

An Examination of the College Choice of Students of Color in the Deep South

by

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Abstract

There is existing literature on college choice factors, as well as college choice factors specifically for students of color. However, limited literature exists on the college choice of students of color in the Deep South, an area historically plagued by racial tension and presently seeing an increase in racial diversity (Bankston, 2007; Adelman & Tsao, 2016). Framed through standpoint theory (Harding, 1992) and existing models of college choice (Cabrera & La Nasa, 2001; Chapman, 1981; Hossler & Gallagher, 1987), this study sought to understand why students of color choose to attend colleges and universities in the Deep South through the standpoint of the student. This study examined what factors affect the college choice of students of color attending institutions in the Deep South based on gender, race, and institution type (HBCU vs. PWI) by analyzing data from the 2014 version of *The Freshman Survey*. Descriptive statistics and multivariate analyses of data were conducted, and the results indicated that, in general, the academic reputation of an institution, the jobs graduates receive, and the college's reputation for social activities were the top factors affecting the college choice of students of color choosing to attend institutions in the Deep South. Recognizing it is problematic to aid admissions professionals in recruiting students of color to institutions that may not be built to support them, this study provides admissions professionals with recommendations on how to recruit and retain students of color at their institutions.

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List of Abbreviations

HBCU	Historically Black Colleges and Universities
HERI	Higher Education Research Institute
MSI	Minority-Serving Institutions
PWI	Predominantly-White Institutions
TFS	The Freshman Survey
UCLA	University of California, Los Angeles

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Deep South is an area of the United States comprised of six states: Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, and South Carolina (Adelman & Tsao, 2016). These states are historically known for the White aristocracy that owned Black slave plantations prior to the Civil War (Warner, 1941). In addition to historical examples of conflict between races, the Deep South represents an area of the United States that has seen an increase in racial diversity and immigration (Bankston, 2007; Adelman & Tsao, 2016).

For higher education institutions, this diversity represents an opportunity and obligation to enroll a more diverse student body than what is already present at their institutions in order to continue serving the students that surround them geographically. Framed through standpoint theory (Harding, 1992) and existing models of college choice (Cabrera & La Nasa, 2001; Chapman, 1981; Hossler & Gallagher, 1987), this study sought to understand why students of color choose to attend colleges and universities in the Deep South from the perspective of the student. This study embraced a holistic view of university recruitment. My definition of a holistic approach to recruitment extends beyond getting students of color to campus, and it encompasses retaining them and putting resources in place to help them be successful. Incorporating a holistic view informed the study's aim to make recommendations to higher education institutions in the

Deep South not only about marketing their schools to students of color, but also about best practices for retaining those students.

Diversity and the Deep South

Nationally, enrollment rates at higher education institutions are projected to increase by 2025; however, some of the largest gains are projected for students of color. Between 2014 to 2025, enrollment rates nationally are projected to increase by 22 percent for Black students, 32 percent for Hispanic students, 16 percent for Asian/Pacific Islander students, and 37 percent for students of two or more races; whereas, the enrollment rates for White students are only projected to increase by 3 percent (Hussar & Bailey, 2017). Previously flocking to larger cities such as New York, Los Angeles, Chicago, and heavily populated states such as Texas and Florida, Latin American and Asian immigrants are now inhabiting the Deep South (Adelman & Tsao, 2016). By 2025, the Southern region of the United States is projected to see an influx of high school graduates, accounting for one of the largest areas of growth in the country (Selingo, 2018). In 2000, the South was home to one-third of the nation's high school graduates, but the region "will be responsible for nearly half at the peak of its growth in 2025" (Selingo, 2018). For colleges and universities, an increase in high school graduates means an opportunity to engage and enroll more students. In order for institutions in the Deep South to prepare for and understand how to best serve the growing populations of students of color, it is important to look at the college choice process through their point of view.

The Deep South is home to many of the nation's historically Black colleges and universities (HBCUs); however, Deep South predominantly-White institutions (PWIs) also enroll large numbers of students of color even though they often serve as a symbol for the southern White resistance to desegregation (Muir & McGlamery, 1984). For example, in 1963, Alabama

Governor George C. Wallace infamously “stood in the school-house door” in an attempt to block the enrollment of two Black students at the University of Alabama (Muir & McGlamery, 1984). In a nationally-publicized event, representatives from the U.S. Department of Justice were ordered to enforce the racial integration of the University, overruling the governor’s attempt to stop it (Muir & McGlamery, 1984). Following desegregation, Black students newly allowed to attend PWIs felt excluded from established social systems on the mostly segregated campuses, including membership in fraternities and sororities (Muir & McGlamery, 1984).

Fifty years after desegregation, the image of Governor Wallace standing in the school-house door persists as overt and structural racism persists on college campuses in the Deep South. The University of Alabama was scrutinized in 2013 when white sorority members were dismissed from their organization for using racial slurs, and a Black woman alleged she was not selected for membership in traditionally-White sororities because of her race (Turnage, 2017). That is not an isolated incident, however. The *Journal of Blacks in Higher Education* blogged about a number of campus racial incidents reported on Deep South campuses in 2018: a White student at an HBCU law school in North Carolina being suspended for posting racial slurs on social media, racist signs posted on top of photographs of prominent African Americans in South Carolina history at the University of South Carolina, and a sign being defaced with a racial slur outside the Center for Black Culture at Duke University (The Journal for Blacks in Higher Education, 2018).

As many institutions seek to expand their racial diversity and the racial diversity in the Deep South increases, it becomes the responsibility of admissions professionals to not only seek to understand how to get students to an institution, but also how to support and keep them there. Julie Washington echoes this sentiment by stating, “It’s important that college admissions

professionals not only say we support diversity in word, but commit to doing so in action so that all students feel supported and valued in any interaction with our campus community” (National Association for College Admission Counseling, 2018b). Higher education is a field dominated by the White culture that created it (Lederman, 2017), and as more students of color prepare to enter the realm of collegiate academia in the Deep South, it becomes more important to understand why they are choosing to attend and how to support them once on campus. Based on the college choice factors found to be the most significant for students of color who chose institutions in the Deep South, this study will recommend practices for higher education institutions that will complement the choices of their students.

Theoretical Framework

This study examines the college choices of students of color at institutions in the Deep South through the framework of standpoint theory (Harding, 1992). Standpoint theory emerged in the late 1970s and can be traced to Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel’s master-slave dialectic, where the concept of slavery was explored from the standpoint of the oppressed slave as opposed to the dominant master (Harding, 1992). Feminists noted how the masculine point of view was commonly placed in the forefront of academic research (Harding, 1992). However, feminist researchers challenged this notion by “emphasizing that attitudes, beliefs, and values originate in the...experiences of a group or individual” (Ellis & Fopp, 2001, p. 2). A key claim for feminists is that women’s lives are different than men’s, and different knowledge about women is produced when studied through a women’s standpoint. Feminists originally utilized standpoint theory to explore the power dynamic between men and women through a woman’s perspective (Harding, 1992). Though standpoint research is commonly used to study how power is gendered,

it has also been used in studies on race to understand how society is racialized (Bukoski & Hatch, 2016; Harnois, 2010; Hendrix & Wilson, 2014; Moore, 2012).

Standpoint theorists argue that the starting point of research should be the lives of marginalized peoples, whether they are marginalized by race, ethnicity, gender, class, sexuality, or other aspects of identity that help shape societies (Harding, 1992). The standpoint of this study was the lives of college students in the racial minority, and it also employed the intersectionality of race and gender. Intersectionality has commonly been used by feminists (Cole, 2009; Collins, 2000; Crenshaw, 1989), and it was used in this study to account for “the ways race, gender...mutually construct one another” (Mann, 2010, p. 105). In addition to exploring the college choice of students of color, this study examined college choice from the standpoint of man students of color and woman students of color, noting that they are different marginalized populations.

In American academia, “people of colour have been deliberately excluded from knowledge production” which has helped cultivate a white ideology in higher education (Moore, 2012, p. 616). Standpoint theory asserts that oppressed groups, like students of color in higher education, can more clearly identify the sources of their oppression because it affects their lived experiences. The theory claims the knowledge of the oppressed is socially and historically situated and argues that not all social situations provide an equal starting point for research:

Thus the standpoint claims that all knowledge attempts are socially situated and that some of these objective social locations are better than others as starting points for knowledge projects challenge some of the most fundamental assumptions of the scientific world view...thereby to produce knowledge that can be for marginalized people...rather than for the use only of dominant groups in

their projects or administering and managing the lives of marginalized people (Harding, 1992, p. 444-5).

Although my stance as a White man and member of the majority culture is problematic because I have not lived and cannot fully know the experience of a student of color, my use of standpoint theory is out of a desire to “avoid essentializing the experiences” of students of color (Bukoski & Hatch, 2016, p. 103). My selection of standpoint theory was also informed by my commitment to racial equity and expanded educational resources for students of color. I cannot know how my identity ultimately shaped the interpretation of the research. However, by intentionally framing the study through the standpoint of the student of color, the study seeks to unearth knowledge that can benefit these students’ experiences in the recruitment process and on college campuses, as opposed to perpetuating the dominant White perspective that has historically existed in higher education.

Statement of the Problem

This study examines the college choice of students of color at institutions in the Deep South with hopes of understanding what factors affect their decisions and why students of color specifically choose to attend PWIs over HBCUs. Previous research has been completed on the college choice process of students of color (Freeman, 1997; Gyapong & Smith, 2012; Hernandez, 2015; McDonough, Antonio, & Trent, 1997; Santiago, 2007; Tran, 2012; Wood & Harrison, 2014) and the college choice process of students who selected an institution in the Deep South (Holladay, 2012; O’neil, 2013; Urbanski, 2000). However, this study seeks to fill a gap in the research pertaining to college choice by combining those two populations and focusing specifically on students of color who chose institutions in the Deep South.

Additionally, the study will make recommendations beyond the college selection phase. While research on college search provides information on how to market an institution and make it desirable to a specific population of students, this research seeks to inform admissions professionals and higher education institutions about the choices of students of color so they can create an educational environment that will put the needs of the students in the forefront.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the factors that influenced students of color to attend a higher education institution in the Deep South. The data were collected from a national survey that received responses from students of all races from across the country; however, only the responses from students of color choosing to attend institutions in the Deep South were used. A student of color is defined as any student that did not solely select “White/Caucasian” when asked to identify their race. The survey yielded 10,782 responses from students of color choosing to attend one of 44 different institutions in the Deep South. College choice differences of students of color were examined using demographic variables including gender, type of institution (PWI vs. HBCU), and race. Findings were used to gain a better understanding of how students of color decided which college to attend.

Significance of the Study

Admissions professionals at institutions of higher education in the Deep South will be able to take the knowledge gained from why students of color choose to attend an institution and apply it to their everyday practice. Because this study embraces a holistic form of recruitment, it will provide recommendations to admissions professionals in the Deep South on how to best recruit and retain students of color at their institutions. The study is significant because it uses the perspective of the students of color as a standpoint for the research, so the information gained

by admissions professionals is not intended to marginalize them, but rather aid them in selecting the institution that is the best fit for them based on the resources the institution can provide.

Research Questions

The study examined the following research questions:

1. What factors, in general, affect the college choices of students of color attending institutions in the Deep South?
 - a. How does this differ based on gender¹?
 - b. How does this differ based on race?
2. What factors, specifically, affect the college choices of students of color to attend predominantly-White institutions versus historically Black colleges and universities (PWI vs. HBCU) in the Deep South?

Research Design

This study is a secondary analysis of existing data collected by the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) at the University of California Los Angeles through *The Freshman Survey*. The survey was created by Dr. Sandy Astin in 1966, and its home has been with HERI since 1973 (HERI, 2018). The subjects of the study are incoming first-year students before they begin taking college classes, and it is intended to provide institutions with a “snapshot of what your incoming students are like before they experience college” (HERI, 2018). For the purposes of this study, only the respondents who were students of color choosing to attend an institution in the Deep South were used.

¹ The survey used only defined “gender” as male and female; however, it is recognized that not all students identify as “male” and “female.”

Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

As with all social science research, there were limitations and delimitations to the study. For example, a self-imposed delimitation was narrowing the study to only students of color attending institutions in Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, and South Carolina. *The Freshman Survey* supplied data from students of all races and ethnicities across the nation; however, the data studied here were limited to responses from students of color in the Deep South. This delimitation was designed to gain a better understanding of the college choice factors for that specific student population. Results from the study only identified the college choice factors for the participating institution that the student ultimately chose; therefore, results cannot be generalized to all students at all institutions.

Additionally, the survey instrument selected provided other limitations. *The Freshman Survey* provided data that was strictly quantitative in nature, which did not allow the participants an opportunity to elaborate on their answers and articulate their feelings (Atieno, 2009). Giving participants the opportunity to expound upon answers could have revealed other phenomena not explored by the questions on *The Freshman Survey*. Additionally, the quantitative questions provided a narrow three-point scale for students to rate each college choice factor. Having a larger scale would increase the disparity between which college choice factors are more significant than others in the college choice process.

Moreover, the survey did not allow participants to select all types of minority serving institutions (MSIs). Participants were only able to select whether or not they attended an HBCU. While it is still possible to study the college choice of all students of color, the selection limits the opportunity to study the college choices of students that choose Tribal Colleges and Universities, Hispanic Serving Institutions, and other types of MSIs. The survey also only

provided male and female as options for gender, which does not encompass the students of color who self-identify as non-binary and transgender. The lack of options for the gender question limits the scope of the study, as students were forced to select an option they may not identify with.

Positionality

My interest in the topic of recruiting students of color stems from my career working in college admissions. During my eight year tenure, I have experience working as an undergraduate student tour guide, an event planner, a graduate assistant, and a professional admissions advisor. I lived in a small rural town in the South for 17 years prior to attending a PWI, which we will call Southeastern Plains University, referred to as the pseudonym, SPU. SPU is also the institution where I spent my career in admissions. Even though I did not travel far for school, there were some immediate differences I noticed when I arrived to campus. I am an upper-middle class, White man. Racially and socioeconomically, I was not in the majority of my high school. I attended a high school where more than 60 percent of the students were students of color, and more than 60 percent of the students received free or reduced-priced lunches. That was a stark contrast to the predominantly-White university I attended where more than 75 percent of students are White, and less than 15 percent of students are low income students eligible for federal Pell grants.

As a member of the majority at SPU, I felt the overtones of discrimination in my first few days of college at the PWI. During my first college class, which was an honors course, my professor called roll and asked me where I was from. Upon finding out, he asked me if I was from a lower-class family and applauded me for making it into an Honors College coming from my hometown demographics. The Honors College had strict requirements including a minimum

29 ACT score, 3.75 high school GPA, and an essay-driven application; therefore, it was composed of academically-successful, motivated students. For this professor, my background, which saw more socioeconomic and racial diversity than many students, did not fit the stereotype of a typical honors student. On the second day of classes, I encountered a similar experience. A different professor encouraged us to buy our calculators and school supplies in my hometown, a few miles from campus, because he thought there would be more available. He continued by saying the people who lived there were uneducated and did not have a reason to use them. I could not help but wonder if I felt discrimination as a member of the majority on campus what the students in the racial minority felt or experienced.

When I began working in admissions at SPU, I felt a responsibility to help recruit more students of color to campus to help increase the racial diversity of the school. As an admissions office and institution, we had goals to increase racial diversity; however, I realized that I did not know how. When planning recruitment events for students of color, I was encouraged to only allow minority students and staff to speak to the prospective students of color, bus students into campus, and provide more information than normal on financial aid. Many of my admissions colleagues gave this advice under the assumption that students of color only wanted to speak to people that “looked like them,” could not afford to travel to campus, and had less resources to attend college. However, research or statistics were never used to back up these assumptions. Like my professor on the first day of class, many higher education professionals at this PWI had an image of every student of color being underprivileged. Not only was this stereotype problematic, it was also problematic to be recruiting students of color to attend an institution that had already formed a conception about who they were.

What I was looking for was research. I was looking for statistics or data or interviews that told me what students of color were looking for in a college education and what hesitations they had, if any, in choosing a PWI in the Deep South. I knew that in order to effectively recruit, retain, and foster success in students of color, it was important to look at the college search process through their eyes instead of blindly guessing what students of color are interested in based on racial stereotypes.

As a White man, I cannot experience the recruitment process the same as a student of color or represent it for students of color; however, as a college admissions professional, I must seek to understand that process through the perspective of students of color. My hope for this study is that the research can be framed through the eyes of these students. If admissions professionals can develop a better understanding of why students of color choose institutions in the Deep South, we can not only be better resources during the recruitment process, but also provide better resources on campus to help students of color be successful once enrolled at an institution.

Definitions

The following terms are defined to aid in understanding the study:

College Choice – “Influences affecting prospective students’ [decision] of which college to attend” (Chapman, 1981, p. 490).

Deep South – An area of the country that has long been associated with slavery and conflicts in Black-White relations (Adelman & Tsao, 2016). The six states included in the Deep South are Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, and South Carolina (Adelman & Tsao, 2016).

Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) – Institutions founded primarily to educate African American students. However, they do not exclude students from other races. Most are located in the Southern part of the United States (Harmon, 2012).

Minority-Serving Institutions (MSIs) – Institutions of higher education that primarily serve low-income, first-generation, and under-represented students (Harmon, 2012). These include, but are not limited to, HBCUs, Hispanic Serving Institutions, Tribal Colleges and Universities, and Asian American Native American Pacific Islander-Serving Institutions (Harmon, 2012).

