Alienation And Race-Related Stress: A Comparison Of Clinical And Counseling Psychology Students Of African Descent

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Alienation and Race-Related Stress:

A Comparison of

Clinical and Counseling Psychology Students

of African Descent

by

Kenya T. Humphries

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of the Requirements for the Degree
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ABSTRACT

Alienation and Race-Related Stress:
Comparison of Doctoral Level African - American Clinical and Counseling Psychology Students and Recent Graduates

Differences between African-American doctoral level clinical and counseling psychology students and recent graduates, was assessed for two variables: alienation and race-related stress. The Index of Race-Related Stress, (IRRS-B), the Dean Alienation Scales, and a demographic data sheet were mailed to 140 identified African-Americans. Results indicated that 65 clinical and 65 counseling participants responded, 52 woman and 46 men. Sixty-five % of participants were 2nd, 3rd, or 4th year students. There was a significant difference between the independent variables on the Dean Alienation Scale. Overall MANOVA was significant, F (3,130) = 40.2, p < .05. A significant difference was not detected for race-related stress. The findings support the position that African-Americans enrolled in programs with similar values report less feelings of alienation.
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I would also like to thank, Marsha White, for being a loving and supportive aunt throughout my life.

This project is dedicated to my loving mother, Brenda Humphries. Thank you for showing me that I could do anything I put my mind to. When I wanted to be an artist you brought me an easel; when I wanted to be a photographer, you brought me a camera. When I wanted to fly, you said, soar high in your imagination. And it is there that I find confidence to turn my dreams into reality.

To my Grandparents, Marion and Samuel Humphries, you will always live in my heart.
CHAPTER I

Introduction

Currently more attention has been focused on the recruiting of minorities to graduate school rather than on what happens to them once enrolled in graduate programs. Recruitment has proven to be important, but access is only part of the problem. Enrollment in graduate school is only a necessary precondition for obtaining a degree and advancement into actual professional status (Blackwell, 1983). Astin (1982) found that the attrition rate for minority students was 70% greater than that for non-minorities. Despite the importance of this issue, little empirical information exists on factors that affect the success and/or failure of Black graduate students.

Ducan (1976) found that Black and other ethnic minority graduate students were not socially integrated into their respective departmental communities. Students reported feeling "on the fringes" of their department. Many reported rarely or never having much dialogue with other graduate students in their departments about their progress in the program or outside interest. In sum, Black and other minority students were isolated from peers and faculty.


Further research has shown a correlation between people who strongly identify with their ethnic heritage and job satisfaction. Jones (2000) found that people who strongly identify with their ethnic heritage are less satisfied with their jobs if the diversity
climate is poor. In addition, ethnic minorities perceive more justice if their work groups are truly multicultural (Jones, 2000). Whites on the other hand, see the workplace as less fair if they're not in the majority (Jones, 2000). These findings also can be related to the graduate school environment.

If there is congruence between individual values and organizational culture, ethnic minorities will experience less race-related stress symptoms and alienation. For example, Quintana and Bernal (1995) compared multicultural training offered in clinical and counseling psychology programs, and concluded that counseling psychology exhibits a stronger commitment to multicultural education than clinical psychology. It was reported that a greater number of counseling programs than clinical programs offered multicultural coursework, provided practicum experience in agencies serving minorities, and used outside agencies for multicultural training. It is important to note that the additional multicultural training services offered by counseling programs will not ensure multicultural competency.

Typically clinical psychology programs are not in line with the world-view of ethnic minorities. For example, researchers surveyed Native American graduate students and found that enrollment in clinical psychology programs was not desirable. This was reportedly due to the emphasis on the medical model, which focuses on psychopathology, and less emphasis on multicultural issues (Martinez, 1997).

Similarly, African American students place more value on multicultural issues and training (Norcross, et. al., 1998). The American Psychological Association (APA) characterizes counseling psychology as being suited for those who have more of an interest in traditionally distinctive areas of vocational, and career processes, minority /
cross-cultural studies and women's studies. Clinical psychology students tend to work with more seriously disturbed populations, are more likely to be trained in projective assessment and less research is geared towards multicultural issues. In contrast, a large portion of the research studies in counseling programs are devoted to minority issues (69%) (Norcross et. al., 1998). Furthermore, the students enrolled in these programs view themselves as more culturally component than those in clinical psychology, possibly because of the lack of clinical exposure to such issues. Also Counseling psychology programs accept a higher percentage of Black and ethnic minorities (25%) than their clinical counterparts (18%) (Norcross et. al, 1998, APA, 2000).

This chapter serves as an introduction to the present study, the purpose of which is to investigate the differences between clinical and counseling psychologists in relation to alienation and race-related stress. A statement of the problems highlights the impact of the study. Also included in this chapter are the hypotheses that serve as the premise of this investigation. After presenting a section setting forth conceptual and operational definitions of terms, the chapter considers the significance of the study. The concluding section provides a summary of the chapter.

Statement of the Problem

Ethnic minority populations are growing at a rate of seven times faster than the population as a whole. If these trends continue it is projected that European Americans will be in the minority by the year 2055 (Stix, 1996).

However this increase in diversity is not reflected in higher education. The shortage of minority students in higher education begins in high school; in 1996, of students aged 25 to 29; 93% European Americans, 86% Asian Americans, 66% African
Americans, 61% of Hispanics were high school graduates (U.S. Department of Education, 1997b). Furthermore only, 14% of African Americans 25- to 29 years old received a bachelor's degree as compared to 32% of European Americans (U.S. Department of Education, 1997b). In 1998, only 4.2% of doctorates in psychology were awarded to African Americans (JBHE, 1999/2000).

As a result, there are few trained African American professionals available to serve the nation's increasingly culturally diverse population. This is important because students with minority backgrounds can bring an exceptionally high level of cultural sensitivity to psychological services.

A number of factors have been cited in the literature as potential barriers to African-American student retention and success at the college level. They include the following: limited financial aid; differences in learning styles and communication styles; less support from professors, family and /or friends; a greater sense of alienation and race-related stress (Neff, 1985, Saenz, Wyatt, Reinard, 1998).

Since it is only through understanding that effective programs and services can be developed, a knowledge base that gathers descriptive and inferential data is needed to guide university administration, faculty, students and others in their efforts toward the realization of greater minority participation.

Definition of Terms

African-American. African American will be used as an umbrella term that does not merely focus on Black Americans indigenous to the south. Rather, it will tie all African based cultures living in American. In addition the terms "African American" and "Black" both refer to people of African descent and will be used interchangeably.
Alienation. Alienation is defined as an individual’s feeling of uneasiness or discomfort, which reflects his exclusion or self-exclusion from social and cultural participation. It is an expression of non-belonging or non-sharing (Dean, 1969).

Alienation is a multidimensional concept consisting of the powerlessness, normlessness, and social isolation components (Dean, 1969). Powerlessness was conceived as a feeling of lack of control over the day to day events in life and as a feeling of being used and manipulated by others for purposes other than one’s own. Normlessness is divided into two components: (a) purposelessness, defined as the loss of socialized values and the absence of values that might give purpose to life, and (b) conflict of norms, defined as the conflict experienced by individuals who internalize contradictory norms. Social isolation was defined as a feeling of separation from the group or of isolation from group standards.

An examination of the literature concerning alienation indicates that African-Americans rank among the most highly alienated members of American society (Dean 1960, Dorsey & Jackson, 1995, Jackson et. al., 1996). Within the university, evidence of African-American alienation can be seen in works dating back as early 1960’s (e.g., Froe, 1964; Powell, 1970; Pruitt, 1970). Studies in recent years also suggest that campus culture is alienating for students of color (Hammond and Yung, 1993). Loo and Rolison (1986) surveyed 109 minority and 54 white students at a California campus and found that the minority students were more socio-culturally alienated than white students. On a 4-point alienation scale, minority students reported the greatest isolation and social alienation in the campus subculture. One reason for the alienating environment is that
college desegregation in the 1960's has not produced fundamental changes in the character and cultural norms of white institutions (Dean, 1969).

Race-Related Stress. A concept that is closely related to alienation is race-related stress. Race-Related stress is defined as stress associated with confronting racism in many social context (Krieger & Sidney, 1996). It is pervasive and universal; for many African Americans, the consequences of experiencing it on a daily basis can be severe. According to Livingston and Marshall (1991) African-Americans face greater demands and are exposed to more race-related sources of stress.

Anderson (1991) contended that because Black Americans often have values that differ from those of the dominant culture, they frequently feel pressure to adapt to or even adopt a Eurocentric orientation. This process of taking on aspects of the dominant culture is referred to as acculturation. Smither (1982) stated that one of the distinguishing characteristics of the acculturation process is its involuntary nature. The member of the minority culture is forced to learn the dominant culture to survive economically. A person's need to be bicultural in a sometimes-hostile environment may cause tension and stress. As the source of this stress is the process of acculturation, it is referred to as acculturative stress, which is defined as "a reduction in the health status of individuals, "which" may include physical, psychological, and social aspects (Berry, Kim, Minde, & Mok, 1987, p. 492). In addition, acculturative stress is associated with lowered mental health status, feelings of marginality and alienation, heightened psychosomatic symptom level, identity confusion, anxiety, and lower self-concepts. Acculturative stress is inversely related to racial socialization and racial identity. Racial socialization is defined by Greene (1990) as "what Black parents communicate to Black children about what it
means to be Black American, what they expect from Black and White persons, how to cope with it, and whether or not the disparaging messages of the broader culture are true” (p.209). Racial identity is defined as a measure of the importance that members of an ethnic group place on their cultural heritage. Thompson, Anderson, Bakemen (2000) conducted a study to determine if racial identity mediates a relationship between racial socialization and acculturative stress in African American university students. The participants for this study were 84 African American undergraduate students attending a university located in the southern part of the United States. Interestingly, the study found that individuals who received more racial socialization were likely to have either pro-Black, anti-White attitudes or pro-White, and anti-Black attitudes. The mere exposure to racial socialization may not be adequate in the development of racial identity and/or defend against race-related stress. Comparatively, a study investigating the psychological and academic adjustment of Black students attending predominantly White institutions, found that students with negative racial identity were more at risk for psychological distress (Neville, & Roderick, 2000).

