Entering the academy: exploring the socialization experiences of African American male

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ENTERING THE ACADEMY: EXPLORING THE SOCIALIZATION EXPERIENCES OF AFRICAN AMERICAN MALE FACULTY

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University &
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

in

The Department of Educational Leadership, Research, and Counseling

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I want to thank God for bringing me this far. I know that through Him all things are possible.

Carrie, my wife and friend, thank you for supporting me through this project. I know that this was not easy but we made it – Thank you and I love you. I am more grateful than you will ever know. Brittanni, Jaylen, and Julian, I hope I did not miss out on too much when Daddy had to do his “school work.” Moms, thank you for your encouragement. You can relax now, this phase is complete. MIL and FIL, thanks for all of your prayers and the bad jokes. Mattie, Linda, Sheila, and the rest of my family, thank you for everything.

To my committee members, Dr. Becky Ropers-Huilman (Becky), thank you for everything you have done. Your support, encouragement and positive outlook kept this moving forward. I have grown so much, both professionally and personally. Dr. Marietta Del Favero (Marietta), you challenged me in ways that you knew would help me to grow. Dr. Eugene Kennedy, because of you, I know more about statistics and research methodology than I ever thought possible. Dr. Petra Hendry, thank you for teaching me it is not necessarily the destination, but the journey that we should enjoy. Dr. Andrea Houston thanks for your support. Dr. Roland Mitchell thanks for the advice and feedback.

The Greater New Guide Church Family and Sunday School Class #8, thank you for all of your prayers. A special thanks to Sam Mitchell for your fatherly advice and guidance. Jackie Hill, thanks for everything. You are truly a part of the family. Craig Freeman, Derek Lathon, Elecia Lathon, Ashley Junek, Laura Aaron, and Cheryl Frugé thanks for all the encouragement, lunches, phone calls, and conversations. Melanie
Wicker, Tara Stewart, Dora Ann Parrino and Tina Jackson, thanks for all the “little
things.”

Finally, to my grandmother, I wish you could be here to enjoy this. I know that
somewhere you are smiling saying “That’s my baby!”
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This study explored the socialization experiences of African American male faculty at historically Black colleges and universities (HBCUs) and predominately White institutions (PWIs). Rosch and Reich’s Enculturation Model was used as the theoretical framework. To gain a better understanding of the socialization experiences of African American male faculty, a group that has traditionally been underrepresented and marginalized in academia, Critical Race Theory (CRT) was incorporated into the study. More specifically, counter-storytelling, a basic tenet of CRT, was used to learn the stories that African American male faculty tell about their socialization experiences. A mixed methodology research design was utilized. Interviews were conducted with 16 full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty at both institutional types in Phase I. In Phase II, 128 African American male participants responded to a questionnaire about their socialization experiences. The findings of this study revealed that the experiences of African American males in the academy were both rewarding and challenging. The stories that participants told revealed a number of differences in the socialization experiences of African American male faculty at HBCUs and PWIs. However, quantitatively there was no difference in the “socialization experience” of African American male faculty at HBCUs and PWIs.
CHAPTER I – INTRODUCTION

Prior to the 1960s the small number of African American faculty in higher education at PWIs could “undeniably be attributed to deliberate exclusionary practices” (Jackson, 1991, p. 135). Unless they were employed at historically Black colleges and universities (HBCUs), African Americans were mostly excluded from faculty positions in academia. African Americans were so rare on the faculty of predominately White institutions (PWIs) during the early 20th century that they could be individually identified (Menges & Exum, 1983). By the 1960s the number of African American faculty at PWIs had increased only to approximately 300. At the beginning of the 21st century the number of African Americans, particularly African American male faculty, at colleges and universities in the United States (U.S.) continued to be disproportionately low.

