

The Educational Diversity Project



Results for Diversity of Experience (Section C) from the EDP
Baseline Survey of Incoming Law Students
2006-06

EDP



THE UNIVERSITY
of NORTH CAROLINA
at CHAPEL HILL

An Empirical Study of the Relationship between Race and Educational Diversity in U.S. Law Schools: The Educational Diversity Project

Results for Diversity of Experience (Section C) from the
EDP Baseline Survey of Incoming Law Students
2006-06

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This publication should be cited as:

Panter, A. T., Daye, C. E., Allen, W. A., & Wightman, L. F. (2006).

An Empirical Study of the Relationship between Race and Educational Diversity in U.S. Law Schools: Results for Diversity of Experience from the EDP Baseline Survey of Incoming Law Students [Research Report: 06-06].

Chapel Hill, NC: The Educational Diversity Project.

Additional copies of this report and an executive summary may be obtained from <www.unc.edu/edp>.

Acknowledgements

The Educational Diversity Project is a national longitudinal study investigating relations between race/ethnicity (and other person characteristics) and educational diversity in U. S. law students. This study is a collaborative effort and has dependent on numerous data sources. We could not have assembled this rich data set without the good will and efforts on many individuals.

During our project period we continued to rely on the deans, admission officers, and law school faculty continued to support this project and provide assistance when we called upon them. We could not have conducted this study without the students who completed the baseline EDP survey in Fall 2004 and the focus group participants.

Meera Deo and Michael Peterman provide constant and outstanding support to the EDP. We are thankful for their thoughtful and scholarly contributions to the project.

At the L. L. Thurstone Psychometric Laboratory, Jason Derrick, our project manager, has worked tirelessly on the project's day-to-day management, interfacing with the 64 IRBs, showing enormous conscientiousness, dedication, and judgment in all aspects of the Year 3 web survey and the project at large. Nisha Gottfredson and Rachel Upton have contributed with data analysis, review of the study components, and in the overall functioning of the project. We thank our web designer, Elizabeth Lansing, for preparing a beautiful website for our project (www.unc.edu/edp) and her careful work as a research assistant throughout the project. We also extend our very special thanks to Anna Cruz, for her four undergraduate years of assistance on this project.

Dr. William Kalsbeek, the director of the Survey Research Unit at the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, has provided outstanding sampling guidance. We benefited from the excellent advice and help from Andrea Thornton at LSAC.

The opinions and conclusions contained in this report are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of LSAC.

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June 2007

Introduction

The *Grutter v. Bollinger* (2003) Supreme Court case ruled that, because diversity “promotes learning outcomes” and “better prepares students for an increasingly diverse workforce and society,” it is legally acceptable for institutes of higher education to narrowly tailor their admissions policies for purposes of achieving “the educational benefits that flow from a diverse student body.” A major goal of the Educational Diversity Project (EDP) was to determine whether a quantifiable measure of diversity exists, and to identify such a measure.

Section C of the EDP Baseline survey is related to student past experiences as they entered law school in the Fall of 2004. It covers issues about lifetime discrimination, microaggressions, and coping mechanisms that students use when they experience discrimination. Section C also asks about college-related activities, coursework, interactions with students of different race/ethnicities, and faculty/mentor relationships. This technical report describes past experiences with education and discrimination in the baseline EDP sample.

In addition to describing the sample, this report summarizes how each past experiences assessed in section C relate to race/ethnicity and gender. Individuals of different race/ethnicities, and of different genders, may differ in terms of their life experiences, and thus provide an informative measure of student diversity.

Results for Diversity of Experiences (Section C)

Experienced Discrimination

Lifetime Discrimination

Respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they felt that they have ever experienced discrimination or adverse treatment due to race/ethnicity, gender, or another personal characteristic. For each of these areas, respondents indicated whether or not discrimination occurred:

1. During their years as an undergraduate
2. In the work environment
3. In their daily life.

Respondents also were asked about discrimination during the law school admission process, but due to limited exposure to law school, these responses showed low variability. Three composites were created – one for discrimination due to race, one for discrimination due to gender, and one for discrimination due to a personal characteristic. Each of the three composites summarized whether or not respondents experienced discrimination during their undergraduate years, in the work environment, or in their daily life.

Moderate to high reliability coefficients were obtained for the three-item composites for Race Discrimination ($\alpha = .73$), Gender Discrimination ($\alpha = .75$), and Discrimination due to a Personal Characteristic ($\alpha = .84$).

Separate ordinal regression models were tested for each of the three composite scores (scaled from zero to three denoting the number of areas of life where discrimination occurred), with race/ethnicity, gender, and their interaction as predictors.²

- **Discrimination due to Race.** Discrimination due to race was strongly predicted by respondent race, and to some extent gender ($ES = .26$). Students of color had higher odds of stating that race discrimination happened in multiple domains of their lives than White students. Women had slightly lower odds of stating that race discrimination occurred.
- **Discrimination due to Gender.** Discrimination due to gender was strongly predicted by respondent race, gender, and the interaction between race and gender ($ES = .32$). The main effects showed that African American students and women had higher odds of experiencing gender discrimination, whereas Hispanic/Latino/a students had lower odds. There was a statistically significant interaction such that students who were African American women and Multiracial women of Color had lower odds of reporting gender discrimination.
- **Discrimination Due to Personal Characteristics.** Personal characteristics was weakly predicted by respondent race, gender, and their interaction ($ES = .03$). African American students, Multiracial Students of Color, Multiracial White students, and women had higher odds of indicating that they had experienced discrimination in these domains as a function of a personal characteristic. There was an interaction such that Multiracial White students who were women had lower odds of reporting discrimination to a personal characteristic compared to White males. Weight and socio-economic status were most often cited and causes of discrimination.

