Factors affecting success of African-American male graduate students: a grounded theory approach

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Factors affecting success of African-American male graduate students: A grounded theory approach

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Iowa State University, 1992
Factors affecting success of African-American male graduate students: A grounded theory approach

by

Virginia Cortez Henderson

A Dissertation Submitted to the
Graduate Faculty in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department: Professional Studies in Education
Major: Education

Approved:

Signature was redacted for privacy.

In Charge of Major Work

Signature was redacted for privacy.

For the Major Department

Signature was redacted for privacy.

For the Education Major

Signature was redacted for privacy.

For the Graduate College

Iowa State University
Ames, Iowa

1992

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CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

There is a crisis among African-American males in the United States (Simms, 1991). Compared to males of other ethnic groups, African-American males have higher unemployment rates, lower labor force participation rates, and lower high school graduate and college enrollment rates. African-American men rank first in the numbers of men incarcerated and in homicide. African-American male youth earnings have plunged over the past 15 years. For example, in 1987, 33 percent of African-American male high school dropouts between the ages of 20 and 29 had no reported earnings (Simms, 1991). Because of these data and other factors, African-American males are being described as an "endangered species" (Gibbs, 1984) or a "troubled and troublesome group" (Simms, 1991).

The United States has yet to recognize that its future economy and progress are inextricably tied to the fate of young African-American males (Gibbs, 1988). Gibbs stated:

They will drain more and more of the resources, if they do not contribute to the economy. They will oversee urban decay and urban chaos, if they cannot participate in the revitalization of the cities. The United States will enter into the 21st century with more serious social, political and economic problems if they are locked out of the technological and scientific professions. This will place the nation at an even greater competitive disadvantage and threaten its position as the leader in the Western World. (p. 28)

African-American students, and particularly African-American males, are experiencing a difficult time on campuses throughout the country (Fleming, 1975). African-American students are plagued by financial problems, difficulties in studies, personal-social concerns, and racial identity problems (Stikes, 1984). According to Stikes (1984), African-
American students are experiencing stress in adapting to and reshaping the social and physical environment and are having to work through these problems in a process that did not originally take them into account (Stikes, 1984).

Relatively few African-American and Hispanic students enter graduate school, when compared to white student enrollments. Even fewer succeed in obtaining a doctoral degree (Mingle, 1987). In 1985, African-Americans represented more than 12 percent of the U.S. population and Hispanics more than 7 percent, but only 4.7 percent and 2.8 percent, respectively, of those students who earned doctorates (Nettles & Mow, 1990).

The problem is even more severe for African-American male students. According to the American Council on Education (1986), enrollment of African-American men in the nation’s colleges dropped by 34,000 between 1976 and 1986, the largest decline for any racial or ethnic group. The percentage of African-American men (ages 18 to 24) in college dropped from 35.4 percent in 1976 to 27.8 percent in 1987 despite an increase in the number of African-American high school graduates with college preparatory courses (Arbeiter, 1986). There are 65 African-American male high school graduates for every 100 African-American female high school graduates. There are 77 African-American male college graduates for every 100 African-American female college graduates. This pattern is further exacerbated by the fact that 40 percent of all African-American males are functionally illiterate (National Research Council, 1989).

Gibbs (1988) stated that the decline in the number of African-American males attending institutions of higher education seriously
threatens our economic productivity as a nation and will be very costly in material and human terms to society as a whole. Gibbs (1984) stated in another document that "the downward spiral of young African-American males since 1960 can be accounted for in four major areas: historical, sociocultural, economic, and political" (p. 17). She concluded from her research that the conditions of young African-American males are due to a "complex constellation of mutually reinforcing factors" (p. xiii). This conclusion is illustrated by the following summary:

The reality is that relative to whites, many young black males face serious cumulative problems all of their lives. They are likely to be born to unwed teenage mothers who themselves have limited education and even more limited life choices. The children of teenage mothers are more likely to be underweight and suffer from inadequate nutrition and health care; consequently they are more likely to start life with serious disadvantages. Unstable family lives and poor health and nutrition cause them to have very restricted learning opportunities as infants and young children. They are therefore more likely to be stigmatized or placed in classes for the "educable mentally retarded"; to have learning problems in school; to fall increasingly behind their age group in achieving basic educational competencies; to drop out of school; to get involved with drugs, crime, and the criminal justice system; and to be convicted and incarcerated in prison. These failures are a result of the unappreciation of African American males' plight by policymakers, the media, and even scholars who should know better to analyze problems such as dropping out of school, teenage pregnancy, high crime rates, unemployment or unemployability as unitary problems with single solutions such as a "better education" or a "willingness to work." (p. xiii)

Gibbs (1988) concluded that the college enrollment rates of African-American students, as a percentage of high school graduates, has declined since 1978. Her data showed that the college-going rate of 16- to 24-year-old African-American females rose from 29.2 percent to 32.3 percent between 1980 and 1988, while African-American males slipped from 27
percent to 26.2 percent. Of the 25- to 34-year-old African-American females, the percentage in college rose from 8.7 percent in 1980 to 10.5 percent eight years later; enrollment for their African-American male counterparts dropped from 10.8 percent to 7.3 percent over the same period (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1987).

In 1980, over a fifth of the African-American males aged 12 to 17 were unable to read at the fourth grade level and over a fifth of the African-American 18- to 21-year-old males had not graduated from, or were not enrolled in, high school (Clewell, 1987). Moreover, African-American college enrollment in four-year institutions has declined since 1980, and the gap between the proportion of African-American and white high school graduates going to college had narrowed to 3.6 percent in 1975, but widened to 7.9 percent in 1983.

As colleges and universities continue to assist all students in their intellectual and personal development, the needs of African-American male students will demand greater attention. Therefore, the decline in the proportion of African-American males attending institutions of higher education implies that decisions made in the next decade will have a significant impact on the composition of our student population.

As African-American males become increasingly "invisible" on American college campuses, some scholars question whether academia is sensitive to what the decline could mean for African-Americans (Wiley, 1990). Wiley (1990) also stated: "The disparate African-American male-to-female ratio has been overlooked by many institutions, whose
preoccupation in recent years has been the larger issue of attracting both sexes to their campuses" (p. 8). He concluded that colleges and universities should be doing much more to target African-American males. Fleming (1984) stated that African-American males are the hardest hit during their college years. Her research concluded there were several psychosocial factors affecting this trend. At the immediate level, African-American male students attending predominantly white institutions must matriculate in a hostile atmosphere which arouses defensive reactions that interfere with intellectual performance. The second level of factors she stated points to the male-to-male interactions as being the most laden with hostility. The racial differences tend to intensify the exclusion of African-American males in a wide range of activities and therefore restrict small group activities. The third level of factors suggested that African-American males fall into the category of subdominant males by virtue of their low visibility and small number. Fleming concluded that the stressful environment of a white college tends "to trigger interpersonal vulnerabilities and initiates a depressive withdrawal from the situation" (p. 143), particularly by African-American males.

Data from the literature indicate that nearly two-thirds of African-American children living in female-headed families are socioeconomically poor (Anderson, 1984; Astin, 1982; Carter & Wilson, 1991; Trescott, 1990), therefore lacking African-American male role models. The solution, many African-American social scientists argue, lies partially within the African-American community. There are several crucial "turning points" in African-American male children's lives, regardless of their socioeconomic
background. The first period is between the ages of eight and nine, when there appears to be a change in the cognitive process (Hale-Benson, 1986). This seems to lead to the so-called "fourth grade" syndrome and is related to increased achievement and disciplinary problems (Kunjufu, 1985). The second period is early adolescence, when individuals assert their independence and often engage in high-risk behavior (Gibbs, 1984).

The focus of this study, however, is specifically related to African-American males who have been successful in surviving the undergraduate experience and engaging the graduate experience. The unique characteristics of African-American males who are graduate students suggest the development of a theory from factors that contribute to their completion of undergraduate school is warranted. This theory may prove useful to the recruitment and retention of these individuals into graduate school.

Statement of the Problem

Evidence is clear that there is a precipitous drop in enrollment rates of African-American male students in undergraduate and graduate schools (Gibbs, 1984; Clewell, 1987; Fleming, 1984; Carter & Wilson, 1991). The changing demographics indicate that there will be larger numbers of minority student populations available to enter higher education (Hodgkinson, 1988; Carter & Wilson, 1991). Efforts must be undertaken to ascertain thoroughly the factors that improve successful completion of undergraduate education for African-American males and how these factors play a role in their graduate education.
This study will identify the African-American male graduates attending Iowa State University during the spring semester of 1991. The semi-structured interview will discuss factors affecting their successful completion of undergraduate education. The "grounded theory" will develop strategies of how these factors affect their entry into and their success in their current graduate programs. In order to develop these factors and how they impact their successful entry into graduate school, the following research questions were investigated.

Research Questions

1. What were the personal characteristic profiles of the African-American male graduate students attending Iowa State University?
2. How did the undergraduate experience play a role in preparing him for graduate school?
3. What were his attitudes towards and perceptions of the institutional environment?
4. What can the institutions learn from these attitudes and perceptions that can help increase retention and improve recruitment of African-American male students?

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research involved four steps: (1) to create a profile of the African-American male graduate students attending a land-grant, predominantly white institution; (2) to identify attitudes and perceptions that contribute to African-American males' successful completion of undergraduate education and their entrance into graduate
school; (3) to develop recommendations that will be useful in creating constructive strategies and programs which will improve the status of African-American males in higher education; and (4) to develop a "grounded theory" of strategies to create an environment conducive for their successful completion of their current graduate program.

The purpose of a grounded theory in this context is to provide a means by which information on attitudes and behaviors could be extracted from semi-structured interviews. Grounded theory allows collaboration between researcher and participant. This process is not a closed process but open for input from participants. A cooperative effort is established; therefore, the participant is not under observation but can become an active part of the research (Askew, 1983).

The primary concepts were formulated from a review of selected literature on minority students' participation in general, and African-American male students in particular. Two African-American scholars, Dr. Michael Nettles, Vice President of Assessment at the University of Tennessee, and Dr. Reginald Wilson, Research Scholar for the American Council on Education in Washington, D.C., were consulted to review the concepts developed from the review of literature. Their recommendations were included in the selection of the categories. The two preliminary theoretical categories are:

a. Effects of undergraduate preparation on his ability to succeed in graduate education.

b. Effects of undergraduate institutional type, environment, and culture at predominantly white institutions (PWIs) and
historically black colleges (HBCs) on their academic performance and achievement.

From the aforementioned preliminary categories, eight categories were used in the development of a grounded theory of factors contributing to the success of African-American male graduate students. These eight categories are:

a. Personal characteristic profiles.
b. Graduate assistantship experiences (personal and professional).
c. Classroom and teacher expectations of student achievement and experiences with the current graduate program.
d. Financial aid resources.
e. Undergraduate academic preparation and performance.
f. The impact of parental support, religion, mentors, and others during undergraduate and graduate education.
g. Campus environment and institutional climate during graduate education.
h. Problems, advantages, and disadvantages of attending a predominantly white institution.

A complex description of the constructs and procedures used to develop a grounded theory are presented in Chapter III.

Definitions

African-American Male—any male born in North America whose ancestry can be traced to Africa.
Retention—the rate of graduation for a cohort of students within a specified time (Nettles & Mow, 1990).

Progression rate—time required for graduation and time spent earning a degree (Nettles & Mow, 1990).

Student Background Characteristics—defined in terms of entry into and achievement in college, high school preparation, GPA, and admission test scores, as well as family background characteristics (Nettles & Mow, 1990).

Academic preparation—describes individual attainment on such variables as high school academic program, high school grades, and SAT scores (Nettles & Mow, 1990).

Tracking—the process of labeling, grouping, and classifying students according to their abilities and their capacity for learning (Patton, 1981, p. 207).

Data Gathering Methodology

This research study was conducted in four parts: (a) analysis of the literature on the participation of the African-American male in elementary, secondary, high school, and post-secondary education; (b) the development and utilization of a semi-structured interview instrument; (c) the development of a grounded theory through the analysis of interviews; and (d) the development of a grounded theory based on the results from interview data related to the perceptions and attitudes of African-American male graduate students attending a land grant, predominantly white institution of higher education.
The development of a grounded theory requires the use of the constant comparative method, as outlined by Glaser and Strauss (1967). Constant comparative methodology involves four interdependent stages, which are based upon identification, categorization, and comparison of data incidents. Conrad (1975) outlined the stages as follows: (a) comparing incidents applicable to each category; (b) integrating categories and their properties; (c) delimiting the theory; and (d) writing the theory. He found the constant comparison method a "multi-faceted approach to research designed to maximize flexibility and aid the creative generation of theory" (Conrad, 1975, p. 241). The constant comparative method of theory development is an inductive research method rather than a deductive method (Kirkland, 1990). Induction is the "use of observed facts to generate a theory consistent with the facts" (Selltiz et al., 1976, p. 6). Borg and Gall (1983) defined deductive research as the development of a model or simulation that permits the testing of a hypothesis examining the consequences of the theory. The theory is developed from direct contact with data; therefore, it fits the data better than deductively derived theories that were imposed from "a priori" premise. The data are alive and changing constantly. The theory evolves from these data and is an offspring of it. It is not a beginning but an outcome of the research data that have been collected.

The interview technique was used to gather data needed for grounded theory development. Sources of data collected with this qualitative method were secured from documentary sources and semi-structured interviews. Other forms of data collection were observations, documents,
census reports, professional association fact books and reports, and other information pools. Data were also collected from searches of Educational Research Information Center (ERIC) databases and dissertations or sources that produced selected historical and sociological studies. From these sources of information, common characteristics, attitudes, and perceptions were extracted from the data observed and recorded, and were formulated into the theoretical categories, thus allowing a "grounded theory" to emerge from the results of the data collection and data analysis.

The semi-structured interviews were conducted with African-American male graduate students who attended school at Iowa State University the Spring 1991 semester. There were 40 African-American male graduate students identified by the Registrar and Minority Student Affairs Office. Of the 40 enrolled, 22 were interviewed for this research project. The remaining 18 were unavailable for interviewing due to demographic and job locations.

Assumptions

To answer the proposed questions, this study was based upon the assumptions that:

1. The interview instrument, data collection procedures, and interpretation utilized were appropriate.

2. The data collected on the personal and professional experiences of the subjects were an accurate reflection of change over time.

3. Reliability was achieved through saturation of theoretical categories of the study.
4. The selected sample provides an ample qualitative data base.

5. Data coding and constant comparison of data led to a theory grounded in the data.

Delimitations of the Study

1. The data analysis for this study was limited to the African-American male graduate students attending Iowa State University for the academic year 1990-1991.

2. The participants were asked to respond to specific questions regarding characteristics, attitudes, and perceptions. Their responses were based on personal experiences.

Significance of the Study

This study explains, through the presentation of grounded theory, elements of the phenomena surrounding African-American males' success as undergraduates and their experiences in graduate school. The study provides a substantive theory with regard to African-American males post-secondary educational experiences using qualitative methods, including descriptive and historical methodologies. Further, this study explains relationships between events and behaviors that influence African-American male graduate students while attending graduate school. Improved understanding of this relationship may contribute to an increase in enrollment and an increase in graduation rates of African-American males attending graduate school. It may also have implications for institutional policy regarding equity of student opportunity and access to higher education.
CHAPTER II. REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE

This review of selected literature is presented in four general sections, with accompanying subsections. The first section reviews selected literature on African-American and other ethnic minority students' participation in higher education. The second section reviews literature relevant to the sociopolitical and economic barriers which affect the attrition rates of African-American students. Included in section two is a discussion of social, economic, and political conditions encountered by young African-American children who are confronting the magnitude of the debilitating effects of poverty. The enormous impact of poverty on the African-American child's health, education, and general welfare is detailed. These conditions are presented to illustrate the responsibility of education to improve the success in school of poor African-American children. The third section presents the role of the public education system to meet the educational aspirations of young African-American males. Finally, the fourth section concludes with programs designed to increase the participation rate of African-American males in educational programs.

Minority Students' Participation in Higher Education: Historical Overview

Over the past few years, significant concern has arisen regarding the increased attrition rates of African-Americans from post-secondary education, and the corollary problems of African-American student retention in institutions of higher education (Wilson & Justiz, 1988; Taylor, 1986; Cox, 1983). According to Lang and Ford (1988), this debate
has centered on several critical factors which have affected these problems: (1) the preparedness of African-American students for matriculation in higher education; (2) the sociopolitical and economic factors that affect African-American students' performance and success in college; (3) the institutional obstacles and benefits to African-American student failure or success; and (4) the intrinsic social and economic problems of African-American students. The aforementioned issues are not all-encompassing, as they do not tap all the factors that affect African-American students' retention and attrition. However, they certainly are among the most pertinent and summarize the crux of intelligent debate on these problems.

How serious is the problem of African-American student attrition in post-secondary, graduate, and professional schools? The progress of African-Americans in attaining equitable status in admission and enrolling in institutions of higher learning has been uneven, and has slowed considerably during the past five years (Mingle, 1987). Morton (1982) concluded that minority students, particularly African-American students, generally concentrated on: (1) the admission of more African-American students; (2) increased financial support; (3) more African-American faculty; (4) more aggressive involvement by the university in righting the social wrongs that disadvantaged minorities encounter; and (5) the incorporation of African-American and other ethnic studies in the curricula.

Evans (1985) listed five explanations for declining enrollment of African-American students: (1) federal aid cutbacks and changes;
(2) cutbacks in support services; (3) affirmative action; (4) colleges' efforts to tighten standards; and (5) African-American students' dropout rates. Clearly, these five explanations illustrate the various factors influencing the declining enrollment of African-American students in higher education.

Many educators, political leaders, and civil rights advocates have expressed alarm at the declining percentage of African-American high school graduates who pursue four-year college degrees. Although the numbers of African-Americans obtaining high school diplomas have increased significantly in the past few years, the numbers of African-American high school graduates, ages 18 to 25 years old, who enroll in college fell from 33.5 percent in 1976 to 26.1 percent in 1985 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1987). In fact, nearly 40,000 fewer African-Americans were enrolled in colleges in 1984 than in 1976, a period during which the enrollments of other minorities increased significantly (Mingle, 1987). The enrollment projections submitted by the Southern Regional Educational Board stated that fewer African-American students would be enrolled in college in 1990 if the present trends continued (Marks, 1986). In light of the present enrollment decline, this prediction has been shown to have been valid.

Nettles and Mow (1990) contend that, for every 100 students attending American colleges and universities, approximately 78 are white, nine are African-American, six are Hispanic, four are Asian-American, one is American Indian, and two are foreign nationals. Hodgkinson (1988) concluded that an aging white population, increasing numbers of
minorities, and poverty pointed to crucial new responsibilities for education.

The report, One-Third of a Nation, noted the following dimensions of minority participation in higher education (Commission on Minority Participation, 1988):

---Blacks made up 9 percent of all undergraduate students in 1984-85, and received 8 percent of the associate degrees and 6 percent of the baccalaureate degrees conferred during 1984-85.

---Hispanics made up 4 percent of enrollees, but received only 3 percent of the baccalaureate degrees.

---Between 1976 and 1985, the number of African-Americans earning master's degrees declined by 32 percent.

---Hispanics and Native American Indians earned, respectively, 2.4 percent and 0.4 percent of the master's degrees between 1976-1985. (p. 12)

Clearly, there are serious problems in the recruitment, enrollment, and retention of African-Americans and other ethnic groups in higher education in this country. The causes of the decline in college enrollment among African-Americans are not easily pinpointed. Stikes (1984) considered four types of explanations:

1. shortcomings of the available data;

2. shifts in the economic status of African-Americans relative to other groups;

3. changing structure of financial aid; and

4. shifts in the outcomes of competition among schools, businesses, and the military for college-age African-American youth.

