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**FACTORS INFLUENCING THE CAREER DECISIONS AND THE UNDER-
REPRESENTATION OF AFRICAN-AMERICAN MALE ADMINISTRATORS
AT A PREDOMINANTLY WHITE INSTITUTION OF HIGHER EDUCATION:
A WITHIN-CASE AND A CROSS-CASE ANALYSIS**

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Lynn University

By

H. Richard Dozier

Lynn University

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Factors influencing the career decisions and the under-representation of African-American male administrators at a predominantly white institution of higher education:
A within-case and cross-cases analysis

H. Richard Dozier, Ph.D.

Lynn University, 2005

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By H. Richard Dozier

March, 2005

Abstract

America's predominantly white institutions (PWIs) of higher education were built, developed and thrived within the social hierarchy of the American society. It was only after many political, legal, and legislative battles that the doors to America's PWIs of higher education were forced open to admit the African-American student. Today, PWIs of higher education are seeking diversity in their student body, faculty and staff.

The purpose of this phenomenological qualitative study was (a) to gain insight into the factors influencing African-American administrators to select a career in higher education and choose employment at a PWI, (b) to discover the similarities and differences in factors influencing the career decisions of African Americans at PWIs based on whether they attended a historically black college and universities (HBCU) or predominantly white institution (PWI); (c) to discover the factors affecting the career decisions of African-American administrators in mid-level administrative positions regarding advancement to executive-level positions and the under-representation of African-American administrators in PWIs of higher education; and (d) to examine whether white supremacy emerges as a factor influencing the career decisions of African-

American administrators in mid-level administrative positions at PWIs of higher education.

The cross-case and within-case analysis revealed that while all five participants, employed at a Florida Doctoral/Research University—Extensive, attended a PWi of higher education, the undergraduate institution was an influencing factor in the participant's decision to enter a career in higher education. The qualifications needed to advance to an executive-level position are the terminal degree, the appropriate skills, the right training, and the necessary experience.

The participants in this study believe that most PWIs of higher education are not prepared to accept African-Americans in executive-level positions, and aspects of white supremacy did emerge as a factor influencing career advancement. For African-American administrators to advance to executive-level positions the participants said a climate that is receptive, open to diversity, open to different modes of thinking, and different modes of reaching conclusions were important. This study should be replicated using a larger sample and include different types of institutions of higher education to allow multiple comparisons of within-case and cross-case analysis analyses between positions and institutions.

TABLE OF CONTENT

	Page
Acknowledgment	ii
Abstract	iv
List of Tables	viii
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY	1
Introduction and Background	1
Purpose	5
Definition of Terms	5
Significance of the Study	12
Delimitations and Scope	14
Overview of the Research Method	19
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE, THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK, AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS	21
Literature Review	21
White Supremacy, Racism, and Segregation in American Life	21
Black Culture Inferiority and Black Innate Inferior Theories	30
Political and Social Change/Forced Desegregation/Inclusion of African-Americans	33
Institutional Culture/Climate	39
Career Decision-Making	41
African-American Students Experience at PWIs	46
African-American Administrators	51
The Need for Research About African-American Administrators at PWIs of Higher Education	54
Theoretical Framework for the Study	57
Research Questions	58
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY	60
Research Design	60
Population and Sampling Design	66
Instrumentation	69
Socio-Demographic Profile	69
Interview Question Schedule	70
Procedures: Ethical Considerations and Data Collection Methods	74
Methods of Data Analysis	75
Trustworthiness of Data	77

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Continued

	Page
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS	80
Part 1 Socio-Demographic Profile of Participants	83
Response to Research Questions Organized by Themes	86
Theme 1 Career Selection	86
Theme 2 Experience as an Administrator	89
Theme 3 Career Advancement Opportunities	93
Theme 4 Administrative Qualities for Executive Positions	98
Theme 5 Institutional Characteristics, Culture, or Climate for Advancement to an Executive Position	102
Theme 6 Reason for Retention/Attrition at PWIs	107
Theme 7 Representation in Administrative and Executive-level Positions	110
Theme 8 White Supremacy in Career Decisions and Career Advancement	113
 CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	 129
Interpretations	130
Practical Implications	141
Conclusions	143
Limitations	145
Recommendations for Future Study	145
 REFERENCES	 147
 BIBLIOGRAPHY	 155
 APPENDIXES	 158
Appendix A: Interview Schedule Questions	159
Appendix B: Implementation of Executive Order 12320 Strengthening Historically Black Colleges and Universities	163
Appendix C: Lynn University's IRB Approval	166
Appendix D: Assistant Vice President's Script	168
Appendix E: Researcher's Script	170
Appendix F: Participant Consent/Audiotape Form	172
Appendix G: Socio-Demographic Profile	177
 VITA	 183

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	Participant Sample	68
2	Frequency Distribution of Socio-demographics Characteristics of Participants by Age, Marital Status, Number of Children and Family and Parent Background (N=5)	84
3	Frequency Distribution of Participants Education and Professional Experience (N=5)	85
4	Theme 1 – Factors Influencing Selection of a Career in Higher Education: Within Case and Cross Case Responses to Interview Questions 1, 10, and 11	86
5	Theme 2 – Experiences as an Administrator: Within Case and Cross Case Analyses Responses to Interview Questions 4 and 12.	89
6	Theme 3 – Career Advancement Opportunities: Within Case and Cross Case Responses to Interview Questions 3, 13, and 14	94
7	Theme 4 – Administrative Qualities for Executive Positions: Within Case and Cross Case Analyses Responses to Interview Questions 6 and 8	99
8	Theme 5 – Institutional Characteristics, Culture, or Climate for Advancement to an Executive Position: Within Case and Cross Case Analyses Responses to Interview Questions 7, 9, and 15	103
9	Theme 6 – Reason for Retention/Attrition at PWIs: Within Case and Cross Case Analyses Responses to Interview Questions 2, and 5	108
10	Theme 7 – Representation in Administrative and Executive-level Positions: Within Case and Cross Case Analyses Responses to Interview Questions 16 and 17	111
11	Theme 8 – White Supremacy in Career Decisions and Career Advancement: Within Case and Cross Case Analyses Responses to All Interview Questions	114

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Introduction and Background

Prior to 1970 African-American students, faculty and staff were virtually invisible in PWIs of higher education. Affirmative action programs were instituted to increase the number of African-Americans enrolled as students and hired as employees in PWIs of higher education (Bridges, 1996). Between 1970 and 2000 only 52 of the 2,100 PWIs of higher education were headed by African-Americans. "Prior to 1970 race was the primary criteria under-girding all other attributes in educational leadership" (Adams, 2001, p. 89). Affirmative action efforts have brought about a significant difference. However, the overall percentage of African-Americans employed in administrative positions remains "miniscule", and "African-American administrators remain underrepresented in the upper levels of academic administration" (Marable, 2002, p. 1). Despite three decades of efforts on the part of the nation's post-secondary institutions the career path for African-Americans in academia is still laden with special problems (Jackson, 2001) with them still being underrepresented in administrative positions at PWIs of higher education.

The United States Supreme Court struck down the "separate but equal" doctrine on May 17, 1954 and required the desegregation of schools across America. May 2004 marked the 50-year anniversary of the United States Supreme Court decision that literally changed the complexion of America's public and private institutions of higher education. That historical decision by the United States Supreme Court was *Brown v the Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas, 1954* (Findlaw, n.d.).

Before World War II African-Americans were virtually invisible in higher education (Adams, 2001; Anderson, 2003). Prior to the 1970s few African-American students and faculty were present on the campuses of predominately white institutions (PWIs) of higher education (Adams, 2001). After decades of legal and political victories and federal intervention, African-Americans gained greater access to the institutions of higher education that had formally denied them access based solely on their race (DeSousa, 2001). “It was not an internal spirit of concern about justice and fairness within these academic environments, but the civil rights movement and the consequent passage of federal legislation that finally led to the desegregation of America’s postsecondary institutions” (Williams, 2001, p. 16). Although these gains have been made African-American administrators are still under-represented in PWIs of higher education (Jackson, 2000; Berry, 2001; Marable, 2002), and “despite three decades of efforts on the part of the nation’s post-secondary institution, African-Americans still face special problems navigating their careers in academe” (Jackson, 2001, p. 93).

The literature on African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education is limited (Jackson 2001; Guillory, 2001). Existing research identifies several factors that impact the career decisions and the under-representation of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education. Recruitment, hiring, retention and the lack of African-American administrators are among the factors identified. Research conducted by George Washington University in Washington, D.C. found that the number of African-Americans administrators has increased in the last 30 years. However, administrators in positions such as a manager, director of minority affairs, and affirmative action tend to lack power and authority. These positions were specifically created for

minorities and are valued less by “mainstream” academic administrators (Jackson, 2001). As a result, the responsibilities of these positions have often been outside the periphery of traditional administrative power and opportunity, and the positions are classified as “staff” rather than “line” positions (managerial positions that are part of the formal administrative hierarchy of the university) (Brown, 1997).

The social dominance theory and the hierarchical social system model were used to examine the factors influencing the career decisions of African-American administrators and to determine if white supremacy is among the factors. The social dominance theory identifies a few of the interconnected forces producing and controlling higher education institutions: administrators, faculty, and support staff. Like society at large, the academic hierarchy is influenced by the larger social, historical, and cultural context. The research indicates the academic hierarchy favors whites over non-whites and penalizes African-American faculty (Ellis, 2002). Rarely are administrators with job titles such as manager or director of minority affairs and affirmative action officer considered for executive-level positions (Jackson, 2001). In the hierarchy system when it comes to race, PWIs have historically manifested discriminatory and prejudicial practices and policies (Allen, Epps, Guillory, Suh, & Bonous-Hammarth, 2000a). Race is considered an important factor for academic institution’s inability to retain black administrators (Wiley, 2001).

In 1896 the United States Supreme Court validated state legislation that discriminated against African-Americans when it legitimized the principle of separate but equal in the *Plessy v. Ferguson* ruling (Stefkovich & Leas, 1994). In 1899 the Court in *Cumming v. County Board of Education of Richmond County, GA*, further declared laws

establishing separate schools for whites as valid even if they did not provide comparable schools for African-Americans (Stefkovich, & Leas 1994; Bryd-Chichester, 2000). The Supreme Court's 1898 decision in *Plessy v. Ferguson* further legitimized and strengthened the system of racial apartheid until well after World War II (Stefkovich, & Leas 1994).

It was not until 1954 in the *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas* case in which the Court declared segregation laws unconstitutional. When separate but equal was declared unconstitutional, it would take 18 years—the period between 1970 to 1977—for the enrollment of African-American students in America's colleges and universities to increase from 522,000 to 1.1 million (Rolle, Davies, & Banning, 2000). In the 1970s and the 1980s, America experienced a record number of African-American students graduating from college (Bridges, 1996). Despite the increased numbers who graduate from college and obtain advanced degrees, African-Americans are not found in significant numbers in administrative positions at PWIs of higher education (Berry, 2001). In 1993 Cox suggested that institutional bias is a preference pattern inherent in how organizations are managed, and often it inadvertently creates barriers to full participation by organizational members from cultural backgrounds that differ from the traditional majority (as cited in Guillory, 2001).

Numerous studies have been conducted on the African-American student enrollment, retention, and graduation from PWIs of higher education and on African-American faculty at PWIs of higher education. However, the information on African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education is very limited. What is not addressed in the literature is whether African-American administrators choose to seek

executive-level positions, and the factors influencing the career decision of African-American administrators regarding executive-level positions. Whether white supremacy is one of the factors is also not addressed in the literature.

Purpose

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to: (1) discover the factors that lead African-American administrators to select a career in higher education and choose employment at a PWI, (2) to examine whether there are similarities and differences in factors influencing the career decisions of African Americans at PWIs based on whether they attended a HBCU or PWI, (3) to discover the factors affecting the career decisions of African-American administrators in mid-level administrative positions regarding advancement to executive-level positions and (4) to examine whether white supremacy emerges as a factor influencing the career decisions of African-American administrators in administrative positions at PWIs of higher education.

Definitions of Terms

Factors Influencing Career Decisions

Theoretical Definition #1

The careership model is a sociological theory with three integrated dimensions to the model. The (1) pragmatically rational decision making, which is located in the habitus of the individual making the decision, (2) choices as individual interacts with others in a field, which is related to the unequal resources different players possess, and (3) choices within a life course consisting of unpredictable patterns of interlinked routines and turning points that make up the life course (Hodkins & Sparkes, 1997).

Theoretical Definition #2

The human capital theory employs the social status model. The model seeks to identify the link between parental status to achieved levels of occupational status and income among their children (Leif, 1994).

Operational Definition

For the purpose of this study, factors influencing the career decision was defined by the participants' response to interview questions #1 – what led them to select a career in higher education, #2 – their reasons for remaining in higher education, #3 – their perception of career advancement opportunities, #5 – have you ever considered making a career change, #6 – the administrative qualities and characteristics they believe are necessary to advance to an executive-level position, #7 – the institutional characteristics, culture or climate they believe are necessary to advance to an executive-level position, #8 – administrative qualities or characteristics they believe would facilitate or hinder their advancement to the executive-level position, and #9 – institutional qualities or characteristics they believe would facilitate or hinder their advancement to the executive-level position (see Appendix A - Interview Schedule Questions).

Race

Theoretical Definition #1

An African-American is an American predominantly, or at least partially, descended from black Africans, typically called a Black. Although the vast majority of those in the United States of African descent were black historically, the term is not typically used to apply to non-black Africans, such as Arabs from northern Africa. Most African-Americans are descendants of persons brought to the Americas as slaves between

the seventeenth and nineteenth centuries. Persons whose ancestors were brought from Africa as slaves to the Caribbean, or Latin America, but who have come to the United States as free people, are sometimes classified as African-American, but are sometimes classified as Latin-American or Caribbean-American instead. Those who have come from Africa in the 20th or 21st centuries are often identified by their country of origin—for example, Nigerian-American (Wikipedia, 2003).

Theoretical Definition #2

A Black or African-American is a person having origins in any of the Black racial groups of Africa. It includes people who indicate their race as "Black, African-American, or Negro," or provide written entries such as African-American, Afro-American, Kenyan, Nigerian, or Haitian (U. S. Census Bureau, 2000).

Operational Definition #1

African-Americans is a participant whose descendants were brought to America as slaves between the seventeenth and nineteenth centuries. Not included in this study are those whose ancestors were brought as slaves to the Caribbean, or to Latin America, or those who came to the United States as free people and those who came from Africa in the 20th or 21st centuries (Wikipedia, 2003).

White Supremacy

Theoretical Definition #1

White supremacy is “a historically based, institutionally perpetuated system of exploitation and oppression of continents, nations, and people of color by white people and nations of the European continent for the purposes of maintaining and defending a system of wealth, power, and privilege” (Martinez, 1998, para. 1).

Theoretical Definition #2

The belief held by some whites that African-Americans are subhuman, lazy and stupid, uneducated, and irrational is labeled as “old fashion racism” (Sears, Van Laar, Carrillo, & Kosterman, 1997, p. 20).

Theoretical Definition #3

Racism is multidimensional. The first type is individual racism in which racial discrimination is experienced on a personal level by African-Americans. The second type is institutional racism in which African-Americans are excluded from the full participation as a result of social and institutional policies. When the cultural practices of the dominant group are regarded by society and its institutions as superior to the culture of a subordinate group, it is referred to as cultural racism (Jones, 1997).

Operational Definition

For the purpose of this study white supremacy is defined by participants’ response to interview questions #6 – the administrative qualities and characteristics they believe are necessary to advance to an executive-level position, #7 – the institutional characteristics, culture, or climate they believe are necessary to advance to an executive-level position, #8 – administrative qualities or characteristics they believe would facilitate or hinder their advancement to the executive-level position, #9 – institutional qualities or characteristics they believe would facilitate or hinder their advancement to the executive-level position, #12 – their description of career advancement opportunities in higher education for African-American administrators at PWIs, and #13 – their description of career advancement opportunities in higher education for African-American

administrators at PWIs for specific executive-level positions (see Appendix A - Interview Schedule Questions).

Institutional Hierarchy

Theoretical Definition #1

The word administrator is a person in a managerial or policy-making capacity that may have a line or staff function. A line function is part of the institution's hierarchy and someone to whom others report. This person also reports to a supervisor. Staff functions fall outside of the institution's hierarchy with no one reporting to this person (Jackson, 2001).

Theoretical Definition #2

An exempted employee meeting the following requirements: (1) A predetermined and preset salary, not an hourly wage subject to reductions because of quality or quantity of work performed, (salary base test); (2) salary paid meets minimum amounts (salary level test); and (3) the employee's primary duty involve managerial, administrative, or professional skills (duties test) (U.S. Department of Labor).

Theoretical Definition #3

The Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) is the National Center for Education Statistics data collection program for postsecondary education. IPEDS includes all institutions and educational organizations that provide postsecondary education as their primary purpose. IPEDS classifies positions as: persons whose assignments involve management of the institution; assignments include the performance of work directly related to management policies or general business operations of the institution, department or subdivision. Assignments require the incumbent to exercise

discretion, independent judgment, and supervise others. Titles included in this category are: postsecondary education administrators such as – presidents, vice presidents, assistant and associate vice presidents, assistant and associate deans (if they direct work of others), deans, directors, and department heads (National Center for Education Statistics, n.d.).

Operational Definition #1

For the purpose of this study institutional hierarchy is defined as individuals whose responsibilities require management of the institution. Included in this category are presidents, vice presidents, assistant and associate vice presidents that supervise others, assistant and associate deans that directly supervise others, deans, directors, and department heads (National Center for Education Statistics, n.d.).

Operational Definition #2

Moore and Sagaria indicated administration and governance of higher education institutions are broken down into three specialty areas: (a) Academic affairs - president, academic deans, and vice president or provost of research, (b) Student affairs - vice president of student affairs, dean of students, and director of financial aid (c) Administrative affairs - vice president of finance, director of alumni affairs, and the director of computer services (as cited in Jackson, 2002).

Colleges and Universities

Theoretical Definition #1

Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU) are “those colleges and universities so designated by the White House Initiative on Historically Black Colleges and Universities, United States Department of Education” (U.S. Department of

Agriculture, 1985, para. 1). (see Appendix B – Implementation of Executive Order 12320: Strengthening Historically Black Colleges and Universities).

Operational Definition #1

For the purpose of this study “Historically Black Colleges and Universities are institutions designated by the White House as Historically Black Colleges and Universities from the United States Department of Education” (U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1985, para. 1). (see Appendix B – Implementation of Executive Order 12320: Strengthening Historically Black Colleges and Universities).

Theoretical Definition #2

Predominately White Institutions (PWIs) are (a) colleges or universities that are not an HBCU, and (b) those colleges and universities that are not included on the list of institutions included in Executive Order 12320 (see Appendix B – Implementation of Executive Order 12320: Strengthening Historically Black Colleges and Universities).

Operational Definition #2

For the purpose of this study Predominately White Institutions (PWIs) are colleges or universities that are neither an HBCU nor included on the list of institutions included in Executive Order 12320 (see Appendix B – Implementation of Executive Order 12320: Strengthening Historically Black Colleges and Universities).

Theoretical Definition #3

Doctoral/Research University—Extensive: Institutions that provide a wide range of bachelor degree programs through the doctorate degree. These institutions award over 50 doctoral degrees in a minimum of 15 disciplines per year (Carnegie Classification, n.d.).

Operational Definition #3

For the purposes of this study the setting for data collection was a Florida public, PWIs, Doctoral/Research University—Extensive (Carnegie Classification, 2002). The undergraduate educational background of the participants was classified as either PWIs or HBCU.

Significance of the Study

The 1990s was a period of growth for African-Americans in higher education. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2002) between 1991 and 1997, African-American student enrollment in colleges and universities increased from 1.3 million to 1.5 million. This represents only a 0.2 million increase from the 1970 – 1977 period. Due primarily to the lack of progress made by African-Americans in higher education, the 1980s have been referred to as a “lost decade” for African-Americans in education (Bridges, 1996, p. 748). According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2002), Black Americans represented 13% (36 million) of the United States of America population as of March of 2002. Thirty-three percent were under the age of 18; 8% were 65 or older and 55% of all Black Americans lived in the South. Only 17% of all Black Americans 25 and older had obtained a bachelor’s degree, and only 18% were employed in managerial and professional occupations (Census Bureau, 2002).

Racial equity is still a major hurdle facing higher education institutions (Jackson, 2000). African-American administrators struggle to find the way for a career in higher education. Historically, white public and private institutions of higher education perceive and continue to feel pressured and forced to admit African-Americans as students and hire African-Americans in faculty, staff and administrative positions. Affirmative action

programs addressed the issue of increasing the number of African-American students enrolled and granted access to African-American professionals to PWIs of higher education (Bridges, 1996). Yet, the numbers of African-American administrators remain miniscule. The main purpose of affirmative action was to eliminate unfair barriers to the equal participation of under-represented racial groups and women. Today, under new types of racism, modern and symbolic, affirmative action is being heavily challenged.

Current legal and political developments threaten African-Americans' chances at becoming students or getting hired at PWIs of higher education, which tend to "weaken diversity initiatives on college and universities campuses" (DeSousa, 2001, p. 38). The 1996 *Hopewell v. State of Texas* case and California-initiated Proposition 209 in 1996 are two developments that appear to have impeded PWIs of higher education from embracing affirmative action initiatives designed to increase the representation of African-American students and other minorities on their campuses (DeSousa, 2001). The decline of African-American students in both California and Texas PWIs of higher education is evident. According to Bobo (1998) "a new form of anti-Black racism has risen" (p. 985). To ensure racial equality on the campus, it was important for PWIs to identify anti-Black American racism and attitudes.

The opponents of affirmative action view themselves as champions of the "true color-blind intent for cherished American values" (Bobo, 1998, p. 985). Other opponents proclaim a lack of a valid claim of victim status and the spoils of racial privilege for African-Americans. The Southern Poverty Law Center, a civil rights group that tracks hate crimes, found that college campuses are the third most common venue for hate crimes (as cited in Pewewardy & Frey, 2002). In 1993 Love found the climate of most

PWIs was established under the law and/or practice that excluded African-American students. That same climate was built into the structure and fabric of the institution (as cited in Jones, 2001).

A characteristic profile of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education is absent from the literature. There exists a plethora of literature and years of research on the African-American student. Data on the African-American faculty on predominantly white campuses has been compiled and studied. However, to the contrary, little is known about the African-American administrator. Nothing is known of their career choice selection and employment as an administrator at a PWI. Are they graduates of HBCUs or PWIs? What is the career path for them and are they successful? This study may add a new dimension to the limited literature. The data provide a basis for areas of future scholarly inquiry.

Delimitations and Scope

This study is about:

1. African-American administrators at one PWI of higher education and their career decisions. Therefore, African-American administrators at HBCUs, private, technical and two-year institutions of higher education and their career decisions were not included.
2. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2002) statistical analysis report, African-American males are employed in greater numbers at four- year institutions, held the highest degrees, and stayed in higher education longer. Therefore, African-American females at the one PWI in administrative positions were not included.

3. This study is limited to African-American male administrators at one PWI of higher education and their career decisions that are in the following positions as defined by the National Center for Education Statistics (2004):
 - (a) Primarily Research - Main assignment is conducting research and holding the academic titles of professor, associate professor, assistant professor, or titles such as research associate or postdoctoral fellow including deans, directors, or the equivalent, as well as associate deans, assistant deans, and executive officers of academic departments (chairpersons, heads, or equivalent) if their principal activity is research.
 - (b) Primarily Public Service - Deans, including associate and assistant deans, and executive officers of academic departments are included in this category.
 - (c) Other Administrative (Assistant or Associate) - Individuals whose assignments include management of the institution, who report to employees classified as executive and managerial. Included in this category are assistant, associate vice presidents (not supervising others); assistant, associate deans (not supervising others); assistant, associate directors; assistant, and associate department head.

4. African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education in the following positions as defined by the U.S. Department of education and their career decisions are excluded from this study (National Center for Education Statistics, 2004):
 - (a) Executive/Administrative/Managerial - Individuals whose primary responsibility involves management of the institution. This includes postsecondary education administrators in positions as -- president, vice president, assistant and associate vice president (that supervise others), assistant and associate deans (that supervise others), deans, directors, and department heads.
 - (b) Other Professional Staff (unless titles of managers) - Individuals whose primary role is performing academic support, student service, and institutional support, whose responsibilities require either a baccalaureate degree or higher or experience. Included in this category are all employees holding titles such as business operations specialists, buyers and purchasing agents, human resources, training, and labor relations specialists, management analysts, meeting and convention planners,

miscellaneous business operations specialists, financial specialists, accountants and auditors, budget analysts, financial analysts and advisors, financial examiners; loan counselors and officers; computer specialists; computer and information scientists, research, computer programmers, computer software engineers, computer support specialists, computer systems analysts, database administrators, network and computer systems administrators, network systems and data communication analysts, counselors, social workers, and other community and social service specialists, counselors, social workers, health educators, clergy, directors, religious activities and education, lawyers, librarians, curators, and archivists, museum technicians and conservators, librarians, artists and related workers, designers, athletes, coaches, umpires, dancers and choreographers, music directors and composers, chiropractors, dentists, dietitians and nutritionists, optometrists, pharmacists, physicians and surgeons, podiatrists, registered nurses, therapists, and veterinarians.