In 2005 only 16,270 or 2.6% of 631,596 full-time faculty members (all ranks included) in the U.S. were African American males (The Chronicle of Higher Education Almanac Issue, August 26, 2005). Included in this total for African American males were faculty members identified as instructors, lecturers, and other. When considering only those faculty members at the rank positions of assistant, associate, and full professor, the total number of African American males employed as full-time faculty was 11,566, less than two percent of the total number of faculty in the U. S. According to the U. S. Census Bureau (2004), African Americans currently comprise approximately 13% of the U.S. population, with African American males comprising one-half of that total. As such, it is clear that when compared to the general U. S. population, African American males continue to be underrepresented in academia. The underrepresentation of this particular subgroup of the professoriate is even more conspicuous when taken into account the majority of African American male faculty are employed at HBCUs.
Because African American male faculty have been a historically underrepresented and marginalized subgroup of the professoriate, my research contributes to the related literature on faculty socialization by exploring how full-time tenure-track African American male faculty are socialized. This study examined the implications of the socialization process for African American male faculty in tenure-track positions. In addition, it explored the differences that exist in the socialization experiences of this subgroup of the professoriate by examining the experiences of those employed at both HBCUs and PWIs. It is important to consider the experiences of African American males at both types of institutions because of the perceived differences in the culture of HBCUs and PWIs (e.g., HBCUs are more nurturing in the development of African American faculty).

Elements of Critical Race Theory (CRT) were incorporated into the study. I used counter-storytelling to gain a more in-depth understanding of the socialization experiences of African American male faculty at the PWIs. Counter-storytelling is the “voice” (Ladson-Billings, 1998, p. 14) component of CRT. Through the use of counter-stories people of color have the opportunity to tell of their experiences (Ladson-Billings). In addition, the premise that racism is permanent in society and education (DeCuir & Dixon, 2004, Solórzano & Yosso, 2002) was employed as the counter-stories were analyzed.

Socialization

Socialization is “cultural learning which takes place in a social context” (Whitt, 1991, p. 178). It is a continuous, never ending process; however, socialization is most evident when an individual joins an organization (Tierney & Rhoads, 1993; Van Maanen, 1978). The socialization that takes place when an individual joins a group or organization
is organizational socialization. Organizational socialization is the “manner in which the experiences of people learning the ropes of a new organizational position, status, or role are structured for them by others within the organization” (Van Maanen, p. 19).

The socialization process may range from a trial-and-error process to a more complex process whereby the individual being socialized participates in an extended period of education and training followed by an extended period of apprenticeship (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). The faculty socialization process is such a process – prospective faculty members participate in an extended period of education (graduate education) which is followed by an extended period of “apprenticeship” (the junior faculty level). This process typically occurs in two phases for prospective or new faculty: anticipatory socialization and organization socialization (Johnson, 2004; Johnson & Harvey, 2002; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). For the purposes of this study, the “organization” is defined as the academic department.

Anticipatory socialization occurs prior to employment, usually during graduate education, and is comprised of the prospective faculty member learning the norms of the profession (Austin, 2002; Rowley, 2000; Tierney, 1997). Organization socialization occurs in two phases: initial entry and role continuance. Initial entry involves interaction with faculty and administrators during the recruitment and selection process and the early phase of employment. Role continuance begins once the individual is positioned within the department (Johnson & Harvey, 2002).

Tierney (1997) considers the socialization process a “give-and-take” (p. 6), where new faculty members make sense of an organization through their personal experiences and the current contexts of the organization. Upon joining a department or college, new faculty members bring personal experiences, values, and ideas to the organization. These
experiences, values, and ideas or predispositions influence their socialization experience. At the same time, the culture, norms and values of the organization are influenced by new faculty members, resulting in a give-and-take socialization experience. To further quote Tierney:

One socialization format does not fit everyone; each individual brings to an organization a unique background and insights, and the challenge lies in using these individual attributes to build the culture of the organization rather than have recruits fit into predetermined norms. (p. 14)

