

# The Educational Diversity Project



Results for Diversity of Student Background (Section A) from the  
EDP Baseline Survey of Incoming Students  
2006-04

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 Student Background (Section A)  
from the EDP Baseline Survey of Incoming Students  
2006-04

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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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## 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 A of the EDP Baseline Survey assessed socio-demographic characteristics, pre-law education and preparation, work history and financial status of students as they entered law school in Fall 2004. A total of 25 questions, Section A contained basic questions about race/ethnicity, nationality and citizenship, childhood residence, gender, marital status, sexual orientation, and age. Participants’ political and religious or spiritual beliefs, as well as prior education, LSAT performance, past work experience, and financial responsibilities (both to individuals and in the form of loans) were also assessed. This technical report describes the personal characteristics of the baseline EDP sample.

In addition to describing the sample, this report summarizes how each background characteristic relates to race/ethnicity and gender. Individuals of different race/ethnicities, and of different genders, often differ significantly in terms of their background characteristics (such as beliefs, childhood residences, and work experiences) and thus provide an informative measure of student diversity.

## Results for Diversity of Student Background (Section A)

### Student Characteristics

Gender information was not available for two individuals in the sample. Our sample is 52.1% female.

Racial/ethnic background and gender were slightly related in these data ( $\chi^2(6, N = 5,996) = 100.46, p < .001, R^2 = .02$ ). Our EDP survey sample included more African American women than men ( $OR = 2.25, p < .001, 1.87 - 2.70$ ), Asian/PI women than men ( $OR = 1.38, p < .002, 1.15-1.66$ ), and Multiracial Women of Color than men ( $OR = 2.25, p < .001, 1.57-3.15$ ).

Our sample has a significantly higher percentage of women students (52.1%) compared to the LSAC-ABA national estimates from first year law school students in Fall 2004 (47.5%).

### United States Citizenship and Nationality

10.3% of the respondents were born outside of the U.S., and 5.1% of the respondents were permanent residents of countries other than the U.S. or held a dual visa.

Racial/ethnic background was strongly associated with being born outside the U.S., ( $\chi^2(13, N = 7,917) = 723.79, ES = .24$ ). Students with higher odds of being born outside the US were:

- Asian students ( $OR = 17.72; .95 CI = 12.48, 25.16$ )
- Hispanic students ( $OR = 12.07; .95 CI = 7.35, 19.82$ )
- Multiracial Students of Color ( $OR = 13.93; .95 CI = 7.40, 26.22$ )
- African American students ( $OR = 3.21; .95 CI = 1.94, 5.33$ )
- Mexican students ( $OR = 2.54; .95 CI = 1.13, 5.70, p < .03$ )
- Women (small effect) ( $OR = 1.35; .95 CI = 1.04, 1.76$ ).

In addition, Multiracial Women of Color were a quarter as likely as White Males of being born outside the US ( $OR = .15; .95 CI = .06 - .39$ )

Racial/ethnic background was moderately associated with respondent nationality. Compared to White students, students of color had higher odds of holding citizenship outside of the U.S. ( $\chi^2(13, N = 7,910) = 220.24, ES = .11$ ). For example, Asian American students ( $OR = 8.17; .95 CI = 5.18, 12.89$ ), Hispanic students ( $OR = 8.98; .95 CI = 4.88, 16.53$ ), and Multiracial Students of Color ( $OR = 10.93; .95 CI = 5.15, 23.18$ ), were more likely to hold citizenship from outside the U.S. African American students ( $OR = 3.62; .95 CI = 1.99, 6.59$ ) and Mexican students ( $OR = 3.51; .95 CI = 1.46, 8.46, p < .006$ ) were also more likely to be from outside the U.S. compared to White students. Gender did not relate to nationality status. A statistically significant race/ethnicity by gender interaction showed that Multiracial Women of Color had lower odds compared to male white students of being permanent (non-citizen) residents of the U.S. or holding dual citizenship ( $OR = .13; .95 CI = .04, .48$ ).

## Hometown

Students described where they lived the majority of the time while growing up. These locations ranged from *rural, country areas* to *very large city (over 1 million)*. Students could also indicate if they *moved around a lot* while growing up.

Two multinomial regressions were evaluated – one for race/ethnicity and one for gender.<sup>2</sup> Race/ethnicity, but not gender, predicted where students lived in the past ( $\chi^2(30, N = 5,938) = 511.54, p < .001, ES = .09$ ). Students of color, compared to White students, had higher odds of having *moved around a lot* while growing up (6.2%):

- Multiracial of Color ( $OR = 17.07; .95 CI = 3.91, 74.53$ )
- Hispanic/Latino ( $OR = 7.53; .95 CI = 2.47, 22.95$ )
- Asian ( $OR = 3.38; .95 CI = 1.88, 6.10$ )
- Multiracial White ( $OR = 1.88; .95 CI = 1.11, 3.19$ )

Been from *a small city (under 1 million)* while growing up (17.4%):