A fifth possibility, advanced in two reports for the U.S. Department of Education (Chaikind, 1987; Myers, 1987), asserted that differences in African-American and white college attendance rates resulted from
differences in achievement. Because the Census Bureau data used in most reports on African-American college attendance typically do not distinguish between part-time and full-time college attendance or between enrollment at 2- and 4-year institutions, it is possible that the observed decline could be attributed to decreases in numbers attending on a part-time basis or at 2-year institutions (Jaynes & Williams, 1989). If this is the case, then the overall trend would overstate the decline in African-American enrollment at 4-year institutions. Stikes (1984) compared data on attendance rates among minorities for 1980 and 1982. He found the largest decline in total African-American enrollment occurred at 4-year institutions, while there was an increase in African-American enrollment at 2-year institutions.

Not only were African-American students more likely than white students to withdraw from college, but they also engaged in proportionately more part-time and interrupted schooling, resulting in significantly lower four-year completion rates (Allen, 1986; Cross & Astin, 1981; McPartland, 1978; Ramist, 1981; Thomas, 1980). On the other hand, some research has shown that the magnitude of the racial difference in college completion rates decreased somewhat, if completion subsequent to the prescribed four years is taken into account (Thomas, 1981). Thus, not only do proportionately fewer African-Americans persist until graduation, but those who graduate generally took longer to complete their degrees (Institute for the Study of Educational Policy, 1976; McPartland, 1978; Thomas, 1981).
According to the Ninth Annual Status Report on Minorities in Higher Education, Hispanics and African-Americans made little progress in the latter half of the 1980s toward closing the gap between their rate of college participation and that of whites (Carter & Wilson, 1991). Clewell (1987) stated that minority populations—particularly African-Americans and Hispanics—were greatly underrepresented in graduate and professional schools. This was attributed to high attrition rates of minorities at the high school and undergraduate levels of the educational pipeline. The high school dropout rate for African-Americans is 28 percent, and that of Puerto Ricans and Chicanos is 45 percent, whereas that of whites is about 17 percent (Clewell, 1987). At the post-secondary level, researchers suggested that, although 10 to 40 percent of all students who enter college will drop out before degree completion, the proportion for minorities is substantially higher, particularly in predominantly white schools (Astin, 1975; 1982; Astin & Burciaga, 1982; Cross & Astin, 1981). This disparity persists at the graduate level, where the dropout rate is 45 percent for African-Americans, 52 percent for Chicanos and Puerto Ricans, and 41 percent for whites (Commission on the Higher Education of Minorities, 1982).

The aforementioned factors contribute to the disparity in minority participation in higher education programs. This crisis has been labeled appropriately by the academic community as the problem of "Black Student Retention in Higher Education" (Lang & Ford, 1988, p. 3). Thus, as the gap widens between the proportions of minorities and nonminorities receiving college, graduate and professional degrees, it is logical that
the gap between the access to opportunities and career success between the two groups will also widen (Nettles & Mow, 1990; Allen, 1988; Olion, 1983; Hughes, 1987).

Even though the ethnic composition of minority population is not equitable among different ethnic groups, common issues exist regarding their (1) social and economic characteristics, (2) levels of adjustment, and (3) academic success rates while attending college. A further examination of these issues is presented in the next section.

African-American Students on White Campuses

Over the past thirty years, profound changes have occurred in African-American student patterns of college attendance in the United States (Ballard, 1973; Billingsley, 1981). Until 1950, more than 75 percent of African-American college students enrolled in historically black institutions; by 1973, that percentage had dropped to roughly 25 percent (Anderson, 1984). An estimated 57 percent of all African-American baccalaureates for the 1978-79 school year were granted from predominantly white colleges and universities (Deskins, 1983). As of 1982, three-fourths of all African-American college students were still in predominantly white institutions (National Center for Education Statistics, 1982).

Studies of African-American students attending predominantly white post-secondary institutions commonly reported three areas of difficulty for African-American students. These areas are: (1) their social and economic characteristics; (2) their levels of adjustment; and (3) their academic success/attrition rates (Allen, 1985; Blackwell, 1982; Fleming,
1984; Webster, Sedlacek, & Miyares, 1979; Nettles et al., 1985). These areas are not all-inclusive; however, African-American students on white campuses are severely disadvantaged compared to white students, in terms of persistence rates, academic achievement levels, enrollment in advanced degree programs, and overall psychosocial adjustments (Astin, 1982; DiCesare, Sedlacek, & Brooks, 1984; Thomas, 1981; 1985; Smith & Allen, 1984; Hall, Mayes & Allen, 1984; Astin, 1982; Allen, 1985; 1986; Fleming, 1984).

In comparison, African-American students on historically black campuses are disadvantaged compared to African-American and white students on white campuses in terms of family socioeconomic status, high school academic records, caliber of university instructional faculty and facilities, academic specializations selected, and enrollment (Morris, 1979; Astin & Cross, 1981; Fleming, 1984; Williams, 1981; Blackwell, 1982; Miller, 1981; Haynes, 1981; Thomas, 1984; Pearson & Pearson, 1985).

Yet, despite these social and economic disadvantages, African-American college students have the same or higher aspirations than their white counterparts, even though they attain these aspirations less often than do white students (Allen, 1985; 1986; Bayer, 1972; Gurin & Epps, 1975). Lower educational attainment is pronounced for African-American students in general, and for African-American women in particular (Allen, 1986; Hall, Mays, & Allen, 1984; Smith & Allen, 1984; Gurin & Epps, 1975). Regardless of the economic disadvantages African-American students encounter on predominantly white campuses, they are confronted with psychological and social adjustment problems.
All students must adjust to college (Webster, Seldacek, & Miyares, 1979), but African-American students face additional problems. Many must create their own social and cultural networks, given their exclusion (self- and/or other-imposed) from the wider university community. Of all problems faced by African-American students on white campuses, those arising from isolation, alienation, and lack of support seem to be most serious (Allen, 1985; 1986; Smith & Allen, 1984; Rosser, 1972).

African-American students’ academic performance is lower than that of their white peers. Studies related to African-American students’ self-concept appeared more ambiguous in their findings. Roseberg and Simmons (1971), Weinberg (1970), and Hirsch and Costello (1970) all pointed to the negative self-concepts and low aspirations of African-American children. However, Jacobs (1974) and Massey (1971) found that the self-concepts of African-Americans were equal to or higher than those of whites. In a more recent study by Hughes (1987), African-American students’ self-confidence and intellectual ability were the same as for their white counterparts. Their academic difficulties were often compounded by the absence of remedial/tutorial programs and information exchange with whites (i.e., faculty and students) (Hall, Mays, & Allen, 1984). Despite the initial difficulties most African-American students experience, many make the required adjustments and are academically successful in predominantly white institutions (Allen, 1986; Ballard, 1973; Peterson et al., 1978).

Much research is needed to understand African-American students’ adjustment to the college environment. The most appropriate approaches include: (a) the sociopolitical, in which the researcher identifies
external societal variables impinging on students’ progress (Evans, 1985; Lee, Rotemund, & Bertschman, 1985; Marks, 1986; Proctor, 1985); (b) the interpersonal, in which the researcher examines interactive social factors among campus individuals and groups; (c) the campus ecological model (Auelapp & Delworth, 1976; Helsabeck, 1980; Moos, 1979; Pervin, 1967; Stern, 1970), in which one identifies elements in the campus environment affecting African-American students’ adjustment; and (d) the intrapsychic dimension, in which one focuses on the inner experience of the individual in the campus milieu. All of these factors purport that African-American students do encounter significant adjustment problems while attending both predominantly black and predominantly white campuses (Hughes, 1987).

Morton (1982) concluded that institutional developments regarding minority student retention efforts were more likely to succeed when the efforts (a) are planned and supported from the top, (b) are goal-focused, and (c) promote the self-interests of all groups found at the institution.

Morton (1982) described some essential elements affecting higher education’s response to the needs of minority students attending predominantly white universities. He examined retention problems as a source of institutional development. The research addressed the following areas: (a) the leadership necessary to facilitate progress; (b) the issue of cooperative problem solving; (c) the necessity for institutional commitment; and (d) the process of program evaluation. He concluded that the responsibility of leadership is essential for change to occur. The role of the president, his/her staff, and minority-oriented program professionals is to increase the level of understanding of the problem,
generate and focus the energies of all groups towards its solutions, and facilitate the development of skills and programs to resolve the problems associated with institutional racism.

Christensen and Sedelacek (1974) found a high correlation of the academic success of African-American and other minority students with teacher expectations and teacher behaviors. Their research revealed the following: (1) teachers do form different expectations for different students; (2) the expectations influence the instructional interactions between students and teachers; and (3) student achievement gains are correlated with teachers' expectations.

Kuykendall (1989) outlined instructional strategies to assist professionals involved with African-American students. These strategies concentrated on areas of student identity and include: (1) teaching students to persist in their learning; (2) understanding cultural diversity and its importance in the classroom; (3) helping African-American students to build positive academic self-concept; and (4) incorporating learning-style differences into curriculum and instruction. This research offered helpful hints and examples of areas pertinent to student achievement and identity-related issues.

African-American Students on Black Campuses

Research on African-American students attending historically black colleges is organized into the topics of student background and academic skill, student academic development, and student psychosocial development (Allen, 1988). This organization grows naturally from the special mission of black colleges, whereby they pride themselves on their ability to take
less prepared African-American students as they are, correct their academic deficiencies, and graduate them so that they are equipped to compete successfully for jobs or for graduate/professional school placements in the wider society (Miller, 1981; Morris, 1980). Historically, black colleges have enrolled students who might not otherwise be able to attend college because of financial or academic barriers (Miller, 1981; Morris, 1979; Thomas, McPartland, & Gottfredson, 1981; Wilson & Justiz, 1988). African-American students on black campuses typically have lower standardized test scores and weaker high school backgrounds than do African-American students on white campuses (Astin & Cross, 1981).

Studies on the economic status of African-American students' family background illustrate the economic hardships encountered by African-American parents desiring to send their children to institutions of higher education. The parents of African-American students were typically urban, had fewer years of education, earned less, and worked at lower status jobs than did the parents of white students (Bayer, 1972; Blackwell, 1982; Boyd, 1974). Edelman (1987) asserted that the African-American child's father was 70 percent more likely to be unemployed than was a white child's father and, when employed, the African-American fathers earned $70 a week less than did the fathers of white families. When both parents worked, they earned only one-half what a white father earns. Clearly, the disparity in income levels affects African-American parents' ability to send their children to college.
The lower incomes of African-American families partially explain why there is a gap between African-American and white students in college entry. The college entry chances of African-Americans have fallen so far since 1980 that family income can no longer account for the African-American and white difference (Oliver, 1989). The rise and decline of African-Americans' chances for college entry, both absolutely and relative to those of whites, cannot be explained by family income (or by changes in the college-going chances of men in comparison to women). Oliver (1989) found that "only the very highest income families in the African-American population experienced any improvement in college-going chances after 1980, and even this group lost ground relative to whites" (p. 341).

However, family background characteristics of minority students were found to be related strongly to success in graduate school (Arce & Manning, 1984; Noboa-Rios, 1982).

Two recent reports contend that a principal determinant of African-American college attendance is achievement test performance. The studies, conducted for the U.S. Department of Education, attempted to determine the impact of achievement levels and family income on African-American college attendance. Magner (1989) reported a change from 1970 to 1984 in African-American college enrollment rates; O'Brien (1989) focused on data from the High School and Beyond Survey (HSB) of 1982 seniors. Neither report directly related actual changes in achievement or in family background to patterns of change in college attendance. Yet, by implication, these reports provided an account of change over time in African-American
attendance rates that emphasized black-white differences in achievement (Clewell & Ficklen, 1986).

Furthermore, when African-American students on black and white campuses are compared for psychosocial development, those on black campuses tend to fare much better. In an early study, Gurin and Epps (1975) found that African-American students who attended black colleges had positive self-images, strong racial pride, and high aspirations. More recently, Fleming (1984) demonstrated much higher levels of psychosocial adjustment for African-American students on black campuses than for those on white campuses.

In sum, the evidence has suggested that African-American students who attend historically black campuses were more disadvantaged socioeconomically and academically than were African-American (or white) students on white campuses, but that African-American students who attended black campuses displayed more positive psychosocial adjustments, significant academic gains, and greater cultural awareness/commitment.

Equity and Access in Higher Education for African-Americans

In 1965 and 1972, the federal government committed itself to improving access to education through the Higher Education Act. In spite of the increased participation of minority enrollment since the Higher Education Act of 1965, African-Americans who entered college were graduating in lower percentages than they did in 1965 (Conciatore, 1991). The report Equity of Higher Educational Opportunity for Women, Black Hispanic and Low Income Students evaluated progress since the 1965 Higher Education Act. The study revealed two different issues: (1) that
proportionally more African-Americans were graduating from high school; and (2) that the black-white gap in standardized testing was narrowing (Conciatore, 1991).

Between 1976 and 1986, minority undergraduate enrollment increased by nearly a third, growing considerably more than total enrollment (Commission on Minority Participation in Education and American Life, 1988, p. 3). The increase was primarily due to substantial enrollment growth among Asian- and Hispanic-Americans. Gains were relatively modest for American Indians and for whites (16 and 8 percent, respectively). For African-Americans, however, enrollment increased less than 2.0 percent over the 10-year period. In fact, African-American enrollment climbed sharply between 1976 and 1980 but declined steadily thereafter (Nettles, 1988).

Because enrollments did not increase as much for African-Americans and whites as for other groups, their shares of total enrollment decreased. In 1986, African-Americans comprised 9.2 percent of the total, down from 10.2 percent in 1976; white enrollment dropped from 81.0 percent to 77.8 percent in the same period. Asians and Hispanics, on the other hand, increased their shares of the total by approximately 2.0 percent each during the same period (Lang & Ford, 1988).

In 1981, African-American students still constituted about 11 percent of the nation’s college enrollment, compared to about 7 percent in 1970; and in 1987, African-American students represented 8.8 percent of the nation’s college students (Matney & Johnson, 1988). In 1970, 31 percent of African-Americans 25 years old and over were at least high
school graduates, compared to 51 percent in 1980. Also, the proportion of African-Americans who had completed four or more years of college rose from 4 percent in 1970 to 8 percent in 1980 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1987). The conclusion of this analogy is evident: considerable progress has been made in the educational attainment of African-Americans during the past decade, despite the recent decline in college enrollment of African-American students.

Still, there is a large disparity in both the numbers and proportions of African-Americans who are enrolled in college and who graduate. Reviewing the statistics on the number of African-Americans who graduated from college and those who enrolled in graduate and professional schools, the disparity becomes even more apparent. Thus, while the relative proportion of African-American student enrollment may have increased, their absolute numbers may have declined.

Carter and Wilson (1991) showed that, between 1976-77 and 1984-85, the number of African-Americans enrolled in graduate schools decreased by 19.2 percent, or 12,518. However, the enrollments of Hispanics and Asians in graduate schools increased by 20.4 percent (4,128) and 54.4 percent (10,056), respectively. Consequently, the percentage of African-Americans enrolled in graduate schools in 1984 was 4.8 percent of the total graduate school enrollment, compared to 6 percent of the total in 1976. The U.S. Bureau of the Census (1987) reported that the number of African-American high school dropouts between the ages of 16 and 24 declined significantly from 1975 to 1984—from 1,024,000 to 789,000 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1987).
The Census Bureau reported that the number of African-Americans ages 18 to 24 years old enrolled in colleges increased from 665,000 in 1975 to 786,000 in 1984. The percentage of African-American high school graduates going to college decreased from 32 percent in 1975 to 27.2 percent in 1984. In 1985, only 909 African-Americans earned Ph.D. degrees compared to 20,641 whites (O’Brien, 1989).

Compared to other racial/ethnic groups, African-Americans have made minimal progress in graduate and professional school access and degree attainment during the past decade. Thus, African-Americans have remained underrepresented in U.S. graduate and professional schools relative to their proportional representation among baccalaureate degree recipients (Blake, Lambert, & Martin, 1974). This disparity is further represented in specific fields. Achieving equal participation by African-Americans in the scientific professions represents a major challenge to qualitative equality in American higher education. This is clearly evident in the fact that few African-American college students major in the biological and physical sciences, engineering, and mathematics (Astin, 1982).

Despite more than a century of their participation in the professional scientific community, the study of African-American scientists has been neglected (Nettles, 1988). Because of major recent scientific and technological advance in history, the scientific professions have become symbols of quality in America’s colleges and universities.

In summary, given the declining high school dropout rates for African-Americans and the declining percentage of African-American high
school graduates enrolling in colleges, part of the problem is getting African-American youths from secondary schools into colleges. A more crucial concern, however, is enabling African-American students to graduate from a college, and then proceed to graduate and professional schools. The challenge is how to resolve this dilemma which has resulted ultimately in a diminishing pool of African-American professionals with the appropriate credentials to assume high-level career positions in the near and long-range future? Minorities comprise a growing share of college and university undergraduate enrollments in the United States, and an even larger proportion of the pool of potential students (Nettles & Hox, 1990).

Sociopolitical and Economic Barriers Encountered by African-Americans and Other Ethnic Students in Higher Education

The overall growth in higher education is generally attributed to three political and social phenomena: (1) the GI Bill, which provided educational opportunities to veterans of the U.S. military; (2) the Great Society programs initiated by President Lyndon B. Johnson, which encouraged and supported all African-American citizens who desired to pursue higher education; and (3) the post-World War II baby boom, which provided the greatest population increase of any period in the history of the United States (Nettles, 1988). Thomas (1981), however, attributes African-American enrollment growth to five different political and social phenomena: (1) a successful civil rights movement, culminating in the Civil Rights Acts of 1964 that abolished segregation; (2) the Supreme Court decision, in the case of Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka,
Kansas, ended de jure racial segregation in education; (3) the federal government's report, entitled *Equality of Education Opportunity Report* (Weinburg, 1970), pointed out numerous racial inequalities in American educational institutions; (4) the financial aid programs for economically disadvantaged citizens; and (5) the federal court decision of 1973 in the case of *Adams v. Richardson* compelled institutions of higher education to develop desegregation plans. In addition to these political and social events, student financial aid, primarily from federal and state governments, has provided greater access and opportunity for African-Americans to attend college. These financial aid programs, coupled with the progressive and innovative admission and recruitment efforts of the sixties and seventies, have represented the greatest initiatives ever enacted to achieve racial equality in higher education (Nettles, 1988).

However, minority-oriented programs and other efforts to reduce or eradicate the effects of institutional racism in higher education are currently experiencing a growing resistance to efforts in their form of federal budget cuts and retrenchment effects. During the Reagan administration's first year in office, the Congress approved major cuts in the federal budget that sharply affected education and minority-oriented programs (Morton, 1982).

Despite the financial assistance programs and other political and social movements, African-Americans have continually been underrepresented at all levels of higher education. Additionally, African-American enrollment has continued to decline as a result of decreasing grants and
increasing admission standards of higher education institutions (Hansen, 1987).

Many of the efforts that brought about greater access over the past two decades have been thwarted, and recent changes in financial aid policies, in particular, appeared to reduce minority students' attendance in college (Stampen & Fenske, 1987). According to Hansen (1987), of the College Board, federal financial aid policies in recent years have shifted emphasis away from grants in favor of loans. This is particularly significant for African-American students, because they are less able to accumulate debt to pay for their college education than white students and because of the inequitable opportunities after college graduation, which makes the debt burden of African-Americans greater than it is for whites (Halloran, 1986; Nettles, 1987).