Everyday Discrimination or Microaggressions

We assessed day-to-day discrimination using a version of the Everyday Discrimination Scale (microaggression) scale (Williams, Yu, Jackson, & Anderson, 1997). The scale includes 11 items that ask respondents to indicate the extent to which they experience daily assaults (e.g., being treated with less courtesy and respect than others, having people act as if they are not smart or dishonest, or being followed around in stores). Everyday discrimination (microaggressions) were rated on a six-point scale ranging from “Never” (1) to “Almost Everyday” (6).

In the core EDP sample, regardless of race or gender, microaggressions were experienced around once a year ($M = 2.04$). Following recommendations about scaling this item set, an 11-item scale was created, with an internal consistency coefficient of .89.³

A linear regression model showed that race, gender, and their interaction strongly predicted microaggression scores ($ES = .13$), with race accounting for nearly all of the microaggression variability.

² We also conducted these analyses using a dichotomous outcome of “no discrimination reported” in the area versus “discrimination reported”; the ordinal regressions findings closely parallel these findings.

³ Factor analyses (with multiply imputed data and treating items as ordered categories) show evidence for three underlying dimensions: A Comparative factor (i.e., people think they are better than you), an Insult factor, and a Experienced Discrimination factor. It looks like the race effects will be associated with the Comparative factor and the Experienced Discrimination factor but not the Insult factor.

African American students ($M = 2.67$) and Multiracial Students of Color ($M = 2.49$) had the highest mean microaggression scores, whereas Hispanic/Latino/ (non Mexican) students ($M = 1.89$), White students ($M = 1.91$), and Multiracial White students ($M = 2.04$) reported the lowest microaggression means.

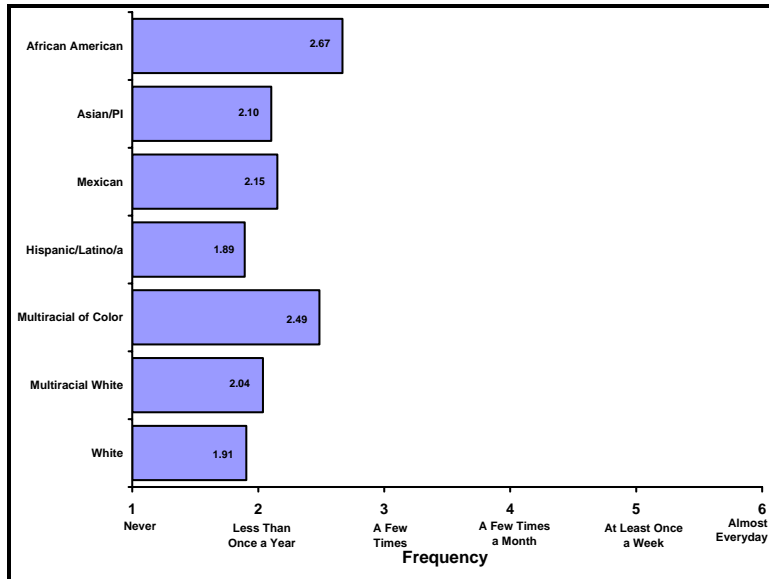


Figure 1. Everyday Discrimination as a Function of Race

Specific Experiences of Discrimination

Respondents were asked whether or not they had experienced any of five specific instances of discrimination (unfair police behavior, discouraged by teacher, neighbors made life difficult, receipt of poor service, and not hired for a job). A fifth of the sample (20.9%) experienced unfair police behavior; 13.0% of the sample was discouraged by a teacher; 9.1% had neighbors make life difficult; 15.7% received poor service; 9.6% were not hired for a job. For these last two items (receiving poor service and not being hired for a job), respondents were more likely to state that they did not know, rather than responding that the discrimination did or did not happen.

Figure 2 shows the percentage of students who experienced at least one form of discrimination as a function of race/ethnicity.

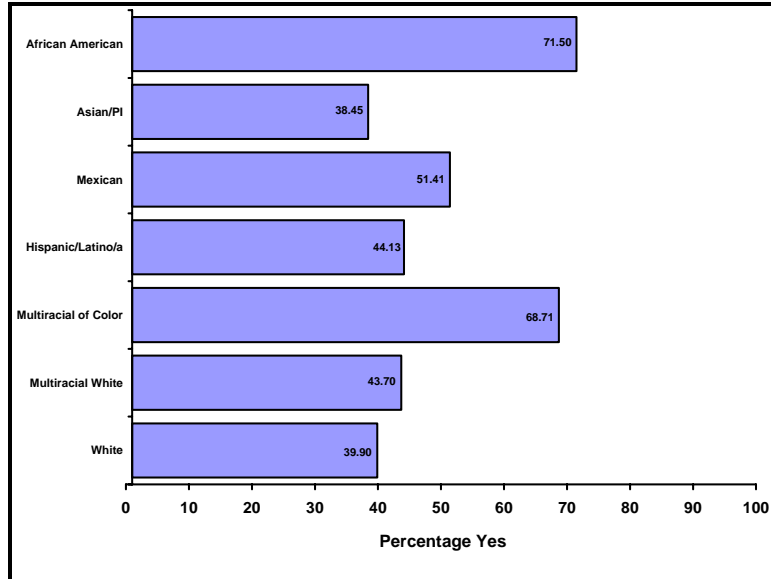


Figure 2. Percentage Experienced Any Discrimination as a Function of Race

A logistic regression was conducted to predict whether or not the occurrence of any of the five behaviors depended on race, gender, and their interaction. The findings showed a statistically significant model ($ES = .06$), with race accounting for most of the effect. Specifically, compared to White students:

- Multiracial Students of Color had over eight times the odds of experiencing one of these forms of discrimination ($OR = 8.12$; $.95\ CI = 3.78, 17.44$).
- African American students had over six times the odds of experiencing one of these forms of discrimination ($OR = 6.72$, $.95\ CI = 4.62, 9.78$)
- Mexican students had twice the odds of experiencing one of these forms of discrimination ($OR = 1.71$; $.95\ CI = 1.08, 2.71$).
- Women were slightly more likely to experience one of these forms of discrimination, but the effect is small and potentially unreliable because the confidence intervals include one ($OR = 1.16$; $.95\ CI = 1.03, 1.32$).

The above findings are qualified by two interactions that emerged between race and gender. These interactions suggest that there may be a protective factor for women students of color. Multiracial women of Color ($OR = .28$; $.95\ CI = .12, .66$) and African American women ($OR = .43$; $.95\ CI = .28, .66$) had lower odds of reporting these forms of discrimination than White males.⁴

A Poisson regression model was evaluated with the same predictors (race, gender, and their interaction) predicting the number of times (out of five) respondents indicated that they experienced this discrimination. These findings mirror the prior analysis, with the model indicating that students of color experienced more of these forms of discrimination than White students.⁵

⁴ When these items are treated separately as dichotomies, the strongest effects ($ES = .10$) are associated with unfair police behavior and being discouraged by a teacher from continuing education.

⁵ When items were analyzed separately, gender main effects were obtained – in different directions –

Coping Mechanisms in the Face of Racial Conflict

37.1% of the EDP sample indicated that they experienced adverse interactions or conflicts, based on race, involving a person of a different racial background. Figure 3 shows the percentage of respondents who indicated that they experienced this type of adverse interaction, as a function of race.

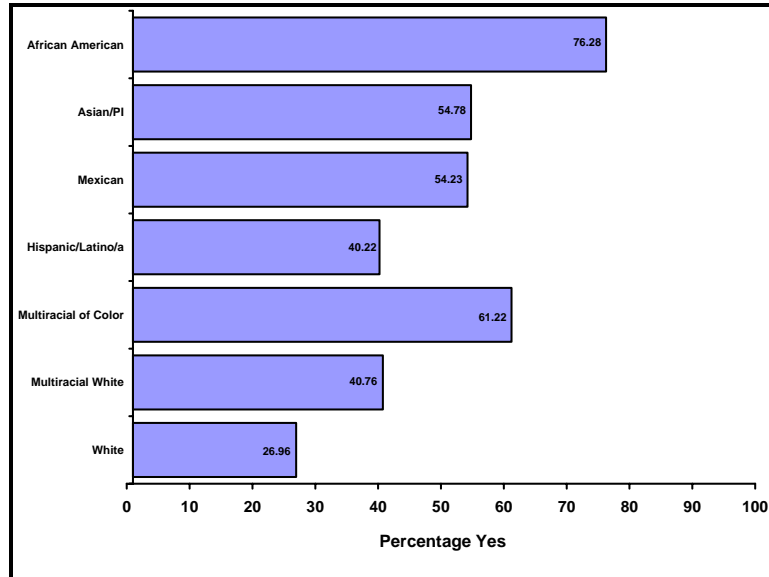


Figure 3. Percentage Experienced a Racially-Charged Interaction as a Function of Race

A logistic regression predicting whether or not students experienced such adverse interactions or conflicts was conducted, with race, gender, and their interaction as predictors. The model was statistically significant and accounted for a moderate amount of variability in the dichotomous outcome ($ES = .15$).

Students of color, especially African American students and Multiracial Students of Color, had higher odds than White students of experiencing adverse interactions or conflicts about race. The results are as follows:

- African Americans ($OR = 8.23$; $.95\ CI = 5.80, 11.68$)
- Multiracial of Color ($OR = 6.42$; $.95\ CI = 3.42, 12.06$)
- Asian/PI ($OR = 3.81$; $.95\ CI = 2.855, 5.07$)
- Mexican ($OR = 3.45$; $.95\ CI = 2.168, 5.48$)
- Multiracial White ($OR = 1.77$; $.95\ CI = 1.28, 2.46$)
- The strongest effects associated with race involved the coping strategies of “working harder to prove them wrong,” “talk to a friend of my same race about it,” and “pray about it.”

across items. Men were more likely to be the subject of unfair police behavior, and women were more likely to have been discouraged by a teacher or advisor about education and to have received poor service from a plumber or mechanic.

Neighborhood Attributes While Growing Up

We asked three questions to learn more about the types of neighborhoods in which respondents grew up. These questions were:

1. While growing up, how often were there problems with muggings, burglaries, assaults, or anything else like that in your neighborhood?
2. While growing up, how often were drugs sold and/or used in your neighborhood?
3. While growing up, there was a strong “sense of community” in my neighborhood.

Ratings for the first two items were made on a scale from *Never* (1) to *Very Often* (5), while ratings for the last item was made on a scale ranging from *Strongly Disagree* (1) to *Strongly Agree* (5). The correlation between the first two items was .58, but these two items did not correlate with the third item ($r_s = -.18, -.16$).

The three items were analyzed using a multivariate analysis of variance with race, gender, and their interaction as factors, and the three neighborhood items as the outcomes. The multivariate model showed that the strongest statistically significant effects were associated with race.