Research suggests that the experience of specific incidents of racial bias may adversely affect health (Jackson & Packer, 1996). According to Jackson and Packer, (1996) unfair treatment based on one's race may generate psychic distress and other alternations in physiological processes.

A small but growing body of evidence has begun to document that the experience of racial bias is inversely associated with mental health status. A study of Mexican American women residing in southern California found that racial discrimination was
associated with higher levels of psychological distress (Snyder, 1987). In this study, the experience of racial discrimination, based upon being Mexican, was 1 of 12 indicators of stress assessed. The reported level of racial bias was high with more than half (52%) of women indicating they had experienced discrimination in the previous three months. The Center for Epidemiological Studies-Depression Scale (CES-D) was the measure of mental health status utilized in the study, and racial discrimination was more strongly related to a high level of depressive symptoms than any of the other measures of stress. A study of female Hispanic professionals found very high levels of employment-related racial stress (Russo & Johnson, 1987). Eighty-two percent of the women in this study reported that they had experienced racial discrimination at work. Discrimination was associated with higher levels of stress, defined in terms of balancing family and professional roles. In addition, discrimination was associated with lower levels of personal life satisfaction, higher levels of psychological distress and increased feelings of alienation in the work place.

Krieger's (1990) study of Black and White women provides further evidence that racial discrimination is associated with stress. Black women who passively responded to racial discrimination (kept quiet and accepted it) were four times more likely to have high blood pressure than those who coped in a more active manner (talked to others or took other action). Black women were also six times more likely than whites to respond passively to unfair treatment. These findings suggest that Black women accurately perceive themselves as realistically having little control in or over these encounters. Utsey, Ponterotto, Reynolds, Amy & Cancelli (2000) examined the coping behaviors employed by African Americans in their encounters with racism and discrimination. Two
hundred and fourteen participants were administered the Index of Race-Related Stress (Ulsey & Ponterotto, 1996) the Coping Strategy Indicator (Aminrkman, 1990), the Satisfaction With Life Scale (Diner et al., 1985), and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965). Avoidance coping was used significantly more than other coping strategies during encounters with individual racism. Women preferred avoidance coping for racism on a personal level.

Additional Barriers

Although the focus of the investigation is alienation and race-related stress, a demographic data sheet was included to assess student's perceptions of other factors related to success in graduate school. These issues may be broadly considered to be financial, academic, and social factors.

Educational barriers. A number of factors have been cited in the literature as potential barriers to minority student's retention and success at the graduate level (Pruitt & Isaac, 1985; Thomas, 1986; Saenez, 1998). Students are expected to adapt to the milieu of the graduate environment and to all facets of their programs (Anderson, 1989). However, their styles of learning and relating are quite often different from traditional models of acting and interacting. For example, an African American student may feel uncomfortable addressing professors by their first name's, even when instructed to do so by the professor. In fact, the permission to relate to an "elder" or respected individual in such an informal manner may conflict with a different set of values that are maintained by that student and within his or her ethnic minority community (Dorsey & Jackson, 1995).
Social barriers. One of the biggest obstacles that African Americans face in their pursuit of a doctorate in psychology involves the environment of the graduate school (Astin, 1982; Pruitt & Isaac, 1985). For many it is the first time that they are the only minority (Isaac, 1985). This, compounded by experiences of racism and insensitivity (Jones, 1990), can lead to psychological withdrawal (Pruitt & Isaac, 1985), resentment, and a strong desire to discontinue the program.

Garcia (1980) found in her study of Black students in doctoral psychology programs, that these students terminated their enrollment due to equal levels of personal and academic problems. Fifty-four percent of African-American students reportedly feel no connection with the faculty or peers in their programs. Garcia (1980) suggested the absence of Black faculty contributes to this problem. Furthermore only one of six minority students in graduate psychology programs withdrew from his or her program because of academic reasons alone (Garcia & Fowkes, 1987). Students withdrew from their programs because they experienced personal or social problems that affected their abilities to perform well.

Researchers have asserted the need to increase the presence of ethnic minority faculty (Jones, 1990; Nettles, 1990). Unfortunately, this is not an easy task to accomplish, as the solution depends on increasing the doctoral degree attainment of African Americans. There are few African American faculty members because there are equally few numbers of students with doctoral degrees: In 1998 there were 3,676 doctorates awarded in psychology and 155 of those were awarded to African Americans (JBHE, 1999/2000).
It is imperative that this dilemma be resolved, given that the presence of Black faculty has been noted to influence the development, commitment and retention of African American students (Pruitt and Isaac, 1985).

Many African American students may find that school and family obligations conflict (Lopez, 1995). The African American students from low-income families may feel socially isolated from less educated peers, who may have peer expectations that make it more difficult to pursue a college education. In addition they may also feel as if they are socially isolated or alienated on campus (Fisher & Hartmann, 1995).

Loo and Rolison (1986) suggested that the degree to which faculty convey to students feelings of acceptance, support, and encouragement will determine the extent of their feelings of belonging. In their study of Black students at a predominantly White college, they found that positive student / faculty relationships reduced Black students' feelings of alienation and isolation such that they reported the same, not greater, level to drop out as did their White peers.

Researchers have discovered that faculty contact outside of class was determined to be a significant predictor of grade point average (GPA) for black students, especially for Black undergraduates at predominantly White colleges (Sedlacek, 1987). Nettle's (1990) found that graduate students perceived their relationships with faculty to be single most important aspect of their satisfaction and successful completion of their programs.

To complicate matters, many faculty members have limited viewpoints and perspectives relevant to Black students. Furthermore, the absence of powerful Black role models has a direct effect on the loneliness and isolation felt by this group. Black students' learning, development, and identification with the institution are also affected.
Well-intentioned faculty may exhibit conscious and/or unconscious biases and have lower or overly positive expectations for achievement (Rowser, 1994).

Financial Barriers. One final barrier for students in pursuit of a graduate degree is the lack of financial support for the ethnic minority student. Many graduate schools have failed to provide adequate opportunities for ethnic minority students to obtain fellowships, assistantships, and scholarships (Hammond & Yung, 1993). In 1995, the overall median family income was $35,766 for European Americans and only $22,393 for African Americans. In 1995 almost 42% of African Americans lived in poverty, compared to 16% of European Americans (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1997).

Given that African American students frequently come from families with lower incomes, many students struggle with heavy work loads and college coursework (Canabal, 1995). In addition, financial aid is frequently in the form of loans or is based on academic achievement rather than financial need (Aston & Nunez-Wormack, 1990). The form of financial aid is critical. Teaching and research assistantships, and special funds earmarked for ethnic minorities are preferable to loans, which tend to overburden most minority students who are already overwhelmed by undergraduate debt. As a result of these financial barriers, many qualified candidates are being drawn to other professions that offer the promise of more lucrative careers (Pruitt & Isaac, 1985).

**Hypotheses**

The literature on alienation and race-related stress suggests that there is congruence between ethno-cultural values and the environment of school and/or program of study. Research has found that higher congruence between ethno-cultural values leads
to greater satisfaction and fewer symptoms of race-related stress and feelings of 
alienation (Duncan, 1976; Kriger, 1996).

Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed: Hypothesis 1: African 
Americans in counseling psychology programs may report less feelings of alienation, 
than African Americans in clinical psychology programs.

Hypothesis 2: African Americans in counseling psychology programs may report 
less race-relates stress, than African Americans in clinical psychology programs.

The independent variables will be the program of study (doctoral level clinical 
and counseling psychology programs). The dependent variables will be race-related stress 
and alienation as measured by two scales; The Dean Alienation Scale (1961) and The 

Summary

This chapter introduced the purpose of this study which is to examine two social 
factors that affect the success of graduate psychology students: (1) perception of 
alienation as related to the graduate program; and (2) participants reported stress 
symptoms (race-related stress).

The majority of the literature has focused on recruiting minorities to graduate 
school rather than on what happens to them once they graduate. Researchers have found 
that minority graduate students were not socially integrated into their respective 
departmental communities (Duncan, 1976).

According to Jones (1990) ethnic minorities perceive more justice if their work 
groups are truly multicultural. Whites on the other hand, see the workplace as less fair if 
they are not in the majority. These findings can be related to the graduate school
environment. If there is congruence between individual values and organizational culture, ethnic minorities will experience and/or report less feelings of alienation and symptoms of race-related stress.

Further research supports this notion. Quintana and Bernal (1995) found that ethnic minorities enrolled in counseling programs are more satisfied than their clinical counterparts because of the additional multicultural component and typically counseling programs are in line with the worldview of ethnic minorities (Norcross et al. 1998, APA, 2000).
CHAPTER II

Review of the literature

There are few trained African-American professionals available to serve the nations increasingly culturally diverse population. This is important because students with minority backgrounds can bring an exceptionally high level of cultural sensitivity to psychological services.