Students of Color – For the purposes of this study, it is defined as any student who does not self-identify as “White/Caucasian” on *The Freshman Survey*. This includes responses for more than one race, African American/Black, American Indian/Alaska Native, East Asian, Filipino, Southeast Asian, South Asian, Other Asian, Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, Mexican American/Chicano, Puerto Rican, Other Latino, and Other.

Predominantly-White Institutions (PWIs) – Institutions of higher education “in which Whites account for 50% or greater of the student enrollment” (Brown II & Dancy II, 2010).

Organization of the Study

This study is presented in five chapters. The first chapter discusses the problem being studied, the purpose of the study, and the significance of the study. Additionally, chapter one delves into the history of diversity in the Deep South, the theoretical framework of standpoint theory, and my positionality as it relates to the topic of the college choice of students of color in the Deep South. The second chapter encompasses the literature review, which includes the history of students of color in higher education, reviews of college choice models, and college choice factors for students in the Deep South, Black students, Hispanic students and Asian

American students. Chapter Three describes the methods used in the study. This includes information about the sample, the survey instrument, and the data analysis techniques. The fourth chapter presents the findings of the study organized by the research questions presented in Chapter One. Finally, the fifth chapter includes a discussion of the findings, recommendations based on the results of the study, and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Students of Color and Higher Education

Higher Education in the United States dates back to 1636, when Harvard College, now Harvard University, was founded prior to the country becoming an independent nation (Cohen & Kisker, 2010). This early college centered on teaching, as opposed to the advancement of learning, and sought to train young men for public service or religious roles in the clergy (Cohen & Kisker, 2010). Over the next 133 years, eight additional colonial colleges were formed, each with its own religious affiliation (Cohen & Kisker, 2010). Students of color were rare, if not non-existent, at most of the institutions, as they almost exclusively were intended for White, wealthy, Christian, young men. Harvard, Dartmouth, and William and Mary each sought to enroll Native American students; however, their mission was not to educate them. Those three colleges shared a mission of Christianizing and civilizing the indigenous students, but were unsuccessful as few students enrolled (Cohen & Kisker, 2010). At Dartmouth, scholars estimate only 50 Native American students enrolled in a 140-year time frame (Cohen & Kisker, 2010).

Too often, as Native Americans reported experiencing at the early colleges, being a college-educated American has been equated with “conforming to the Anglo-Saxon pattern of language, morality and behavior,” which has become known as the White Anglo-Saxon

Protestant (WASP) culture (Pai, Adler, & Shadiow, 2006, p. 60). Throughout history, the ethos of WASP culture has been described as the moral principles and natural rights found in documents such as the Declaration of Independence, the U.S. Constitution, and the Gettysburg Address (Garcia, 1978). These documents stress the equality of all individuals regardless of color; however, the culture's ethos is in stark contrast with its "values [which] presume the superiority of the white race, Anglo-Saxon institutions, and the Protestant ethic of individualism" (Garcia, 1978, p. 13). During the late 1800s and early 1900s, many immigrants from Europe, Asia, and South America arrived on American soil. The immigrant groups did not want to give up their cultural customs, languages, and observances; however, the K-12 schools wanted them to conform to the WASP culture that had become the "norm" in American schools (Pai et al., 2006, p. 60). The superiority of the WASP culture was also perpetuated by early colleges because they all had Protestant religious affiliations and only admitted affluent White men, thus limiting educational opportunities for marginalized populations such as women and students of color.

Moreover, WASP culture dictated the lower schooling of Native American children. In the late 1800s and early 1900s, hundreds of thousands of Native American children were sent to boarding schools created by White Christian missionaries (Neutuch, 2018). Captain Richard Henry Pratt, a White man who opened the first federally funded boarding school for Native American students, proclaimed, "Kill the Indian in him, and save the man" (Beutuch, 2018, p. 31). In an attempt to eradicate the Native American culture, Native American students were stripped of their given names, physically abused by teachers, and not allowed to speak their native languages (Neutuch, 2018). Because of their experiences, the students who attended these boarding schools "passed along a strong distrust or ambivalence toward government-controlled

education to future generations” (Neutuch, 2018, p. 31). The distrust of Native American students extended to all levels of education, including higher education.

Similarly, after the end of slavery in the United States, Black students were ostensibly able to attend school, albeit limited in setting and content. As a result, they also were not able to trust in the school system. Not all White persons were advocates of universal schooling for people of all races (Anderson, 1988, p. 169). Therefore, Black students had to become self-reliant in fostering their education in order to learn how to read and write. Anderson noted that, “Early black [lower] schools were established and supported largely through the Afro-Americans’ own efforts” (1988, p. 171). However, even when financial aid was not available, Blacks found ways to support their education. One way was through the Sabbath school system, which was church-sponsored lower schools that operated on weeknights and weekends to provide education on literacy (Anderson, 1988, p. 175). The Sabbath schools were another example of students of color fighting for the right to be educated fairly.

The earliest access for Black students in higher education came in 1823 when Alexander Lucius Twilight graduated from Middlebury College in Vermont (Harper, Patton, & Wooden, 2009). College access for Black students was rare, as only two dozen Black students graduated from colleges prior to the Civil War (Cohen & Kisker, 2010). Oberlin College became the first institution to openly admit Black students in 1833 with no limit on the number that could attend (Harper et al., 2009). The first colleges founded for students of color, Lincoln University and Wilberforce University, were formed in the 1850s prior to the Civil War and helped begin a major movement for access—the creation of Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) (Cohen & Kisker, 2010).

After the Civil War, churches and philanthropic organizations gave financial support for the creation of dozens more HBCUs in order to educate the children of recently freed slaves (Cohen & Kisker, 2010). Further, public support of higher education for Black students was reflected by the passage of the Second Morrill Act of 1890. The Act required that “states with racially segregated public higher education systems...provide a land-grant institution for black students wherever a land-grant institution was established and restricted for white students” (U.S. Department of Education, 1991). Public land-grant institutions specifically intended for Black students were established in all of the states in the Deep South (U.S. Department of Education, 1991). In addition, 17 states received educational funding that was distributed to Black students (Harper et al., 2009).

The United States took a step toward desegregation in 1954 when the Supreme Court ruled unanimously in *Brown v. the Board of Education of Topeka* that racial segregation in public schools was no longer legal. This overturned the legal precedent set in the Supreme Court’s 1896 ruling in *Plessy v. Ferguson* that schools could be racially segregated as long as the facilities were separate but equal. Although the *Brown* decision included higher education, “very little attention was paid to the dismantling of dual postsecondary systems in the 19 Southern and border states” (Brown II, 2001, p. 49). By 1960, Alabama, Georgia, and South Carolina were unintegrated with zero Black students enrolled (Collins, 1961). Higher Education, especially in the Deep South, took a decade before it began following the desegregation mandate. Ten years after *Brown*, only one percent of students in the South were attending schools that had integrated (Miksch, 2008). Little attention was paid to ending dual, segregated systems of higher education, and universities continued to operate as they previously had (Brown II, 2001).

Desegregation efforts finally reached higher education when President Lyndon B. Johnson signed the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which “was designed to eliminate discrimination against African Americans and other racial and ethnic groups” (Brown II, 2001, p. 49). Title VI of the Act restricted federal funds to institutions that stayed segregated, and more Black students began to enroll in PWIs that were previously segregated (Harper et al., 2009). Prior to the passage of the Act, “over 90 percent of African American students...were educated in traditionally Black schools” (Fleming, 1984, p. 7). By 1976, that percentage had drastically decreased to 18.4, which meant the majority Black students began attending integrated institutions of higher education that were PWIs (Hoffman, Snyder, & Sonnenberg, 1992).

The topic of desegregation in higher education reappeared as a national issue three decades later in the *United States v. Fordice* (1992) case. The plaintiffs contended that colleges in the state of Mississippi were in violation of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. They asserted that PWIs and HBCUs were not equal in the “number and quality of academic programs, instructional staff, physical plant facilities, the allocation of land-grant functions, and the distribution of state postsecondary education funding” (Brown II, 2001, p. 50). The Court declared that Mississippi had not desegregated its higher education institutions and was operating two racially segregated systems of higher education. A year after the decision, “lower courts in Mississippi, Louisiana, Alabama, and Tennessee [were still] wrestling with the Fordice decision and the application of the sound educational policy standard” (Brown, 1993, p. 5). The new policy contended that if institutional policies discouraged students from choosing to attend a minority-serving institution (MSI) over a predominantly-White institution (PWI), then remnants of segregation still existed (Brown II, 2001). In Mississippi’s case, the District Court found that 90 percent of graduate programs at HBCUs were unnecessarily duplicated by PWIs; thus,

detracting enrollment from the HBCUs (*United States v. Fordice*, 1992). By duplicating programs at predominantly-White institutions, the state perpetuated the “separate but equal” treatment of students that was undone in the *Brown* decision.

Prior to integration, the majority of Black college students enrolled at HBCUs, but by 1973, “that percentage had declined to roughly one-fourth” (Allen, 1992). The percentage has continued to decline as HBCUs in 2012 only enrolled 16 percent of Black students (Harmon, 2012). American Indian and Hispanic students have also selected to attend PWIs at high rates, as Tribal Colleges and Universities only enrolled 19 percent of American Indian students and Hispanic Serving Institutions enrolled a higher, but not a majority, 42 percent of Hispanic students (Harmon, 2012). As higher education desegregates, students of color are enrolling at higher rates at White institutions that were originally created and intended to serve only White students.

Higher education institutions have an obligation to “create the best possible educational environment for the young adults whose lives are likely to be significantly changed during their years on campus” (Gurin, 1999, p. 36). One way institutions work to create an optimal learning environment for their students is by carefully evaluating the type of students they enroll. Increasing the racial composition of campus changes the structural diversity of an institution and provides opportunities for White students and students of color to learn from each other (Gurin, 1999). By expanding students’ worldviews, racial diversity at PWIs has been shown to have positive effects on the undergraduate student body (Warikoo & Deckman, 2014). Studies have shown that when students discuss racial issues and interact with students across racial lines, it has a positive effect on their retention and satisfaction with college (Antonio, Chang, Hakuta, Kenny, Levin, & Milem, 2004). It is the responsibility of institutions to not only enroll students

of color in order to create a better learning environment, but to also provide resources to ensure their success. Delivering support services to underrepresented student groups may be “difficult or time-consuming” (Museus, Jayakumar, & Robinson, 2012, p. 568). However, as students of color enter the realm of higher education that was not originally granted to them, these programs are essential to the success of students of color on college campuses.

Higher Education as a Racialized Institution

The American system of higher education was originally designed for the White majority in order to train White men for leadership roles (Museus, Ledesma, & Parker, 2015). Although women and students of color are now being admitted to institutions, the remnants of higher education’s racist beginnings can still be felt on college campuses today. Compared to peer White students, students of color are more likely to experience racial harassment from faculty and fellow students (Ancis, Sedlacek, & Mohr, 2000; Kotori & Malaney, 2003; Museus et al., 2015). In a survey of 578 undergraduate students, African American, Asian American, and Latino students reported that they felt pressure to conform to racial stereotypes of academic performance, as well as minimize the language and attire associated with their minority group’s culture in order to be accepted (Ancis et al., 2000). For example, Asian Americans are often categorized as the “model minority” that achieves universal academic success, while Latinos and Black students are stereotyped as inferior and underprepared (Museus et al., 2015, p. 68). Referring to Asian Americans as academic models sounds like a compliment; however, its racist effects can still be harmful. For those Asian Americans that face challenges, it minimizes them, and the high expectations suppress Asian American students from seeking help and campus resources when needed (Museus et al., 2015). Their White peers, however, felt little concern to

conform to stereotypes and reported fairer treatment than students of color from faculty and teaching assistants (Ancis et al., 2000).

Similarly, in a separate survey, Asian American students reported being more likely to be singled by a professor for their race than their White peers (Kotori & Mulaney, 2003). While some students of color feel singled out in class, many feel invisible on their college campuses. Most American institutions are predominantly-White, and the artwork and physical structures displayed on campus are reminders of White culture (Museus et al., 2015). Images of early alumni hanging in buildings depict an institutional makeup that was White and not diverse.

Racism can shape a student of color's educational path long before entering the realm of higher education (Museus et al., 2015). David Hawkins, executive director for educational content and policy at the National Association for College Admissions Counseling, stated, "At present...we're fighting against policies that fundamentally maintain privilege and eschew equity, so the march toward a more diverse, equitable system might have been lengthened, but will carry on" (Paterson, 2018, p. 26). Enrollment numbers for students of color, especially Latino and Black students, continue to fall behind the rates of enrollment for White students in higher education. Forty states have set goals to increase minority enrollment and attain greater diversity in higher education, but Juan Garcia, a program director for the testing service ACT, suggests it is a "systemic problem and we have to start working on it at an even younger age" (Paterson, 2018, p. 26). The diversity of college entrance exam test-takers is increasing, meaning educational equality for children of all races is crucial.

By high school, educational disparities between Whites and students of color are shown in standardized test scores. Standardized aptitude tests have roots in the American eugenics movement, which advocated that there were ways to determine superior and inferior races

(Museus et al., 2015). Eugenics “served as a foundational pillar for the production of intelligence tests, which were utilized to sort racial groups, rank their intelligence, and exclude people of color from full participation in society and education” (Museus et al., 2015, p. 53). While initial intelligence tests were used for children, college entrance exams, such as the SAT, were also used as tools of exclusion. The SAT was meant to “distinguish the aristocracy from the working class” (Museus et al., 2015, p. 53). For most institutions, college entrance exams are a barrier to entry. A student cannot be admitted without reaching a high enough test score, and the foundation of the tests places students of color at a disadvantage.

Some selective institutions have implemented test-optional admissions policies with the hope of opening access to a more diverse group of students. Bernadette Astacio, director of internal training at uAspire, stated that she sees “way too many students marginalized before they even start a college application due to a lack of exposure” (2018, p. 8). Studies have shown that students from affluent backgrounds with college-educated parents are more likely to be successful on college entrance exams (Museus et al., 2015). With the exception of Asian students, students of color score lower on average than their White peers on the SAT during the 2016-2017 academic year. College Board, the company that administers the SAT, sets “benchmark” scores which indicate that students have a 75 percent or higher chance of earning at least a “C” in various college classes (Jaschik, 2017). American Indian/Alaskan Native, Black, Latino, and Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander students all had less than 33 percent of test takers reach the benchmark scores (Jaschik, 2017). In contrast, 59 percent of White students and 70 percent of Asian students met the benchmarks for college readiness (Jaschik, 2017). According to SAT, most students of color are unprepared to enter college and be successful (Jaschik, 2017).

The testing service ACT conducted a 12-year longitudinal study from 1998-2009 with more than 330,000 students to determine whether they were successful in first-year college courses (Lorah & Ndum, 2013). These courses included English Composition I, College Algebra, social sciences and Biology, and success was defined as either receiving a “B,” “C,” or higher grade (Lorah & Ndum, 2013). Based on ACT college readiness benchmarks, “African American and Hispanic students earned college grades lower than would have been predicted by their high school grades and test scores” (Lorah & Ndum, 2013, p. 4). These findings suggest that when students of color entered an educational system that was not founded to benefit them, they underperform as measured by grades.

Racism and Academia

Throughout American history, college courses have also served as a vessel for establishing the superiority of White culture in education. In the early 1900s, American colleges and faculty members were at the forefront of the eugenics movement that held Whites were the superior race (Abdul-Alim, 2018). Over the next two decades, more than 376 colleges offered courses on the subject (Miro & Gordon, 2018). The presidents at elite institutions such as Harvard, Yale, and Stanford, along with large public institutions such as the Universities of Michigan and Wisconsin, led this anti-diversity movement which taught that Whites from Northern Europe were the ideal race, and selective breeding should be used to curtail the other races from expanding (Miro & Gordon, 2018). Harvard Magazine noted that eugenics spread from academia to the courts, Congress, and the public at large with “considerable effect” (Cohen, 2016).

Some higher education administrators contend that racist practices, such as eugenics, still exist on college campuses and are reflected by the low numbers of students and faculty of color

(Abdul-Alim, 2018). The National Center for Education Statistics recorded that in fall 2016, 82 percent of full-time professors in the United States were White (2018). Social scientists argue the lack of minority faculty “imposes severe limits on the availability of role models, increases the likelihood of ‘stereotype threats’ and discrimination against minority students, and restricts exposure to instructors with similar cultures and languages” (Fairlie, Hoffmann, & Oreopoulos, 2011, p. 3). The majority of students of color feel more support and comfort in the classroom when minority faculty are present (Loo & Rolison, 1986).

Black college seniors have reported feeling more faculty support at HBCUs. Specifically, they were more likely to report higher levels of collaborative learning, student-faculty interaction and gains in overall education development at HBCUs than at PWIs (Laird, Thomas, Bridges, Morelon-Quainoo, Williams & Holmes, 2007). For collaborative learning, the students at HBCUs reported higher participation in “activities such as asking questions in class, contributing to class discussions... [and] working with classmates inside and outside of class” (Laird et al., 2007). The National Bureau of Economic Research also determined that minority students at community colleges are more successful when their instructors are from the same underrepresented groups (Fairlie et al., 2011).

