very important, but it is good for the
> sake of balance. I see the social interaction as
> part of the curriculum.
>
> I like to get off campus to the mall, movies,
> parties or club. I think this is a part of
> college life. Education is first but there are a
> lot of experiences you have and having fun is one
> of them.

Only one student said they had a problem interacting in high
school but, this student did not feel it necessary to seek
counseling.

As stated above all six students stated that college
was vital to their career goals/job opportunities and job
counseling. Therefore, it was very important to these
students to have assistance with locating job opportunities
and job counseling skills to go along with their college
degree. Job opportunity assistance included assistance in

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finding summer internships and jobs that will help them in their chosen career field. The job counseling skills included help with interviewing, dressing appropriately for job interviews, networking, and assistance with laying out an academic and career plan they could follow to help them achieve their career goals.

> Counseling on how to streamline myself to a particular occupation. Help finding my niche.

> Help with certain things to look for in an employer, what questions to ask. How I will fit with a company and what service I would be to them.

> One-on-one counseling and strong help with a five year plan. And I need help creating a goal list.

Again, family and friends were the catalysts that drove the students to the decision to attend college. The majority of these students came from backgrounds where one or more family members or family friends had attended college in either two-year or four-year programs. Degrees received by the family and/or friends ranged from associate degrees to doctorate. One student's mother was currently attending college and is expected to graduate in Spring of 2005.

Students that Desired Strong Personal Counseling Related to Job Opportunities, education is seen as a means to an end. Most students' in this group want to have a

"good job" at the end of their academic track. Like

Students that Desired Some Personal Counseling Related to

Job Opportunities these students wanted help with career

goals, job opportunities, and job counseling. However,

unlike Students that Desired Some Personal Counseling

Related to Job Opportunities this group wanted information

and assistance on finding where the job opportunities are

and how to get them. They were concerned about job

counseling or the need to do internships and summer jobs.

They believed that these things were important, but they

did not emphasize them as much as those Students that

Desired Some Personal Counseling Related to Job

Opportunities. These students were much more confident

than those Students that Desired Some Personal Counseling

Related to Job Opportunities in their abilities and

believed that if they got a job interview, they were

capable of performing well based on their previous

academic success in high school and college. These

students saw the interview process as a two-way street.

Not only are they being interviewed, they were also

interviewing the company, to make sure that the company

was a good fit for their personal and career goals. The

following student's response best expresses this thought:

> I need help with certain things to look for in
> an employer, what questions to ask. How I will
> fit with a company and what service I would be
> to them.

Although these students stated that their career
goals were to be successful and get a good job in the
fields they have selected, the data show that they would
not sacrifice job happiness for money or position. All
six of them stated that job happiness was more important
than money because they believe that doing a job that is
self-satisfying and makes one happy is more valuable than
a huge salary.

> Career happiness is most important to me. I
> rather have a low paying job that I love to go
> to than have a job paying a huge salary and
> being miserable.

> Career Happiness because I just want to be
> happy.

Socialization is important to those in this group,
and some in this group could possibly stand on the
sidelines and watch the action rather than be a part of
it. Careers are their ultimate goal, and they have
thought about what they want to do or be. College is just
the avenue to get there "already". They are anxious about
getting through this process to get on with life.

Students that Desired Strong Personal Counseling
Related to Job Opportunities appeared to be no different

from the other three groups in identifying the people

instrumental in influencing them to attend college.

Family and friends where their reasons for attending

college and acted as their support system.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATION

Summary

Purpose

Langston University, a historically black
university, has played a critical role for the past
century in the undergraduate education of African
Americans. However, officials at Langston University are
now facing a crisis. That crisis is the increasing
dropout rates of students at the university before
graduation. Students who drop out of college often suffer
personal disappointments, financial setbacks, and a
decrease in career and life goals. Concern about the
student has led to much research on college student
attrition and retention. This research has typically been
in terms of statistical analyses of the differences
between dropouts and persisters. The reason for the
research usually was to understand the phenomenon of drop
out and retention, which was assumed to be major societal
problem.