Developing an understanding of the socialization experiences of new faculty is of critical importance not only for administrators but also senior faculty. Although there have been few studies specifically examining the socialization experiences of African American males, reviewing the socialization experiences of faculty of color and African Americans in general may assist in providing a foundation for understanding the experiences of African American males. According to Branch (2001), regardless of color, ethnicity, or background, being a new faculty member is difficult; however, it is even more difficult for faculty of color. Thompson and Dey (1998) concurred, arguing that the faculty role “is intensified for African American faculty, because the prevailing community world views of the academy itself are frequently challenged by African Americans’ presence in it” (p. 324). To further emphasize the importance of the socialization process, Boice (1992b) offers three outcomes for new faculty who have poor beginnings in academe: (1) they leave for other positions, both in and out of academia; (2) many fail to achieve tenure and promotion; and (3) marginally successful new faculty may remain in the department unhappy and unproductive. Since African American male faculty have been historically excluded or marginalized in higher education, it is important to gain a better understanding of their socialization experiences.
Despite efforts to ensure a positive socialization experience, most faculty entering the professoriate will experience periods of loneliness and intellectual isolation, a lack of collegial support, and heavy work loads and time constraints (Alexander-Snow & Johnson, 1999; Johnson & Harvey, 2002; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). Although these are common experiences for most faculty, regardless of ethnicity, research indicates that faculty of color “experience the academy very differently” (Johnsrud & Des Jarlais, 1994, p. 337) than Caucasian/White faculty. Alexander-Snow and Johnson posit that faculty of color are marginalized during the socialization process due to “poor institutional fit, cross cultural and social differences, and self imposed perceptions of racial and ethnic discrimination by faculty of color” (p. 90). In addition, faculty of color believe the lack of knowledge regarding the tenure and promotion process, the subjective components of the process, and the lack of collegial support are barriers to their socialization and advancement in academia (Johnsrud & Des Jarlais).

For faculty of color, particularly African American male faculty, my argument is that the socialization process is of even greater importance to their success. Boice (1992b) establishes the importance of the socialization process for faculty of color by noting that “the potential new faculty who reject us [higher education] first are likely to come from underrepresented and badly needed kinds of professors” (p. 7). To assist in gaining a better understanding of the socialization experiences of African American male faculty and its importance, this study incorporated Critical Race Theory (CRT) and a critical race methodology.

Critical Race Theory (CRT)

Critical Race Theory or CRT is an outgrowth of the race-based analysis of critical legal studies during the early 1980s (Ladson-Billings, 1998; Lynn, Yosso, Solórzano, &
Parker, 2002). It is broadly based in the following disciplines: law, sociology, history, ethnic studies, and women’s studies (Solórzano, Ceja, & Yosso, 2000). Although initially utilized in legal studies, CRT expanded into education and other disciplines during the late 20th century (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004; Solórzano et al.). CRT “focuses on the racialized, gendered, and classed experiences of communities of color and offers a liberatory and transformative method for examining racial/ethnic, gender and class discrimination” (Solórzano et al., p. 63).

During the past decade CRT has emerged as a powerful theoretical and analytical framework within educational research (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004). One of the basic principles of CRT is that race and racism is endemic and permanent in society and education (DeCuir & Dixon; Solórzano & Yosso, 2002). According to Solórzano et al. (2000), CRT offers perspectives and methodologies that guide scholars’ “efforts to identify, analyze, and transform the structural and cultural aspects of education that maintain subordinate and dominant racial positions in and out of the classroom” (p. 63). In addition, CRT “challenges White privilege, rejects notions of ‘neutral’ research or ‘objective’ researchers, and exposes deficit-informed research that silences and distorts epistemologies of people of color” (Solórzano & Yosso, p. 26).

CRT is based on five prominent tenets: (1) counter-storytelling; (2) the permanence of racism; (3) Whiteness as property; (4) interest convergence; and (5) the critique of liberalism (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004). For the purposes of this study, counter-storytelling and the permanence of racism are the tenets of CRT that are the most critical for gaining a better understanding of the socialization experiences of African American male faculty.
DeCuir and Dixson (2004) describe counter-storytelling “as a method of telling a story that ‘aims to cast doubt on the validity of accepted premises or myths, especially ones held by the majority’” (p. 27). DeCuir and Dixson further add “counter-storytelling is a means of exposing and critiquing normalized dialogues that perpetuate racial stereotypes” (p. 27). Counter-stories are those stories that are ignored, downplayed, or simply not told because they do not fit socially acceptable notions of truth (Lopez, 2003). Ladson-Billings (1998) informs scholars “the ‘voice’ component [counter-storytelling] of CRT provides a way to communicate the experience and realities of the oppressed” (p. 14). In short, counter-storytelling communicates how the experiences of marginalized groups may differ from those of Whites or the accepted norm or standard. In this study, I position African American male faculty as the marginalized group. The permanence of racism tenet posits that racism is a permanent component of American society (DeCuir & Dixson; Solórzano & Yosso, 2002). This tenet of CRT suggests “racist hierarchical structures govern all political, economic and social domains” (DeCuir & Dixson, p. 27) including education.