A study conducted by the National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities observed the following conditions (1980):

Black students who received special financial aid or academic assistance get the message that "special" is inferior—that they do not deserve to be at the predominantly white institution. The badge of inferiority is then pinned on all African-American students, including those of the highest academic ability and those with no financial need. (p. 19)

In summary, factors such as financial aid assistance, political and social movements, increasing admission standards, differences in achievement and performance, family economic status, and campus environment factors all contribute to the barriers faced by minority students upon their admission to institutions of higher education. There are more than 3,200 undergraduate institutions across the nation, and they
are of various types: public and private, two- and four-year, sectarian and nonsectarian. The overall minority enrollment picture is complex with many interacting issues that are not readily understood. Minority groups other than African-Americans have made some strides in higher education over the past decade; and their college enrollments have increased significantly. For African-Americans, overall enrollment declined, and the decline was particularly sharp among African-American males.

A Portrait of Inequality of African-American Children

The African-American child has been studied throughout this century—from the landmark work of the Atlanta University School of Social Work in the 1920s to the research and monitoring of contemporary university specialists such as Howard University’s Joyce Ladner and Harriett McAdoo and advocacy groups like the Children’s Defense Fun.

A recent statistical portrait provided by S.O.S. America!, a Children’s Defense Fund budget project, acknowledges that the obstacles are indisputably high. Poverty has truly deleterious consequences for the lives of African-American children, and nearly one in two African-American children is poor (Trescott, 1990).

The education of African-American children benefits the individual child, the family, and the immediate community. Trescott (1990) states that too many children—as they grow older, disproportionately African-American male youth—are slipping through our schools without learning basic skills.
The following scenario was presented by the Children’s Defense Fund (1985), in the report Portrait of Inequality: Black and White Children in America:

Three out of ten African-American children have a parent who lacks a diploma. By age eight or nine, African-American and Latino students are twice as likely as whites to be two or more grades behind. Two-thirds of African-Americans and 70 percent of Latinos attend schools in which more than 50 percent of the students are from minority groups. One-third of African-Americans and Latinos attend schools that are more than 90 percent minority. An African-American child faces one chance in three of being in a racially isolated school and twice as likely as a white child to drop out, and almost as likely to be behind grade level. (p. 45)

Although African-American students make up 16 percent of the total school population, they account for 30 percent of school expulsions and 34 percent of enrollment in classes for the mentally retarded, but only 8 percent of enrollment in classes for the gifted and talented (Trescott, 1990; Gilbert & Gay, 1985; Hodgkinson, 1988).

Gilbert and Gay (1988) indicated the reading and math skills of 17-year-old African-American and Latino students are comparable to those of white 13-year-olds. In the 20- to 24-year-old age group, 79 percent of African-Americans have high school diplomas, compared with 86 percent of whites and 63 percent of Latinos. Only slightly more than one-half of all young (16 to 21) African-Americans not enrolled in school were employed in March 1988 (Gilbert & Gay, 1988). Gilbert and Gay (1988) contend “the key to improving success in school for poor African-American students is modifying the means used to achieve learning outcomes, not changing the intended outcomes themselves” (p. 133).
In the late 20th century, higher education will be faced with a supply-and-demand puzzle that will be a test of ingenuity and effectiveness of the educational system in America. While the educational-readiness gap between whites and minorities continues to grow, the entry-level work force of the next century will be female and minority (Hodgkinson, 1988; Trescott, 1990).

Education and Achievement of African-American Males

Public schools, in tandem with other educational influences, have generally been quite effective in educating large numbers of students. More recently, however, public schools have come under substantial criticism because of students' comparatively low standardized test scores, overall grade point averages in core subjects, scores on college entry tests, and a general lack of such employability attributes as a high degree of literacy, problem-solving skills, positive work attitudes, ability to adapt to change, and foundation for continuous learning.

In this section, several facts related to public school performance of African-American students in general, and African-American males in particular, are examined. The initial foray into this section is a demographic profile of African-American students, compared with the general population within the public school system. The section concludes with a discussion of special programs designed to increase the African-American male participation rate in higher education.
African-American Students in the General Population and in Public Schools

It is estimated that the total U.S. African-American population, using the Census Bureau’s estimates, reached 31,412,000 (12.6 percent of the total U.S. population) in 1990 and will reach 35,753,000 (13.3 percent of the total U.S. population) in 2000. By gender, it is estimated that the African-American male population in 1990 is 14,926,000 (47.8 percent of African Americans) compared to 16,486,000 African-American females (52.2 percent). In 2000, the number of African-American males is projected to be 17,040,000 (47.7 percent) and females, 18,714,000 (52.3 percent). Whereas the total U.S. population is expected to increase by about 7.3 percent between 1990 and 2000, the white population will increase by 5.6 percent during this period and the African-American population by 14 percent (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1981).

African-American Males and the Educational System

The effectiveness of education for the African-American male can only be understood in the context of his interaction with the social, political, and economic order. The discerning observer understands that schools are largely middle-class enclaves, staffed by middle-class teachers, and are designed to inculcate middle-class values to a middle-class white America and to middle-class African-American emulators (Picott, 1974). Schools are used to screen and control the future life chances of those who attend them. Despite public declarations of representations of democracy, public educational institutions are basically structured to reflect, confirm, and perpetuate the social order.
that created them (Astin, 1975; Hodgkinson, 1988; Patton, 1981). As such, the purpose of elementary and secondary schools in America has been systematically to inculcate attitudes that reflect the dominant social and industrial values (Katz, 1971).

As stated by Patton (1981), several devices are widely used to relegate African-American males to low-status positions in the educational system. He states that norm-referenced tests, other assessment devices, and labeling/tracking tactics are easily recognized as means by which to maintain the system in order to perpetuate the status quo and to limit the life progression of African-American males.

Although education as a means by which to obtain equality of opportunity has been the hope of African-Americans, the historical policy toward African-Americans in general and African-American males in particular has been described by Jones (1979) as one of "compulsory and voluntary ignorance." Until the end of the Civil War, the prevailing education policy in the South was one of exclusion for African-Americans. Most states employed statutory provisions prohibiting individuals from teaching African-American people. Woodson (1990) found that by 1860 only 10 percent of all adult African-Americans in the South had obtained some basic elements of an education. Despite historical perceptions, the North was not much better, as that area long practiced separate and unequal education as a model for educating African-American people (Jones, 1979).

The 1954 Brown vs. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas decision was to many African-Americans a symbol of renewed hope that an equal educational opportunity would become a reality and that subsequent life
chances would be enhanced for them (Nettles, 1987). Statistical research supports the conclusion that elementary and secondary education generally has not worked to the advantage of African-Americans and has been even less advantageous for the collective African-American male (Gibbs, 1988). The cumulative gap between African-Americans and whites in educational achievement levels begins with kindergarten and increases through the post-secondary years (Williams, 1974). Selected research conclusions are indicative of the educational system's failure of African-American students (Hall & Allen, 1982; Gary, 1981; Gibbs, 1988).

Generally, data have indicated that African-Americans perform below the so-called national mean on achievement tests in the social sciences, mathematics, reading, and career and occupational development. Moreover, the negative norm becomes progressively worse in all learning areas, especially in science careers and professional development (Gary, 1981; Nettles & Mow, 1990).

Additionally, several studies have found that, although African-Americans have significantly lower scores in the aforementioned learning areas, the scores of African-American males are demonstrably lower than those of African-American females (Hare, 1979; Wilson & Justiz, 1988; Taylor, 1986; Cox, 1983). Hare (1979), in his sample of 10- and 11-year-olds, also found that African-American females outperformed their white counterparts. Hare's investigation revealed a hierarchical academic performance structure in which whites (females and males) were ranked highest, African-American females in the middle, and African-American males lowest. Hare further concluded that African-American females showed
a trend toward higher school self-esteem than did African-American males, and that they had a significantly higher self-concept of ability than did African-American males. The findings of this study were replicated in a more recent study by Hale-Benson (1986). Hale-Benson's (1986) findings raised more questions and promoted much speculation in regard to sex-role socialization differences among African-Americans children but failed to reach conclusions that warranted further investigation before this validity of how socialization affects their school performance.

Yet, these claims tend to take a different dimension when applied to the educational system. If schools reflect the values, norms, and attitudes of the larger society, then it is logical to conclude that the abusive treatment of African-American males will be an integral part of the approach to the instructional program within the classroom. A study by Rosenberg and Simmons (1971) found that African-American males' consistently received lower grades for African-Americans were generally lower than were those of their white counterparts. It was found that white teachers engaged in a pattern of expectations and interaction that resulted in African-American students being given attention less, ignored more, praised less, and criticized more than whites were. In addition, African-Americans labeled as "gifted" were given the least attention, were least praised, and received the most criticism, even when compared to their "nongifted" African-American counterparts (Rubovits & Maehr, 1973). It appears that being African-American had a more harmful effect on teacher expectations and subsequent treatment than did the mere instance
of race. It would seem fruitful to determine whether such effects vary by sex with race (Hare, 1979).

A systematic study exploring the impact the female-dominated environment of the public elementary schools has on the education of African-Americans in general and the African-American male in particular is lacking. Recent Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) data revealed that 83 percent of all elementary school teachers in 1976 were females, while only 10.1 percent were African-American females. African-American males constituted only 1.2 percent of the total 17 percent of elementary teachers who were males. Further, 45.7 percent of all full-time secondary school teachers were female, with African-American females making up 5.1 percent of this total and African-American males accounting for 3.2 percentage points of the 54.3 percent male participation rate.

When teacher aides were considered, the male/female imbalances increased. The EEOC data indicate that 95.5 percent of all teacher aides were female, with 20 percent of this number being African-American. African-American males accounted for 1.3 percent of the remaining 4.5 percent (Patton, 1981). Based on these figures, it could be concluded that a majority of African-American males would spend an entire career in public schools and have little interaction with an African-American male teacher, counselor, or administrator until the secondary level, and even this interaction would be limited.

The significance of the absence of substantial numbers of African-American male and female elementary and secondary school personnel cannot be overlooked. Research by Banks et al. (1978) offered a concept of the
manner in which social influence processes might affect the relationship between value-interest orientations of African-Americans and their orientations toward academic tasks and achievement. This research uses Festinger's (1954) social comparison model as a frame of reference. This model has been described as a process of interpersonal assessment by which an individual evaluates the appropriateness and desirability of his or her beliefs, opinions, and attitudes through comparisons with other individuals. These other individuals become, in effect, standards of correctness by which values, interest, and behavior may be acquired or measured. The most appropriate sources of social comparison then become similar others who share values, aspirations, characteristics, and experiences (Banks et al., 1978).

Banks et al. (1978) convincingly suggested that for African-American individuals, the social influence of similar others (African-American teachers, counselors, administrators, coaches, and so forth) may serve to convey the appropriate value orientations to achievement tasks. They argued that positive affective expressions from these similar others resulted in high-interest orientations, such as high self-esteem and high self-concept. Consequently, the effect of dissimilar others (white teachers, counselors, administrators, and the like) can be predicted to have an opposite effect on the interest orientations, aspirations, and achievement of African-American students, particularly African-American males (Banks et al., 1978).

The paucity of African-American professionals in our schools and the overwhelming presence of white teachers have serious long-range negative
implications on the life progression of African-American people (Patton, 1981). White teachers, notwithstanding the best of intentions at times, may be ineffective in transmitting and sustaining the intrinsic value orientations to academic achievement that are instilled by African-Americans (Banks et al., 1978). Researchers conclude that this resulted from the inability of white teachers to serve as effective standards of social comparison, and their inability to enhance student-teacher empathy through mutual exchange and sensitization (Brown, 1972; Banks et al., 1978).

Other indicators of the net negative consequences of collective African-American male participation in the nation's elementary and secondary schools lie in the suspension, dropout-pushout rates, and subsequent college attendance rates of African-American males (Gary, 1981). Concomitant with massive desegregation efforts, suspension and expulsion procedures, particularly as they relate to African-American students, have been called into question.

To illustrate, Cottle (1975) noted that African-American children were suspended three times as often as white children were and for longer periods of time. A report prepared for the Office of Civil Rights by Killalea and Associates (1980) further supported the pattern of differential disciplinary actions toward African-American students. These data indicated that African-American males were suspended, expelled, and received corporal punishment at rates disproportionate to their percentage of the total public school enrollment. Whites were found to receive disciplinary actions on the average of 10 percentage points less
frequently than what would be expected from their proportion of the population. Although the data do not provide for an analysis of sex by race, one can infer from the total male/female percentages that African-American males were even more likely than were African-Americans generally to have been disproportionately expelled and suspended, and to have received corporal punishment.

Another negative consequence for African-American males is highlighted in dropout and pushout statistics. While African-Americans constituted 15 percent of the total public school enrollment in 1975-1976, they were much more likely to drop out than were their white counterparts. African-American male students constituted the highest rate of dropouts. Two Southern Regional Council (SRC) reports (SRC, 1974; Egleton, 1976) provide evidence indicating that students who leave public schools by choice or by compulsion are disproportionately African-American, overwhelmingly male, and poor. Further, those African-American males who enter college are less likely than their white male peers to exit with a baccalaureate degree.

Another common assumption made in the literature is that a negative relationship exists between personality variables and education attainment among African-American youth. For example, the ability or desire to delay gratification presumes an internal locus of control—the individual’s belief that he or she can play a significant role in shaping the future (Oliver, 1989). Many African-American youth, however, have been reported to have an external locus of control (Brown, 1972), which may be partially attributed to a distinction that Mbiti (1970) identifies as the notion of
"collective destiny." Mbiti (1970) argues that this basically West African world-view does not place heavy emphasis on the individual but stresses the "oneness" of the collective body and the interdependence of the group. This view, which has been passed from generation to generation of African-American families in America, further acknowledges that destiny, for the most part, is not under individual control, and that other "external forces" exert a great deal of influence on what individuals and groups achieve in life.

Others attribute this tendency toward externality to the realities of the African-American experience in America (Children's Defense Fund, 1985; Miller, 1981). Miller (1981) suggests that a dual locus of control system may operate among African-American youth. Her research on African-American students suggested that a belief in personal control is separate from the control that they feel they have over the "system." Therefore, African-American students may assert that they have personal control over their own lives, yet also indicate that they have virtually no control over the impact of society upon their lives.

Conclusion

The struggle for a liberating elementary and secondary school education has resulted in an uneven growth on the part of African-American males. Many individual African-American males have, notwithstanding the present public education system, negotiated the public elementary and secondary school system with success and furthered their lifelong development. Many will continue to do so. Unfortunately, the balance of the struggle is weighted heavily against the life progression of the
collective African-American male. The relative inability of the public elementary and secondary education system to impact positively on the majority of African-American males has resulted to a large extent from its massive disconnection with the world-view of African-American people. For African-American males to progress and to develop an expectation of progression, it becomes imperative that elementary and secondary education develop qualities and characteristics that are liberating to the collective African-American welfare.

Exemplar Programs

Sociologists, parents, and educators have agreed that a variety of circumstances have led to the dismal state of affairs plaguing African-American males in education. These circumstances include crippling poverty, the drug epidemic, the breakdown of the African-American family, and the lack of positive male role models in poor African-American communities (Whitaker, 1991). A growing number of educators and parents are among the advocates who are seeking solutions for this problem.

One controversial approach has been taken through the experiment in which African-American males are sequestered in educational environments designed exclusively for them. These programs are headed by African-American male principals and/or teachers who are charged with fashioning Afro-centric curricula geared toward building self-esteem and self-confidence. This type of teaching promotes a love of learning, elements which seem to be missing in the educational experiences of many African-American male children (Whitaker, 1991).
Project 2000, based in Washington D.C., is headed by Dr. Spencer Holland, an educational psychologist and director of the Center for Educating African-American males. The program’s main purpose is to provide inner-city boys with positive classroom role models. Project 2000 was begun in 1988 at Stanton Elementary School in Washington D.C. The program utilized male volunteers from the corporate world and from local colleges and universities who work as teaching assistants. In addition to tutoring the students, the volunteers accompany the children on field trips. This is to ensure a firm guiding presence and a positive role model. The volunteers are committed to working with the students from the first grade until they have completed high school.

Below are samples of programs that work (Whitaker, 1991). While African-American males are often the focus of these organizations, some accept both boys and girls of all races.

The Challengers Boys and Girls Club, located in Los Angeles, California, was created by a former school custodian, L. E. Dantzler, 20 years ago. The Challengers strives to prevent juvenile delinquency and to promote the optimal development of children between the ages of 6 and 17. Club members can participate in athletics, arts and crafts, photography, and cultural activities, and also have access to tutoring and homework assistance, guidance counseling, rap sessions, and leadership development. Parental involvement is also a strong component of the program’s success.

The Fifth Ward Enrichment Program in Houston, Texas, was founded in 1984. It is located in the Fifth Ward of Houston, where the population is
97 percent African-American. The program targets boys 11 to 14 and operates in two elementary and two middle schools.

Most of the program’s participants come from single-parent, female-headed households and are considered "at risk" of becoming criminals, teenage fathers, or school dropouts. They are singled out by teachers and counselors because of "counterproductive" behavior. Participants have the options to meet before or after school or on weekends. The program's academic component focuses on writing and vocabulary skills, history, business topics, and current events, including ethical issues in everyday life and training in public speaking. Psychologists and psychosocial therapists provide counseling and help the youngsters with conflict resolution, self-awareness, interpersonal relations, health and nutrition, and sexuality and sexual responsibility. They also help participants devise a "goal-attainment plan," designed to increase their expectations for the future and encourage academic achievement.

The Hawk Federation of Manhood Training and Development Programs, at The Institute for the Advanced Study of Black Family Life and Culture, is located in Oakland, California. High achievement, wisdom, and knowledge are what the Hawk is all about. Its founders, Drs. Wade W. Nobles and Lawford L. Goddard of the Institute for the Advanced Study of Black Family Life and Culture, explain that the organization seeks to "intentionally and overtly influence the values and moral character of young African-American males by reclaiming African traditions of human virtue and mastery."
In this program, a small group of boys is matched with an "African or African-American man of excellence," a volunteer or college-age man who encourages the participants to become high-achievers. The program includes an initiation rite-of-passage ceremony, based on an African model, designed to move trainees into the next developmental stage and help them explore their future responsibilities and education options.

In 1968, Falaka Fattah discovered that one of her six sons belonged to a gang. Alarmed, Fattah and her husband David researched the issues and learned that the rise of gang activity has been traced to the destruction of the family. To find an innovative way to combat the problem, they invited 15 of their son's fellow gang members to live in their home. The idea was to teach the boys about the strong African family and reinforce that family value system. The experiment worked. Consequently, 20 years later, the original House of Umoja (which means unity in Swahili) has grown to 23 houses, and Fattah has hosted over 2,000 boys from 73 different Philadelphia gangs. Other programs are being developed in Wilmington, Delaware, and Portland, Oregon.

National Urban League Adolescent Male Responsibility Programs operates a variety of projects in more than 25 cities. In Detroit, for example, the program focuses on group and individual counseling, African-American heritage, personal health, sexuality, and fatherhood. The Urban League of San Francisco runs a mentoring group in which young boys are matched with African-American male role models. The organization has also sponsored conferences of groups and individuals engaged in efforts to resolve the current crisis of the African-American adolescent male.
Rites of Passage operates in 17 cities, including Chicago, St. Louis, Kansas City, Detroit, Dayton, Houston, Baltimore, New York, Newark (NJ), and Cleveland. Author and sociologist Dr. Jawanza Kunjufu, one of the program coordinators, believes the program combats what he calls the "conspiracy to destroy Black boys." The two-year program teaches adolescents that they must earn the honor of being called men. Participants study Black history, spirituality, citizenship, community involvement, career development, and economics. The coordinators also encourage hands-on activities such as clean-up campaigns and community organizing.