- (c) Technical/Paraprofessional - Persons requiring specialized knowledge or skills that may be obtained through experience, apprenticeship, on-the-job-training, or academic work in occupationally specific programs that require a two-year degree or other certificate or diploma.
 - (d) Clerical/Secretarial - Individuals whose assignments are associated with clerical activities, including internal and external communications, recording and retrieval of data and other paperwork required in an office.
 - (e) Skilled Craft - Persons whose assignments require specific manual skills and comprehensive knowledge of the processes involved in the work. These skills are generally acquired through on-the-job-training and experience or through apprenticeship or other formal training programs.
 - (f) Service/Maintenance - Individuals whose assignments require limited degrees of skills and knowledge or duties.
5. This study is limited to one doctorate-granting institution as defined by the 2000 Carnegie classification system of higher education:
- (a) Doctoral/Research Universities—Extensive: These institutions typically offer a wide range of baccalaureate programs, and they are committed to graduate education through the doctorate. During the period studied they awarded 50 or more doctoral degrees per year across a minimum of 15 disciplines.
6. The following institutions as defined by the 2000 Carnegie classification system of higher education were not included in this study:

- (a) **Doctoral/Research Universities—Intensive:** Institutions that offer a range of bachelor degree programs through the doctorate degree. They awarded 10 doctoral degrees or more per year in three or more disciplines, or at least 20 doctoral degrees per year.
- (b) **Master's Colleges and Universities I:** Institutions that offer a range of bachelor degree programs through the master's degree. Forty or more master's degrees in three or more disciplines are awarded per year.
- (c) **Master's Colleges and Universities II:** Institutions that offer a range of bachelor degree programs through the master's degree. Twenty or more master's degrees are awarded per year.
- (d) **Baccalaureate Colleges—Liberal Arts:** Undergraduate colleges with a major emphasis on the bachelor degree programs. They award half of their bachelor degrees in liberal arts fields.
- (e) **Baccalaureate Colleges—General:** Primarily undergraduate colleges with a major emphasis on bachelor degree programs. They awarded less than half of their bachelor degrees in liberal arts fields.
- (f) **Baccalaureate/Associate's Colleges:** Undergraduate colleges that confer a majority of degrees below the baccalaureate level (associate's degrees and certificates). Bachelor degrees accounted for at least 10% of undergraduate awards.
- (g) **Associate's Colleges —** Associate's degrees and certificate programs with few exceptions are awarded. Bachelor degrees are not awarded.
- (h) **Specialized Institutions —** Degrees ranging from the bachelor's to the doctorate and typically award a majority of degrees in a single field. The list includes only institutions that are listed as separate campuses in the *2000 Higher Education Directory*. Specialized institutions include:
 - i. *Theological seminaries and other specialized faith-related institutions:* Offer religious instruction or train members of the clergy.
 - ii. *Medical schools and medical centers:* Award professional degrees in medicine. May include other health professions programs such as dentistry, pharmacy, or nursing in some instances.
 - iii. *Other separate health profession schools:* Award degrees in fields as chiropractic, nursing, pharmacy, or podiatry.

- iv. *Schools of engineering and technology*: Award bachelor's or graduate degrees in technical fields.
 - v. *Schools of business and management*: These institutions award most of their bachelor's or graduate degrees in business or business-related programs.
 - vi. *Schools of art, music, and design*: Award bachelor's or graduate degrees in art, music, design, architecture, or some combination of fields.
 - vii. *Schools of law*: Award degrees in law.
 - viii. *Teacher colleges*: Award bachelor's or graduate degrees in education or education-related fields.
 - ix. *Other specialized institutions*: Institutions include graduate centers, maritime academies, military institutes, and institutions that do not fit any other classification category.
- (i) Tribal Colleges and Universities — Colleges that are tribally controlled and located on reservations. They are all members of the American Indian Higher Education Consortium.

7. Participants for the study were selected from a Florida public PWI, Doctoral/Research University—Extensive institution of higher education. Therefore, private, technical and two-year institutions were not included in this study.
8. The five selected participants included two managers in administrative affairs and three managers in student affairs. No administrators in academic affairs participated.

Overview of the Research Methodology

A qualitative, phenomenological methodology was used to examine the factors influencing the career decisions of African-Americans administrators in PWIs institutions of higher education, and examine if white supremacy emerges as a theme. The most compelling argument for this researcher to use a qualitative research method was the ability to focus on the individual's lived experiences. "Qualitative research searches for a deeper understanding of the participant's lived experiences of the phenomenon" being studied (Marshall, 1999, p. 60).

The phenomenological approach studies the ways in which a person's world is inevitably formed in part by the person who lives it (Huberman & Miles, 2002). Therefore, a phenomenological approach was used within the qualitative paradigm to discover what specific experiences were like for each individual participant in their career decision. Five African-American administrators participated in this study. The participants' experience as an administrator at a PWI was obtained by using an in-depth interview. The interview process allowed the researcher to explore "all possible meanings and divergent perspectives that reveal patterns, themes, and categories" (Creswell, 1998, p. 150). A within-case analysis of the data provided a detailed description of each participant's lived experience. Cross-case analysis was used to search for themes and patterns of the student affairs, academic affairs, and administrative affairs groups. Chapter 3 provides a description of the study design, sample and setting, procedures, and methods of data analysis.

It was not until the 1960s when the social and political policies that denied equal education to African-Americans and restricted their access to higher education changed.

It was not until after the 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas* that African-American student enrollment increased significantly in PWIs of higher education (Prendergast, 2002). Despite the increased numbers of African-Americans graduating from college and obtaining advance degrees, the number of African-Americans serving in administrative positions in PWIs of higher education remains significantly low. Using a phenomenological qualitative method, the career decision of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education was explored.

Although this study does not benefit participants directly, the study may contribute to general knowledge about the career decision making of African-American administrators and the under-representation of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher educations. The following review of literature provides insight into the career decision making and under-representation of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education. Insight into the factors influencing the career decision and whether white supremacy emerges as a factor in the career decision of African-Americans was reviewed. This study attempts to reveal rich data regarding African-American male administrators.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE, THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK, AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Introduction

It was not until the 1960s when the social and political policies that denied equal education to African-Americans and restricted their access to higher education changed. After the United States Supreme Court 1954 decision of *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas* the enrollment of African-American students increased significantly in PWIs of higher education (Prendergast, 2002). Despite the increased numbers of African-American students graduating from college and obtaining advance degrees, the number of African-Americans serving in administrative positions in PWIs of higher education remains significantly low.

The purpose of this literature review is (1) to examine white supremacy's impact on the under-representation of African-American administrators in predominately white institutions of higher education, (2) to examine the impact of forced desegregation on the institutional environment of predominately white institutions of higher education, (3) to generate future areas of scholarly inquiry, and (4) to establish a theoretical framework for this study and the research questions to be answered.

Literature Review

White Supremacy, Racism, and Segregation in American Life

When it came to public education, white supremacy, racism, and discrimination has had a significant and lasting impact on the American way of life (Prendergast, 2002). African-Americans held high in value and persistently sought after a higher education.

Historically, socially, and legally they were denied from participating fully in the educational process (Young, 1992). The social and political policies that denied equal education to African-Americans and restricted their access to higher education did not change until the 1960s (Prendergast, 2002).

Throughout the eighteenth and nineteenth century, the position of the United States of America's executive, judicial and legislative branches of the federal government was to protect the established racial social order, maintain White America in a superior and controlling position, and legalize the consignment of African-Americans to an inferior and subservient position. Based on the misguided belief in the cultural and innate inferiority of the Black race, the United States Supreme Court firmly established white supremacy in the 1857 *Dred Scott v. Sanford* decision. It declared the Civil Rights Act of 1875 unconstitutional and also ruled that the Fourteenth Amendment did not restrict private organizations or individuals from discriminating against people because of race thereby sanctioning the legal practice of segregation in 1883 (Digital History, n.d.). The Court also validated state legislation that discriminated against African-Americans in the 1896 *Plessy v. Ferguson* decision and declared state laws establishing separate schools for whites valid, even if the state did not provide comparable schools for Blacks in the 1899 *Cumming v. County Board of Education* decision (Byrd-Chichester, 2000; Stefkovich & Leas, 1994).

The system of separate but equal/Jim Crow that was sanctioned by federal courts and enacted by state law would continue until well after World War II and extend into the decade of the 1960s. It was not until the 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas* case, the U. S. Supreme Court declared segregation laws unconstitutional. Even

though the separate but equal doctrine was declared unconstitutional in 1954, it would take 18 years before the enrollment of African-American students to nearly double in America's colleges and universities. America would experience record numbers of African-American students graduating from PWIs (Rolle, et al. 2002; Bridges, 1996).

Evolution of White Supremacy

As it is now experienced and institutionalized in the United States, the origin of white supremacy can be traced to the colonizing ventures of the Christian crusades into Muslim-controlled territories and to the Calvinist Protestant colonization of Ireland. The Christian crusades and the Calvinist Protestant colonization of Ireland served as the models for the colonization of the Western Hemisphere, and are the two strands that merge in the genetic makeup of U.S. society (Dunbar-Ortiz, 2003).

By 1095 Islamic Turks had conquered Jerusalem. The power of Islam was perceived as a particular threat to Christianity (Beach, 1998). Duncan-Ortiz (2003) concluded that the Vatican created the original institution of the Inquisition in 1179 for routing out Christian heretics. Pope Urban II proclaimed a "holy war" or Crusade to rout the Muslims and to reclaim Palestine for the Christian faith (Beach, 1998, Section 3, para. 2). The doctrine of *limpieza de sangre*, "purity of blood," was popularized and had the effect of granting psychological, and increasingly legal, privileges to Old Christians, thereby obscuring the class differences between the poor and the rich (Dunbar-Ortiz, 2003, Section 3, para. 5).

The first instance of class-based or imagined biological racial differences is evident in the late fifteenth and early sixteenth century Spain. Kincheloe (1999) said whiteness presents itself as a non-color, non-blemished pure category and even a drop of

non-white blood was enough to categorize a person as colored. He stated that, “being white, thus, meant possessing the privilege of being uncontaminated by any other bloodline” (p. 165). The research of Kincheloe (1999) and Kolchin (2002) identified the Irish, Italians, and Jews as having been once classified as non-white. In 1751 Benjamin Franklin stated, “All Africa is black or tawny; Asia chiefly tawny. . . . the Spaniards, Italians, French, Russians, and Swedes are generally of what we call a swarthy complexion; as are the Germans also, the Saxons only excepted, who, with the English made the principle body of white people on the face of the earth” (as cited by Kolchin, 2002, p. 158).

White supremacy is a historically based, institutionally perpetuated system of exploitation and oppression of continents, nations, and people of color by white people and nations of the European continent for the purposes of maintaining and defending a system of wealth, power, and privilege. The root of white supremacy is placed in the establishment of economic exploitation of human labor and justifying the exploitation by institutionalizing the inferiority of its victims (Martinez, 1998).

During the early colonial period, a majority of the people living in the colonies were servants. However, the first settlers in the American colonies referred to themselves by their European country of origin – not white (Martinez, 1998). The arrival of the first Africans to America was in 1619. Twenty-two years later the state of Massachusetts in 1649 became the first colony to legally recognize slavery as an institution followed by Connecticut in 1650 and Virginia in 1661 (Becker, 1999). By the 1660's the demand for labor in Virginia exceeded the supply of indentured servants from England. With the

lack of white workers coming from Europe, America's agricultural and industry suffered a labor shortage. As a result, the enslaved African became the chief source of labor.

Pertinent to the rise of white supremacy is Bacon's Rebellion of 1675-1676. Bacon's Rebellion demonstrated that poor whites and poor blacks could be united in a cause. In the colonies the class line between the rich elite and poor was very distinct. Elite whites were outnumbered by the discontented class consisting of white servants, tenant farmers, the urban poor, the property-less, soldiers and sailors. The white elite feared that the poor whites, freemen and African slaves would unite as one group. To eliminate the problem the elite granted the poor whites privileges like carrying a gun, joining the militias, acquiring land, and other legal rights not allowed to African slaves. "With these privileges they were legally declared white on the basis of skin color and continental origin. That made them 'superior' to Blacks (and Indians)" (Martinez, 1998, Section IV, para. 3). The concept of divide and conquer by granting privileges based on the color of the skin and continent of origin was conceived.

Martinez (1998) said the concept of whiteness originated as a racist concept to prevent lower-class Whites from combining forces with people of color, especially Blacks, against their common class enemies. It was a means for the elite to preserve their position, wealth, and power. Hence, "only after the racialization of slavery around 1680 did whiteness and blackness come to represent racial categories" (Kincheloe 1999, p. 167).

In America when a slave became free he was still obviously an African. In 1972 Coombs articulated the point: "The taint of inferiority clung to him. Not only did White America become convinced of white superiority and black inferiority, but it strove to

impose these racial beliefs on the Africans themselves” (as cited in Becker 1999, para. 4). It is further emphasized that slave masters gave a great deal of attention to the education and training of the ideal slave. The five steps involved in molding the character of a slave were (1) strict discipline, (2) a sense of his own inferiority, (3) belief in the master’s superior power, (4) acceptance of the master’s standards, and (5) a deep sense of his own helplessness and dependence. Every point of the education was built on the belief and premise of white superiority and black inferiority. Besides teaching the slave to despise his own history and culture, the master strove to inculcate his own value system into the African's outlook (as cited in Becker, 1999).

In 1995 Stephanson, Hill, and Wang suggested that “some influential Whites who opposed slavery in those years said Blacks should be removed from U.S. soil to avoid contamination by an inferior people” (as cited in Martinez, 1998, Section IV, para. 6). However, Miller (1995) found the belief in the inferiority of Blacks predated slavery. George M. Fredrickson found the English tended to identify blackness with savagery, heathenism, and general failure to conform to European standards of civilization and propriety in their early contact with Africans. Their association of black with evil was deeply rooted in their Western and Christian mythology (as cited in Miller, 1995). “In spite of these early negative views the English and other European had not yet developed a racist doctrine that asserted the inborn inferiority of blacks” (p. 80). The origin of black inferiority and the idea of Blacks being innately inferior did not emerge until the 19th century America (Miller, 1995). “Race in America transcends the issues of class that predominate most other societies around the world. What started off as a social

construction predicated on economics has become the one ailment America cannot seem to distance itself from (Wiley, 2001, p. 138).

Old Fashion Racism Theory

The beginning of the Jim Crow period started when segregation rules, laws and customs surfaced after Reconstruction ended in the 1870s. Jim Crow existed until the mid-1960s when the struggle for civil rights in the United States gained national attention (Lords, 2002). David Pilgrim, curator of the Jim Crow Museum of Racist Memorabilia at Ferris State University, said Thomas Rice, a White actor, helped fuel the belief among many Whites in the 1830s that African-Americans were subhuman, lazy, and stupid. It was commonplace to see Black people mocked as uneducated and irrational (as cited in Lords, 2002). Today, this form of white supremacy is labeled as “old-fashion racism” (Sears, Van Laar, Carrillo, & Kosterman, 1997, p. 20). Here, the focus is on the classic theory of biologically based racial superiority where the belief that “race is the primary determinant of human traits and capacities and that racial differences produce an inherent superiority of a particular race” (p. 19). The physical segregation of and legalized discrimination against African-Americans was based on the biological theory. In 1986 McConahay and in 1976 McConahay and Hough referred to it as “redneck racism”. In 1995 Petigrew and Meertens labeled it as “blatant racism”; and in 1996 Sidanius, Pratto, and Bobo referred to it as “classical racism” (as cited in Sears, et al., 1997, p. 20). Allen (2001) offered a simplified concept of white supremacy by defining it as a system that confers unearned power and privilege on those who become identified as white, while conferring disprivilege and disempowerment on those identified as people of color.

Racism

“Racial discrimination is insidious and permeates many aspects of African American life” (Utsey, Ponterotto, Reynolds, & Cancelli, 2000, p. 72). Racism is multidimensional and can be classified by using a tripartite typology (Jones, 1997). The first type is individual racism: African-Americans are likely to experience racial discrimination on a personal level. The second type described by Jones is institutional racism, racism is experienced by African-Americans as a result of social and institutional policies that exclude them from full participation in the benefits offered to other members of society. The final type described by Jones is cultural. Cultural racism occurs when the cultural practices of the “dominant” group are generally regarded by society and its institutions as being superior to the culture of a “subordinate” group (Jones, 1997).

Institutionalizing of White Supremacy

Byrd-Chichester (2000) said the earlier U. S. Supreme Court’s role was one of “protecting a racial social order that sought to place Whites in a superior and controlling position and relegate Blacks to an inferior, subservient one” (p. 12). The attitude of white supremacy was firmly established by the United States Supreme Court. In the 1857 *Dred Scott v. Sanford* majority opinion, Supreme Court Justice Roger Taney stated, (Digital History, n.d.):

In the opinion of the Court the legislation and histories of the times, and the language used in the Declaration of Independence, show that neither the class of persons who had been imported as slaves nor their descendants, whether they had become free or not, were then acknowledged as a part of the people nor intended to be included in the general words used in that memorable instrument.

They had for more than a century before been regarded as beings of an inferior order and altogether unfit to associate with the white race, either in social or political relations; and so far inferior that they had no rights which the white man was bound to respect; and that the Negro might justly and lawfully be reduced to slavery for his benefit. He was bought and sold and treated as an ordinary article of merchandise and traffic whenever a profit could be made by it. This opinion was at that time fixed and universal in the civilized portion of the white race.

(para. 6)

Future court decisions were against the newly created constitutional and statutory protections for recently freed African-Americans. The Court's interpretations nullified entire sections of the civil rights laws and made a mockery of the civil, political, and social rights that granted citizenship and equal protection rights established by the Fourteenth Amendment. In 1883 the U.S. Supreme Court declared the Civil Rights Act of 1875 unconstitutional, thereby striking down the foundations of the post-Civil War Reconstruction. The Court also ruled that the Fourteenth Amendment prohibited state governments from discriminating against people because of race, but did not restrict private organizations or individuals from doing so. Thus the legal practice of segregation became permissible (Byrd-Chichester, 2000).

Legalization of Segregation

The 1892 Supreme Court *Plessy v. Ferguson* decision led to a profusion of Jim Crow laws. Every Southern state by 1914 had passed laws that created two separate societies: one black, the other white. Blacks and whites could not ride together in the same railroad cars, sit in the same waiting rooms, use the same washrooms, eat in the

same restaurants, or sit in the same theaters. Blacks were denied access to parks, beaches, and picnic areas. They were barred from many hospitals. What had been maintained by custom in the rural South was to be maintained by law in the urban South (Stefkovich, & Leas, 1994; Miller, 1998).

Black Culture Inferiority and Black Innate Inferior Theories

Miller (1995) presented two theories of Black inferiority that perpetuated the abolitionist movement theory of Black inferiority. The first, the culturally inferior theory, was predicated on the belief of “white (European-derived) culture being more advanced than the cultures of Blacks, Native Americans, many Hispanics, and Asians”. The second theory, the innate inferior theory, said that, “whites were innately superior to blacks” (p. 78). The combined concepts provided a cultural and genetic basis of inferiority of the African-Americans. The implications created the rationale for White America not to invest in college-level liberal arts education for African-Americans and support vocational training for them.

New Racism

Up until the 1960s many White Americans did not find it painful to be called “prejudiced” or “racist” (Feagin, 1992; Brief & Hayes, 1997). Most Whites held so many racial stereotypes and prejudices up until the '50s and '60s that they were comfortable in expressing overt racist attitudes and perspectives. “Just 50 years ago public opinion polls showed widespread acceptance of segregation and discrimination based upon race. Today, these polls demonstrate that blatant racist attitudes and expressions are no longer popular and socially unacceptable” (Brief, Buttram, Reizenstein, Callahan, McCline, & Vaslow, 1997, p. 59). Under the new racism, racists acknowledge racism as “socially

undesirable, yet they feel negatively towards Blacks partially because they believe the gains Blacks have made were not earned” (Brief, et al., 1997, p. 94). Viewing their attitude not as racist but as fact, the new racist believes racism is a thing of the past and Blacks gains are unfair because they were not earned (Brief, et al., 1997, p. 61).

Symbolic Racism Theory

Sears, Kinder and McConahay coined the term “symbolic racism” in 1970 to describe the changing attitudes of White Americans (as cited in McClelland, & Auster, 1990). The symbolic racism theory, according to Sears, Van Laar, Carrillo, and Kosterman, (1997) and Bobo (1998) involves a blend of early-learned, anti-black feelings and beliefs with traditional American values of hard work and self-reliance. McClelland and Auster’s (1990) research was conducted to “test the utility of the symbolic racism and ‘dominant ideology’ theoretical frameworks for understanding contemporary campus racial climates” (p. 617). Using the scale data on the racial climate at Ivy College, a predominantly private residential, coeducational college with a population of 3,000 students, of which 5% of the students were African-American, was collected. The study was conducted over a three-year period from 1985 to 1988. Results of the study revealed a significant gap between white students’ assessments of their schools’ racial climate and that of African-American students.

White students have developed the symbolic racism ideology to justify their advantage. Symbolic racism has been associated with “traditional American values” as individualism, the Protestant ethic, and political and social conservatism (McClelland & Auster, 1990, p. 609). Lewis, Chester and Forman (2000) found a significant gap between white students’ assessments of their schools’ racial climate and those of students

of color. Therefore, symbolic racist can justify their opposition to programs like busing and affirmative action because the programs violate the principle of meritocracy or free choice. While the study was conducted at one college, there are greater implications for widespread application of the symbolic racism theory; therefore, further research is required. However, for African-American students the question is not whether racial tension exists on their campuses, but to what degree and with what impact.

Modern Racism

Modern racism focuses on the two core elements that describe the anti-black sentiment in America: egalitarianism and individualism. According to Busselle and Crandall (2002) an American belief is that all people should be self-dependent, hard-working and treated equally. This allows for the acceptance of unequal status if those less fortunate are perceived as lazy, criminal, or in some way deviant. In 1986 McConahay suggested that modern racism follows these thoughts in which most White Americans disavow traditional racist beliefs of innate black inferiority or the acceptableness of racial segregation. However, "White Americans oppose affirmative action and anti-poverty programs on the grounds that discrimination and racism are no longer a problem and, therefore, any socioeconomic inequality that exists among African-Americans is the result of their personal failure rather than systemic injustice" (as cited in Busselle & Crandall, 2002, p. 266).

Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU)

CH II Publishers (1997) states, "the educational mission of a large number of the historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs) reflected the universal view prevailing in the nineteenth century that Negroes were a lesser breed possessed of inferior

intelligence” (p. 93). Once established, there was ambivalence about the real purpose and, consequently, the curriculum and future of these institutions (LeMelle, 2002). It was believed inconceivable that the emancipated African-American was qualified to study fields as philosophy, physics, chemistry, or business. The schools Whites established for African-Americans were industrial schools, and the mission was to train the Negroes to improve themselves to earn a living.

Bielke (1997) cited Fred McCuiston, a field representative for Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS), confirming in 1933 that “African-Americans in the North did not necessarily escape racial discrimination in their pursuit of graduate education” (p. 5). McCuiston noted in professions where African-Americans had to work closely with Whites (e.g. medicine, social work, and teaching), “northern schools often relegated Blacks to alternative experiences” (as cited in Beilke, p. 5).

Political and Social Change/Forced Desegregation/Inclusion of African-Americans

Higher education was not a natural societal expectation when it came to African-Americans (Wilson, 1998). He points out African-Americans were systematically excluded from America’s white college and university campuses. HBCUs were designated specifically for African-Americans; the institutions were under-funded and administrators followed the dictates of racist boards and community leaders. The institutions were segregated in funds and programs, and the facilities rendered them undesirable to non African-American students. African-Americans were forced to attend these inferior institutions that did not begin offering college-level courses until a 1938 Supreme Court decision required it (Bryd-Chichester, 2000).

Before World War II, Hispanics and African-Americans were virtually invisible in higher education (Adams, 2001). Washington and Harvey (1989) and Beilke (1997) noted a sizable group of African-Americans with PhDs in 1936; 80 percent taught at three historically African-American institutions: Atlanta, Fisk, and Howard Universities. In 1940 there were 330 black PhDs in the country and not one taught at a white university (Ballard, 1994). By 1941 only two African-American tenured faculty members in PWIs could be identified. “Almost no white institution of higher education in this country, before the hiring of Allison Davis at the University of Chicago in 1941, believed that any Black man was intelligent enough to be a professor at a white university” (Ballard, 1994, p. 39). By 1947 out of 3,000 African-Americans who listed college teacher as their occupation, only 78 had ever taught at a white school--many as part-time lecturers (Ballard, 1994). The Julius Rosenwald Fund in 1946 wrote a letter to 500 college and university presidents in the North requesting that they make some effort to recruit black faculty (as cited in Ballard, 1994):

Four-fifths of the colleges did not deign to reply to this outrageous request. Most of the colleges that did reply stated that they would make no special effort to recruit black faculty members. Some said black faculties were most needed in black colleges; others stated that blacks would be unhappy in the white environment. One said in a classic non sequitur that the Ohio River was too close by to permit hiring a black faculty member, while one honest college stated that, ‘it isn’t that we discriminate against the Negro race as such, it’s just that our entire college is white’. (p. 41)

Prior to the 1970s, few African-American students and faculty attended predominantly white colleges (Adams, 2001). Black professors in white institutions were so rare that their mere presence made them celebrities among educators in HBCUs, where 99.9% of all Black administrators were to be found. “Thirty years ago, Americas’ higher education establishment was about as de facto segregated as the Southern public school systems had been prior to *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas, 1954*” (Adams, 2001, para. 3). “It was only after World War II that American education began its journey from academic apartheid toward a truly diverse and democratic student body, faculty, and staff” (R. Brown, 2002, p. 1061). Twenty years after World War II, to ensure educational advancement, job acquisition, and housing security of all Americans, the United States Government interceded. The strategy resulted in the move of a substantial number of Americans, primarily white, into the middle class (Wilson, 1998; Byrd-Chichester, 2000).

Move to Inclusion

The 1954 United States Supreme Court in the *Brown* decision, Equal Opportunity, Affirmative Action, and the Civil Rights Act of 1964 were instrumental in desegregating PWIs of higher education. “It was not an internal spirit of concern about justice and fairness within these academic environments, but the civil rights movement and the consequent passage of federal legislation, that finally led to the desegregation of America’s postsecondary institutions” (Williams, 2001, p. 16). After decades of legal and political victories, and federal intervention African-Americans have gained greater access to institutions of higher education that formally denied them access based solely on race (DeSousa, 2001). Federal legislation by President Kennedy and President

Johnson in the early 1960s and the Civil Rights Act of 1964 was used to force the desegregation of America's colleges and universities (Brunner, 2003; Allen, Teranishi, Dinwiddie, & Gonzales, 2000b).