Committed to social justice, CRT offers a response to racial, gender, and class oppression (Solórzano & Yosso, 2002). According to Solórzano et al. (2000), CRT in education simultaneously attempts to “foreground race and racism in the research as well as challenge the traditional paradigms, methods, texts, and separate discourse on race, gender, and class by showing how these social constructs intersect to impact on communities of color” (p. 63). CRT challenges the experiences of White people as the norm; instead, its conceptual framework is grounded in the unique experiences of people of color (Taylor, 1998). According to Solórzano and Yosso, critical race researchers acknowledge that educational institutions operate in contradictory manners, with their
potential to emancipate and empower. Thus, CRT “advances a strategy to foreground and account for the role of race and racism in education and works toward the elimination of racism as part of a larger goal of opposing or eliminating other forms of subordination based on gender, class, sexual orientation, language, and national origin” (Solórzano & Yosso, p. 25). I will attempt to do this by bringing attention to the unique experiences of African American male faculty, particularly those employed at PWIs.

**Purpose of Study**

The purpose of this study was to explore the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty and to determine if there were any differences in their experiences at HBCUs and PWIs. Emphasis is placed on both the anticipatory and organizational socialization experiences of African American male faculty. This study sought to gain a better and more in-depth understanding of how this subgroup of the professoriate is socialized into the academy.

**Research Questions**

To explore the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty and to discover any differences that may exist in the socialization experiences of this subgroup of the professoriate at HBCUs and PWIs, the following research questions and hypotheses guided this study:

**RQ1.** What are the stories that full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty tell about their socialization experiences?

**RQ2.** What factors influence the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty?

**H₀:** There are no factors that influence the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty.
RQ3. What differences exist in the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and
tenure-track African American male faculty at HBCUs and full-time tenured and
tenure-track African American male faculty at PWIs?

H$_0$: There are no differences in the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and
tenure-track African American male faculty at HBCUs and full-time tenured and
tenure-track African American male faculty at PWIs.

**Significance of Study**

Previous research has suggested that scholars should explore the faculty socialization process in its entirety (Tierney, 1997). According to Turner, Myers, and Creswell (1999), “there is an urgent need to reexamine the issues surrounding the recruitment, retention, and development of faculty of color” (p. 27). Thompson and Dey (1998) contend that since all underrepresented groups experience marginality, research should focus on each individual population as a means for understanding their unique experiences.

More specifically, African American males have been historically and systematically excluded from higher education (Rowley, 2000). Therefore, this study will contribute to the related literature on faculty socialization by concentrating on an underrepresented subgroup of the professoriate, African American males; a subgroup that has often been characterized as marginalized (Johnsrud, 1993; Rowley; Thompson & Dey, 1998).

Earlier studies have focused on the socialization experiences of women faculty (Aisenberg & Harrington, 1988; Clark & Corcoran, 1986), faculty of color (Turner et al., 1999), African American males and females (Johnson 2001; Johnson & Harvey, 2002) or
a combination thereof (Menges & Exum, 1983), but not specifically on African American male faculty. Since the mid-20th century, there has been a limited amount of research conducted on the socialization experiences of African American faculty employed at HBCUs (Johnson & Harvey). In addition, previous research on the socialization of faculty has been primarily qualitative (Clark & Corcoran; Johnson & Harvey). This study utilized both qualitative and quantitative research methods. It is my desire that academic administrators and senior faculty at both HBCUs and PWIs will use the findings from this study to implement policies and initiatives that will ensure a more positive socialization experience for African American male faculty.

Summary

This chapter began with a historical overview of African American faculty in academia. It was followed by a demographic summary of how African Americans, particularly African American males, have traditionally been underrepresented in academia. Next, the concept of socialization was introduced with an emphasis on the socialization of faculty of color and barriers that have prevented this subgroup of the professoriate from having positive socialization experiences. Critical Race Theory (CRT) was then introduced as a method for gaining a better understanding of the experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty. Finally, the purpose of the study, the research questions that guided the study and the significance of the study were presented.

In the next chapter, the literature related to faculty socialization and CRT will be reviewed. The review of the literature will focus on the anticipatory and organizational socialization of new faculty, and how CRT can be utilized to advance the understanding
of the experiences of faculty of color, particularly African American male faculty.