There is mounting evidence that mental health needs in Black communities throughout the country are not adequately being met by competent practitioners. African-American psychologists, one group among several that could help ameliorate some of the increasing problems in the Black community, are sorely underrepresented in communities where such trends are endemic. African Americans are also underrepresented in most Ph.D. graduate programs in psychology departments across the country, even though an increasing number of Black students have sought and obtained entry into such programs over the past decade. Enrollment in graduate school is only a necessary precondition for obtaining a degree and advancement into actual professional status (Blackwell, 1983). The present study wishes to examine two environmental factors (alienation and race-related stress) that may effect retention of African-Americans that have or are receiving training in clinical and counseling psychology programs. The overarching hypothesis is that individuals who receive training in counseling programs may report fewer incidences of feeling alienated and race-related stress which may be due to the higher enrollment of ethnic minority students and more of an emphasis on multicultural issues.
The Benefit of a African American Psychologist

Griffith and Jones (1979) reviewed the literature on race and psychotherapy and discovered that perspectives on this topic have changed over the years. For quite some time, the field questioned the ability of Black patients to develop adequate therapeutic relationships and alliances with their therapist. These types of attitudes that White clinicians brought into sessions with Black patients were largely based on a deficiency model. Black Americans are frequently characterized by therapists as nonverbal and incapable of dealing with feelings (McGoldrick, Pearce, Giordano, 1999). Many of the defining cultural beliefs and practices of Black patients were viewed as pathological with respect to the traditional theories upon which clinical work was founded. Thus, Black patients who discussed issues of race, perceived discrimination, feelings of group inferiority, in sessions were believed to be resisting the treatment or utilizing their defenses. This routine denial of the Black patient's struggle with his or her identity, and with issues of racism diminished the value of differences among the races as well as the unique characteristics of this culture in particular. Further the lack of trust or "cultural paranoia" may limit individuals willingness to talk openly to a stranger (McGoldrick, Pearce, Giordano, 1999).

The research conducted and guided by this perspective focused mainly upon comparative outcomes among Black and White patients in cross-cultural counseling situations.

VanderCreek and Merrill (1990) reported on a study that confirmed that, among Black patients, there was a preference for counselors of the same ethnicity, but there was no evidence that surfaced in the direction of the superior match. Sue (1988) found that a
similar attitude between the therapist and client was more influential on a number of treatment variables than was the common feature of race.

Cheung (1991) reported on a study that found minority clients to be discouraged from using psychological services due to cultural differences between themselves and staff. The services offered were not felt to be relevant and the techniques utilized by non-minority therapists were not congruent with minority practices. For example, language barriers and therapists' insensitivity to cultural beliefs about the source of emotional and mental problems was a hindrance to minorities' acceptance of mental health services (Hammond and Yung, 1993).

Hammond and Yung (1993) have discussed the effects of the inadequate services provided to minorities and their respondent dissatisfaction. The underuse of community mental health services by these populations could mean that more serious problems are not prevented from occurring. In addition, the effectiveness of service providers may be damaged along with the community's perception of the helpfulness of these services. As such, minority groups are demanding improved services (Griffith & Jones, 1979). Given the under-representation of ethnic minority psychologists, the observed effectiveness of an ethnic match between client and therapist, and the growing need in the minority community for mental health services, one viable solution would seem to be an increase in the number of ethnic minority psychologists or to increase cultural sensitivity.

There are many ways in which minority psychologists could benefit their respective communities. Some believe that they are better able to understand their own people in terms of language (Korchin, 1980); common experiences of discrimination and
stigma (Hammond & Yung, 1993); and knowledge of ethnic and cultural characteristics. Ethnic minority clinicians appear more motivated to work with minority clients and conduct research on minority issues. They serve as identification figures for clients and as exemplars for future generations of minority students. In addition, ethnic minority clinicians can advocate for less restrictive services, to which many group members are referred, as well as contribute to the development of more appropriate prevention programs that enhance the well being of minority group individuals (Hammond & Yung, 1993).

The benefit for having more ethnic minority clinicians is evident. However, people of color are typically underrepresented in higher education.

A Shortage of African American Service Providers

Less than 2% of the doctorates are awarded to African Americans (JBHE, 2000). This is not a new trend. Blackwell (1981) presented a similar picture for first year enrollments in medical and law school. Although minority student enrollment increased from the late 1960's to the mid-1970, few were enrolled in psychology programs.

A shortage of minority service providers, especially in the Black community was most pronounced during the 1960's and 1970's, but it had been felt for years. As far back as 1946, Greene observed, "The race [Black] appears dangerously far behind in the task of developing highly competent specialists for technical service in this field" (p.201). Over twenty five years has been spent strategizing about ways in which more African Americans and other ethnic minorities professionals could be trained to enter the work force. The importance of this issue has been previously stated. It involves the ratio of service providers to those who require the service. African-American psychologist feel
that it is imperative that minority groups be represented proportionately with respect to their numbers in the minority population (Ridley, 1985). Therefore, in order to achieve more appropriate representation, and achieve the imperative set forth by Ridley (1985), graduation rates of ethnic minority students would need to triple their present levels.

Others have projected increases in the minority populations by the end of the twentieth century as justification for continued study in this area (Thomas, 1986). Ethnic minorities constitute one-third of the U.S. population (United States Census, 2000).

**Undergraduate and Graduate Enrollment**

Many studies have closely examined the need for increased participation of minorities in higher education. According to Wilson (1989), between 1975 and 1982, high school graduation rates for Black students increased 29% over previous years. Despite this rise, participation in post-secondary education decreased by 11% during the same period. Although psychology was one of five fields in which Black undergraduates were more likely to enroll, relative to their numbers, than Whites (Thomas, Mingle, & McPartland, 1981), the decline still represented a significant downward shift in the numbers of ethnic minority students available to transition into graduate or professional schools of psychology.

Thomas (1986) noted a similar decrease in four-year college enrollment during the period between the 1976 and 1982. The number of Black and White matriculates dropped, but enrollment of Hispanic undergraduates increased in this seven year span. In spite of this decline in matriculation, Thomas (1986) reported that baccalaureate degree attainment for Blacks and Hispanics remained steady. Thus, there were adequate numbers
of undergraduate minority students available from which graduate schools of psychology could draw.

Although the undergraduate pool of potential graduate psychology students was sufficient, Thomas (1986) remarked that Blacks and Hispanics had made minimal progress during the 1980s in graduate and professional schools of any kind with respect to access and degree attainment. Between 1976 and 1982, Black enrollments in graduate schools decreased, as did White enrollments, by one percent. However, White students still represent almost 80% of total enrollment (APA, 2000). Minority groups fared poorly in professional schools, such as law school and medical school, as well. While Black enrollments remained stable at 4.6% of total enrollment, Hispanic enrollments increased slightly. However, Blacks and Hispanics remained proportionately under-represented in graduate and professional school, in general, relative to their respective numbers of baccalaureate degree recipients.

Many authors have cited various figures pertaining to Black enrollment in graduate education as a whole (Kohout & Pion, 1990; Russo, Olmedo, Stapp & Fucher, 1981). Although early studies indicated an increase in the percentage of Black enrollment in graduate education, in general (National Board on Graduate Education [NBGE], 1976), more recent investigations have reported significant declines within this group (Isaac, 1985, Jones, 1990, APA, 2000). Slaughter (1989) reported a 2.2% decrease in the percentage of black, graduate school matriculations between 1978 and 1983 while Pruitt (1989) observed a decrease of 19.2% between 1976 and 1985 for this same group. From 1986 to 1997, there was almost uninterrupted progress in enrollment, rising almost 12
percentage points (JBHE, 2000). Enrollment then fell for four consecutive quarters before resuming its upward trend in the fall of 1998.

The latest statistics show that the number of Black (2%) and White Ph.D. (10%) recipients is up. But when the rise is compared to the gains in the adult black population, we find that a smaller percentage of all Blacks are earning doctoral degrees.

The American Psychological Association (2001) reports that 11.2% of students in doctoral-level psychology programs are Black. Although these numbers are better than those for graduate psychology school enrollment, they are still not balanced to the numbers of Blacks in the general population.

In addition to this observation, these statistics regarding access to higher education in psychology do not provide any indication of success that Black students achieve once they are enrolled. Padilla (1973) showed that among Black students, there was a smaller percentage of advanced-level students enrolled in a graduate psychology department (4%) than there were first year students enrolled in the same department (8%). Although statistics seem to indicate that access has improved, this study suggests that increased access does not necessarily imply equal numbers of success. In 1999, 3,676 doctorates in psychology were awarded; 4.2% (155), which were awarded to Blacks.

If representation within the profession is to improve, a higher sustained rate of matriculation needs to occur as students progress through their training. Thus, another pertinent issue for the Black student and for the graduate psychology programs involves examining the process of completing graduate school. In other words, now that Blacks are enrolled in these programs what factors contribute to their success or failure?
The problem of access to graduate and professional schools, in general for ethnic minority students has received less attention in the literature than has the problem of access to undergraduate institutions. Much of what has been studied is similar to that found in the undergraduate literature. Many authors have identified educational barriers as a major obstacle with which college graduates must contend upon applying to graduate school (Pruitt & Isaac, 1985; Thomas, 1986). Standardized test performance, grades, and other formal and informal measures of achievement are usually the first variables considered by graduate institutions. One factor directly related to these measures that often immediately disqualifies the ethnic minority candidate is the perceived quality of his or her undergraduate institution, particularly if the college was considered to be a historically Black institution (NBGE, 1976). Some students in this category are admitted to undergraduate institutions, whose standards are considered to be below par by some graduate schools, despite the individual achievement level of the student.

In addition, many graduate schools have failed to provide adequate opportunities for ethnic minority students to obtain fellowships, assistantships, and scholarships (Hammond & Young, 1993). As a result, many qualified candidates are being attracted into specific professions, such as business and law, that offer the promise of lucrative careers (Pruitt & Issac, 1985). Others do not consider study in graduate schools of psychology, specifically, due to the need to spend many years in pursuit of the degree (Bayton, Roberts & Williams, 1970).