Judicial Decisions

On May 17, 1954 the United States Supreme Court struck down the separate but equal doctrine of Plessy for public education. The Court ruled in favor of the plaintiffs and required the desegregation of schools across America. Chief Justice Earl Warren read the Court's unanimous decision (FindLaw, n.d.):

We come then to the question presented: Does segregation of children in public schools solely on the basis of race, even though the physical facilities and other tangible factors may be equal, deprive the children of the minority group of equal educational opportunities? We believe that it does. . . . We conclude that in the field of public education the doctrine of separate but equal has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal. Therefore, we hold that the plaintiffs and others similarly situated for whom the actions have been brought are, by reason of the segregation complained of, deprived of the equal protection of the laws guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment. (para. 12)

Branch (1988) and Greenberg (1994) studied the involvement of federal courts in ordering white colleges to admit Black students in the early 1960s. They found the efforts to desegregate PWIs brought massive resistance in southern states (as cited in Byrd-Chichester, 2000). "Following Brown, Mississippi and other states adopted resolutions, 'interposing' the right of the state to control the question of school segregation over the rule of federal courts (Resolution of Interposition, 1956; Tushnet,

1994)” (as cited in Byrd-Chichester, 2000, p. 17). Massive resistance occurred in many jurisdictions when federal courts ordered Black students to be admitted to PWIs (Byrd-Chichester, 2000).

Civil Rights Act of 1964

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 is the most sweeping legislation since Reconstruction (Brunner, 2003; Clinton, 2003). The act prohibited discrimination of all kinds based on race, color, religion, or national origin. Senator Hillary Rodham Clinton (2003) in her speech on March 12, 2002 at Georgetown University Law Center stated that Congress passed one of the most heroic pieces of legislation of the 20th century: the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibiting racial discrimination by private entities. Under Title VI, no recipient of federal funds, public or private, could engage in racial discrimination in any of its programs or activities. Also under Title VII a person could no longer be turned down for a job because of their race. Clinton stated, “Sadly, in 1964, it was still common for prominent commentators to compare a federal ban on discrimination in business and employment to McCarthyism, communism, and even fascism” (Clinton, 2003, Section II, para. 29).

Affirmative Action

Allen, et al. (2000b) found the primary agenda of affirmative action was to remove unfair barriers to the equal participation of underrepresented racial groups and women. According to the 1967 Federal Register, President Lyndon B. Johnson's 1965 Executive Order 11246, which mandated affirmative action, attempted to address the twin heritages of slavery and "Jim Crowism," and the historic and contemporary racial oppression that kept African-Americans mired in poverty and despair (Allen, et al.,

2000b, Section 3, para. 5). He declared that civil rights laws alone were not enough to remedy discrimination. Executive Order 11246 called for vigorous, proactive steps to broaden and increase access to previously excluded, underrepresented groups (Allen, et al., 2000b). The 1968 United States Kerner Commission issued on the heels of riotous uprisings across the nation, made official what everyone already knew: the United States was a society divided by race, separate and unequal (as cited in Allen, et al., 2000b).

Five years after the issuance of Executive Order 11246, Rolle, et al., (2000), and Bridges (1996) reported that African-American enrollment in higher education nearly doubled from 522,000 to 1.1 million from 1970 to 1977. After 1977, however, enrollment began to decline in all educational disciplines with graduates down by 19% since 1976. The small number of doctoral, law, and medical degrees earned by African-Americans had not increased appreciably since 1976, leaving African-Americans representing less than 4% of the numbers of the profession. These statistics led Bridges (1996) to view the 1980s as a “lost decade” because of the lack of progress African-Americans made in higher education (p. 748). A 1997 and 1982 review of literature by Astin cited a number of survey studies in which college enrollment and graduation rates for African-Americans had declined (as cited in Feagin, 1992).

The question evolves as to whether without affirmative action there would be fewer African-Americans getting jobs and admitted in selective institutions of higher education? Glazer (2000) said that if it were not for affirmative action, African-Americans who today make up about six percent of the student bodies in selective colleges and universities would drop to less than two percent, leading to fewer professionals.

Institutional Culture/Climate

In reviewing the institutional culture/climate of PWIs, two theories were considered: (a) social dominance theory in which: “societies have typically evolved hierarchical social systems that serve to maintain the position of those at the top of such hierarchies to the detriment of those at lower levels” (Wilson 2003, p. 550) and (b) the human capital theory by Leif (1994) which states that in the labor market workers are compensated in direct proportion to their value to their employers. The value is a function of the skills the worker has to offer and is often measured as years of formal education, training, and work experience.

Social Dominance Theory

For the social dominance theory, the hierarchical social system model employed is explained by Ellis. Forces that produce and control higher education institutions are interconnected by administrators, faculty, support staff, geographic location, and the student body. “Each force shapes the culture of the institution and forms the manner by which it addresses a variety of issues” (Ellis, 2002, p. 69). In the hierarchy system when it comes to race, PWIs have historically manifested discriminatory and prejudicial practices and policies (Allen, et al. 2000a). Historically, it was not until the 1970s that PWIs, whether they were located in the south or other regions of the country, began to admit African-American students in substantial numbers (Williams, 2001; Beilke, 1997).

In 1990 Allen et al. (2000a) conducted a study to examine the status of African-American higher education faculty members and its relationship to access and success in the professorate. The study focused on the under-representation of African-American faculty and compared the characteristics, experiences, and achievement of African-

American faculty to those of White faculty members. Factors examined were opportunity structure, resources, and academic as well as nonacademic demands as the factors related to the entrance and advancement of African-Americans.

The research was conducted on campuses representing different institutional contexts according to the Carnegie classification system of higher education. Three private institutions, prestigious research, prestigious liberal arts, and a liberal arts college and three public institutions, competitive research, comprehensive doctoral I; and a regional university were selected for the project. A total of 1,189 questionnaires were completed and returned by faculty members of the six institutions in 1990. Of the respondents 35 were African-American, 1,024 were European-American, and 130 were Asian-American (Allen et al., 2000a).

Their findings indicated the academic hierarchy is influenced by the larger social, historical and cultural context. The research indicated the academic hierarchy favors Whites over non-whites and penalized African-American faculty. African-American faculty are stereotyped by their White faculty and peers as "special admits." A perceived lack of support by faculty and staff and a largely segregated social life has made African-American faculty at PWIs aware of their marginal status and has contributed to their feelings of socio-cultural alienation. Blackwell and Bowen in 1981 and Bok in 1998 found the positions of different racial/ethnic groups within the academic hierarchy are consistent with their differential status, wealth, and power in the American society (as cited in Allen, et al., 2000a, p. 113). They exist within a larger pattern of systematic discrimination and deprivation. "Put simply, the system of White supremacy, operating in the guise of individual and institutional racism, vigorously resists yielding access to the

professorate to African-Americans, even in clearly subordinated roles and numbers” (p. 126).

Human Capital Theory

The human capital theory employs the social status model. The model seeks to identify the link between parental status to achieved levels of occupational status and income among their children (Leif, 1994). Leif states, “Models have important implications for ethnic stratification and intergenerational persistence and help to identify points in the achievement where racial and ethnic discrimination can enter” (Leif, 1994, para. 2). However, the “status attainment models offer only indirect evidence of discrimination” (Leif, 1994, para. 5). Both the human capital framework and status attainment models stress individual achievements and human capital as determinants of socioeconomic attainment.

Career Decision-Making

Careership Theory

Careership is a sociological theory with three integrated dimensions to the model. (1) The pragmatically rational decision making, which is located in the habitus of the individual making the decision, (2) choices as an individual interacts with others in a field, which is related to the unequal resources different players possess, and (3) choices within a life course consisting of unpredictable patterns of interlinked routines and turning-points that make up the life course. In this theory the three parts are completely inter-related (Hodkins & Sparkes, 1997). In the first part -- pragmatically rational decision-making -- the individual enters or rejects an occupation based on (a) Rational - personal experience, or on advice from a friend, relative or neighbor; (b) Pragmatics –

partial information located in the familiar and the known. The decision-making is context-related and cannot be separated from the family background, culture and life histories of the individual. The decisions are opportunistic, based on casual contacts and experiences, influenced by feelings and emotions, and involved accepting one option rather than choosing between many (Hodkins & Sparkes, 1997).

In this part Hodkins and Sparkes (1997) used “culture to describe the socially-constructed and historically-derived common base of knowledge, values and norms for action that people grow into and come to take as a natural way of life” (p. 33). It is through culture that people make sense of their world. A person’s individual beliefs and perceptions are found within ‘positions’ or social structures. The key concept, habitus, encapsulates the ways a person’s beliefs, ideas and preferences are individually subjective but also influenced by the objective social network and cultural traditions in which they live (Hadkins & Sparkes, 1997). In 1997, Bourdieu indicated the habitus is the strategy-generating principle enabling agents to cope with unforeseen and ever-changing situations, a system of lasting and transposable dispositions which, integrating past experiences, functions at every moment as a matrix of perceptions, appreciations, and actions and makes possible the achievement of infinitely diversified tasks (as cited in Hadkins & Sparkes, 1997).

The habitus influences both the types of decisions made and the methods in which they are made. Individuals make career decisions within horizons for actions (the arena within which actions can be taken and decisions made). The habitus and opportunity structures both influence horizons for action and they are interrelated. Career advice can be rejected because it is viewed by the individual as something outside of his or her

horizons, not fitting into the individual's existing schematic view of themselves or perceptions of appropriate careers opportunities (Hadkins & Sparkes, 1997).

In the second part of the habitus -- power relations in the field -- career decision-making depends on a complex pattern of stakeholder relationships and their perceptions and reactions. Career decision-making is formulated and modified based on the interactions of the stakeholders and the habitus within which they are taken (Hadkins & Sparkes, 1997).

In the third part of the habitus, transformations, turning points and routines are viewed. In transformation, the patterns of career progression are described as trajectories. Trajectory, a mathematical metaphor, implies that if we know the beginning point, the angle and the velocity, the end-point can be predicted. It can be seen as the lower rung of the career ladder as a person transitions from school to work. The turning points in the career development occur when the individual takes stock to revisit, revise, and review, and re-evaluate their career decision. Although there are several, three turning points are identified: (a) structural – determined by external structures of the institutions involved, (2) self-initiated person concern is instrumental in precipitating a transformation in response to a range of factors in their personal life and the final turning point is (c) forced – forced on individual by external events and/or the actions of others (Hadkins & Sparkes, 1997).

Decisions made in the turning point affects the habitus of the person. The resulting change can be comfortable or traumatic. Turning points cannot be separated from the routines that follow and precede them. The routines are of essential importance to career transformations. Five routines have been identified: (a) confirmatory – they

reinforce a career decision, permitting the new identity to develop as the individual hoped and intended, (b) contradictory – the person’s experiences undermine the original decision. The person becomes dissatisfied and either begins to regret the change or decides the current experience is no longer adequate or appropriate, (c) socializing – the individual confirms an identity that was not originally desired; (d) dislocating – individual lives with an identity they do not like, neither becoming socialized to accept it, nor feeling able to initiate a transformation, and (e) evolutionary – routines occur when the individual gradually changes, outgrowing their original career identity (Hadkins & Sparkes, 1997).

Social Learning Theory of Career Decision-Making (SLTCDM)

The Social Learning Theory of Career Decision-Making (SLTCDM) by Krumboltz “provides a useful framework for organizing and explaining findings related to career decidedness” (Perrone, et al., 2002, p. 109). The theory considers learning experiences, genetic endowments, environmental conditions, and task-approach skills to be important factors contributing to an individual’s career path (Fisher & Padmawidjaja, 1999). Additionally, the theory stresses the importance of role models as it applies to the career field (Perrone, et al., 2002). In research conducted in 1995 by Anderson and Ragins in 1997, an association between career decidedness and the influence of role models is shown hypothesized that role-model supportiveness and relationship quality contributes to career decidedness (as cited in Perrone, et al., 2002).

The study by Perrone et al. (2002) examined the influence of role model on the career decidedness of college students. The study involved 405 (280 female, 125 male) undergraduate participants recruited from a psychology class. Of the 405, 238 were

White; 101 were African-American; 44 were Asian-American and 22 were Native American or Latino/Latina. The SLTCDM was assessed using a 21-item scale that measures career indecision, with the Career Factors Inventory (CFI). The research of Perrone, et al. (2002) indicated that a supportive high-quality role model relationship can benefit both male and female college students as they make career decisions and lend support to the SLTCDM.

Occupational Choice, Success, and Satisfaction Theory

Minorities are overrepresented in low paying occupations when compared with European-American men. Minorities have also experienced vicariously or directly some degree of discrimination, which influences their career decision making process (D. Brown, 2002). Brown's theoretical statement indicated discrimination as a factor in career decision making process. He found, in reviewing career development theories, ethnic and cultural minorities have been ignored and there needed to be a theory that would be "applicable to cultural and ethnic minorities as well as to White, European-Americans" (p. 48). The occupational choice, success, and satisfaction theory's main assumption is "culture and work values are the primary variables that influence the occupational choice-making process, the occupation chosen, and the resulting satisfaction with and success in the occupation chosen" (p. 49). Brown identified the following eight factors that influence the career choice-making process as: (1) highly prioritized work values are most determinants for people with an individualism social value. (2) Individuals who hold collective social values are heavily influenced by the group. (3) People valuing individualism and have both a future/past-future time value and a doing activity value are more likely to make decisions at important transition points. (4) Men

and women and people from differing cultural groups will enter occupations at varying rates because of differing value systems. (5) The career selection process involves a series of “estimates.” They include (a) one’s ability and values, (b) skills and abilities required to be successful and, (c) work values the occupational alternatives will satisfy. (6) Occupational success is related to job-related skills acquired in formal and informal education, job-related aptitudes, social economical status (SES), participation in work role, and “the extent to which discrimination is experienced regardless of the social relationship value held (p. 52). (7) Length of employment is related to the “match between the cultural and work values of the worker, supervisor, and colleagues” (p. 53).

African-American Students Experience at PWI

African-American Students’ Perception

In 1996 Gloria and Pope-Davis, and in 1993 Gloria and Robinson-Kurpius, suggested the quality of life at institutions of higher education can be assessed by the students’ perceptions of the university environment, perceptions of cultural fit within the environment (i.e., cultural congruity), and stress created by the environmental context (as cited in Gloria, Robinson-Kurpius, Hamilton, & Willson, 1999). The research of D’Augelli and Hershberger in 1993, and Fries-Britt and Turner in 2001, indicated African-American students perceived their predominately white university more negatively than their white counterparts (as cited in Neville, Heppner & Wang, 1997). Schwitzer, Griffin, Ancis, and Thomas (1999) used a qualitative research method to develop a descriptive model to investigate the African-American college students’ social climate experience. The four key features identified were: (1) sense of underrepresentedness, (2) direct perceptions of racism, (3) hurdle of approaching faculty,

and (4) effects of faculty familiarity as features to African-American students' social adjustment to predominately white campuses.

In the quantitative study conducted by Gloria, Robinson-Kurpius, Hamilton, and Willson (1999), the participants attended a large predominantly white state university in the southwest. African-Americans comprise 2.9% of the student body population. Ninety-eight (60%) of the African-American undergraduate students completed the questionnaire packet of nine instruments. The following instruments were used: Perceived Social Support Inventory-Family and Friends, and Mentoring Scale (to assess social support), University Environment Scale, Cultural Congruity Scale and the College Environmental Stress Index-Modified (to assess university comfort); College Self-Efficacy Inventory, the Educational Degree Behaviors Self-Efficacy Scale, and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (for self-belief assessment). Academic persistence was measured using the Persistence/Voluntary Dropout Decision Scale. The study supported the hypothesis of a correlation between a higher level of social support, more comfort in the university environment, and positive self beliefs on academic persistence of African-American students in PWIs.

In 1996 Feagin, Vera, and Imani, (as cited in Gloria, et al. 1999) and Pewewardy and Frey (2002) provided evidence that African-American students on predominately White campuses experience significantly greater levels of overt racism, and perceived racism is often related to increased feelings of social isolation, personal dissatisfaction, and stress (Feagin, 1992). In 1996 Beauboeuf-Lafontant and Augustine, 1988, Cervantes, and in 1997, Gloria and Pope-Davis, found that these experiences are not unexpected because most U. S. institutions of higher education discount values and beliefs that are

not consistent with White, middle-class, male values. Their research revealed that African-American students may experience forms of marginality over the course of their time in college and can feel marginalized more often than they feel they matter (as cited in Feagin, 1992).

The Southern Poverty Law Center, a civil rights group that tracks hate crimes, found that college campuses are the third most common venue for hate crimes (as cited in Pewewardy & Frey, 2002). In 1993, Love found the climate of most PWIs were established under the law and/or practice that excluded African-American students, which was built into the structure and fabric of the institution (as cited in Jones, 2001). Research conducted by Jones (2001), and Nora and Cabrera (1996), indicated that because of the poor institutional climate and instances of racism, a large disproportionate number of African-American students depart PWIs without bachelor degrees.

Factors Influencing the Career Choices of African-American Students

Jones and Larke's (2001) study described the factors related to African American and Hispanic graduates to choose (or not to choose) a career in an agriculture-related field prior to or after college. The study examined the decision making process use in choosing a career. The following seven objectives were identified to accomplish the purpose of the study: (1) to identify personal characteristics (e.g., ethnicity, age, gender) of the population, (2) to identify reasons individuals enroll in agriculture-related educational programs, or choose to select or not to select a career in agriculture, (3) to identify the degree to which significant others influenced individuals' career decisions, (4) to identify the degree to which enrollment in high school agriculture-related courses is considered significant in choice, (5) to identify the degree to which one's college

experience influence the decision, (6) to compare individuals by ethnicity in terms of factors influencing career choice, and (7) to determine if interrelations existed among the graduates' personal and situational characteristics, their reasons for enrolling in educational programs in agriculture or a related field, and selecting or not selecting a career in agriculture or a related field.

Jones and Larke (2001) found (a) enrollment in the first agriculture-related course did not increase the probability of selecting an agriculture-related career; (b) Having people of color to encourage them increased the probability of pursuing an agriculture-related career; (c) They were more likely to select a career in agriculture-related area if their father was in the field; (d) Parental level of education was not a critical factor; (e) Salary was a consideration; (f) Limited job opportunities in agriculture-related careers was a factor; and (g) a retirement plan and job opportunities were major factor in the selection of a career. To gather the responses a three-part written questionnaire was used.

The following four themes and sub-themes emerged. The first theme is the issue of race structuring the administrative experience: (a) race as an issue of first position, (b) race as a part of administrative experience, (c) race in relation to perception of role, and (d) struggles with the predominantly white environment. The second theme is self-assurance; the third theme is the importance of communication skills, and the fourth theme is understanding the politics of higher education administration.

According to Jackson (2001) more than half of the African-American administrators began their own college careers in historically black colleges and universities earning their undergraduate degrees in the liberal arts and their graduate degrees in education. Kulb and Critzer (2000) found African-Americans have progressed

in finding administrative positions in higher education; one major factor being a doctoral degree is not always required. Rolle, et al. (2000) and Jackson's (2002) explanation for the progress is African-American careers in predominantly white institutions began in federally-funded programs. Brown (1997) found there were more African-Americans administrators, but they tend to be in positions that lack power and authority. The job titles, such as manager or director of minority affairs and related responsibilities have often been outside the periphery of traditional administrative power and opportunity. The positions are classified as 'staff' rather than 'line' positions (managerial positions that are part of the formal administrative hierarchy of the university) (Brown, 1997). Jackson's (2002) study indicates "African-Americans often came into higher education institutions as directors of TRIO programs (i.e., Ronald E. McNair and Talent Search), affirmative action officers, director of minority student affairs, and so forth" (p. 94). Jackson noted that these student affairs positions do not carry the same status as department chairs and dean and are not seen as the mainstream of administration.

African-American Administrators

Institutional Racism

Precursors of institutional racism. In 1987 Bielby stated that “institutional racism refers to the informal barriers that exist in organizations that prevent minority members from reaching higher level positions in the system” (as cited in Jeanquart-Barone and Sekaran, 1996, p. 477). Jeanquart-Barone and Sekaran (1996) developed a causal model to test the “precursors of institutional racism” (p. 480). The two main purposes of the study were to “examine whether minority members perceived institutional racism in their organizations and to test the model” (p. 477). The three independent variables were: (a) supervisory support, (b) procedural justice (fairness of compensation), and (c) indoctrination (extent to which employees are expected to conform to the norms of the majority group in the system). The two hypotheses were:

The three independent variables together significantly explained the variance in both supportive climate and perceived supervisory discrimination.

When the three independent variables and the two intervening variables were regressed against the dependent variable, the linkage or significant paths to institutional racism will be through both a supportive climate and perceived supervisory discrimination. (p. 478)

The population selected was a national minority organization with a membership of 15,000, of which 85% were Black. The individuals were employed in various agencies of the federal government throughout the United States, i.e., postal service, veterans’ organizations and printing offices. Of the 1,500 randomly mailed surveys, 173 (12%) responded. For the analysis of the study, the data from the 143 respondents that

were African-American were used. Of the 143 sample respondents, 26% were clerical and 9% managers; the remainders were consultants, technicians, superintendents, and nurses. Forty percent were women. Thirty-nine percent were 41 to 50 years in age; 29% were younger than 41 and 32% were older than 50. Forty-five percent had some college education and 30% had a bachelor's degree. Thirty-one percent had served in their current positions between 6 and 12 years, 42% for longer than 12 years. Twenty-eight percent had been employed by their organizations for 19 to 25 years, 46% for fewer than 19 years. Demographic variables were measured through direct, single items in the questionnaire. Other variables were measured through multiple items on Likert-type scales (Jeanquart-Barone & Sekaran, 1996).

Analyzing the means and standard deviations for institutional racism were examined first to determine whether the employees perceived institutional racism in the workplace. Next, multiple regression analyses were calculated to test the two hypotheses. As a result of the data, Jeanquart-Barone and Sekaran found that the sample population of "African-Americans did perceive institutional racism in their work. . . . As postulated, both supportive climate and perceived discrimination had significant direct paths to institutional racism" (p. 480). However, they found that indoctrination had no significant effect on supportive culture or perceived discrimination. Supervisory support did not affect perceived discrimination. Therefore, if the immediate precursors of institutional racism are supportive culture and discrimination, "then organizations can reduce the extent of perceived institutional racism by (a) providing an organizational climate that is conducive to the effective functioning of all employees and (b) enforcing nondiscriminatory standards" (p. 481).

For African-Americans, climbing the ladder of success in the American society has been a struggle. It has meant encountering various obstacles and many pitfalls not experienced by White Americans. "African-American administrators experience a myriad of barriers and organizational pitfalls that their white counterparts are not subjected to" (Guillory, 2001, p. 113). The ladder of success for African-Americans in higher education has been equally difficult. While it has had its rewards, it has certainly had its share of problems (Rolle, et al., 2002). "Many African-Americans must also cope with such obstacles as racism, hostility, prejudice, discrimination, 'chilly' climate, institutional bias, negative stereotypes, self-doubt, alienation, isolation, cultural insensitivity, and glass-ceiling effects" (Guillory, 2001, p. 117). One of the barriers to career outcomes for African-Americans administrators in PWIs is institutional racism. In 1993 Cox suggested that institutional bias was a preference pattern inherent in how organizations are managed. It often inadvertently creates barriers to full participation by organization members from cultural backgrounds that differ from traditional major (as cited by Guillory, 2001). Two such barriers are: (a) individualistic reward system, (b) and the similar-to-me phenomenon.

Professional Advancement: Lacking Position, Power and Authority

African-American administrators experience a myriad of barriers and organizational pitfalls their white counterparts do not (Guillory, 2001). "Institutional racism, cultural insensitivity, and marginalization are just few of the manifold encumbrances that define the experience of an African-American administrator at predominantly white colleges and universities" (Guillory, 2001, p. 113). In an interview with Dr. Joe R. Feagin at the University of Florida, he stated (Anonymous, 2003):

Some of the assistant administrators will be African-American, some of the staff jobs will be African-American, but African-Americans are not seriously considered for heads of major colleges or for heads of the university or top, really super-top, administrators. In virtually all institutions in the country, there are just a handful of Blacks who have made it to those highest positions. . . . Black faculty and administrators are often in marginal positions on today's campuses. (p. 19)

Rolle, et al. (2000) conducted a qualitative study to better understand the experiences of African-American administrators in PWIs. Their findings revealed more than half of the African-American administrators interviewed began their college career at an HBCU. Several of the participants began their administrative careers in PWIs in federally-funded programs. They also found that "race played a role in virtually every aspect of their administrative careers" (para. 2). A qualitative methodology was used to obtain the participants' view of reality and to create the research data in their voice. The eight participants selected were African-American administrators at private four-year PWIs located in the southeastern United States. Each held executive administrative positions, i.e., president, chancellor, and assistant to the chancellor.

***The Need for Research About African-American Administrators
at PWIs of Higher Education***

According to the literature African-Americans were virtually invisible in higher education (Adams, 2001; Anderson, 2003). Minorities are overrepresented in low paying occupations when compared with European American men and have experienced vicariously or directly some degree of discrimination, which may influence their career

decision making process (D. Brown, 2002). While the number of African-American administrators has increased at PWIs they are usually in positions that lack authority (Brown, 1997; Jackson & Flowers, 2002).

In 1936 of all African-Americans with PhDs, 80% taught at three historically African-American institutions (Washington & Harvey, 1989; Beilke, 1997). In 1940 not one of the 330 black PhDs in the country taught at a white university (Ballard, 1994). “Almost no white institution of higher education in this country, before the hiring of Allison Davis at the University of Chicago in 1941, believed that any Black man was intelligent enough to be a professor at a white university” (Ballard, 1994, p. 39). White universities in the south acknowledged that law and customs on the basis of race excluded African-Americans and racial discrimination was customary in the northern white universities. In 1940 northern white universities were just as effective as southern white universities in excluding African American scholars from regular faculty appointments (Anderson, 2003). Love (1993) found the climate of most PWIs was established under the law and/or practice that excluded African-American students, which was built into the structure and fabric of the institution (as cited in Jones, 2001).