- Multiracial of Color ( $OR = 7.68; .95 CI = 1.81, 32.64$ )
- Mexican ( $OR = 3.66; .95 CI = 1.62, 8.23$ )
- Hispanic/Latino ( $OR = 3.36; .95 CI = 1.15, 9.85$ )
- Asian/PI ( $OR = 2.02; .95 CI = 1.19, 3.43$ )
- African American ( $OR = 1.58; .95 CI = 1.11, 2.25$ )

Been from *a suburb of a city* while growing up (32.4%):

- Multiracial of Color ( $OR = 5.56; .95 CI = 1.33, 23.26$ )
- Hispanic/Latino ( $OR = 4.30; .95 CI = 1.54, 11.95$ )
- Asian/PI ( $OR = 3.65; .95 CI = 2.26, 5.91$ )

Been from *a large city (over 1 million)* while growing up (16.4%):

- Multiracial of Color ( $OR = 31.09; .95 CI = 7.55, 128.05$ )
- Hispanic/Latino ( $OR = 21.44; .95 CI = 7.79, 59.02$ )
- Asian/PI ( $OR = 7.05; .95 CI = 4.28, 11.63$ )
- Mexican ( $OR = 6.28; .95 CI = 2.79, 14.15$ )
- African American ( $OR = 3.76; .95 CI = 2.67, 5.31$ )
- Multiracial White ( $OR = 2.14; .95 CI = 1.37, 3.36$ )

There were no reliable race/ethnicity effects associated with living in a small town.

## Marital Status

Marital status was coded into four categories: *currently single* (78.0%), *currently married* (17.9%), *formerly married* (2.8%; e.g., *divorced, separated, widowed*), and *currently in a committed long-term relationship* (1.3%), such as a domestic partnership, a civil union, or engaged. Due to low frequencies in certain cells, race/ethnicity and gender were evaluated in

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<sup>2</sup> Due to unstable estimates from low frequency combinations, these factors could not be considered simultaneously. The referent group for these analyses was growing up in a rural, country town (9.7% of the sample).

separate multinomial regression models. For both models, the referent category was single. Both race/ethnicity and gender were only slightly associated with marital status (pseudo  $ES = .02$  in each case).

- **Race/ethnicity:**  $ES = .02$ . Upon entry to law school, African American students, Asian/PI students, and Multiracial Students of Color had lower odds than white students of being currently married than single (African American  $OR = .48$ ;  $.95 CI = .36, .64$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Asian/PI students =  $.52$ ;  $.95 CI = .40, .68$ ,  $p < .001$ ; OR Multiracial Students of Color ( $OR = .55$ ;  $.95 CI = .34, .91$ ,  $p < .03$ ). Asian/PI students were less than a third as likely as white students of being formerly married ( $OR = .29$ ;  $.95 CI = .12, .72$ ). Multiracial white students had a higher odds compared to white students of reporting being in a long-term committed relationship ( $OR = 2.53$ ;  $.95 CI = 1.03, 4.92$ ).
- **Gender:**  $ES = .02$ . Female students had lower odds of being currently married ( $OR = .65$ ;  $.95 CI = .57, .74$ ) and higher odds of being formerly married or divorced ( $OR = 2.17$ ;  $.95 CI = 1.55, 3.03$ ), compared to male students.

### Current Age

The average student age in our sample was 25.42 years ( $SD = 5.15$  years; range = 18 to 61 years). Most students (80.5%) were between 22 and 29 years. Race/ethnicity, gender, and the interaction between race/ethnicity and gender did not predict student age upon arrival at law school ( $R^2 < .01$ ).

### Religion and Spirituality

**Religion.** The distribution of religion in our sample (from highest percentage to lowest percentage) was as follows: *Catholic* (26.7%), *Protestant* (24.3%), *No Preference* (13.4%), *Atheist/Agnostic* (12.5%), *Nondenominational* (8.6%), *Jewish* (6.7%), *Mormon* (4.3%), *Eastern* (2.2%), and *Muslim* (1.3%).

Due to some small proportions of respondents with particular religious affiliations, we analyzed race/ethnicity and gender separately in predicting religion using multinomial regression models.

- **Race/ethnicity.** Race/ethnicity strongly predicted religious affiliation ( $ES = .22$ ). When comparing the odds of having a particular religious affiliation relative to having no religious affiliation, the following effects emerged:

Atheist/Agnostic/Rational/Reason/Philosophical

- African American ( $OR = .19$ ;  $.95 CI = .09, .37$ )
- Multiracial of Color ( $OR = .29$ ;  $.95 CI = .13, .64$ )
- Hispanic/Latino ( $OR = .30$ ;  $.95 CI = .14, .64$ )

Protestant (Baptist, Episcopalian, Lutheran, Methodist, Pentecostal)

Higher Odds

- African American ( $OR = 3.85$ ;  $.96 CI = 2.79, 5.32$ )

Lower Odds

- Hispanic/Latino/a ( $OR = .36$ ;  $.95 CI = .19, .66$ )
- Asian/PI ( $OR = .44$ ;  $.95 CI = .32, .61$ )