Given the numerous hurdles, which many capable and motivated ethnic minority undergraduates encounter within graduate systems of education, there is much room for
reform. Many authors have offered recommendations for improvements specific to the field of psychology that would help to disassemble many of the barriers that now exist. One suggestion has been for graduate schools to become more assertive in their recruitment of ethnic minority students and faculty (Pritt, 1989; Ridley, 1985). This could be accomplished by utilizing ethnic minority psychology organizations as a point of reference. In the process, undergraduates could become increasingly motivated to pursue graduate study in this area and the applicant pool would increase. Hammon and Young (1993) suggest that by forming affiliations with feeder institutions graduate psychology programs could possibly increase there chances of attracting students who might not otherwise be overlooked. Attending to problems in recruitment is only the first step. Although aggressive recruitment is commendable, it is incomplete unless accompanied by specific help in actually gaining entry into the programs (Hammond & Young, 1993).

In addition, incoming minority students are expected to adapt to the milieu of the graduate environment and to all facets of the programs (Anderson, 1989). However, their styles of learning and relating are quite often different from traditional models of acting and interacting. One of the most common indicators of success among the researchers is to the ethnic minority students' adaptation to the graduate school environment.

Adaptation to Graduate School

More attention has focused on recruiting minorities to graduate school than on what happens to them in graduate school. Recruitment is certainly important, but access is not the only issue. Retention is also critical. Enrollment in graduate school is only a necessary precondition for obtaining a degree and advancement into actual professional status (Blackwell, 1983). According to Astin (1982) once enrolled the attrition rate for
minority students is greater than that of nonminorities. Despite the importance of this issue, little empirical information exists on factors that promote the success of minority graduate students.

Although the focus of most studies had been upon academic variables, some research suggests the importance of the campus or the program's social environment in student retention (Hammond & Young, 1993; Taylor, E. & Olswang, 1994; Dorsey & Jackson, 1995). Astin (1975) stressed the importance of participation in the college or university environment as a way of fostering involvement and identification with the college or program itself, and thus enhancing the probability that students will remain enrolled.

In further support of the importance of the social environment is research demonstrating that minority student retention can be predicted by a group of "noncognitive" variables, including involvement in student organizations and support from the student's family for staying in school (Sedlacek, & Brooks, 1976; Tracey & Sedlacek, 1984). Thus, psychological support from the family and involvement with peers may be important to a student's success. Tinto (1975) maintained that the decision to stay in school is a function of both academic and social success experiences. Increased involvement or integration into the social or academic life of the university characterizes success experiences.

Ducan (1976) found that minority graduate students were not socially integrated into their respective departmental communities. Student's reported feeling "on the fringes" of their department. Many reported rarely or never having much dialogue with other graduate students in their department about either their field or intellectual interests.
Nor did they socialize much together. Ducan (1976) and Barid (1974) reported similar patterns for faculty-student relationships. In short, Black and other minority students are isolated from peers and faculty. However, this study does not discuss or examine the external variables which may contribute to these students' isolation. The author allows the reader to speculate on what dynamics cause this isolation.

Researchers have examined how social integration and social support were related to academic performance and psychological well being among 89 Black graduate and professional students at a large Midwestern university. Findings indicate that Black graduates Students were better adjusted, had higher grades, and perceived themselves to be making good progress in their graduate work. These students were also less likely to have considered dropping out of school. In addition, frequency of out-of-school contact with Black faculty and the number of Black students in the department were important social integration and social support variables (Defour & Hirsch, 1990).

*Alienation and Race-Related Stress*

Initially, academic success was viewed as largely related to academic dimensions (e.g., intellectual ability, study habits) [Pentages & Creedon, 1978]. Thus, emphasis was placed in improving study skills and test scores of students, or taking additional course work. More recent research has found student persistence to be related to a number of complex variables including; financial factors, demographic characteristics, socioeconomic status, academic ability, motivation, degree aspirations, personal values, and attitudes, and the environmental characteristics of the college (Cross & Astin, 1981; Fleming, 1984; Nettles, 1988; Sanez, 1998).
Environmental factors of the institution have included studies of racial composition and alienation. Thomas (1981) found that attending a predominantly Black institution increased the likelihood of obtaining a bachelor's degree and of obtaining it within a four-year period. Kemp (1990) stated that the graduation rate of African-American students was much higher at predominately Black colleges and universities than at predominately White universities. He reported a graduation rate of 51% in 1981 for those African American students attending Black universities. Green (1981) reported that in 1986, only 10% of African American students attending predominantly White universities obtained degrees within a five-year period. Kemp (1990) found that higher education rates at Black institutions was due to an environment that is conducive to the personal development of African American students. Thus characteristics facilitative of graduating may be found in any institution regardless of racial composition, but are more likely to be found in Black institutions.

Dorsey and Jackson (1995) examined African-American students' perceptions of factors associated with academic performance at predominantly White institutions. They found that regardless of a high level of academic satisfaction, a sizable percentage reported feeling alienated. The literature concerning alienation indicates that African Americans rank among the most highly alienated members of American society. Within the university, evidence of African-American alienation can be seen in works dating back to the early 1960's (e.g. Froe, 1964; Powell, 1970; Pruitt, 1970) Studies in recent years also suggest that campus culture is alienating for students of color. For example, slightly more than half (55%) of the students felt there was no feeling of shared interests and purposes, nor a strong sense of community on the campus (Dorsey & Jackson 1995).
Almost the same number (50%) reported that services, information, and facilities were not conducive to the success of African American students. In addition, a little over half of these students reported that the campus atmosphere did not promote racial balance. For example, 62% felt the university did not adequately address issues of discrimination and racism. A large percentage of students indicated that it was difficult to make friends. Although many students did not personally experience any overt racism, they perceived a lack of commitment from the university as a whole in regard to meeting the academic and cultural needs of African American students. In addition, Loo and Rolison (1986) surveyed 109 minority and 54 white students at a California campus and found that the minority students were more socio-culturally alienated than White students. On a 4-point alienation scale, minority students reported the greatest isolation and social alienation in the campus sub-culture. Black and Chicano students reported feeling less socially integrated into the university: 37% of the Black and Chicano students "often" felt socially isolated on campus, and one-fourth of the Blacks and the Chicanos did not feel integrated.

A majority of both ethnic minority and white students (70%) believed that minority students faced greater sociocultural difficulties on campus than White students did. Two major reasons for this were given: first, the cultural dominance of White, middle-class values on campus, pressuring minority students to acquire White, middle class values and to reject their own, and second, ethnic isolation resulting from being a small proportion of the student body (Loo & Rolison, 1986). Loo and Rolison (1986) suggest that the alienating environment is that college desegregation in the 1960's did not produce fundamental changes in the character and cultural norms of White institutions.
In addition, African Americans are confronted and must deal with racism on campus. African-Americans experience greater degrees of stressful life experiences than do their White counterparts. Ehrlich's (1990) report on campus ethno-violence found pervasive reports of discrimination, most of which were verbal, even if most African-American students escaped harassment themselves, they knew of others' harassment on campus. Thus, African American students' personal experience with racism on campus and their perceptions of the campus environment can be viewed as mediating the relationship between their academic potential and their performance (Mallinckrodt, 1988). Indeed, some have argued that pre-college academic preparation and the negative environments of campuses are the most powerful factors influencing higher educational achievement in African American youth (Mannan, Charleston, Saghafi, 1986).

It is important to note that given the greater sociocultural alienation of minority students they are not more likely to drop out. Taylor and Olswang (1994) suggest that black students "making it " at the graduate and undergraduate level appear to have exceptional levels of determination, self-confidence and ambition. Students feel that the responsibility for their success lies in their own hands, requiring personal determination and courage.

**Student / Faculty Interactions**

Black faculty representation is another factor warranting serious consideration. Interaction with professors has been found to be an important mechanism in the development of an identity and commitment to the field for graduate students (Kjeruff & Blood, 1973). Fledman (1974) has noted other beneficial effects of this interaction. He found that the more contact graduate students had with professors outside the class, the
more likely they were to plan a university teaching career and to be productive in terms of research activity and articles published during graduate school. Nettles (1990) reported on studies that found that graduate students perceived their relationships with faculty to be the single most important aspect of their satisfaction and important to successful completion of their programs.

These findings are applicable to all graduate students and faculty. However, this interaction has been found to be particularly relevant for ethnic minority graduate students and faculty. Many researchers have suggested the need for additional Black faculty members (Jones 1990; Nettles, 1990, Dorsey & Jackson, 1995). Unfortunately, this has not been an easy task to fulfill, as the solution depends on increasing the doctoral degree attainment of ethnic minority students. This is because current conditions are reflective of a paradoxical dilemma: There are few ethnic minority faculty members because there are equally few numbers of students with doctoral degrees, and there are few ethnic minority students with doctorates due to the lack of ethnic minority faculty available to mentor them and guide them toward careers in higher education (Nettle, 1990, Washington, 1989).