The literature suggests that a hierarchical structure exists in institutions of higher education. The social dominance theory model can be used to examine the attitude of white administrators at PWIs of higher education. Using the same theory, African-American administrators' status in the structure could be identified. A survey regarding the attitude of White administrators toward affirmative action and other programs created to increase the number of African-American administrators could be explored. A special concern is the positions in which African-Americans are hired. Often the positions lack

power and authority (Brown, 1997; Jackson & Flowers, 2002). The positions often do not situate African-Americans for career advancement to executive-level positions. According to Leif, (1994) workers are compensated in direct proportion to their value to their employers. The value is a function of the skills the worker has to offer, and it's often measured as years of formal education, training, and work experience. The positions in which African-American administrators serve are a reflection of their importance (Allen, et al. 2000a; Jackson, & Flowers, 2002). Consequently, D. Brown (2002) states that discrimination may be a factor in the career decision making process for African-Americans.

There is a need to explore a variety of factors that influence career decisions of African-American administrators. There are several career development and career decision models. However, D. Brown (2002) found in reviewing the various career development theories, ethnic and cultural minorities have been ignored. He states there is needed a theory that would be "applicable to cultural and ethnic minorities as well as to White, European-Americans" (p. 48). In exploring these career decisions, does white supremacy emerge as a significant factor in the under-representation of African-Americans as administrators in PWIs? Throughout the literature the concept of race in the form of white supremacy is a common thread. Using white supremacy as an underlying premise, studies can examine whether white supremacy emerges as a factor influencing the career decisions and career advancement to executive-levels of African-American administrators. The impact of white supremacy on the hierarchical structure, hiring practices, student experience and organizational climate on the decision of African-American students to choose, remain and seek, and attain administrative

positions in higher education can be examined. This present study examines the career decisions and career advancement to executive-levels of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education, and whether white supremacy emerges as an influencing factor.

Theoretical Framework for the Study

Careership is a sociological theory that has three integrated dimensions to the model. The (1) pragmatically rational decision making, which is located in the habitus of the individual making the decision, (2) choices as individuals interact with others in a field, which is related to the unequal resources different players possess, and (3) choices within a life course consisting of unpredictable patterns of interlinked routines and turning-points that make up the life course. In this theory, the three parts are interrelated (Hodkins & Sparkes, 1997).

The social learning theory of career decision-making (SLTCDM) by Krumboltz, “provides a useful framework for organizing and explaining findings related to career decidedness” (Perrone, et al., 2002, p. 109). The theory considers learning experiences, genetic endowments, environmental conditions, and task-approach skills to be important factors contributing to an individual’s career path (Fisher & Padmawidjaja, 1999).

The social dominance theory and the hierarchical social system model are used to examine factors influencing the career decisions and whether white supremacy emerges as a factor. Like society-at-large, the academic hierarchy is influenced by the larger social, historical and cultural context. The research indicates that the academic hierarchy favors Whites over non-whites and penalized African-American faculty (Ellis, 2002).

Rarely are administrators with job titles such as manager or director of minority affairs and affirmative action officer considered for executive-level positions (Jackson, 2001).

Using recommendations for future research, careership, social learning theory, and social dominance theory served as the theoretical framework for this study about the career decisions and career advancement of African American administrations, and whether white supremacy emerged as an influencing of factor. The literature review and theoretical framework led to eight research questions under investigation for this study.

Research Questions

1. What factors lead African-American administrators to select a career in higher education and choose employment at a PWI?
2. How do African-American administrators describe their experiences as an administrator in higher education and specifically their experiences at a PWI of higher education?
3. How do African-American administrators describe career advancement opportunities in higher education, in PWIs, and opportunities for advancement to executive-level positions?
4. What administrative qualities or characteristics do African-American administrators identify as necessary for executive-level positions, and which of these qualities or characteristics of the administrator facilitate or hinder advancement?
5. Which institutional characteristic, culture or climate do African-American administrators identify as necessary for advancement to executive-level positions

and which of these characteristics, culture or climate qualities of the institution facilitate or hinder advancement?

6. What are the reasons African-American administrators remain in higher education and the reasons they would make a career change out of higher education?
7. How do African-American administrators describe the representation of African-Americans in administrative/managerial and executive-level positions in higher education, and specifically at PWIs?
8. Does white supremacy emerge as a factor influencing the career decisions, administrative experience and career advancement of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education?

Chapter 2 presented a review of the literature of key concepts in this study. The major gap is a limited amount of literature regarding African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education. The theoretical framework emphasized a career decision-making approach to view the factors influencing the career decisions of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education. Chapter 3 presents the methodology used to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

A qualitative, phenomenological methodology was used to study the factors influencing the career decisions and opportunities of African-Americans administrators in PWI institutions of higher education. In addition, the methodology was used to determine whether white supremacy emerged as a factor. A within-case analysis of the data provided a detailed description of each participant's experience as an African-American administrator at a PWI. A cross-case analysis searched for themes and patterns within groups of participants by job title. A second cross-case analysis to search for themes and patterns within groups of the participants who graduated from an HBCU and those who graduated from a PWI was planned. However, none of the participants graduated from an HBCU. Chapter 3 provides a description of the study design, sample and setting, procedures, methods of data analysis, and trustworthiness of data.

Research Design

The design of the study is a qualitative, phenomenological design that seeks to gain a view of reality as lived by the participants (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The qualitative, phenomenological design was used to examine the career decisions of African-American administrators and describe their experience as an administrator, as an African-American administrator, and their career advancement opportunities at a PWI of higher education. The selected design examined the factors influencing the career decisions of African-American administrators in PWIs and whether white supremacy emerged as a factor in the career decisions and career advancement of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education.

The eight research questions for the study were:

1. What factors lead African-American administrators to select a career in higher education and choose employment at a PWI?
2. How do African-American administrators describe their experience as an administrator in higher education and specifically their experience at a PWI of higher education?
3. How do African-American administrators describe career advancement opportunities in higher education, in PWIs, and opportunities for advancement to executive-level positions?
4. What administrative qualities or characteristics do African-American administrators identify as necessary for executive-level positions and which of these qualities or characteristics of the administrator facilitate or hinder advancement?
5. Which institutional characteristics, culture, or climate do African-Americans identify as necessary for advancement to executive-level positions, and which of these characteristics, culture, or climate qualities of the institution facilitate or hinder advancement?
6. What are the reasons African-American managers/administrators remain in higher education and reasons they would make a career change out of higher education?
7. How do African-American administrators describe the representation of African-Americans in administrative/managerial and executive-level positions in higher education, and specifically at PWIs?

8. Does white supremacy emerge as a factor influencing career decisions, administrator experiences and career advancement of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education?

To obtain the participants' experience as an administrator at a PWi, an in-depth interview was selected. The researcher selected the qualitative, phenomenological method because of the use of open-ended questions used in the semi-structured interview process. The interview process allowed the researcher to explore possible meanings and divergent perspectives that revealed patterns, themes, and categories about the phenomena (Huberman & Miles, 2002). A description of the fundamental nature of the phenomenon was included in chapter five. The data collected in the interview was transcribed, coded for analysis and interpreted.

A qualitative phenomenological analysis focused on naturally occurring ordinary events of the individual's lived experience. Qualitative analysis consists of concurrent flows of activity, (a) data reduction, (b) data display, and (c) conclusions drawing verification (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The findings in the study may be instrumental in bringing the core problem, the under-representation of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education, into focus through the analysis of career decisions (Moustakas, 1994).

Analyzing data is the very heart of constructing theory from case studies. Through the qualitative method, accuracy, validity, and generalizability of the findings were established (Huberman & Miles, 2002). A within-case analysis was conducted. The within-case analysis of each participant interview was a purely descriptive detailed case study write-up of the phenomenon as experienced by the individual participant. The

detailed write up assisted the researcher in becoming intimately familiar with each individual participant's case (Huberman & Miles, 2002). The within-case analysis was recorded and reviewed according to the research question themes.

Qualitative research allows for descriptive validity to be addressed through detailed and concrete descriptions and rich quotations that allow the reader to experience and understand the phenomenon of the career decision making of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education. For credibility, each interview was audio taped and transcribed verbatim. Thematic themes and codes emerging from the interviews were collected from the raw data for grouping. Unique patterns of each case were identified and grouped before generalizing patterns a cross case.

Generalizing qualitative research is not the same as generalizability in quantitative research (Huberman & Miles, 2002; Shank, 2002). In qualitative research there are two types of generalizability: (a) internal - generalizing within the community or institution not directly interviewed, and (b) external - generalizing to other communities.

Qualitative researchers "rarely make explicit claims about the external generalizability" (Huberman & Miles, 2002, p. 54). Inferences were drawn from the interviews which consisted of 18 questions and sub-questions.

Research regarding the recruitment and retention of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education has been conducted. However, there is no research indicating the factors influencing the career decisions of African-Americans as administrators, and if career decision is a factor in the under-representation of African-Americans as administrators at PWIs of higher education. Literature was not found that examines if white supremacy is a factor in the career decisions or the career advancement

of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education. Therefore, a qualitative method was used to obtain the data in detailed, thick descriptions; in-depth inquiry; was used to obtain direct quotations to capture the individual's personal perspectives and experiences (Best & Khan, 2003) and determine if the white supremacy theme emerged. The information from this study may contribute to the body of knowledge on the hiring, retention, promotion and the under-representation of African-American administrators in PWIs of higher education. The information to a degree may reveal the career decisions, career advancement opportunities, and the institutional characteristics, culture or climate necessary for African-Americans administrators to advance to executive-level positions. The information can also contribute to the body of literature identifying the reasons why African-American administrators elect to be employed and remain employed at PWIs of higher education. Finally, the study explored whether white supremacy emerged as a factor in the career decision and the under-representation of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education.

Theories and propositions can be generated or reformulated about the emerging themes found in the analysis and can be tested in future empirical studies. The social dominance theory addresses the hierarchy system of higher education as the forces that produce and control higher education institutions. The forces are viewed as being interconnected by administrators, faculty, support staff, geographic location, and the student body. "Each force shapes the culture of the institution and forms the manner by which it addresses a variety of issues" (Ellis, 2002, p. 69). Hodkins and Sparkes (1997) careership theory has three integrated dimensions: (1) pragmatically rational decision making, (2) choices as the individual interacts with others in a field, and (3) choices

within a life course consisting of unpredictable patterns of inter-linked routines and turning-points that make up the life course were tested in this study.

“Qualitative research can be categorized into (a) those focusing on the individual lived experience, (b) those focusing on society and culture, and (c) those with an interest in language and communication” (Marshall, 1999, p. 60). The most compelling argument for this researcher to use a qualitative research method was (a) the focus on the individual lived experience because “qualitative research searches for a deeper understanding of the participant’s lived experiences of the phenomenon” being studied (Marshall, 1999, p. 60).

Phenomenological research is defined as “research in which the researcher identifies the essence of human experiences concerning a phenomenon as described by participants in a study” (Creswell, 2003, p. 14). This approach studies the ways in which a person’s world is inevitably formed in part by the person who lives it (Huberman & Miles, 2002). “The researcher’s excitement and curiosity inspires the search. Personal history brings the core of the problem into focus” (Moustakas, 1994, p. 104).

The qualitative phenomenological method is essential to the purpose of the research. The phenomenological approach was used within the qualitative paradigm to (1) discover what a specific experience was like for each participant’s career selection and their reasons for remaining an administrator at a PWI; (2) examine the participants’ reasons for their career decisions based on whether they received their first degree from a HBCU or a PWI and according to their area of institutional responsibility; (3) examine the participants’ perception of the institutional culture or climate and qualities needed and opportunities for advancement to an executive-level position at a PWI of higher

education; and (4) discover the participants' belief on whether white supremacy is a factor in their career decisions and career advancement at PWIs of higher education.

Population and Sampling Design

Target Population

A purposeful sampling technique was used for this phenomenological study for three reasons. First, purposeful sample requires critical thinking about the criteria of the population of interest, and a careful selection of the participants based on specific criteria (Huberman & Miles, 2002). Secondly, purposeful sampling allows for the selection of participants who illustrate some feature or have an interest in the phenomenon (Moustakas, 1994). A third reason for selecting purposeful sampling was to promote homogeneity of the sample. All the participants were African-American male mid-level administrators who chose a career in higher education at a PWI. Each participant was experiencing the same institutional characteristics and culture.

The researcher contacted the assistant vice president of student affairs at a Florida public, PWI, Doctoral/Research University—Extensive, regarding the selection of the participant population. The desired participant sample sought for the study was four mid-level administrators in student affairs, four in academic affairs and four in administrative affairs. Two of the administrators in each category would have attended a PWI and two would have attended a HBCU. For a cross-case analysis the participants would have been divided by those who graduated from a PWI and those who graduated from a HBCU. The second cross-case analysis would have been to compare four administrators in each of three job categories.

Criteria essential to the selection of participants included (a) expressing interested in discussing the career decision experience of African-American administrators at a PWI of higher education, and (b) willing to participate in a lengthy interview and permission to tape-record and publish the data in a dissertation and other publications (Moustakas, 1994).

The participants met the following criteria:

1. United States citizen, born and raised in the United States.
2. Raised by non-active military parent.
3. Ethnic status of Black/African-American.
4. Male, between the age of 35 and 60.
5. Attended a HBCU or PWI for the baccalaureate degree.
6. Earned master or terminal degree (not all executive-level positions require a terminal degree).
7. Currently employed in a managerial/administrative position at a Florida public, PWI, Doctoral/Research University—Extensive.
8. Between 10 years and 20 years of experience in higher education.
9. Willing to participate in the study.

Sample

Initially four potential participants were identified and contacted by telephone by the assistant vice president of student affairs (see Appendix D – AVP script). The four names and numbers of the participants were given to the researcher by the assistant vice president of student affairs. The researcher contacted the selected participants by telephone. The telephone call consisted of a brief introduction, an explanation of how the researcher gained access to their name, and the researcher informing the participant of the reason for the study. The purpose of the call was (a) to inquire if the potential participant was interested in participating in the study, and (b) to establish a date, time and location to meet in person for data collection (see Appendix E – Researcher’s Script).

Of the four potential participants contacted, two were in student affairs, one in administrative affairs and one in academic affairs. Four of the potential participants, three student affairs and one in administrative affairs, agreed to participate in the study. To increase the number of participants, the assistant vice president of student affairs contacted the affirmative action office to obtain additional names of African-American administrators meeting the criteria. A total of 30 persons of African descent including the individuals identified by the assistant vice president of student affairs were identified. Of the 30 identified, eight were African-American. An e-mail was sent to the remaining individuals and one individual in administrative affairs responded and agreed to participate in the study. A second e-mail was sent to the remaining individuals and followed up with a phone call from the Assistant vice president of student affairs.

The final participant sample for the study consisted of three mid-level administrators in student affairs and two in administrative affairs. All five participants in the study graduated with a bachelor’s degree from a PWI of higher education (see Table 1 – Participant Sample).

A participant consent/audiotape form was sent to participants to obtain their permission to audiotape record the interview and for ethical and informational purposes (see Appendix F - Participant Consent/Audiotape Form).

Table 1
Participant Sample

Participant	Student Affairs	Administrative Affairs
P1	X	
P2		X
P3	X	
P4		X
P5	X	

The Florida public, PWI, Doctoral/Research University—Extensive institution from which the participants were selected had a student body of no fewer than 10,000 and not greater than 50,000 students. The sample was selected from the hierarchy of the institution in the following two areas: Administrative Affairs, and Student Affairs (see Table 1 - Participant Sample). As a result of difficulty getting a design sample of 12 participants a cross-case analysis including academic affairs and comparing HBCU vs. PWIs was not done. Every effort and precaution was taken to provide the participants assurance of confidentiality and make the participant feel comfortable. The researcher asked the participant for their recommendation of where to conduct the interview.

Instrumentation

Instrument #1

Socio-Demographic Profile

The first data collection instrument was a self-reported *Socio-Demographic Profile* designed by the researcher (see Appendix G - Socio-Demographic Profile). *The Socio-Demographic Profile* was completed and obtained from each participant at the time of the interview. The *Socio-Demographic Profile* was used to collect data regarding the participants': (a) personal information (i.e., age, marital status, family size), (b) educational information (c) work experience, (d) parent/family history (f) sibling information, and (g) geographical information. All of the participants in the study completed the *Socio-Demographic Profile*.

Instrumentation #2

Interview Question Schedule

The data were collected using an in-depth interview (see Appendix A - *Interview Schedule Questions*) that focused on the participants' interpretations and evaluations of the factors they believed influenced their career decisions as an administrator at a PWI of higher education. The interview was an in-person, semi-structured interview, in which the participants responded to 18 open-ended questions. The *Interview Question Schedule*, designed and organized by the eight themes that evolved from the literature on career decisions, included seven open-ended questions, eight questions with follow-ups, and three closed-ended questions requiring the participant to explain their yes or no response. The semi-structured interview was designed to "ask the participant to reconstruct their experience and to explore their meaning" (Seidman, 1998, p. 76). The interview was audio-tape recorded.

The *Interview Question Schedule* had predetermined and sequenced questions. The questions were designed to ensure the responses reveal "depth, detailed, vivid, and nuance that are the strength of qualitative research" (Rubin & Rubin, 1995, p. 83). The main questions were designed to flow from one to the next and to elicit the participants to respond in depth regarding career decisions across their life span. The questions were designed to probe for the precise meaning of a specific point in time, for longer and more detailed answers, and to give clarity and complete answers to the questions (Seidman, 1998). The questions were designed to focus more on the subjective experience of the participant (Seidman, 1998). The eight closed questions required a probing follow-up

such as “Can you explain your answer as to why you think this way?” Therefore, the follow-up questions zoomed in on a specific point and required a detailed response.

The 18 interview questions were developed from the research questions which evolved from the career development themes from the literature. The 18 interview questions were sequenced so as to not bias the participants’ responses. Questions 1-10 required the participants to respond as an administrator, not as an African-American administrator. Questions 1, 2, 5, 10, and 11 focused specifically on the participants’ career decisions, and question 3 focused on career advancement opportunities in higher education. Questions 4 focused on the participants’ role as an administrator in higher education. Questions 6, 7, 8, and 9 pertained to administrative qualities and institutional characteristics for advancement to an executive-level position. Distinction between being an administrator and an African-American administrator was introduced in question 12. With question 12 the focus of the questions changed from that of an administrator in a PWI of higher education to that of an African-American administrator at a PWI of higher education. Questions 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, and 17 specifically asked the participant to respond as an African-American administrator. Question 18 asked the participants if there was any information or additional comments they would like to add.

To determine if the interview questions in the *Interview Question Schedule* (see Appendix A) revealed “depth, detailed, vivid, and nuance that are the strength of qualitative research” (Rubin & Rubin, 1995, p. 83), a pilot of the *Interview Question Schedule* was conducted. The pilot study specifically tested the design of the *Interview Question Schedule* for sequence and clarity. Three African-American male administrators at a Florida community college meeting the criteria were selected by the

researcher. From the pilot study, it was determined that the questions extracted in-depth responses regarding the participants' career decisions. The questions queried for the precise meaning of a specific point in time and elicited longer and detailed answers from the participants.

For the study the participants were encouraged to respond to the questions at some length using their own words (Patton, 2002; Best & Khan, 2003; Seidman, 1998). The instrument, the *Interview Question Schedule*, was developed as a result of the research questions that stemmed from the literature. Using the *Interview Question Schedule* allowed the same information to be gathered in various ways. To reduce bias the term white supremacy or race was not used in the *Interview Question Schedule*. To further reduce bias all the participants were treated in the same manner during the interview, and all the interviews were consistent and neutral (Patton, 2002).

The researcher utilized triangulation. The data sources included the use of audio taped transcriptions, field notes, and member checks. The same *Interview Question Schedule* was used to interview all five participants.

The research questions were organized into eight themes:

Theme 1 Career selection

Research Question 1. What factors lead African-American administrators to select a career in higher education and choose employment at a PWI? Interview questions: 1, 2, 5, 10, and 11.

Theme 2 Experience as an administrator

Research Question 2. How do African-American administrators describe their experience as an administrator in higher education and specifically their experience at a PWI of higher education? Research questions: 4, 12, and 15.

Theme 3 Career advancement opportunities

Research Question 3. How do African-American administrators describe career advancement opportunities in higher education in PWIs and opportunities for advancement to executive-level positions? Interview questions: 3, 13, and 14.

Theme 4 Administrative qualities for executive positions

Research Question 4. What administrative qualities or characteristics do African-American administrators identify as necessary for advancement to executive-level positions, and which of these personal qualities or characteristics of the administrator facilitate or hinder advancement? Interview questions: 6 and 8.

Theme 5 Institutional characteristics, culture, or climate for advancement to an executive position

Research Question 5. Which institutional characteristics, culture, or climate do African-Americans identify as necessary for advancement to executive-level positions, and which of these characteristics culture or climate qualities of the institution facilitate or hinder advancement? Interview questions: 7 and 9.

Theme 6 Reason for retention/attrition at PWIs

Research Question 6. What are the reasons African-American mid-level administrators remain in higher education, and what are the reasons they would consider leaving higher education? Interview questions: 2 and 5.

Theme 7 Representation in administrative and executive-level positions

Research Question 7. How do African-American mid-level administrators describe the representation of African-Americans in executive-level positions in higher education, and specifically at PWIs? Interview questions: 16 and 17.

Theme 8 White supremacy in career decisions and career advancement

Research Question 8. Does white supremacy emerge as a factor influencing career decisions, administrator experiences, and career advancement of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education? All questions.

Procedures: Ethical Considerations and Data Collection Methods

The pilot and study were approved by Lynn University's Institutional Review Board (see Appendix C). Pilot study participants were given and signed a Lynn University participant consent/audiotape form and a second consent form from the Florida community college that granted permission to conduct the pilot study using their employees. Pilot study and final study participants were informed that all notes would be destroyed upon completion of the study (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). A time and date was established with the pilot study participants for the testing of the interview schedule questions.

Permission was obtained from the Florida public, PWIs, Doctoral/Research University-Extensive Institutional Review Board to conduct the study at the university. The Assistant vice president of student affairs at a Florida public, PWIs, Doctoral/Research University—Extensive contacted individuals meeting the criteria to see if they were interested in participating in the study. The names and contact information of the individuals interested in participating in the study was forwarded to

the researcher by the Assistant vice president of student affairs at a Florida public, PWIs, Doctoral/Research University—Extensive. The researcher contacted the selected participants by telephone. The telephone call consisted of a brief introduction and an explanation of how and why the researcher gained access to their names. The individuals were asked if they were interested in participating in the study (see Appendix E – Researcher’s Phone Script). A time and location for the researcher and the participant to meet in person for the “data collection” was established during the call.

The participant consent/audiotape form (see Appendix F – Participant Consent/Audio-Tape Form) was sent to each selected participant granting consent to be interviewed and permission to audiotape record the interview and participate in any follow-up meetings. The participant consent/audiotape forms were collected at the time of the interview. Protection of the participants was of primary importance. Information that may cause harm to the participants or information the participants requested not to be reported was omitted (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). To further protect the identity of the participants, pseudonyms were used. The data were kept confidential; all identifiable data stored electronically on “password protected” computers and paper records and audio/video tapes were kept in a locked filing cabinet or locked desk drawer. All notes and audiotapes were destroyed upon completion of the study (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). The Lynn University IRB was notified of the completion of the project.

Methods of Data Analysis

By using qualitative methods, accuracy, and validity, and generalizability of the findings were established. To assist in the volume of data, the researcher performed a within-case analysis and one cross-case analysis. A main step in the process was the

within-case analysis (Huberman & Miles, 2002). To assist the researcher in becoming intimately familiar with each individual participant's case, a detailed case study write-up was completed on each participant interview. Each detailed case study write-up was purely a description of the phenomenon as experienced by the individual participants.

Descriptive validity was addressed through rich detailed and concrete descriptions and quotations that allow the reader to experience and understand the phenomenon being studied. Similar patterns and phrases emerging from each within-case analysis were compared using a cross-case analysis. The consistent themes and codes identified minimized any threats to the interpretative validity and enhanced the credibility of the findings. To rule out misinterpretation and researcher bias while determining the accuracy of the findings, member-checking was used to solicit feedback from the participants (Maxwell, 1996). To further reduce bias, all the participants were treated in the same manner during the interview, and all the interviews were consistent and neutral (Patton, 2002). The researcher utilized triangulation to come to the findings. The data sources included the use of audio taped transcriptions, data-rich field notes, and member checks. To member-check, each participant received a transcript of his interview to check for accuracy and verification.

The key to thematic analysis is searching the data. The researcher used thematic analysis as the main route to look for themes arising as a result of active inspections of the "welter of confusion that characterize raw data" (Shank, 2002, pp. 131-132). One reason for selecting a thematic analysis pertained to the three key characteristics: (a) inductive approach, (b) feedback and comparison, and (c) saturation. The raw data from each interview was transcribed for a within-case and cross-case analysis. The

transcriptions were studied for developing patterns and themes related to the factors influencing the career decision of African-American administrators in PWIs, and whether white supremacy emerged as a factor in the career decision and career advancement of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education.

The transcripts were coded using a form of abbreviations of key words and phrases. The patterns and themes were studied and analyzed cross-case. Similar themes and patterns found in the within-case analysis were identified. All concepts and codes were compared for larger categories. The larger categories were used to provide a conceptual framework for the major themes and allow for the understanding of the major research questions.

The cross-case analysis compared responses according to whether participants were in student affairs or administrative affairs. The analyses aimed to identify the common patterns of similarities and differences and unique features in the data. Findings in this study about the factors influencing the career decision of African-American administrators in PWIs, whether white supremacy emerged as a factor in the career decision and career advancement of African-American administrators at PWIs and the under-representation of African-American administrators in PWIs of higher education are presented in Chapter 4.

Trustworthiness of Data

For accuracy and validity each interview was recorded on audiotape and transcribed verbatim. Each detailed case study write-up was purely a description of the phenomenon as experienced by the individual participants. The records were utilized to document and validate the research for future replications.