- **Muggings, Burglaries, Assault.** On the basis of follow-up univariate analyses for each item of the model, effects for the muggings, burglaries, and assault item were strongest ($R^2 = .07$). White students, Asian/PI students, and Multiracial White students had lower means on this item than Hispanic/Latino students, African American students, Mexican students, and Multiracial Students of Color.

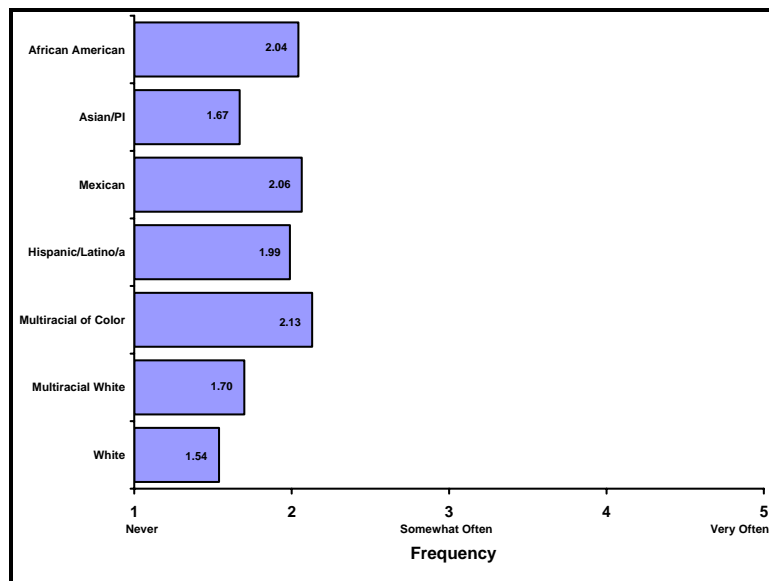


Figure 4. Frequency of Neighborhood Muggings, Burglaries, and Other Problems as a Function of Race

- **Drugs Sold and Used.** Small effects were obtained for the drugs sold and used item ($R^2 = .05$). Asian/PI students and White students had the lowest means, whereas Multiracial Students of Color and African Americans had the highest means.

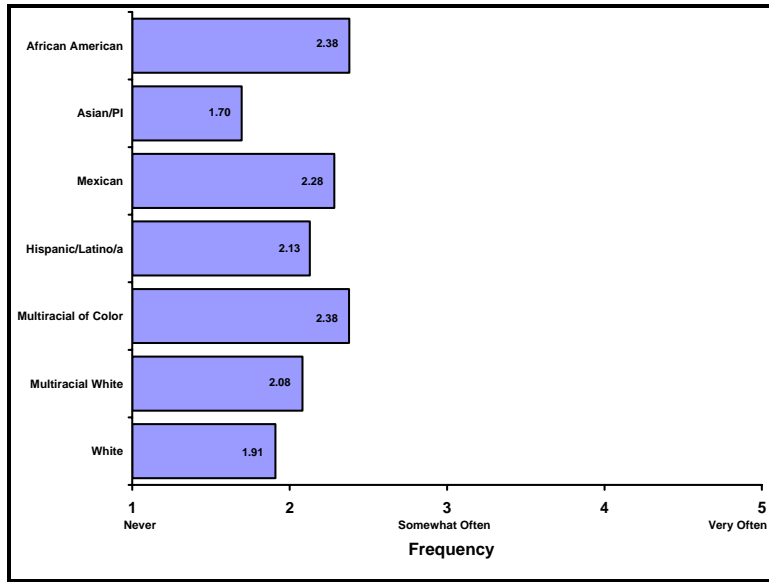


Figure 5. Frequency of Neighborhood Drug Dealing and Use as a Function of Race

- **Sense of Community.** Very small effects were obtained for the sense of community item ($R^2 = .02$). Asian/PI students and Mexican students had lower means than White students and African American students.

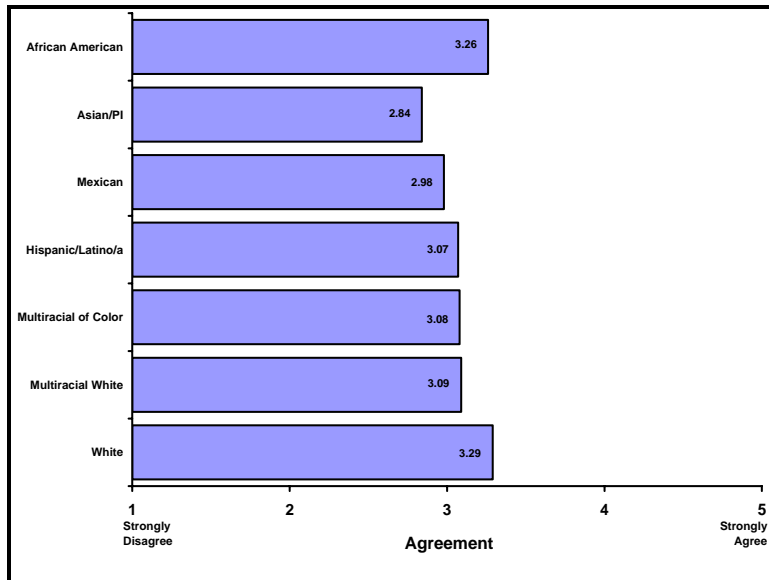


Figure 6. Sense of Community as a Function of Race

Academic Activities and Experiences during Undergraduate Years

Students were asked how often they engaged in a number of academic behaviors during their undergraduate years on a scale from *Never* (1) to *Very Often* (5). The items were grouped into three composites:

- **Intergroup Contact** (three items; $\alpha = .78$). This scale assessed how often students had close friends, from a different racial/ethnic group, dated someone from a different racial/ethnic group, and studied with someone from a different racial/ethnic group.
- **Ethnic Studies and Women's Studies** (three items; $\alpha = .75$). This scale looked at how often students took ethnic studies classes, women's studies classes, and attended cultural awareness programs.
- **Missed Responsibilities** (two items; $\alpha = .65$). This index tapped how often students missed academic responsibilities due to employment or family issues.