Before the dropout rates can be addressed, the
specific factors contributing to it must be identified.
At Langston University a survey designed by Noel-Levitz

Retention Management System was used to assist with intervention strategies for effectively meeting students needs related to retention. Form B of the College Student Inventory (CSI) was given to all first-semester incoming freshman enrolled at Langston University's main campus. Therefore, the purpose of the study was to describe the institutional data gathered with the CSI on retention at Langston University.

Design

This was a descriptive research study that examined the factors influencing retention of freshmen students by gathering data from 270 students on the CSI-B at Langston University. The survey was given at the beginning of the semester, and the collected data were analyzed. The survey items were used with cluster analysis to identify groups inherent in the data. Four groups were identified, and interviews were conducted with the four groups that were identified by the cluster analysis.

Finding

Descriptive data for descriptive analysis were collected by using the CSI. The CSI is comprised of 100 items and contains 16 independent motivational scales. The 16 motivational scales had a wide distribution.

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Analysis of variance was used to investigate the relationship of the two demographic variables of gender and of age with the individual CSI scales. There were no significant differences between the means for the males and females for any of the 16 scales that make up the CSI. Likewise, no differences were found for the age groupings.

Grade point averages were collected on each of the students at the end of the semester to investigate the relationship of grade point average to various CSI scales. There were no significant differences found on 14 of the 16 scales. Differences were found on the Family Emotional Support scale and the Career Closure scale.

The quantitative procedures of cluster analysis and discriminant analysis identified four groups among the Langston University students based on CSI responses and provided a general description of the groups. Each of the four groups had distinct characteristics that caused them to differ from the other groups.

The first group, which was named Students Desiring Tutoring in Basic Skills contained 99 students. They desired some individual help or tutoring in basic skills such as study skills and writing and for basic academic skills such as math and science.

The second group was named Students Not Desiring Counseling. This group contained 56 students and did not have a need for any special tutoring or help in any way.

The third group which was named Students Desiring Some Personal Counseling Related to Job Opportunities. It contained 64 students who desired some personal counseling especially related to job opportunities.

The fourth group was named Students desiring Strong Personal Counseling Related to Job Opportunities. This group contained 51 students and had a strong desire for personal counseling especially related to job opportunities.

In order to get a more comprehensive and personal description of the groups, interviews were conducted. Twenty-four students were interviewed with six from each of the distinct groups. Three males and three females were interviewed from each group.

Conclusions

- Langston University had recruited a group of students that had a wide range and was somewhat normally distributed in term of all of the factors measured by the CSI.

- Counselors cannot assume any stereotypes on the part of the students, they have to address all segments of the spectrum for each of the concepts in the various scales.

- New students attending the main campus of Langston University they were young, typical high school graduates who were going immediately to college.

- Distinct groups existed among entering Langston University students based on retention factors.

- The GPA did not affect the retention factors measured by the CSI.

Discussion and Recommendation

The heart of the CSI-B consists of 16 independent motivational scales that give a general and immediate sense of the student's motivational pattern. These scales are divided into the three sections of Academic Motivation, General Coping Ability, and Receptivity to Support Services. The Academic Motivation section includes six scales. These are Study Habits, Intellectual Interests, Verbal Confidence, Math Confidence, Desire to Finish College, and Attitude Toward Educators. The Study Habits scale measured the student's willingness to make sacrifices needed to achieve academic success. It can therefore be used to make referrals to services that assist students in developing better study habits. Some of the respondents at Langston University do not posses the willingness to make the sacrifices needed to achieve academic success. Among any group of entering college

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students, the range of educational or occupational intentions may be quite varied. Not all intentions or goals are clearly held or expressed. Even when they are clearly held, they may not necessarily be consistent with degree completion or compatible with the educational goals of the chosen institution. The university needs to start working with the local high school students in their sophomore years to prepare them for the university experience. Conducting summer camps, creating mentoring programs and working with the high school counselor are some ways to better prepare the students to develop the habits necessary for academic success.