“Data collected in informal settings are often more trustworthy than data from more formal settings” (Shank, 2002, p. 134). Therefore, every effort and precaution was taken to provide an atmosphere where the participants were comfortable. The researcher asked each participant for his preference of where to conduct the interview. Each participant elected to have the interview conducted in his office at the university. For accuracy and trustworthiness each participant received a copy of his transcript of the interview.

Qualitative research, unlike quantitative research, deals with specific threats to validity of specific features of the participants’ account and addresses the threats by seeking evidence that would allow the ruling out of said threats.

The main threat to valid description is, in the sense of describing what you saw and heard, is the inaccuracy or incompleteness of the data. The main threat to interpretation is imposing one’s own framework of meaning, rather than understanding the perspective of the people studied and the meanings they attach to their words and actions (Maxwell, 1996, pp. 89-90).

Descriptive validity is addressed through detailed and concrete descriptions and rich quotations that allow the reader to experience and understand the phenomenon being studied. The key to good cross-case comparison is counteracting these tendencies by looking at the data in many divergent ways (Huberman & Miles, 2002). The similar patterns and phrases emerging from each within-case analysis were compared for a cross-case analysis. The identified patterns and phrases in the cross-case analysis were recorded, grouped, and divided into categories and themes. The consistent themes and codes identified eliminated any threats to the validity and enhanced the credibility of the

findings. Member-checking was used to solicit feedback from the participants and rule out misinterpretation, eliminate researcher bias, and determine the accuracy of the findings (Shank, 2002).

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study concerning factors influencing the career decisions of African-American administrators in PWIs of higher education and whether white supremacy is a factor. The chapter begins with a presentation of the socio-demographic characteristics of the five African-American administrators using the data obtained from the *Socio-Demographic Profile* (see Appendix G). This is followed by a qualitative analysis of the participants interview responses using the *Interview Schedule Questions* (see Appendix A) to answer the study's research questions. The research questions were organized by eight themes. Each theme and related research question was presented for the participants' within-case analysis, and this was followed by a cross-case analysis according to the administrative job category (student affairs versus administrative affairs.)

All interviews were conducted in each participant's office at the university. The interviews were scheduled at a time that was most convenient for them. In this description the letter "P" represents a participant. P1's interview was scheduled before the beginning of the work day. When the researcher arrived P1 was busy speaking on the phone. P2's interview, scheduled for 9:30 a.m., was delayed for two hours at his request. Interviews for P3, P4, and P5 were scheduled for 10 a.m. on separate days of the week. The interviews were scheduled at a time when a flurry of activity was taking place on the campus. However, once the interview began the participants asked for their calls to be held. Consequently, there were no interruptions during the interviews which lasted between 1 and 1½ hours in length.

Overshadowing the interviews were hurricanes Frances, Ivan and Jeanne. Each participant's department was either in a state of preparedness or recovery from the storms. The initial conversation included the pending or past hurricane(s). However, once the interview started the participants directed their full attention to the questions being asked. As the interview progressed the participants and the researcher became more relaxed. P1 was the most formal; P2 and P3 relayed their responses in the form of stories. They reminisced and reflected on their past experiences. Oftentimes it was the unspoken word, the hesitations, the painful expressions, and awkward movements that spoke louder than the participant's voice. There were tense moments and outbursts of joyful and painful laughter in all the interviews.

At the conclusion of the interview each participant expressed interest in the study's necessity and importance. They were interested in whether the study was being expanded to include other PWIs of higher education. Finally, all the participants expressed interest in receiving the results.

A purely descriptive detailed case study write-up of the phenomenon as experienced by each participant was completed. The descriptive assessment provides insight into the interview and the participant's experience. Out of concern of being identified two of the participants requested that their interview write-up not be included in the appendix. Therefore, a detailed write up of all interviews was not included in any part of the study.

The within-case and cross-case analysis are presented in the order of each theme and related research question. *Theme 1 Career selection:* Research Question 1. What factors lead African-American administrators to select a career in higher education and

choose employment at a PWI? *Theme 2 Experience as an administrator:* Research Question 2. How do African-American administrators describe their experience as an administrator in higher education and specifically their experience at a PWI of higher education? *Theme 3 Career advancement opportunities:* Research Question 3. How do African-American administrators describe career advancement opportunities in higher education at PWIs and opportunities for advancement to executive-level positions?

Theme 4 Administrative qualities for executive positions: Research Question 4. What administrative qualities or characteristics do African-American administrators identify as necessary for advancement to executive-level positions and which of these personal qualities or characteristics of the administrator facilitate or hinder advancement? *Theme 5 Institutional characteristics, culture, or climate for advancement to an executive position:* Research Question 5. Which institutional characteristics, culture or climate do African-Americans identify as necessary for advancement to executive-level positions, and which of these characteristics, culture, or climate qualities of the institution facilitate or hinder advancement? *Theme 6 Reason for retention/attrition at PWIs:* Research Question 6. What are the reasons African-American mid-level administrators remain in higher education and what are the reasons they would consider leaving higher education?

Theme 7 Representation in administrative and executive-level positions: Research Question 7. How do African-American mid-level administrators describe the representation of African-Americans in executive-level positions in higher education, and specifically at PWIs? *Theme 8 White supremacy in career decisions and career advancement:* Research Question 8. Does white supremacy emerge as a factor

influencing the career decisions, the administrator's experiences and career advancement of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education?

Part 1 Socio-Demographic Profile of Participants

The *Socio-demographic Profile* provided information about the background of each participant. The participants ranged between 35 and 59 years of age. Three of the five were married, and four of the five had children. Insight into the household of the participants regarding their parents' marital status, education, and employment revealed that the parents of four of the participants were married: three of the mothers completed high school and one participant's father completed high school. Four participants had more than one sibling, grew up in an urban environment and their parent's owned their home. All of the participants were first generation college students and the first in their immediate family to attend college. Table 2 presents the frequency distribution of the participant's age, marital status, number of children and family and parental background.

Table 2

Frequency Distribution of Socio-demographics Characteristics of Participants by Age, Marital Status, Number of Children and Family and Parent Background (N=5)

Socio-demographic Variables	Number
<i>Age</i>	
35-39	2
40-44	0
45-49	1
50-54	0
55-59	2
<i>Marital Status</i>	
Single	1
Married	3
Divorced	1
Widowed	0
<i>Number of Children</i>	
0	1
1	1
2	3
<i>Family and Parent Background</i>	
<i>Marital Status</i>	
Married	4
Never Married	1
<i>Education</i>	
Mother Completed High School	3
Father Completed High School	1
<i>Family Home</i>	
Owned Home	4
<i>Number of Siblings</i>	
0	1
1-2	1
3-4	1
7 or more	2
<i>Geographical Area Raised</i>	
Urban	4
Rural	1
<i>Region</i>	
Midwest	2
Southeast	3

All of the participants received their bachelor's and master's degree from a PWI between the years 1965 -2000. Only one participant held a doctoral degree (student affairs administrator), and four held a master's degree. Participants in student affairs had the most years, a combined total of 76 years, of experience in higher education and had prior experience working at more than one PWI of higher education. However, the administrative affairs administrators had more combined years of experience at their current institution. Table 3 presented the frequency distribution of the participants' educational background and professional experience.

Table 3
Frequency Distribution of Participants Education and Professional Experience (N=5)

Socio-demographic Variables	Number
Highest Degree Earned	
PhD	1
Master	4
Institution Attended For Undergraduate Education	
Community College	2
HBCU	1
PWI	3
Years of Experience in Higher Education	
10	1
11-12	0
13-15	1
16-18	2
19-20	1
Years of Experience at Current Institution	
0-2	0
3-5	2
6-8	1
9-10	0
11-12	1
13-15	1

Response to Research Questions Organized by Themes

Theme 1 Career Selection

Research Question 1

What factors lead African-American administrators to select a career in higher education and choose employment at a PWI?

To answer this question the participants responded to three “interview questions”. These questions explored the factors that led them to select a career in higher education, (#1) led them to select a career in higher education, (#10) choose their current position at a PWI, (#11) and select a PWI if any of the participants were previously employed at a HBCU. Table 4 presents the within-case and cross-case responses related to career selection.

Table 4

Theme 1 – Factors Influencing Selection of a Career in Higher Education: Within Case and Cross Case Responses to Interview Questions 1, 10, and 11

Interview Question 1:

What are the factors that led you to select a career in higher education?

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses

Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses

P1

“I was pursuing my master’s degree. The people in the program encouraged me to look at higher education.”

“My family did not have an inkling that there were this many jobs in higher education. They still don’t necessarily know what I do.”

“My experiences in college were so positive that it actually led me in that direction.”

P2

“During my career in [named city] I was appointed to the board of [name of the community college]. I had the opportunity to experience the working of the institution.

“My brother worked at a college doing the same kind of work. We had worked together as [named profession]. He would always say to me you don’t know what you are missing; you need to leave that and come to this.”

“It was as close as I could get to my mother when she was still alive.”

Table 4 (continued)

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
P3	
"Number one was the opportunity to return to my alma mater and take a position in student affairs."	
P5	P4
"I wanted some more stability and actually a mentor told me about his old position in [named position]. I applied for the position and got the position."	"I was unemployed at the time and was looking for work. I went to see a former instructor at [named college] to talk to him about jobs. He said well don't know of anything but in the meantime would you like to start teaching here at [named college] on campus. I said sure, so that's really how I got into it. I kind of fell into it and began to enjoy it."
"I was very active as a student leader on campus and the more I got involved with advising students the more I found that's what I would like to do."	
	"It was not really my goal or objective to end up in the university. It kind of worked out that way."

Interview Question 10

What are the factors that led you to select a PWI for your current job position?

P1	P2
"My former position was abolished. I made a number of connections at [named institution] when a job opportunity opened up here they called me for an interview and hired me."	"The opportunity was available." "It was an opportunity to return closer to home."
P3	P4
"I was really interested in working for [named the university, a PWI] because it was my alma mater."	"Nothing other than answering an ad in a newspaper for a position."
P5	
"It was more circumstantial."	
"As I progressed in my career I found that I wanted to make a difference in the student's lives."	
"I think it is probably one of the most stimulating jobs on campus."	

Interview Question 11

If you previously worked at a HBCU, what factors led you to select a PWI?

NOT APPLICABLE: None of the participants previously worked at a Historically Black College or University.

The within-case analysis revealed the initial interest of becoming a student affairs administrators in higher education for P1 and P3 developed as a result of their undergraduate experience: “I was very active as a student leader on campus, and the more I got involved with advising students the more I found that’s what I would like to do.” “My experiences in college were so positive that it actually further led me in that direction.”, and “My experiences were so positive that I sort of wanted to stay in the academy.” For P3 and P5 the opportunity to work for their alma mater led them to their career in higher education at a PWI. “Number one was the opportunity to return to my alma mater and take a position in student affairs. That was primarily the opportunity.”

In administrative affairs, P2 found the opportunity to continue in the same profession after retiring as the reason for choosing a career in higher education. For P4 it was strictly the job opportunity, “The opportunity was available.” P2 attended an HBCU but completed his undergraduate degree at a PWI. P2 and P4 were previously employed in positions outside of higher education. However, the job opportunity was specific to their degree and area of experience.

For both groups the cross-case analysis revealed the job opportunity w the major factor in seeking employment at a PWI. However, the undergraduate experience had an impact on P1, P3, P4 and P5. P3, P4, and P5 stated that it was the opportunity to work at their alma mater that influenced their career decision. It was P1’s interaction with professionals in the field during graduate studies that influenced his career decision.

None of the participants were employed at a HBCU, and all of the participants are first-generation college students. For those in student affairs, the undergraduate

experience at a PWI had a strong influence on their career decision to seek employment at a PWI of higher education.

Theme 2 Experience as an Administrator

Research Question 2

How do African-American administrators describe their experience as an administrator in higher education and specifically their experience at a PWI?

The participants responded to two “interview questions” to answer this question. Interview questions explored their experiences as an administrator in higher education, (#4) and then specifically their experiences as an *African-American* administrator at a *PWI*. Table 5 presents the within-case and cross-case analysis of responses related to their experiences as an administrator.

Table 5
Theme 2 – Experiences as an Administrator: Within Case and Cross Case Analyses Responses to Interview Questions 4 and 12

Interview Question 4	
How would you describe your experiences as an administrator in higher education?	
Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
P1 “It’s been positive.”	P2 “My experiences, most of them have been pleasant. Have I encountered any obstacles? I tend not to focus on them. I mean, they’re just there.”
P3 “My experience as an educator and as an administrator in higher education has been positive. The limits that I have found are directly in relationship to the degrees I lack.”	P4 “My experiences have been good. Here at the university I’ve received anywhere from 6 to 7 promotions.”

Table 5 (continued)

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
P5	
“I find it sometimes frustrating.”	
“I often wonder would I be [named position] today if I had not risen to [named position] on the other campus.”	
“My counterpart is white non-Hispanic. He is 7 years younger than me and has that much less experience. He was promoted just 2 months before me.”	

Interview Question 12

I previously asked you to describe your experiences as an administrator in higher education. Now I would like you to describe your experiences as an *African-American* administrator at a PWI.

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
P1	
“When I first started my career the main push was to get more African-American administrators into positions.”	
“I would say that very early on in my career the experiences were pretty bad.”	
“Working here has probably been one of the better experiences because of the diversity.”	
“It’s been a mix bag. This has been rather positive, but earlier on in my career, very negative.”	
“At one small college in [named state] it was a terrible experience. It was [named college] I was there for only 9 months.”	
“I started off in minority student affairs as the director of minority student affairs. The dean of students actually did things on purpose. I’ll never forget the time he introduced me as the director of minor affairs. He claimed it was a slip of the tongue.”	
P2	
“Yes, it’s different. You will get challenged; you’re going to get tested and questioned. But can you say that you’re treated differently? I’m not so sure you can. You can think that way, but it’s very difficult to prove.”	
“A lot of times you have that second sense. You know what the deal is but you would sound stupid if you sound off about it.”	

Table 5 (continued)

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
<p data-bbox="444 374 474 400">P3</p> <p data-bbox="178 406 697 466">“I have had a good solid experience there’s been some eye openers along the way.”</p> <p data-bbox="178 502 737 651">“There has been those circumstances and situations whereby we’re not given the just do and I’ve also heard that statement before, I’m not sure we want to lose you, I think we kind of need you to do this position.”</p>	<p data-bbox="1022 374 1052 400">P4</p> <p data-bbox="765 406 1301 497">“Here at the university I haven’t found an instance where because I’m an African-American I was excluded on any issues or any opportunities.”</p> <p data-bbox="765 534 1301 774">“Quite frankly, by being a minority that has opened some opportunities for things. It’s really been a plus. I’ve served on several search and screening committees to hire faculty and administrators. Part of that was the need to have a diverse committee and part of the reason I was selected was because I was an African-American male.”</p> <p data-bbox="765 810 1233 895">“I am in an area where there are not a lot of African-Americans in higher administrative positions.”</p>
<p data-bbox="444 932 474 957">P5</p> <p data-bbox="178 963 737 1091">“I’ve found it to be true myself and my other colleagues of African descent that you can’t be late. You can’t misspell on a memo and you can’t misspeak.”</p> <p data-bbox="178 1127 697 1247">“I don’t think my white colleagues agonize over firing white people. They sure as heck don’t agonize over firing black people. But black professions do.”</p> <p data-bbox="178 1283 737 1402">“There are people who don’t look at me as an individual; they look at me as a representative of the black community. I don’t think my colleagues are carrying the white community.”</p>	

All three student affairs participants described their experiences as an administrator at a PWI and as an African-American administrator at a PWI differently. P1 and P3 stated their experiences as an administrator were positive. However, their earlier years as an African-American administrator was described negatively. “It’s been a mix bag. This has been rather positive, but earlier on in my career, very negative.” P1, P3 and P5 also believe that their appearance and actions are more closely scrutinized than their white counterparts. “I’ve found it to be true myself and my other colleagues of

African descent that you can't be late. That you can't misspell on a memo. You can't misspeak." P5 explained that his white counterpart/colleague with less experience and years of service was promoted before him. Observing other black administrators P5 finds his experience frustrating; African-American administrators "agonizing" over decisions to fire other black administrators.

P2 and P4 describe their experience as positive. P2 said he has encountered "obstacles" during his career in higher education. P4 believed that being an African-American has been an advantage because it opened doors of opportunity for him. "I've served on several search and screening committees to hire faculty and administrators. Part of that was the need to have a diverse committee and part of the reason I was selected was because I was an African-American male." Both administrative affairs administrators did not express their experience in the same terms. One sees "obstacles" while the other sees "opportunities."

Both groups used different words to describe their experiences as administrators and their experiences as African-American administrators at a PWI of higher education. For the student affairs participants the earlier years were extremely difficult. Positions in higher education for African-Americans were in and directly related to minority student affairs. They continue to feel the pressure of being closely scrutinized in their work and on issues of equity "we're not given our just ado." One administrative affairs participant used the word "obstacles" for the negative. The issue of equity was present for both groups. While four of the five administrators define it negative, one administrative affairs administrator considered it an "opportunity."

Theme 3 Career Advancement Opportunities

Research Question 3

How do African-American administrators describe career advancement opportunities in higher education in PWIs, and opportunities for advancement to executive-level positions?

Participants responded to three “interview questions” to answer this question. These questions explored how African-American administrators described career advancement opportunities in higher education in PWIs and opportunities for advancement to executive-level positions. (#3), the description of career advancement opportunities in higher education, (#13), the description of career advancement opportunities in higher education for African-American administrators at PWIs, and (#14) the description of career advancement opportunities in higher education for African-American administrators at PWIs for specific executive-level positions. Table 6 presents the within-case and cross-case responses related to career advancement opportunities.

Table 6

Theme 3 – Career Advancement Opportunities: Within Case and Cross Case Responses to Interview Questions 3, 13, and 14

Interview Question 3:	
How would you describe career advancement opportunities in higher education?	
Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
P1	P2
“There are so many opportunities here.”	“If you are prepared the opportunities are there.” “There are fewer obstacles in pursuing a career in higher education especially if you have the qualifications for the job you are pursuing.”
P3	P4
“I think that the career opportunities are good, I think that they are solid. I think that it depends on where a person wants to work. If you’re a person that’s willing to go anywhere and everywhere with a good track record then you can probably advance.” “It depends on how well one has prepared themselves regarding the terminal degree.” “Again, it depends on where you are. It depends on the institution; it depends on the field and the area.”	“Unlike days gone by where no matter what you had you didn’t have the opportunity. Now days,[sic] if you have the background, you have the experience, you have the degree, the education there’s not a lot that can stop you.” “You may be stopped at one institution, but you’re not going to be stopped at all of them. I think the opportunity is there as long as you equip yourself to go after it.”
P5	
“It depends on where you are, the institution, the field and the area.” “Sometimes, at least at this institution you wonder if the administrator’s track is a track at all or is it just sort of an Ouija board.”	

Table 6 (continued)

Interview Question 13:

How would you describe career advancement opportunities in higher education for African-American administrators at PWIs?

Student Affairs Participant (P) Response	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Response
<p style="text-align: center;">P1</p> <p>“Those of us who are in positions of authority and aspire to go higher, the opportunities while not totally closed appear and tend to be limited. So I would say the opportunities are some what limited nationally.”</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">P2</p> <p>“I say the opportunities are very good, much better than what they were 20 years ago, 10 years ago or even last year and that is progress.”</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">P3</p> <p>“In the early years, what I saw would be opportunities in programs that were directed at minorities for and with minorities.”</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">P4</p> <p>“As long as you’re not stopped from preparing yourself to go for advancement in these days and times the opportunity exist. Forty years ago, no, it didn’t exist.”</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">P5</p> <p>“Abysmal, I think it’s abysmal. I’ve seen professionals who should be directors at other institutions get stepped over and stepped over.”</p>	

Interview Question 14:

How would you describe career advancement opportunities in higher education for African-American administrators at PWIs? For specific executive-level positions?

Student Affairs Participant (P) Response	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Response
<p style="text-align: center;">P1</p> <p>“No different.”</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">P2</p> <p>“It’s like, once you get in a box it doesn’t matter who you are, once you’re in a box it’s kind of tough to get out of it to step up to another level.”</p> <p>“But, all in all, I’d say, again, it’s much better, it’s not perfect. It’s not that you won’t face obstacles, you’ll always have obstacles.”</p>

Table 6 (continued)

Student Affairs Participant (P) Response	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Response
<p style="text-align: center;">P3</p> <p>“When I look at the institutions I’ve worked for I do not see it.”</p> <p>“You know sometimes I wonder about that because the question becomes how long? How long does it take? Because at the executive-level, I’ve observed they’re people who come on the scene and have degrees, experience, and working capability that cause them to bring much to the table and not get invited to the table.”</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">P4</p> <p>“Only knowing what has occurred in the past here, I feel the opportunity exist at this institution for African-Americans to move in those executive-level positions.”</p>

Interview Question 13:

How would you describe career advancement opportunities in higher education for African-American administrators at PWIs?

Student Affairs Participant (P) Response	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Response
<p style="text-align: center;">P5</p> <p>“Again a long ways to go. I don’t want to say abysmal.”</p> <p>“I really think that concrete ceiling is still there.”</p>	

P1, P3, and P5 found many career opportunities in higher education overall. However, for African-Americans they said the opportunities can be limited. “Clearly those of us who are in positions of authority and aspiring to go higher the opportunities while not totally closed appear and tend to be limited. So I would say the opportunities are some what limited nationally.” Entry-level positions for African-Americans are often designated specifically for African-Americans in minority student affairs. Consequently, they said African-American administrators seeking executive-level positions find it difficult to move from the predetermined track, and oftentimes their input is not valued and they are often not “invited to the table.” The participants made a clear distinction

between advancement within and outside of the institution. They believe that advancement African-American administrators must look outside of their current institution to seek advancement. While they witnessed an African-American female ascend to an executive-level position within the institution, they noted it took decades. Therefore, they believe advancement within the institution does not come as readily for African-American administrators as it does for white administrators.

P2 and P4 said the opportunities in higher education for African-American administrators are better today than in the past, especially for specific positions. "I say the opportunities are very good, much better than what they were 20 years ago, 10 years ago or even last year and that is progress." Preparation, having the degrees will open up opportunities. "You may be stopped at one institution, but you're not going to be stopped at all of them. I think the opportunity is there as long as you equip yourself to go after it." P2 said when African-Americans accept positions designated specifically for minorities "once put in a box" it is "tough to get out to step up to another level." They both believe advancement outside of the institution occurs faster than within the institution.

Both groups believe opportunities in higher education exist and the opportunities are better today than they were in the past for African-Americans. With the appropriate preparation and degrees, the opportunity will open at some institutions. Both groups also believe African-Americans face obstacles when seeking executive-level positions. However, the administrative affairs participants focused on the past and how things are getting better while the student affairs participants focused more on the present.

Theme 4 Administrative Qualities for Executive Positions

Research Question 4

What administrative qualities or characteristics do African-American administrators identify as necessary for executive-level positions, and which of these qualities or characteristics of the administrator facilitate or hinder advancement?

Participants responded to two “interview questions” to answer this question. Interview questions explored the administrative qualities or characteristics African-American administrators identify as necessary for executive-level positions, and those qualities or characteristics of the administrator that facilitate or hinder advancement, (#6) administrative qualities or characteristics believed necessary to advance to an executive-level position, and (#8) administrative qualities or characteristics that could facilitate or hinder advancement to the executive-level position. Table 7 presents the within-case and cross-case analysis of responses related to administrative qualities or characteristics African-American administrators identified as necessary for advancement to an executive-level position.

Table 7

Theme 4 – Administrative Qualities for Executive Positions: Within Case and Cross Case Analyses Responses to Interview Questions 6 and 8

Interview Question 6:

What administrative qualities or characteristics do you believe are necessary to advance to an executive-level position?

Student Affairs Participant (P) Response	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Response
<p style="text-align: center;">P1</p> <p>“There are so many intangibles. But I would say in general you would have to be an effective communicator, both written and verbally.”</p> <p>“This is sort of sad to say but I also think people also get caught up on, on your demeanor, your package. In other words how you look. That’s one of the intangible things.”</p> <p>“I would say you have to do research, you have to have published and you have to have attended an accredited university. There are a number of things and a number of intangibles as well.”</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">P2</p> <p>“I certainly think that education is extremely important, it opens so many doors.”</p> <p>“The other part that’s worked for me is treating people with respect and dignity.”</p> <p>“Trust.”</p> <p>“You got to allow people to participate in decisions that affect their lives. You’ve got to listen to them; you’ve got to let them get it out.”</p> <p>“Empowering.”</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">P3</p> <p>“Accountability, responsibility, decisiveness, good listening skill I think are good for rapport. There is also such a thing as a sense of responsiveness in terms of leadership.”</p> <p>“A sensitivity to understand people and how they function and how things have meaning to them.”</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">P4</p> <p>“I think on a personal level being able to work well with people. Being able to do more listening than talking.”</p> <p>“Primarily being a team player.”</p> <p>“Getting as much education and training as possible and having good customer service skills.”</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">P5</p> <p>“I think there are 2 sets. The general set is the ability to focus on goals and move through them.”</p> <p>“I found working in higher education and being involved in associations that this whole what you know and who you know paradigm has some merit.”</p> <p>“The ability to communicate with a variety of people. You have to be able to shift, be committed to the style and deal with executive leadership different styles of communication.”</p> <p>“Be a visionary.”</p>	

Table 7 (continued)

Interview Question 8:

If you were seeking an executive-level position, which of your administrative qualities or characteristics would:

- (a) facilitate advancement to the executive-level position?
- (b) hinder your advancement to the executive-level position?