Racism and Higher Education Recruitment

In addition to a lack of representation in academia, there is a significant lack of representation of racial minorities in the profession of college admission counseling. Students of color are largely recruited by White professionals, thus perpetuating the prominence of White culture that was established at the beginning of American higher education. The National Association for College Admission Counseling reported that 84 percent of secondary high school counselors, 79.1 percent of college admission counselors and 82.2 percent of chief enrollment

officers at higher education institutions are White (2018a). High school counselors and college recruiters play a role in the guidance students receive when selecting a college, and enrollment officers are largely responsible for how admissions decisions at universities are made.

The American Council of Education, however, argued that admissions professionals have shifted from educating students to being marketers for their college (McDonough, 2004). Early models of college student choice also focused on the recruitment of students as opposed to educating them about college opportunities, and the models did not specifically discuss the recruitment of students of color. This lack of guidance leads to a focus on recruiting students of color into higher education institutions that may not meet their needs or lead them to success.

College Choice Models

As college competition increased and institutions began to actively market their schools, the emphasis for college admissions offices moved from the selection of students to the recruitment of students. Scholars noted a lack of theory to guide why students choose to attend a particular college, so Chapman presented a causal two-stage model that showed a “search” phase and a “choice” phase in 1981 in order to fill the void (Hossler & Palmer, 2008). Theorists have continued to build upon his research by considering student expectations and focusing on the recruitment of marginalized groups like low-income students.

David Chapman’s Model of Student College Choice

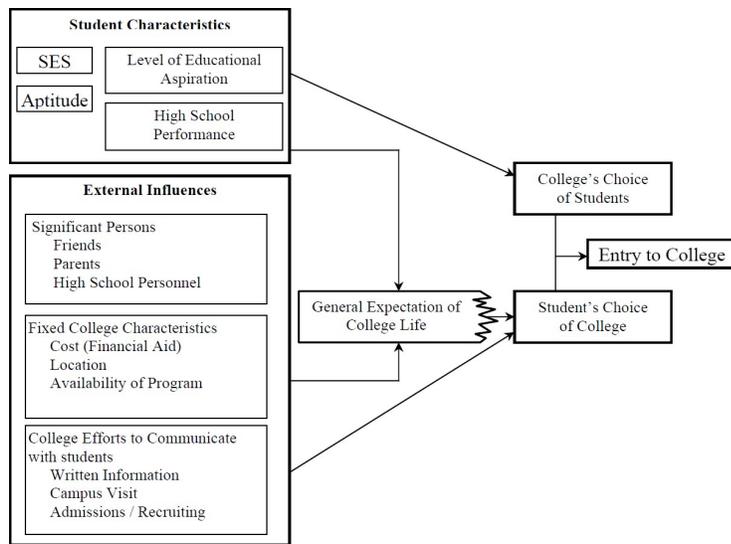
In 1981, Chapman introduced his model of college student choice and began to answer questions about why students choose to attend a specific college. Previous research that served as the foundation for Chapman focused on how institutions select applicants, rather than how applicants select institutions (Chapman, 1981). Tierney, Houang, and Henson also presented models in 1979 that discussed a student’s choice to matriculate to a public institution over a

private institution and cited financial aid offers as an indicating factor (Chapman, 1981).

Chapman’s model included financial aid, but further the discussion by suggesting that college choice “is influenced by a set of student characteristics in combination with a series of external influences” (Chapman, 1981, p. 492). These characteristics and influences are shaped by what Chapman referred to as generalized expectations of college life (1981). This concept has also been described as the “freshman myth,” which alluded to expectations that are unrealistic and not met during a student’s college career (Nadelson, S. L. et al., 2013).

Figure 1

Influences on Student College Choice (Chapman, 1981)



Chapman’s (1981) student characteristics include socioeconomic status (SES), aptitude, level of education aspiration/experience and high school performance. According to Chapman, students with different socioeconomic levels not only attend college at different rates, but also attend different types of colleges (1981). His findings asserted that students with higher SES are more likely to attend four-year institutions and having a low SES can limit the options students believe are realistic (Chapman, 1981). Chapman’s model does not address students of different

racess; however, the effect of low SES can often be seen with Latino students, as it can limit which colleges they attend or whether they even choose to attend college. Fear of student loan debt and the challenge of college affordability stifle college enrollment for many Latino students (Loveland, 2018).

Grade point averages and standardized test scores are often important factors to admissions professionals in determining whether or not a student should be accepted to an institution. Chapman stated that colleges are not the only ones to use GPA and test scores for decisions, students also use them as performance indicators to self-select which schools they believe will consider them for admission (1981). Many admissions professionals believe that diversity will increase if test scores are less emphasized in the process (Paterson, 2018), yet they continue to effect students college goals. Aspirations are the hopes that students have for the future, and expectations are what students believe they will do (Chapman, 1981). Along with high school performance, students' academic standing, expectations, and aspirations have an effect on their college choice (Chapman, 1981).

In addition to student characteristics, external influences also play a part in the "search" phase for students. Chapman defined the external influences as significant persons, fixed college characteristics such as cost, location and majors, and college efforts to communicate with students (1981). Students are "strongly persuaded by the comments and advice of their friends and family" (Chapman, 1981, p. 494). Large studies of high school students have shown that parents are most often consulted about college choice, followed by high school counselors, and other students (Chapman, 1981). These groups can influence college choice by altering a student's expectations of a particular college and giving advice on which institution to select (Chapman, 1981).

The factors identified in Chapman's model lead to the "choice" phase where a student ultimately selects which college to attend. This model recognized that non-traditional students may not be reflected, as it is intended to describe the college choice of traditional college students age 18-21 (Chapman, 1981). The model did not recognize, though, that students of color may have a different college search process than their White peers. Neither race nor ethnicity were discussed or included as factors in the model.

Hossler and Gallagher's Three-Phase College Choice Model

In their three-phase college choice model, Hossler and Gallagher attempted to build upon Chapman's model of college choice. Chapman's model examined how student characteristics interacted with student expectations, and Hossler and Gallagher attempted to further explain how student attitudes shaped the selection of an institution (Hossler & Gallagher, 1987). However, they were not the first researchers to propose a three-phase model of college choice. Jackson (1982) and Litten (1982) have also both suggested that the model had three phases, and they helped inform Hossler and Gallagher's model which is one of the most widely accepted and used in higher education research (Norwood, 2009). Litten's model began with the desire to attend college, followed by the investigation of institutions, and finished with application for admission and eventual enrollment (1982). Similarly, Jackson's model began with student interest in attending college, followed by the exclusion phase of identifying which schools they want to learn more about, and a final evaluation phase and selection of a school to attend (1982).

Figure 2

A Three-Phase Model of College Choice (Hossler & Gallagher, 1987)

Model Dimensions	Influential Factors: Individual Factors	Influential Factors: Organizational Factors	Student Outcomes
Predisposition (Phase One)	*Student Characteristics *Significant others *Educational activities	*School Characteristics	Search for: a. College options b. Other options
Search (Phase Two)	*Student preliminary college values *Student search activities	*College and University search activities (search for students)	a. choice set b. other options
Choice (Phase Three)	*Choice Set	*College and University Courtship Activities	*Choice

In Hossler and Gallagher’s model, the first phase is called the predisposition phase (1987). It is a developmental phase “in which students determine whether or not they would like to continue their education beyond high school” (Hossler & Gallagher, 1987, p. 209). During the predisposition phase, Hossler and Gallagher drew on the work of Chapman, as student characteristics, significant others and college characteristics were shown to help influence student’s decisions (1987).

According to Hossler and Gallagher, institutions can have a “modest influence” on students during the second “search” phase; whereas, they have “little direct impact” during the initial predisposition phase (1987, p. 209). During the search phase, students “start to seek more information about colleges and universities” (Hossler & Gallagher, 1987, p. 213). At the same time students are searching for colleges, the colleges are also actively searching for them. Following the second phase, students enter the final “choice” phase where they make an enrollment decision (Hossler and Gallagher, 1987). An economic lens becomes apparent during

the choice phase because studies showed the “impact of aid” made a difference in the final college choice (Hossler and Gallagher, 1987).

Similarly to Chapman’s model of college choice, Hossler and Gallagher do not address students of color or the college choice of any marginalized populations. Hossler and Gallagher developed this model from review of literature (Tierney, 1980; Chapman, 1981; Jackson, 1982; Litten, 1982; Manski & Wise, 1982), and the pre-existing literature also did not include students of color or marginalized populations; therefore, it is not surprising that their model of college choice does not either.

Cabrera and La Nasa’s College Choice Model

Cabrera and La Nasa added to the college choice literature by segmenting and focusing on a marginalized population of students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds (Renn & Reason, 2013), which were only mentioned in Chapman’s model of college student choice (1981). The data used to inform the model was gathered from the National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988 (Cabrera & La Nasa, 2001). The study surveyed close to 15,000 eighth graders in 1988 about college choice, with follow up surveys administered in 1990 (10th grade), 1992 (12th grade) and 1994 (two years out of high school) (Cabrera & La Nasa, 2001). Though the model does not address differences in college choice based on race, the literature shows that students of color were included in the survey. Of the students surveyed, 27.6 percent identified as students of color (Cabrera & La Nasa, 2001). While the model does incorporate the three stages from Hossler and Gallagher, it adds to the model by “describing the college choice process as a completion of three tasks: becoming college-qualified, graduating from high school, and applying for admissions to a postsecondary institution” (Renn & Reason, 2013, p. 29).

This model establishes that not all students are qualified for college based on grade point average, standardized test scores, and the completion of high school. Those factors serve as barriers to college entry for many students. Even though their graduation rates from high school were not significantly different from students with a high-SES, the majority (71 percent) of students from the lowest SES level did not complete the first task and obtain the academic qualifications necessary to support enrollment at a college (Cabrera & La Nasa, 2001).

In order to reach Hossler and Gallagher's final "choice" stage, Cabrera and La Nasa note that students must secure college qualifications and be on track to graduate from high school (2001). Without completing those tasks, students cannot begin to apply to college and make a college choice. College qualifications are defined as byproducts of the student's ability, early thoughts about attending college and level of parental involvement. Students with a high SES are more likely to have parents who have been exposed to higher education, and therefore, often have earlier college aspirations and knowledge of curricular requirements and financial aid. Only 23 percent of parents from the lowest SES level had exposure to higher education; whereas, 99.3 percent of parents from the highest SES level had some college experience. (Cabrera & La Nasa, 2001)

Cabrera and La Nasa do provide recommendations for how to assist low-SES students in the college choice process. They cite the Talent Search and the Gaining Early Awareness and Readiness for Undergraduate Programs (GEAR Up) initiatives as comprehensive approaches for helping low-SES students complete the three tasks of the college choice process. According to the United States Department of Education, GEAR Up gives six-year grants to states that service high-poverty middle and high schools to help prepare low-income students to enroll and be successful in college (2018).

The development of Cabrera and La Nasa's model informed the goals of this study. Just as their model seeks to understand the college choice of the marginalized populations of low-income students and recommends programs that will be beneficial for those students based on the findings, this study will seek to recommend resources for students of color in the Deep South based on their patterns of college choice.

College Choice Factors

From college choice models came college choice factors that influence students to select a specific institution. While few college choice models exist for students of color, college choice factors for many student of color groups have been studied extensively. This section of the literature review will cover the college choice factors that have generally been found to influence all students, and then it will review college choice factors for geographic populations and marginalized groups: Deep South students, Black students, Asian American students, and Latino students.

General College Choice Factors

Throughout literature, several general factors have emerged as influencing college student choice (Chapman, 1981; Hossler & Gallagher, 1987). These include advice primarily from parents, but also friends, counselors, and alumni, as well as the "academic reputation, program, availability of financial assistance, and location of institution" (Martin & Dixon, 1991, p. 253). In a study of high school counselors and high school seniors across the United States, the same factors emerged as the top influencers of college choice. A survey was completed by 536 counselors and 401 seniors, and the students ranked academic programs first, followed by reputation and location; the counselors had the same top three, but listed reputation of the institution first, followed by academic programs (Erdmann, 1983).

In a longitudinal study of 10,000 young adults of differing races graduating from 37 high schools spanning from California and Pennsylvania, location continued to be a factor. The majority of students picked their colleges based on the proximity of the institution to their home (Trent, 1965). A study at Tufts University, a private institution in Massachusetts, yielded similar results. Tufts garnered 1,615 responses to a survey that asked applicants to list in order of importance the three factors that most influenced their college choice (Terkla & Wright, 1986). Across most regions of the country, including the South, the survey respondents also cited location of the institution as the number one factor influencing their college choice, followed again by the prestige of the institution and the academics (Terkla & Wright, 1986). Trent's study also found prestige of the institution was a prominent factor (1965). However, the author asserted that students only have a "vague notion" about the prestige of an institution, as peer influences and other persons could contribute to the perception of an institution's reputation (Trent, 1965).

The same general factors were found in a study that considered only students of color. Students of color admitted to Institutions in the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU) were surveyed, and similarly, location was an important factor in whether the students of color enrolled at an institution in the CCCU (Confer & Mamiseishvili, 2012). The study surveyed 283 admitted students of color and found that students were more likely to enroll when the institution was less than 50 miles from home (Confer & Mamiseishvili, 2012). Being closer to home could provide more familiar surroundings, support from family, and the opportunity to save money by living at home (Confer & Mamiseishvili, 2012).

College Choice in the Deep South

In addition to general college choice factors found throughout literature, several studies took place in one of the six states within the Deep South. Brian O'neil surveyed 202 students

who planned on attending private non-HBCU institutions in South Carolina to determine what factors influenced their college decisions (2013). The findings concluded that family influence was the strongest factor, with parents being listed as the most influential (O'neil, 2013). This finding was consistent with previous research on college student choice (Martin & Dixon, 1991). The second strongest factor was institutional outreach (O'neil, 2013). Hossler and Gallagher noted that students are not only searching for institutions, but that institutions are also searching for students (1987). That effect was seen in O'neil's findings. "Institutional outreach" included college fairs, college recruiter's visits to high schools, mailings, university advertisements, and information found online (O'neil, 2013). The third strongest factor was campus and community characteristics, which included the size of the institution and the distance from the student's hometown (O'neil, 2013). Once again, location of the institution was listed among the most important college choice factors.

Another study of a Southeastern school took place in 2012, as 253 students at Auburn University, a public PWI in Alabama, answered Likert Scale questions about college choice factors (Holladay, 2012). The study did not ask for race, and each respondent was asked to rate college choice factors from 1 to 5, with 5 meaning they strongly agreed with considering that factor when choosing Auburn University (Holladay, 2012). Location was not included as a college choice factor in this study, but the survey concluded the number one factor was the "look and feel of campus" (Holladay, 2012). The mean response for this factor was 4.5375, which meant that the majority of respondents strongly agreed that Auburn's campus influenced their college choice (Holladay, 2012). Similarly, in a survey of 270 students attending Fond du Lac Tribal and Community College, which is located outside of the Deep South, "campus

atmosphere” was concluded to be a significant factor in the college search process (Urbanski, 2000).

College Choice of African American Students

When studying the college choice of African American students, researchers have noted missing factors that are not included in traditional college choice models. Of most prominence, religion and athletics have been found to play a role in the college choice of Black students in the United States (McDonough, Antonio, & Trent, 1997). Another differing perspective for Black students is choosing between an HBCU and PWI. While traditional college choice models such as the Chapman, Hossler and Gallagher, and Cabrera and La Nasa models do not separate the two, researchers on African American college choice have noted differences in college choice factors based on the type of institution.

Using data from the Higher Education Research Institute’s 1993 Freshman Survey, the same survey being used in this study, McDonough, Antonio and Trent (1997) presented analysis of 19,260 African American students and 7,647 African American students at HBCUs across the United States. According to their research, “Independent of gender, family income, or educational aspiration, the most powerful predictor of HBCU attendance is geography, followed by the student’s religion, the school’s social reputation, and because relatives desire it” (McDonough et al., 1997, p.10). In 2007, Fort Valley State University, an HBCU in Georgia, surveyed 360 African American students to “determine what messages or information they search for and consider in their decision making about college” (Gyapong & Smith, 2012, p. 43). Again, location was found to be a significant factor. Statistically, students in the Southeast, where many HBCUs and Fort Valley State are located, are more likely to attend an HBCU than students from any other geographic region (McDonough et al., 1997).

A “major influence” on Black students’ perception of higher education is family members (Freeman, 1999, p. 18). Disregarding race, the school’s location and prestige, along with family influences continue to be significant factors. But, religion was introduced as a college choice factor. With other variables being controlled, being Baptist or having an affiliation with a Baptist church was a strong predictor for HBCU attendance (McDonough et al., 1997).

In the College Entrance Examination Board’s study of 30 Black students, 8 of which chose to attend an HBCU, the most important differentiating factor in why those students chose an HBCU over a PWI was to “feel comfortable with regard to race” (1971, p.10). A similar finding was discovered when studying interview data from 10 Black men, four of whom attended an HBCU (Squire & Mobley Jr., 2015). The students who “self-identified more with their race ultimately attended the HBCU” as opposed to the PWI (Squire & Mobley Jr., 2015, p. 476).

In the College Entrance Examination Board’s study of 30 Black students, 22 of whom chose to attend a PWI or “integrated institution,” the most important differentiating factors for why students chose an integrated institution were the school being “prompt and efficient processing [the] application,” the students feeling “better off with a degree from this college” and the school “offered me the best financial aid” (1971, p. 7). Not all studies, though, cite financial aid as a prominent college choice factor for African American students. In a study that utilized the Higher Education Research Institutes 1994 Freshman Survey, “African American...students were not influenced by the existence of financial aid” (Kim, 2004, p. 60). The availability of aid did not encourage African American students to attend their first-choice institution; but, being offered more financial aid to another institution was shown to have an effect on whether they attended their first choice (Kim, 2004).