As the literature illustrates, the main focal point of the programs listed indicated that the development of African-American self-respect and respect toward others are important elements in the educational system. In these models, an understanding is reached that views the self as an interdependent entity shared by the total group. Developing self-respect then becomes the same as developing respect for the extended self, and for the collective African-American community. Therefore, the end result of such programs leads to the enhancement of harmony among African-American people and their external environment (Gary, 1981).

Thus, this liberating education views life progression from a holistic rather than a separate or fragmented perspective. The total mental, physical, spiritual, and emotional growth of African-American youth is the key to the success of these programs.
Conclusions Derived from Selected Literature

There are numerous factors regarding the parity of minorities in higher education programs. Researchers have provided valuable insights into minority student rates of participation, persistence, and performance. Nettles and Mow (1990) state that the complexity of research on minority student participation in education relates to a lack of agreement on definitions, variation in research methodology, and the absence of coherent theoretical models to guide the research. The effect of these inconsistencies is ambiguity in results and findings.

As the selected literature emphasizes, all minority groups are increasingly underrepresented at each transition point in the higher education system. African-Americans, Chicanos, Hispanics, and Native Americans suffer disproportionally high losses at all transition points in higher education. Fundamental changes in many of the policies and practices of American higher education are needed to address the concerns described in the literature. Generally, minority groups other than African-Americans have made some strides in higher education over the past decade. For African-Americans, however, overall enrollment has fallen, and the decline is particularly noticeable among African-American males.

Despite enrollment increases, most minority groups continue to be underrepresented in higher education relative to their share of the general population. Minority students also are more likely to drop out or be pushed out and therefore are even less adequately represented among degree recipients. African-Americans, Hispanics, and American Indians are
severely underrepresented in the technical fields and overrepresented in education and the arts and humanities.

The contributions of U.S. education to equality and to the complete human development of African-American males appears intimately related to the assumptions, philosophies, and ideas of our educational system. The very purposes and foundations of the educational system will have to be altered dramatically to effect any systematic and long-lasting change in the education of African-Americans.

As stated by Hale-Benson (1985) the American educational system has not been effective in educating African-American children. She concluded that:

The emphasis of traditional education has been upon molding and shaping African-American children so that they can fit into an educational process designed for Anglo-Saxon middle class children. This failure is evident in the disproportionate number of African-American children who are labeled mentally retarded and placed in "special classes." The system is not working because of the disproportionate number of African-American children who are being suspended, expelled, and "pushed out" of school. (p. 1)

Gary (1981) stated that the basic elements of an educational system with the necessary liberating qualities consist of: (1) valuing interpersonal relationships; (2) fostering self- and group development through nurturing affective behaviors; (3) developing a sense of self- and collective respect; and (4) recognizing the need for unitary, holistic development. He concludes that each change must be emphasized which enhances the development of African-American males, and these changes of development are applicable to improving the collective majority of all African-American people.
The effects of a liberating education will be hampered severely without the acceptance and application of aspects of the African-American experience and traditional culture to the American system of education. A system that is liberating to the African-American male must be built on a world view consistent with, and supportive of, an African-American frame of reference.

The essential point is that American education must define African-American strengths and weaknesses and respond to these realities in ways consistent with the nation's collective essence. To do this, the process must begin by developing an understanding of the factors related to their performance, persistence, and success. These elements are a key to understanding African-American males' perceptions of "success" as it applies to their ability to enter, compete, and graduate from an undergraduate institution. Comparison of a grounded theory regarding their perceptions relative to "success" with conclusions of research studies on "success" should reveal that their patterns of "success" in undergraduate education enhance the possibility of graduate school entry and the completion of a terminal degree.
CHAPTER III. METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was four-fold: (1) to create a profile of the African-American male graduate student attending a land grant, predominantly white institution; (2) to identify attitudes and perceptions that contribute to African-American males' successful completion of their undergraduate education and their entrance into graduate school; (3) to develop recommendations that will be useful in creating policies and progress the status of African-American males in higher education; and (4) to develop a "grounded theory" of factors contributing African-American male graduate student academic success.

The main focus of this study is to develop a "grounded theory" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) which helps to explain how African-American male graduate students have been successful in surviving the undergraduate experience and engaging them in their graduate experience. This study of African-American male graduate students concerned the identification, organization, and interrelationships of certain variables identified in the literature. Attention was directed toward the following variables: (1) personal characteristic profile information; (2) graduate assistantship experiences; (3) classroom and teacher expectations of student achievement and experiences of current graduate program; (4) financial aid resources; (5) undergraduate academic preparation and performance; (6) the impact of parental support, religion, mentors and others during undergraduate and graduate education; (7) campus environment and institutional climate during graduate education; and (8) advantages, disadvantages, and problems associated with attending a predominantly
white institution. These variables were influenced by the African-American male experience, personality, and institutional environment.

The method used to create the categories for this study were derived by review of literature and collaborative efforts between the researcher, Dr. Michael Nettles, Vice President for Assessment at the University of Tennessee, and Dr. Reginald Wilson, an American Council education research scholar. Both research scholars reviewed the preliminary development of the categories and suggested the most relevant variables which contributed to African-American male higher education survival based on their research findings. Thus, the creation of the research categories were developed. Further explanation of the process for developing the theoretical categories is presented later in the research report.

This chapter reviews the conceptual framework, design methodology, and procedures utilized in this study. Terminology that is key to understanding the research methodology and the constant comparative method of their development are presented. Finally, the procedures followed in the development of the data gathering instrument used in interviews are described, as is its subsequent modification as theoretical saturation of data categories guided the study to a conclusion. Theoretical saturation of data categories was defined by Glaser and Strauss (1967) as the condition that exists when "no additional data are being found whereby the sociologist can develop new properties of the category" (p. 61). That is, saturation occurs when each newly discovered or identified data element only adds to the bulk of the data in a category rather than proposing a new category.
The Development of Grounded Theory

According to Strauss and Corbin (1991), a grounded theory is "one that is inductively derived from the study of the phenomenon it represents" (p. 23). They contend that the theory is discovered, and provisionally verified, through systematic data collection and analysis of data pertaining to that phenomenon. Therefore, a reciprocal relationship exists among the data collection and data analysis. In the initial stage, a theory is not present. But, as the process evolves, theoretical constructs and concepts that are relevant to that area are allowed to emerge.

Grounded theory research, described by Gehrke and Parker (1982), is not at all glamorous, not at all esoteric, not at all "grand." It is, instead, pragmatic and sensible (p. 3). Unlike much past research, grounded theory research is not an attempt to verify existing theory through the testing of hypotheses. Rather, it is primarily an inductive system for generating theory.

Empirical research is a study in which a hypothesis or tentative proposition about the relationship between two or more theoretical constructs is developed for testing (Borg & Gall, 1983). "Grounded theory" results from the discovery of theory from data that fit empirical situations and provide relevant predictions, explanations, and applications (CASEA, 1981). Selltiz, Wrightsman, and Cook (1976) defined a hypothesis as the consequence of our theoretical assumptions. They are statements usually submitted for actual testing.
In traditional research, the testing of a hypothesis may lead to a theory. A theory is a set of concepts plus the interrelationships that are assumed to exist among the concepts (Kirkland, 1990). According to Selltiz et al. (1976), the theory includes the consequences that are assumed to follow logically from the relationships proposed in the theory. Borg and Gall (1983) define a theory as "a system for explaining a set of phenomena by specifying constructs and the laws that relate these constructs to each other" (p. 22).

Borg and Gall (1983) presented three types of constructs: theoretical, operationally defined, and constitutively defined. They purport that a theoretical construct is a concept that can be defined constitutively or operationally and that it is related to the other theoretical constructs in the system. An operationally defined construct may be defined by "specifying the activities used to measure or manipulate" that construct (p. 22). A constitutively defined construct is one that is defined by referring to other constructs (p. 22). This study developed operationally defined construct(s) of African-American male graduate students from their undergraduate and graduate education experiences as a way of presenting theory grounded in the data.

At the heart of grounded theory research is the constant comparative method, which alternates data collection and data analysis (Gehrke & Parker, 1982). Before any hypotheses are defined, data are collected, coded, and arranged into theoretical concepts and categories. The constant comparative method of grounded theory development involves the concurrent gathering, collation, and analysis of data in which the theory
is finally "grounded" (Kirkland, 1990). The constant comparative analysis is a specific form of qualitative, comparative analysis designed to generate inductively grounded theory which emerges from data systematically obtained in the field (Askew, 1983).

Glaser and Strauss (1967) state that a well-constructed grounded theory will meet four central criteria for judging the applicability of theory to a phenomenon: fit, understanding, generality, and control. They concluded:

If theory is faithful to the everyday reality of the substantive area and carefully induced from diverse data, then it should fit that substantive area. The theory should be understandable in that it should also be comprehensible and make sense both to the persons who were studied and to those practicing in the area. The generality of that theory is based upon the data being comprehensive and the interpretations conceptual and broad, then the theory should be abstract enough and include sufficient variation to make it applicable to a variety of contexts related to that phenomenon. Finally, the theory should provide control with regard to action toward the phenomenon. That is because the hypotheses proposing relationships among concepts—which later may be used to guide action—are systematically derived from actual data related to that phenomenon. (p. 23)

Furthermore, the conditions to which it applies should be clearly spelled out. Therefore, the conditions should apply specifically to a given situation.

The interview technique and the constant comparative method of theory generation are complimentary research techniques. The interview as a research tool compiles a large volume of data that can be constantly compared to other, previously gathered, data to generate grounded theory. The use of these two techniques in this inductive and exploratory study will result in more potentially useful and valid study results.
The Interview as a Research Tool

Borg and Gall (1983) noted that the interview as a research method is "unique" in that it involves the collection of data through direct verbal interaction between individuals. They said this direct interaction is the source of one of the main advantages of the interview as a research technique (p. 436). The interview situation usually permits much greater depth than do other methods of collecting research data, therefore allowing the interviewer to obtain information that the subject would probably not reveal under any other circumstances. The flexibility, adaptability, and human interaction are unique strengths of the interview process which allows subjectivity on the part of interviewer to emerge (Borg & Gall, 1983).

According to Jackson and Rothney (1961), under favorable conditions the interview tends to yield more complete data and also more data regarding the negative and positive aspects of the self. They concluded the interview process is more likely to yield more complete information when open-ended questions pertaining to negative aspects of the self-need to be asked.

Another advantage of using the interview process is stated by Isaac and Micheal (1971). They described the interview as a way of generating greater depth of information than is possible with a questionnaire or survey. An interviewer has the opportunity to probe a subject more deeply to obtain additional, more complete data. The interview also makes it possible to check the quality of communications between interviewer and
respondent and to evaluate the degree to which rapport exists between the respondent and the interviewer (Kirkland, 1990).

Isaac and Micheal (1971) noted several disadvantages of the interview. These included cost, high demands on research time, and the inconvenience of conducting interviews. Problems of subjectivity and bias may be present in interview research. Other complicating factors include use of antagonisms that might develop in the interview, or, conversely, desires to please that develop in one or both parties. Additionally, data are gathered at a point in time; therefore, the researcher may fail to discover other important data that may be deemed relevant at another point in time.

Isaac and Micheal (1971) discussed three forms of the research interview: the structured, the semi-structured, and the unstructured interview. Reliability is greatest in the structured interview and the least in the unstructured. Reliability is a "level of internal consistency or stability of the measuring device over time" (Borg & Gall, 1983, p. 281). Reliability of the data gathered in this study was achieved through saturation of data categories. The semi-structured interview lies between the two in reliability. It requires more interviewer training and skill to address adequately the significant points and avoid biasing the interview and the data produced.

The unstructured interview gives the interview subject broad flexibility to respond to the interviewer's objectives. Research objectives may be represented in a general or specific format in the interview instrument. The interview subject responds in a way and at a
cadence that is most comfortable for him/her. Unstructured interview information is often of a highly personal and potentially threatening nature (Isaac & Micheal, 1971).

The semi-structured interview is best illustrated by client-centered approaches, according to Borg and Gall (1983). The semi-structured interview is guided by a central set of structured questions from which the researcher may diverge to explore associated topics in depth. Complete and accurate information produced by direct question is strengthened by additional data that encompass the more elusive and complex elements of a situation (Isaac & Micheal, 1971). This is further illustrated by Borg and Gall (1983), who postulated that the semi-structured interview provides a "desirable combination of objectivity and depth and often permits gathering valuable data that could not be successfully obtained by any other approach" (p. 442).

According to Isaac and Micheal (1971), a structured interview is based on a well-defined instrument that resembles a questionnaire. Amplification and elaboration of data discovered in the course of the interview is possible when using this approach only within narrow parameters. Structured interviews are aimed at developing specific data and are usually restricted in scope. A structured interview is recommended when there is need for accurate and complete information of a nature that fits into a structured inquiry instrument. The researcher had established friendships with 15 of the 22 interviewees. It should also be noted that the researcher was an African-American female graduate student, thus establishing a better rapport with the respondents to render more
accurate and unbiased answers. A copy of the instrument is listed as Appendix A.

This study used a semi-structured interview to gather specific data, allowing the researcher and the respondent the flexibility to explore complex and elusive cultural and educational aspects of his undergraduate and graduate education. The semi-structured interviews were conducted employing on-site interaction and subsequent telephone conversations for purposes of clarification. Interviews were conducted at the interviewees' designated place for purposes of comfort and for broader respondent participation. Data were collected using tape recorders and handwritten notes taken by the researcher. The interview began with the researcher describing to the respondent the intent of the study. The researcher explained to the respondent all measures which would be taken to assure confidentiality of responses. The researcher offered respondents an option to receive a copy of the study synopsis upon completion.

Following the interview, the researcher coded the notes taken during the interview. Additionally, "memos" and "research notes" prepared from the tapes were coded into categories. Each successive interview produced more data, either contributing to previously identified theoretical categories or establishing new categories.

Constant Comparative Method of Qualitative Analysis

The constant comparative method described by Glaser (1965) and Glaser and Strauss (1965, 1967) is an inductive approach to theory discovery. It combines concurrent coding and analyzing of data with theoretical sampling of data. The use of this method enables the
researcher to develop theoretical propositions reflecting not only surface-level behavioral relationships but, more importantly, in-depth understandings of the phenomena under study (Askew, 1983).

Glaser (1965), in his description of the constant comparative method, noted three research methods most commonly used in qualitative data gathering. The first is simple quantification of qualitative data in order to test a hypothesis (Kirkland, 1990). This procedure begins by first coding and then analyzing. The purpose of this method is to test a proposition.

The second research method used in analyzing qualitative data aids researchers in discovering new properties in the theoretical categories of the data and then records those new properties in some manner. The researcher has a greater tendency constantly to redesign and integrate or reinterpret theoretical concepts as new data are developed or new categories are identified (Glaser, 1965).

A third method of analyzing qualitative data is the constant comparative method. It uses concurrent coding and analysis, integrating the most useful characteristics of each of the previous two analytical methods (Glaser, 1965; Glaser & Strauss, 1965). According to Conrad (1975), the constant comparative method assists researchers in generating an integrated, consistent, and plausible theory that is strongly supported by the preponderance of the data and sufficiently clear to be easily and partially or completely tested by quantitative research methods.
The constant comparative method is composed of four stages: (1) comparing incidents applicable to each category; (2) integrating categories and their properties; (3) delimiting the theory; and (4) writing the theory (Glaser, 1965). This method is a continuous growth process, with each stage moving continuously and gradually into the next. This allows previous stages of continuous development of data analysis and integration until the analysis is terminated.

Procedure for Data Analysis

In the first stage, the researcher started coding each incident in the data according to the categories determined at the beginning of analysis. The purpose of this activity was to allow the researcher to compare the coded incident with previous incidents coded in the same category. Such coding may place a single event or observation into several theoretical categories. As an observation was coded into a category(s), it was compared with previously coded observations in the same theoretical category. For purposes of clarification, the researcher may use "memos" (Glaser, 1965). These notes ensured that the researcher was able to tap the freshness of the original theoretical notions and relieve the conflicts that may occur. These notes also provided an intermediate means to record potential theoretical relationships (Glaser, 1965). This stage in the process was intended to gather data from which potential categories or theoretical relationships may emerge.

The coding process resulting from the integration of theoretical categories and their properties was the second stage of the constant comparative method. Changes in different observations were analyzed,
those which correspond to established ideas were added to existing
categories, and new ideas formed new categories (Glaser, 1965; Glaser &

The third stage in the constant comparative method was the
delimiting of the theory. This delimiting of the theory occurred at two
levels: (1) the theory, and (2) the original list of categories proposed
for coding (Glaser, 1965; Glaser & Strauss, 1967), that is the original
category list used for coding and the emergent theory. The researcher was
forced to reduce terminology and consequent generalizing, which were
merged by constant comparisons based on incidents found in the analysis of
data. This allowed the researcher to achieve the two foremost
requirements of the theory: (1) parsimony of variables and formulation;
and (2) scope in the applicability of the theory to a wide range of
situations, while keeping a close correspondence of the theory to the data
(Glaser, 1965). This was termed by Glaser to be "theoretical saturation"
(1965).

In the final analysis, theoretical saturation reduced the proposed
list of theoretical categories. This saturation prevailed so that, when
the next set of data develops, it will not indicate a possible new
theoretical category. If the category did not saturate, it was necessary
to go back and try to saturate it, if the category was central to the
theory.

The uniformities presented in the reduction of the research's
discovery and saturated categories result in the end product of the
theory. The array of data used in the constant comparative method was
based on the saturation of the categories. Thus, the collected universe of data was theoretically delimited. Clearly, identified saturated theoretical categories became evident as this study progressed. The researcher designed a Category Saturation Assessment Table using a spreadsheet (Appendix B). This spreadsheet assisted in visualizing the saturation status of the theoretical categories.

Writing the theory was the fourth and final stage of the constant comparative method. In this stage, the researcher combined theoretical memos prepared throughout the data collection and analysis. All memos generated during data collection provided category content. The memos pertaining to a category were summarized and further analyzed prior to writing the theory. The integration and clarity of theoretical categories allowed the researcher to create a developmental theory (Glaser, 1965). This "developmental theory" facilitated the generation of theories of process, sequence, and change pertaining to organizations, positions, and social interactions.

Barzun and Graff (1985) suggest that the process of data analysis in grounded theory research was "like a funnel: things were opt at the beginning (or top), and more directed and specified at the bottom. "The research was not putting together a puzzle, whose picture they already know (hypothesis). They are constructing a picture which takes shape as they collect and examine the parts" (p. 29). Therefore, grounded theory was a system of developing theory by using a constant comparative method which continuously alternated data collection and data analysis.
Theory Development

According to Glaser (1965), the developmental theory can be formal or substantive in nature. The substantive theory is based on empirically based inquiry: formal theory is based on a conceptual area of inquiry (Kirkland, 1990). Further, in the delimiting stage of the theory, the constant comparative method may also lead to propositional or discussional theories. The researcher may cover many properties of categories in discussion or write formal propositions about a category. Discussional theory may encompass many of the theoretical properties identified during the data gathering and delimitation stages of theory generation.

Propositional theory is useful in the exploratory stage of theory development. If a formal hypothesis is required, discussional theory can be translated into propositional theory. A substantive grounded theory is written for a given substantive area.

Theory presentation (propositional or discussional) and the scope of the theory (substantive or formal) depend on the demands of the grounded theory research topic and the needs of the researcher. Kirkland (1990) states that a substantive theory presented discussionaly may best fit the needs of a researcher conducting an exploratory study. However, a formal theory presented in a propositional format may be more suitable for a researcher who intends to test the generated theories quantitatively. A substantive grounded theory may eventually be the basis for the generation of a formal grounded theory (Kirkland, 1990).