Finally, Rosch and Reich’s Model of Enculturation will be introduced as a theoretical framework for understanding faculty socialization.
CHAPTER II – REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This study explored the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty. In this chapter, I review the literature on faculty socialization. First, I reviewed the literature on anticipatory and organizational socialization. Second, I reviewed the literature on the socialization experiences of African Americans at both HBCUs and PWIs. Then, I reviewed Rosch and Reich’s (1996) Model of Enculturation, and discussed how it is an appropriate framework for understanding the socialization experiences of faculty. Finally, I reviewed the literature on Critical Race Theory (CRT). I incorporated CRT into the study to bring attention to the socialization experiences of this particular subgroup of the professoriate. Critical race methodology, particularly counter-storytelling and the concept that racism is permanent, was used to learn about the experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty.

Socialization

Organizational socialization is the “process by which one is taught and learns ‘the ropes’ of a particular organizational role” (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 211). It is the process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills necessary to function within a particular organization. The socialization process may range from a trial-and-error process to a more complex one whereby the individual being socialized participates in an extended period of education and training followed by an extended period of apprenticeship (Van Maanen & Schein). Van Maanen and Schein describe this process as the manner in which individuals learn what behaviors and perspectives are customary and desirable and what behaviors are not. During the socialization process newcomers learn which aspects of the new environment or setting are important (Ostroff
& Kozlowski, 1993). From this knowledge, newcomers learn what is required to succeed within the organization.

Van Maanen (1978) posits that three fundamental assumptions underlie the socialization process. First, and he considers this to be the most important, individuals who are transitioning between organizations are in an anxiety-producing situation. These individuals are motivated to reduce their anxiety as quickly as possible by learning the functional and social requirements of their new position. The same can be said for new faculty as they transition from the graduate education institution to the hiring institution. This initial entrance into the professoriate can be an anxiety producing event (Johnson, 2001). New faculty are anxious to learn the culture, norms, and values of their respective departments and institutions. They face many anxiety producing events such as finding a balance between their teaching, research, and service and learning the criteria for achieving promotion and tenure.

Second, the learning that occurs during socialization does not occur in a vacuum based on the formal job requirements (Van Maanen, 1978). Van Maanen believes the new member to the organization is looking for assistance on how to proceed upon joining the organization. This assistance may come from colleagues, superiors, subordinates, or clients and it may either support or hinder the socialization process (Van Maanen). Considering the complexity of the socialization experience, new faculty are likely to benefit from the department chair, senior faculty, or other colleagues assisting them with their socialization. This assistance could come in the form of mentoring, informal or formal, or collegial practices occurring between senior and junior faculty. Austin (2003) believes the early career or socialization experiences of new faculty could further be
enhanced through improved collegial practices, that is, better feedback and more explicit statements of expectations for new faculty.

The third assumption about organizational socialization is that the stability and productivity of any organization depends on the manner in which newcomers assume their responsibilities (Van Maanen, 1978). When positions within the organizations are assumed or transferred without problem, the continuity of the organization’s mission is maintained, the predictability of the organizations performance is intact, and the survival of the organization is assured.

Faculty Socialization

The socialization of new faculty has been characterized as being of “fundamental importance” (Tierney, 1997, p. 1). It is important because “common values, even more than common knowledge, bond a group into a profession and allow the members to work together effectively” (Bland & Schmitz, 1986, p. 23). For new members of an organization the socialization process primarily involves how newcomers learn what is important in the new environment or setting (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1993). Considered a cultural process, socialization involves the exchange of patterns of thought and action (Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). It is “a ritualized process that involves the transmission of the organizational culture” (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996, p. 36). Rowley (2000) suggests new faculty must be properly socialized to gain an understanding of the culture of intellectual or academic life. The cultural process of faculty socialization is a continuous process that takes place throughout the faculty member’s career (Corcoran & Clark, 1984; Johnson, 2004; Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). Although a continuous process, socialization is most evident upon an individual’s entrance into the organization because new faculty have a limited knowledge of the organization and organizational expectations (Johnson, 2004;
Tierney & Rhoads, 1993; Van Maanen, 1978). The acquisition of culture is important because it permits the new member to learn the norms, expectations, and practices of the organization (Reynolds, 1992). To successfully function in an organization, new members should possess a functional knowledge of the organization’s culture (Lucas & Murry, 2002). Tierney and Bensimon suggest the acquisition of culture by new faculty is necessary if academia is to establish more inclusive communities that give individuals the freedom to challenge organizational ideas.