- Multiracial White ( $OR = .64$ ;  $.95 CI = .44, .93$ )

#### Catholic/Orthodox

##### Higher Odds

- Mexican ( $OR = 3.01$ ;  $.95 CI = 1.66, 5.44$ )
- Hispanic/Latino/a ( $OR = 1.69$ ;  $.95 CI = 1.09, 2.62$ )

##### Lower Odds

- Asian/PI ( $OR = .36$ ;  $.95 CI = .26, .50$ )
- African American ( $OR = .64$ ;  $.95 CI = .44, .94$ )

#### Mormon

- African American ( $OR = .10$ ;  $.95 CI = .02, .42$ )
- Asian/PI ( $OR = .21$ ;  $.95 CI = .10, .44$ )

#### Eastern (Hindu, Buddhist)

- Asian/PI ( $OR = 39.11$ ;  $.95 CI = 21.41, 71.43$ )
- Multiracial of Color ( $OR = 8.81$ ;  $.95 CI = 3.12, 24.86$ )
- Multiracial White ( $OR = 6.01$ ;  $.95 CI = 2.49, 14.52$ )

#### Muslim

- Multiracial of Color ( $OR = 37.01$ ;  $.95 CI = 11.55, 118.60$ )
- Asian/PI ( $OR = 33.52$ ;  $.95 CI = 12.68, 88.64$ )
- African American ( $OR = 14.99$ ;  $.95 CI = 4.58, 49.04$ )
- Multiracial White ( $OR = 5.61$ ;  $.95 CI = 1.30, 24.10$ )

#### Nondenominational/Other Christian

- African American ( $OR = 3.78$ ;  $.95 CI = 2.61, 5.48$ )

- **Gender.** Gender predicted religious affiliation to a very small degree ( $ES = .01$ ). Women had lower odds than men to be Atheist/Agnostic/Rational/Reason/Philosophical ( $OR = .76$ ;  $.95 CI = .62, .93$ ), Mormon ( $OR = .50$ ;  $.95 CI = .37, .67$ ), or Jewish ( $OR = .64$ ;  $.95 CI = .51, .82$ ).

**Spirituality.** Respondent spirituality was assessed through the item “To what extent do you consider yourself to be a spiritual person?” with responses rated on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from *not at all spiritual* to *extremely spiritual*. Students reported that they were “moderately spiritual” ( $M = 2.97$ ;  $SD = 1.07$ ). 31.7% of the incoming law school students indicated that they were very or extremely spiritual.

A general linear model which predicted student-reported spirituality from race, gender, and the race/ethnicity by gender interaction was statistically significant,  $F(13, 5965) = 24.73$ ,  $R^2 = .05$ . Race/ethnicity, rather than gender, accounted for most of the variability in spirituality.

African American students ( $M = 3.60$ ) reported significantly higher mean spirituality levels than other ethnic/racial groups, especially Hispanic/Latino students ( $M = 3.01$ ), Multiracial

White students ( $M = 2.97$ ), Asian/PI students ( $M = 2.89$ ), and White students ( $M = 2.86$ ). Mexican students ( $M = 3.30$ ), and Multiracial of Color students ( $M = 3.28$ ) had mean spirituality levels that fell between these two groupings. Figure 1 presents these spirituality means.

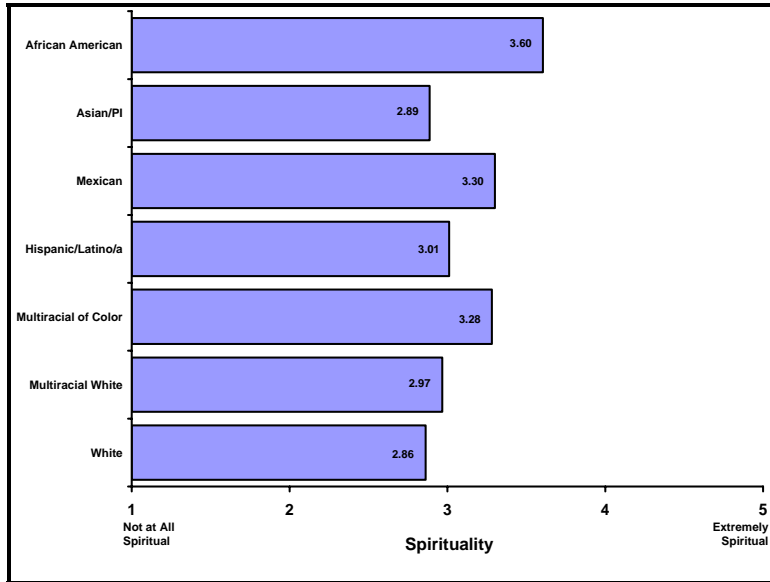


Figure 1. Self-Reported Spirituality by Race/ethnicity

**Relation between Religious Affiliation and Spirituality.** A general linear model was evaluated to explore whether respondents' religious affiliation predicted self-reported spirituality. A strong relation emerged ( $ES = .23$ ). The lowest means were associated with Atheist/Agnostic, Jewish, and no religious preference and the highest means associated students who are Mormon or Nondenominational Christian.