The Intellectual Interests scale measures how much the student enjoys the actual learning process and not the extent to which the student is striving for high grades or to complete a degree. Students with high scores in Intellectual Interests are likely to enjoy classroom discussions and will feel comfortable with the high level of intellectual activity that often occurs in college classrooms. Students with low scores can be encouraged to broaden and deepen their intellectual interests. Scores on the Intellectual Interests scale ranged from 3 to 28 with the mean score being 16.6. A large amount of

students at Langston University actually enjoyed the learning process. Implementing academically challenging programs and providing different learning situations beyond the classroom can encourage and reward their desire to learn. Astin (1975) points out that retention increases with student involvement in honors programs, in foreign-study programs, in credit-by-examination, and in the earning of good grades. He postulates that "students who are involved in the academic life of the institution are more likely to expend the effort necessary to get good grades than are students who are not involved" (p. 100).

The Verbal Confidence scale measures the degree to which the student feels capable of doing well in courses that heavily emphasize reading, writing, and public speaking. The Verbal Confidence scale consists of six items with a possible range of 6 to 42. Scores on the Verbal Confidence scale ranged from 14 to 42. Talented students who underestimate their abilities in the Verbal Confidence area need to be strongly encouraged to recognize their potential. The Verbal Confidence scale is intended not as a substitute for aptitude assessment but rather as an indicator of self-esteem relative to this type of task.

While the data shows that the bulk of the scores were near the means, some of the other scores tapered off toward the extremes. Some Langston University students have shown a need for remediation in subjects such as reading, writing, and public speaking; these high risk students needed to be identified.

Although teaching basic skills is still a controversial issue in higher education. Remedial education is working primarily because it assumes that under-prepared students are not dumb, but they simply lack certain academic skills. If these Langston University students can be taught these skills in a non-stigmatized environment, they can compete with their fellow classmates and go on to complete their degrees. Remedial services have been traditionally rendered either using the classroom approach or tutorial approach. Regardless of which skill-building approach is used, it is evident from the literature that supportive services similar to the Learning Resource Center will help increase retention and graduation rates. Originally Learning Resource Centers were designed specifically to aid in remedial or developmental work in order to help students (especially entering students) who were deficient in the basic

learning skills (such as study skills, reading, and writing) or who had fears and anxieties keeping them from functioning as effective students. Today, many Learning Resource Centers have expanded into learning assistance roles targeted at all students. Clearly, Learning Resource Centers can have a major role in student retention as well as in improving academic competencies and instruction. A thorough review of the school's current remedial programs should be considered to ensure that the placement test and the remedial programs are actually addressing the needs of the students.

The Desire to Finish college scale measures the degree to which the student values a college education, the satisfactions of college life, and the long-term benefits of graduation. With low-scoring students in the Desire to Finish College scale a counselor can help students explore beliefs and values related to college. Scores on the Desire to Finish College scale ranged from 19 to 56. The mean score was 23. The distribution was generally in a bell-shaped pattern with other scores tapering off toward the extremes. The data has shown that while some Langston University students process the desire to finish college, not all Langston University students

express the same desire. With social barriers facing

Langston University students, a lack of motivation may be

present. Students can learn to view these problems not as

crutches but rather as challenges. Studies have found

that successful minorities tended to be independent, self-

assured and confident that they can change their lives by

their own efforts. Harris (1980) concluded that students

who felt good about themselves and felt they had control

over their lives would be more motivated to achieve in

higher education. In some cases, clues can be found to

low scores in parental education levels, in career closure

scores, or in verbal confidence and math and science

confidence.

The Attitude Toward Educators scale measures the

student's attitudes toward teachers and administrators in

general as acquired through pre-college experiences. The

Attitude Toward Educators scale consists of six items with

a possible range of 6 to 39. Scores on the Attitude

Toward Educators scale ranged from 10 to 39 with a mean

score of 24. The distribution was generally in a bell-

shaped pattern. A careful analysis of obtainable data

shows that not all Langston University students expressed

an attitude toward educators. Faculty process a

tremendous amount of influence over students. Many majors

are selected because students admired faculty in a

particular department. No improvement can be expected in

decreasing the attrition rate without faculty leadership

and involvement. Collectively and individually faculty

have more power to improve retention on campuses that any

other group. With Attitude Toward Educators, sometimes a

low score reflects a degree of self-sufficiency that

borders on arrogance when the student is a high achiever.