In the development of grounded theory using the constant comparative method, Glaser and Strauss (1967) urged researchers to ignore prior
research and reviews of literature. However, the use of literature has been employed by other researchers prior to the development of preliminary theoretical categories to be used with the constant comparative methodology to generate a grounded theory. For example, Bradshaw (1974) reported that his study of documentary data and the literature prior to conducting interviews provided a means of clarifying and corroborating information. Bradshaw said that a literature review prior to the interviews he conducted facilitated the interview process because a common base was established between the interviewer and the respondent. The researcher for this study supports Brandshaw's point of view. A common base of experiences and attitudes were reviewed in selected literature to establish a common base of understanding between the researcher and the respondent. Consequently, the initial development of the theoretical categories were developed through use of the literature.

For the purposes of this study, the researcher adopted Wilkinson and Taylor's (1977) perspectives of eminent sociologists, social psychologists, anthropologists, and psychiatrists on the position of the African-American male in modern contemporary society as the basis of identifying specific theoretical categories. While previous research focused on specific developmental studies (Parham & Helms, 1985), classroom expectations (Hale-Benson, 1988), and academic achievement (Nettles, 1988), these were found not to be universal in integrating all relevant variables nor were they directly applicable to the African-American male graduate school experience. Therefore, the present study was designed to create a theory to indicate the effects of these variables
and their impact on the African-American male graduate school experience (the relevant variables listed on 7 of Chapter I).

Data collected during the course of the interviews and document searches were analyzed for pertinent information and recorded on blank data coding matrices. Research memoirs were used to record thoughts, ideas, insights, and observations to assist in forthcoming analysis of newly gathered data. The delimitation of theoretical categories resulted in fewer, more saturated categories as data collecting progressed. As data gathering and analysis proceeded, the researcher began to delimit the basic theoretical framework, establishing boundaries for its scope, reducing terminology, and formulating the theory with an increasingly smaller set of higher level concepts. A grounded theory of African-American male undergraduate student experiences and its impact on their graduate college experiences emerged as data gathering and category delimitation continued.

Selection of Research Sample

Choosing groups or individuals for their potential usefulness in generating theoretical categories and properties is termed theoretical sampling by Glaser and Strauss (1967). Glaser and Strauss (1967) contrast this with statistical sampling, which is done to obtain accurate evidence on distributions of people among categories for use in descriptions or verifications.

While theoretical sampling is a crucial element in grounded theory research and deserves much attention, the most distinguishing feature of the approach is the interlocking character of the data gathering and
analysis phases. Unlike traditional research, where data are all gathered first and analyzed later, the procedure for generating grounded theory alternates between data gathering and data analysis.

Research subjects were selected on the basis of geographical convenience to the researcher; and for conformity to the previously established study delimitations, the data procurement for this study was limited to African-American male graduate students attending Iowa State University for the academic year 1990-1991 (Appendix C). A list of all African-American male graduate students from the Registrar's office was requested by the researcher. Upon reviewing this list, African (from the continent Africa) graduate students appeared. Therefore, the researcher compared the Registrar's list and a list from the Minority Student Affairs (MSA) office to arrive at the correct number of African-American male graduate students. The number of students identified was forty. However, 22 were selected to participate in this study. The remaining 18 were unavailable for interviews due mainly to job locations (out-of-state and in-state). After exhaustive efforts were made to obtain correct phone numbers and addresses for the 37 remaining persons, 27 were obtained. Five (5) of the twenty-seven (27) students were commuters and were also unavailable for an interview. A total of 22 respondents participated in the study.

Study Instrumentation

The semi-structured interview instrument was developed. Questions were obtained from pertinent literature searches and various studies that presented areas of direct relationships to the seven variables of interest
for the study. These variables were determined through selective literature by using the Educational Research Information Center computer search. Themes which appeared repeatedly were selected as primary variables. These variables included: societal influences (political, economic, and social); undergraduate preparation; financial aid availability and indebtedness; home community and family support systems; and graduate school experiences (teacher expectations and academic achievement) and institutional environment. A copy of the sample semi-structured interview instrument is included (Appendix A). As theoretical category saturation occurred, the instrument was modified to address other theoretical categories generated from the interview.

Respondent Confidentiality

A study involving personal interviews and recordings that elicit sensitive information may produce conflict in respondent confidentiality and study replicability. As suggested by Boruch and Cecil (1979), these conflicts are usually rare and minor. Respondent confidentiality is a moral and legal obligation of the researcher involved. In the initial stages of the research, the need to eliminate or minimize confidentiality problems without restricting the researcher's freedom to explore social problems was of primary concern. Boruch and Cecil (1979) stated that promise of confidentiality is often necessary to gain respondent cooperation and truthful responses. Additionally, the researcher must be able to track study respondents while maintaining their confidentiality (Kirkland, 1990).
To protect the sensitive nature of the information revealed by the respondent, the process described below was developed to assure respondent confidentiality. A copy of the letter of confidentiality is included as Appendix D. The researcher established an alpha-numeric code for each interview and each interview subject. A second list of interview subjects and associated codes was developed. An alpha-numeric linkage list used to identify departments and respondents was maintained in two copies. One copy was held by the researcher, and the other was retained by the professional typist. The linkage list was also maintained separately from all other research data in a locked file cabinet. Data gathered on tapes were reviewed and evaluated, and the tapes were erased upon completion of the study. The researcher's proposal and semi-structured interview questionnaire were submitted and approved by the Human Subjects Review Committee (Appendix D).
CHAPTER IV. RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter presents the analyses of data obtained from the semi-structured interviews with the participants. Only the data relevant to the preliminary theoretical categories identified in Chapter I and possible emerging theoretical categories are described in this chapter.

In the initial stages of the research, theoretical categories were identified using the literature as a guide. The formulation of the categories was identified by using the most frequently mentioned variables in the literature which contributed most to the education of African-American male graduate students. The results of each interview were examined to assess data conformity to previously identified preliminary theoretical categories included in the literature. As the analysis of the interviews continued, emerging concepts and properties of each theoretical category relative to each preceding interview were identified. This process continued until data saturation occurred and a grounded theory was postulated.

The organization of the chapter is divided according to the preliminary theoretical categories presented in Chapter I. These theoretical categories are:

1. personal characteristic profiles;
2. graduate assistantship/mentoring experiences;
3. classroom and teacher expectations of student achievement and experiences of current graduate program;
4. sources of financial aid;
5. undergraduate academic performance and experiences;
6. parental and community support, religion/spirituality, and mentors during undergraduate and graduate education;
7. campus environment and institutional climate during graduate education; and
8. advantages, disadvantages, and problems in attending a predominantly white institution.

Responses from the semi-structured interview questions are examined in each category, denoting the respondents' attitudes, opinions, and perceptions. Some of these questions and responses are cited in single space indented form.

The semi-structured interview offered the students an opportunity to respond to the statements in eight categories. These categories represent the saturation of data relevant to the emerging grounded theory. A characteristic profile of the sample is listed in Table 1. The following section, entitled Personal Characteristic Profiles, will describe respondents' information as it relates to the analysis of the data. These categories are: age range, marital status, high school graduation date, highest educational level, current graduate program enrollment, undergraduate institution, current program plans, and areas of study. This saturation of all concepts and constructs of the data is listed below to demonstrate the emerging grounded theory (Appendix F).

Personal Characteristic Profiles

The sample consisted of 22 African-American male graduate students currently enrolled at Iowa State University (ISU). There were 13 Ph.D.
students and 9 master's degree students. Twenty-two (22) of the respondents were enrolled as full-time students during the spring semester for the academic school year 1990-1991. The present enrollment number of African-American students at Iowa State University is 537 (Appendix C). The total number of African-American male graduate students enrolled Spring, 1991 was 40. Twenty-two of the forty were interviewed. The remaining 18 were not used for interviews because of geographic limitations and job locations (out-of-state and in-state).

These data collected for this study may be used as baseline data to help Iowa State University compare this respondent group with its total African-American male population. These data provide information concerning their attitudes, opinions, and perceptions of the institutional climate and its impact on their successful or unsuccessful academic endeavors while attending Iowa State University (see Table 1). The following summaries represent the findings from the data.

**Age range**—the age range for the respondents in this study was 23 to 55.

**Marital status**—the marital status consisted of 10 married respondents, 9 single respondents, and 3 respondents who were classified as other (divorced, widowed, etc.).

**Year of high school graduation**—high school diploma year was classified into three time frames. These were 1955-1965, 1966-1976, and 1977-1987; the number completing their high school degrees during each time frame was 3, 3, and 16, respectively.
Table 1. Respondent characteristics

1. Age:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>23 or under</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24-30</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
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<td>30-36</td>
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<td>37-43</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>44-48</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49-54</td>
<td>1</td>
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2. Marital Status:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Year of high school diploma:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1955-1965</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966-1976</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977-1987</td>
<td>16</td>
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4. Highest educational level:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B.S.</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.A.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.S.</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Graduate programs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ph.D.</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.S.</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Financial Endorser for Assistantship:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Endorser</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Minority Student Affairs</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Departmental</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Credit Loads in current graduate program:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hours</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3-6 hrs.</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-9 hrs.</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-12 hrs.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-14 hrs.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1. (Continued)

8. Undergraduate institutions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution Type</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Historically black institutions</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predominantly white institutions</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4 transferred from 2-year PWIs)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. Present Graduate Program majors:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Higher education</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary education</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community and Regional Planning</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial engineering</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure studies</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychology and Counseling</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statistics</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. Program plans:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plan</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Will complete degree</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will leave without degree</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will leave without finishing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Highest educational level—during the time period for the interview, the highest educational level was classified as B.S., M.B.A., and M.S. The number in each classification was 8, 2, and 13, respectively. One respondent had two master’s degrees.

Current graduate program enrollment—there were 13 Ph.D. students and 9 master’s degree students in the sample. Seventy-one percent of the respondents earned their master’s degrees, whereas thirty-nine percent had only a bachelor degree.

Undergraduate institution—less than 9 percent matriculated as undergraduates at Iowa State University. More than half (59 percent) of
the respondents earned their undergraduate degrees from historically black colleges and universities. Nearly 18 percent transferred from other predominantly white institutions to obtain their graduate degrees from Iowa State University. Three of the four undergraduate transfer students graduated with their master's degree from Iowa State University with the remaining one withdrawing from Iowa State University. Respondents stated that they had decided fairly early in their educational careers to attend a predominantly white school for their graduate program.

Program plans—most of the respondents intended to complete degrees at Iowa State University (95.4 percent). About 5 percent of the respondents intended to leave their current graduate program before finishing their degrees, although most hoped to return at some future time.

Areas of study—the area of study most often mentioned as majors was education (54.5 percent). This is comparable to other data which indicate that African-American male graduate students tend to earn degrees in education (Fleming, 1984; Bloom, 1990). Degrees in communication, engineering, and the health profession were infrequent. However, the fact that community and regional planning, industrial engineering, and statistics were represented may indicate a change in the fields chosen by African-American male students. It should be noted that because of high representation in the College of Education in this distribution, the information obtained may be biased toward one college.
Credit load in current graduate program—there were eight respondents who had a credit load of 3-6 hours; nine were enrolled in 7-9 hours; four were enrolled in 10-12 hours; and one was in 13-14 credit hours.

Financial aid—financial support for the respondents' college expenses came primarily from federal loans or grants, parents' earnings or savings, college or university loans or grants, assistantships, and other combinations of the aforementioned types. However, most of the respondents' assistantships were supported by the Minority Student Affairs office, not the department/college in which they were enrolled. This can be perceived as a strong commitment by the Minority Students Affairs office to continue its support of minority education. Most of the respondents indicated that they had to rely on every available resource for funding their education.

Graduate Assistantship and Mentoring Experiences

A number of studies have surveyed graduate and professional minority students regarding their experiences in graduate school, including peer relationships, faculty relationships, racism, financial assistance, and feelings of isolation and alienation (Allen, Haddad, & Kirkland, 1984; Bloom, 1990; Collision, 1991; Coughlin, 1988). All have reported that minority graduate students, particularly African-American males, experience feelings of isolation and alienation at their institutions as well as difficulty in establishing relationships with white faculty members. In the analysis of the data, similar experiences were stated by the respondents attending Iowa State University.
There was strong consensus among respondents that their relationship with their major professor and committee members were described as "sufficient" (68 percent) while attending Iowa State University. A review of selected literature further demonstrates the socialization of African-American males' interpersonal and mentoring relationships.

The respondents indicated a sense of "belonging" with their peer groups, but did not indicate that they experienced a sense of "belonging" within the campus or their departments. However, the respondents indicated that they had maintained (a) relationship with a primary person(s) vital to their success in the program. According to the literature as it relates to relationships and mentoring, Hughes (1987) stated that feelings of belonging are typical of persons who enjoy interpersonal relationships.

The establishment of a mentoring relationship, has been cited as one of the important features of the graduate experience (Clewell, 1987; Hall & Allen, 1982). Mentoring, as defined by Daloz (1986), affirms that: "Mentors are guides. They help contribute to the successful development of individuals and support and facilitate the realization of the vision a young person has about the kind of life he/she wants to have as an adult" (p. 17).

In contrast to this definition, the majority of the respondents attending Iowa State University (82 percent) had established a personal relationship with their major professors but not with each committee member. Most of the committee members were selected on "word of mouth" by their major professors or peers. Further, none of the respondents
indicated that their relationship with their major professor was a "mentoring" experience. The "mentoring" relationships were fostered through contacts with (a) primary significant other(s) or partner(s), (a) close family or community person(s), and/or an undergraduate instructor(s).

The respondents indicated that their ability to maintain "consistency" in their academic work was largely attributed to the influence of peers. Research by Fleming (1984) indicated that students must have supportive college communities to achieve academic success. As noted in her research, African-American males most often respond to the feelings of alienation and disenchantment. They survive in predominantly white college academic environment by concentrating their energies on extracurricular activities and the development of interpersonal relationships with other minority students and minority faculty rather than academics. Fleming further stated that, to fulfill their needs for friendship and intimacy while pursuing a college education, African-American males often become distracted from their intellectual pursuits (1988). In contrast to Fleming's study, less than 5 percent of the Iowa State University students dropped out of their programs during their program of study. All indicated, however, a deep sense of disconnectedness from family and friends. The students, however, maintained their relationships through frequent visits and calls home during the semester. These were the only methods mentioned as a strong substitute for "belonging" to a community. In the selection of an advisor, students used other strategies in establishing a professional
relationship with their major professor, such as similar research projects, professional organizations, etc.

According to the literature, Cameron (1979) found that most successful proteges selected mentors who have similar career interest. When respondents were asked why they chose their major advisor or major professor, 64 percent said that they did so because the advisors were working in similar areas. Most (45 percent) said that their major advisors at Iowa State University had been "very supportive" and "were participating in similar activities that they aspired to do." One student described his advisor as "sort of a father figure. He really helped me along." Another credited his advisor (who was African-American) with providing "emotional, academic, and moral support throughout my time in the program."

The findings of this study indicated that 14 percent of Iowa State University students stated that their major advisor was not supportive. Seventy-seven percent had major advisors who were not minorities. It can be stated that the high ratio of nonminority vs. minority faculty/student ratio is due to the low number of minority faculty at Iowa State University. When asked whether anyone else at Iowa State University had helped them complete their degrees, 60 percent responded affirmatively. Of these, 60 percent said that this person had been a nonminority; however, some mentioned the Minority Student Affairs office and minority professors.

In regard to professional development, Goldstein (1974) found that Ph.D. students with same-sex mentors published significantly more than did
those in cross-sex role situations. When the respondents were asked whether they had published papers or given presentations at professional meetings while in their graduate program at Iowa State University, 77 percent said that they had done neither; 9 percent had made presentations only; 9 percent had done both; and 5 percent had published only. This study found that 77 percent indicated that their mentors were male, the remaining students (23 percent) indicated females as their mentors. In contrast to Goldstein's study, only one student out of the 22 interviewed in this study had a male mentor and had published.

Undergraduate Experiences

There is a growing body of literature regarding minority (particularly African-American) retention at the undergraduate level. Most of these studies have focused on factors relating to student characteristics and behavior as well as student experience. A smaller volume of researchers has considered the African-American male graduate students' characteristics and experience and how they have affected their academic achievement in graduate education (Gibbs, 1988; Nettles, 1988; Fleming, 1984; Gary, 1981). Fleming (1981) reported that factors important for graduate enrollment and retention were usually the same as those for undergraduate retention: contact with faculty, financial support, and institutional environment.
Undergraduate education

The respondents were divided into two different categories for describing their undergraduate institutional experiences: predominantly white and historically black institutions. Fifty-five percent attended a predominantly white institution for their undergraduate education, and 45 percent attended a historically black institution for their undergraduate education. Those who attended a historically black institution often referred to the campus environment as being "nurturing and supportive." Those who attend predominantly white institutions often referred to the campus environment as "hostile and indifferent." These environments are discussed in detail in the following summaries.

Predominantly white institutional undergraduate education

Most studies on African-American students attending predominantly white institutions commonly report three areas of difficulty for African-American students. These areas are: (1) their social and economic characteristics; (2) their levels of adjustment; and (3) their academic success/attrition rates (Allen, 1985; Blackwell, 1983; Fleming, 1984; Gregg, 1989; Nettles et al., 1985). All respondents reported that attending a predominantly white institution required an overall "psychosocial adjustment." Psychosocial adjustment is defined for the purpose of this study as the mental adjustments necessary to ensure a successful social, cultural, and academic environment. A closer examination of these "psychosocial adjustments" is provided in the following specific responses from Iowa State University students:

I am adjusted in class when I am working with and conversing with others, but after class there is not much for me to do as
far as social enjoyment that reflects me as an African-American male.

This man confessed to the facade of seeming adjustment when, in fact, he was miserable. The college environment is a source of tension for all students, but it is especially difficult for African-American males without trusted people to help them work through their natural development (Hughes, 1987). The tension which the African-American male graduate students referred to can be illustrated in the following responses:

Socially, it's tough. Whites outnumber us by far and it's frustrating when you are stereotyped in everything.

I have adjusted socially, but I am not happy. My satisfaction with the environment has diminished after four years of racism.

I have decided to tough it out. I will resurface and continue my life when this sentence is over.

These individual responses are consistent with the selected review of literature on African-American students' socialization. The responses above illustrate that these African-American male graduate students attending Iowa State University consciously gauge and postpone the level and intensity of their social, personal, emotional, and cultural development. Also illustrated from their statements is the fact that they experience personal frustration with the lack of preparedness of the university to provide services and programs in response to their diverse needs.

Consistent with the literature, the following statement from one respondent according to Hughes (1987) demonstrates the socialization
process that African-American male students experience on predominantly white campuses:

African-American men seem especially traumatized on predominantly white campuses. It is not unusual for this trauma to produce increased guardedness and rigidity, which further alienates the African-American male from his environment and exacerbates the problem. Thus, the trend of African-American men to retreat, withdraw, or drop out of college is predictable. (p. 542)

In this study, 9 percent referred to their undergraduate experience while attending Iowa State University as traumatizing. Despite the initial difficulties experienced by African-American students, many make the required adjustments and are academically successful in predominantly white institutions (Allen, 1986; Cuviet, 1961; Astin, 1982). As illustrated by the individual responses, this is also true for African-American male graduate students attending Iowa State University.

Historically black college undergraduate education More than half (59 percent) of the respondents earned their undergraduate degrees from historically black colleges. Historically black colleges have enrolled students who might not otherwise be able to attend college because of financial or academic barriers (Williams, 1986; Holman, 1985; Poussaint, 1985). Historically black colleges pride themselves on their ability to take less prepared African-American students as they are, improve their academic deficiencies, and graduate them equipped to compete successfully for jobs or graduate/professional school placements in the wider society. When African-American students’ psychosocial development is compared to African-Americans on white campuses, those on black campuses tend to fare much better (Fleming, 1984). Fleming also
demonstrated that African-American students have much higher levels of psychosocial adjustments on black campuses than do those on white campuses.