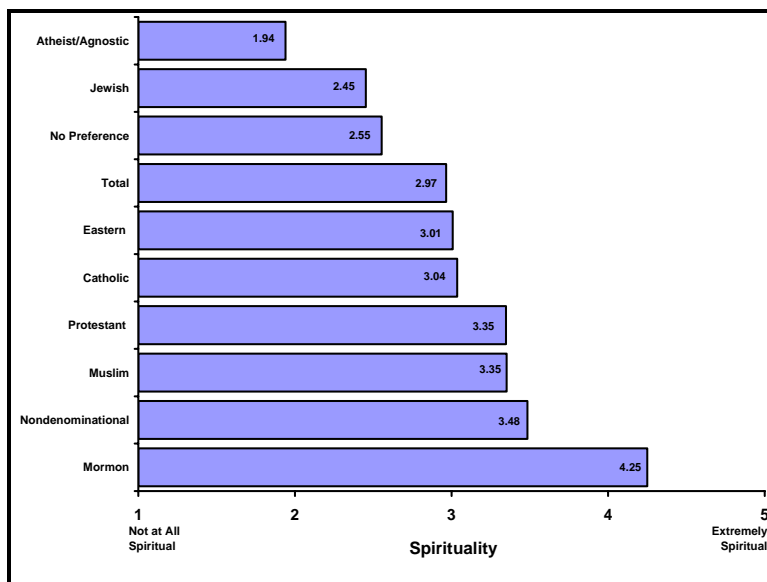


Figure 2. Self-Reported Spirituality by Religion

## Political Orientation

To assess political orientation, respondents rated themselves on the item “When it comes to politics, how do you usually think of yourself?” using a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from *extremely liberal* to *extremely conservative*. They also could indicate that they *have not thought much about* their political orientation.

The sample was, on average, liberal to moderate ( $M = 2.69$ ;  $SD = .97$ ). Nearly half the sample (46.0%) indicated that they were extremely liberal or liberal, whereas less than a quarter of the sample (21.5%) reported being extremely conservative or conservative. About two percent of the sample (2.4%) indicated that they had not thought much about their own political stance.

When political orientation was treated as a continuous outcome ranging from *extremely liberal* to *extremely conservative* (i.e., treating *haven’t thought much about it* as missing), a general linear model with race/ethnicity, gender, and a race/ethnicity by gender interaction showed a small, statistically significant effect ( $R^2 = .03$ ), but no individual effects accounted for the variability.

- Women reported being slightly more liberal ( $M = 2.52$ ) than men ( $M = 2.81$ ).
- White students ( $M = 2.75$ ) and Mexican students ( $M = 2.74$ ) tended to be less liberal than students who were either Asian/PI ( $M = 2.57$ ), African American ( $M = 2.48$ ), or Multiracial of Color ( $M = 2.43$ ).

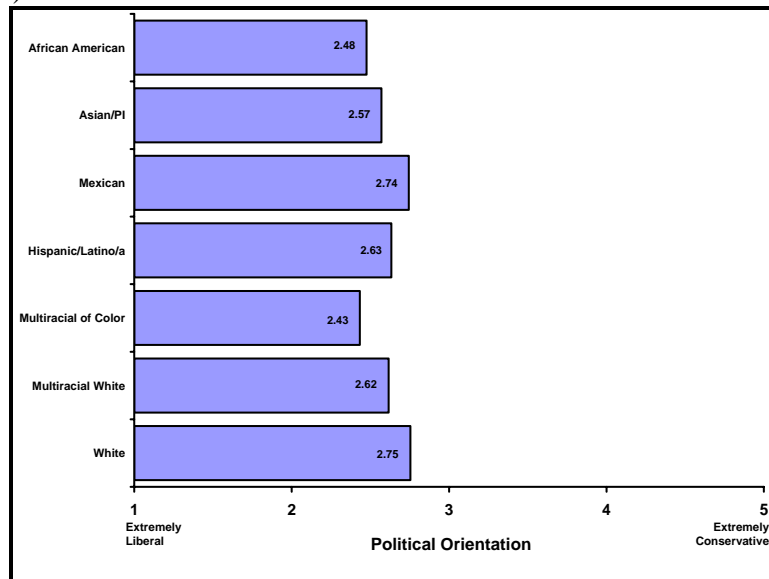


Figure 3. Self-Reported Political Orientation by Race/Ethnicity

In a second analysis, we treated political orientation as a nominal variable with categories including liberal, middle-of-the-road, conservative, and “haven’t thought much about it.” Two separate multinomial regression models were tested – one with race/ethnicity and one with gender. The race/ethnicity model accounted for about four percent of the political orientation variability, whereas the gender model accounted for about two percent of the variability in political orientation. Compared to white conservative students, the following findings were observed for students of color.