Therefore it is important that this dilemma be resolved, given that the presence of Black faculty has been noted to influence the development of sociopolitical professional identity (Watts 1987), and ultimately, commitment and retention. They noted that some faculty members, functioning as mentors, advocate for students, guide their advisees through university bureaucracy, and recommend them for jobs. In addition, Black faculty members can help to buffer any antagonisms perceived by ethnic minority students on predominantly White campus (Washington, 1989).
Social Support. Level of social support, defined by the frequency of social contacts, emerges as a moderating factor in students' reports of stressful life changes and of emotional and health problems. According to Goplerud (1980) students who feel alienated or socially isolated reported more events, more intense events, and greater cumulative stress than did socially supported students. Research by Warheit (1979) involving life events and coping revealed that social support was protective against the development of depressive symptomatology. Subjects who reported the presence of personal, familial, and interpersonal resources in their lives exhibited significantly less depression than subjects with fewer or no resources in the face of high life event change (For example, death of family member or financial loss.) related specifically to loss. In fact, those who stated that they had no friends nearby expressed the greatest levels of depression. Here, social support was shown to prevent the onset of more serious mental health conditions for subjects in a high-risk, crisis situation. Further evidence of the benefits of social support come from a study of on African American women. Brown, Elliot, & Tyan (2000) surveyed 73 college-educated African American women. They examined the relationship between life stress, perceived helpfulness of support sources and well being. Sources of support were deemed helpful. Female friends and female family members were perceived to be the most helpful. Life stress was negatively related to emotional and spiritual health and positively related to depression. These findings support the importance of supportive social relationships to promote well-being and to buffer the strain of life problems (Brown, Elliott, Tyan, 2000).
Although most studies of social support in graduate school have focused on the effects of peer contacts, Hartnett (1976) has pointed to the quality and quantity of faculty-student interactions. His extensive interview and survey data indicated that the extent to which students felt accepted and respected by members of the faculty, and the degree to which graduate students were able to relate to faculty as friends and colleagues rather than unapproachable superiors, was the most salient feature of the graduate school climate. These findings are also related to reports of stress, general morale, and psychological withdrawal. This outcome with respect to African-American students should be taken into account when the literature on social support and the psychological well being of graduate students are being assessed. Goplerud (1980) examined whether the frequency or quality of faculty/student relations during the first few weeks of graduate school affected newly enrolled students' perceptions of stress during their first semester. In order to identify the relationships among the variables, he measured four sets of variables: (1) students' feelings about peer and faculty support; (2) the students' general satisfaction with their graduate school experiences; (3) the number, intensity, and duration of stressful life changes that occurred during the first semester; (4) and the reported numbers of health and/or emotional problems that subjects experienced during that same period. He found that the level of support students received, as reflected in frequency of contact, was a moderating factor in those students' reports of stressful life changes and emotional and health problems. In fact, an inverse relationship emerged between subjects' reported frequency of social interactions with peers and faculty and the incidence of stressful life events and number of psychological disturbances experienced during the first semester. Those subjects who were determined to be more socially
isolated reported a greater number of stressful events, a greater intensity of those events, greater numbers of emotional problems, and more cumulative stress than did socially supported subjects.

Not only was frequency of contact a significant variable in the Goplerud (1980) study, but the quality of those contacts was significant. The quality of faculty/student interactions was a factor that moderated the negative consequences of changes associated with beginning graduate school. A major finding was that the more often students interacted outside of class with faculty during the first few weeks of school, the less likely they were to report intense or prolonged life disruptions during the first semester of graduate school. Moreover, when students found non-class interactions with faculty emotionally or intellectually satisfying, the less likely were they to experience significant emotional distress during their first half-year of school.

Goplerud's (1980) research was important because it supported much of the research cited earlier regarding faculty members as key figures on the socialization process for graduate students. As dominant members of the social settings of the graduate school, faculty provides entering students with vital day-to-day feedback, assessments of their individual performance, and help in gauging their aptitude for graduate work.

Given the literature reviewed thus far, we begin to understand that social support appears to be a crucial variable that moderates the negative consequences of the unavoidable life changes that occur for the graduate student. Developing faculty awareness of their critical influence on graduate students' health and emotional well-being and helping new students expand their socially supportive contacts appear to be important primary and secondary
prevention strategies to reduce graduate students' and particularly the African-Americans students' risk for [race-related] stress-related problems and feeling alienated.

*Ethnic diversity in clinical and counseling psychology*

Minority recruitment into graduate education has been identified as a means to increase the availability of clinicians prepared to serve ethnic minority groups (Bernal & Castro 1994). However, minorities have remained underrepresented in the field. Leaving non-minority psychologists primarily responsible for providing services (Bernal & Castro, 1994; Olmedo, 1990). Furthermore, even if minority psychologists were adequately represented, proponents (Wyatt & Parham, 1985) of multicultural education have argued that minority status does not guarantee knowledge about the needs of various ethnic groups. Therefore, it is necessary to provide training to ensure multicultural competence among minority and non-minority psychologists.

Multicultural education could also serve to enhance the recruitment of minority students into psychology graduate programs. Ponterotto et al. (1995) studied the process by which a sample of African American and Hispanic American students evaluated application materials for school and counseling psychology programs, and distinguished factors that were influencing the students' decision to apply. The researchers found that, "consistently, multicultural coursework was identified by participants as an area of personal interest and as a topic necessary to the program in general" (Ponterotto et. al., 1995, p.200).

A survey of multicultural training in 121 school psychology programs (Rogers, Ponterotto, Coneley & Wise, 1992) showed that a majority of the programs (60%) included multicultural courses in their curriculum, and many of those programs (75%)
also required this coursework for completion of the degree. However, access to ethnic minority clients on practicum sites was limited.

In evaluation of multicultural training among 56 community psychology programs, Suarez-Blaczar et al. (1994) indicated that a large proportion of the programs provided required coursework (48%) and elective multicultural coursework (55%), offered clinical practicum experience with minority clients (87%), and conducted research on minority-related issues (70%). However, only half of the community programs required multicultural coursework. In addition, few programs had multicultural research as a requirement, and ethnic minority faculty members.

In 1992 researchers, Hill and Strozier, found that 87% of the 49 APA-accredited clinical programs they surveyed provided at least one course on multicultural issues, and 45% offered a multicultural subspecialty to students. Slightly more than 40% of the programs, did not make the multicultural coursework a requirement for graduation (Hills & Strozier, 1992). In addition, they found that tenured faculty were less involved in the multicultural training and the majority of responsibility fell on junior or adjunct faculty.

Toia et al (1997) found that minority students' rated interest in ethnic minority information was significantly higher than those of directors. The minority students also assigned significantly higher ratings to the importance of ethnic minority clinical training and ethnic minority research training. The minority students' ratings on the effectiveness of their programs' training to serve minority groups was significantly lower than directors ratings.

Quintana and Bernal (1995) compared multicultural training offered in clinical and counseling psychology programs, and surmised that counseling psychology exhibits
a stronger commitment to multicultural education than clinical psychology does. These authors reported that a greater proportion of counseling programs than clinical programs offered multicultural coursework, provided practicum experience in agencies serving minorities, had faculty who conduct research for multicultural training. They emphasized, however, that counseling programs, like clinical programs, provide training that only enhances multicultural sensitivity but does not ensure multicultural competency. In addition, Norcross et. al. (1998) found that ethnic minority students apply to more counseling than clinical programs because of the multicultural features. Furthermore, students in counseling programs reported feeling more multiculturally competent than their clinical counterparts (Norcross et.al, 1998).

Ethnic minorities were less likely to apply to clinical psychology programs. This has been associated with the assumption that clinical programs are not in line with the worldview of minorities (Saenz et. al., 1998). One study examined Native American undergraduate psychology students' perception of clinical psychology programs. This researcher found that the students rejected clinical psychology because of its medical model and focus on psychopathology (Saenz, 1998). Faculty was more likely to be involved in research with pathological populations. Clinical programs were also associated with medical settings and were less involved in research concerning career processes, human diversity, and other social issues.

The literature review, on alienation and race-related stress, suggest that there is congruence between ethno-cultural values and the environment of school and/or program of study. Research has found that higher congruence between ethno-cultural values leads
to greater satisfaction and less symptoms of race-related stress and feelings of alienation (Ducan, 1976; Kriger, 1996; Norcross et. al, 1998). This present study wishes to determine the following: In fact, students in counseling psychology programs perceive that these programs are more in congruence with the world-view of African-Americans than do students in clinical programs. If so, will there be a significant difference among the two group's feelings of alienation and race-related stress. In other words, will counseling psychology participants report fewer feelings of alienation and race-related stress than their clinical counterparts.
CHAPTER III

Methodology

This chapter contains 4 sections, which provides detailed information about the design and methodology used in this study: The Participants section reports the general characteristics of study participants along with ethical considerations. The Instruments section describes each of the measures used in the study: the Dean Alienation Scale (Dean, 1961) and the Index of Race-Related Stress (IRRS)- Brief version (Utsey, 1999). In addition, information on validity and reliability data for each instrument will be provided. The Procedures section outlines the techniques used to select participants. The Hypotheses and Statistical Analyses section lists the research hypotheses and provides a brief description of the analytic procedures to be employed in testing the hypotheses. Lastly the Summary section provides a synopsis of the chapter.

Participants

Participants were selected based on program of study; doctoral level clinical and counseling psychology programs. In all one hundred and thirty participants of African descent were selected and equally divided between the two groups; clinical (n=65) and counseling psychology (n=65). Fifty-two women (53%) and forty-six men (47%) participated in the study. 65% of respondents were second, third, or fourth year graduated students, no first year students responded to survey, and 32% were in their fifth year of graduate school or more. 2% were recent graduates. This researcher did not include gender, SES, years in program, or age differences as part if the data analysis.
Procedures

Three hundred and fifty participants were identified via membership lists (i.e. American Psychological Association (APA) and the Association of Black Psychologist (ABPsi). Participants were identified via organizational meetings, class rosters, as well as personal and professional contacts of the researcher. Participants were solicited from college and university settings across the United States.