Other times a low score may indicate that the student has

been treated poorly by one or more teachers as far back as

elementary school; perhaps the student was subjected to

ridicule or perhaps efforts were criticized or went

unrecognized by a teacher (Levitz & Noel, 1987, p. 48).

Counselors need to encourage students to take a broad,

open approach to testing their aptitudes and skills.

Educators must not get involved with academic demands of

research and publishing and forget about the main reason

that they are at the university, which is the students.

The Langston University administration should provide

required training to faculty and staff regarding the

services provided by the university and what their roles

will be in providing those services. Also, students need

a way of reporting problems with faculty and staff and not be afraid of retaliation.

The Math and Science Confidence scale measures the degree to which the student feels capable of doing well in math and science courses. Some talented students underestimate their abilities, and they need to be strongly encouraged to recognize their talents. Students with low scores can be referred to services that will help them strengthen their confidence in math and science. It is an indicator of self-esteem relative to this type of task and is not intended as a substitute for aptitude assessment. The Math and Science Confidence scale consists of six items with a possible range of 6 to 42. Scores on the Math and Science Confidence scale ranged from 9 to 42 with the mean score being 23. The distribution was in a bell-shaped pattern. A commonly held perception is that, first semester students at Langston University will do poorly in math and science; however, the data indicate otherwise. Some students at Langston University have difficulty learning math and science because of poor problem-solving skills. This is particularly common in entry-level courses. More programs are needed to help students who perform poorly in math and science. While

this approach is effective for some students, a recent study at Xavier University in Louisiana (a small, predominantly black institution in New Orleans) suggests that more students would benefit from increased attention to development of problem-solving skills, even if this left less time for content. A university committed to developing the academic talents of all its students must not cease its academic commitments once they have provided sufficient advising resources. Without strong curricula, competent faculty, and technical resources to execute such curricula, an institution and its academic departments can fade into mediocrity and complacency.

The General Coping Ability section of the CSI contains five scales: Sociability, Family Emotional Support, Opinion Tolerance, Career Closure, and Sense of Financial Security. The Sociability scale measures the student's general inclination to join in social activities. The relationship between the Sociability scale and academic outcomes can be complex. High sociability, for instance, can be a positive force for a person with strong study habits, but it can be a negative force for a person with poor study skills. Scores on the Sociability scale ranged from 4 to 28, with 16 being

the mean score. A counselor may wish to explore the implications of an extreme score. Students can enhance and expand their academic talents by participating in academic out-of-class learning experiences. These learning opportunities vary in type and method of delivery offering students the opportunities to refine their talents while motivating them to excel. According to Astin (1975), the key factor in retention is student involvement in campus activities. He attributes the positive effects of part-time employment on the campus, of residential living, of student activities, and of other categories of involvement, to the fact that the student is involved in the life of the institution and subsequently is more apt to persist there. Recognizing that social activities are a part of college life, students should be strongly encouraged to join an organization of their choice. Also, they should be encouraged to start an organization if none of the existing ones meet their needs.

The Family Emotional Support scale deals with factors that can influence a student's ability to adapt to the stresses of college life. Counselors can offer encouragement and empathy to low-scoring students or can

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refer these students for personal counseling. The Family

Emotional support scale measures students' satisfaction

with the quality of communication, understanding, and

respect that they have experience in their family. The

Family Emotional Support scale consists of four items with

a possible range of 4 to 28. Scores on the Family

Emotional Support scale ranged from 5 to 28 with the mean

score being 15. The distribution was generally in a bell-

shaped pattern with the numbers somewhat low on the high

end of the scores. While students at Langston University

are perceived as students that have no family emotional

support, however the date indicated otherwise. However,

the data indicates there was strong present of family

emotional support among Langston University students. Low

family support has repeatedly emerged in the validity

studies as a strong correlate of attrition, particularly

in academically successful students. Although family

support is a significant factor for all students, it is of

special significance to minorities. Most minority

cultures place a high value on the family, and there is a

great challenge and adjustment required of them as they

enter college. It is ironic that while the need for

family support is great, minority parents are less able to

provide it. Many minority students are the first

generation in their family to attend a college or

university. Without collegiate experience, parents may not

be able to prepare their children for and advise them

during their college endeavors. Consequently, colleges

and universities need to provide orientation programs

specifically designed for minority parents to help them

better understand the new environment in which their

children will be matriculating.