Two additional items, which were treated separately in analyses, tapped how often students discussed racial issues and how often students met with faculty outside of class.

The three scales and two items were outcome variables in a multivariate analysis of variance with race, gender, and their interaction as predictors. The overall multivariate model with these five indicators of academic behavior showed a moderately large effect ($R^2 = .13$). The findings showed statistically significant multivariate effects for all factors, but the larger effects tended to be associated with ethnicity (multivariate $ES = .18$) and, to some extent, gender (multivariate $ES = .07$). The interaction between ethnicity and gender did not strongly predict any of the academic behaviors.

Race/ethnicity predicted student exposure to individuals of different ethnicities ($ES = .12$), courses taken in ethnic studies and women's studies ($R^2 = .03$), how often racial issues were discussed ($ES = .05$), and, to a small extent, whether or not students missed classes due to family or work responsibilities ($ES = .01$). Meeting with faculty outside of class did not show a strong effect as a function of race/ethnicity.

White students ($M = 2.76$) and African American students ($M = 2.86$) interacted less often with individuals of different ethnicities compared to Asian/PI students ($M = 3.71$) and Multiracial Students of Color ($M = 3.86$).

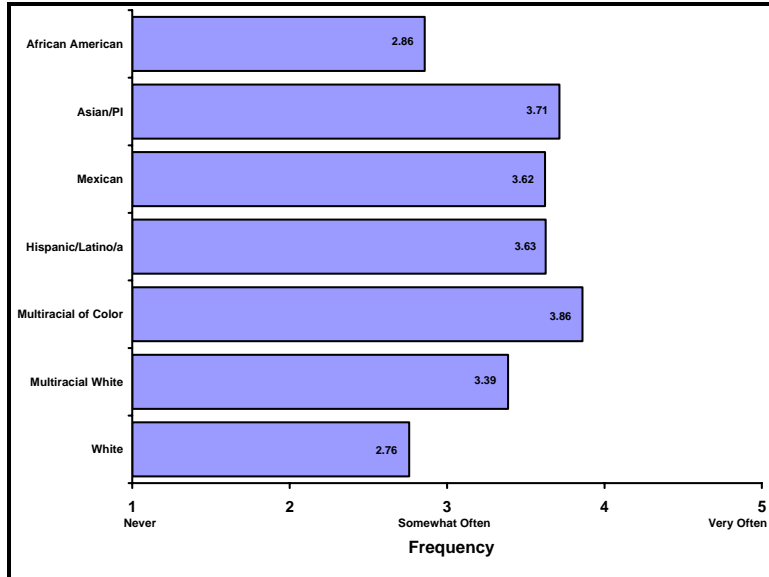


Figure 7. Frequency of Interacting with Students of Different Ethnicities as a Function of Race

White students ($M = 2.08$), Hispanic/Latino students ($M = 2.24$), Multiracial White students ($M = 2.24$), and Mexican students ($M = 2.28$) reported taking ethnic studies and women’s studies courses less frequently than African American students ($M = 2.71$) and Multiracial Students of Color ($M = 2.81$).

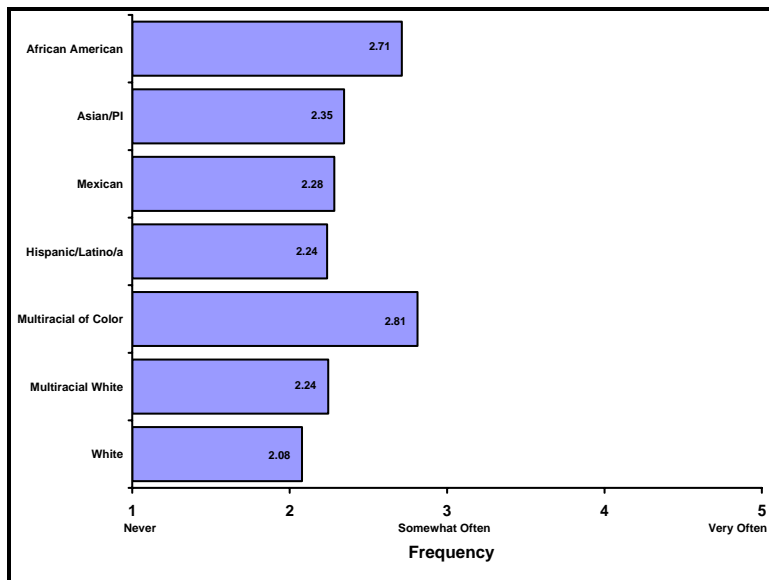


Figure 8. Frequency of Taking Ethnic Studies or Women’s Studies Courses as a Function of Race

Asian/PI students ($M = 1.50$), White students (mean 1.54), African American students ($M = 1.55$), and Multiracial White students ($M = 1.60$) missed class due to work and family responsibilities less often than Mexican students ($M = 1.81$) and Multiracial Students of Color ($M = 1.88$).