Every third person from the complied list was mailed a packet containing Dean's Alienation Scale, Index of Race-Related Stress-Brief Version (IRRS)-B, and demographic data sheet. A cover letter was attached to the packet that informed the participants of their right to withdraw from participation at anytime without regard to any negative consequences. They were informed that their responses to the questionnaires were confidential and that each person's identity was anonymous. Though no harmful effects were anticipated as a result of completing the questionnaires, participants were still made aware of the option to contact the researcher in the study or to seek professional help.

After the participants completed the questionnaires they were mailed to the researcher, a stamped envelope with the researcher's address was provided. All participants were given the necessary information to contact the researcher if they were interested in receiving feedback on the study's findings.

Two weeks after the initial mailing a, reminder card was mailed. After two months with no response every other person on the membership list was mailed a survey.
A total of 230 surveys were mailed nationwide and 140 responded. 10 of the 140 could not be used because program of study was not indicated.

**Power Analysis**

There are two independent variables (counseling and clinical psychology programs) and two dependent variables (alienation and race-related stress). Power is expressed; \( n \) (sample size) / \( p \) (total number of variables). The sample size consists of 130 subjects (\( n \)) and 2 variables (\( p \)). The \( n/p \) formula yields a 65 to 1 ratio (Stevens, 1986). An analysis of the power charts in Lipsey (1990) confirms this size population is sufficient to detect a medium effect size at a .05 alpha level. The assumption of equality of (homogeneity) of regression slopes determined no evidence of violation of the equal slopes assumption. The multivariate effect size for the population was determined with the following equation \( D^2 = N \cdot T^2 / n_1 \cdot n_2 = 130 \cdot (23) / 65(65) = .70 \). A multivariate effect size \( \geq .50 \) is adequate.

Data from the study was appropriately coded to protect the anonymity of the participants and entered into SPSS (1999) version 10 for the appropriate statistical analysis.

**Instruments**

**Demographic data sheet.** Participants completed a Demographic Data Sheet to collect information about age, gender, years in program, progress in program, factors that may hinder success and factors that may contribute to academic success.
Dean's Alienation Scale. In the present study the Dean Alienation scale was used to compare clinical and counseling participants on alienation and three of its components: Powerlessness, Normlessness, and Social Isolation.

The Dean Alienation Scale (Dean, 1961) is a 24 item multidimensional measure of alienation comprised of three subscales designed to measure the components of interest. In all nine powerlessness, six normlessness, and nine social isolation items were formulated and randomly assigned a position in the scale.

The response set consists of a five choice agree-disagree Likert-type continuum upon which the respondent is asked to indicate the degree of his/her agreement or disagreement with each statement. Each item is scored on a 1 to 5 basis, with 1 being assigned to the least alienated response and 5 to the most alienated. The total score for each individual is obtained by totaling his item scores.

On the basis of the findings of an intercorrelation matrix, Dean concluded that the scale components belonged to the same general concept of alienation, but that there existed sufficient independents among the subscales to warrant their treatment as independent variables. From this evidence it appears that it would be appropriate that data analysis would be one that included each subscale as well as the total (Dean, 1961). A previous study using Dean's Alienation Scale determined that correlation coefficients produced by the powerlessness, normlessness, and social isolation, indicates that the subscales are contributing to the measurement of the same scale property (Burchach, H. et, al. 1971). In addition, the relatively small amount of variance explained by the correlation's indicated that they can be considered as independent variables. Therefore the
groups of interest will be compared on each subscale score and on their combined total as well. A total of 139 items presumably measuring Alienation were typed on 3 x 5 index cards. The author used seven experts to judge each statement as to its applicability or non-applicability, first, to the component of Powerlessness, then Normlessness, and finally Social Isolation. The reliability of the sub-scales ranged from .73 to .84, suggesting a moderate to high level of reliability for these measures.

The three sub-scales were combined to make the Alienation scale, which consist of 24 items. The items from each of the sub-scales were rotated in order to minimize the possibility of a halo effect. The total Alienation scale had a reliability of .78 when corrected. The correlation coefficients between the sub-scales were, considerably above the .01 level of significance: powerlessness (.67), normlessness (.41) and social isolation (.54). This suggests that it is quite feasible to consider the sub-scales as belonging to the same general concept. However, there appears to be enough independence among the sub-scales to warrant treating them as independent variables.

In 1971, Burbach, aimed to examine whether there was racial differences on alienation and three of its specific dimensions in a sample of entering college freshmen. The setting for the study was a large, urban university located in the northeastern region of the country. Subjects were selected from among all students who had been accepted for admission as freshman in the fall of 1969. In all, 528 subjects were selected from Black (n=97), White (n=428) and Puerto Rican (n=55) groups. All subjects were mailed the Dean Alienation Scale together with a letter introducing the study; 568 returned the scales which were usable for data analysis. The return rates for the Black, White, and Puerto Rican groups were 66.90, 81.52, and 78.18 percent, respectively (Burbach, 1971).
Burbach's findings indicated that the Black group attained the highest mean scores on each of the scales [Powerlessness- mean (29.58) SD (5.23), Normlessness- mean (18.23) SD (4.46), Social Isolation- mean (24.18) SD (4.46) and Alienation total – mean (71.99) SD (10.70)].

The comparison of the Black and White groups yielded significant t-ratios on the powerlessness (2.63) and normlessness (2.27) dimensions and on general alienation (2.25). The comparison between the two minority groups produced a significant difference on social isolation (3.16) and general alienation (2.28). In the remaining comparison, a significant difference between the White and Puerto Rican groups on social isolation (3.62).

In sum, the comparison between Black and White groups showed Blacks to be more alienated than whites in the powerlessness and normlessness sense. Puerto Rican groups were found to be less socially isolated than the White and Black groups. One possible explanation for this finding was in the nature of the sample. All Puerto Rican students were included in the study due to a smaller population. As a result, the Puerto Rican sample was not representative of the urban Puerto Rican population.

The Index of Race-Related Stress - Brief Version. The Index of Race-Related Stress (IRRS)- Brief-Version (Utsey, 1999) is a 22-item multidimensional measure of race-related stress experienced by African-Americans as a result of their encounter with racism. The 22 items represent three factors: The cultural racism subscale consists of ten items and is intended to measure the experience of racism as related to one's culture being maligned. The institutional racism subscale consists of six items and is intended to assess racism embedded in the policies and practices of a given institution. The individual
racism subscale consists of six items and assess racism on an interpersonal level. In completing the IRRS-B, respondents are asked to indicate which race-related events they (or a family member) have experienced in their lifetime: then on a 5 point Likert-type scale (0 = this has never happened to me, 1 = event happened but did not bother me, 2 = event happened to me and I was slightly upset, 3 = event happened and I was upset, 4 = event happened and I was extremely upset) indicate their reaction to the event.

The IRRS-B was developed from the longer version, which contains 46 items. The author reanalyzed the data set from the original study using exploratory factor-analytic techniques (Utsey, 1999). The sample consisted of 207 women and 92 men of African American descent from various colleges and universities in an urban center of the northeastern United States. "Confirmatory Factor Analytic (CFA) procedure were then used to test whether the conceptual model of racism proposed by Jones (1972) and measured the by the original IRRS (Utsey & Ponterotto, 1996) fit the data in the present version of the IRRS p.157."

CFA procedures supported a three-factor (cultural, institutional, and individual) model. In addition, the three subscales and the Global Racism measure of the IRRS-B demonstrated adequate internal consistency for both the standard factor structure and the aggregate item factor structure. The moderate subscale intercorrelation coefficients produced by the IRRS-B indicated that the subscales were measuring distinct aspects of a related construct (i.e. race-related stress).

Additional evidence for the validity of the IRRS was demonstrated in the correctional study with a similar measure of race-related stress. Walsh and Betz's (1995) group-differences approach with a subsample of Whites (n=25), to establish the criterion-
related validity. The results found that African Americans scored slightly higher than Whites on the subscales and global measure of the IRRS-B.

A multivariate analysis of variance was performed to compare the Black subsample with the White subsample. The analysis produced a significant result, Hotellings' $\mathbf{T}^2 = .445, F(3, 264) = 39.13, p < .001$. Subsequent univariate $F$ test and mean examination indicated that Blacks scored significantly higher than whites on Cultural Racism, $F(1, 268) = 108.38, p < .001$; Institutional Racism, $F(1, 268) = 13.14, p < .001$; Individual Racism, $F(1, 268) = 33.32, p < .001$; and the Global Racism measure, $F(1, 268) = 53.88, p < .001$ (Utsey, 1999). These findings were consistent with those of the original IRRS development study (Utsey & Ponterro, 1996).

Statistical Analysis

In this study, two hypotheses were tested to assess whether they are supported by the data. Hypothesis 1 states that counseling psychology participants will report less feeling of alienation than clinical psychology participants. Hypothesis 2 states that counseling psychology participants will report less race-related stress, than clinical psychology participants.

The statistical analysis of variables in this study used a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) model. There are two independent variables and two dependent variables. The independent variables are clinical and counseling psychology programs and the dependent variables are alienation and race-related stress. Multivariate techniques make use of the intercorrelations among the Dean Alienation and IRRS-B scales that measures the dependent variables that cannot be addressed in a series of univariate analyses. The linear combinations of dependent variables analyzed in MANOVA,
represent concepts different from those of each variable taken alone (Hasse & Ellis, 1987). MANOVA was used to determine if there is any significant difference between African-Americans from clinical and counseling programs in their reported feelings of alienation and race-related stress.
CHAPTER IV

Analysis of Data

This chapter represents the statistical analysis of data that determined if a significant difference existed between African-American clinical and counseling psychology participants based on how they responded to alienation and race-related stress surveys. The first section describes the participants in the study; the second section describes the data that were analyzed; the third section describes the results of the exploratory analysis of these data; and the fourth section describes the tests of hypotheses and the results of the data analysis. Finally, a summary of results is presented in the last section.