Student Affairs Participant (P) Response	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Response
<p style="text-align: center;">P1</p> <p><u>Facilitate</u> “Given my responsibilities and what I’ve accomplished, I feel very confident in my abilities. I could very easily fit into an executive, i.e, vice president, vice chancellor for student affairs role.”</p> <p>“I believe the thing that is going to propel me to the next level is my experiences and my background.”</p> <p><u>Hinder</u> “I don’t really see many things that can hinder me.”</p> <p>“I probably wouldn’t fit in at the University of North Dakota, but I might fit in at the University of North Carolina. So, time and place.”</p> <p>“... well obviously, again there are those intangibles.”</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">P2</p> <p><u>Facilitate</u> “I’m a decent communicator; I write decently, I work hard and I’m focused.”</p> <p><u>Hinder</u> “... the PhD.”</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">P3</p> <p><u>Facilitate</u> “I think I have an ability to listen and to hear what people are saying. I have an ability to observe also what people are doing and the skills that I have developed through that would be a plus factor.”</p> <p><u>Hinder</u> “Because of my love for students and the sensitivity that I have I’m not willing to do anything and everything.”</p> <p>“Some of the fair play issues might be problematic. Some of the ethical issues and considerations and things that have to do with integrity would hinder me.”</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">P4</p> <p><u>Facilitate</u> “I know how this university works.”</p> <p><u>Hinder</u> “I believe that always being honest, wanting to be honest and above board may not always be a desire of some institutions. They sometimes feel that maybe you need to bend the truth a little bit or blatantly not tell the truth. I’m a person that believes in being upfront, above board, a person that has integrity.”</p>

Table 7 (continued)

Student Affairs Participant (P) Response	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Response
P5	
<u>Facilitate</u> “My ability to communicate and to strategically plan.”	
<u>Hinder</u> “I think something that could hinder is actually the strategy in many ways. I tend to over strategize.”	

P1, P3, and P5 said effective communication skills, good listening skill and working well with people are the administrative qualities or characteristics necessary to advance to an executive-level position. They also cited there is a number of what P1 described as “intangibles” affecting advancement to an executive-level position. Included in the intangibles are the physical appearance and the ability to articulate both verbally and in writing. The intangibles are seen as factors that would hinder their advancement not because they are deficient in the area but because of the dominate culture’s perception. “I probably wouldn’t fit in at the University of North Dakota, but I might fit in at the University of North Carolina.” P3 said administrators must make unfavorable decisions that effect students. He cited his integrity as a possible to his advancement. “I’m not willing to do anything and everything.” P5 also said that his ability to strategically plan may both facilitate and hinder his advancement. Outside of the intangibles, P1 did not see many things hindering his advancement to an executive-level position. All three student affairs administrators found the intangibles to be both a facilitator and hinderer to their advancement to the next level.

P2 and P4 cited preparation and communication skills as an important administrative qualities or characteristics necessary to advance to an executive-level

position. P4 said honesty and integrity are also important qualities for advancement. Both P2 and P4 identified the same characteristics as possibly hindering their advancement.

Both groups believe the administrative qualities or characteristics necessary to advance to an executive-level position include educational preparation and communication skills. They also noted the intangibles can facilitate or hinder their advancement. Human relations skills, communication skills, treating people with dignity and respect, and customer service skills are important qualities and characteristics for both groups. However, both groups pointed to things that could facilitate their advancement as possible hindrances.

Theme 5 Institutional Characteristics, Culture, or

Climate for Advancement to an Executive Position

Research Question 5

Which institutional characteristics, culture, or climate do African-Americans identify as necessary for advancement to executive-level positions and which of these characteristics culture or climate qualities for the institution facilitate or hinder advancement?

Participants responded to three “interview questions” to answer this question. Interview questions explored the institutional characteristics, culture, or climate African-Americans identified as necessary for advancement to an executive-level position, (#7) the institutional characteristics, culture, or climate believed are necessary to advance to an executive-level position, (#9) which institutional characteristics, culture, or climate that could facilitate or hinder advancement to the executive-level position, and (15)

whether the institutional culture and climate of the undergraduate experience as an African-American student differ from the institutional culture and climate experienced as an African-American administrator. Table 8 presents the within-case and cross-case analysis of responses related to institutional characteristics, culture, or climate of the undergraduate and administrative experience.

Table 8
Theme 5 – Institutional Characteristics, Culture, or Climate for Advancement to an Executive Position: Within Case and Cross Case Analyses Responses to Interview Questions 7, 9, and 15

Interview Question 7:	
What institutional characteristics, culture, or climate do you believe are necessary to advance to an executive-level position?	
Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
P1	P2
<p>“I think the climate you’re talking about is an institution that would accept [name] for who he is or [researcher] for who he is i.e., a black man.”</p> <p>“I don’t think the vast majority of the institutions in this country are prepared to accept a black man as a CEO of that institution.”</p> <p>“I think the institution has to be receptive to diversity and I think the alumni have to be receptive to diversity. I think the board of trustees, or the board of governors, or board of education, whoever ultimately makes that hiring decision must be receptive to diversity.”</p>	<p>“Integrity, fairness, and equality.”</p> <p>“Treating people with dignity and respect and people having a comfort level with you that you are going to do that.”</p>
P3	P4
<p>“I think in terms of the culture there needs to be a little bit of openness and receptiveness to having people come together with different kind of thinkers at the table.”</p> <p>“From a cultural and gender point of view there must be receptivity to having that kind of representation.”</p>	<p>“I think culture and climate, one that has kept up with society. One that is looking to advance its people. An institution that is looking to move forward, a very progressive institution such as [named institution].”</p>

Table 8 (continued)

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
<p style="text-align: center;">P5</p> <p>“Willingness to support internal people.”</p> <p>“I think the institution has to be flexible.... The willingness to actually allow a staff member to step outside of that box. I think under-represented groups need to be able to step outside of social boxes. I think the organization also has to be willing to flex their organizational chart.”</p>	
<p style="text-align: center;">Interview Question 9:</p> <p>If you were seeking an executive-level position, which institutional characteristics, culture, or climate would:</p> <p>(a) facilitate advancement to the executive-level position?</p> <p>(b) hinder your advancement to the executive-level position?</p>	
Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
<p style="text-align: center;">P1</p> <p><u>Facilitate</u> “Open to diversity, open to different modes of thinking, and different modes of reaching conclusions.”</p> <p><u>Hinder</u> “I guess some of the things that might hinder me is a level of intolerance.”</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">P2</p> <p><u>Facilitate</u> “An institution with high goals and objectives passes them on to it’s employees to give them opportunities. Every institution is only as good as the people that work there.”</p> <p><u>Hinder</u> “An environment where you’re not treated with dignity and respect.”</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">P3</p> <p><u>Hinder</u> “If I am at an institution and the only time I am going to be valued is when there is an issue that has to do with color or race than that is an atmosphere that is probably not going to be good for me; I would be under-utilized.”</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">P4</p> <p><u>Facilitate</u> “I think the fact that the university is so diverse, that becomes the positive, the plus that would help me move up.”</p> <p><u>Hinder</u> “Other than myself equal opportunities would keep me from moving up.”</p>

Table 8 (continued)

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
P5	
<u>Hinder</u>	
“I don’t think I will do well in a homogenous environment even if it was at a historically black institution.”	
<u>Facilitate</u>	
“A diverse institution, one not only ethically diverse but diverse in terms of or willingness to work with different mindsets; one with a very diverse points of leadership.”	

Interview Question 15:

Does the institutional culture and climate of your undergraduate experience as an African-American student differ from the institutional culture and climate you experience as an African-American administrator?

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
P1	P2
“I attended [named institution] a mega university and lived at home. So I did not spend much time on campus. I did not take full advantage of my undergraduate experience.”	“There is no question when I started at the historically black institution the kind of things I got there the care I like to say the touchy feely stuff. It was much different than it was at the white institution. At the white institution I felt like I was out there on my own.”
	“As an administrator at a PWI I don’t know if it’s any different for white administrators, but I know that I’ve got to produce.”

Table 8 (continued)

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
<p data-bbox="439 378 468 406">P3</p> <p data-bbox="175 410 713 566">“When I started 20 years ago as a country we were strongly operating in an affirmative action posture. The debate was very high about do they belong in the room or do we place them in the room because the last tells us to.”</p> <p data-bbox="175 597 713 783">“I was always the minority, but in spite of the prevailing things as to where you could go and could not go, those places I could go, I went with great gusto. I went to some of those places and there were a couple I was turned away from. So I had to learn to navigate the environment.”</p>	<p data-bbox="1003 378 1032 406">P4</p> <p data-bbox="753 410 1267 506">“Currently being an administrator do I feel isolated? No I feel I’m called upon to render my talents that I possess to get the job done.”</p>
<p data-bbox="439 815 468 842">P5</p> <p data-bbox="175 846 713 1064">“They [today’s African-American administrators] struggle with issues that I don’t struggle with and their concerns are very different concerns. Their concerns were more about access and my concerns are about equity. Am I going to get the same opportunity as my counterpart in a comparable environment?”</p>	

A within-case and a cross-case analysis revealed both groups identified “diversity”, “receptiveness”, and “equality” as the institutional characteristics, culture, or climate as necessary for advancement to an executive-level position. “A diverse institution - one not only ethically diverse but diverse in terms of or willingness to work with different mindsets; one with a very diverse points of leadership.” They also said that diversity is the characteristic that can facilitate or hinder their advancement. “They [today’s African-American administrators] struggle with issues that I don’t struggle with and their concerns are very different. Their concerns were more about access and my concerns are about equity. Am I going to get the same opportunity as my counterpart in a comparable environment?”

Both groups have learned to “navigate the environment” in the undergraduate experience and as administrators. As undergraduates P1, P3, and P5 lived at home while attending college. However, they observed situations and were confronted with obstacles causing them to feel isolated from the mainstreams of the campus. All of the participants identified diversity as very important to the institutional culture and climate.

Theme 6 Reason for Retention/Attrition at PWIs

Research Question 6

What are the reasons African-American mid-level administrators remain in higher education and what are the reasons they would consider leaving higher education?

Participants responded to two “interview questions” to answer this question. The interview questions explored the reasons African-American mid-level administrators remain in higher education and the reasons they would consider leaving higher education, (#2) the reasons African-Americans remained in higher education and (#5) the reasons considered regarding a career change outside of higher education. Table 9 presents the within-case and cross-case analysis of responses related to the reasons for retention/attrition of African-American administrators.

Table 9

Theme 6 – Reason for Retention/Attrition at PWIs: Within Case and Cross Case Analyses Responses to Interview Questions 2, and 5

Interview Question 2:

What are the reasons you have remained in higher education?

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
<p style="text-align: center;">P1</p> <p>“I love what I am doing.”</p> <p>I’ve really enjoy working with students.”</p> <p>“The opportunities are so abundant I just continue to find new exciting opportunities.”</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">P2</p> <p>“It’s very rewarding. Here I teach. Also, I do a lot of interacting with students. I enjoy the sharing, helping to develop and shape young people.”</p> <p>“To me it’s like giving something back to the community.”</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">P3</p> <p>“I love students; therefore, I love and enjoy my work.”</p> <p>“The business of empowering young people is a tremendous experience for me.”</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">P4</p> <p>“Because it gives me an opportunity to give back the things that I’ve learned in school, particularly when it comes to African-Americans.”</p> <p>“Because I know how difficult it was for me to go to school, I know how society can push you off course and not give you an opportunity and things of that nature.”</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">P5</p> <p>“I love what I do. I really do.”</p>	

Interview Question 5:

At any time were there reasons you considered to justify making a career change outside of higher education?

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
<p style="text-align: center;">P1</p> <p>“I look at my skill set and I look at some of the things I’ve been able to accomplish, there’s always that pull to see if in fact the skill set is applicable to the private sector. I often wonder how I might fair in business.”</p> <p>“After being in this profession for 16 years, there is a strong pull to look beyond higher education.”</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">P2</p> <p>“No, I have to tell you the 10 years I’ve been in this business have been the most rewarding of my life. I wouldn’t give anything for it.”</p>

Table 9 (continued)

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
P3 “Before I left the University of [named university] I thought about doing that [changing careers]. I wanted to see how my years of expertise in higher education could be channeled to benefit high school students.” “I also thought about my youngest child. I thought in terms of positioning my son to enter into an HBCU in [named city].”	P4 “No.”
P5 “Yes, I’ve been very much interested in training and consulting.” “I don’t want to leave higher education, but I have to figure out ways I can use my time to supplement my income.” “I like being a [named position] because it gives me lots of student contact. You know being a director or dean is like running your own business.”	

P1, P3, and P5 love working with students. “I love students; therefore I love and enjoy my work.” The student affairs administrators are engaged in numerous tasks. Via the task they have gained a wide range of skills that are marketable in the public and private sector. However, the entrance into higher education for P2, P3, P4, and P5 was a career change from the public and/or governmental sector. Consequently, they enjoy working in higher education and have never considered leaving to pursue employment elsewhere or start a different career.

A within-case and cross-case analysis revealed both groups enjoy working with students. P1, P2, P3, and P4 also teach in addition to their respective administrative responsibilities. All the participants remain in higher education as a means of giving back to the community. “Because it gives me an opportunity to give back the things that

I've learned in school, particularly when it comes to African-Americans." They share a common concern for assisting other African-American students who are pursuing a degree. "Because I know how difficult it was for me to go to school, I know how society can push you off course and not give you an opportunity and things of that nature."

Theme 7 Representation in Administrative and Executive-level Positions

Research Question 7

How do African-American mid-level administrators describe representation of African-American administrators in executive-level positions in higher education and specifically at PWI?

Participants responded to two "interview questions" to answer this question. Interview questions explored how African-American mid-level administrators describe representation of African-American administrators in executive-level positions in higher education and specifically at PWIs, (#16) their belief of whether African-Americans are appropriately represented in administrative or managerial positions at PWIs, and (#17) their belief of whether African-Americans are appropriately represented in executive-level positions at PWIs of higher education. Table 10 presents the within-case and cross-case analysis of responses related to the representation in administrative and executive-level positions.

Table 10

Theme 7 – Representation in Administrative and Executive-level Positions: Within Case and Cross Case Analysis Responses to Interview Questions 16 and 17

Interview Question 16:

Do you believe that African-Americans are appropriately represented in administrative or managerial positions at PWIs of higher education?

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
<p style="text-align: center;">P1</p> <p>“Every year 10, 20, 30, 40 colleges and universities around the country embark on these, diversity initiatives either to bring more black or Hispanic or even female administrators, faculty, and staff to the campus. They are obviously doing that because there is a problem.”</p> <p>“Meaning no, the numbers are not where they should be.”</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">P2</p> <p>“No, no, it is not what it should be. I can’t tell you the reasons for it, but the numbers are not what they should be even though they are better than what they were last year.”</p> <p>“There have been improvements, however I certainly feel that the institutions have an obligation to try and to improve and make the administration and staff look like the student body.”</p> <p>“The answer to the question is no. I don’t think many of our white institutions are representative of society, in that case certainly many of the student bodies they are just not represented.”</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">P3</p> <p>“I don’t believe so. I haven’t looked at any of the latest figures, but I don’t believe so.”</p> <p>“When I do my benchmark I will look for administrators and typically there’s a picture. You get far enough over away from the things for prospective students and we’re still doing our 1 and 2.”</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">P4</p> <p>“That’s difficult to answer because I’ve never seen any statistics. But generally speaking I personally feel the numbers should be better.”</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">P5</p> <p>“We still have an abysmal track record especially on the academic side. We do a little better in student affairs. The business and finance and other operational side very, very, very poor.”</p> <p>“You tell a tree by it’s fruits. Look at the board rooms, look at the director’s tables; look at student affairs across the nation in predominately white schools. There just not there.”</p> <p>“We still have an abysmal track record especially on the academic side. We do a little better in student affairs. The business and finance and other operational side very, very, very poor.”</p>	

Table 10 (continued)

Interview Question 17:

Do you believe that African-Americans are appropriately represented in executive-level positions at PWIs of higher education?

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
P1 “Again I look at the numbers I look at trends. I look at the Chronicle of Higher Education, and there is what we hear from colleagues. The answer is no.”	P2 “They are not. That could be the worst of all of it.”
“I mean if they’re not represented at my level.”	
P3 “No, I really don’t think so.”	P4 “This I feel personally that the numbers perhaps should be better.”
“I think there can be improvements.”	
P5 “It going to take this generation of professionals that are a little bit more use to being in the room to break through that ceiling.”	
“When an African-American or Hispanic or woman gets that position the actual power that position use to represent shifts somewhere else.”	
“In student affairs across the nation in PWI you do not see many [named several black administrators].”	
“It’s not like were not getting the degrees. Nationwide the most produced doctorate degree area is in education. Of all the degrees that people of African descent get education tends to be the highest. So if more of us are getting most of our degrees in this field then how come were not penetrating where we ought?”	

All of the student affairs administrators were definite in their response of “no.” In the rationale of their answer they focused on the visual by pointing out what is not seen at the administrative and executive-levels. Based on the information read and from

colleagues in the field, African-Americans as administrators are under-represented at PWIs of higher education.

The administrative affairs administrators also stated that the number of African-American administrators "...is not what it should be..." but could not give an explanation for the reason. However, P2 and P4 stated the numbers are much better than they were in the past and are improving.

The within-case and cross-cased analysis found both groups to view African-Americans as being under-represented in administrative, managerial, and executive-level positions at PWIs of higher education. Each group acknowledged African-Americans as having the qualifications but not being represented appropriately at the managerial and executive-levels.

Theme 8 White Supremacy in Career Decisions and Career Advancement

Research Question 8

Does white supremacy emerge as a factor influencing career decisions, administrator experiences and career advancement of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education?

This final research question was not asked of the participants. The data are derived from the participants' responses to each question in the interview schedule to determine if white supremacy emerged as a factor in the career decision of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education. Table 11 presents the within-case and cross-case analysis of the responses related to whether white supremacy was a factor in the career decision of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education.

Table 11

Theme 8 – White Supremacy in Career Decisions and Career Advancement: Within Case and Cross Case Analyses Responses to All Interview Questions

Interview Question ALL QUESTIONS:

Interview Question 1:

What are the factors that led you to select a career in higher education?

**Student Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

**Administrative Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

P1

“Remember I’m coming at it from a minority perspective. A black male perspective; and perhaps for my colleagues who are Caucasian maybe the intangibles don’t mean as much or don’t mean anything.”

“I have been told by my mentors that because I’m black you better talk a certain way, and that that because I’m black you better talk a certain way. It doesn’t mean you’re talking white, it just means you can articulate an answer. It means you need to look a certain way, meaning appropriate dress code. You have to dress and act and carry yourself certain way. These are many of the same things our parents have taught us growing up in America as black men as black females as black people.”

P2

“Yeah, it’s different. The thing is you will get challenged, you’re going to get challenged, you’re going to get tested, questioned. But can you say that you’re treated differently? I’m not so sure you can. I mean you can think that way, but it’s very difficult to prove.”

P3

“My father was from rural [named state], where you were fortunate if you had the opportunity to complete the eighth grade because of the agrarian, farming society. Because of the missed opportunity both parents always stressed going to school.”

Table 11 (continued)

Interview Question 2:

What are the reasons you have remained in higher education?

**Student Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

**Administrative Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

P2

“I do very well financially and I think that is kind of important. You have to have money to eat and of course when you’re a brutha and in an institution where they have a few black folks you have to have money.”

“This is so important in our culture, to me.”

“She [daughter] was one of two African-American females in the entire school of [named school] at [named institution] when she was enrolled. They tried everything, all kinds of obstacles. She would always find a way around.”

P4

“It gives me an opportunity to give back the things that I’ve learned in school particularly when comes to African-Americans. I know how difficult it was for me to go to school. I know how society can push you off course and not give you an opportunity.”

Interview Question 3:

How would you describe career advancement opportunities in higher education?

**Student Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

**Administrative Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

P5

“She leaped frog over the other [named position] who was an African-American female who been here for 15 years and became [named position] and then became senior [named position].”

P2

“For minorities or for all people? In my opinion, there’s less obstacles in pursuing a career in higher education especially if you have the qualifications for the specific job you are pursuing. If you carry yourself and present yourself the opportunities are there.”

Table 11 (continued)

Interview Question 4

How would you describe your experiences as an administrator in higher education?

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
P3	P2
“But we’re in the 21 st century so I’ve come to understand as we move toward that [equality] there is a good chance the door will not be as far ajar as it once had been.”	“Personalities you come in contact with you learned to manage those above you and below you. You learn to operate around them. Certainly they are there. You can’t deny that.”
P5	P4
“My counterpart, is white non-Hispanic, he is seven years younger than me. Has that much less experience, very capable at what he does but you can tell that there’s a little gap in turn. I’ve been managing longer than he’s been managing. I managed a larger unit when I was at [named campus] and you can tell the difference when it comes time for problem solving. He often calls me with some things that stick him, yet he is paid the same thing that I get paid. He was promoted 2 months before I was.”	“Here at the university I am in an arena where there are not a lot of African-Americans in higher administrative positions.”

Interview Question 6:

What administrative qualities or characteristics do you believe are necessary to advance to an executive-level position?

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
P1	P2
“This is sort of sad to say but, people get caught up on your demeanor, your package. In other words, how you look. That’s one of the intangibles.”	“I don’t know if they do it with white administrators the way they do it with blacks. That person sitting across in front of you, he or she getting ready to hire you their mind is focused on one thing.”
“There are a number of things. But I would also say a number of intangibles.”	“It’s what they [whites] feel when they’re looking you in the eyes at that time how you respond and how you carry yourself. How you respond to their questions and your body language. They pay close attention to all of that, and it doesn’t stop there. You constantly have to maintain those attributes.”

Table 11 (continued)

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
<p style="text-align: center;">P3</p> <p>"I also thought about my youngest child. I thought in terms of positioning my son to enter into an HBCU in [named city]."</p>	
<p style="text-align: center;">Interview Question 7:</p> <p>What institutional characteristics, culture, or climate do you believe are necessary to advance to an executive-level position?</p>	
Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
<p style="text-align: center;">P1</p> <p>"Perhaps for my colleagues who are Caucasians maybe the intangibles don't mean as much or don't mean anything. But what I am saying I have been told by my mentors that because I'm black you better talk a certain way. That doesn't mean you're talking white, it just means you can articulate an answer. It means you need to look a certain way, meaning appropriate dress code and I'm not saying you have to be pretty. I'm just saying you have to dress and act and carry yourself a certain way. And these are many of the same things our parents have taught us growing up in America as black men as black females as black people."</p> <p>"I don't think the vast majority of the institutions in this country are prepared to accept a black man as a CEO."</p> <p>"Many of us are laboring at the assistant vice president level, assistant vice chancellor level, director's level with the skill set and credential to go higher. I think on some level the culture sort of stymies our upward growth."</p> <p>"I think the board of trustees, the board of governors, or board of education, whoever ultimately makes that hiring decision must be receptive to diversity."</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">P2</p> <p>"Integrity, fairness, very equal."</p>

Table 11 (continued)

**Student Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

**Administrative Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

P3

“You have your structure and everything, there has to be an air of receptivity.”

“Everybody [whites] expects you to be glad to be at the table and to move with the program. I think in terms of the culture there needs to be openness and receptiveness to having people come together so you have different kinds of thinkers at the table. From a cultural and gender point of view if there isn't a receptivity to having that kind of representation. If I am at an institution and the only time I am going to be valued is when there is an issue that has to do with color or race than that” is an atmosphere that is probably not going to be good for me; I would be under-utilized.”

P5

“There are two tracks, the general qualities and then there are those qualities for those of us of African-American descent and other under-represented groups.”

“People of African descent are put in this little box and you have to be able to step outside of it without seeming like you're being adversarial.”

Table 11 (continued)

Interview Question 8:

If you were seeking an executive-level position, which of your administrative qualities or characteristics would facilitate or hinder advancement to an executive-level position?

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
<p style="text-align: center;">P1</p> <p><u>Hinder</u> “I probably wouldn’t fit in at the University of North Dakota, but I might fit in at the University of North Carolina.”</p> <p>“... well obviously, again there are those intangibles.”</p> <p>“I am coming from a black male perspective. Perhaps for my colleagues who are Caucasian maybe the intangibles don’t mean as much or don’t mean anything.”</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">P2</p> <p><u>Hinder</u> “Number one is whether that climate would be conducive to me I think that would be part of the decision.”</p> <p>“I don’t control their emotions about whether they like people because their dark skinned or whatever; I don’t control that. But bearing that’s not a barrier, that’s not an obstacle, that not something that’s not put out in front, if it’s competitive and if you’ve got the normal hiring committee that we see in higher education and it is something in my field; it would be tough for me not to get that position.”</p>

Interview Question 9:

If you were seeking an executive-level position, which institutional characteristics, culture, or climate would facilitate or hinder advancement to an executive-level position?

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
<p style="text-align: center;">P1</p> <p><u>Facilitate</u> “I go back to the acceptableness to diversity and receptive to some of the things.”</p> <p><u>Hinder</u> “A level of intolerance.”</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">P4</p> <p><u>Facilitate</u> “Culture and climate, [named university] is an extremely diverse university. A lot of Hispanics, African-Americans, Anglos are here in those positions.”</p>

Table 11 (continued)

Interview Question 10

What are the factors that led you to select a PWI for your current job position?

**Student Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

**Administrative Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

P5

"I grew up in this environment. I have colleagues white and black who really have a challenge because they are really not use to the diversity; they're not use to how we relate. Things like meetings not exactly starting on time and everyone laughing about it because there are so many Hispanics and Caribbean and people and black people. Even the directors would often say I have a meeting at 10 and it starts 10 after 10; our white colleagues go crazy and it really is a cultural thing. Everything from how we greet each other, Caribbean's and Latin's like to kiss and hug and again a lot of my white colleagues' just think that's too familiar."

"I desegregated the middle school I went to so, I'm use to being the fly in the milk."

Interview Question 12

I previously asked you to describe your experiences as an administrator in higher education. Now I would like you to describe your experiences as an *African-American* administrator at a PWI.

**Student Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

**Administrative Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

P1

"I would say that very early on in my career, the experiences were pretty bad."

"So, it's been a mix bag, this has been rather positive; but earlier on in my career, very negative."

"You start replaying some of that stuff and that was very early on in my career."

P2

"It is different. You will get challenged, you're going get tested, questioned. But can you say that you're treated differently? I'm not so sure you can because; you can think that way, but it's very difficult to prove."

"One thing I've learned about higher education they don't want power to dwell in to many places. They don't want you to have power over them [whites]. I don't care who you are or what you do. If it appears that way, if you're a really sharp or a great administrator and going to have power over folks they want reasons to knock you off."