Respondents who had attended historically black colleges for their undergraduate education indicated a higher degree of admiration and supported these colleges through alumni contributions. Some selected responses to the statement "Describe your undergraduate campus" were:

Great . . . socially. Everyone knew each other and it was a good nurturing environment for academic and personal development.

Very connected and positive. The instructors challenged me to think on many levels. They wanted to know how you arrived at that conclusion, what books have you read to back that particular fact, and how all of that made you arrive at that conclusion.

It is one that is stimulating. It is an accomplishment that I will cherish for the rest of my life. One of the best decisions that I have ever made.

All of the cited responses were from students who had attended historically black institutions. The respondents indicated that the support systems on the predominantly Black campus assisted them in their social, cultural, emotional, intellectual, and spiritual development. Nurturance, confidence building, and positive identity formation are fortified on these campuses.

Financial Aid

Financial aid funds were provided by higher education institutions, state governments, and the federal government to assist students in defraying the costs of higher education (Dunn, 1988). Stampen and Fenske
(1987) explained that minority enrollment increases when initiatives like student financial aid increase.

Eighty-six percent of respondents reported that they were supported by graduate assistantships (research and teaching assistantships), and 9 percent by loans and an assistantship. Only 5 percent represented several combinations of a graduate assistantship with one or more types of financial aid. Seventy-seven percent of the students were supported by the Minority Student Affairs office and not by their departments. Only 32 percent were supported by their departments. Fifty-five percent of the respondents felt that they did not receive full support. A majority of the students (59 percent) indicated they would owe nothing for their education by the time they completed their education.

Forty-five percent of the respondents indicated that their assistantships did not provide them with professional growth. However, 55 percent indicated that their work experiences were sufficient, considering their course load. The data obtained from respondents on financing their education indicated that an offer of financial aid was a reason for enrolling. Only 9 percent stated that they enrolled in spite of the cost, or that their institution's financial aid offer was no better than that of any other institution.

According to the respondents, the most important factor in recruiting future minority students was increased opportunity for financial aid. More than 73 percent of the respondents agreed that financial aid was an extremely important factor in their decision to attend Iowa State University.
Parental and Community Support—Religion/Spirituality

An African-American student's cultural heritage includes continued support and encouragement from the immediate family, the extended family, and friends from the home community while the student is developing a sense of independence. The strength of this support from family and friends plays a vital role in the student's in-college retention (Hughes, 1987). A student remarked that his college success was attributed to "family support, thoughts of success, thoughts of making my family and community proud, and thoughts of close friends in the home community."

The close relationship that African-Americans maintain with their families suggests patterns of individuation unique to African-American students (Staples, 1986). Staples (1986) stated that, due to the fact that their parents and friends are their sources of strength, survival is not perceived by them as a delay in their development of independence. It merely means that individuation for African-Americans represents an interdependent dimension that ensures contact with family, respect for parental authority, respect the aging persons, and respect for the African-American community (Hughes, 1987). It is likely that African-American individuation helps to integrate Afrocentric cultural values, commonly referred to as the extended family (Nobles, 1985).

One hundred percent reported that their families had been supportive. "Everyone in my family got my Ph.D. with me," said one man who described the extraordinary efforts of his family to provide emotional and practical support. Individual statements indicate the importance of
family support contributing to students' persistence, retention, and success:

No matter how bad things got, they always told me I could make it.

They always gave me constant encouragement, financial and emotional support, and a desire to succeed over any obstacles that may stand in my way.

My mother and grandmother are the reasons that I am who I am. If it had not been for these two people constantly staying on me, I'd hate to think of where I might be or what I might have become.

Based on these comments, a vast majority of the respondents (95 percent) stated that support from family was instrumental in their perseverance in graduate school.

**Spiritual development**

In surveying African-American students and their participation and perceptions in organized religion, Sutton (1991) found that the majority of African-American students indicated that religion had a major impact on their lives. However, respondents of this study indicated that their spiritual development and religious beliefs were hindered during their studies due to the lack of local African-American churches. Therefore, their spiritual development was left to their own individual choices. The following section further examines the significance of spiritual development among African-American male graduate students and African-American students in general.

**Spiritual attributions**

Hughes (1987) states that student development educators espouse values that relate to development of the total person but hesitate to include the dimension of spiritual
development. Styles (1985) asserted that spiritual development is reluctantly integrated into student development programming and is misunderstood in the educational setting because of its traditional association with religions. Students must be permitted to express their individual spiritual identities. Spiritual development is a viable contributing factor to psychological maturity (Styles, 1985).

An open-ended question in this study pertaining to success attributes evoked a response of the importance of spirituality. The following individual statements indicate that spiritual beliefs contributed to students' persistence, retention, and success:

When everything comes tumbling down or closing in on me, I remember to have faith in God to pull me through.

There is no church home here for me, so I satisfy that urge through constant praying and meditation.

My church plays a vital role in my ability to remain in focus and independent. They made me realize that there is an inner source within that, when all else fails, I can rely on that inner strength.

My father was the church; he is a minister. More importantly, I attribute much of my resilience to God.

Reliance on spiritual strength proved to be a determining factor for success for a majority of the respondents (82 percent). These statements support the view that the Afrocentric culture is deeply rooted in spirituality as an archetype that sustains African-American people through many hardships and oppressive conditions, including the condition of slavery, which gave birth to Negro spirituals (Hughes, 1987).
Advantages, Disadvantages, and Problems in Attending a Predominantly White Institution

Open-ended, short-answer questions concerning the advantages, and disadvantages faced by an African-American student at a predominantly white institution elicited responses from the majority of the respondents. To the question, "If a relative or African-American friend of yours was interested in a degree program at this institution, would you encourage him/her to come here?", 64 percent of the respondents answered "yes" and 36 percent answered "no." In many cases, of course, respondents qualified their answers with a listing of other factors, such as the following:

It is not going to be easy. It is a very tough row to hoe, but it can be done and it is worthwhile. Be able to devote yourself to the program for three or four years. You have to have that drive.

Try to link up with a minority professor, if possible. Select a faculty member with whom you feel you could develop a good student/teacher/mentor relationship.

Know you are playing a game.

You should not expect that faculty to reach out and be of great assistance to you just because you are a minority. Remember, it’s just an institution and you can use it or it will use you.

Among advantages listed for attending the institution were those dealing with the overall quality and reputation of the institution, as well as its programs and faculty. In fact, statements about the quality of the institution and its ultimate effect on the marketability of the graduate were clearly the most frequently mentioned. As a group, they accounted for more than 40 percent of the responses.

Approximately one-third of the responses pointed clearly to problems the African-American student would have on a predominantly white campus
because of race. For example, adjusting to a large institution, being away from home, or making friends are problems any student could face, but they may be more severe for minority students at a predominantly white institution. The remaining disadvantages cited definitely did not appear to have racial foundations or overtones, and reflected issues that could be equally problematic for the African-American or white student.

Other disadvantages cited were inadequate social functions, disproportionate minority faculty members to serve as role models, and faculty/staff members who demonstrated insensitivity and hostility to minority students' concerns and issues.

Factors influencing decision to pursue higher education

Fifty-five percent decided to study for a doctorate because they wanted more knowledge or expertise in their field (one student said he was motivated by a "thirst for knowledge"), while 45 percent indicated that a doctorate was required for job advancement and competitiveness.

Respondents indicated two main reasons which influenced their decision to go to college: the unattractive job prospects without a degree (68 percent) and their parents' expectations (32 percent). "I just couldn't figure out how to get what I wanted without a college degree," said one respondent. The other remaining 23 percent indicated that they decided to attend for their own personal gratification. Fifty-nine percent said that parents were most influential in their desire to go to college. "My parents always expected me to go to college," said one respondent. Another said, "My parents were very interested in education and wanted all of their children to go to college."
Thirty-nine percent indicated that no advice given was to accurately describe the problems encountered by being an African-American male student. While the respondents may have been implying a failure to describe general problems as much as those specifically related to African-American students, clearly admissions counselors, Minority Student Affairs advisors, and professors are expected to provide better information on potential problems for African-American students at predominantly white institutions.

Respondents also reiterated the importance and need for increasing the number of minority faculty, staff, and administrators and the need for sponsoring more minority-oriented cultural and social events on campus. Over 68 percent of the students recommended that more institutional information be directed toward minority student problems and concerns, particularly African-American male problems. This need could be resolved by an increased use of minority students and faculty in student recruiting and by more extensive use of minority admissions counselors in student recruiting. Both measures were deemed important by African-American male graduate students.

While 59 percent of the respondents thought increased tutorial and counseling help would prove important in attracting minority students, they ascribed less significance to the need for remedial and review work. Neither different admissions standards nor special minority living accommodations were considered very important as a recruiting device for African-American male graduate students.
Summary of Theoretical Categories

The findings presented in this chapter report attitudes, perceptions, and opinions as they relate to the success of African-American male graduate students. All data extracted from the interviews support preliminary theoretical categories stated in Chapter I.

Data gathered through documentary review and semi-structured interviews revealed the following emergent categories:

a. **Personal Characteristic Profiles.** This category was divided into age, highest level of current education, post-secondary school attended, credit load, grade point average, and research interest. The emerging relationships between each area achieved saturation as coding developed. Two of the emerging relationships were as follows: (1) Those respondents who were enrolled in eight or fewer credits tended to express less stress and their grade point average was higher than those who were enrolled in nine or more credits; and (2) this profile can serve as a guide for academic counseling.

b. **Graduate Assistantship/Mentoring Experiences.** This category examined interpersonal relationships with mentors, faculty, and students. It also included areas relative to the kinds of experiences provided in assistantships. Later, the saturation of these experiences derived a category of sufficient experiences in assistantship vs. non-sufficient experiences in assistantship. Some emerging relationships were exhibited between the student and his major professor. Also, comments were directed to the professional development of the responsibilities which were assigned for their graduate assistantship. These comments included
working on research projects with their major professors, presenting at conferences with major professors, etc. This information could be used by advisors as a guide to develop assignments for graduate students that would assist in their professional and personal development.

c. **Undergraduate Teacher Expectations of Student Achievement and Current Graduate Education Experiences.** These categories investigated the impact of institutional environment and teacher expectations on student performance. Saturation was achieved through listing each experience as positive or negative, and listing recommendations that would have improved their experiences as an undergraduate and graduate student. This was also the area in which the institutional type played a vital role in determining the positive or negative impact on their undergraduate education. Respondents who indicated their undergraduate institution as being historically black, exhibited a strong sense of "self" as it relates to the "African-American" experience. This environment allowed the student to become involved in extracurricular activities. This is not to say that those respondents who attended a predominantly white institution did not exhibit the same sense of self; however, it was stated by these respondents that there was difficulty in being accepted in many of the extracurricular activities. The emerging relationships of the data imply that the comments, suggestions, and ideals for identifying current concerns and issues that African-American male graduate students may view as important. By identifying these issues, recommendations could be submitted to the administration to facilitate change in the campus environment.
This section was combined with their graduate school experience as it relates to interpersonal relationships with mentors, faculty, and staff. These emergent relationships could render suggestions for changing the classroom environment to produce a better learning environment. Activities tailored to include activities such as receptions or meetings at the homes of faculty, support of African-American male organizations, program sensitivity training for faculty and staff.

d. Sources of Financial Aid. This category was saturated into three areas: grants, loans, and work (assistantships). The majority of the respondents received a combination of each category for their financial aid package. These data could facilitate the development of recruiting packages for incoming African-American male graduate students. Students could be informed of financial aid options available to them in financing their education and prior to their arrival. Also, this information could be presented to the students in their initial correspondence from the financial aid office.

e. Parental and Community Support. This area allowed the psychosocial aspect of the students' development to emerge. Most of the respondents mentioned the importance of family and spirituality as being attributes of their personal development. Spirituality emerged as the discussion of religion was presented during the interview. Therefore, aspects of spirituality can be used in planning and implementing programs to meet their needs, for example, a listing of churches in the community to be included in the students' orientation packets. Also, geographical
clubs could be organized to offer a "closeness" and a sense of "belonging" to counteract the sense of alienation.

f. Advantage, Disadvantages, and Problems in Attending a Predominantly White Institution. Students gave descriptions of how they viewed Iowa State's campus upon arrival. These perceptions were later categorized as positive or negative perceptions. These data could be used departmentally in a mentoring program within the student's college to match incoming students with a professor with similar research or teaching background. In this section, students defined their wants and needs in attending a predominantly white institution. These suggestions are further discussed in Chapter V.

The respondents in this study were African-American males, over 23 years of age, single and married, full-time graduate students attending Iowa State University (ISU). Most of the students entered ISU with full admission status, and the clear majority intended to complete their degrees at Iowa State University. Most of those completing master's degrees planned to further their education. Financing their college education was clearly a concern for African-American male graduate students, with most relying on a combination of funds from federal, personal, and institutional sources for educational support.

The respondents overwhelmingly suggested that currently Iowa State University was not making a sincere effort to recruit or retain minority faculty members, and that special consideration should be given to appointment of more African-American faculty and administrators. All participants indicated that at Iowa State University, African-American
faculty were judged to be more supportive of African-American male graduate students, in contrast to white faculty, who were biased, not particularly helpful, and not very knowledgeable about the contributions of minorities in their respective fields of study.

The African-American male graduate students thought more consideration should be given to minority student interests, including more minority input into planning and developing programs to meet their needs. The respondents expressed isolation on campus because white students generally did not make any effort to involve African-Americans in campus events. This socialization was provided only through the Minority Student Affairs office and not the campus-wide community. While the campus was not as fully integrated as they would have liked, African-American students also admitted making no special efforts to include white students in their activities. Nevertheless, African-American male students thought it was important to make friends with their peers, as opposed to white friends. They also indicated that their social contacts included both white and African-American students.

Most of the African-American male students apparently chose to attend a predominantly white institution because of its recognized quality and reputation. The influence of parents, teachers, counselors, and friends on that decision was not particularly significant. According to African-American male graduate student responses, increased financial aid opportunities would be the most important factor for predominantly white institutions in recruiting and retaining minority students. Increased numbers of African-American faculty and administrators and increased
minority-oriented campus activities would also be essential. Though
different admissions standards and special living accommodations were not
considered critical to the successful recruitment of African-American
students, more tutorial and counseling help was thought to be helpful.
Respondents could have used more information—preferably transmitted by
African-American students, faculty, and counselors—about problems and
concerns minority students could have on campus.

The respondents expressed the attitude they had an additional burden
to bear as African-American male graduate students on Iowa State's campus.
Racial problems, though not so evident as in the '60s and '70s, apparently
have not disappeared. However, in spite of the problems African-Americans
encounter, the students as a whole do not intend to leave higher education
or this institution. In fact, some would recommend this institution to
African-American friends or relatives, with proper advising of prospective
students regarding the institution and problems that they will encounter
as African-American students.
CHAPTER V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter includes four sections—a summary of the study, conclusion, a substantive theory of success factors of African-American male graduate students, and recommendations for future research.

Summary of the Study

This study used the constant comparative methodology to develop a grounded theory of African-American male graduate students' successful completion of undergraduate education and graduate experiences. The study used documentary research and semi-structured interviews to gather data pertaining to minority student participation in higher education generally and specifically African-American male participation in higher education.

The study used a series of semi-structured interviews, each examining the events, behaviors, and attitudes of each participant’s undergraduate and graduate education experiences. These perceptions, attitudes, and opinions were all categorized to determine saturation of data.

The data gathered in each interview were examined to determine whether the preliminary theoretical categories derived from the review of literature were supported. Each interview contributed to the development of some previously identified emerging theoretical categories, failed to support others, and/or identified new emerging categories. These new categories were then compared to data gathered in succeeding cases to
saturate theoretical categories initially identified or emergent categories. The emergent saturated categories were:

a. Personal characteristic profiles.
b. Graduate assistantship/mentoring experiences.
c. Undergraduate teacher expectations of student achievement and current graduate education experiences.
d. Sources of financial aid.
e. Parental and community support.
f. Advantages, disadvantages, and problems in attending a predominantly white institution.

Implicit in the responses obtained from the interviews was the fact that the African-American male students choose, enroll in, and remain at predominantly white institutions because they are convinced that the educational benefits derived from the experience are worth any extra effort, struggle, or other consideration necessary. In response to that commitment, it seems appropriate that Iowa State University is making gains in meeting the special needs identified by African-American students. However, improvements are needed to meet special needs of African-American graduate male students. One suggestion to address some of these special needs would be more culturally oriented activities. These activities should be designed to enhance interpersonal relationships with administrators and faculty, and should involve more out-reach activities by the local business community. The reputation of Iowa State University and the financial aid package incentives may not continue to
attract and retain minority students if the quality of life for these students does not improve.

To minimize the pressures and problems of African-American male graduate students just because there are no open racial conflicts—or to assume no discrimination because the rules no longer permit such action—is to ignore the evidence presented in this study that many African-American male students feel isolated, ignored, and discriminated against on Iowa State's campus. It could be concluded that predominantly white institutions simply need to be more sensitive to the needs of African-American males. It is probably more accurate to infer that the white majority needs to be more emphatic about its commitment to providing equal opportunities for all students. The African-American male graduate students' concern for their noninvolvement in campus activities and organization, for example, may not mean that they are being purposely excluded, but rather that they are not being purposely included.

Many individuals and groups at Iowa State University are in fact making conscious efforts to overcome historical imbalances and to meet the needs of their minority students and classmates. It would be difficult to find a major institution of higher education that could not point to some programs designed to recruit, retain, or in some way meet minority students' needs. Few institutions, however, would be quick to claim overwhelming success for their programs.

Clearly, the data from this study do not provide all the solutions to problems African-American male students face at predominantly white institution; nor do the results wrestle with the difficulties encountered
by Iowa State University in meeting the needs of its minority students. What these data do is to provide additional insight into the attitudes, opinions, and perceptions of African-American male graduate students at Iowa State University. These data form a basis for additional study and analysis for the institutions seeking to develop programs and policies that will improve services to African-American male students in particular and African-American students in general.

Direct evidence from the data suggest that a first step in meeting the needs of African-American students on a predominantly white campus is to seek greater involvement of African-American students in campus and departmental activities and programs. For Iowa State, African-American students are a source of ideas and energies which need to be tapped in formal and significant ways by students, faculty, and administrators. Special efforts must be made to ensure African-American male representation in planning activities designed both for general campus participation and for all minority students. In many instances, involvement of African-Americans will mean direct solicitation of their input and support, while in other cases it will simply mean giving them the chance to "do their own thing." Under no circumstances should it ever appear that African-American male graduate students are being denied opportunities to contribute to or participate in campus and departmental programs.

Although the respondents did not seem to have been overly influenced by other African-American students in their choice of a college for their graduate program, they did suggest that the increased use of minority
students and faculty in recruiting would help attract African-American applicants. The students expressed concerns about being advised inadequately by admissions counselors about problems they would face as minority students. Currently enrolled students, who are often in a better position than counselors, faculty, or administrators to tell the prospective students what they want or need to know, have successfully assembled recruitment brochures to address the perceived informational needs of minority students.

Another concern suggested by this study is the African-American students' conclusion that Iowa State University is not making sincere efforts to recruit African-American faculty, or, for that matter, African-American students. Their charges may be true, though the pressures for affirmative action and desegregation suggest that African-American students are not fully aware of some of Iowa State's efforts in recruiting minority faculty and students. This apparent misunderstanding perhaps reflects both the lack of African-American student involvement and the failure of the faculty and administration to keep its student constituents informed about institutional problems and concerns.