Tierney (1997) posits that socialization “involves a give-and-take” (p. 6) where new members of an organization make sense of the organization through their personal experiences and the current contexts of the organization. Upon joining a department or college, the new faculty member brings personal experiences, values, and ideas to the organization. These experiences, values, and ideas or predispositions influence the new faculty member’s socialization experience. At the same time the culture, norms, and values of the organization are being influenced by the new faculty member, resulting in the give-and-take of the socialization process.

Bidirectional Socialization

Since both the individual and the organization are influenced during the socialization experience, Tierney and Bensimon have deemed socialization as “bidirectional” (p. 37) instead of one-way or unitary. A unitary socialization process is one where new faculty assimilate to the organization (Tierney, 1997). In other words, the new faculty member is expected to assimilate to the cultural norms of the department. Antony and Taylor (2004) describe this unitary form of socialization as a linear process. When the socialization process is perceived as unitary (linear), there are obvious “winners and losers, misfits and fully incorporated members” (Tierney, p. 6).
Considering how Turner and Thompson (1993) have characterized the socialization process as one that has been “organized to perpetuate self-containment and marginalization” (p. 356), gaining a better understanding of its bidirectional influence is significant.

Turner and Thompson (1993) contend that marginalization perpetuates itself when new members join the organization and the organization fails to change or adapt, particularly when the new member is a faculty member of color or female. In fact, traditional socialization theory assumes that an individual must meet two conditions to be successfully socialized. First, the individual has to develop characteristics consistent with others in the chosen profession. Second, the individual has to assimilate his or her values to the cultural norm (Antony & Taylor, 2004). Considering the work of faculty is highly individualized, to expect all faculty to conform to a unitary socialization process and to perceive that experience in a like manner is unrealistic.

Austin (2002) and Clark and Corcoran (1986) also describe the socialization experience as a two-way or bidirectional process. From the perspective of the organization, socialization is the means by which new members of the organization “learn the values, norms, knowledge, beliefs and the interpersonal and other skills that facilitate role performance and further group goals” (Clark & Corcoran, p. 22). From an individual’s perspective, socialization is learning to participate in the social life of the organization. How the socialization process is defined is important, if senior faculty and departmental administrators view it as bidirectional they will gain a better understanding of the unique and varied socialization experiences of African American male faculty and other faculty of color. If academia truly values and appreciates diversity in its faculty ranks, then new faculty should have the opportunity to influence their respective
departments just as they are influenced by the department (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Tierney & Rhoads, 1993).

Anticipatory and Organizational Socialization

The socialization of faculty typically occurs in two distinct phases: anticipatory and organizational (Johnson, 2004; Johnson & Harvey, 2002; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). Anticipatory socialization occurs primarily during graduate education, with the organizational stage occurring upon the prospective faculty member’s entrance into a new institution. Organizational socialization also occurs in two phases: initial entry and role continuance (Tierney & Bensimon; Tierney & Rhoads).

Anticipatory Socialization

The first phase of the socialization process involves anticipatory learning by the potential recruit. Anticipatory socialization is defined by Clark and Corcoran (1986) as “the process by which persons choose occupations and are recruited to them, gradually assuming the values of the group to which they aspire and measuring the ideal for congruence with reality” (p. 23). During this phase non-members learn the attitudes, actions, and values of the profession to which they aspire to join (Corcoran & Clark, 1984; Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). For prospective faculty, the anticipatory socialization phase usually occurs at the departmental level of the institution in which they receive their graduate training. Corcoran and Clark concluded, “The department inducts graduate students into the discipline, transmitting skills and knowledge and shaping their values and attitudes regarding the pursuit of knowledge and the faculty role” (p. 141).

The anticipatory socialization phase is important to prospective faculty members because careers in the professoriate require formal education and socialization that can occur only during graduate education (Antony & Taylor, 2001). Austin (2002) posits that
the graduate school experience is actually the beginning or first phase of the prospective faculty member’s career in academia. It is during this phase of the socialization process that prospective faculty become socialized to the norms of the profession (Johnson, 2001; Johnson & Harvey, 2002). Despite the importance of anticipatory socialization, new and aspiring faculty often possess a limited understanding of the faculty role, the history of higher education, and institutional differences (Austin, 2002). According to Austin and Wulff (2004), “strengthening the preparation process for future faculty, has become a significant issue in higher education,” (p. 3).