Table 11 (continued)

**Student Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

**Administrative Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

P3

"I did not get the position but I noticed that the person that was hired had 10 years of experience as I did. However, his experience was in a public school system. My experience was within the university. So the feedback that I was given from the representative of the office was that we decided to go with the other person because they had had an opportunity to work there as an undergraduate student when one of the professional staff was ill and they had really pitched in and had gotten a really good experience. Had I been a white male, I would have almost been a shoe in because of the mileage that could have been gained."

"In my first 10 years I did not see blacks off the beaten paths. In other words if I went into the business sector of the university I would not find blacks in professional positions."

P5

"I remember once someone asked Denzel Washington what does the black community think about a particular issue and he said I don't know, I don't have the black community meeting at my house at night. But unfortunately that comment and Charles Barkley's comment that I am not a role model don't ring true. You are a role model and you do carry a lot of people. When you do something everybody is looking very differently at you then they look at the white administrator."

Table 11 (continued)

Interview Question 13:

How would you describe career advancement opportunities in higher education for African-American administrators at PWIs?

Student Affairs Participant (P) Responses	Administrative Affairs Participant (P) Responses
<p data-bbox="465 538 495 561">P1</p> <p data-bbox="172 570 777 753">“In our division, student affairs, when we have our meetings there are about 30 directors and assistant and associate vice presidents. We have a lot of diversity around the table and number of people of African descent. [Named institution] is not like a number of the other colleges and universities around this country.”</p> <p data-bbox="172 783 777 966">“When you look it from a national perspective, clearly the numbers are low. Those of us [African-Americans] in positions of authority and aspiring to go higher the opportunities while not totally close appear and tend to be limited. I would say the opportunities are somewhat limited.”</p>	<p data-bbox="1040 538 1070 561">P2</p> <p data-bbox="807 570 1312 627">“They [whites] are starting to look at the work product rather than the skin.”</p> <p data-bbox="807 661 1312 902">“I say the opportunities are very good, much better than what they were 20 years ago, 10 years ago or even last year. That should be the goal. We have to knock these walls down. I see that happening. I grew up in the south. I’ve seen stuff today that I never believed I would have seen 35 and 40years ago. It was cruel.”</p>
<p>P3</p>	
<p data-bbox="172 1034 777 1129">“I think for minorities in the early years I saw opportunities were in programs that are directed at minorities for and with minorities.”</p> <p data-bbox="172 1164 777 1221">“The huddle sometimes becomes a hurdle for professionals of color.”</p> <p data-bbox="172 1255 777 1351">“So some of those things make you wonder about the service and the double service that can happen to us [Africa-American professionals].”</p> <p data-bbox="172 1385 777 1502">“There were already white males, white females and black females; the opportunity would have been to bring in for the first time a black male which we have not seen at the executive-level.”</p> <p data-bbox="172 1536 777 1721">“If you or I can move to get the PhD or EdD and we are not called upon to serve at the apex of the leadership of the institution or organization then there’s still the likelihood that [named 3 African-American rap stars] who has the top 2 hits and any other hip hop star will be the ones young black kids will be emulating.”</p>	

Table 11 (continued)

P5
“I don’t know, now it could be coincidence but there are more leaders, administrators of African-American descent on this campus than at the other campus.”

Interview Question 14:

How would you describe career advancement opportunities in higher education for African-American administrators at PWIs? For specific executive-level positions?

**Student Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

**Administrative Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

P2
“It’s not that you won’t face obstacles, you’ll always have obstacles.”

Interview Question 15:

Does the institutional culture and climate of your undergraduate experience as an African-American student differ from the institutional culture and climate you experience as an African-American administrator?

**Student Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

**Administrative Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

P3
“I would say it differs because much time has passed since those days of my undergraduate years. I was a product of the 60s. As I arrived as a young freshmen at [named university], two years before I arrived they integrated the rooms on campus.”

“We had some out and out segregated kinds of things happening during my days as a student. Because of the time and the 1964 civil rights act those things are coming in to existence and in enforcement. We could contrast much of what has happened and has happened today.”

P2
“There is no question when I started at the historically black institution the kind of things I received, the care I like to say the touchy feely stuff. It was much different than it was at the white institution”

“At the white institution I felt like I was out there on my own. I better work my butt off or I wasn’t going to make it... I don’t know if it is any different for white administrators, I can’t say that, but I’m in a position where I have to produce.”

P5
“We have hyper qualified African-Americans in administrative positions and when we sit around the table I often marvel at the critical thinking abilities, the ability to multitask, the ability to work in different environments, the willingness and ability to work from entry level to the executive-level. But they have to do it because you never know what you’re going to get called to do. Whereas many non-African-American people don’t have to do that, so I believe the difference is there equality?”

Table 11 (continued)

Interview Question 16:

Do you believe that African-Americans are appropriately represented in administrative or managerial positions at PWIs of higher education?

**Student Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

**Administrative Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

P1

“Every year 10, 20, 30, 40 colleges and universities around the country embark on diversity initiatives either to bring more black or Hispanic or even female administrators, faculty, and staff to the campus. Obviously they are doing it because there is a problem.”

P2

“You have 11 people on the football team of African decent and one administrator in the whole university. That is discrimination of one form.”

P5

“I have a colleague and a frat brother who worked at [named university] who was director of admissions, is bi-racial and has white features. Most of his colleagues did not know he was of African descent. He would sit in the room with all these white men and they would they would talk about having to admit students of African descents and Hispanics. They would talk about making choices not to hire African-Americans and finding creative ways to basically deny them the opportunity to be hired.”

“He told me about meetings taking place where they decided how far they’re going to let you go and who’s going to get in and is he a good one; we’ll hire her because she’s not threatening. I think there are too many of those conversations still taking place.”

Interview Question 17:

Do you believe that African-Americans are appropriately represented in executive-level positions at PWIs of higher education?

**Student Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

**Administrative Affairs
Participant (P) Responses**

P5

“When an African-American or Hispanic or woman gets that position, the actual power that position uses to represent shifts somewhere else. I guarantee within five years you will find either a new position that will really represent the power will be instituted, or a new structure will be introduced that will dilute the power or the very structure that he has will dissolve.”

P1, P3, and P5 began their careers in positions specifically designated for minorities. Although P1 and P5 no longer work in a position with a minority designated title they report to African-Americans and are located on a campus that is predominately minority.

In the first interview question that asked participants about the factors that led them to select a career in higher education P1 stated “Remember, I’m coming at it from a minority perspective. A black male perspective; and perhaps for my colleagues who are Caucasians maybe the intangibles don’t mean as much or don’t mean anything...” His experience is that African-American administrators must “speak”, “dress”, and “carry themselves in a certain way.” These are what he refers to as “intangibles.” “These are many of the same things our parents have taught us growing up in America as black men, as black females, and as black people.” Referring to the negative experience earlier in his career P1 stated, “You start replaying some of that stuff and that was very early on in my career.”

P1, P3, and P5 have observed many African-American administrators with the skills laboring in mid-level positions. P3 referred to people who come on the scene and have the degrees, have the experience, and “have a working capability that cause them to bring much to the table and not get invited to the table.” In his earlier experience P3 did not observe blacks in positions outside of minority student programs or what he referred to as “off the beaten path.”

P1, P3, and P5 said the culture of the institutions “stymie the upward growth” of African-American administrators. According to P5 “unfortunately in this country a white man merely has to walk through the door but a black man has to run through the wall.”

Each reflected on [named university] missed opportunities to bring in an African-American male in an executive-level position. Although at their own institution they see a greater number of administrators of African descent in student affairs, they said it is deliberate on the part of the hierarchy of American colleges and to keep Black people and other “under-represented” groups in American repressed and out of executive-level positions. Referring to what his bi-racial fraternity brother told him, P5 said “... they [white administrators] would talk about making choices not to hire African-Americans and finding creative ways to basically deny them the opportunity to be hired. “He told me about meetings taking place where they decided how far they’re going to let you go...” P3 referred to the meetings as a huddle and stated, “The huddle sometimes becomes a hurdle for professionals of color.” P5 observed when an African-American gets hired [in an executive-level position] the “actual power shifts elsewhere.” P1 summarized it by stating: “I don’t think the vast majority of the institutions in this country are prepared to accept a black man as a CEO.”

Key for P1, P3, and P5 is an environment that supports openness and “air of receptivity to different thoughts, ideas, and diverse methods of accomplishing the institution’s mission.” Above all it must be an atmosphere of equality. P1 stated that those making the hiring decisions, including the board of trustees and other various boards must be “receptive to “diversity.”

P2 believes African-American administrators are going to get “challenged” and “tested.” He considered the various “obstacles” confronting him and has learned to “operate” around them. “I don’t control their emotions about whether they like people because their dark skinned or whatever; I don’t control that. But bearing that’s not a

barrier, that's not an obstacle..." Being "treated differently" based on race is difficult to prove he acknowledges. He further noted that whites are beginning to observe the quality of the work opposed to the "skin" color.

P2 and P4 cited their "culture" as important and is one of the reasons they have remained in higher education. Serving as administrators is their way of "giving back to the "African-American community." P2 referred to his daughter facing obstacles as an African-American and female in college, and P4 reflected on his own difficulty in obtaining an education. P4 said, "I know how society can push you off course and not give you an opportunity."

P2 and P4 acknowledged that the opportunities and the culture, and the climate in PWIs are "getting better." P2 stated "We have to knock these walls down." P4 states "the color barrier still exist to a certain extent but not nearly to the degree that it did once before." However, he said the struggles of African-Americans is predicated on "self destructing behavior and not so much from the white community." P4 stated, "You may be stopped at one institution, but you're not going to be stopped at all of them."

Both P2 and P4 referred to the white supremacy as a barrier uses the phrases of receptiveness and diversity.

In the cross-case analysis both student affairs and administrative affairs administrators expressed white supremacy as a factor using descriptions of events and occurrences. Both groups used abstract and concrete terms to express white supremacy. The abstract terms used by student affairs administrators were "intangibles", "not invited to the table", and "run through the wall". The administrative affairs administrators used both concrete and abstract terms. Concrete terms used were "color barriers, and "skin

color.” Abstract terms used included “knock these walls down”, “getting better”, “obstacles”, “challenges”, “treated differently”, and “tested”.

In the cross-case analysis each participant stated the importance of their role in assisting African-American undergraduate and graduate students to overcome the obstacles placed before them at PWI of higher education. They also see themselves as creating a pathway for upcoming African-American administrators and assisting them in navigating the system. Important here are two key phrases by P1, “These are many of the same things are parents have taught us growing up in America as black men, as black females, and as black people.” and “You start replaying some of that stuff [earlier negative experiences] and that was very early on in my career.”

Both groups when asked about the culture and characteristics of the institution were precise and used the same terminology. All indicated receptiveness, diversity and equality as important factors in their career decision making process. All of the participants agreed they would not consider an institution that lacked diversity and equality.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

According to Jackson (2001) and Guillory (2001) the literature on African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education is limited. The purpose of this phenomenological qualitative study was (a) to gain insight into the factors influencing African-American administrators to select a career in higher education and choose employment at a PWi, (b) to discover the similarities and differences in factors influencing the career decisions of African Americans at PWIs based on whether they attended a HBCU or PWi (c) to discover the factors affecting the career decisions of African-American administrators in mid-level administrative positions regarding advancement to executive-level positions and the under-representation of African-American administrators in PWIs of higher education and (d) to examine whether white supremacy emerges as a factor influencing the career decisions of African-American administrators in mid-level administrative positions at PWIs of higher education.

This research took the form of a qualitative examination into the personal and professional lives and the lived experience of the participants to obtain descriptive data in a within-case and cross-case analysis review. The data were collected from five higher education administrators in personal interviews using 18 open-ended questions and a socio-demographic profile.

Three of the participants were administrators in student affairs and two were administrators in administrative affairs. A within case analysis of each participant's interview was conducted to identify patterns and themes. A cross-case analysis was conducted between the two groups represented for developing patterns and themes.

Previously, access to PWIs of higher education was the issue for African-American students, faculty and administrators. In 1940 there were 330 black PhDs in the country. Not one taught at a white university (Ballard, 1994). By 1941 only two African-American tenured faculty members in PWIs could be identified. "Almost no white institution of higher education in this country, before the hiring of Allison Davis at the University of Chicago in 1941, believed that any Black man was intelligent enough to be a professor at a white university" (Ballard, 1994, p. 39). By 1947 out of 3,000 African-Americans who listed college teacher as their occupation, only 78 had ever taught at a white school many as part-time lecturers (Ballard, 1994). Today's African-American administrators view equity as a major problem confronting them. More opportunities in PWIs higher education are available to African-American administrators than in the past and they believe things are getting better. Although their numbers are increasing in positions at institutions they were previously excluded they see themselves as still being under-represented. Chapter five presents a discussion about the interpretations, limitations, implications, recommendations, and conclusions in this study about the factors influencing the career decisions of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education and whether white supremacy is one of the factors.

Interpretations

Factors Influencing African-American Administrators to Select a Career in Higher Education and Choose Employment at a PWI

The sociological careership theory by Hodkins and Sparkes (1997) has three integrated dimensions: (1) pragmatically rational decision making, located in the habitus of the individual making the decision, (2) choices as individual interacts with others in a

field, which is related to the unequal resources different players possess, and (3) choices within a life course consisting of unpredictable patterns of interlinked routines and turning-points that make up the life course is applicable in the career decisions of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education.

In the dimension of pragmatically rational decision-making, the individual enters or rejects an occupation based on (a) Rational - personal experience, or on advice from a friend, relative or neighbor, and (b) Pragmatics – partial information located in the familiar and the known. The decision-making is context-related and cannot be separated from the family background, culture, and life histories of the individual. The decisions are opportunistic, based on casual contacts and experiences, influenced by feelings and emotions, and involved in accepting one option rather than choosing between many.

None of the study participants considered a career in higher education as their first choice. The academic environment of the undergraduate experience was the primary influencing factor to the career selection of all the participants. All of the participants attended a PWI for the undergraduate degree. Four of the participants attended the local university in their hometown. For three of the participants the opportunity to work for their alma mater was a main factor in selecting a career in higher education at a PWI. For all of the participants the job opportunity and availability of a position was also an influencing factor that led them to their current position.

The findings in this study support the careership theory by Hodkins and Sparkes. The participants made a pragmatically rational career decision based on their (1) personal experience, and (2) their interaction with individuals in the field as students, i.e., graduate students and administrators. Their alma mater was the familiar and the known. Four of

the five elected to seek a position at their alma mater, and (3) unpredictable patterns, i.e., financial circumstances, marriage, divorce and insensitivity were factors affecting their career decisions. Their decisions were based on opportunity, contacts, and experience.

According to D. Brown (2002), occupational choice, success, and satisfaction are the primary variables that influence the occupational choice-making process, the occupation chosen, and the resulting satisfaction with and success in the occupation chosen are culture and work values. Brown's proposition indicated that the perception of being discriminated against may be a factor in the career decision making process for African-Americans (p. 49). D. Brown's proposition was worthy of further examination.

Two of the student affairs administrators and both of the administrative affairs participants entered higher education from positions outside of higher education. Two student affairs and one administrative affair participant chose to work for the PWI of higher education from which they received their undergraduate degree. Three of the five administrators in this study began their career in higher education at their alma mater. One administrator began his career at the community college he attended and later accepted a position at the PWI where he received his bachelor's and master's degrees. Interaction with individuals in the field and their electing to pursue a position at their alma mater supports Hodkins and Sparkes careership theory. Four of the administrators also teach, however, teaching is not part of their administrative responsibilities. Hence, the participants' choice of occupation was based upon an institution that was familiar to them and not on D. Brown's (2002) premise of culture and work values.

All of the participants have experienced success in their chosen occupation. With years of experience and training they have advanced within the institution and have

received promotions. While still in student affairs, those study participants are no longer in a position designated specifically to minority students. All of the participants attribute their success to knowing how to navigate around the institution. However, all the participants stated their reason for staying in higher education is grounded in their interaction with the students. Consistent with the findings of Allen et. al (2000) they elect to remain in higher education to assist and encourage students of color to persist.

Based on the data collected in the *Socio-demographic Profile* none of the participants' parents had a college degree, therefore, they are considered first generation college students. Four of the mothers of the participants completed high school and only one participant's father had a high school diploma. Despite the parents' lack of education four of the five participants' family owned their own home, which is an indication of the value of work. All of the participants attended a PWI of higher education and chose their occupation based on their experience at that institution. Consequently, the findings do not support D. Brown's (2002) theory of culture and work values being the primary variables influencing the occupational choice-making process, the occupation chosen, and the resultant satisfaction in the occupation chosen.

While the undergraduate and graduate experience and job opportunities are influencing factors there was no indication that perceived discrimination was a factor in the career decision making process. However, discrimination was an influencing factor in them leaving a former position. Consistent with Jackson's (2002) study, three of the student affairs administrators began their career in a position specifically designated for a minority. Jackson noted these student affairs positions do not carry the same status as department chairs and dean and are not seen as the mainstream of administration.

Consequently, advancement from these positions is difficult. The decision of the institution to hire minorities is a factor and the job positions the institution selects for hiring minorities is an institutional-controlled factor. The number of African-American administrators electing to begin their career in higher education at their alma mater is an area of interest and deserves further study.

Similarities and Differences in Factors Influencing the Career Decisions of African Americans at PWIs Based on Whether They Attended a HBCU or PWI

None of the participants in the study attended a HBCU. Therefore a comparison of similarities and differences of factors influencing the career decisions of African Americans at PWIs based on whether they attended a HBCU or PWI could not be conducted. In the study conducted by Rolle et al. (2000) to better understand the experiences of African-American administrators in PWIs, more than half of the African-American administrators interviewed began their college career at an HBCU. All of the participants in this study began their career at a PWI. Although the sample in this study was small, the findings do not support those by Rolle et al.

Berry (2001) and Marable (2002) found an increase in the numbers of African-Americans graduating from college and obtaining advance degrees. According to their findings, the number of African-Americans serving in administrative positions in predominantly white institutions of higher education remains significantly low. Currently, there is limited information regarding the African-American administrator at PWIs of higher education (Jackson, 2001, Guillory, 2001). Research regarding the number of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education that graduated

from a HBCU is not available. Because of this study's small sample and none of the participants attended a HBCU, this remains an area where further study is recommended.

Factors Affecting the Career Decisions of African-American Administrators in Mid-level Administrative Positions Regarding Advancement to Executive-level Positions and the Under-representation of African-American Administrators in PWIs of Higher Education

According to Lief's (1994) human capital theory, in the labor market workers are compensated in direct proportion to their value to their employers. The value is a function of the skills the worker has to offer and is often measured as years of formal education, training, and work experience. When reviewing the positions that have been created for African-Americans administrators on PWIs, this model is important to explore. According to Allen et al. (2000a) and Jackson and Flowers (2002), African-American faculty members whose scholarship focuses on racial and ethnic issues have frequently been devalued and the positions in which African-American administrators served is a reflection of this fact. However, this proposition is important in addressing attitudes of White administrators toward their African-American colleagues. This is an area that deserves further study.

All the participants in the study stated they would not work for an institution that did not value their opinion. Being "receptive to diversity", "open to "different modes of thinking and reaching conclusions", and "integrity, fairness and equality" as the institutional culture and climate are necessary for them to advance to an executive-level position.

Consistent with Leif's theory, Jackson (2001) stated that African-American administrators tend to be in positions (i.e., manager or director of minority affairs and affirmative action officer) that lack power and authority. These positions were specifically created for minorities and are valued less by "mainstream" academic administrators; however, these positions provide an avenue for entry into academia. Three of the student affairs participants began their career in higher education in a position specifically designated for a minority. Their careers totaled over 76 years of experience and involved different positions at several PWIs of higher education. All the study participants described their experience as an administrator as "positive" and "pleasant." However, they described their experience as an African-American administrator as a "mixed bag," "eye openers", and being "challenged." One administrative services administrator found that being a minority opened opportunities for him to serve on committees. The participants made a distinction between their experience as an administrator and their experience as an African-American administrator. In citing their earlier experience, two of the student affairs administrators were prompted to leave their former positions in minority affairs. One participant said if his opinion is valued only when it concerns an issue of color or race, then he feels underutilized. Participants were aware that their presence as a minority is needed by the institution to serve on search, screening, and selection committees. However, they view serving on search, screening, and selection committees as an opportunity to create a diverse academic community.

In the study conducted by Jones (2001) and Nora and Cabrera (1996), they found a large disproportionate number of African-American students leave PWIs without

bachelor degrees because of poor institutional climate and instances of racism. In this research two of the student affairs administrators stated they left their former position due to a poor institutional climate. The number of African-American administrators leaving their position because of a poor institutional climate and acts of racism deserves further study. The findings should be compared with other racial and ethnic groups regarding reasons for leaving prior position(s).

The social dominance theory and the hierarchical social system model by Ellis (2002) revealed that the forces producing and controlling higher education institutions were interconnected by administrators, faculty, support staff, geographic location, and the student body. He notes each force shapes the culture of the institution and forms the manner by which it addresses a variety of issues. In this present study, African-American administrators believe things are better today than they were in the past. The opportunity to serve on search and selection committees is viewed as an opportunity to increase the diversity at the institution. All of the participants feel valued in an academic community that is diverse in ethnicity, race, and gender and more importantly in viewpoints. An environment that permits them to express their viewpoint however different from the majority culture is extremely important. One student affairs participant stated that while they have been “invited to the table” they are not always invited or expected to participate in the decision-making process. Considering the hierarchy of the institution is void of high-level executive African-American administrators, three of the participants believe decision-making at the executive-level creates barriers, even if unintended. These beliefs were consistent with Cox’s suggestion that institutional bias is a preference pattern inherent in how organizations are managed (as cited in Guillory, 2001). It often

inadvertently creates barriers to full participation by organizational members from cultural backgrounds that differ from the traditional majority.

In the 1990 study conducted by Allen et al. (2000a), the status of African-American higher education faculty members and its relationship to access and success in the professorate was examined. Allen et al. study focused on the under-representation of African-American faculty and compared the characteristics, experiences, and achievement of African-American faculty to those of white faculty members. Factors examined were opportunity, structure, resources, and academic as well as non-academic demands relating to the entrance and advancement of African-Americans. Their findings indicated the academic hierarchy is influenced by the larger social, historical and cultural context. The research indicated that the academic hierarchy favors whites over non-whites and penalized African-American faculty. African-American faculty members are stereotyped by their white faculty and peers as "special admits." A perceived lack of support by faculty and staff and a largely segregated social life have made African-American faculty at PWIs aware of their marginal status and have contributed to their feelings of socio-cultural alienation.

The findings of the African-American administrator participants in this study parallel with Allen et al. (2000a). The participants perceive equity and diversity as the number one problems facing them at PWIs of higher education. In the past the concern was access. However, today the concern is equity and fairness. There is a concern that their white colleagues are advancing with fewer qualifications and less experience and being promoted at a faster rate. The participants felt the academic community expects them to represent the African-American race and culture. They also felt their appearance

and actions were being closely scrutinized by the academic community. Although they view the opportunities in higher education as excellent, despite their years of experience and educational training, advancement to the next level is contingent upon a number of “intangibles.” They expressed that it would be difficult to prove their perceived feelings of difference of treatment. Therefore, they cope with it. Guillory (2001) found African-American administrators experience a myriad of barriers and organizational pitfalls their white counterparts do not encounter. The ladder of success for African-Americans in higher education has been equally difficult. Rolle et al. (2002) stated that while it has had its rewards, it has certainly had its share of problems. Findings in this study were consistent with Guillory’s (2001) statement: “Many African-Americans must also cope with such obstacles as racism, hostility, prejudice, discrimination, ‘chilly’ climate, institutional bias, negative stereotypes, self-doubt, alienation, isolation, cultural insensitivity, and glass-ceiling effects” (p. 117). This was also consistent with the findings of Jeanquart-Barone and Sekaran (1996) that African-Americans perceived institutional racism in their work.

All of the participants believe that opportunities in higher education are excellent. With the proper preparation, education, and experience, they said the chances to advance to an executive-level position are possible and even better than they were 10, 20, and 30 years ago. While they cited examples of African-American CEOs at some institutions and noted other African-American colleagues they believe are capable of being a chief executive, they believe most PWIs are not ready to accept African-Americans as CEOs. Again, the findings were consistent with Cox’s statement of institutional bias which is a preference pattern inherent in how organizations are managed (as cited in Guillory,

2001). It often inadvertently creates barriers to full participation by organization members from cultural backgrounds that differ from the traditional majority.

Study participants see many career advancement opportunities in higher education at PWIs. They noted the difference between advancement opportunities within the institution and outside at other institutions. Advancement within the institution can occur but at a slower pace. For advancement to an executive-level position, African-Americans must be willing to seek advancement opportunities at other institutions of higher education. Communication skills, human relations skills, and a terminal degree are qualities and characteristics they see as necessary to advance to an executive-level position. For advancement to take place diversity must be a top priority of the institutional hierarchy.

Examine Whether White Supremacy Emerges as a Factor Influencing the Career Decisions of African-American Administrators in Mid-level Administrative Positions at PWIs

Jones (1997) stated that racism is multidimensional and can be classified by using a tripartite typology. The first type: (a) individual racism - African-Americans are likely to experience racial discrimination on a personal level, (b) institutional racism - African-Americans experience racism as a result of social and institutional policies that exclude them from full participation in the benefits offered to other members of society, and (c) cultural - cultural racism occurs when the cultural practices of the “dominant” group are generally regarded by society and its institutions as being superior to the culture of a “subordinate” group.

According to Adams (2001) and Anderson (2003), prior to 1940 African-Americans were virtually invisible in higher education. In 1936 there was a sizable group of African-Americans with PhDs; 80% taught at three historically African-American institutions: Atlanta, Fisk, and Howard Universities (Washington & Harvey, 1989; Beilke, 1997). Consistent with Sears, Van Laar, Carrillo, and Kosterman (1997), was Ballard's (1994) statement that none of the 330 Black PhDs in the country in 1940 taught at a white university. Jones (1997) would classify this as institutional and cultural racism.