With regard to PWIs, “Independent of gender, family income, or educational aspiration...The top three reasons why African Americans choose...PWIs...are because they are recruited by an athletic department, they wish to live near home, and they value the college’s academic reputation” (McDonough et al., 1997, p. 10). The school’s reputation and location proved to be factors regardless of institution type, but athletics as a factor was introduced. Prior to desegregation, Black men who wanted to play collegiate sports, especially in Southern states, were mainly confined to choosing an HBCU (La Noue & Bennett, 2014). Once colleges became integrated, however, the recruitment options for Black athletes expanded tremendously.

Athletics and African American College Choice

In some research, athletic reputation is portrayed as the “front porch” to the institution, suggesting that prospective students see athletics on the outside and that eventually invites them to explore inside the institution (Braddock II & Hua, 2006). Doug Chung, assistant professor of marketing at the Harvard Business School, described the phenomenon of student’s becoming interested in an institution because of college sports as the “Flutie Effect” (Silverthorne, 2013). Chung stated, “The primary form of mass media advertising by academic institutions in the United States is, arguably, through their athletic programs” (Silverthorne, 2013). Doug Flutie was a quarterback at Boston College during the 1980s. In a 1984 game against the University of Miami, Flutie threw a game-winning touchdown pass during the last second. This game helped Boston College gain notoriety, and applications increased by 30 percent over the next two years (Silverthorne, 2013).

A study of college choice for Black men stated, “The school’s athletic program was also a significant predictor of institutional attendance” (Wood & Harrison, 2014, p. 92). Some studies, however, show that athletics is not a prominent college choice factor. In a telephone

survey of 500 college-bound seniors, the quality of college sports teams was not high on the list of factors students considered (Braddock II & Hua, 2006). However, while it may not be a top factor for all students, in a national survey, results showed that “one out of every three African American” respondents reported athletic reputation as being at least somewhat important to their college decision (Braddock II & Hua, 2006).

College Choice of Asian American Students

Kim’s study using the 1994 *Freshman Survey* from the Higher Education Research Institution also investigated the college choice factors of Asian American students (2004). According to the study, “Asian students put a high value on their first-choice colleges and see this as a worthwhile investment” (Kim, 2004, p. 60). In a study of 288 Vietnamese high school seniors, the results indicated “a high percentage of likelihood that Vietnamese American students will choose to attend their first-choice if admitted” (Tran, 2012, p. 77). This affinity for their first choice institutions caused Asian American students to be less price sensitive than other racial groups (Kim, 2004). Asian American students are more likely to prioritize the prestige of their first-choice institution over the availability of financial aid (Tran, 2012). However, Chinese, Filipino, and Korean American students are more likely to select an institution based on financial aid than other Asian American sub-groups (Teranishi, Ceja, Antonio, Allen, McDonough, 2004, p. 532).

A study of Chinese American students at four California high schools also supported that the students were concerned with institutional prestige. Most of the Chinese American students

in the study were considering only a few colleges, and the majority were highly selective institutions (Teranishi, 2002). Based on data collected in the 1997 Freshman Survey by the Higher Education Research Institute of 18,106 Asian Pacific American students, “Among all ethnic groups, more than half of all students indicated that the academic reputation of a campus was important in determining their choices” (Teranishi et al., 2004, p. 532). Of the specific Asian Pacific American populations, Chinese, Filipino, and Korean students were more likely to use academic rankings as a college choice factor (Teranishi et al., 2004).

A public HBCU in a mid-Atlantic state conducted 90-to-110 minute in-depth, face-to-face, interviews with six Asian American and six Latino students to determine what caused them to select to attend an HBCU. One theme that emerged for the students was that location and the availability of financial aid did influence their decision with regard to attending an HBCU (Maramba, Palmer, Yull, & Ozuna, 2015). Regardless of whether the students were Asian American or Latino, “All of the participants mentioned financial incentives and affordability as one of their main reasons for attending an HBCU” (Maramba et al., 2015, p. 265). The study also concluded that peers who were knowledgeable about HBCUs were a factor in the college choice process (Maramba et al., 2015). This is in contrast to Tran’s study of Vietnamese Americans which concluded that “friends were not predictors” of college choice (Tran, 2012, p. 82). Instead, family members were significant factors in how Vietnamese American students rated the prestige of an institution (Tran, 2012).

College Choice of Latinx² Students

Like Asian American students, high-achieving Latinas discussed reputation or institutional prestige as a factor in the college choice process (Hernandez, 2015). However, research on the college choice of Latino students revealed differences on whether financial aid and cost were significant factors in the college search process. In a study that utilized the Higher Education Research Institute's 1994 *Freshman Survey*, it was found that "Latino students were not influenced by the existence of financial aid" (Kim, 2004, p. 60). However, in a qualitative study of 103 Latino students, focus group research revealed just over half of the students indicated using financial aid programs to pay for college (Santiago, 2007). Students in the study who attended non-Hispanic serving institutions, cited the level of financial aid offered as one of the most critical factors in their college selection process (Santiago, 2007).

Through the research, it also "became clear that cost was a major consideration" for the Latino students (Santiago, 2007, p. 8). Different from financial aid being offered, the cost refers to the "sticker price" of the institution. In a study of high-achieving Latina students who attended a public institution in the Northeast, "Cost was often a deciding factor whose influence was felt at different times, affecting both the search and choice phase of the college choice process" (Hernandez, 2015, p. 210). With reference to Chapman's model, for these Latina students, institutional cost was a factor during both phases of the college choice process (1981). Many participants shared that during the "search" phase, if they felt the cost was beyond their means, they would not even consider applying to the institution (Hernandez, 2015).

²"Latinx" is recognized as a more inclusive term; however, for consistency, the literature review and discussion of the survey maintain the wording of the original manuscripts.

With cost as a consideration, focus groups have also revealed that location is a college choice factor for Latinos (Santiago, 2007). Campuses that are closer to home and more affordable can be more desirable from a location and family perspective (Santiago, 2007). A study of 685 Latino students revealed that distance from home was also a predictor for Latino students choosing a 2-year college over a 4-year college (Gonzalez, 2012). For undocumented Latino students, as well, “Familial, peer and school networks also played an important role” in the college selection (Perez, 2010, p. 24). Chris Nieto, senior vice president at the National Hispanic Institute, noted that making college a family decision-making process and including parents in early discussions about college are essential for the success of all Latinos in higher education (Loveland, 2018).

Conclusion

While research has been conducted on the college choice of many marginalized students of color, as well as at some institutions in the Deep South, this study will fill a gap in the research by combining the intersectionality of geographic location and marginalized populations. Students of color that select institutions in the Deep South are a group that has not previously been focused on in literature, and this study will seek to unearth the college choice factors that influence these students.

As an institution, higher education, including in the Deep South, was founded and created for White elite men. For students of color, this has resulted in a delayed presence in higher education and a search for equity in the White institution of higher education. Furthermore, students of color in the Deep South, an area of the country plagued by a racist past, are still navigating the racial undertones that have persisted on college campuses. Literature exists on college choice and even the college choice of specific groups of students of color; however, little

research segments college choice into regions of the country, and the emphasis has been placed on how to market to those students, as opposed to recruiting, retaining, and advocating for their success in college.

This research will heed the call to extend college choice into being something beneficial for universities and students of color in the Deep South by framing the study from the standpoint of the students of color. Most institutions have diversity goals to recruit more students of color. But if students of color continue to be recruited into a higher education culture that was founded by White men and still largely controlled by White culture, faculty, and admissions professionals, these students will continue to be marginalized. This research will seek to understand why students of color choose to attend colleges in the Deep South, but it will also strive to make recommendations for higher education practice based on the knowledge gained. Knowing why students of color choose to attend an institution can help inform the resources that will be needed to retain these students and contribute to their success beyond the enrollment phase.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Chapter Overview

Chapter Three begins by explaining the research approach and the rationale for selecting a quantitative study. The chapter also details the sample, survey instrument, and the reliability of the survey instrument. The sample includes 10,782 students of color who chose to attend colleges in the Deep South, and each student participated in *The Freshman Survey*. Chapter Three concludes with a discussion of the data analysis techniques used. This section is divided by research question, and the statistical analyses, including hypotheses and analytic procedures, are presented for each research question.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the factors that influenced students of color to attend a higher education institution in the Deep South. The data were collected from a national survey that received responses from students of all races from across the country; however, only the responses from students of color choosing to attend institutions in the Deep South were used. A student of color is defined as any student that did not solely select “White/Caucasian” when asked to identify their race. College choice differences of students of color were examined using demographic variables including gender, type of institution (PWI vs. HBCU), and race.

Research Questions

The study examined the following research questions:

1. What factors, in general, affect the college choices of students of color attending institutions in the Deep South?
 - a. How does this differ based on gender?
 - b. How does this differ based on race?
2. What factors, specifically, affect the college choices of students of color to attend predominantly-White institutions versus historically Black colleges and universities (PWI vs. HBCU) in the Deep South?

Research Approach

The research questions guided the selection of a quantitative method of study.

Quantitative research is defined as “research in which the data can be analyzed in terms of numbers” (Best & Kahn, 2006, p. 79). The data studied were collected from *The Freshman Survey (TFS)* administered by the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) at the University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA) in 2014. HERI’s study collects data on college choice factors, and the college choice factors can be ranked numerically to determine, on average, which factors affect the college choice of students of color in the Deep South. Because the data is presented numerically, and I had no opportunities to meet the subjects, a quantitative research method also allows for each subject to be studied identically, leaving less room for researcher bias when interpreting the data (Best & Kahn, 2006).

Specifically within quantitative research, this study uses a comparative quasi-experimental research design. The research questions guided a comparative study because institution type, race groups, and genders are independent variables with different levels being

compared to determine significance. Additionally, the study is quasi-experimental because the data collection was scheduled and random assignment was not used or possible given the nature of the independent variables (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). The when and whom of the data collection are certain; all of the students are incoming freshman taking the survey before beginning their freshman year. However, these students were not randomly assigned to different groups in the study.

Quality Assurance

As of 2018, more than 15 million students and 1,900 institutions have participated in *TFS*, making it part of America's oldest and most extensive study of higher education (Higher Education Research Institute, 2018). Throughout the survey's more than 50-year history, researchers have used the survey to study the college choice of students of color (McDonough et al., 1997; Teranishi et al., 2004; Norwood, 2009). Data from *TFS* can be clustered by institution and institution type, which makes the survey ideal when studying specific types of institutions, such as HBCUs (Perna, 2006).

In order to show the reliability of the survey instrument, Cronbach's Alpha was used to measure the internal consistency. Internal consistency can be defined as "the extent to which all items in a test measure the same concept or construct" (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011, p. 53). The alpha level is expressed as a number between zero and one, and an acceptable level can range anywhere from 0.70 to 0.95 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). An alpha of zero would indicate that a set of items have no internal consistency or variability among the items, and an alpha of one would indicate perfect internal consistency (Bohrstedt & Knoke, 1994). As Table 1 shows, the Cronbach's Alpha for the 23 college choice questions on *TFS* is 0.845. This suggests that the survey has good internal consistency and is a reliable data set for studying the college choice

factors of students of color attending institutions in the Deep South. An alpha that is too high (larger than 0.90) would suggest redundancies in the survey and the removal of items testing the same question; however, the Cronbach's Alpha of 0.845 does not suggest that any questions are redundant and should be removed.

Table 1

Internal Consistency of College Choice Factors

College Choice Factor	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted ^a
My parents wanted me to come here	0.376	0.841
My relatives wanted me to come here	0.429	0.839
My teacher advised me	0.467	0.837
This college has a very good academic reputation	0.347	0.842
This college has a good reputation for its social activities	0.377	0.840
I was offered financial assistance	0.296	0.844
The cost of attending this college	0.343	0.842
High school counselor advised me	0.496	0.836
Private college counselor advised me	0.502	0.837
I wanted to live near home	0.318	0.843
Not offered aid by first choice	0.378	0.840
Could not afford first choice	0.337	0.842

This college's graduates gain admission to top graduate/professional schools	0.457	0.837
This college's graduates get good jobs	0.413	0.839
I was attracted by the religious affiliation/orientation of this college	0.462	0.837
I wanted to go to a school about the size of this college	0.393	0.840
Rankings in national magazines	0.425	0.839
Information from a website	0.463	0.837
I was admitted through an Early Action or Early Decision program	0.365	0.841
The athletic department recruited me	0.297	0.843
A visit to this campus	0.369	0.841
Ability to take online courses	0.511	0.836
The percentage of students that graduate from this college	0.502	0.835

a. Cronbach's Alpha considering all 23 factors is 0.845.

Additionally, because of its long history, it is important to reassess the validity of the survey instrument each year. The survey is developed as a collaboration between participating institutions, students, educational researchers, an advisory committee within HERI, research directors at HERI, policy makers, government agencies, and administrators (Eagen et al., 2014). The advisory committee and research directors within HERI are responsible for examining the

content validity of *TFS* annually (Norwood, 2009; Eagen et al., 2014). Content validity can be defined as “the degree to which elements of an assessment instrument are relevant to and representative of the targeted construct” (Haynes, Richard, & Kubany, 1995, p. 238). The advisory committee reviews survey items to determine their appropriateness for the student population being studied each year (Norwood, 2009). For example, the college choice questions on the 2014 *TFS*, which is used in this study, differ from the college choice questions used in previous editions of the survey.

Moreover, because of its large sample size, the standard error of *TFS* will be small (Higher Education Research Institute, 2019). Standard error is the standard deviation of the sampling distribution (Bohrstedt & Knoke, 1994). HERI assumes a 95 percent confidence interval for *TFS* and calculates the standard error to be 0.494 (Eagen et al., 2014). Therefore, if the study were to be replicated using the same sample size, we would expect response percentages to be plus or minus 0.494 percentage points of the finding 95 times out of 100.

Sample

The subjects of this study were 10,782 first-time, full-time freshman students of color that chose to attend higher education institutions in the Deep South in 2014. The sample was drawn from 44 higher education institutions in the Deep South that opted to participate in the 2014 *Freshman Survey* (see Appendix A), and the list of participating institutions in the Deep South can be found in the Appendix B. Of the students of color that completed the survey, 6,694 (62.1%) identified as Black, 1,902 (17.6%) were of two or more races/ethnicities, 1,399 (13%) were Asian, 478 (4.4%) were Hispanic, 270 (2.5%) identified their race as “Other,” and only 39 (0.4%) identified as American Indian. More of the students of color selected to attend an HBCU than a PWI, but the survey yielded large samples for both types of institution in the Deep South.

Of the respondents, 6,154 (57.1%) attended an HBCU, while 4,628 (42.9%) selected to attend a PWI.

The sample also represents students of color who chose to attend institutions across the six states in the Deep South. Of the 10,782 survey respondents studied, 4,781 (44.3%) students of color chose to attend an institution in North Carolina, 3,015 (28%) students of color chose to attend an institution in Georgia, 1,071 (9.9%) students of color chose to attend an institution in Louisiana, 967 (9%) students of color chose to attend an institution in South Carolina, 834 (7.7%) students of color chose to attend an institution in Alabama, and 114 (0.1%) students of color chose to attend an institution in Mississippi. These numbers are related to and dependent upon the number of institutions participating in *TFS*. North Carolina had 16 participating institutions in 2014; whereas, Mississippi only had two institutions participate in *TFS*, leading to a smaller number of students of color surveyed from that state. For a full list of participating institutions, see Appendix B.

Fall 2014 data from the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) was obtained to compare *TFS* response data to the actual number of students of color enrolled at the undergraduate level in the Deep South. From the IPEDS data, students of color were defined as students who reported their race as Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, Hispanic, Black, Asian, American Indian or Alaskan Native, or two of more races. Georgia and North Carolina had the most students of color enrolled at the undergraduate level in the Deep South, and those two states also had the most respondents on *TFS*. Similarly, Mississippi had the fewest number of students of color enrolled in the Deep South and the lowest number of survey respondents. Of the 725,599 students of color enrolled in Deep South institutions in fall 2014, 205,544 (28.3%)

were attending an institution in Georgia, 188,772 (26%) were attending an institution in North Carolina, and only 65,748 (9.1%) were attending an institution in Mississippi.

Instrumentation and Data Collection Procedures

The Freshman Survey (TFS) is conducted before students begin their college coursework, and most participating institutions choose to administer the one-hour survey during orientation (Higher Education Research Institute, 2018). The Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) provides options for the survey to be administered on paper or online, and it indicates that the best results occur in a proctored setting (2018). *TFS* collects “extensive information that allows for a snapshot of what [an institution’s] incoming students are like before experiencing college” (Higher Education Research Institute, 2018). The six-page 2014 *TFS* survey examined established behaviors in high school, academic preparedness, admissions decisions, expectations of college, interactions with peers and faculty, student values and goals, student demographics, and concerns about financing college (Higher Education Research Institute, 2018).