The Opinion Tolerance scale indicates whether a

student will be able to tolerate the diversity of social

backgrounds to which the student is exposed at college.

However, the scale also provides a broader indication of

the student's general socio-political flexibility as it

relates to all unfamiliar and threatening philosophical

perspectives, including those that arise in course

content. Thus, it can identify students whose constricted

perspective may impede the learning of threatening ideas

in such areas as philosophy, comparative religion, world

literature, world history, and the social sciences. The

Opinion Tolerance scale consisted of six items with a

possible range of 6 to 42. Scores on the Opinion

Tolerance scale ranged from 6 to 42 with 22 being the mean

score. The data indicated that a large amount of students at Langston University are opinion tolerant, but more work is needed to improve this area. A counselor may wish to discuss this potential problem with the students and encourage them to consider new ways of thinking about the basic issues of life without immediately accepting or rejecting them. Many young people of today are a great deal more tolerant and accepting of differences than their parents because they have been exposed to so much more in a very short time.

The Sense of Financial Security scale is not intended to measure the objective level of financial resources that the student has, but rather it only measures a person's feeling of being financially secure. The Sense of Financial Security scale consists of four items with a possible range of 4 to 28.   Scores on the Sense of Financial Security scale ranged from 4 to 28 with 14 being the mean score. The most important variable related to finances was student concerns. According to the study conducted on first-semester freshmen at Langston University, most students reported they did not have problem with financial security. This is in contrast to national and poplar belief that African American student

at Historically Black Colleges and Universities have this
concern and contributed to the high dropout rate. Some
students with quite modest means may feel more secure than
do students with much greater means but higher
expectations.

The Career Closure scale measures the degree to which
the student has defined a career goal and developed a firm
commitment to it. In a general way, the Career Closure
scale can be useful in assessing the student's progress in
moving from the exploratory and adventurous attitudes of
adolescence to the adoption of greater realism and
responsibility typical of young adulthood. The Career
Closure scale consists of four items with a possible range
of 4 to 28. Scores on the Career Closure scale ranged
from 8 to 28 with a mean score of 16. Overall, because
many students enter college with no real sense of their
aptitudes, skills, or talents, a critical role for
counselor and administrators is to encourage students to
take a broad, open approach to testing their aptitudes and
skills. Students often need to realize that their goals
may be reached in many different ways. Because some
Langston University students' career aspirations are often
the central foundation upon which academic motivation is

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based, students with low scores should be strongly encouraged to seek career counseling. Since these students are clear and committed about their career goals, the ability to reinforce their commitment or ease their commitment should be done early in their academic career. This should be done by exposing students to these careers early in career workshops, summer internships, and mentoring programs. Too often a student will work towards a goal for 3 to 4 years only to find out that the career they are interested in is not really for them or it is not what they expected. Career counseling should start the moment the student enters college with the intensity growing as they progress to graduation.

The Receptivity to Support Services section includes five scales: Academic Assistance, Personal Counseling, Social Enrichment, Career Counseling, and Financial Guidance. The Academic Assistance scale measures the student's desire to receive course-specific tutoring or individual help with study habits, reading skills, examination skills, writing skills, or mathematics skills. The Academic Assistance scale can be taken into account in deciding whether to encourage the student to seek academic assistance. The Academic Assistance scale

consists of four items with a possible range of 4 to 42.
Scores on the Academic Assistance scale ranged from 6 to
42 while the mean score was 28. While the data reflects
that most of the students in this study were not receptive
to academic assistance, the data supports the need for
academic assistance for the majority of the sample
population. The university needs to promote tutoring and
skill building workshops as something positive and not
negative. In high school, if a student needs help, it is
seen as something bad. One way to get around the negative
feelings is to require all freshmen to attend a freshman
orientation class. The tutoring could be a lab attached
to the math, reading, or writing class.