Data Description

Three types of data were collected and/or analyzed in this study: (a) demographic data which included age, gender and program; (b) Dean-Alienation Scale (Dean, 1961) which measured individuals uneasiness or discomfort, and reflected his/her exclusion or self-exclusion from social and cultural participation; and (c) race-related stress was measured by the Index of Race-Related Stress (IRRS)-Brief Version (Utsey, 1999).

The variables analyzed in this study were divided into two sets. The first sets (independent variables) were called program groups, comprised of clinical and counseling psychology. The second set (dependent variables) were called the Participant Outcome Variables, comprised of alienation and race-related stress. The results of data analyses on these variables are reported next.
Descriptive Statistics

Demographic data. Screening of all data was performed as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (1996). Accuracy of data input was confirmed and no outliers were present. Information from the general information survey was collected for descriptive purposes; clinical and counseling psychology programs were not compared on these variables. Results of the entire survey are presented in appendix A. Most respondents were single and over the age of 30. 48.3% of the respondents were somewhat satisfied with their programs and 28.3% were somewhat dissatisfied with their programs. Respondents received an equal number of As and Bs (51.2%) or mostly Bs (20.9%). Responses indicated that the majority of African Americans have briefly considered leaving their programs (74.4%). Overall the program's learning environment was described as non-supportive (51%). Faculty was described as helpful, but difficult to approach (39.5%) or approachable but not helpful (25.6%). The top four factors that hindered academic success in graduate psychology programs where the following: 1) financial difficulties, 2) lack of perceived support from faculty, 3) family member obligations, and 4) lack of study time.

Alienation. The concept of alienation was measured using the Dean Alienation Scale (Dean, 1961). The Dean Alienation Scale has three subscales designed to measure the components of interest (i.e., powerlessness, normlessness, and social isolation).
The Cronbach's alphas for the Alienation scale were .78 for the Powerlessness subscale, .73 for the Social Isolation subscale, and .78 for the Normlessness subscale.

The three subscales were combined to make the Alienation scale. The total Alienation scale had a reliability of .73 when corrected. The correlation coefficients between the sub-scales were, considerably beyond the .01 level of significance. The Powerlessness subscale correlated .65 with the Normlessness subscale, .53 with the Social Isolation subscale, and .90 with the Alienation measure. The Normlessness subscale correlated .42 with the Social Isolation subscale, and .81 with the Alienation measure. This suggests that it is quite feasible to consider the subscales are belonging to the same general concept. However, there appears to be enough independence among the subscales to warrant treating them as independent variables (see table 1). From this evidence it appears that it would be appropriate that data analysis be one that included each subscale as well as the total.
Table 1

Subscale Intercorrelations Among the Alienation Scale Components
(N = 130)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>Normlessness</th>
<th>Social Isolation</th>
<th>Alienation (Total)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Powerlessness</td>
<td>.65*</td>
<td>.53**</td>
<td>.90**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normlessness</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.42*</td>
<td>.81*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Isolation</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.75*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.01  
*p<.05

Race-Related Stress. The Index of Race-Related Stress-Brief Version (IRRS-B) (Utsey, 1999) is a multidimensional measure of race-related stress experienced by African-Americans as result of their reported encounters with racism. The IRRS-B has three sub-scales designed to measure the concept to interest (cultural racism, individual racism, and institutional racism).

The Cronbach's alphas for the IRRS-B were .78 for the Cultural Racism subscales, .69 for the Institutional Racism subscale, and .78 for the Individual Racism subscale. Person product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to determine the subscale intercorrelations of the IRRS-B. The Cultural Racism subscale correlated .53 with the Individual Racism subscale, .66 with the Institutional Racism subscale, and .86 with the Global Racism measure. The Individual Racism subscale correlated .75 with the Institutional Racism
subscale and .87 with the Global Racism measure. The institutional racism subscale correlated .87 with the Global Racism measure. The high correlation between the IRRS-B's (see table 2) sub-scales and the total scale (Global Racism measure) suggests that the instrument's sub-scales are measuring related yet distinct aspects of the same construct.

Table 2
Subscale Intercorrelations for the Index of Race-Related Stress-Brief Version (IRRS-B)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>Institutional Racism</th>
<th>Individual Racism</th>
<th>Global Racism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Racism</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.53**</td>
<td>.86**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional Racism</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.75**</td>
<td>.87**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual Racism</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.89**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Racism</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.01

Test of Hypotheses

Two statistical tests were performed on the data to test the two hypotheses proposed in this study. These tests were (a) multivariate analysis of variance, and (b) univariate F test. The results of each test, as they related to the study's hypotheses, are described in the next two sections.
Statistical Analysis

Alienation. To determine if the counseling group differed significantly from the clinical group on reports of alienation, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed. The results indicated that with the use of Hotelling's T² the overall MANOVA was significant, F (3,130) = 40.2, p < .05. Subsequent univariate F test and mean examination revealed a significant difference for the following subscales: Powerlessness, F (1, 130) = 68.3, p < .01; Social Isolation, F (1,130) = 100, p < .01; and Alienation, F (1, 130) = 56.75, p < .01. Normlessness was not significant, F (1,130) = .76, p > .01. The counseling group (M = 65.37, SD = 10.57) reported less overall feeling of Alienation than the clinical group (M = 65.02, SD = 7.85). The clinical group obtained higher mean scores on the Powerlessness (M = 24.58, SD = 3.64) than the counseling program (M = 11.1, SD = 3.92). The clinical group obtained a higher mean score (M = 28.09, SD = 5.43) on the Social Isolation subscale than the counseling group (M = 12.30, SD = 7.21). No significant difference was obtained on the Normlessness subscale for the clinical (M = 5.67, SD = 5.03) or counseling (M = 5.67, SD = 5.52) group. The largest difference was detected on the Social Isolation subscale (15.78), then the Powerlessness subscale (13.47). The smallest difference was on the Normlessness subscale (.32). This data did not yield a marginal effect. See table 3 for the Alienation means and standard deviations for the counseling and clinical groups.
Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for the Clinical and Counseling 
groups on Alienation Measures.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>Counseling</th>
<th>Clinical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Powerlessness</td>
<td>11.11</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normlessness</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>5.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Isolation</td>
<td>12.30</td>
<td>7.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alienation</td>
<td>65.02</td>
<td>7.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .01

Race-Related Stress. A multivariate analysis of variance was performed to 
compare the counseling group with the clinical group. This analysis did not 
produce a significant result, Hotelling's $T^2$, $F(3, 130) = 1.65$, $p > .05$. See Table 4 
for the IRRS-B means and standard deviations.
Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations for Clinical and Counseling Groups on The Race-Related Stress Measures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>Clinical</th>
<th></th>
<th>Counseling</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Racism</td>
<td>28.00</td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td>28.09</td>
<td>5.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional Racism</td>
<td>16.15</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>16.16</td>
<td>3.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual Racism</td>
<td>23.11</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>23.02</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Racism</td>
<td>69.72</td>
<td>10.92</td>
<td>68.93</td>
<td>8.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary

The results of the data analyses were examined in order to determine whether significant differences existed between clinical and counseling psychology groups, of African American descent, in reports of alienation and race-related stress. The scores of one hundred and thirty African Americans who have received training in clinical and counseling doctoral level programs were used to complete the data analysis. In addition to a general information form, the instruments used in the study were the Dean Alienation Scale (Dean, 1961), and the Index of Race-Related Stress-Brief Version (IRRS-B) (Utsey, 1999).
Fifty-two women (53%) and Forty-six men (47%) participated in the study. The majority of the respondents were single and over the age of 30. Most respondents were somewhat satisfied with their programs, received an equal number of As & Bs, briefly considered leaving their programs. Programs learning environment were described as non-supportive and faculty was deemed helpful but difficult to approach. Financial difficulties and lack of support from family were among factors that hindered academic success in graduate psychology programs. Factors that were believed to help academic success were interaction with faculty mentors and increased financial support. Responses from the survey were not used as variables in the statistical analysis.

The Index of Race-Related Stress-Brief Version (IRRS-B) and The Dean Alienation Scale were used to assess the concepts of interest.

To determine if a significant difference existed between the clinical and counseling psychology groups a MANOVA was performed. The first hypothesis, that participants who receive training in counseling programs will report less alienation than their clinical counterparts, was supported by the statistical analysis.

The second hypothesis, that participants who receive training in counseling programs will report less symptoms of race-related stress than their clinical counterparts. Although, both groups experienced race-related stress, the two groups were not significantly different on this measure.
CHAPTER V

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

This final chapter discusses the results of the data analyses conducted in this study, and provides directions for future research. The first section presents the findings of this investigation, determined as a result of the analysis of the data. The second section highlights the major contributions of this dissertation to our understanding of the experience of African Americans in doctoral psychology programs. Two variables of particular interest were alienation and race-related stress. The third section describes the limitations of the present study, and the fourth section suggests areas for future empirical research and implications.

Study Hypotheses

The literature on alienation and race-related stress suggests that there is congruence between ethno-cultural values and environment of school and/or programs of study. Research has found that higher congruence between ethno-cultural values leads to greater satisfaction and less symptoms of race-relates stress and feelings of alienation (Ducan, 1976; Kriger, 1996). Therefore, the following hypothesis were studied: 1) African Americans who receive training in counseling psychology programs may report less feelings of alienation, than African Americans who receive training in clinical psychology programs, 2) African Americans who receive training in counseling psychology programs may report less feeling of race-related stress, than African Americans who receive training in clinical psychology programs.
The independent variables are the clinical and counseling groups; and the
dependent variables are the subscales of the Dean Alienation Scale
(powerlessness, normlessness, social isolation) and IRRS-B (individual racism,
institutional racism, cultural racism). The next section discusses the findings in
relation to the hypotheses tested.