To collect the information needed for this research, data were taken from the sections on student demographics and admissions decisions. The student demographics examined were gender, race, and type of institution. On *TFS* 2014, respondents were allowed to select male or female for gender. Their options for race were: White/Caucasian, African American/Black, American Indian/Alaskan Native, Asian American/Asian, Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, Mexican American/Chicano, Puerto Rican, Other Latino, and Other. These races were later coded by HERI into race groups: American Indian, Asian, Black, Hispanic, and Other. Respondents were given the option to mark all races that applied, and HERI coded those students as “two or more races/ethnicities.” Because this study focuses on students of color in the Deep

South, HERI provided all respondents except the students who solely indicated their race as “White/Caucasian.”

After requesting the data, HERI also provided an “HBCU Flag” for each survey respondent. Without identifying the participating institution by name, each respondent was given a “yes” or “no” to indicate whether or not they chose to attend an HBCU in the Deep South. The addition of this flag to the data set allowed for the comparative study of college choice between students of color in the Deep South who chose to attend PWIs versus HBCUs.

The primary focus of the study were the responses to question 41 of the survey, “Below are some reasons that might have influenced your decision to attend this particular college. How important was each reason in your decision to come here?” Students were given three options, creating a three-point scale, for each response: very important, somewhat important, and not important. For the purposes of this study, each response was assigned a numerical value. A “very important” response was coded with the highest value of 3, a “somewhat important” response was coded with a median value of 2, and the lowest value of 1 was assigned to the “not important” response. The survey listed 23 reasons for the students to evaluate:

Table 2

College Choice Factors on Survey

My parents wanted me to come here
My relatives wanted me to come here
My teacher advised me
This college has a very good academic reputation
This college has a good reputation for its social activities
I was offered financial assistance
The cost of attending this college
High school counselor advised me
Private college counselor advised me
I wanted to live near home

Not offered aid by first choice
Could not afford first choice
This college's graduates gain admission to top graduate/professional schools
This college's graduates get good jobs
I was attracted by the religious affiliation/orientation of this college
I wanted to go to a school about the size of this college
Rankings in national magazines
Information from a website
I was admitted through an Early Action or Early Decision program
The athletic department recruited me
A visit to this campus
Ability to take online courses
The percentage of students that graduate from this college

With all student of color respondents in the Deep South taken into consideration, a mean value closer to 3 indicated a greater importance in influencing the college choice of those students.

Data Analysis Techniques

The research questions are listed below with a description of the analytic procedure used to address them:

Research Question One (RQ1)

What factors, in general, affect the college choices of students of color attending institutions in the Deep South?

Statistical analysis for RQ1. To address the first research question, a descriptive table showing the mean rating and standard deviation for each of the 23 college choice factors was created. Calculating the mean rating allowed the college choice factors to be ranked from the largest to smallest mean. Additionally, a within subjects analysis was used to determine if any of the college choice factors differ significantly from each other. When evaluating the within subjects test, the following hypotheses were used:

$H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \dots = \mu_k$ No difference; the means for each college choice factor are equal.

$H_a : \mu_i \neq \mu_k$ for some $i \neq k$ The means differ, and at least two of the college choice factors have a statistically significant difference.

Research Question One Part a (RQ1a)

How does this differ based on gender?

Statistical analysis for RQ1a. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to analyze which choice factors affect students of color attending institutions in the Deep South based on gender. The MANOVA was selected because the research question presented numerous dependent variables and race as an independent variable with two levels (male and female). The 23 college choice factors served as the dependent variables. No participant could be included in more than one of gender groups, and each gender provided more participants than the number of dependent variables. When evaluating the MANOVA, the following hypotheses were used:

$H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \dots = \mu_k$ No difference; the means of both genders are equal, and the gender does not have an effect on the college choice factor.

$H_a : \mu_i \neq \mu_k$ for some $i \neq k$ The means differ, and the gender of the students of color selecting institutions in the Deep South does have an effect on the college choice factor.

Research Question One Part b (RQ1b)

How does this differ based on race?

Statistical analysis for RQ1b. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to analyze which college choice factors affect students of color attending institutions in the Deep South based on race. The MANOVA was selected because the research question presented

numerous dependent variables and race as an independent variable with six groups: American Indian, Asian, Black, Hispanic, Other, and Two or more races/ethnicities. The 23 college choice factors served as the dependent variables. No participant could be included in more than one of the race groups, and each race group provided more participants than the number of dependent variables. When evaluating the MANOVA, the following hypotheses were used:

$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \dots = \mu_k$ No difference; the means of all race groups are equal, and the race group does not have an effect on the college choice factor.

$H_a: \mu_i \neq \mu_k$ for some $i \neq k$ At least one of the means differs, and the race of the students of color selecting institutions in the Deep South does have an effect on the college choice factor.

Research Question Two (RQ2)

What factors, specifically, affect the college choices of students of color to attend PWIs versus HBCUs in the Deep South?

Statistical analysis for RQ2. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to analyze which college choice factors affect students of color attending institutions in the Deep South based on institution type. The MANOVA was selected because the research question presented numerous dependent variables and an independent variable of institution type with two groups (PWI and HBCU). The 23 college choice factors served as the dependent variables. No participant could be included in more than one of gender groups, and each gender provided more participants than the number of dependent variables. When evaluating the MANOVA, the following hypotheses were used:

$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \dots = \mu_k$ No difference; the means of both institution types are equal, and the institution type does not have an effect on the college choice factor.

$H_a: \mu_i \neq \mu_k$ for some $i \neq k$ The means differ, and the institution type the students of color selected in the Deep South does have an effect on the college choice factor.

Ethical Consideration

Permission to use the data was granted by HERI after the submission of a formal proposal and letter of support from Auburn University. All personable, identifiable information was removed from the data set; therefore, the anonymity of the survey respondents was kept in the transmission of the data. Additionally, the Institutional Research Board (IRB) for the Office of Human Subject Research at Auburn University gave approval for the study. Please see Appendices C and D for copies of the HERI and IRB approvals.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Chapter Overview

Chapter Four presents the findings of the research organized by research question. For each research question, a written analysis is presented along with supplemental tables. The tables are found within the text of the chapter, and they are referenced throughout the written analysis.

Research Questions

The study examined the following research questions:

1. What factors, in general, affect the college choices of students of color attending institutions in the Deep South?
 - a. How does this differ based on gender?
 - b. How does this differ based on race?
2. What factors, specifically, affect the college choices of students of color to attend predominantly-White institutions versus historically Black colleges and universities (PWI vs. HBCU) in the Deep South?

Data Analysis

Research Question One (RQ1)

What factors, in general, affect the college choices of students of color attending institutions in the Deep South?

Analysis for RQ1. Before calculating any descriptive statistics, a within subjects analysis was used to determine if any of the means for the college choices factors differ from each other.

Table 3 contains Mauchly’s test of sphericity:

Table 3

Mauchly’s Test of Sphericity

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	Df	Sig.	Epsilon ^a Greenhouse-Geisser
factor1	0.024	35509.737	252	< .001	0.717

a. May be used to adjust the degrees of freedom for the averaged tests of significance. Corrected tests are displayed in the Tests of Within-Subjects Effects table.

Mauchly’s test, $\chi^2(252) = 35,509.7$, $p < .001$, violates the assumption of sphericity. Sphericity is assumed if the significance level is greater than 0.05, and it “indicates the ranking of the subjects does not change across experimental treatment” (Abdi, 2010, p. 1). Owing to this violated assumption, the Greenhouse-Geisser correction was computed and used to correct the degrees of freedom (Abdi, 2010). Table 4 shows the within subjects test using the Greenhouse-Geisser correction:

Table 4

Within Subjects Test using the Greenhouse-Geisser Correction

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
factor1	Greenhouse-Geisser 33192.693	15.766	2105.277	3447.182	<.001
Error(factor1)	Greenhouse-Geisser 92062.264	150742.799	0.611		

This test was found to be statistically significant, $F(15.77, 150,742.8) = 3,447.18$, $p < 0.05$.

Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis of equal means across the college choice factors.

Based on the results of the inferential statistics, descriptive statistics were computed to determine the mean rating for all 23 college choice factors. Table 5 shows the college choice factors ranked by level of importance from highest to lowest mean:

Table 5

Mean Ratings for the College Choice Factors

Factor Number	College Choice Factor	Mean ^a	SD	Post-Hoc Results
4	This college has a very good academic reputation	2.60	0.593	Factor 4 > 1,2,3,5,6, 7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,17,18,19,20,21,22,23
14	This college's graduates get good jobs	2.47	0.686	Factor 14 > 1,2,3,5,6, 7,8,9,10,11,12,13,15,16,17,18,19,20,21,22,23 Factor 14 < 4
5	This college has a good reputation for its social activities	2.31	0.723	Factor 5 > 1,2,3,7,8,9,10, 11,12,13,15,16,17,18,19,20,21,22,23 Factor 5 < 4,14
6	I was offered financial assistance	2.29	0.810	Factor 6 > 1,2,3,7,8,9,10, 11,12,13,15,16,17,18,19,20,21,22,23 Factor 6 < 4,5,14
7	The cost of attending this college	2.22	0.794	Factor 7 > 1,2,3,6,9,10, 11,12,15,16,17,18,19,20,21,22,23 Factor 7 < 4,5,6,14
13	This college's graduates gain admission to top graduate/professional schools	2.22	0.763	Factor 13 > 1,2,3,8,9, 10,11,12,15,16,17,18,19,20,21,22,23 Factor 13 < 4,5,6,14
21	A visit to this campus	2.17	0.814	Factor 21 > 1,2,3,8,9,10, 11,12,15,16,17,18,19,20,22,23 Factor 21 < 4,5,6,7,13,14
23	The percentage of students that graduate from this college	2.09	0.814	Factor 23 > 1,2,3,8,9,10,11,12,15,16,17,18, 19,20,22 Factor 23 < 4,5,6,7,13,14,21

16	I wanted to go to a school about the size of this college	2.07	0.791	Factor 16 > 1,2,3,8,9,10,11,12,15,17,18,19,20,22 Factor 16 < 4,5,6,7,13,14,21,23
18	Information from a website	1.93	0.777	Factor 18 > 1,2,3,8,9,10,11,12,15,17,19,20,22 Factor 18 < 4,5,6,7,13,14,16,21,23
17	Rankings in national magazines	1.84	0.803	Factor 17 > 2,3,8,9,10,11,12,15,19,20,22 Factor 17 < 4,5,6,7,13,14,16,18,21,23
1	My parents wanted me to come here	1.83	0.758	Factor 1 > 2,3,8,9,10,11,12,15,19,20,22 Factor 1 < 4,5,6,7,13,14,16,18,21,23
10	I wanted to live near home	1.60	0.763	Factor 10 > 2,3,8,9,11,12,15,19,20,22 Factor 10 < 1,4,5,6,7,13,14,16,17,18,21,23
19	I was admitted through an Early Action or Early Decision program	1.57	0.790	Factor 19 > 2,3,8,9,11,12,15,20,22 Factor 19 < 1,4,5,6,7,10,13,14,16,17,18,21,23
2	My relatives wanted me to come here	1.55	0.718	Factor 2 > 3,9,11,12,20,22 Factor 2 < 1,4,5,6,7,10,13,14,16,17,18,19,21,23
15	I was attracted by the religious affiliation/orientation of this college	1.55	0.728	Factor 15 > 3,9,11,12,20,22 Factor 15 < 1,4,5,6,7,10,13,14,16,17,18,19,21,23
8	High school counselor advised me	1.55	0.719	Factor 8 > 3,9,11,12,20,22 Factor 8 < 1,4,5,6,7,10,13,14,16,17,18,19,21,23
12	Could not afford first choice	1.50	0.756	Factor 12 > 3,9,20,22 Factor 12 < 1,2,4,5,6,7,8,10,13,14,15,16,17,18,19,21,23
11	Not offered aid by first choice	1.49	0.731	Factor 11 > 3,9,20,22 Factor 11 < 1,2,4,5,6,7,8,10,13,14,15,16,17,18,19,21,23

3	My teacher advised me	1.46	0.667	Factor 3 > 9,20,22 Factor 3 < 1,2,4,5,6,7,8,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,17,18,19,21,23
20	The athletic department recruited me	1.36	0.688	Factor 20 > 9 Factor 20 < 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,17,18,19,21,23
22	Ability to take online courses	1.35	0.623	Factor 22 > 9 Factor 22 < 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,17,18,19,21,23
9	Private college counselor advised me	1.32	0.605	Factor 9 < 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,17,18,19,20,21,22,23

a. Three-Point Scale (1 = not important, 2 = somewhat important, 3 = very important)

The results indicate that an institution's academic reputation ($M = 2.60$, $SD = 0.593$) is the top factor that affects the college choice of students of color selecting institutions in the Deep South. Jobs after graduation ($M = 2.47$, $SD = 0.686$), social activities ($M = 2.31$, $SD = 0.723$), and financial assistance ($M = 2.29$, $SD = 0.810$) were also found to be important factors. The results indicate that advising from a private college counselor ($M = 1.32$, $SD = 0.605$) is the factor that affects the college choice of students of color selecting institutions in the Deep South the least. The ability to take online courses ($M = 1.35$, $SD = 0.623$) and being recruited for athletics ($M = 1.36$, $SD = 0.688$) were also, on average, unimportant factors.

Research Question One Part a (RQ1a)

How does this differ based on gender?

Analysis for RQ1a. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) revealed a significant multivariate main effect for gender:

Table 6

Gender Test for Statistical Significance

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Wilks' Lambda	0.909	41.226	23.000	9442.000	< .001	0.091

The findings in Table 6 indicate that there was a statistically significant difference in the college choice factors based on the student's identified gender, $F(41.2, 23) = 9,442, p < 0.001$; Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.91$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.09$. Power to detect the effect was 1.00. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis that the means of both genders are equal and conclude that the gender of the students of color selecting institutions in the Deep South does have an effect on one or more of the college choice factors.

Given the significance of the overall test, the univariate main effects were examined. Partial η^2 was analyzed for each of the college choice factors to determine which factors gender had an effect on. When interpreting effect sizes, a partial η^2 of 0.01 is considered a small effect size, a partial η^2 of 0.06 is considered a medium effect size, and a partial η^2 of 0.14 is considered a large effect size (Richardson, 2011). Of the 23 comparisons, 19 were statistically significant with women reporting a higher mean on 12 of those 19.

The results in Table 7 indicate that being recruited by the athletic department, wanting to go to a school the size of the college selected, and the percentage of students that graduate from this college all had small effects sizes, $0.01 < \text{partial } \eta^2 < 0.06$. Power to detect each of these effects was 1.0. Being recruited by the athletic department had the largest effect size of the college choice factors based on gender (partial $\eta^2 = 0.029$).

The results indicated that woman students of color who selected institutions in the Deep South had a higher mean score of 2.16 for “I wanted to go to a school about the size of this college” compared to the mean score of 1.92 for the man students of color. Woman students of color were also more affected by the “percentage of students that graduate from this college” with a mean score of 2.17 compared to the mean score of 1.96 for the man students of color. Man students of color selecting institutions in the Deep South, however, reported being more affected athletic recruitment. The mean score for men was 1.49, while the mean score for woman students on “the athletic department recruited me” was only 1.25.

Table 7

College Choice Factors by Gender

College Choice Factor	Male Mean	Male SD	Female Mean	Female SD	F	p	Effect Size
My parents wanted me to come here	1.84	0.748	1.80	0.761	6.208	0.013	0.001
My relatives wanted me to come here	1.58	0.722	1.51	0.706	22.491	<.001	0.002
My teacher advised me	1.50	0.680	1.43	0.653	28.542	<.001	0.003
This college has a very good academic reputation	2.55	0.617	2.64	0.573	52.790	<.001	0.006
This college has a good reputation for its social activities	2.25	0.729	2.34	0.714	33.283	<.001	0.004
I was offered financial assistance	2.23	0.814	2.33	0.806	32.673	<.001	0.003
The cost of attending this	2.17	0.785	2.26	0.797	28.390	<.001	0.003

college							
High school counselor advised me	1.57	0.716	1.51	0.711	18.954	<.001	0.002
Private college counselor advised me	1.35	0.618	1.28	0.582	24.789	<.001	0.003
I wanted to live near home	1.59	0.743	1.60	0.771	0.455	0.500	0.000
Not offered aid by first choice	1.47	0.705	1.49	0.742	1.642	0.200	0.000
Could not afford first choice	1.46	0.720	1.52	0.779	13.317	<.001	0.001
This college's graduates gain admission to top graduate/professional schools	2.15	0.756	2.27	0.764	52.076	<.001	0.005
This college's graduates get good jobs	2.44	0.684	2.50	0.685	14.725	<.001	0.002
I was attracted by the religious affiliation/orientation of this college	1.49	0.691	1.57	0.741	28.311	<.001	0.003
I wanted to go to a school about the size of this college	1.92	0.766	2.16	0.793	218.604	<.001	0.023
Rankings in national magazines	1.84	0.794	1.83	0.811	0.814	0.367	0.000
Information from a website	1.86	0.758	1.97	0.786	46.082	<.001	0.005

I was admitted through an Early Action or Early Decision program	1.58	0.773	1.56	0.800	1.730	0.188	0.000
The athletic department recruited me	1.49	0.764	1.25	0.593	285.914	<.001	0.029
A visit to this campus	2.09	0.800	2.21	0.821	45.936	<.001	0.005
Ability to take online courses	1.35	0.620	1.33	0.608	4.756	0.029	0.001
The percentage of students that graduate from this college	1.96	0.799	2.17	0.813	154.634	<.001	0.016

Research Question One Part b (RQ1b)

How does this differ based on race?