### Liberal

- Multiracial of Color ( $OR = 4.33$ ;  $.95 CI = 2.30, 8.17$ )
- African American students ( $OR = 3.95$ ;  $.95 CI = 2.84, 5.49$ )
- Asian/PI students ( $OR = 2.18$ ;  $.95 CI = 1.64, 2.90$ )

### Middle of the Road

- African American ( $OR = 4.46$ ;  $.95 CI = 3.18, 6.25$ )
- Multiracial of Color ( $OR = 3.90$ ;  $.95 CI = 2.02, 7.54$ )
- Asian/PI students ( $OR = 2.37$ ;  $.95 CI = 1.76, 3.19$ )
- Hispanic/Latino ( $OR = 1.75$ ;  $.95 CI = 1.14, 2.70$ )

### Haven't Thought Much about It

- African American ( $OR = 12.87$ ;  $.95 CI = 7.65, 21.67$ )
- Multiracial of Color ( $OR = 9.15$ ;  $.95 CI = 3.28, 25.56$ )
- Asian/PI students ( $OR = 6.71$ ;  $.95 CI = 3.98, 11.31$ )

Compared to male conservatives, women had higher odds of being liberal ( $OR = 2.14$ ;  $.95 CI = 1.87, 2.45$ ), being middle of the road ( $OR = 1.60$ ;  $.95 CI = 1.38, 1.84$ ), or having not thought much about political orientation ( $OR = 2.47$ ;  $.95 CI = 1.73, 3.52$ ). These findings are consistent with Eagley, Dickman, Johannesen-Schmidt, and Koenig (2004).

### Sexual Orientation

In our sample 5.0% of the students reported being gay/lesbian, bisexual, or other (not heterosexual). Multiracial White students had higher odds of being gay/lesbian, bisexual, or other compared to White students ( $OR = 1.68$ ;  $.95 CI = 1.11 - 2.53$ ). There were no gender effects.

## Pre-Law Education and Preparation

### Location of Pre-College Education

4.5% of the incoming law students in our sample received most of their pre-college education outside of the United States. We used a logistic regression testing the effects of race/ethnicity, gender, and the race/ethnicity by gender interaction to predict the binary outcome of whether or not students received most of their precollege education outside of the United States. The model was statistically significant and accounted for a moderate amount of variability ( $\chi^2(13, N = 5,794) = 222.44, p < .001, ES = .12$ ).

- Multiracial Students of Color ( $OR = 13.72; .95 CI = 6.38, 29.49$ ), Hispanic students ( $OR = 11.27; .95 CI = 6.02, 21.09$ ), Asian/PI students ( $OR = 8.60; .95 CI = 5.24, 14.10$ ), and African Americans ( $OR = 3.90; .95 CI = 2.04, 7.43$ ) had higher odds of receiving most of their pre-college education outside of the U.S.
- Multiracial Women of Color had lower odds of receiving their pre-college education outside of the U.S. ( $OR = .21; .95 CI = .07 - .65$ ).

### High School Type

Over three-quarters of the EDP sample (76.8%) attended public high school. A fifth of the sample (20.5%) attended private (non-boarding school). Only a small percentage attended private boarding school (2.2%) or were home schooled (.5%). We coded students into public high school attendance versus private (boarding and non-boarding). A model including race/ethnicity, gender, and the race/ethnicity by gender interaction as predictors of high school attendance accounted for a very small proportion of variance ( $ES = .01$ ).<sup>3</sup>

### BA Graduation Year

Two-thirds of the EDP sample (66.5%) received a BA degree within the three academic years prior to the survey. The distribution of years was non-normal (highly kurtotic and negatively skewed). Race/ethnicity, gender, and the race/ethnicity by gender interaction were not statistically significant predictors of when law students received their BA degree.

### Type of Undergraduate Institution

We are currently analyzing the IPEDS data that we downloaded for Fall 2004 on schools the law students attended. While the match of BA year is not perfect, we expect stability in the undergraduate institution attributes. We are concentrating on the types of variables that we used for understanding the law school attributes (e.g., cost, size, minority representation, public/private status).

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<sup>3</sup> There was one effect that emerged for this model: Hispanic/Latino students ( $OR = 2.25; .95 CI = [1.46 - 3.48, p < .001]$ ) had twice the odds of attending private high school than white male students. This result may be due to “Latino flight” from public schools to private schools.

### **Education Level When Entering Law School**

17.3% of the incoming law students completed formal education higher than a bachelor's through an additional BA, some graduate school, a master's degree and in 1.0% of the cases a doctorate or other professional degree. A logistic regression model that included race/ethnicity, gender, and the race/ethnicity by gender interaction showed no statistically significant effects that could be interpreted meaningfully, ( $\chi^2(13, N = 7,851) = 31.87, ES < .01$ ). Mexican women had higher odds of having a degree higher than a BA upon arrival to law school compared to white males ( $OR = 3.03; .95 CI = 1.23, 7.46$ ).

### **Age of First Serious Thought about Law School**

Race/ethnicity and gender were used in a logistic regression model to predict whether or not students thought about law school before 18 years of age or after 18 years of age ( $ES = .03$ ). Findings showed a statistically significant model with African American students having half the odds compared to White students of first thinking about law school after age 18 years ( $OR = .45; .95 CI = .33, .62$ ) and Asian/PI students having twice the odds compared to White students of first thinking about law school after age 18 years ( $OR = 2.07; .95 CI = 1.37, 3.11$ ).