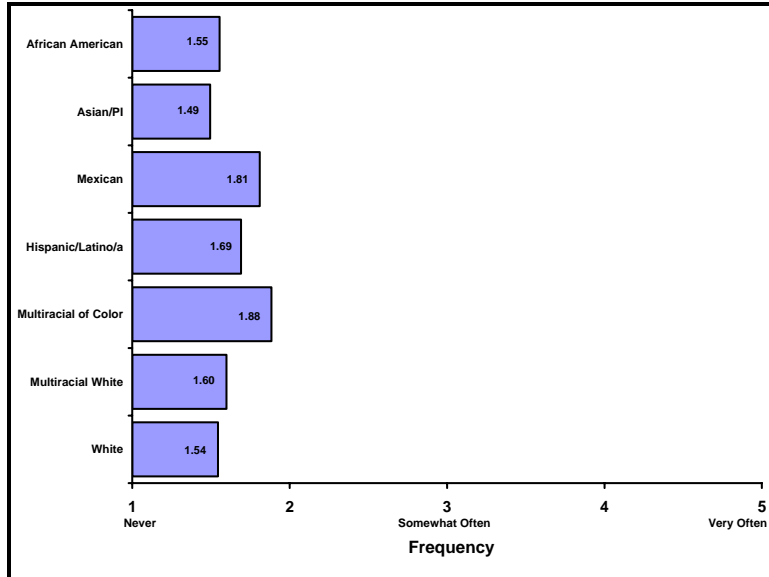


Figure 9. Frequency of Missing Class for Family or Work Reasons as a Function of Race

African American students ($M = 3.78$) and Multiracial Students of Color ($M = 3.69$) reported discussing racial issues significantly more often than all other racial/ethnic groups.

Gender predicted the extent to which courses were taken in ethnic studies and women’s studies, with women taking these courses more often ($M = 2.47$) than men ($M = 1.91$).

Participated in Certain Activities or Types of Discussions When an Undergraduate

Students indicated whether they experienced a number of academic and extracurricular contexts during their undergraduate year. A series of logistic regressions probed whether or not these contexts were experienced as a function of race/ethnicity, gender, and their interaction.

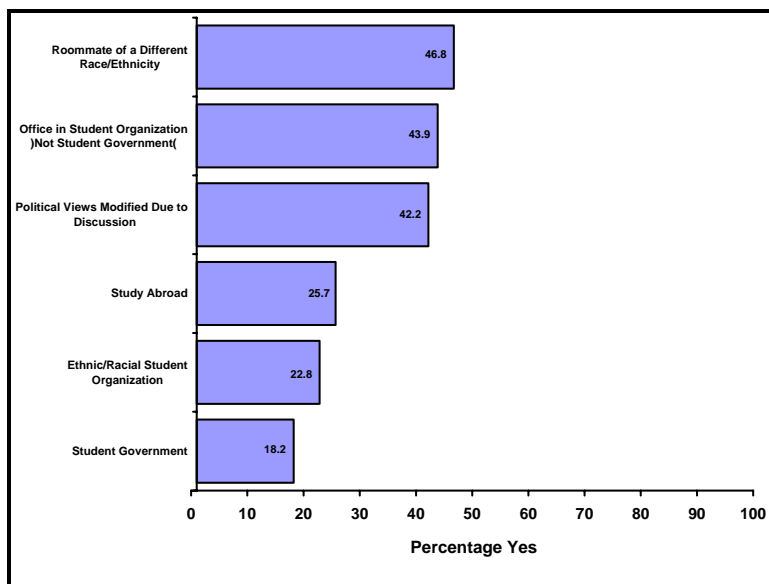


Figure 10. Percent participating in Academic or Extracurricular Activities

There were statistically significant effects with race (and sometimes gender) predicting whether or not students reported participating in these activities or discussions during senior year of college.

Participating in an ethnic/racial student organization ($ES = .26$)

- African American students ($OR = 11.86$; $.95 CI = 8.57, 16.41$)
- Multiracial Students of Color ($OR = 10.04$; $.95 CI = 5.59, 18.01$)
- Asian/PI students ($OR = 8.11$; $.95 CI = 5.98, 10.99$)
- Mexican students ($OR = 5.39$; $.95 CI = 3.31, 8.78$)
- Hispanic/Latino/a students ($OR = 4.30$; $.95 CI = 2.66, 6.94$)
- Multiracial White students ($OR = 2.85$; $.95 CI = 1.93, 4.22$)

Having a roommate of a different race/ethnicity ($ES = .07$)

- Asian/PI students ($OR = 4.62$; $.95 CI = 3.36, 6.37$)
- Mexican students ($OR = 3.14$; $.95 CI = 1.93, 5.12$)
- Multiracial Students of Color ($OR = 2.27$; $.95 CI = 1.26, 4.10$)
- Multiracial White students ($OR = 2.11$; $.95 CI = 1.52, 2.92$)
- African American students ($OR = 1.94$; $.95 CI = 1.43, 2.62$)
- Hispanic/Latino/a students ($OR = 1.82$; $.95 CI = 1.18, 2.81$)

Participating in a study abroad program as an undergraduate ($ES = .05$)

- African American students ($OR = .27$; $.95 CI = .16, .47$)
- Asian/PI students ($OR = .50$; $.95 CI = .33, .75$)
- Women ($OR = 1.83$; $.95 CI = 1.59, 2.10$)

Holding an office in a student organization (not student government; $ES = .02$)

- African American students ($OR = 1.57$; $.95 CI = 1.16, 2.12$)
- Women ($OR = 1.27$; $.95 CI = 1.12, 1.44$).