Analysis for RQ1b. A MANOVA revealed a significant multivariate main effect for race group:

Table 8

Race Group Test for Statistical Significance

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Wilks' Lambda	0.210	1561.503	23.000	9534.000	< 0.001	0.790

The findings in Table 8 indicate that there was a statistically significant difference in the college choice factors based on the student's identified race, $F(1,561.5, 23) = 9,534, p < 0.001$; Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.210$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.79$. Power to detect the effect was 1.00. Therefore, we reject the null

hypothesis that the means of race groups are equal and conclude that the race group of the students of color selecting institutions in the Deep South does have an effect on one or more of the college choice factors.

Given the significance of the overall test, the univariate main effects were examined in Table 9. Partial η^2 was analyzed for each of the college choice factors to determine which factors the student's race had an effect on. The results indicated that 11 of the 23 college choice factors had small effects sizes, $0.01 < \text{partial } \eta^2 < 0.06$. Power to detect each of these effects was 1.0. Being attracted to the religious affiliation/orientation of the selected college had the largest effect size of the college choice factors based on race (partial $\eta^2 = 0.040$). Rankings in national magazines followed closely (partial $\eta^2 = 0.038$).

The results in Table 9 indicated that Asian students had either the highest or lowest mean for 10 of the 11 college choice factors with a significant effect size; the means for Asian students rarely fell close to the total mean across all race groups. Asian students who selected institutions in the Deep South were the race group most affected by the college's academic reputation ($M = 2.75$, Total $M = 2.60$), being admitted through an Early Action or Early Decision program ($M = 1.87$, Total $M = 1.57$), and rankings in national magazines. The Asian students mean rating of 2.20 for rankings in national magazines was well above the mean for all races ($M = 1.83$), and it was the only mean above 2.0 for any race group.

Asian students who selected institutions in the Deep South were the race group least affected by the following college choice factors: this college has a good reputation for social activities ($M = 2.10$, Total $M = 2.30$), I was offered financial assistance ($M = 2.01$, Total $M = 2.29$), I was attracted by the religious affiliation ($M = 1.22$, Total $M = 1.54$), a visit to this campus ($M = 1.85$, Total $M = 2.16$), the percentage of students that graduate from this college

($M = 1.80$, Total $M = 2.08$), the ability to take online courses ($M = 1.19$, Total $M = 1.34$), and the athletic department recruited me ($M = 1.11$, Total $M = 1.35$). The lowest rating a student could give on the survey was 1; therefore, the majority of Asian students that completed the survey indicated the ability to take online courses and the athletic department recruited me were “not important” in their college choice.

Black students who chose to attend institutions in the Deep South were the race group most affected by the college’s reputation for social activities ($M = 2.36$, Total $M = 2.30$), the percentage of student’s who graduate from the institution ($M = 2.18$, Total $M = 2.08$), relatives wanting them to attend ($M = 1.61$, Total $M = 1.54$), and the religious affiliation of the institution ($M = 1.64$, Total $M = 1.54$). Although Black students had the highest mean scores of any race group, the means for relatives wanting them to attend and the religious affiliation of the institution are below the median survey rating of 2.0, indicating these factors are still “somewhat important” to “not important” to Black students, as well.

Black students also had the lowest mean rating for two of the college choice factors. Blacks were the race group least likely to be affected by rankings in national magazines ($M = 1.74$, Total $M = 1.83$) and being admitted through an Early Action or Early Decision Program ($M = 1.49$, Total $M = 1.57$).

Hispanic students who chose to attend institutions in the Deep South were the race group most affected by being offered financial assistance ($M = 2.41$, Total $M = 2.29$). The mean rating of 2.41 was 0.4 higher than Asian students who had the lowest mean for that college choice factor. However, Hispanic students were the race group least affected by relatives wanting them to attend the college they chose ($M = 1.37$, Total $M = 1.54$). A mean rating of 1.37 indicates that

the majority of Hispanic students selected that relatives wanting them attend was “not important” to their college decision.

American Indian students who chose to attend institutions in the Deep South were the race group most affected by three college choice factors: a visit to the campus ($M = 2.35$, Total $M = 2.16$), the ability to take online courses ($M = 1.44$, Total $M = 1.34$), and the percentage of students graduating from the college ($M = 2.18$, Total $M = 2.08$). Students of color that identified their race as “Other” were the most affected by athletic recruitment ($M = 1.47$, Total $M = 1.35$); however, a mean rating of 1.47 indicates that the majority selected “not important” for the college choice factor.

Table 9

College Choice Factors by Race Group

College Choice Factor	Mean & SD	American Indian	Asian	Black	Hispanic	Other	Two or More Races	F	p	Effect Size	Post-Hoc Findings for Significant Factors
My parents wanted me to come here	Mean	1.71	1.98	1.81	1.68	1.85	1.78	16.648	<.001	0.009	
	SD	0.76	0.726	0.766	0.735	0.773	0.729				
My relatives wanted me to come here	Mean	1.59	1.4	1.61	1.37	1.55	1.48	27.735	<.001	0.014	Black > Hispanic
	SD	0.743	0.642	0.734	0.621	0.75	0.684				
My teacher advised me	Mean	1.53	1.49	1.46	1.52	1.52	1.4	4.418	0.001	0.002	
	SD	0.71	0.64	0.68	0.7	0.69	0.632				
This college has a very good academic reputation	Mean	2.65	2.75	2.55	2.64	2.53	2.65	26.17	<.001	0.014	Asian > Other
	SD	0.65	0.48	0.62	0.58	0.64	0.569				
This college has a good reputation for its social activities	Mean	2.29	2.1	2.36	2.24	2.2	2.3	29.835	<.001	0.015	Black > Asian
	SD	0.76	0.74	0.71	0.75	0.74	0.723				

I was offered financial assistance	Mean	2.35	2.01	2.34	2.41	2.05	2.3	42.278	<.001	0.022	Hispanic > Asian
	SD	0.81	0.9	0.77	0.78	0.86	0.817				
The cost of attending this college	Mean	2.35	2.24	2.23	2.28	2.07	2.19	3.154	0.008	0.002	
	SD	0.73	0.78	0.79	0.78	0.83	0.795				
High school counselor advised me	Mean	1.74	1.52	1.55	1.57	1.61	1.49	3.226	0.007	0.002	
	SD	0.79	0.69	0.72	0.72	0.73	0.689				
Private college counselor advised me	Mean	1.44	1.24	1.34	1.26	1.36	1.28	7.873	<.001	0.004	
	SD	0.7	0.52	0.62	0.55	0.63	0.576				
I wanted to live near home	Mean	1.59	1.54	1.63	1.59	1.49	1.53	7.057	<.001	0.004	
	SD	0.7	0.75	0.77	0.76	0.72	0.731				
Not offered aid by first choice	Mean	1.21	1.42	1.53	1.42	1.42	1.41	13.365	<.001	0.007	
	SD	0.54	0.7	0.74	0.71	0.69	0.69				
Could not afford first choice	Mean	1.29	1.41	1.54	1.49	1.47	1.42	10.917	<.001	0.006	
	SD	0.63	0.71	0.77	0.77	0.72	0.727				
This college's graduates gain admission to top graduate/professional schools	Mean	2.18	2.36	2.2	2.23	2.15	2.19	10.707	<.001	0.006	
	SD	0.8	0.71	0.77	0.76	0.76	0.759				
This college's graduates get good jobs	Mean	2.44	2.58	2.45	2.45	2.4	2.5	9.292	<.001	0.005	
	SD	0.75	0.61	0.7	0.7	0.71	0.67				
I was attracted by the religious affiliation/orientation of this college	Mean	1.56	1.22	1.64	1.45	1.44	1.47	79.55	<.001	0.04	Black > Asian
	SD	0.82	0.51	0.75	0.69	0.67	0.697				
I wanted to go to a school about the size of this college	Mean	2.21	1.91	2.08	2.09	2.01	2.11	11.513	<.001	0.006	
	SD	0.73	0.78	0.79	0.78	0.78	0.785				

Rankings in national magazines	Mean	1.85	2.2	1.74	1.95	1.91	1.84	75.478	<.001	0.038	Asian > Black
	SD	0.78	0.75	0.79	0.79	0.83	0.803				
Information from a website	Mean	1.94	2.02	1.92	1.95	1.85	1.89	5.034	<.001	0.003	
	SD	0.78	0.75	0.79	0.76	0.77	0.762				
I was admitted through an Early Action or Early Decision program	Mean	1.62	1.87	1.49	1.61	1.7	1.61	53.39	<.001	0.027	Asian > Black
	SD	0.82	0.88	0.74	0.81	0.84	0.804				
The athletic department recruited me	Mean	1.41	1.11	1.4	1.33	1.47	1.34	41.308	<.001	0.021	Other > Asian
	SD	0.74	0.4	0.71	0.68	0.76	0.697				
A visit to this campus	Mean	2.35	1.85	2.21	2.12	2.06	2.25	48.03	<.001	0.025	American Indian > Asian
	SD	0.69	0.8	0.81	0.81	0.81	0.79				
Ability to take online courses	Mean	1.44	1.19	1.4	1.24	1.37	1.26	36.431	<.001	0.019	American Indian > Asian
	SD	0.75	0.46	0.66	0.51	0.64	0.548				
The percentage of students that graduate from this college	Mean	2.18	1.8	2.18	1.95	1.88	2.03	53.725	<.001	0.027	American Indian & Black > Asian
	SD	0.76	0.78	0.81	0.79	0.83	0.814				

Research Question Two (RQ2)

What factors, specifically, affect the college choices of students of color to attend PWIs versus HBCUs in the Deep South?

Analysis for RQ2. A MANOVA revealed a significant multivariate main effect for institution type (PWI vs. HBCU):

Table 10

Institution Type Test for Statistical Significance

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Wilks' Lambda	0.026	15436.016	23.000	9538.000	< 0.001	0.974

The findings in Table 10 indicate that there was a statistically significant difference in the college choice factors based on the institution type, $F(15,436, 23) = 9,538, p < 0.001$; Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.026$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.974$. Power to detect the effect was 1.00. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis that the means of institution types (PWI vs. HBCU) are equal and conclude that the institution type the students of color selected in the Deep South does have an effect on one or more of the college choice factors.

Given the significance of the overall test, the univariate main effects were examined. Partial η^2 was analyzed for each of the college choice factors to determine which factors the student's race had an effect on. Of the 23 comparisons, 15 were statistically significant with students of color attending HBCU's reporting a higher mean on 10 of the 15. The results in Table 11 indicated that 8 of the 23 college choice factors had small effects sizes, $0.01 < \text{partial } \eta^2 < 0.06$. Power to detect each of these effects was 1.0. "My relatives wanted me to come here" had the largest effect size of the college choice factors based on institution type (partial $\eta^2 = 0.024$). However, all 8 college choice factors had small effect sizes ranging from partial η^2 0.01 to 0.024.

The data in Table 11 indicated that students of color who selected to attend HBCUs in the Deep South were more affected by their relatives wanting them to attend ($M = 1.64$, Total $M = 1.54$), the college having a good reputation for social activities ($M = 2.37$, Total $M = 2.30$), the religious affiliation of the institution ($M = 1.63$, Total $M = 1.54$), the ability to take online

courses ($M = 1.42$, Total $M = 1.34$), and the percentage of graduates from that college ($M = 2.16$, Total $M = 2.08$).

Conversely, students of color who selected to attend PWIs in the Deep South were more affected by the college's academic reputation ($M = 2.70$, Total $M = 2.60$), rankings in national magazines ($M = 1.97$, Total $M = 1.83$), and being admitted through an early action or early decision program ($M = 1.69$, Total $M = 1.57$).

Table 11

College Choice Factors by Institution Type

College Choice Factor	PWI Mean	PWI SD	HBCU Mean	HBCU SD	F	p	Effect Size
My parents wanted me to come here	1.82	0.732	1.82	0.774	0.054	0.817	0.000
My relatives wanted me to come here	1.42	0.645	1.64	0.748	239.617	<.001	0.024
My teacher advised me	1.44	0.641	1.47	0.685	3.280	0.070	0.000
This college has a very good academic reputation	2.70	0.532	2.52	0.627	206.687	<.001	0.021
This college has a good reputation for its social activities	2.22	0.734	2.37	0.706	107.740	<.001	0.011
I was offered financial assistance	2.28	0.838	2.30	0.789	1.392	0.238	0.000
The cost of attending this college	2.22	0.789	2.22	0.795	0.143	0.706	0.000
High school counselor advised me	1.50	0.688	1.57	0.732	21.975	<.001	0.002
Private college counselor advised me	1.28	0.572	1.33	0.617	20.142	<.001	0.002
I wanted to live near home	1.56	0.738	1.62	0.775	12.402	<.001	0.001
Not offered aid by first choice	1.42	0.694	1.54	0.748	67.026	<.001	0.007
Could not afford first choice	1.42	0.721	1.55	0.776	65.088	<.001	0.007

This college's graduates gain admission to top graduate/professional schools	2.25	0.757	2.19	0.766	13.268	<.001	0.001
This college's graduates get good jobs	2.53	0.656	2.44	0.704	40.453	<.001	0.004
I was attracted by the religious affiliation/orientation of this college	1.42	0.677	1.63	0.742	192.267	<.001	0.020
I wanted to go to a school about the size of this college	2.05	0.788	2.07	0.794	0.675	0.411	0.000
Rankings in national magazines	1.97	0.805	1.73	0.788	214.588	<.001	0.022
Information from a website	1.94	0.766	1.91	0.784	3.120	0.077	0.000
I was admitted through an Early Action or Early Decision program	1.69	0.840	1.48	0.734	167.879	<.001	0.017
The athletic department recruited me	1.35	0.699	1.35	0.668	0.442	0.506	0.000
A visit to this campus	2.17	0.802	2.15	0.824	0.729	0.393	0.000
Ability to take online courses	1.23	0.513	1.42	0.670	214.101	<.001	0.022
The percentage of students that graduate from this college	1.98	0.809	2.16	0.809	115.458	<.001	0.012

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

The Deep South is an area of the United States comprised of six states: Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, and South Carolina (Adelman & Tsao, 2016). These states are historically known for the White aristocracy that owned Black slave plantations prior to the Civil War (Warner, 1941). In addition to historical examples of conflict between races, the Deep South represents an area of the United States that has seen an increase in racial diversity and immigration (Bankston, 2007; Adelman & Tsao, 2016).

For higher education institutions, this diversity represents an opportunity and obligation to enroll a more diverse student body than what is already present at their institutions in order to continue serving the students who surround them geographically. Framed through standpoint theory (Harding, 1992) and existing models of college choice (Cabrera & La Nasa, 2001; Chapman, 1981; Hossler & Gallagher, 1987), this study sought to understand why students of color choose to attend colleges and universities in the Deep South from the perspective of the student. This study embraced a holistic view of university recruitment. A holistic approach to recruitment extends beyond getting students of color to campus, and it encompasses retaining them and putting resources in place to help them be successful.

Research Questions

The study examined the following research questions:

1. What factors, in general, affect the college choices of students of color attending institutions in the Deep South?
 - a. How does this differ based on gender?
 - b. How does this differ based on race?
2. What factors, specifically, affect the college choices of students of color to attend predominantly-White institutions versus historically Black colleges and universities (PWI vs. HBCU) in the Deep South?

Introduction to Findings

The results of this study have implications for the practice of admissions professionals at institutions in the Deep South. It is acknowledged that merely stating how students of color in the Deep South can be better recruited is problematic if the students are being recruited into an institution that does not support them. By framing this research through standpoint theory, the recommendations made are through the lens of the students of color. Instead of seeking to help admissions professionals only market their institutions to students of color, the recommendations seek to enhance the college choice experience of students of color considering institutions in the Deep South by recommending ways admissions professionals can recruit and retain students of color at their respective institutions.

Findings and Recommendations

Research Question One (RQ1)

What factors, in general, affect the college choices of students of color attending institutions in the Deep South?

Findings and Recommendations for RQ1. The findings concluded the top college choice factor for students of color selecting institutions in the Deep South across all races, genders, and institution types (PWI vs. HBCU) was the academic reputation of the institution. This finding supported previous studies that listed academics among the top factors for the college choice of students regardless of race, gender, or institution type (Erdmann, 1983; Terkla & Wright, 1986; Martin & Dixon, 1991). Academic programs such as tutoring services, honors societies, and faculty mentorships for students of color can aid in the retention and success of students of color (Georgia College, 2015). For example, Minority Advisement Programs were created by the University System of Georgia to help address these concerns. By providing upperclassmen as academic peer mentors and faculty mentorships, these programs seek to “ensure the student’s successful transition and completion of their college experience” (Georgia College, 2015). Mentorship programs, such as the one at Georgia College, can help students thrive academically on campus, especially if they do not comprise the racial majority at their institution (U.S. Department of Education, 2016).

Unlike academic reputation, the literature review conducted did not list this “college’s graduates get good jobs” as a significant factor in the college choice process; however, the findings of this study concluded that it was the second highest factor for students of color selecting institutions in the Deep South. This finding suggests that during the college search phase, students of color are not only interested in what the institution can provide them on campus, but they are also interested in their future beyond their time at the institution.

Admissions professionals should also seek to learn about job placement rates and graduation outcomes for students of color because the study indicates that from the standpoint of a student of color in the Deep South, information about jobs post-graduation are important.