### **Had an Influential Work Experience**

Among students in the EDP core sample, 32.9% had a specific work experience that influenced the decision to attend law school. A logistic regression evaluated whether the occurrence of such an experience depended on race/ethnicity, gender, and the race/ethnicity by gender interaction. The effect size was small ( $ES = .02$ ). Women more often reported an influential work experience than men ( $OR = 1.65$ ), whereas African American students ( $OR = .67$ ) were less likely than whites to endorse such an experience.

Of the work experiences influencing the decision to attend law school, a majority were paid (75.9%) rather than volunteer (24.1%). A logistic regression evaluated whether paid and volunteer experiences were more likely as a function of race/ethnicity, gender, and the race/ethnicity by gender interaction. The overall effect size was small ( $R^2 = .01$ ). Compared to White students, Asian/PI ( $OR = 1.82; .95 CI = 1.02 - 3.25$ ) and Multiracial Students of Color ( $OR = 4.03; .95 CI = 1.38 - 11.71$ ) had higher odds of reporting a volunteer experience. Similarly, women were more inclined than men to endorse such an experience ( $OR = 1.39; .95 CI = 1.07 - 1.81$ ). The interaction of race/ethnicity and gender was significant, with African American ( $OR = .37; .95 CI = .15 - .87$ ) and Multiracial White ( $OR = .35; .95 CI = .13 - .92$ ) women reporting a lower rate of volunteer experiences as compared to White men.

### **LSAT Performance**

Students asked to self-report their score on the Law School Admissions Test (LSAT). The average self-reported LSAT score was 156.61 ( $SD = 7.78$ ). A general linear model examined the relationships of race/ethnicity, gender, and the race/ethnicity by gender interaction on LSAT score. Overall, the model was significant  $F(13, 5475) = 89.49, R^2 = .18$ , with ethnicity and gender accounting for a majority of the explained variance. African American students ( $M = 148.64$ ) reported lower scores as compared to other racial/ethnic groups. Men ( $M = 157.47$ ) reported significantly higher LSAT scores than women ( $M = 156.08$ ), and the highest reported scores were observed among White students ( $M = 158.05$ ), Asian/PI students ( $M = 157.54$ ), and Multiracial-White students ( $M = 157.58$ ).

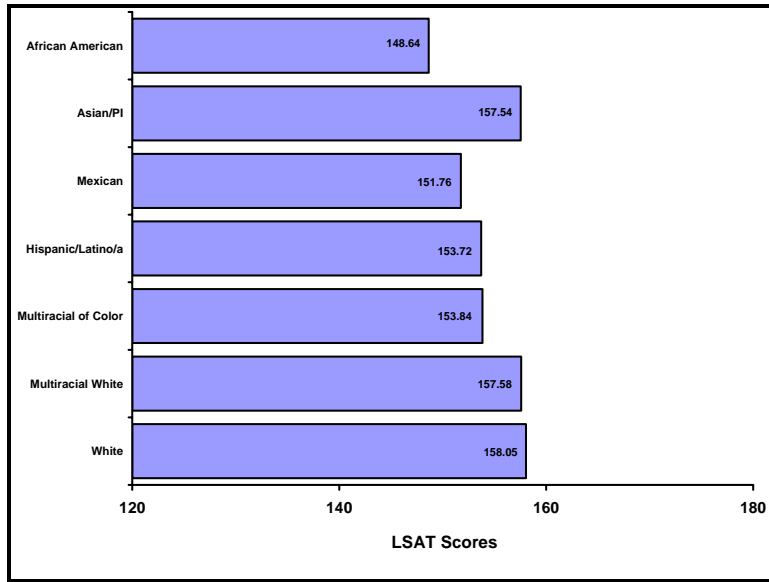


Figure 4. Self-Reported Most Recent LSAT Score by Race/Ethnicity

## Financial Situation and Work Plans

### Student Status in Law School: Full-Time, Day Program

Nearly all of the students in the EDP were attending law school full-time (91.8%) and in the day program (91.5%). Neither student full-time status nor day/evening status was predicted by race/ethnicity, gender, or their interaction.

### Work during Undergraduate Years (20 plus hours)

Students provided information regarding the amount of work experience during college on a scale ranging from *no work during undergraduate years* to *work during all years of undergraduate*. Close to a third of the sample (30.4%) worked 20 or more hours per week for three or more years of college. On average, students worked for 20 plus hours between one and two years of college ( $M = 2.49$ ).

To analyze results further, a general linear model evaluated the effects of race/ethnicity, gender, and the race/ethnicity by gender interaction on the amount of work experience during undergraduate schooling. Overall, the model was significant  $F(13, 5959) = 9.01$ ,  $R^2 = .02$ , with race/ethnicity accounting for a majority of the explained variance.