It may be productive for the administration to explain to students its efforts and problems in recruiting minority faculty and students and to solicit their help. For example, considering the shortage of African-American academic employee-power and the intense competition for qualified personnel, an aggressive and active African-American student group could help sway a candidate in favor of a particular institution. Also, because African-American students on campus will be the chief source of African-
American faculty in the near future, it may be more than just superficial enlightenment for the African-American student to hear about the job market for African-American faculty. In any event, involvement in the recruitment of minority faculty and students could benefit everyone involved.

It is important that African-American students have channels through which their concerns can be heard, respected, and acted upon. Without a formal way for the institution to recognize and deal with the issues, few problems identified by African-American male students will find resolutions.

The findings of this study should not be taken as an indictment of predominantly white colleges as learning environments for African-American male students. The data simply underscore the need for continued efforts on both sides between African-American students, particularly African-American males, and the administration. From the evidence provided by the African-American male graduate students, the problem of institutional abandonment, isolation, and bias in the social and cultural limitations of the community needs to be addressed.

In some respects, it may be more sensible to discuss retention prior to recruitment, in that success in retention makes success in recruitment easier. Obviously, a university or program which attempts to make minority students welcome and valued will have more success in attracting additional minority students. Further, such an environment is more likely to retain students to the point of attaining a degree.
Once again, there are a variety of strategies which can be used to retain African-American male students, but the following strategies were those most cited by the participants in this study:

1. Activities should be tailored for African-American male graduate students. These include receptions or meetings at the homes of faculty, and guest minority lecturers who visit campus for a day or two. Social as well as academic activities are appropriate.

2. Support of African-American male student organizations should be established, e.g., One Hundred Black Men. Such organizations can be a useful support network for minority students for academic, emotional, and social issues. These organizations also can be helpful in the recruitment of new students and in providing feedback to the department or to the program on minority-related issues.

3. Sensitivity training should be required. Minority issues should be part of the curriculum and training of all students—no less than, for example, women’s issues. Where minority perspectives differ from nonminority, such differences should be acknowledged and not treated as aberrant. Research topics which deal with minority issues should be acceptable. Not all minority students will be interested in such issues, but students should not be discouraged from pursuing them.
Minority faculty recruitment needs to be increased. The most obvious need is for minority faculty. Clearly, not every program will be able to have an adequate representation of minority faculty in the foreseeable future. However, to develop minority faculty, minority graduate students are the first step. Apart from the desirability of having minority faculty, it is important to have a degree of consensus and support from faculty. The support may be rather passive, but the active interest of some faculty is necessary. Major decisions concerning students are made by faculty. Beginning with the decision to admit and concluding with the approval of the dissertation, faculty have control of the gates through which students must pass on the way to the degree. If faculty members are not members of minority groups themselves, a special sensitivity and commitment is required. This is not to say that heroic efforts are required by faculty in order to retain minority students. It is the case, however, that in most programs there are not enough minority faculty to serve as role models, nor do they have the time to accommodate the needs of all minority students. Further, the minority students can be quite isolated from the informal contacts—the "hall culture," the "laboratory culture"—which are an invaluable part of the educational process. A sensitivity to the isolation and to their sometimes special needs may be required.
African-American male students share half the responsibility for what happens to them during the college graduate years. African-American male students must continue to guard their educational rights and speak out when necessary. Yet, the tendency to withdraw from academics and divert frustration into less constructive outlets—a tendency so prominent among minority students as a whole and African-American males in particular—serves to keep intellectual gains at a minimum. The task for African-American male students on white campuses is to direct frustration into, not away from, academic activities; to challenge rather than retreat from unfairness in the classroom, and to find constructive means of encouraging helpful peer contact rather than mutual avoidance. Keeping the struggle against racism in education in the appropriate arena might well obviate the need for compensatory strategies that have little educational value.

A Grounded Theory of Success Factors of African-American Male Graduate Students

This exploratory study has identified six theoretical categories which became sufficiently saturated with data to support the following theory for this study.

African-American male graduate students who attended historically black undergraduate institutions displayed a strong self-image and displayed high aspirations of educational attainment. However, they realized that most predominantly white universities are not necessarily conducive for their social, emotional, and cultural development.
Nurturance, confidence building, and positive identity formation are stifled on predominantly white campuses as endorsed by this study.

African-American male students who attended predominantly white and predominantly black universities as undergraduates realized that they must be self-starters who are fully independent persons with strong defenses to combat stereotypes, fears, alienation, and loneliness. They conceive that they must defer their social, personal, emotional, and cultural development until they complete their programs.

Reliance on family and spiritual strength was cited as being equally important in sustaining a positive attitude. As stated by Hughes (1987), an African-American student's cultural heritage includes continued support and encouragement from the immediate family, the extended family, and friends from the home community. Most of the respondents, when asked, "what is the most important factor which sustains your ability to continue in graduate school?", responded overwhelmingly, "my family—immediate and extended."

According to this study, financial aid consisted of loans and assistantships. Financial aid packages should be used as an incentive for students to persist, not just to recruit them. A majority of the respondents indicated that the experiences gained from these assistantships were not adequate to their professional and personal development. However, these experiences were often viewed as an opportunity to devote more time to their academic preparation. Mentoring may be a vital and essential part of graduate education, and faculty and
administrators should be involved actively in fostering such critical relationships.

African-American male graduate students tended to seek external affiliations with an African-American community. Most stated that they had a "renewed" spirit upon returning back to school from home. This pattern of affiliation for African-American students as a whole is a result of experiences of social isolation. The respondents maintained peer relationships with other African-American males as a source of "connectedness" which reinforced their masculine principles and African-American "identity."

The African-American male graduate students in this study realized that change was slow. However, they indicated that strategies and programs to meet their needs as students were not viewed as being important. There appeared to be few intervention programs which were designed to promote tolerance of diversity of values among minority and majority population groups. They also implied that minority groups, particularly African-American males, continued to compete against one another, while the majority population was largely disengaged from the goal of creating and living in a diverse population. However, they also felt the universities were in a unique position to reverse the current societal pattern through purposeful programming.

Recommendations for Future Research

The following recommendations are the result of observations made during the course of this study. The emerging categories and areas offer suggestions that may guide further research.
Also, the grounded theory approach to African-American male graduate students' success may benefit from the application of appropriate quantitative methods to test its component parts. The theory or parts of the theory may be tested using statistical analysis of survey-generated data from a larger study population.

Comparative studies should be conducted in different institutional types, such as private two-year, public two-year, private or public four-year institutions, and historically black institutions.

Prospective Topics for Future Research

This study included "success factors" that resulted in African-American males enrolling in graduate programs. Researchers could also examine the effect of the "nigrescence" theory of personal identity as it relates to group identity among graduate students (Cross, 1991).

Quantitative analysis should be considered for "success factors" using appropriate statistical methods. Survey research can examine whether African-American males seek to enter graduate programs primarily for personal gains or for the purpose of personal compatibility.

Future researchers, using qualitative or quantitative methods, may examine the extent to which institutions fully understand the plight of African-American males in the educational system. Finally, future research may also examine reasons why African-American males drop out or withdraw from graduate programs.
Closing Statement

A sufficient number of African-Americans, both students and faculty, must be present on campus to help eliminate the feelings of isolation and loneliness. Faculty and staff who are sensitive to multicultural issues and have expertise to assist with eliminating dissonance must be available. White faculty and staff who are willing to teach, mentor, and tutor African-American students must be accessible. Institutional racism must be eradicated. The entire university is responsible for the problems of African-American student retention, particularly African-American male student retention. A better understanding of the overall educational experience of African-American male graduate students by faculty and administrators and greater interaction among all three of these groups may facilitate the support systems which could add immeasurably to the development and well-being of the African-American male graduate student on a predominantly white campus.
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...If ye have faith as a grain of mustard seed, ye shall say unto this mountain, Remove hence to yonder place; and it shall remove; and nothing shall be impossible unto you. (St. Matthew 17:20)

My deepest love and sincere gratitude are extended to my parents, who planted and nurtured the seeds of self-love and whose faith never waivers. Thank you for encouraging me to aspire to excellence and giving me the strong foundation to make it possible. To my grandmother, whose example of hard work and faith in the Almighty helped me to aspire to do great things and for giving me that extra "kick" whenever needed. To my brother Ray, whose journey to Iowa gave me my "true" sense of family and continues to replenish me with love and laughter. To my "twin" brother Earl, who continues to demonstrate that one can overcome any obstacle that may fall in your way, thanks for being there to listen to my complaints. Lastly, to my teachers everywhere who must have planted in me my thirst of knowledge and drive. Because of these people, I will continue my efforts to inspire, teach, and direct children in the world of education. Thank you so much for your support and encouragement.

To Dr. Jacquie (Momma "J"), your protection and love helped me to remain focused and keep my "eyes on the prize." To Carlie (Momma "C") and Gary Tartakov for being the parents "away from home," your constant love and caring during this program will stay with me always. Finally, to Joan ("Momma International"), your words spoken to me in the States were echoed from across the waters of Europe. Words cannot express what your support has meant to me. All of you managed to keep me going when I thought the
chips were down. Thank you for being you and giving me those hugs and kisses of support.

To Harvey, your support during the last few months of this project was outstanding. Thank you for your friendship and pushing me to strive for excellence.

I wish to express my sincere appreciation to my doctoral committee: Dr. William Wolansky, Coordinator and Professor International Education at Iowa State University; Dr. Larry H. Ebbers, Professor and Chair of the Department of Professional Studies in the College of Education at Iowa State University; Dr. Dan Robinson, Professor and Section Leader of Higher Education in the Department of Professional Studies at Iowa State University; Dr. Mack Shelley, Professor in the Departments of Political Science and Statistics at Iowa State University and Dr. Sally Williams, Professor of International Home Economics in the Department of Family and Consumer Sciences at Iowa State University. You all have played a major role in my educational development.

A special thank you goes to my Major Professor, Dr. William Wolansky, for his support and encouragement during the course of this research. That support was vitally important to my success and is particularly appreciated.

To Dr. Larry H. Ebbers, thank you for inspiring me to take on this enormous project and for being so constructive and cooperative in making the research more cohesive, more consistent and more concise. Thanks for those "teachable moments." They will remain with me throughout my life.
To the pastor and members of New Hope C.M.E. church in Pine Bluff, Arkansas, thank you for your constant prayers and support.

Finally, to all my colleagues, family, and friends (Laura, Beverlyn, Alyse, Pat, Rita, Linda, "B.J." Sharon, Rose, Mike, Keith, Dennis and Annette, Twylia, Leonard, and Karən), thank you all for your direct and indirect contributions, your support, and your love. Those countless phone calls are irreplaceable. To all of my colleagues too numerous to mention, thanks for being there for me.

To Dr. Joann Hortin ("Jo"), thanks for showing me new heights and depths to my personal and professional growth. You have truly been a role model and a dear friend from whom I have acquired many virtues. Thanks for assisting in my "transformation" and being so positive.

Finally, to my typist, Carolyn, thank you for your patience and skills. If it had not been for your "amazing" usage of the computer, life would have been miserable and my completion of this project would have seemed impossible. Thanks for helping me climb my mountain.

A lot of people played a major role in helping me become and continue to be the best that I can be. To everyone involved, I must thank you for pushing me as hard as you have.
APPENDIX A. SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW
Semi-structured interview guide

FACTORS AFFECTING AFRICAN-AMERICAN MALE GRADUATE STUDENTS;
A GROUNDED THEORY APPROACH

START TAPE

DATE OF INTERVIEW: ________________________________

SECTION I. PERSONAL IDENTIFICATION DATA

Information sought from the respondent:

1. **AGE:** ________________________________

2. **MARITAL STATUS:** ________________________________

3. **WHAT YEAR DID YOU RECEIVE YOUR HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA?** ______

4. **HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL LEVEL ATTAINED:** ________________________________

5. **GRADUATE PROGRAM:** ________________________________

6. **DEPARTMENT/COLLEGE:** ________________________________

7. **DATE STARTED PROGRAM:** ________________________________

8. **ANTICIPATED GRADUATION DATE:** ________________________________

9. **WHAT POST-SECONDARY SCHOOL(S) DID YOU ATTEND?**

   ________________________________

10. **WHY DID YOU LEAVE?** ________________________________

11. **RESEARCH INTERESTS/SUBJECT?** ________________________________

   ________________________________

12. **INTERVIEW LOCATION:** ________________________________

13. **RESPONDENT’S NAME:** ________________________________

14. **RESPONDENT’S POSITION AND TITLE:** ________________________________

   This interview is being conducted by CORTEZ HENDERSON AND     
   ________________________________. It is being taped with the understanding
that all information will be used and reported in such a way that
the identity and responses of the respondent will not be divulged.
There are 87 African-American male graduate students attending Iowa
State University (as identified by the Admissions Office). This
preliminary interview design may be modified as the research
progresses in order to achieve saturation of theoretical categories,
as suggested by Glaser and Strauss (1965) in the development of
grounded theory.
Is the interview agreeable to you under these terms?

15. ___________________ RECORD RESPONSE AND NOTE ANY MODIFICATIONS
REQUESTED BY THE RESPONDENT.

The purpose of our interview is to discuss your situation that
existed prior to your current decision to go to graduate school.

16. WHEN DID YOU FIRST CONSIDER GRADUATE STUDIES? ______________

17. WERE YOU EMPLOYED BEFORE COMING TO ISU? ______________

 TITLE ___________ LOCATION ___________ DATES _________

GRADUATE ASSISTANTSHIP EXPERIENCES

1. DO YOU HAVE A GRADUATE RESEARCH, TEACHING, OR ADMINISTRATIVE
ASSISTANTSHIP, FELLOWSHIP AND/OR GRANT? ______________

2. WHO SUPPORTS THIS ASSISTANTSHIP, MINORITY AFFAIRS OR YOUR
DEPARTMENT? ______________

3. WHAT DEPARTMENT IS YOUR ASSISTANTSHIP IN? ______________
4. DOES YOUR ASSISTANTSHIP PROVIDE EXPERIENCES APPROPRIATE FOR PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL GROWTH?

5. WHAT KINDS OF EXPERIENCES ARE PROVIDED?

6. WHAT KINDS OF EXPERIENCES WERE YOU PROMISED?

7. WHAT KINDS OF RESPONSIBILITIES HAVE YOU BEEN ASSIGNED?

8. WHAT KIND OF EXPERIENCES WOULD YOU PREFER?
SECTION II. CLASSROOM AND TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT AND EXPERIENCES OF GRADUATE EDUCATION

1. HOW MANY CREDITS ARE YOU CURRENTLY ENROLLED IN? ______________

2. WHAT IS YOUR AREA OF STUDY? ________________________________

3. IS YOUR MAJOR PROFESSOR WILLING TO SHARE INFORMATION ABOUT REQUIREMENTS AND ASSIGNMENTS ON A FORMAL AND ON AN INFORMAL BASIS? ________________________________

4. DOES YOUR PROFESSOR(S) GIVE ACKNOWLEDGMENT TO YOUR COMMENTS AND REMARKS? ________________________________

5. DO YOU GET POSITIVE/NEGATIVE REINFORCEMENT OR FEEDBACK ON YOUR REMARKS MADE DURING CLASS? ________________________________

6. HOW DO YOU INTERPRET THAT FEEDBACK? ________________________________

7. DO YOU FEEL LIKE A PARTICIPANT IN THE CLASS? ________________________________

8. WHEN ASSIGNED TO A RESEARCH GROUP, DO YOU FEEL ALIENATED? _____

9. WHAT ARE YOUR STRONGEST CONTRIBUTION(S) AS A GROUP PARTICIPANT? ________________________________
10. WHAT ARE YOUR WEAKEST CONTRIBUTION(S) AS A GROUP PARTICIPANT?


11. DOES YOUR MAJOR PROFESSOR GIVE YOU POSITIVE REINFORCEMENT? _____


12. IS YOUR MAJOR PROFESSOR WILLING TO GIVE ASSISTANCE WHEN NEEDED?


13. DOES THE PROFESSOR(S) DELEGATE RESPONSIBILITIES THAT INDICATE HE/SHE TRUSTS YOU AS AN INTELLECTUAL? ______


14. WHAT FACTORS CONTRIBUTED MOST TO YOUR PERSISTENCE IN GRADUATE SCHOOL? ______


15. OF THESE FACTORS, WHICH WAS THE MOST IMPORTANT IN KEEPING YOU IN GRADUATE SCHOOL? ______


16. DOES YOUR MAJOR PROFESSOR(S) PROVIDE ANY ASSISTANCE IN CAREER PLANNING, GOAL SETTING, OR CAREER OPTIONS? ______


SECTION III. FINANCIAL AID INDEBTEDNESS (UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE EDUCATION)

1. WHAT DEGREE DID YOU OBTAIN IN YOUR UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION?

2. WHAT WAS YOUR MINOR AREA OF STUDY?

3. WAS YOUR UNDERGRADUATE INSTITUTION A PREDOMINANTLY WHITE INSTITUTION OR A HISTORICALLY BLACK INSTITUTION?

4. HOW LONG DID IT TAKE? _______________ WHEN DID YOU GRADUATE?

5. PLEASE ESTIMATE HOW WELL YOU DID IN ALL OF YOUR COURSEWORK FOR YOUR UNDERGRADUATE DEGREE ___________________________

6. WHAT IS YOUR CURRENT GPA?

7. FOR THE DEGREE LISTED ABOVE, ABOUT WHAT PROPORTION OF YOUR TOTAL EDUCATION EXPENSES WAS PAID FOR BY EACH OF THE FOLLOWING SOURCES?

   A. YOUR OWN EARNINGS AND PERSONAL SAVINGS _____________%

   B. YOUR SPOUSE'S EARNINGS _______________ _____________%

   C. CONTRIBUTIONS OR LOANS FROM PARENTS ... _____________%

   D. CONTRIBUTIONS OR LOANS FROM RELATIVES AND FRIENDS _____________

   E. CONTRIBUTIONS OR LOANS FROM EMPLOYERS _____________%

   F. LOANS (GSL, PLUS) ________________ _____________%

   G. GRANTS/SCHOLARSHIPS ________________ _____________%

   H. ASSISTANTSHIP OR FELLOWSHIPS ________________ _____________%

   I. OTHER FINANCIAL AID ________________ _____________%

   TOTAL = 100%
8. DID YOU EVER APPLY FOR FINANCIAL AID TO HELP PAY THE COSTS OF SCHOOL FOR YOUR UNDERGRADUATE DEGREE (GRANTS, SCHOLARSHIPS, LOANS, ETC.)?  
YES ____________________  NO ____________________

9. HOW MUCH WERE YOU AWARDED?  ____________________

10. FOR EACH TYPE OF FINANCIAL AID LISTED, PLEASE INDICATE WHETHER YOU EVER RECEIVED SUCH AID FOR YOUR GRADUATE EDUCATION.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GRANTS/SCHOLARSHIP</th>
<th>RESPONSE (CIRCLE)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. STATE</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. FEDERAL</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. INSTITUTIONAL</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. OTHER</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LOANS</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E. FEDERAL GSL</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. OTHER</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. STATE</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. INSTITUTIONAL</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. OTHER</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OTHER TYPES OF AID</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>K. WORK STUDY</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. FELLOWSHIP</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M. ASSISTANTSHIP</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. CONSULTANT</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. WHAT WAS THE TOTAL AMOUNT OF MONEY YOU BORROWED FOR EDUCATION TOWARD THIS DEGREE? (INCLUDE ALL LOANS FROM PARENT(S), OTHER RELATIVES AND FRIENDS, OR LOANS THAT HAVE BEEN REPAID). ____________________
12. HOW MUCH OF YOUR TOTAL EDUCATIONAL LOANS DO YOU STILL OWE?