While the Personal Counseling scale covers attitudes
toward school, instructor problems, roommate problems,
family problems, general tensions, problems relating to
dating and friendships, and problems in controlling and
unwanted habits, it also measures the student's felt need
for help with personal problems. The Personal Counseling
scale consists of six items with a possible range of 6 to
42. Scores on the Personal Counseling scale ranged from 6
to 42 with a mean score of 15. The distribution was
skewed with more responses on the low end of the

distribution. The data reflected that most of the

respondents were receptive to personal counseling; in fact

most of the students interviewed welcome the idea of

personal counseling with a small number believing

counseling was unnecessary. Counseling is intended to

positively affect self-concept, motivation, values

clarification, perceptions of and relationships to others,

involvement, and academic and personal adjustment and

problems (with associated anxiety and stress) that have

been found by various research studies to affect student

attrition and retention. In large part, the effects of

counseling on student retention are determined by the

extent to which counseling activities are able to

influence such factors as a particular setting and with

specific personnel working with students having specific

needs. As emphasized by O'Brien (1967), colleges need

improved ways to induce students to seek counseling.

There may be a away to get from the stigma that many

people associate with the term counseling, another

potential strategy is to bring counseling opportunities to

where students live and work. Counseling should be

provided because more and more students are coming to

school with personal problems. There are a wide variety

of problems students are dealing with from the moment they step on campus. Information about personal counseling should be provided not only during crisis, but also academic advisors and administrators should be trained to recognize when the personal problems of students are prohibiting them from performing as they should. The counselors and administrators should be trained as well in what type of counseling is available to the students and the best way to approach a student with a recommendation to attend personal counseling.

The Career Counseling scale measures the student's desire for help in selecting a major or career. The Career Counseling scale consists of five items with a possible range of 5 to 35. Scores on the Receptivity to Career Counseling scale ranged from 5 to 35 with the mean score being 24.35. The distribution was skewed with more responses on the high end of the distribution. The data shows that the students at Langston University are receptive to career counseling. Considering the growing consensus in the literature in recent years that career relevance is a key factor in student retention, it is not surprising that many strategies currently being implemented to improve retention are specifically related

to career planning and counseling. If the student has a low score on both Career Counseling and Career Planning scales, a counselor can point out that students seems to be avoiding the issue of career choice. Students without specific goals cannot have the same drive that others, who are moving toward a goal, have. One of the first objectives of an institution should to be to help students think through, in a very rational, informed way, the kinds of careers or majors that are most appropriate for them. This does not have to be accomplished in the first week, the first term, or the first year. It should be a process that begins in and continues throughout the first year, perhaps even throughout the second. Beal and Noel (1980) report that orientation programs often play a critical role in career planning and that early orientation efforts have proven helpful in reducing attrition, especially for students undecided about their educational goals. To encourage such students to seek help in vocational decision making early in their college lives, an introduction to career planning and counseling should be a part of orientation activities.   These data from the finding suggests that there is direct relationship between the educational aspirations of students (the degree they

desire to earn) and their career goals. Another factor
linked to attrition is a lack of work opportunities,
either on or off campus. Without such opportunities,
students may drop out for financial reasons. Working can
also increase persistence because a job can give students
a better understanding of the world of work and thus help
them set more realistic career goals.