Asian/PI students ( $M = 2.15$ ), White students ( $M = 2.41$ ), and Multiracial White students ( $M = 2.48$ ) reported lower amounts of work during the undergraduate years, whereas Mexican students ( $M = 3.27$ ), Hispanic/Latino students ( $M = 2.98$ ), Multiracial Students of Color ( $M = 3.04$ ), and African American students ( $M = 2.81$ ) reported higher amounts of work.

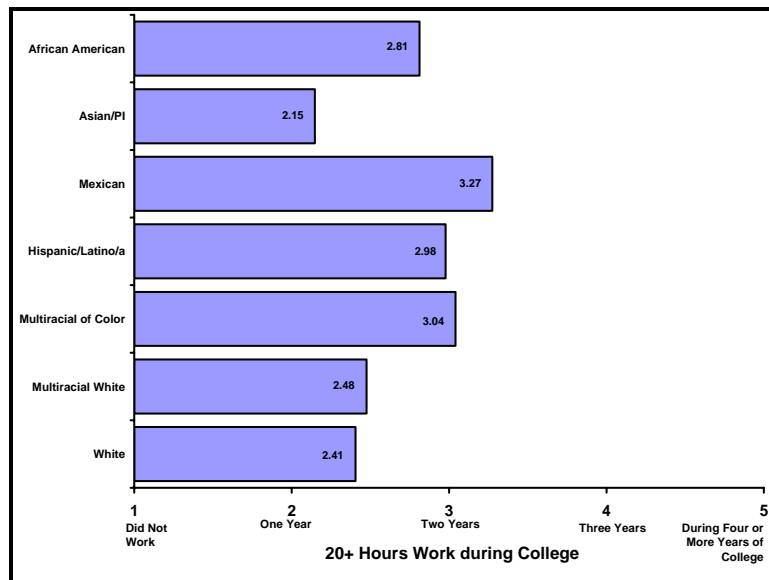


Figure 5. Time Spent Working 20+ Hours/ Week during College by Race/ethnicity

### Debt Due to Prior Educational Expenses

Students provided information regarding the amount of debt incurred as the result of attending college. Approximately half of the students (50.2%) amassed no such debt, whereas 17.1% owed more than \$20,000 in educational-related expenses. A general linear model estimated the effect of race/ethnicity, gender, and the race/ethnicity by gender interaction on amount of debt. Overall, the model was significant  $F(13, 5938) = 15.96, R^2 = .03$ , with race/ethnicity and the race/ethnicity by gender interaction accounting for significant proportions of explained variance. Asian/PI students ( $M = 2.35$ ), Hispanic/Latino students ( $M = 2.49$ ), White students ( $M = 2.49$ ), and Multiracial-White students ( $M = 2.65$ ) reported less debt as compared to Mexican students ( $M = 3.04$ ), Multiracial Students of Color ( $M = 3.37$ ), and African American students ( $M = 3.54$ ).

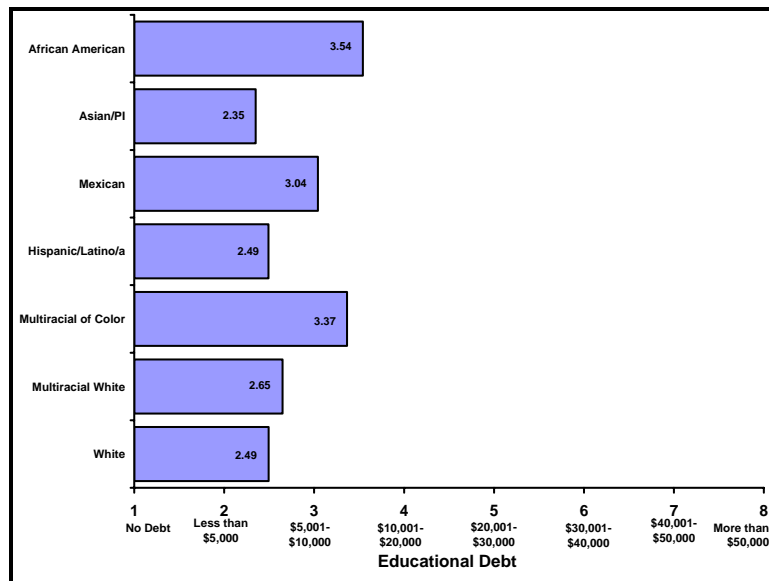


Figure 6. Educational Expenses One Month Prior to Law School by Race/ethnicity

### Primary Financial Responsibility

Students reported any individuals, including themselves, for whom they had primary financial responsibility. Whereas most students indicated being financially responsible for themselves (75.7%), smaller proportions of students were responsible for a spouse (9.4%) or children (6.6%), and even fewer had financial responsibility for a parent (1.0%), other relative (.5%), or a non-relative (.2%). Some students were financially supported by others (20.6%). In each case, a logistic regression evaluated the relationship of race/ethnicity, gender, and the race/ethnicity by gender interaction to financial responsibility status.