Alumni mentoring would be one way to help students of color learn about their career opportunities. Kenyon College in Ohio has an Alumni of Color Mentoring Initiative that pairs current students of color with successful alumni to provide support and networking opportunities (Kenyon College, 2019). Opportunities such as the one Kenyon College provides cannot only help recruit students of color, but also help retain the students of color once on campus by ensuring they are engaged in their career field.

Chapman's model of student college choice (1981) and Hossler and Gallagher's model (1987) did, however, both suggest that cost plays an important role in college choice, and overall, this study confirmed their findings. Chapman suggested that college choice was influenced by external characteristics such as cost and financial aid (1981), and those both ranked highly for students of color in the Deep South. Similarly, Hossler and Gallagher noted financial aid makes a difference in the final college choice (1987). Being offered financial assistance and the cost of attending ranked as the fourth and fifth highest college choice factors for students of color selecting institutions in the Deep South.

Students of color who select institutions in the Deep South are highly affected by cost and opportunities for financial aid. Admissions professionals in the Deep South should be knowledgeable about the cost of tuition and scholarship opportunities offered to all students, and specifically any scholarship opportunities reserved for students of color. However, it is not enough for the institutional representatives to be knowledgeable of what is and is not offered; the representatives should take that knowledge and work to complete the gaps in financial assistance that may be a barrier from recruiting and retaining students of color. The U.S. Department of Education's Office of Planning, Evaluation, and Policy Development cites numerous ways institutions can promote diversity on campus (2016). Some of those include targeted financial aid

for specific populations of students, outreach support for standardized test preparation which can lead to higher test scores and more scholarship opportunities, and assisting incoming students of color with the completion of financial aid forms (U.S. Department of Education, 2016). Being able to help alleviate the financial burden for students of color by providing aid and assistance applying for aid would not only help students select the college, but also be able to afford to stay.

While the results of the study did confirm the findings of many previous studies, it did not confirm that significant persons such as parents and high school personnel are meaningful in the college choice process (Chapman, 1981; Perez, 2010; O’neil, 2013). *The Freshman Survey (TFS)* that was used for this study asked students to rank college choice factors on a three-point scale. The influence from parents, relatives, high school counselors, and teachers all had ratings below 2.0, meaning more students selected the factor was “not important” in their decision than students that selected it was important. From the standpoint of a student of color, this finding suggests that, in general, admissions professionals should direct their recruitment toward the students of color selecting institutions in the Deep South, as opposed to targeting their message to teachers, counselors, and relatives who are interacting with the students.

Research Question One Part a (RQ1a)

How does this differ based on gender?

Findings and Recommendations for RQ1a. The findings concluded that the size of the institution and the percentage of students that graduate from the college were selected institutions in the Deep South were more important to women students of color who selected institutions in the Deep South than men. In prior research, O’neil cited the size of the institution as a strong factor of college choice (2013); however, this study indicated it to be a stronger factor

for women. Much like prior research did not include jobs after graduation as important in the college choice process, the literature also did not mention graduation rates as a strong factor.

This study incorporated the intersectionality of race and gender in order to account for the ways they “mutually construct one another” (Mann, 2010, p. 105). As the study revealed, the standpoints for men and women students of color selecting institutions in the Deep South are different, and admissions professionals and institutions should note that strategies for recruiting and retaining men and women differ because they are separate marginalized populations.

Research Question One Part b (RQ1b)

How does this differ based on race?

Findings and Recommendations for RQ1b. Specifically, the findings of this study supported prior studies of Asian American students that concluded Asian Americans are the racial group most likely to base their college choice on the academic reputation of an institution and the least likely to base a college choice on the cost (Kim, 2004; Teranishi et al., 2004; Tran, 2012). Asian students who selected institutions in the Deep South were the racial group most influenced by the academic reputation of the school and rankings in national magazines; however, they were the least influenced by being offered financial assistance. The results indicated that Asian American students selecting a college in the Deep South are seeking an institution that is superior academically.

Prior literature conflicted on whether the college choice of Hispanic students was influenced by financial aid. A study using *TFS* 1994 concluded that Hispanic students were not influenced by financial aid (Kim, 2004); however, cost and financial aid were shown to be a deciding factor for Hispanic students in other studies (Santiago, 2007; Hernandez, 2015). The findings of this study indicated that Hispanic students who chose to attend institutions in the

Deep South are the race group most affected by being offered financial assistance, which contradicts the results from *TFS* in 1994. By adopting the current standpoint of Hispanic students, as opposed to Hispanic students from 20 years prior, admissions professionals and institutions can seek to provide targeted financial aid and assistance completing financial aid forms in order to help recruit and retain these students (U.S. Department of Education, 2016).

The findings of the study also dispelled the stereotype that Black students, and especially Black men, are in college because they are presumed to be student-athletes (Harper, 2015). The findings did not support studies that concluded that being recruited by an athletic department was a top college choice factor for Black students (McDonough, Antonio, & Trent, 1997; Braddock II & Hua, 2006; Wood & Harrison, 2014). Black students gave “the athletic department recruited me” a mean rating of 1.40 on *TFS*; therefore, the majority of Black students selected the factor was “not important.”

One of the goals of standpoint theory is to help “produce knowledge that can be for marginalized people...rather than for the use only of dominant groups in their projects or administering and managing the lives of marginalized people” (Harding, 1992, p. 444-5). By dispelling the racial stereotype that Black students are making a college choice based on being recruited by an athletic department, admissions professionals can negate that assumption and approach conversations with Black students differently. The stereotype “managed” the perception of Black students as athletes, but the knowledge produced by the study can be used for the betterment of recruiting Black students for reasons other than athletic ability.

Research Question Two (RQ2)

What factors, specifically, affect the college choices of students of color to attend predominantly-White institutions versus historically Black colleges and universities (PWI vs. HBCU) in the Deep South?

Findings and Recommendations for RQ2. With regard to institution type, the findings support McDonough, Antonio, and Trent's research on the college choice factors that influenced Black students to attend HBCUs (1997). The researchers concluded that religion and social reputation were important factors (McDonough, 1997). In this study, both factors were also found to be statistically more significant for students of color selecting HBCUs in the Deep South than students of color that chose to attend PWIs.

The college choice of students of color, and specifically Black students, is affected by the opportunities an institution provides to engage socially. Having knowledge of student organizations specifically for students of color, as well as opportunities for students of color to have representation in all organizations on campus, is important for admissions professionals in the Deep South to know. For example, Auburn University, a PWI, in Alabama has an active Black Student Union that provides programming and engagement opportunities for students year round. Similarly, Olivet College in Michigan created a Global Cultures Center to provide students of color with "safe and comfortable places to socialize" (Center for Systems Security and Information Assistance, 2002). The findings of this study lead to the recommendation that admissions professionals in the Deep South, especially PWIs, should learn about those types of involvement opportunities for students of color, and if they are not present on campus, help to make sure they are implemented.

Suggestions for Further Research

Although there has been a lot of research on the topic of college choice, the literature review conducted did not list this “college’s graduates get good jobs” as a significant factor in the college choice process; however, the findings of this study concluded that it was the second highest factor for students of color selecting institutions in the Deep South. This finding suggests that during the college search phase, students of color are not only interested in what the institution can provide them on campus, but they are also interested in their future beyond their time at the institution. There is a void in the literature on how the outcomes of an institution affect the college choice of students, and to further advance the body of knowledge as it pertains to college choice, it would be beneficial to conduct further research on how job placement after graduation affects college choice.

To further advance the literature on the college choice of students of color, an opportunity exists to create a survey designed for students of color to learn more about their college choice and college recruitment process, as well as the resources available to them on the campus they selected. While this study seeks to understand the recruitment of students of color in the Deep South through the lens of standpoint theory, *The Freshman Survey* happens to be a survey that students of color took. It was not a survey created with standpoint theory and students of color in mind. *TFS* is intended to help higher education professionals learn about the class of freshmen who recently enrolled in college, and some of those students identify as students of color. However, the students of color were not intended as the focus of the study. By creating a new survey from the standpoint of the students of color, the questions could be designed to provide admissions professionals with information on how to enhance the recruitment and retention process for the betterment of the students of color.

Creating a new survey intended for students of color would also allow for open-ended qualitative questions to be used. For example, the results of this study show which college choice factors students of color in the Deep South rated higher when selecting a PWI over and HBCU; however, the survey did not give students of color the chance to expand upon those ratings and explain their college choice qualitatively. Additionally, further questions should be developed to hold admissions professionals accountable for not recruiting students of color to a campus that is not built to support them. For example, questions that ask whether the college met the expectations described by the institution during the recruitment process should be included. Using standpoint theory as a foundation would lead to the creation of questions about the authenticity of the recruitment experience. It is not enough for admissions professionals to learn what factors are important to students of color in the college search process and exploit them to the advantage of the institution. Admissions professionals should be authentically recruiting students to a campus based on the actual resources provided and the current campus climate, and new surveys built with students of color in mind could help hold admissions professionals to this higher standard of recruitment.

To specifically further this study of the college choice of students of color selecting institutions in the Deep South, additional research should be conducted about the effectiveness of campus resources and aid specifically intended for students of color. Now that research has been conducted to determine why students of color selected institutions in the Deep South, further research is necessary to determine how institutions are effectively retaining these students once they are enrolled.

Additionally, further research on this topic is necessary to include students who do not identify as men or women with regard to gender, as well as students who attended institutions

that are not PWIs or HBCUs. The *2014 TFS* used for this study only provided male and female as options for gender; however, a growing number of students are self-identifying as non-binary and transgender, which are not encompassed by the traditional selection of “male” and “female” gender options. The *2014 TFS* did not include options for students to indicate selecting other types of institutions such as Tribal Colleges and Universities, Hispanic Serving Institutions, and other Minority Serving Institutions that are not HBCUs. This study does not include all student and institutional identities in the Deep South, and further research should be conducted to be more inclusive of how students and institutions identify.

Conclusion

The impetus to conduct research on the college choice of students of color stemmed from my experience working in college admissions and noticing a lack of knowledge with regard to the topic. I also knew that I wanted to do research that had the potential to make an impact on the admissions profession; however, in the midst of researching college choice theories and thinking about my own personal recruitment goals, the focus became more on how to benefit myself as an admissions professional, rather than how to benefit the experience of the students of color being recruited. The introduction to standpoint theory for me was a lesson in selflessness. In my professional career, I have always said that the decisions I make should be in the best interest of the students the institution serves, and re-framing this study through standpoint theory was me putting into practice the ideals I set for myself.

What I learned from standpoint theory is that when discussing any marginalized population, the marginalized population should be in the forefront. The study indicated that students of color selecting an institution in the Deep South are more likely to choose a school based on the academic reputation. Evaluating that through standpoint theory challenged me to

ask myself, as an admissions professional, “So what?” If students of color value academics at an institution, there should be programs in place to help students of color succeed academically once they enroll, especially if the students of color are attending a PWI that historically has not been built to support them. As an admissions professional, I should not only be able to talk about those programs, but I should also seek to advocate for them when they do not exist.

If admissions professionals take anything away from this study, it should be to never stop asking the question, “So what?” As admissions professionals, what are we doing for students of color with the knowledge we have? It is imperative that we not only seek to recruit them because it is our job or because our institution wants to meet a diversity quota. Rather, we should truly seek to enhance the recruitment and educational experience for students of color at institutions in the Deep South. That is what we can do for others, but we can only do it if we choose to look at it through their lens—the lens of a marginalized population.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

The 2014 Freshman Survey

T

2014 CIRP FRESHMAN SURVEY



T

PLEASE PRINT IN ALL CAPS YOUR NAME AND PERMANENT/HOME ADDRESS (one letter or number per box).

NAME: FIRST MI LAST
 ADDRESS: _____
 CITY: _____ STATE: _____ ZIP: _____ PHONE: _____
 STUDENT ID# (as instructed): _____ EMAIL (print letters carefully): _____

When were you born?
 Month (01-12) Day (01-31) Year

SERIAL #

MARKING DIRECTIONS

- Use a black or blue pen.
- Fill in your response completely.
- Mark out any answer you wish to change with an "X".

CORRECT MARK **INCORRECT MARKS**

Group Code A B

1. Your sex: Male Female

2. How old will you be on December 31 of this year? (Mark one)

16 or younger. 21-24

17..... 25-29

18..... 30-39

19..... 40-54

20..... 55 or older.

3. Is English your native language?
 Yes No

4. In what year did you graduate from high school? (Mark one)

2014..... Did not graduate but
 2013..... passed G.E.D. test.

2012..... Never completed
 2011 or earlier high school.....

5. Are you enrolled (or enrolling) as a:
 (Mark one) Full-time student.....

Part-time student.....

6. How many miles is this college from your permanent home? (Mark one)

5 or less 11-50 101-500

6-10 51-100 Over 500

7. What was your average grade in high school? (Mark one)

A or A+ B C

A- B- D

B+ C+

8. What were your scores on the SAT I and/or ACT?

SAT Critical Reading

SAT Mathematics

SAT Writing

ACT Composite

9. From what kind of high school did you graduate? (Mark one)

Public school (not charter or magnet)

Public charter school

Public magnet school

Private religious/parochial school

Private independent college-prep school

Home school

10. Prior to this term, have you ever taken courses for credit at this institution?
 Yes No

11. Since leaving high school, have you ever taken courses, whether for credit or not for credit, at any other institution (university, 4- or 2-year college, technical, vocational, or business school)?
 Yes No

12. Where do you plan to live during the fall term? (Mark one)

With my family or other relatives.....

Other private home, apartment, or room.

College residence hall

Fraternity or sorority house

Other campus student housing

Other.....

13. To how many colleges other than this one did you apply for admission this year?

None 1 4 7-10

2 5 11 or more

3 6

14. Were you accepted by your first choice college? Yes No

15. Is this college your: (Mark one)

First choice Less than third
 Second choice..... choice

Third choice.....

16. Citizenship status:

U.S. citizen

Permanent resident (green card)

International student (F-1 or M-1 visa)

None of the above

17. Please mark which of the following courses you have completed:

Algebra II

Pre-calculus/Trigonometry

Probability & Statistics

Calculus

AP Probability & Statistics

AP Calculus

18. During high school (grades 9-12) how many years did you study each of the following subjects? (Mark one for each item)

	None	1/2	1	2	3	4	5 or more
English	<input type="radio"/>						
Mathematics	<input type="radio"/>						
Foreign Language	<input type="radio"/>						
Physical Science	<input type="radio"/>						
Biological Science	<input type="radio"/>						
History/Am. Gov't	<input type="radio"/>						
Computer Science.....	<input type="radio"/>						
Arts and/or Music	<input type="radio"/>						

19. Have you had, or do you feel you will need, any remedial work in any of the following subjects? (Mark all that apply)

	Have Had	Will Need
English.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reading.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mathematics.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Writing.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

20. At this institution, which course placement tests have you taken in the following subject areas:

English

Reading

Mathematics

Writing

21. Are your parents: (Mark one)

Both alive and living with each other.....

Both alive, divorced or living apart.....

One or both deceased.....

22. Do you consider yourself:
 (Mark Yes or No for each item)

Pre-Med..... Yes No

Pre-Law.....

23. Please indicate your intended major using the codes provided on the attached fold out.

24. Please indicate your intended career as well as the careers of your parents, using the codes provided on the attached fold out.

Your intended career

Your mother's career

Your father's career

25. Current employment status:
(Mark one in each row)

	Employed	Unemployed	Retired
Your mother.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your father.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

26. How much of your first year's educational expenses (room, board, tuition, and fees) do you expect to cover from each of the sources listed below? (Mark one answer for each possible source)

	None	Less than \$1,000	\$1,000 to 2,999	\$3,000 to 5,999	\$6,000 to 9,999	\$10,000+
Family resources (parents, relatives, spouse, etc.).....	<input type="radio"/>					
My own resources (savings from work, work-study, other income).....	<input type="radio"/>					
Aid which need <u>not</u> be repaid (grants, scholarships, military funding, etc.).....	<input type="radio"/>					
Aid which <u>must</u> be repaid (loans, etc.).....	<input type="radio"/>					
Other than above.....	<input type="radio"/>					

27. What is your best estimate of your parents' total income last year? Consider income from all sources before taxes. (Mark one)

<input type="radio"/> Less than \$10,000	<input type="radio"/> \$50,000-59,999
<input type="radio"/> \$10,000-14,999	<input type="radio"/> \$60,000-74,999
<input type="radio"/> \$15,000-19,999	<input type="radio"/> \$75,000-99,999
<input type="radio"/> \$20,000-24,999	<input type="radio"/> \$100,000-149,999
<input type="radio"/> \$25,000-29,999	<input type="radio"/> \$150,000-199,999
<input type="radio"/> \$30,000-39,999	<input type="radio"/> \$200,000-249,999
<input type="radio"/> \$40,000-49,999	<input type="radio"/> \$250,000 or more

28. Do you have any concern about your ability to finance your college education? (Mark one)

None (I am confident that I will have sufficient funds).....

Some (but I probably will have enough funds)....

Major (not sure I will have enough funds to complete college).....