Participating in student government ($ES = .02$)

- African American ($OR = 2.12$; $.95 CI = 1.52, 2.96$)

Modifying views on an important political issue due to discussions with someone from a different racial/ethnic background ($ES = .01$)

- Multiracial Students of Color ($OR = 2.37$; $.95 CI = 1.31, 4.28$)

Intergroup Contact during College

On a three-point scale ranging from *Not Very Much* (1) to *A Lot* (3), respondents indicated the frequency of their interactions during college with students of different racial/ethnic backgrounds. They were asked about Asian/PI students, Hispanic/Latino students, African American students, Native American students, and White students. The data analyses were conducted in two ways.

In one analysis, two variables were created reflecting (1) interaction with one’s own race/ethnicity; and (2) interaction with students from other races/ethnicities. These two variables were predicted in a multivariate analysis of variance with student race/ethnicity, gender, and their interaction as factors. Note that the analysis did not include students who indicated that they were Multiracial of Color or Multiracial White.⁶

The analysis showed a large effect for ethnicity ($ES = .19$), such that Hispanic/Latino students had the lowest contact with their own ethnicity ($M = 2.38$), whereas African American students ($M = 2.84$) and White students ($M = 2.96$) had the most contact with their own ethnicity.

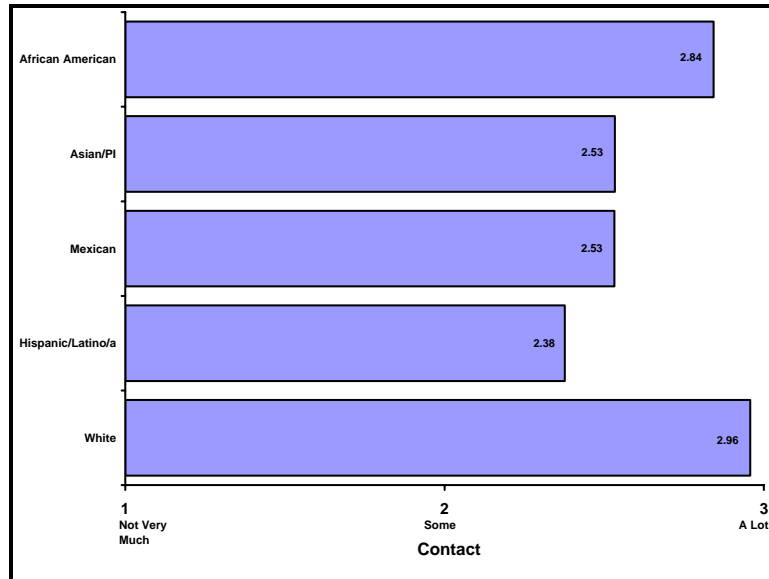


Figure 11. Contact with Own Ethnicity as a Function of Race

In a second set of analyses, ordinal regression models were tested with race/ethnicity, gender, and their interaction as predictors of campus interaction with each of the five major racial/ethnic categories. The largest effects were observed for interactions with Asian/PI students ($ES = .10$), Hispanic/Latino students ($ES = .05$), African American students ($ES = .19$), Native American students ($ES = .01$), and White students ($ES = .28$).

Experience with a Mentor during College

76.8% of the sample indicated that they had at least one mentor or faculty member who had a strong positive impact on their intellectual or personal development during college. To a small degree, having or not having such a mentor was predicted by race, gender, and their interaction. Asian/PI had half the odds of White students of having had a mentor during college ($OR = .48$; $.95\ CI = .36, .64$), and women had one and a half the odds as men of having a mentor ($OR = 1.54$; $.95\ CI = 1.33, 1.79$).

Mentor’s Gender. Student gender accounted for the variability in the mentor’s gender ($R^2 = .08$), with women having higher odds of choosing a woman mentor compared to men ($OR = 2.69$; $.95\ CI = 2.29, 3.14$).

⁶ A more refined analysis with these variables will be conducted and will include multiracial students to the extent possible.

Mentor's Race/Ethnicity. Nearly a quarter of the variability in the mentor's race/ethnicity was accounted for by the respondent's race/ethnicity ($ES = .23$). Gender did not predict the race/ethnicity of the chosen mentor during college.

- African Americans ($OR = 21.30$; $.95 CI = 16.67, 27.22$) and Multiracial Students of Color ($OR = 7.53$; $.95 CI = 4.80, 11.81$) chose African American mentors.
- Asian/PI students ($OR = 9.83$; $.95 CI = 6.66, 14.50$) chose Asian/PI mentors.
- Mexican students ($OR = 9.07$; $.95 CI = 5.34, 15.43$), Hispanics/Latinos ($OR = 8.04$; $.95 CI = 4.80, 13.47$), and Multiracial Students of Color ($OR = 5.20$; $.95 CI = 2.58, 10.49$) chose Hispanic mentors.
- Multiracial White students ($OR = 6.51$; $.95 CI = 3.40, 12.45$) had a higher odds of reporting that they did not know the ethnicity of their mentor.

Out of the students who had a mentor during college, 19.2% of these students had a mentor of color. We also examined whether race, gender, and their interaction predicted whether or not a student would choose a mentor of color during college. A logistic regression analysis showed that students of color had higher odds than White students of choosing a mentor of color ($ES = .19$).