All of the participants noted that although the opportunities in higher education are excellent, African-Americans administrators are under-represented at PWIs at all levels. To seek advancement and to advance to an executive-level position their primary concern was the culture and climate of the institution. This study's participants stated the institutional culture and climate must be open and receptive to diversity. Their view of America's PWIs of higher education's hierarchy is one controlled by whites for whites. Their view is evident in Jones' (1997) multidimensional racism tripartite typology of institutional and cultural racism.

Practical Implications

Based on the findings the undergraduate experience plays a key role as a factor influencing African-American students to pursue a career in higher education. To increase the number of African-Americans as administrators, PWIs must focus on the African-American student. For some African-American students enrolling in college for the first time it may be their first exposure to higher education (as with other students).

Programs should be developed to expose them to the various career opportunities and encourage them to seek career opportunities in higher education.

PWIs must be receptive to hiring African-Americans in all administrative positions and not only positions created specifically for minorities. However, positions created specifically for minorities serve a unique purpose and should not be abolished. Abolishing them could jeopardize the enrollment, retention, and graduation of African-American students. Career paths should be established that enable the African-American administrator to advance into administrative positions within the institution.

Designating a minority on search, selection and screening committees is good; however institutions must take additional steps to ensure that minority candidates are evaluated based on their credentials, years of experience, and skills. To increase the number of African-American administrators, institutions must seek feedback from unsuccessful candidates and from African-American candidates electing not to accept a position. This is an area of future study.

Institutions could develop a plan to monitor their diversity characteristics and institutional culture and climate. Instruments to measure the attitudes of the dominant culture toward African-American faculty, staff, administrators, and students should be investigated. An instrument should be developed to evaluate the comfort level of African-American faculty, staff, administrators, and students at the institution and compare the findings to other institutions. By surveying African-American professionals, institutions could ascertain how they perceive the institution.

African-American administrators must continue to prepare themselves for executive-level positions. Preparation includes getting the experience, developing the job

skills and earning the terminal degree to compete with others. They must be willing to make sacrifices of moving to where the advance job opportunities exist and accept the possibility of being the first at many PWIs of higher education.

Conclusions

1. The undergraduate institution attended by African-American students may influence their career selection.
2. African-American administrators describe their experience as administrators at PWIs of higher education as positive. However, based on perceived treatment from members of the dominant culture, African-American administrators view positions specifically designated for African-Americans different from how they view a position when the designator “minority” was not part of the title.
3. African-American administrators describe career advancement opportunities at PWIs of higher education as better now than in the past. While the opportunities are good, advancement within the institution is not always positive. They believe one must move to another institution to advance, which may be a common pattern for any administrator regardless of diversity characteristics. However, regardless of the preparation, degrees, accomplishments and experience, they believe most PWI’s of higher education are not ready to accept an African-American in an executive-level position.
4. The administrative qualities and characteristics African-American administrators identified as necessary for advancement to an executive-level position, in addition to experience, are the terminal degree, good communication and human relation skills. They believe there are various “intangibles”, i.e., appearance, grammar, etc., that are

- specific to and only for African-American administrators seeking such positions. The same administrative qualities and characteristics they believe would facilitate their advancement to the next level were identified as hindering their advancement.
5. African-American administrators identified diversity, equality, and openness as institutional characteristics, culture, and climate that are necessary for advancement to executive-level positions. They would not consider seeking a position at PWIs of higher education if it lacked diversity.
 6. Job satisfaction, working with young people and finding higher education very rewarding were some of the reasons why African-American mid-level administrators remain in higher education.
 7. African-American mid-level administrators described the representation of African-American administrators in executive-level positions in higher education specifically at PWIs as “they’re just not there.” They said many have the credentials to be on the executive-level, but cannot explain why they are under-represented.
 8. Four of the African-American mid-level administrators believe there are indicators of white supremacy that influence their career decisions. For African-Americans it is the unseen, the unsaid, the behavior and the perceived characteristics, climate and culture of the institution they experience, that may lead them to decide whether the environment is conducive to their success.
 9. If African-American mid-level administrators perceive the environment as one where they would not be successful, they would not accept the position.

Limitations

1. The number of African-American administrators in the study was limited and the sample was non-random. Participants included three student affairs and two administrative affairs African-American administrators. Because the findings cannot be generalized, the conclusions were drawn with caution.
2. The research was conducted at one PWI of higher education.
3. The research was limited to African-American male administrators at one PWI of higher education.
4. The study was limited to African-American males and did not include all ethnic groups classified as Black Americans.
5. African-American administrators at HBCUs were not included in this study.

Recommendations for Future Study

1. To examine whether African-Americans are applying for executive-level positions, a quantitative study should be conducted using the affirmative action data of institutions advertising executive-level positions.
2. This study should be replicated using a larger sample and include different types of institutions of higher education to allow multiple comparisons of within-case and cross-case analysis between positions and institutions. Institutions could be PWIs and HBUCs, public and private, and large versus small.
3. Develop a quantitative survey instrument of the concepts developed in this study, establish reliability and validity, and conduct a large scale causal-comparative survey of factors influencing career decisions of African-American administrators.

4. Conduct a large scale causal-comparative survey of factors influencing career decisions across racial/ethnic groups of administrators in higher-education.
5. Conduct a qualitative study, using similar methodology as in this present study, to compare the attitude and perception between African-Americans and other Black Americans employed at PWIs of higher education.
6. Conduct a qualitative study to view the climate of PWIs regarding the attitudes of white administrators toward their African-American colleagues.
7. Conduct a quantitative study on the number of African-American administrators electing to begin their career in higher education at their alma mater compared to the number of white administrators beginning their career in higher education at their alma mater.
8. Conduct a mixed quantitative and qualitative causal-comparative study to examine the reasons African-American administrators left a former position and compare with the reasons white and other racial and ethnic administrators may have left a former position.
9. Conduct a causal-comparative study to compare the job satisfaction of Black Americans on PWIs of higher education that have a diversity plan versus those that do not have a diversity plan.

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APPENDIXES

Appendix A
Interview Schedule Questions

Appendix A Interview Schedule Questions

Interview Schedule Questions

- 1) What are the factors that led you to select a career in higher education?**
 - a) Describe the influence your family/friends had on you selecting a career in higher education.
 - b) College career center/counselor.
 - c) In what ways, did your college experience influence your career in higher education?
 - d) What are your specific individual beliefs about a career in higher education?
- 2) What are the reasons you have remained in higher education?**
 - a) Is a career in higher education what you expect?
 - b) As an individual are your expectations being fulfilled?
- 3) How would you describe career advancement opportunities in higher education?**
- 4) How would you describe your experiences as an administrator in higher education?**
- 5) At any time, were there reasons you considered to justify making a career change outside of higher education?**
 - a) If so, what were the reasons?
 - b) What specific transformation did you experience? (your thought process)
- 6) What administrative qualities or characteristics do you believe are necessary to advance to an executive-level position?**
- 7) What institutional characteristics, culture, or climate do you believe are necessary to advance to an executive-level position?**

Appendix A (Continued) **Interview Schedule Questions**

8) If you were seeking an executive-level position, which of your administrative qualities or characteristics would:

- a) facilitate advancement to the executive-level position
- b) hinder your advancement to the executive-level position

9) If you were seeking an executive-level position, which institutional characteristics, culture, or climate would:

- a) facilitate advancement to the executive-level position
- b) hinder your advancement to the executive-level position

10) What are the factors that led you to select a PWI for your current job position?

11) If you previously worked at a HBCU, what factors led you to select a PWI?

12) I previously asked you to describe your experiences as an administrator in higher education. Now I would like you to describe your experiences as an *African-American* administrator at a *PWI*?

13) How would you describe career advancement opportunities in higher education for African-American administrators at PWIs?

14) How would you describe career advancement opportunities in higher education for African-American administrators at PWIs? For specific executive-level positions?

Appendix A (Continued) Interview Schedule Questions

15) Does the institutional culture and climate of your undergraduate experience as an African-American student differ from the institutional culture and climate you experience as an African-American administrator?

- a) Yes,
- b) No, (Does not differ)
- c) Unsure
- d) Can you explain your answer as to why you think this way?

16) Do you believe that African-Americans are appropriately represented in administrative or managerial positions at PWIs of higher education?

- a) Yes,
- b) No, (under represented)
- c) Unsure
- d) Can you explain your answer as to why you think this way?

17) Do you believe African-Americans are appropriately represented in executive-level positions at PWIs of higher education?

- a) Yes,
- b) No, (under represented)
- c) Unsure
- d) Can you explain your answer as to why you think this way?

18) Is there any additional information that you would like to add to this interview?

Appendix B

**Implementation of Executive Order 12320: Strengthening
Historically Black Colleges and Universities**

Appendix B– Implementation of Executive Order 12320: Strengthening Historically Black Colleges and Universities

LIST OF HISTORICALLY BLACK COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITIES

ALABAMA

Alabama A&M University
Miles College
Alabama State University
Oakwood College
S. D. Bishop State Jr. College
Selma University
Concordia College
Stillman College
Lawson State Community College
Talladega College
Lomax-Hannon College
Tuskegee Institute

ARKANSAS

Arkansas Baptist College
Shorter College
Philander Smith College
University of Arkansas

DELAWARE

Delaware State College

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Howard University
University of the District of Columbia

FLORIDA

Bethune-Cookman College
Florida A&M University
Edward Waters College
Florida Memorial College

GEORGIA

Albany State College
Morehouse School of Medicine
Atlanta University
Clark College
Morris Brown College
Fort Valley State College

Paine College

Interdenominational Theological Center
Savannah State College
Morehouse College
Spellman College

KENTUCKY

Kentucky State University

LOUISIANA

Dillard University
Southern University in Grambling State
University New Orleans
Southern University System Southern
University
Southern University A&M College
Xavier University

MARYLAND

Bowie State College
Morgan State University
Coppin State College
University of Maryland Eastern Shore

MICHIGAN

Shaw College at Detroit

MISSISSIPPI

Alcorn State University
Natchez Junior College
Coahoma Junior College
Prentiss Normal and
Jackson State University Industrial
Institute
Mary Holmes College
Rust College
Mississippi Industrial College
Tougaloo College
Mississippi Valley State University
Utica Junior College

Appendix B (Continued)

Implementation of Executive Order 12320: Strengthening Historically Black Colleges and Universities

MISSOURI

Lincoln University

NORTH CAROLINA

Barber-Scotia College
North Carolina A&T State University
Bennett College
Elizabeth City State University
North Carolina Central University
Fayetteville State University
Johnson C. Smith University
Shaw University
Livingstone College
St. Augustine's College
Winston-Salem State University

OHIO

Central State University Wilberforce University

OKLAHOMA

Langston University

PENNSYLVANIA

Cheyney University of Pennsylvania
Lincoln University

SOUTH CAROLINA

Allen University
Morris College
Benedict College
South Carolina State College
Claflin College
Clinton Junior College
Voorhees College

TENNESSEE

Fisk University
Meharry Medical College
Knoxville College

Morristown College
Lane College
Tennessee State University
LeMoyne-Owen College

TEXAS

Bishop College
Southwestern Christian College
Huston-Tillotson College
Jarvis Christian College
Texas College
Paul Quinn College
Texas Southern University
Prairie View A&M University
Wiley College

VIRGINIA

Hampton Institute
Virginia State University
Norfolk State University
Virginia Union University
St. Paul's College

VIRGIN ISLANDS

College of the Virgin Islands

Appendix C

Lynn University's IRB Approval

Appendix D- Lynn University's IRB Approval



Lynn University

Principal Investigator: H. Richard Dozier

Project Title: **Factors influencing the career decision and the under-representation of African-American administrators at predominantly white institutions of higher education: A within-case and cross-case analysis.**

DO NOT WRITE BELOW THIS LINE: FOR IRB USE ONLY

IRB Project Number 2004-023 REQUEST FOR EXPEDITED REVIEW of Application and Research Protocol for a New Project

IRB ACTION by the IRB Chair or Another Member or Members Designed by the Chair

Expedited Review of Application and Research Protocol and Request for Expedited Review (FORM 3):

Approved ; Approved w/provision(s) _____

Complete FORM 2 (Exempt Status, including categories for exempt status) and Resubmit _____

Referred For Convened Full-Board Review _____

COMMENTS

Consent Required: No _____ Yes Not Applicable _____ Written Signed

Consent forms must bear the research protocol expiration date of 9/17/05.

Application to Continue/Renew is due:

(1) For an Expedited IRB Review, one month prior to the due date for renewal

(2) Other: _____

Other Comments: _____

Name of IRB Chair (Print) Farideh Farazmand

Signature of IRB Chair _____ Date: 09/22/04

Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects
Lynn University
3601 N. Military Trail Boca Raton, Florida 33431

Appendix D

Assistant Vice President's Script

Appendix D- Assistant Vice President's Script

Assistant Vice President's Script

I was contacted by H Richard Dozier, a PhD candidate at Lynn University in Boca Raton, Florida. He has asked me to assist him in selecting candidates for a research project he is conducting as part of the PhD requirement for the dissertation.

Mr. Dozier is not employed or associated with [name of institution]. Presently, he is the director of the Educational Talent Search program at Palm Beach Community College (PBCC) in Lake Worth, Florida. He has served in the past as a dean of student services at PBCC, the associate dean of student services at Western Connecticut State University, in Danbury, CT., and the assistant dean of student affairs/director of minority student affairs at the University of New Haven, in New Haven, CT.

The research is regarding the career decisions of African-American administrators at predominantly White institutions of higher education. Based on the information he gave me, you meet the eligibility criteria for the study. If it is alright with you I will forward your name and office telephone number to him. He will contact you to give you more information and answer any questions you have regarding the study.

May I forward your name and office number to him?

Thank you.

Appendix E
Researcher's Phone Script

Appendix E - Researcher's Phone Script

Researcher's Phone Script

Hello (greeting of the day) Mr./Dr. _____:

Your name was given to me by [name of assistant vice president]. [Name of assistant vice president] told you to expect this call from me. First, let me introduce myself. My name is Richard Dozier and I am a PhD candidate at Lynn University in Boca Raton, Florida.

As part of the PhD requirement I am conducting research for my dissertation. Currently, I am the director of the Educational Talent Search program at Palm Beach Community College (PBCC) in Lake Worth, Florida. I have served in the past as a dean of student services at PBCC, the associate dean of student services at Western Connecticut State University, in Danbury, CT., and the assistant dean of student affairs/director of minority student affairs at the University of New Haven, in New Haven, CT.

A little about the research that I am conducting; it will be a phenomenological qualitative study. The topic I am researching is the factors influencing the career decisions of African-American administrators at predominantly White institutions of higher education. The study will involve twelve participants, such as yourself, and requires gathering socio-demographic information and a one hour personal interview, preferable at a place and time of your choosing. The interview will be audio tape-recorded and will only be used for the purpose of this study.

You will not benefit directly from participating in this study; however this study will contribute to general knowledge about African-American administrators at predominantly white institutions of higher education. There is there is minimal risk involved in your participation and there is no financial remuneration for participating. The data will be kept confidential; all data will be stored electronically on "password protected" computers and that paper records and audio/video tapes be kept in a locked filing cabinet or locked desk drawer. To ensure you're confidential, when reporting the data, a fictitious name will be assigned to all participants. Do you have any questions at this time to clarify anything I've stated?

Okay, are you interested in participating in the study?

Great, I will be in the [geographic] area on _____ to _____ to conduct the interviews. According to my schedule, I have the following times available on (day of the week) at (list of times):

Which day and time do you prefer? Excellent, I shall schedule you in for (repeat day and time). Now, where would you like to meet for the interview?

Mr./Dr. _____, I sincerely appreciate your willingness to be a part of my research. If for any reason you need to contact me, you can call me on my cell phone at [phone number]. I look forward meeting with you on (repeat day, time and place).

Thank You

Appendix F

Participant Consent/Audiotape Form

Appendix F - Participant Consent/Audio-Tape Form



Lynn University

**THIS DOCUMENT SHALL ONLY BE USED TO PROVIDE AUTHORIZATION
FOR VOLUNTARY CONSENT**

Participant Consent/Audio-Tape Form

PROJECT TITLE: Factors Influencing the Career Decisions of African-American Administrators at Predominantly White Institutions of Higher Education (PWIs).

Project IRB Number: 2004-023 Lynn University 3601 N. Military Trail Boca Raton, Florida 33431

Directions for the Participant:

I H. Richard Dozier, am a doctoral student at Lynn University. I am studying Global Leadership, with a specialization in Education. Part of my education is to conduct a research study. You are being asked to participate in my research study.

Please read this carefully. This form provides you with information about the study. The Principal Investigator H. Richard Dozier will answer all of your questions. Ask questions about anything you don't understand before deciding whether or not to participate. You are free to ask questions at any time before, during, or after your participation in this study. Your participation is entirely voluntary and you can refuse to participate without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

PURPOSE OF THIS RESEARCH STUDY: The study is about factors influencing career decisions of African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education. There will be approximately 12 male African-American administrators employed at [name of institution] participating in this study.

PROCEDURES:

You will first complete a *Socio-Demographic Profile*. The *Socio-Demographic Profile* should take about 5 minutes to complete. If necessary, the researcher, H. Richard Dozier, can help you in completing the Socio-demographic Profile.

Interview

Next you will be asked to elaborate on questions that are relevant to this study and to provide insights, about your career experiences. There are open-ended, and follow up questions. The interview should take about 50 minutes to complete.

Appendix F (Continued).

Continued: Participant Consent/Audio-Tape Form Project IRB Number: 2004-023
Lynn University

The interview will be recorded on audio-tape to allow a more accurate transcription. You have the right to review all or any portion of the tape, and will receive a transcribed copy of your taped interview for accuracy. At any time, you may request that the audio-tape be destroyed.

POSSIBLE RISKS OR DISCOMFORT: This study involves minimal risk. You may find that some of the questions are sensitive in nature. In addition, participation in this study requires a minimal amount of your time and effort.

POSSIBLE BENEFITS: There may be no direct benefit to you in participating in this research. But knowledge may be gained which may help in future studies regarding African-American administrators at PWIs of higher education.

FINANCIAL CONSIDERATIONS: There is no financial compensation for your participation in this research. There are no costs to you as a result of your participation in this study.

CONFIDENTIALITY: Every effort will be made to maintain your confidentiality. Your identity in this study will be treated as confidential. Only the researcher, H. Richard Dozier, will know who you are. During the Interview you will be given a pseudo name. Data will be coded with a fictitious name.

All the data gathered during this study, which were previously described, will be kept strictly confidential. Data will be stored in locked files and destroyed at the end of the research. All information will be held in strict confidence and may not be disclosed unless required by law or regulation.

Interview data including audio recordings, will be coded so that there is no personally identifying information. They will be kept in a secure place (e.g., a locked file cabinet in the investigator's office). They will be heard only for research purposes by the investigator, H. Richard Dozier, and his faculty advisor, Dr. Joan Scialli. They will be transcribed and coded. The duration of this study will be from August 5, 2004, to December 4, 2005. At the end of end of the study, all audio-tapes will be destroyed in a responsible manner.

The results of data analyses will be presented, in an aggregate form. The results of this study may be published in a dissertation, scientific journals or presented at professional meetings. In addition, your individual privacy will be maintained in all publications or presentations resulting from this study.

RIGHT TO WITHDRAW: You are free to choose whether or not to participate in this study. There will be no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled if you choose not to participate.

CONTACTS FOR QUESTIONS/ACCESS TO CONSENT FORM: Any further questions you have about this study or your participation in it, either now or any time in the future,

Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects

Lynn University

3601 N. Military Trail Boca Raton, Florida 33431

Continued: Participant Consent/Audio-Tape Form Project IRB Number: 2004-023
Lynn University

will be answered by H. Richard Dozier (Principal Investigator) who may be reached at: ([REDACTED] and Dr. Joan Scialli, faculty advisor who may be reached at: [REDACTED] [REDACTED]. For any questions regarding your rights as a research subject, you may call Dr. Farideh Farazmand, Chair of the Lynn University Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects, at [REDACTED]. If any problems arise as a result of your participation in this study, please call the Principal Investigator (H. Richard Dozier) and the faculty advisor (Dr. Joan Scialli) immediately.

A copy of this consent form will be given to you.

AUTHORIZATION FOR VOLUNTARY CONSENT:

I have read and understand this consent form. I have been given the opportunity to ask questions, and all my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I have been assured that any future questions that may arise will be answered. I understand that all aspects of this project will be carried out in the strictest of confidence, and in a manner in which my rights as a human subject are protected. I have been informed of the risks and benefits. I have been informed in advance as to what my task(s) will be and what procedures will be followed.

I voluntarily choose to participate. I know that I can withdraw this consent to participate at any time without penalty or prejudice. I understand that by signing this form I have not waived any of my legal rights. I further understand that nothing in this consent form is intended to replace any applicable Federal, state, or local laws. I understand that I will receive a copy of this form.

Participant's printed name

Participant's signature

Date

I consent to be audio taped:

Participant's signature

Date

Appendix F (Continued).

Continued: Participant Consent/Audio-Tape Form Project IRB Number: 2004-023
Lynn University

INVESTIGATOR'S AFFIDAVIT: I have carefully explained to the subject the nature of the above project. I hereby certify that to the best of my knowledge the person who is signing this consent form understands clearly the nature, demands, benefits, and risks

involved in his/her participation and his/her signature is legally valid. A medical problem or language or educational barrier has not precluded this understanding.

Date of IRB Approval: 09/17/04

valid one year from date
of approval. F.F.

Appendix G
Socio-Demographic Profile

Appendix G Socio-Demographic Profile

Socio Demographic Profile

Instructions: Please check the appropriate box for your response

Section A - PERSONAL INFORMATION

Age

35 - 40 41 - 45 46 - 50 51 - 55 56 - 60

Marital status

Single/Never Married Married Separated Divorced Widowed

Immediate family size/Number of Children

1 - 2 3 - 4 5 - 6 7 or more

Age of minor children

1 - 5 6 - 10 11 - 14 15 - 18

Annual Income

\$25 - \$34,999 \$35 - \$44,999 \$45 - \$54,999 Over \$55,000

Annual Household Income

\$45 - \$54,999 \$55 - \$64,999 \$65 - \$74,999 Over \$75,000

Section B - EDUCATION INFORMATION

Highest degree obtained

Master PhD EdD Professional Other

Area of study

Education Business Other _____

Year of completion _____

Type of institution attended

(a) Historically Black College/University Predominately White College/University
(b) Public College/University Private College/University

Masters degree: type of institution attended (*Answer only if you have terminal degree*)

(a) Historically Black College/University Predominately White College/University
(b) Public College/University Private College/University

Appendix G(Continued) **Socio-Demographic Profile**

Area of study/Major

Education Business Other _____

Year of completion _____

Undergraduate: type of institution attended

(a) Historically Black College/University Predominately White College/University

(b) Public College/University Private College/University

Area of study/Major

Education Business Other _____

Year of completion _____

Attended a community college

Yes No

Did you entered college directly after graduating from high school

Yes No

Year entered college from high school _____

SPOUSE INFORMATION (If not married skip to Section C)

Highest degree obtained

Bachelor Master PhD EdD Professional

Area of study

Education Business Other _____

Year of completion _____

Type of institution attended

(a) Historically Black College/University Predominately White College/University

(b) Public College/University Private College/University

Undergraduate: type of institution attended

(a) Historically Black College/University Predominately White College/University

(b) Public College/University Private College/University

Area of study/Major

Education Business Other _____

Section C - WORK EXPERIENCE

Years of experience in higher education

10 11 - 12 13 - 15 16 - 18 19 - 20

Number of years in current institution

0 - 2 3 - 5 6 - 8 8 - 10
 11 - 12 13 - 15 16 - 18 19 - 20

Number of years in current position

0 - 2 3 - 5 6 - 8 8 - 10
 11 - 12 13 - 15 16 - 18 19 - 20

Section D - PARENT/FAMILY HISTORY

Parent's Marital status (*At the time you entered high school*)

Father

Single/Never Married Married Separated Divorced Widowed

Mother

Single/Never Married Married Separated Divorced Widowed

Who did you live with?

Mother Father Grandparent Relative Foster care

Mother's Education

High school College Unknown

(*If she attended college, type of college and degree obtained*)

(a) Historically Black College/University Predominately White College/University
 Community College

(b) Public College/University Private College/University

Highest Degree Obtained

High School Associate Bachelor **Master** PhD
 EdD Professional Other (specify) _____

Mother's Occupation

Domestic Labor Education Professional Other

Appendix G (Continued) **Socio-Demographic Profile**

Father's Education

High school College Unknown

(If he attended college, type of college and degree obtained)

(a) Historically Black College/University Predominately White College/University
 Community College

(b) Public College/University Private College/University

Highest Degree Obtained

High School Associate Bachelor Master PhD

EdD Professional Other (specify) _____

Father's Occupation

Domestic Labor Education Professional Other

Parental Income (combined)

\$12 -\$14,999 \$15 -\$24,999 \$25 -\$34,999 Over \$35,000

Family Resident (Home in which you grew up)

(a) House Apartment

(b) Owned Rented Subsidized

Section F - FAMILY INFORMATION

Number of Siblings

1 - 2 3 - 4 5 - 6 7 or more

Your' Position in Family

Oldest Middle Youngest Other (specify) _____

Number of Siblings Entering College

1 - 2 3 - 4 5 - 6 7 or more

Number of Siblings Completing College

1 - 2 3 - 4 5 - 6 7 or more

Appendix G (Continued) **Socio-Demographic Profile**

Section G - GEOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Geographical Area Raised

Urban Suburban Rural Other (specify) _____

Geographical Location of Birth

City _____ State _____ Other (specify) _____

Who Influenced You to Attend College? (Check all that apply)

Mother Father Sister Brother Grandmother
 Grandfather Friend Spouse High school teacher
 High school coach College recruiter Other (specify) _____

Who Influenced You MOST to Attend College? (Check all that apply)

Mother Father Sister Brother Grandmother
 Grandfather Friend Spouse High school teacher
 High school coach College recruiter Other (specify) _____

How Did You Learn about the Undergraduate Institution You Attended? (Check all that apply)

Mother Father Sister Brother Grandmother
 Grandfather Friend Spouse High school teacher
 High school coach College recruiter Other (specify) _____

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