The experiences an individual has prior to becoming a faculty member frame how the individual approaches his or her job (Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). Accordingly, “faculty bring to a new academic position predetermined characteristics and preexisting experiences and traits as well as evolving beliefs and knowledge” (Menges, 1999, p. 10), all of which influence the new faculty member upon entering the professoriate. This is further evidenced by Tierney and Rhoads’ assertion that the anticipatory socialization experiences of prospective faculty often are not in congruence with their organizational socialization experiences. For example, the expectations of an aspiring faculty member trained at a large public university that emphasizes research may be inconsistent with the expectations of a small liberal arts institution that emphasizes teaching. Unfortunately, few institutions excel at preparing their graduates for the challenges they will encounter upon entering the academy (Lucas & Murry, 2002; Reynolds, 1992; Tierney & Rhoads). Austin (2002) concurred when she stated, “the socialization process in graduate school must change substantially for new faculty members to work effectively in the ever changing world of higher education” (p. 95).
Organizational Socialization

The second phase of the faculty socialization process is organizational socialization and occurs at the employing institution. The organizational socialization phase occurs in two stages: initial entry and role continuance (Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Johnson & Harvey, 2002; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). Initial entry involves any interaction the prospective faculty member may have during the recruitment and selection process and any learning that occurs upon initial entry into the organization – e.g., interactions with administrators or other faculty (Tierney & Bensimon; Tierney & Rhoads). Role continuance occurs once the new faculty member is positioned within the organization or academic department and continues throughout employment (Tierney & Rhoads).

Initial Entry

The beginning of an academic career is considered a complex and demanding process with new faculty often facing numerous challenges (Baldwin, 1990; Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). New faculty may experience high levels of anxiety, stress or pressure from competing professional (teaching, research, and service) and personal obligations (family and wellness) (Lucas & Murry, 2002). Instead of experiencing job-search related stress, new faculty are now concerned with job success. The early years of faculty life often involve periods of “disillusionment and adjustment” (Tierney & Rhoads, p. 36), resulting in new faculty being confronted with loneliness, a lack of collegiality, intellectual and social isolation, and marginalization (Alexander-Snow & Johnson, 1999; Tierney & Rhoads).

The initial entry into an academic department or college symbolizes the beginning of the organizational socialization process (Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). It is during this
phase of the socialization process that new faculty attempt to balance the demands between teaching and research (Jackson & Simpson, 1994). Most junior faculty realize that little preparation has occurred to assist them in becoming socialized to their new institution (Austin, 2002; Menges, 1999). In addition, most new faculty are unlikely to find positions in institutions similar to their graduate institution, adding to their sense of confusion at entry. This lack of preparation usually results in new faculty using trial-and-error in an attempt to gain a better understanding of departmental and institutional norms. To emphasize the importance of the socialization process for African American males, Rowley (2000) argues one of the primary reasons for the underrepresentation of African American male faculty is their “inadequate, inappropriate, or nonexistent socialization to the mores of academic culture” (p. 90).

Role Continuance

The role continuance phase occurs throughout the tenure and promotion process and can occur both formally and informally (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). Role continuance can be defined in terms of formal processes such as the tenure and review process; or through informal processes such as the casual conversations a faculty member has regarding the promotion and tenure process (Tierney & Bensimon). How the socialization related to role continuance occurs is important to note since faculty socialization is typically an informal process that is learned through trial-and-error or personal experience (Van Maanen, 1978). During the role continuance phase, it is expected that new faculty will develop “internalized role specifications, a sense of satisfaction with work, and a high degree of job involvement and commitment” (Clark & Corcoran, 1986, p. 23). Role continuance occurs not only during the tenure and promotion process but throughout a faculty member’s employment at an institution.
Socialization at HBCUs and PWIs

The majority of research on faculty at HBCUs was conducted during the mid-20th century (Johnson, 2001). In addition, limited research has been conducted comparing the experiences of faculty employed at HBCUs and PWIs. Research by Johnson (2001; 2004) found that HBCUs in general offered supportive environments to their African American faculty. Johnson and Harvey’s (2002) qualitative study of 17 full-time tenured and tenure-track African American faculty at four HBCUs revealed that faculty believed clear institutional values aided them in the socialization process. New faculty at these HBCUs learned about institutional values and promotion and tenure expectations through both formal and informal methods. Johnson (2004) believes that a positive socialization experience will persuade African American faculty to remain at HBCUs when opportunities for employment elsewhere are presented.