- African American ($OR = 9.14$; $.95 CI = 6.31, 13.23$)
- Multiracial of Color ($OR = 7.24$; $.95 CI = 3.62, 14.49$)
- Hispanic/Latino/a ($OR = 3.30$; $.95 CI = 1.83, 5.93$)
- Asian/PI ($OR = 3.26$; $.95 CI = 2.10, 5.07$)
- Mexican ($OR = 3.06$; $.95 CI = 1.65, 5.66$)
- Multiracial White ($OR = 1.80$; $.95 CI = 1.07, 3.04$)

These analyses provided good evidence for the importance of same race mentors.

Reasons for Choosing a Mentor. No major findings emerged for the reasons for choosing a mentor.

Summary of Major Findings

Race and gender strongly predicted reports of experienced discrimination, coping with discrimination, expected discrimination, and many academic experiences such as choosing a mentor.

Lifetime Discrimination, Everyday Discrimination, and Specific Experiences of Discrimination

Race predicted experiences of racial discrimination, gender discrimination, and discrimination due to another personal characteristics.

- Students of color had higher odds of stating that race discrimination happened in multiple domains of their lives than White students.
- African American students had higher odds of experiencing gender discrimination, whereas Hispanic/Latino/a students had lower odds.
- African American students, Multiracial Students of Color, and Multiracial White students had higher odds of indicating that they had experienced discrimination in these domains as a function of a personal characteristic.
- Gender predicted responses in some areas such that women had slightly lower odds of stating that race discrimination occurred and higher odds of stating that gender discrimination occurred and discrimination to another personal characteristic occurred.
- African American students and Multiracial Students of Color had the highest mean microaggression (everyday discrimination) scores, whereas Hispanic/Latino/(non Mexican) students, White students, and Multiracial White students reported the lowest microaggression means.
- Students of color (particularly American students, Multiracial Students of Color, and Mexican students) had much higher odds of experiencing events such as unfair police behavior, discouraging behavior by teacher, difficult neighbors, poor service, and lack of job hiring compared to White students.
- Students of color, especially African American students and Multiracial Students of Color, had higher odds than White students of experiencing adverse interactions or conflicts about race.

In some of these analyses, interactions between race and gender emerged suggesting that African American women and Multiracial women of Color had lower odds of reporting discrimination.

Neighborhood Attributes Growing Up

- White students, Asian/PI students, and Multiracial White students reported that muggings and burglaries were less frequent in their neighborhoods while growing up than Hispanic/Latino students, African American students, Mexican students, and Multiracial Students of Color.
- Similar effects were obtained for an item about the frequency of drug dealing and drug use in the neighborhood.

Undergraduate Academic Activities and Experiences

Ethnicity predicted student exposure to individuals of different ethnicities, courses taken in ethnic studies and women's studies, how often racial issues were discussed. The patterns of responses differed by item:

- White students and African American students interacted less often with individuals of different ethnicities compared to Asian/PI students and Multiracial Students of Color.
- White students, Hispanic/Latino students, Multiracial White students, and Mexican students reported taking ethnic studies and women's studies courses less frequently than African American students and Multiracial Students of Color. Women took ethnic studies and women's studies more frequently than men.
- African American students and Multiracial Students of Color reported discussing racial issues significantly more often than all other racial/ethnic groups.
- Students of color had higher odds of participating in an ethnic/racial student organization and having a roommate of a different race/ethnicity.
- African American students and Asian/PI students had lower odds of participating in a study abroad program as an undergraduate.
- African American students had higher odds of holding an office in a student organization and in participating in student government.
- Small gender effects emerged with women had higher odds of studying abroad and holding an office in a student organization.
- Hispanic/Latino students had the lowest contact with their own ethnicity, whereas African American students and White students had the most contact with their own ethnicity.

College Mentor

- Asian/PI had half the odds of White students of having had a mentor during college, and women had one and a half the odds as men of having a mentor.
- Student race strongly predicted the race of the mentor. African Americans and Multiracial Students of Color chose African American mentors. Asian/PI students chose Asian/PI mentors.
- Mexican students, Hispanics/Latinos, and Multiracial Students of Color chose Hispanic mentors. Multiracial White students had a higher odds of reporting that they did not know the ethnicity of their mentor. Students of color had higher odds than White students of choosing a mentor of color.
- Women had higher odds of choosing a woman mentor compared to men.

Areas Not Showing Effects Due to Race or Gender

Race did not strongly predict

- Law students' perceptions about their neighborhood having a sense of community
- Whether or not students missed classes due to work and family responsibilities,
- Whether or not students met with faculty outside of class.
- Whether or not students reported modifying views on an important political issue due to discussions with someone from a different racial/ethnic background
- Whether or not students participated in a student organization or in student government; and
- What reasons students used to choose an academic mentor.

Conclusion

EDP Baseline Survey respondents vary dramatically in amount of discrimination and neighborhood crime that they have experienced. Not surprisingly, these differences are highly related to race/ethnicity and gender. These findings suggest that (1) race/ethnicity and gender provide a good proxy for diversity of experiences with discrimination and neighborhood experiences; and (2) underrepresented minorities have, on average, experienced more obstacles due to discrimination and neighborhood conditions in their lifetime.

Section C also covered a range of undergraduate experiences. As expected, most students of color and women are more likely to discuss racial issues, attend ethnic studies and women's studies courses, and interact more frequently with diverse groups of people. Minority issues are apparently more salient of an issue for ethnic/racial and gender minority groups, so these groups focus more of their time in college on exploring these issues.

Another interesting finding relates to mentor relationships in college. Students were generally much more likely to choose a faculty mentor whose race/ethnicity or gender was the same as their own. This result indicates the importance of having racially diverse faculty members to support the academic growth of a diverse group of students.