Summary and Discussion of Findings

A multivariate analysis of variance was performed to compare the
independent variables. Results of the statistical analysis revealed a significant
result. The counseling psychology group, reported less feelings of Alienation than
the clinical psychology group. The clinical psychology group attained higher
mean scores on the Powerlessness and Social Isolation subscales. The mean
scores for Normlessness were not found to be statistically significant.

The literature suggests that there is congruence between ethno-cultural
values and the environment of school and/or program of study. Research has
found that higher congruence between ethno-cultural values leads to greater
satisfaction and fewer symptoms of alienation or social isolation (Jones, 2000).

Ethnic minorities are less likely to apply to clinical psychology programs.
This has been associated with the assumption that clinical programs are not in line
with worldview of minorities (Sanaz et. al., 1998). Students rejected clinical
psychology because of the focus on the medical model and the lack emphasis on
research concerning career processes, human diversity, and other social issues.
Also counseling psychology generally accepts a higher percentage of minority
students (25%) than their clinical counterparts (10%); and tend to have more than one ethnic minority at any given time in their programs (i.e. student and/or staff).

According to Nobles (1980), people of African descent are communal/relational-oriented people, thus interpersonal relationships would be very important in their daily functioning. With few positive images, symbols, and other resources in the environment pertaining to African American people, these students are left with little to confront the negative challenges (Jackson, 1995). Thus it may be stated that no matter how outstanding the academic institution, ethnic minorities can feel alienated if their representation is small. Additional factors may have also have effected the outcome of this study.

One's attitudes, cognitions, level of acculturation and behaviors toward one's racial group, and other racial groups, and the dominant racial group (i.e. white) are factors that can effect responses to the survey. For example, Neville, Heppner, and Wang (1997) found that higher Immersion/Emersion (identified with Black culture and denigrates White culture) were associated with greater perceived stressors and less effective problem-solving appraisal.

The second hypotheses that students of counseling psychology may report less feelings of race-related stress than the clinical psychology group was not supported by the statistical analysis. Although both groups experienced race-related stress, there was no significant difference between the two groups. Subsequent univariate tests and mean comparisons indicated that the counseling group did not score significantly higher than the clinical group on the IRRS-B subscales: cultural racism, institutional racism, individual racism and the global
racism measure. A possible explanation for this outcome could be the concept of race-related stress. As stated in the review of the literature, race-related stress is a multidimensional concept. Racism is an omnipresent stressor in the lives of African Americans (Jones, 1972). It can be considered a "daily hassle", which African Americans are forced to confront. African Americans confront racism in many social contexts such as, employment, public places and in educational, residential, medical, and judicial contexts. African Americans may choose denial and self-degradation, others may embrace vigilance and resistance, and others may accept the status quo. Some recent research emphasizes that racism cannot be studied in isolation. One study, found that persons under financial strain, as well as those who perceived their neighborhoods to be unsafe and deficient in basic services, were more likely to be upset by racial discrimination (James et. al., 1996). In addition, James et. al. (1996) found that Black woman were 6 times more likely than Whites to respond passively to racial bias and unfair treatment. This suggests that Black women perceive themselves as having little control over or in these encounters. Although this study did not examine gender difference, the previous study does provide a possible factor that may have affected responses of participants.

In sum, race-related stress is an environmental factor that does affect African American graduate students. However, the research does not support the notion that higher congruence with ethno-cultural values leads to fewer reports of race-related stress (Jones, 2000).
Additional factors that may have affected both hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 2 include but are not limited to geographic location of the university. For example, if a university is located in an isolated rural setting, the African American students surely may have a greater cultural adjustment upon arrival, even when compared to White students from large metropolitan areas (D' Auelli & Hershberger, 1993).

Contributions of Present Research

The data from the study does support earlier studies that recognize the influence of alienation and race-related stress as environmental factors that affect African Americans who receive their training in both clinical and counseling psychology doctoral programs.

Most strikingly, the results of this study offer strong support for the literature on alienation which suggests that congruence between ethno-cultural values and the organizational environment leads to greater satisfaction and less feelings of social isolation and alienation. It has been previously explained that traditionally counseling psychology programs are more in line with the world-view of minorities, are more involved in research concerning multicultural issues and generally accept more ethnic minorities to their programs than clinical programs. Re-testing the same population with different measures to examine alienation and race-related stress would lend more credibility to this study if similar results were yielded.
Limitations of this Study

The limitations of this study involve various aspects of validity and reliability. The first of these is related to the characteristics of the chosen group. Only African Americans who received training in counseling and clinical psychology programs were chosen for this sample; school, marriage & family therapy, and other psychology programs were not represented. Only black graduate students were selected for the research, due to the need expressed within the setting and the literature, to address the black students' perceptions of their experiences.

Because of the heterogeneity that has been discussed previously within this seemingly homogenous group, the current sample can not be portrayed as necessarily representative of all black graduate students (Nettles, 1990). Exploring the differences between the various African based cultures could have enriched the study. In addition, immigration status of this population is not known.

A second limitation involves a relatively moderate number of subjects were included in the sample. Due to the initial low response rate to surveys, the randomization procedure was modified; this modification could have affected reliability and validity.

Although response rate was high for a mail survey, the power to detect any effect among variables in the study may have been diminished by only selecting subjects from two psychology programs. This could explain why relatively few significant relationships or differences were detected.
Another important consideration refers to the possible desire of the survey participants to please the investigator, an African American graduate student. Subjects may have unwittingly or purposefully colored their responses so as to reflect what they perceived to be the "right" or "best" answer. Their intent may have been to make things easy for the investigator when; in fact, they may have biased the findings. Similarly, investigator bias is another potential limitation that must be addressed. That the investigator was a black graduate student at the time of the study might have influenced the manner, in which the methodology was formulated, the responses were scored, or the results were interpreted. Despite the fact that numerous precautions were taken to avoid these pitfalls, human fallibility must be taken into account.

Reliance upon subjects' self-reports of events also influenced validity and reliability of the study. Self-reports of subjective perceptions of prior behaviors, thoughts, or events in the absence of data that corresponded with direct observation limits in the internal validity of the results (DeFour & Hirsch, 1990). In addition, different results may have been obtained at a different time of year and/or with different scales that measure the same general concepts.

This study may not represent the view of African Americans who received training from historically Black universities or programs that are non-APA accredited. Students who dropped out of doctoral programs and first year students are not represented this study did not examine gender, cohort, SES, age or grade point averages. The demographic survey did not allow participants to indicate exact year in program. Therefore it can not be determined of the majority of
participants were; second, third, or fourth year students. In addition, participants were not asked to indicate the geographic location of school on the demographic data. For example students who are new on campus will surely have other stressors and adjustment demands. The geographical distance of the university from the students' hometowns is important. African American students who attend predominantly White colleges located in their own metropolitan area would experience a very different transition, as would students who reside with their families. The social climate for African American students surely varies from campus to campus as well, as do the amount and the quality of supportive resources available. In any event, individual campuses must be studied to determine the nature of their climate for diversity.

While limited in generalizability, the study provides valuable insight into the environmental factors that effect African Americans while in graduate school. These preliminary findings can be used to inform the direction of future research.

*Direction for Future Research and Clinical Implications*

The following recommendations may be helpful in improving African American students' perceptions of program climate and would decrease their feelings of alienation and race-related stress. A commitment must be made by administrators to increase diversity in psychology programs. This commitment must be operationalized in all units on campus, academic as well as student life. These preventive steps must be implemented by educational integration of African American issues into the curriculum. Creating an affirmative climate can
only occur if all members of the university community-faculty, students, and staff- are drawn into the educational process.

Black students must be encouraged to seek support from each other. Therefore, the formation of rap groups, dissertation groups, and such that include only Black graduate student participants is strongly recommended. Brown, Parker-Dominquez, and Sorey (2000) examined the relationships between life stress, perceived helpfulness of support sources, and well being among 73 college-educated African American women. Results suggested that African American women benefit from support and guidance of older women, who have developed effective ways of coping with stress.

At the same time, Black graduate psychology students cannot exist as an island unto themselves. Provisions must be made, at every step of their development, to incorporate them into the field. In this way, students should not wholly be responsible for initiating contact, but others, especially black and non-black faculty and other professionals should begin the process of interaction.

their practical applications suggested by the findings concern increasing faculty awareness on a number of accounts. Faculty must be made aware of the influence of the perceptions and cues that they transmit to black graduate psychology students. They must actively seek feedback from this group in order to gain insight into how these aspects affect their contact with this group. In doing so, it would be crucial that they recognize and honor the diversity of values, belief systems, and behaviors that black graduate students bring with them. Forums in which these issues could be openly addressed would be beneficial in
demonstrating to black graduate students their institutions commitment to their success.

Future research should be designed to include other graduate psychology programs. In addition, social interaction among African Americans may be a function of their ethnic identity developmental stage. Ethnic identity literature (Cross, 1791; Helms, 1991; Parham & Helms, 1985) indicates that students may experience varying levels of closeness to their own cultural group depending on their stage of ethnic identity development. Thus, future research could examine the relationship between ethnic identity and reported symptoms of race-related stress and/or alienation.

These recommendations are minimal in terms of what is needed to ensure that greater numbers of ethnic minorities are trained to provide services to their communities. However, it constitutes a first step in the process of more fully understanding what improvements are needed in the area of environmental factors that effect African Americans while in graduate school. Hopefully, the suggestions for future endeavors will help to expand and redefine our knowledge, with the goal being to improve the structure, content, and functioning of graduate psychology programs.
References