The Financial Guidance scale measures the desire of
students to discuss ways of increasing their financial
resources for college. The Financial Guidance scale may
be very helpful in some cases for a counselor simply to
empathize with the student's situation and provide
encouragement regarding the prospects of working part-time
while attending school. The Financial Guidance scale
consists of four items with a possible range of 4 to 28.
Scores on the Financial Guidance scale ranged from 4 to
28. Depending on the circumstances, the counselor may
wish to help the student recognize the advisability of
cutting back on course load when the student must work
long hours at a job. In addition to simply presenting the
student with an annual award letter, the financial aid
office has a legal and moral obligation to make sure that
students understand the kind of financial aid that is

being given as well as their rights and responsibilities.
Most schools simply send this information to the student
either at the time the financial aid letter is tendered or
prior to disbursing the actual funds. Although this
technique satisfies the statutory requirements,
institutions concerned about establishing a caring
environment might well consider employing a more personal
approach. Even though the opportunities for scholarships
are usually very limited at the point at which the student
completes the inventory, loans and work-study positions
may still be available. From the moment a student applies
to the university, information regarding financial aid,
loans, scholarships, and on-campus jobs should be provided
to the student. When students are worried about how they
are going to pay for books, housing, or the next meal, it
is very hard to concentrate on academics. The
administration should encourage their financial aid office
to do more than hand out checks. Students should feel
comfortable saying they need financial help and feel that
there are resources available. The financial Guidance
scale may be very helpful, in some cases for an advisor
simply to empathize with the student's situation and

provide encouragement regarding the prospects of working

part-time while attending school.

The Social Enrichment scale measures the student's

desire to meet other students and to participate in group

activities. Students with high scores on the Social

Enrichment scale can be directed toward the type of social

activities they desire. The Social Enrichment scale

consists of four items with a possible range of 4 to 28.

Scores on the Social Enrichment scale ranged from 4 to 28

with a mean score of 17. The distribution was somewhat

bell-shaped; however, the bulk of the scores were skewed

toward the high end of the distribution. The data

reflected that the students at Langston University were

not interested in social enhancement while a small number

thought it important.

Increased efforts should be made to expand

opportunities for student involvement in extracurricular

activities. Such an emphasis may require institutional

recognition that such involvement is important to the

educational process as well as to persistence. New and

innovative involvement opportunities should be devised

beyond the traditional activity programs. Such new

programs could well be related to the curriculum for

either credit or non-credit and could take place either on or off campus. Organizations provide an education in team work, compromise, accepting differences, socializing, and a sense of community that cannot always be found in the classroom. Therefore, the university should strongly work to give students opportunities to explore the social side of education as well as the academic side.

Groups of Students

The Students Desiring Tutoring in Basic Skills were aware of their academic shortcomings and the areas in which they need assistance. These areas are not new to the students in that they were problem areas in high school. Most could identify the type of tutor they would want and what situation would help them the most. Even with the knowledge that they had problem subject areas and that these subjects were causing them problems in college, the majority of the students either did not seek tutoring or were not consistent with the service for one reason or another. If there was a problem with the tutor, it was not reported, and the student did not seek another tutor. Because the problem areas reported by the students are crucial to their academic success in areas such as English and reading, it would be beneficial for the students in

this group to seek tutoring in whatever situation they deem most comfortable.

The Students Not Desiring Counseling were the most difficult to contact and initially seemed annoyed with this process. This was primarily because they felt they had their academic success under control and know what to do if they were having a problem. Because the students felt they were successful, no one could assist them because if they fail, it is their responsibility and because they know how to fix any academic shortcomings. It was difficult for the students who did reveal a weakness to do so. Their facial expressions, or body language, demonstrated uneasiness in confessing a problem area or weakness although their tone usually stayed even. The students seemed to use whatever resource to quickly recover or correct any weak areas in order to ensure (or almost prove) that they have their academic success under control. University staff should continue to advise the students about the various resources on campus or through other venues. These students had a pattern of seeking resources should they have a problem.