29. Current religious preference:
(Mark one in each column)

	Yours	Father's	Mother's
Baptist.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Buddhist.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Church of Christ.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Eastern Orthodox.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Episcopalian.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Hindu.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jewish.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
LDS (Mormon).....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lutheran.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Methodist.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Muslim.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Presbyterian.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Quaker.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Roman Catholic.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Seventh-day Adventist.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
United Church of Christ/Congregational.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other Christian.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other Religion.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
None.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

30. What is the highest academic degree that you intend to obtain?
(Mark one in each column)

	Highest Planned	Highest Planned at This College
None.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Vocational certificate.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Associate (A.A. or equivalent).....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Bachelor's degree (B.A., B.S., etc.).....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Master's degree (M.A., M.S., etc.).....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ph.D. or Ed.D.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
M.D., D.O., D.D.S., or D.V.M.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
J.D. (Law).....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B.D. or M.Div. (Divinity).....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

31. For the activities below, indicate which ones you did during the past year. If you engaged in an activity frequently, mark **F. If you engaged in an activity one or more times, but not frequently, mark **O** (Occasionally). Mark **N** (Not at all) if you have not performed the activity during the past year.** (Mark one for each item)

	Frequently	Occasionally	Not at All
Attended a religious service.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Was bored in class.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Demonstrated for a cause (e.g., boycott, rally, protest).....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tutored another student.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Studied with other students.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Was a guest in a teacher's home.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Smoked cigarettes.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Drank beer.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Drank wine or liquor.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Felt overwhelmed by all I had to do.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Felt depressed.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Performed volunteer work.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Asked a teacher for advice after class.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Voted in a student election.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Socialized with someone of another racial/ethnic group.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Came late to class.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Used the Internet for research or homework.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Performed community service as a part of a class.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Discussed religion.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Discussed politics.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Worked on a local, state, or national political campaign.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Skipped school/class.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Publicly communicated my opinion about a cause (e.g., blog, email, petition).....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Helped raise money for a cause or campaign.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Fell asleep in class.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Failed to complete homework on time.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Used an online instructional website (e.g., Khan Academy, Coursera).....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
As assigned for a class.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To learn something on your own.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

32. How would you rate yourself in the following areas:
(Mark one for each item)

	A Major Strength	Somewhat Strong	Average	Somewhat Weak	A Major Weakness
Ability to see the world from someone else's perspective.....	<input type="radio"/>				
Tolerance of others with different beliefs.....	<input type="radio"/>				
Openness to having my own views challenged.....	<input type="radio"/>				
Ability to discuss and negotiate controversial issues.....	<input type="radio"/>				
Ability to work cooperatively with diverse people.....	<input type="radio"/>				

33. What is the highest level of formal education obtained by your parents?
(Mark one in each column)

	Junior high/Middle school or less	Father	Mother
Some high school.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
High school graduate.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Postsecondary school other than college.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Some college.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
College degree.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Some graduate school.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Graduate degree.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

34. How often in the past year did you?
(Mark one for each item)

	Frequently	Occasionally	Not at All
Ask questions in class.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Support your opinions with a logical argument.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Seek solutions to problems and explain them to others.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Revise your papers to improve your writing.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Evaluate the quality or reliability of information you received.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Take a risk because you feel you have more to gain.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Seek alternative solutions to a problem.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Look up scientific research articles and resources.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Explore topics on your own, even though it was not required for a class.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Accept mistakes as part of the learning process.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Seek feedback on your academic work.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Work with other students on group projects.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Integrate skills and knowledge from different sources and experiences.....	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

- T** 35. Are you: (Mark all that apply)
- White/Caucasian
 - African American/Black
 - American Indian/Alaska Native ...
 - Asian American/Asian
 - Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander .
 - Mexican American/Chicano.....
 - Puerto Rican.....
 - Other Latino.....
 - Other.....

36. How would you characterize your political views? (Mark one)
- Far left
 - Liberal
 - Middle-of-the-road
 - Conservative
 - Far right

37. In deciding to go to college, how important to you was each of the following reasons? (Mark one answer for each possible reason)
- | | |
|--|---|
| | Very Important
Somewhat Important
Not Important |
| To be able to get a better job..... | V S N |
| To gain a general education and appreciation of ideas..... | V S N |
| To make me a more cultured person..... | V S N |
| To be able to make more money..... | V S N |
| To learn more about things that interest me..... | V S N |
| To get training for a specific career..... | V S N |
| To prepare myself for graduate or professional school..... | V S N |

38. Rate yourself on each of the following traits as compared with the average person your age. We want the most accurate estimate of how you see yourself. (Mark one in each row)
- | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| | Highest 10%
Above Average
Average
Below Average
Lowest 10% |
| Academic ability..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Artistic ability..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Competitiveness..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Computer skills..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Cooperativeness..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Creativity..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Drive to achieve..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Emotional health..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Leadership ability..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Mathematical ability..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Physical health..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Popularity..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Public speaking ability..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Risk-taking..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Self-confidence (intellectual)..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Self-confidence (social)..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Self-understanding..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Spirituality..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Understanding of others..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Writing ability..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |

39. Think about your current abilities and tell us how strong or weak you believe you are in each of the following areas: (Mark one for each item)

- | | |
|--|---|
| | A Major Strength
Somewhat Strong
Average
Somewhat Weak
A Major Weakness |
| General knowledge..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Knowledge of a particular field or discipline..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Knowledge of people from different races/cultures..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Understanding of the problems facing your community..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Understanding of national issues..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Understanding of global issues..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Critical thinking skills..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Problem-solving skills..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Ability to manage your time effectively..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Foreign language ability..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |
| Interpersonal skills..... | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ |

40. Mark one in each row:

- | | |
|--|--|
| | 1 Disagree Strongly
2 Disagree Somewhat
3 Agree Somewhat
4 Agree Strongly |
| Racial discrimination is no longer a major problem in America..... | 4 3 2 1 |
| Same-sex couples should have the right to legal marital status..... | 4 3 2 1 |
| Federal military spending should be increased..... | 4 3 2 1 |
| Students from disadvantaged social backgrounds should be given preferential treatment in college admissions..... | 4 3 2 1 |
| Addressing global climate change should be a federal priority..... | 4 3 2 1 |
| The chief benefit of a college education is that it increases one's earning power.. | 4 3 2 1 |
| Undocumented immigrants should be denied access to public education..... | 4 3 2 1 |
| The death penalty should be abolished..... | 4 3 2 1 |
| Through hard work, everybody can succeed in American society..... | 4 3 2 1 |

41. Below are some reasons that might have influenced your decision to attend this particular college. How important was each reason in your decision to come here? (Mark one answer for each possible reason)

- | | |
|---|---|
| | Very Important
Somewhat Important
Not Important |
| My parents wanted me to come here..... | V S N |
| My relatives wanted me to come here..... | V S N |
| My teacher advised me..... | V S N |
| This college has a very good academic reputation..... | V S N |
| This college has a good reputation for its social activities..... | V S N |
| I was offered financial assistance..... | V S N |
| The cost of attending this college..... | V S N |
| High school counselor advised me..... | V S N |
| Private college counselor advised me..... | V S N |
| I wanted to live near home..... | V S N |
| Not offered aid by first choice..... | V S N |
| Could not afford first choice..... | V S N |
| This college's graduates gain admission to top graduate/professional schools... | V S N |
| This college's graduates get good jobs..... | V S N |
| I was attracted by the religious affiliation/orientation of this college..... | V S N |
| I wanted to go to a school about the size of this college..... | V S N |
| Rankings in national magazines..... | V S N |
| Information from a website..... | V S N |
| I was admitted through an Early Action or Early Decision program..... | V S N |
| The athletic department recruited me..... | V S N |
| A visit to this campus..... | V S N |
| Ability to take online courses..... | V S N |
| The percentage of students that graduate from this college..... | V S N |

L

L

42. During your last year in high school, how much time did you spend during a typical week doing the following activities?

Hours per week:	None	Less than 1 hour	1-2	3-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	Over 20
Studying/homework	<input type="radio"/>							
Socializing with friends	<input type="radio"/>							
Talking with teachers outside of class	<input type="radio"/>							
Exercise or sports	<input type="radio"/>							
Partying	<input type="radio"/>							
Working (for pay)	<input type="radio"/>							
Volunteer work	<input type="radio"/>							
Student clubs/groups	<input type="radio"/>							
Watching TV	<input type="radio"/>							
Household/childcare duties	<input type="radio"/>							
Reading for pleasure	<input type="radio"/>							
Playing video/computer games	<input type="radio"/>							
Online social networks (Facebook, Twitter, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>							

- 43. Military Status:** (Mark one)
- None
 - ROTC, cadet, or midshipman at a service academy
 - In Active Duty, Reserves, or National Guard
 - A discharged veteran **NOT** serving in Active Duty, Reserves, or National Guard

44. How would you describe the racial composition of the high school you last attended and the neighborhood where you grew up? (Mark one in each row)

	Completely non-White	Mostly non-White	Roughly half non-White	Mostly White	Completely White
High school I last attended	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Neighborhood where I grew up	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

- 45. How many years do you expect it will take you to graduate from this college?**
- 1 2 3 4 5 6+
- Do not plan to graduate from this college

- 46. Do you have any of the following disabilities or medical conditions?** (Mark Yes or No for each item)
- Learning disability (dyslexia, etc.)
 - Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD)
 - Autism spectrum/Asperger's syndrome
 - Physical disability (speech, sight, mobility, hearing, etc.)
 - Chronic illness (cancer, diabetes, autoimmune disorders, etc.)
 - Psychological disorder (depression, etc.)
 - Other

47. Please indicate the importance to you personally of each of the following: (Mark one for each item)

	Essential	Very Important	Somewhat Important	Not Important
Becoming accomplished in one of the performing arts (acting, dancing, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Becoming an authority in my field	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Obtaining recognition from my colleagues for contributions to my special field	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Influencing the political structure	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Influencing social values	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Raising a family	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Being very well off financially	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Helping others who are in difficulty	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Making a theoretical contribution to science	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Writing original works (poems, novels, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Creating artistic works (painting, sculpture, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Becoming successful in a business of my own	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Becoming involved in programs to clean up the environment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Developing a meaningful philosophy of life	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Participating in a community action program	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Helping to promote racial understanding	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Keeping up to date with political affairs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Becoming a community leader	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Improving my understanding of other countries and cultures	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Adopting "green" practices to protect the environment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

48. What is your best guess as to the chances that you will: (Mark one for each item)

	Very Good Chance	Some Chance	Very Little Chance	No Chance
Change major field	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Change career choice	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Participate in student government	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Get a job to help pay for college expenses	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Work full-time while attending college	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Join a social fraternity or sorority	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Play club, intramural, or recreational sports	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Play intercollegiate athletics (e.g., NCAA or NAIA-sponsored)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Make at least a "B" average	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Need extra time to complete your degree requirements	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Participate in student protests or demonstrations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Transfer to another college before graduating	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Be satisfied with your college	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Participate in volunteer or community service work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Seek personal counseling	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Communicate regularly with your professors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Socialize with someone of another racial/ethnic group	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Participate in student clubs/groups	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Participate in a study abroad program	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have a roommate of a different race/ethnicity	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Discuss course content with students outside of class	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Work on a professor's research project	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Get tutoring help in specific courses	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Take courses from more than one college simultaneously	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Take a leave of absence from this college temporarily	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Take a course exclusively online:				
At this institution	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At a different institution	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Vote in a local, state, or national election	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

The remaining ovals are provided for questions specifically designed by your college rather than the Higher Education Research Institute. If your college has chosen to use the ovals, please observe carefully the supplemental directions given to you.

- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 49. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> | 53. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> | 57. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> | 61. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> | 65. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> |
| 50. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> | 54. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> | 58. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> | 62. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> | 66. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> |
| 51. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> | 55. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> | 59. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> | 63. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> | 67. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> |
| 52. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> | 56. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> | 60. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> | 64. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> | 68. <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> |

THANK YOU!

Appendix B

List of Participating Institutions

Institutions Participating in The Freshman Survey 2014	State
Stillman College	AL
Alabama A & M University	AL
Huntingdon College	AL
University of Montevallo	AL
Armstrong Atlantic State University	GA
Dalton State College	GA
Emory University	GA
Oxford College of Emory University	GA
Savannah State University	GA
Berry College	GA
Clark Atlanta University	GA
Georgia Institute of Technology-Main Campus	GA
LaGrange College	GA
Morehouse College	GA
Spelman College	GA
Dillard University	LA
Tulane University of Louisiana	LA
Xavier University of Louisiana	LA
Mississippi Valley State University	MS
Millsaps College	MS
Bennett College for Women	NC
Davidson College	NC
Louisburg College	NC
North Carolina A & T State University	NC
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill	NC
Catawba College	NC
Chowan University	NC
Guilford College	NC
Johnson C. Smith University	NC
Livingstone College	NC
North Carolina Central University	NC
St. Andrews University	NC
Wake Forest University	NC
Warren Wilson College	NC
Wingate University	NC
Winston-Salem State University	NC
Anderson University	SC
North Greenville University	SC

University of South Carolina-Columbia	SC
Charleston Southern University	SC
Citadel Military College of South Carolina	SC
Furman University	SC
Voorhees College-South Carolina	SC
Wofford College	SC

Appendix C

HERI Agreement



Access to HERI Datasets

One of the central goals of the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) is to facilitate the collection, distribution, and analysis of relevant data to the higher education community. As such, HERI occasionally makes data available to researchers who are not directly affiliated with the Institute. However, as an active research organization in addition to being trustee of several large datasets (such as those associated with the Cooperative Institutional Research Program), HERI feels compelled to enforce several basic rules governing access to the data in our care. Rules governing access to and use of HERI data files are described below ("Agreement for access and use of data").

AGREEMENT FOR ACCESS AND USE OF DATA

It is hereby agreed between The Regents of the University of California, on behalf of UCLA's Higher Education Research Institute (HERI), and **JORDAN HOLLADAY** of **AUBURN UNIVERSITY** that the data described below will be provided to **JORDAN HOLLADAY** subject to the following conditions:

DESCRIPTION OF DATASET

SPSS data file containing HERI's **2014 CIRP FRESHMAN SURVEY** data per request made on **NOVEMBER 1, 2017**.

CONDITIONS OF ACCESS AND USE

1. **JORDAN HOLLADAY** agrees not to disclose in any way any of the data from the data files described above to any other organization or person. Only individuals under the direct supervision of **JORDAN HOLLADAY** shall have access to these data. **JORDAN HOLLADAY** shall maintain adequate security to protect these data from inadvertent or unauthorized access or disclosure.
2. **JORDAN HOLLADAY** agrees that the data will be used solely for statistical analysis and reporting of aggregated information, and not for investigation of specific individuals or organizations. In signing this agreement, **JORDAN HOLLADAY** gives assurance that such uses of statistical data will conform to widely accepted standards of practice and legal restrictions that are intended to protect the confidentiality of research subjects and participating institutions.
3. In the event that any of the conditions described above are violated, **JORDAN HOLLADAY** agrees (a) to return or destroy these data and all computer files and tape files created from the original data, and (b) to indemnify UCLA, HERI, and its staff against any claims resulting from such violations.
4. **JORDAN HOLLADAY** agrees to acknowledge CIRP, HERI, and UCLA in any published research. **JORDAN HOLLADAY** agrees to provide HERI with two copies of all published or released research results within thirty days of publication or release.
5. This agreement will expire on **APRIL 1, 2019**. Paragraph 3(b) shall remain in force after termination. Upon expiration of this agreement, **JORDAN HOLLADAY** agrees to return or destroy these data and all computer files and tape files created from the original data.
6. **JORDAN HOLLADAY** agrees to pay HERI a fee of **\$600** to cover material, processing, and personnel costs associated with fulfilling this request. This fee includes one hour of consulting from HERI staff. Additional consulting is available at HERI's then current rate for consulting services.

REGENTS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

By: _____
M. Kevin Eagan, Jr., Ph.D.
Director, Cooperative Institutional Research Program
(CIRP)

Date


JORDAN HOLLADAY

3/27/2018

Date

Please return via fax or mail:
Higher Education Research Institute at UCLA
3005 Moore Hall, Box 951521
Los Angeles, CA 90095-1521
www.heri.ucla.edu
(310) 825-1925 (office) (310) 206-2228 (fax)

Appendix D

IRB Approval

Office of Human Subject Research
115 Ramsay Hall (basement)
Auburn University, AL 36849



Telephone: 334-844-5966
Fax: 334-844-4391
IRBadmin@auburn.edu
IRBsubmit@auburn.edu

May 14, 2018

MEMORANDUM TO: Jordan Holladay
College of Education

PROTOCOL TITLE: "An Examination of the College Choice of Minority Students in Six Southeastern States"

IRB FILE NUMBER: 18-185 NHR

Thank you for submitting your request for review of your study to the Institutional Review Board for review. According to your description of this project and the intended use, the IRB has determined that your activities as described **do not constitute "human subjects research"** according to the existing guidelines and statutes.

Research means a systematic investigation, including research development, testing and evaluation, designed to develop or contribute to generalizable knowledge. Activities which meet this definition constitute research for purposes of this policy, whether or not they are conducted or supported under a program, which is considered research for other purposes. For example, some demonstration and service programs may include research activities.

Human subject means a living individual about whom an investigator (whether professional or student) conducting research obtains:

- (1) data through intervention or interaction with the individual, or
- (2) identifiable private information.

If there are any changes made which would constitute human subjects research, or if there are any events adverse or otherwise which concern the investigator(s), we encourage you to contact this office for further consultation.

We wish you success in your endeavors and look forward to working with you in your future research activities.

Sincerely,

Dr. Bernie Olin, Phar.D.
Chair of the Institutional Review Board #2
for the Use of Human Subjects in Research

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