13. ARE YOU ON SABBATICAL?

14. DOES YOUR INSTITUTION CONTINUE TO PAY YOU IN FULL YOUR AGREED SALARY WHILE ATTENDING SCHOOL? YES _______ NO _______

15. IF YES, WHAT ARE THE CIRCUMSTANCES REGARDING YOUR RETURN TO WORK?

16. IF NO, WHAT MOTIVATED YOU TO CONTINUE YOUR EDUCATION WITHOUT THE FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE?

17. ARE THERE OTHER FINANCIAL MATTERS WHICH INFLUENCED YOUR COMPLETION OF THIS DEGREE?
SECTION IV. UNDERGRADUATE PREPARATION AND PERFORMANCE

1. WHAT INSTITUTION DID YOU ATTEND? _________________________________

2. WHAT WAS YOUR AREA OF STUDY? _________________________________

3. WAS YOUR PROFESSOR(S) WILLING TO SHARE INFORMATION ABOUT
   REQUIREMENTS, AND ASSIGNMENTS ON A FORMAL AND INFORMAL BASIS?
   _________________________________________________________________

4. DID THE PROFESSOR(S) GIVE ACKNOWLEDGMENT TO YOUR COMMENTS AND
   REMARKS? ____________________________________________________

5. DID YOU GET POSITIVE/NEGATIVE REINFORCEMENT OR FEEDBACK ON YOUR
   REMARKS MADE DURING CLASS? _________________________________

6. HOW DID YOU INTERPRET THAT FEEDBACK? __________________________

7. DID YOU FEEL LIKE A PARTICIPANT IN THE CLASS? __________________

8. WHEN ASSIGNED TO A STUDY GROUP, DID YOU FEEL ALIENATED? _______

9. WHAT WERE YOUR STRONGEST CONTRIBUTION(S) AS A GROUP PARTICIPANT?
   _________________________________________________________________

10. WHAT WERE YOUR WEAKEST CONTRIBUTION(S) AS A GROUP PARTICIPANT?
    _________________________________________________________________
11. DID THE PROFESSOR(S) GIVE YOU POSITIVE REINFORCEMENT? __________

12. WAS THE PROFESSOR(S) WILLING TO GIVE ASSISTANCE WHEN NEEDED?

13. WHAT FACTORS CONTRIBUTED MOST TO YOUR PERSISTENCE IN UNDERGRADUATE SCHOOL? ______________________________________________________________________________________

14. OF THOSE FACTORS, WHICH WAS THE MOST IMPORTANT IN KEEPING YOU IN UNDERGRADUATE SCHOOL? ______________________________________________________________________________________

15. WHAT INDIVIDUAL HAD THE GREATEST INFLUENCE IN MAKING YOU PURSUE YOUR GRADUATE EDUCATION? ______________________________________________________________________________________

16. DESCRIBE YOUR UNDERGRADUATE CAMPUS ENVIRONMENT. ______________________________________________________________________________________

17. DID THE FACULTY AND ADMINISTRATION DISPLAY A STRONG COMMITMENT TO MINORITY RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION? ______________________________________________________________________________________

17A. IF YES, WHY? ______________________________________________________________________________________

17B. IF NO, WHY NOT? ______________________________________________________________________________________
SECTION V. THE IMPACT OF PARENTAL SUPPORT, RESPONSIBILITIES, MENTORS, AND SIGNIFICANT OTHERS DURING UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE EDUCATION

1. IN WHAT TYPE OF SOCIAL ACTIVITIES DID YOU PARTICIPATE DURING YOUR UNDERGRADUATE COLLEGE YEARS? 

2. WHAT TYPES OF PARENTAL SUPPORT CONTRIBUTED TO YOUR STAYING IN YOUR COLLEGE PROGRAM? 

3. WHO WAS YOUR GREATEST INFLUENCE IN TERMS OF MENTORING OR ROLE MODELS? 

4. DID YOUR COMMUNITY CHURCH/RELIGION PLAY A SUPPORTIVE ROLE? 

5. DO YOU HAVE A STRONG COMMITMENT TO REINVESTING YOUR EDUCATION IN YOUR COMMUNITY? 

5A. WHY? 

6. HOW OFTEN DID YOU GO HOME DURING YOUR UNDERGRADUATE STUDIES? 

7. DOES YOUR HOME COMMUNITY FORTIFY YOUR CONVICTION TO COMPLETE YOUR DEGREE? 

7A. IF YES, WHY? 

7B. IF NO, WHY NOT?
8. WHAT TYPES OF SOCIAL ACTIVITIES HAVE YOU PARTICIPATED IN DURING YOUR GRADUATE EDUCATION? ________________________________

9. DESCRIBE YOUR OPINION REGARDING MENTORING AND THE AVAILABILITY OR LACK OF MENTORING WHILE ATTENDING GRADUATE SCHOOL. ________________________________

10. HAVE YOU ESTABLISHED A SUPPORT GROUP/COMMUNITY WHILE IN Graduate SCHOOL? ________________________________

11. DOES YOUR SPIRITUALITY OR RELIGION PLAY A SIGNIFICANT ROLE IN YOUR PERSEVERANCE DURING GRADUATE SCHOOL? ________________________________

11A. IF YES, WHY? ________________________________

11B. IF NO, WHY NOT? ________________________________

12. HOW OFTEN HAVE YOU VISITED HOME DURING YOUR GRADUATE EDUCATION? ________________________________

13. WHAT RECOMMENDATIONS WOULD YOU SUBMIT TO THE CAMPUS COMMUNITY AND COMMUNITY TO IMPROVE THEIR ENVIRONMENTS FOR MINORITIES? ________________________________
SECTION VI. CAMPUS ENVIRONMENT AND INSTITUTIONAL CLIMATE DURING GRADUATE EDUCATION

1. HOW WOULD YOU DESCRIBE THE CAMPUS CLIMATE UPON ARRIVAL?

2. WERE YOU GIVEN AN OPPORTUNITY TO PARTICIPATE IN ANY UNIVERSITY ORIENTATION?

3. HOW SENSITIVE DO YOU FEEL FACULTY, ADMINISTRATORS, AND STAFF ARE TO MINORITY GRADUATE STUDENTS’ NEEDS?

4. WHAT STUDENT SERVICES HAVE YOU FOUND PARTICULARLY USEFUL?

5. WHAT OTHER STUDENT SERVICES HAVE YOU TAKEN ADVANTAGE OF WHILE ATTENDING ISU?

6. DO YOU FEEL THAT ISU DISPLAYS A STRONG COMMITMENT TO BLACK MALE STUDENT GRADUATION/RETENTION?
   6A. IF YES, WHY?
   6B. IF NO, WHY NOT?

7. HAS THE MINORITY STUDENT AFFAIRS OFFICE BEEN HELPFUL?
   7A. IF YES, WHY?
   7B. IF NO, WHY NOT?
8. SHOULD THERE BE A MINORITY STUDENT AFFAIRS OFFICE, OR SHOULD THERE BE NO SUCH OFFICE? EXPLAIN YOUR ANSWER IN DETAIL.

9. HOW WERE YOU RECRUITED?

10. WHAT TYPES OF PROBLEMS DID YOU ENCOUNTER DURING ADMISSION TO THE UNIVERSITY?

11. DOES YOUR DEPARTMENT SHOW STRONG CONCERN ABOUT YOUR RETENTION, BY MONITORING YOUR PROGRESS THROUGH INFORMAL MEETINGS WITH YOUR ADVISOR, CHAIR, OR DEAN?

12. DO YOU THINK REMEDIAL AND REVIEW COURSES ARE NECESSARY TO ENSURE YOUR ACADEMIC SUCCESS?

12A. IF YES, WHY?

12B. IF NO, WHY NOT?

13. DID YOU RECEIVE PROPER ACADEMIC ADVISING FOR COURSES, DEPARTMENTAL REQUIREMENTS/POLICIES, INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES, ETC.?
14. DO YOU ENVISION UPWARD PROFESSIONAL MOBILITY AS A RESULT OF EARNING A GRADUATE DEGREE?

15. DID YOU RECEIVE ENCOURAGEMENT FROM PROFESSORS TO PURSUE GRADUATE STUDIES?

16. WHAT DO YOU THINK CONTRIBUTES MOST TO THE PERSISTENCE OF MINORITY GRADUATE STUDENTS?

17. WHAT RECOMMENDATIONS WOULD YOU MAKE FOR CHANGES TO IMPROVE THE RETENTION RATES OF AFRICAN-AMERICAN MALE GRADUATE STUDENTS?

18. WHAT WOULD YOU TELL A PROSPECTIVE AFRICAN-AMERICAN STUDENT WHO WANTS TO KNOW THE ADVANTAGES IN ATTENDING THIS INSTITUTION?

19. WHAT WOULD YOU TELL A PROSPECTIVE AFRICAN-AMERICAN STUDENT WHO WANTS TO KNOW THE DISADVANTAGES IN ATTENDING THIS INSTITUTION?

20. WHAT ARE THE GREATEST PROBLEMS YOU HAVE FACED AS AN AFRICAN-AMERICAN STUDENT ON THIS CAMPUS?
APPENDIX B. CATEGORY SATURATION ASSESSMENT TABLE
### CATEGORY SATURATION ASSESSMENT TABLE

#### PERSONAL ID DATA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Record</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 - 10</td>
<td>RECORD ACTUAL RESPONSE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>AFRICAN-AMERICAN RELATED TOPIC/OTHER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 - 14</td>
<td>RECORD ACTUAL RESPONSE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### BRIEF READING OF TERMS OF INTERVIEW

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Record</th>
<th>Description</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>RECORD ACTUAL RESPONSE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>DURING UNDERGRADUATE SCHOOL/OTHER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>YES/NO (HOW MANY?)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### GRADUATE ASSISTANTSHIP EXPERIENCES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Record</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>GA/RA/TA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>MSA/RESIDENCE/OTHER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>RECORD ACTUAL RESPONSE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>YES/SOMewhat/NO. IF YES OR SOMEWHAT, PROBLEM SOLVING/ADVISING/SUPERVISING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4A</td>
<td>YES/NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>RESEARCH/LEADERSHIP/KNOWLEDGE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>CONSISTENT/NOT CONSISTENT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>ROLE MODEL/TECHNICAL BACKGROUND/EXPERIENCE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>ROLE MODEL/TECHNICAL/EXPERIENCE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### CLASSROOM AND TEACHER EXPECTATIONS OF STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT AND EXPERIENCES OF CURRENT GRADUATE EDUCATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Record</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>RECORD ACTUAL NUMBER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>RECORD ACTUAL NUMBER</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3 BOTH/FORMAL BETTER/INFORMAL BETTER/NEITHER
4 YES/CONDITIONAL/NO
6 NOT ASKED/PROFESSIONAL/CONSISTENCY
7 YES/PARTIALLY/NO
8 YES/NO/AMBIGUOUS
9 GROUP OR TEAM/INDIVIDUAL
10 GROUP OR TEAM/INDIVIDUAL
11 NEEDED/ASKED
  ADEQUATE/NOT ADEQUATE
12 YES/NO/SOMETIMES
13 FAMILY/SELF-DETERMINATION
14 INTERNAL/EXTERNAL
15 YES/NO/DEPENDS
16 YES/NO/EXPLAIN

FINANCIAL AID SOURCES
1 RECORD ACTUAL RESPONSE
2 RECORD ACTUAL RESPONSE
3 - 8 RECORD ACTUAL RESPONSES
9 PELL GRANT/GSL/NO/YES
10 - 13 RECORD ACTUAL RESPONSE
14 NA/MINORITY SCHOLARSHIP/NO/ASSISTANTSHIP/INVESTMENT
15 - 17 RECORD ACTUAL RESPONSES

UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE PREPARATION AND PERFORMANCE
1 - 2 RECORD ACTUAL NUMBER
3 YES ON BOTH/NO/FORMAL ONLY/INFORMAL ONLY
ENCOURAGING/NOT ENCOURAGING

POSITIVE/NEGATIVE/BOTH/NEITHER

HELPFUL/NOT HELPFUL/UNCLEAR

YES/NO/UNCLEAR

GROUP OR TEAM/INDIVIDUAL

RECORD ACTUAL RESPONSES

PARENT SUPPORT, RELIGION, AND OTHER

RECORD ACTUAL RESPONSES

CAMPUS ENVIRONMENT AND INSTITUTIONAL CLIMATE

RECORD ACTUAL RESPONSES
APPENDIX C. TOTAL STUDENT POPULATION AT

ISU—SPRING 1991 ENROLLMENT FIGURES
### TOTAL AFRICAN-AMERICAN STUDENT POPULATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total student population at ISU*</td>
<td>23,522</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African-Americans</td>
<td>537</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male undergraduates</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female undergraduates</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male graduate students</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female graduate students</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Based on enrollment for Spring 1991, Minority Student Affairs Office, Iowa State University.
APPENDIX D. HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW
Information for Review of Research Involving Human Subjects

Iowa State University

(Please type and use the attached instructions for completing this form)

1. Title of Project: Success Factors Relevant to Black Male Graduate Students: A Grounded Theory

2. I agree to provide the proper surveillance of this project to insure that the rights and welfare of the human subjects are protected. I will report any adverse reactions to the committee. Additions to or changes in research procedures after the project has been approved will be submitted to the committee for review. I agree to request renewal of approval for any project continuing more than one year.

Virginia Correz Henderson 3/6/91
Typed Name of Principal Investigator Date

Professional Studies 239 Lago 4-4143
Department Campus Address Campus Telephone

3. Signatures of other investigators Date Relationship to Principal Investigator

4. Principal Investigator(s) (check all that apply)

☐ Faculty ☐ Staff ☒ Graduate Student ☐ Undergraduate Student

5. Project (check all that apply)

☐ Research ☒ Thesis or dissertation ☐ Class project ☐ Independent Study (490, 590, Honors project)

6. Number of subjects (complete all that apply)

# Adults, non-students 87 # ISU student # minors under 14 # minors 14 - 17

7. Brief description of proposed research involving human subjects: (See instructions, Item 7. Use an additional page if needed.)

See attachment

(Please do not send research, thesis, or dissertation proposals.)

8. Informed Consent:

☐ Signed informed consent will be obtained. (Attach a copy of your form.)

☒ Modified informed consent will be obtained. (See instructions, item 8.)

☐ Not applicable to this project.
9. Confidentiality of Data: Describe below the methods to be used to ensure the confidentiality of data obtained. (See instructions, item 9.)

See attachment

10. What risks or discomfort will be part of the study? Will subjects in the research be placed at risk or incur discomfort? Describe any risks to the subjects and precautions that will be taken to minimize them. (The concept of risk goes beyond physical risk and includes risks to subjects' dignity and self-respect as well as psychological or emotional risk. See instructions, item 10.)

11. CHECK ALL of the following that apply to your research:

- A. Medical clearance necessary before subjects can participate
- B. Samples (Blood, tissue, etc.) from subjects
- C. Administration of substances (foods, drugs, etc.) to subjects
- D. Physical exercise or conditioning for subjects
- E. Deception of subjects
- F. Subjects under 14 years of age and/or □ Subjects 14 - 17 years of age
- G. Subjects in institutions (nursing homes, prisons, etc.)
- H. Research must be approved by another institution or agency (Attach letters of approval)

If you checked any of the items in 11, please complete the following in the space below (include any attachments):

Items A - D Describe the procedures and note the safety precautions being taken.

Item E Describe how subjects will be deceived; justify the deception; indicate the debriefing procedure, including the timing and information to be presented to subjects.

Item F For subjects under the age of 14, indicate how informed consent from parents or legally authorized representatives as well as from subjects will be obtained.

Items G & H Specify the agency or institution that must approve the project. If subjects in any outside agency or institution are involved, approval must be obtained prior to beginning the research, and the letter of approval should be filed.
Checklist for Attachments and Time Schedule

The following are attached (please check):

12. [X] Letter or written statement to subjects indicating clearly:
   a) purpose of the research
   b) the use of any identifier codes (names, #s), how they will be used, and when they will be removed (see Item 17)
   c) an estimate of time needed for participation in the research and the place
   d) if applicable, location of the research activity
   e) how you will ensure confidentiality
   f) in a longitudinal study, note when and how you will contact subjects later
   g) participation is voluntary; nonparticipation will not affect evaluations of the subject

13. [ ] Consent form (if applicable)

14. [ ] Letter of approval for research from cooperating organizations or institutions (if applicable)

15. [X] Data-gathering instruments

16. Anticipated dates for contact with subjects:
   First Contact Last Contact
   April 1, 1991 May 10, 1991
   Month / Day / Year Month / Day / Year

17. If applicable: anticipated date that identifiers will be removed from completed survey instruments and/or audio or visual tapes will be erased:
   May 24, 1991
   Month / Day / Year

18. Signature of Departmental Executive Officer Date Department or Administrative Unit
   [Signature] 2/7/91 Professional Studies

19. Decision of the University Human Subjects Review Committee:
   [X] Project Approved with the understanding that the amount of time needed to complete the survey will be indicated in the letter.

   Patricia M. Keith 3/14/91
   Name of Committee Chairperson Signature of Committee Chairperson

GC: 1/90
FACTORS AFFECTING SUCCESS OF AFRICAN-AMERICAN MALE-GRADUATE STUDENTS: A GROUNDED THEORY APPROACH

Addendum: Use of Human Subject in Research Form

V. Cortez Henderson, Doctoral Student
Department of Professional Studies
Higher Education Section

This study examines success factors of African American male graduate students attending Iowa State University. The study uses the case study methodology to develop a grounded theory of African American male graduate student participation in higher education. The study population includes the African American males graduate (masters and doctoral) students attending Iowa State University during the academic year of 1990-1991.

Data will be gathered using semi-structured interview techniques and historical data review. The semi-structured interview instrument is attached. However, the semi-structured interview instrument is subject to change because of the nature of the grounded theory research.

The nature of the constant comparative method of theory generation permits and encourages the pursuit of new theoretical concepts that may not have been anticipated by the researcher.
Therefore, the interview instrument must be considered as a guide only.

The risk to interviewees lies in the possibility of social and professional injury should comments of a sensitive nature made in the course of the interview be divulged. In order to assure the confidentiality of the interviewee and his comments, the following precautions will be taken:

1. Each individual participating in the study will be assigned an alpha designator code. The record of linkages between the degree program and the department will be retained by the researcher in two copies; one in a locked box at her home, and an additional copy in her major professor's office.

2. Each person interviewed in a department and degree program will be identified by an numeric-alpha code that identifies the department and the person. This list will also be maintained in one copy in a locked box in the researcher's home, and will be destroyed upon completion of the research.

3. Prior to beginning an interview, each respondent will be given an opportunity to read and discuss with the researcher an explanation of measures taken to assure confidentiality of the respondent and the respondent's comments in the course of the interview.

4. Confidentiality is ensured by the fact that the profile factors are represented by a composite profile rather than related to an specific subject.
APPENDIX E. LETTER OF CONFIDENTIALITY
TO : STUDY RESPONDENT
FROM : V. CORTEZ HENDERSON, DOCTORAL STUDENT
IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY

SUBJECT: INTERVIEW CONFIDENTIALITY

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study of African American male graduate students. I want to assure you that the recordings and notes taken in this interview will be held in the strictest confidence. The recordings and notes that result from this interview will be coded by the researcher using an alpha-numeric system which assigns each respondent an alpha character that will identify the department and a numeric code that identifies the individual interviewed. For example, the first person interviewed in the study will be assigned code number A-001, the second person A-002, etcetera.

The lists that link the code and the names of the respondents will be maintained in two copies by the researcher, one in a locked box at my home, and the additional copy in her major professors' office. The second copy is only for security reasons. These lists will be maintained by the researcher until the study is completed and then will be destroyed. All tape recorded interviews will be summarized and tapes erased. Data that are retained will be identified with code numbers only: no names will be placed on any written data gathering or data evaluation instruments. If the interview is acceptable to you under these terms, Please sign this letter.

Name

Date