- Oneself.** Race/ethnicity and gender did not predict financial responsibility for oneself ( $R^2 = .01$ ). Compared to White students, African American students were more likely to have financial responsibility for themselves ( $OR = 1.64; .95 CI = 1.09, 2.47$ ), whereas the opposite pattern was observed for Hispanic/Latino students ( $OR = .55; .95 CI = .35, .85$ ).
- Spouse.** The logistic regression yielded a larger but still relatively small effect ( $ES = .08$ ). Compared to white students, Asian/PI students were less likely responsible for a spouse ( $OR =$

.39) and women were similarly less likely than men to have such responsibility ( $OR = .25$ ).

- **Children.** Ethnicity and gender predicted the likelihood of students having primary financial responsibility for children ( $ES = .03$ ). Asian/PI students had half the odds of White students of supporting a child ( $OR = .51$ ;  $.95\ CI = .26, .97$ ), and women had lower odds than men of supporting a child ( $OR = .44$ ;  $.95\ CI = .33, .57$ ). African American women had more than twice the odds of financially supporting a child compared to White males ( $OR = 2.29$ ;  $.95\ CI = 1.23, 4.27$ ).
- **Parent.** Because only 1.0% of the core EDP sample had primary responsibility for supporting a parent, we evaluated reduced logistic models with just race/ethnicity or just gender. These models, which must be interpreted with caution do to the highly skewed outcome distribution, showed statistically significant effects for race/ethnicity ( $ES = .07$ ). African American students, Asian/PI students, and Multiracial Students of Color had higher odds of supporting a parent compared to White students.
- **Supported by Someone Else.** A logistic regression predicting whether or not a person was supported by others was tested, using race/ethnicity and gender as factors. Findings showed that African American students had half the odds of White students of being supported financially by others ( $OR = .51$ ;  $CI = .31, .83$ ). Women had higher odds than men of being supported by others during law school ( $OR = 1.34$ ;  $CI = 1.15, 1.56$ ).

### **Expected Work for Pay during Law School**

Students provided information on anticipated work for pay during the law school academic year. Most students (68.1%) did not foresee working for pay, either in a full- or part-time capacity. A multinomial regression examined the effect of race/ethnicity, gender and the race/ethnicity by gender interaction on intent to work during the period in question ( $ES = .01$ ).<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>4</sup> For this analysis, a few very small effects emerged. Mexican students ( $OR = 1.98$ ;  $.95\ CI = 1.15, 3.42$ ) reported a greater intent to work part-time during the law school academic year compared to White students, and women ( $OR = 1.27$ ;  $.95\ CI = 1.07, 1.51$ ) had a greater intent to work compared to men.

## Summary of Major Findings

### International and Geographic Context While Growing Up

- Students of color had higher odds of being among the small percentage of law students who, compared to White students,
  1. had a birthplace outside the U.S.,
  2. had a nationality other than US;
  3. received most of their pre-college education outside the US; and
  4. grew up in a large city or very large city, or moved around a lot. These findings reveal an international perspective.

### Religion and Spirituality

- Religious affiliation and spirituality varied strongly as a function of race/ethnicity but not gender. Religious affiliation and spirituality are strongly related.
- Hispanic students and African American students report being more spiritual than White students.

### LSAT Performance

- There were mean differences on self-reported most recent LSAT score as a function of race/ethnicity, but not gender and not the race/ethnicity by gender interaction. Asian/PI students and White students had the highest mean LSAT scores, whereas African Americans had the lowest (significantly lower than the other studied racial groups).

### Financial Responsibilities/Working

- Asian/PI students and females had lower odds of supporting their spouse (than White students).
- Students of color (compared to White students) had higher odds of supporting their parents and other relatives. Overall, women had lower odds of supporting children, but African American women had higher odds of supporting children.
- African American students were half as likely as White students to endorse the statement *I do not have primary financial responsibility for any of these individuals*.
- Hispanic students and African American students had higher mean levels of debt than Asian/PI students and White students.

### Areas Not Showing Effects Due to Race/Ethnicity or Gender

There were no strong effects due to race/ethnicity or for gender for current age entering law school, political orientation, sexual orientation, type of high school attended, BA year, age at which there was serious thought about law school, part-time or full-time law school enrollment (low variance), day or evening enrollment (low variance), and intent to work during law school. In addition, there were no strong effects for students having a specific work experience that influenced the decision to attend law school and the paid status of the experience (volunteer or paid).

## Conclusion

EDP Baseline Survey respondents are diverse in many respects. From religion to financial responsibilities; educational background to political beliefs, a wide range of personal backgrounds, beliefs, and histories are represented in this sample. In addition to describing the baseline sample, this report summarized how race/ethnicity and gender are related to a variety of personal characteristics.

In terms of the aspects of diversity measured in Section A, results reported in this report indicate that race/ethnicity and gender predict many facets of educational diversity, such as childhood residence (particularly international residence), religious affiliation, previous work and educational experiences, and current financial responsibilities.

This report supports the “minor premise” of the *Grutter v. Bollinger* decision; that is, racial diversity contributes to educational diversity as defined by student characteristics.