For the Students Desiring Some Personal Counseling Related to Job Opportunities, seeking personal counseling may not be for them in that they would be uncomfortable or

felt like they are the way they are and it really is not a

"counseling" type problem. During the interviews, actions

of most of the students in this group were initially

suspicious about the survey. They asked several questions

about the purpose and use of the survey. After awhile,

most of the students became comfortable and trusting of

the exchange, but it was evident that this was on their

terms. Trust and comfort had to be earned. This group

also wanted job related counseling. University staff

should continue to provide the resources to the students

and make clear purpose for any counseling available giving

detail of the content. Confidentiality was crucial to

these students. They must feel that they can trust those

from whom they seek assistance. The Students Desiring

Strong Personal Counseling Related to Job Opportunities

wanted to have a "good job" at the end of their academic

track. Although socialization was important, some

students in this group could possibly stand on the

sidelines and watch the action rather than be a part of

it. Careers are their ultimate goal. College is just the

avenue to get there "already". Some students were anxious

about getting through this process to get on with life.

University staff should continue to provide access to

information for internships and career placement.
Obtaining their degree and gaining successful employment
was the focal point for these students; therefore, their
main interest was assistance with job placement.

<center>Final Commentary</center>

For more than a century, historically black
institutions have successfully recruited, retained, and
graduated leading professionals in countless fields.
Accounts are plentiful of those with, and without means,
who came to these institutions and were shaped and
nurtured by those dedicated to their success.

The attainment of three ultimate goals quality
education, student development, and student retention
depends mainly on two components: the development of
certain cognitive and affective conditions within students
and the institutional factors that foster these intra-
student processes.

To be successful, African American students must
navigate between at least two cultures (Parham, White, &
Ajamu, 1999, p. 89). HBCUs view their students within the
context of culture and design their educational programs
to meet their unique learning needs. This is in contrast
to the traditional educational process that is typically

found at predominately White institutions and that requires students to assimilate to mainstream school standards derived primarily from Western European philosophy and theory without attention to relevant diverse cultural styles and practices.

As institutions of higher education confront the challenges of student assessment in a rapidly changing society, historically black colleges and universities have an opportunity to lead the discussion in the 21st century. The transformation of society is placing a demand on higher education to become more inclusive of serving students of under-represented groups, and the HBCU perspective offers strategies of assessment that are paramount in embracing this influx of cultural diversity. The institutional climate within HBCUs provides an insightful framework for facilitating agendas that align assessment with current socio-political factors, historical and cultural reference points, and demographic societal change.

The tradition of HBCUs is to cultivate alternative strategies for improving academic performance of African American students (Anderson, 1988). HBCUs are important resources, as evidenced by the fact that 40% of all

African Americans who obtained undergraduate degrees

received them from HBCUs (Garibaldi, 1991). These

institutions have a long history of successfully teaching

African American students, who were said to be unprepared

for higher education based on criteria for admission to

most majority institutions. With the growing economic

pressures on all institutions in higher education, HBCUs

must take steps to insure that their students are retained

so that they can benefit from this historical legacy.

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VITA

Miron Paul Billingsley

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctorate of Education

Thesis: "WE'LL KEEP THE LIGHT ON FOR YOU": THE
          RETENTION OF STUDENTS AT A HISTORICALLY BLACK
          COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY

Major Field: Occupational and Adult Education

Biographical:

   Personal Data: Born in Chicago, Illinois, June 4,
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Institution: Oklahoma State University

Location: Stillwater, Oklahoma

Title of Study: WE'LL LEAVE THE LIGHT ON FOR YOU: THE
                  RETENTION OF STUDENTS AT A HISTORICALLY
                  BLACK COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY

Pages in Study: 195

Candidate for the Degree of Doctorate of Education

Major Field: Adult and Occupational Education

Scope and Method of Study: The purpose of the study was to
  describe the institutional data gathered with the
College Student Inventory (CSI) on retention at Langston
University by gathering data from 270 students on the CSI-
B at Langston University. The survey items were analyzed
with cluster analysis to identify groups inherent in the
data. Using analysis of variance, four groups were
identified and interviews were conducted with six
representatives from each of the four groups.

Findings and Conclusions: There were no significant
differences between the means based on sex or age for any
of the 16 scales that make up the CSI. Grade point
averages were collected on each of the students at the end
of the semester to investigate the relationship of grade
point average to various CSI scales. Significant
differences were found on the Family Emotional Support
Scale and the Career Closure Scale.

Advisor's Approval: _____Deke Johnson_____