Unlike African American faculty at PWIs, African American faculty at HBCUs perceived that faculty both in and outside their respective departments had good collegial relations (Johnson & Harvey, 2002). The Johnson and Harvey study also identified two common barriers for junior faculty at HBCUs: a lack of senior faculty “showing the ropes” (p. 306) to junior faculty and heavy workloads.

Prior research by Jackson (1991) revealed that African American faculty at PWIs were more likely to be intellectually and socially isolated from other African American faculty due to their low numbers and the lack of similar research interests from other faculty. Despite the potential for experiencing isolation, African American faculty often pursue career opportunities at PWIs. However, faculty employed at HBCUs have indicated a dissatisfaction with the perceived lack of professional recognition, bureaucracy, low wages, heavy teaching loads, and poor facilities (Johnson, 2004).
Despite these concerns, compelling reasons that African American faculty remain at HBCUs included the desire to educate African American students, and to avoid status and racial conflicts they may encounter at PWIs (Johnson, 2004).

Impact of Socialization

Institutions with supportive environments ensure that new faculty are informed of informal and formal norms and that they are positively socialized into their respective departments (Johnson, 2001). These positive socialization experiences benefit both the organization and the new faculty member, resulting in faculty who are more satisfied, productive, effective, and inclined to remain at the institution throughout the promotion and tenure process (Johnson, 2001, 2004; Johnson & Harvey, 2002; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Specifically, research has shown that faculty of color who have positive workplace experiences have stronger commitments to remain in academia (Turner et al., 1999). Faculty who have negative socialization experiences may endure increased stress and conflict and are more likely to leave the institution (Johnson & Harvey, 2002).

When a faculty member leaves an institution due to a poor socialization experience, the institution suffers because it has invested time, energy, and resources in the faculty member. As a result, the institution has to conduct additional searches, faculty and staff expend more time and energy, and the institution loses additional resources (Johnson, 2004).

Barriers to Positive Socialization Experiences

Research indicates that faculty of color continue to be underrepresented in academia (Allen, Epps, Guillory, Suh, Bonous-Hammarth, 2000; Delgado Bernal & Villalpando, 2002). With this in mind, I now turn to a discussion of some of the more prominent barriers that may contribute to African American male faculty having negative
socialization experiences. These barriers exist in part because African American male faculty have historically been underrepresented in academia. They include, but are not limited to, marginalization and isolation and the lack of collegiality among senior and junior faculty.

Marginalization

Marginalization occurs when faculty of color or women faculty are not supported and are disconnected professionally and socially from the larger academic community (Thompson & Dey, 1998; Turner & Thompson, 1993). In most instances, marginality is neither observable nor acknowledged by others in academia (Thompson & Dey). For faculty of color, marginality is often attributed to “poor institutional fit, cross cultural and social differences, and self imposed perceptions of racial and ethnic discrimination” (Alexander-Snow & Johnson, 1999, p. 90). Previous research indicates that everyday interactions, feelings of being unwelcomed, unappreciated, and unwanted all contribute to faculty of color being marginalized (Johnsrud, 1993; Lucas & Murry, 2002). Banks (1984) surmised that the pressures of conflicting role expectations, social isolation, and personal adjustments weigh significantly on junior African American faculty when entering the academy, further contributing to a sense of marginalization.

Being marginalized contributes to the lack of a positive socialization experience for faculty of color (Johnsrud, 1993). Several rationales are offered to explain why faculty of color and particularly African American faculty experience marginalization. Thompson and Dey (1998) offer that African American faculty may experience marginality: (a) from their discipline based on their scholarly agenda; (b) in their department based on their teaching agenda; (c) from the college or university community based on the institution’s preferred agenda; and (d) in their own (African American)
community based on an agenda that may be misunderstood. Faculty of color whose research interests focus on ethnic issues have reported concerns about their work being “devalued and dismissed as out of the mainstream or self-serving” (Johnsrud, 1993, p. 7). Also contributing to the marginalization of faculty of color is the perception that colleagues assume they are affirmative action hires, leaving faculty of color feeling continually pressured to prove they belong in the academy (Johnsrud & Des Jarlais, 1994). Further, since the culture at PWIs is White-normed and White-dominated, the sense of marginality is often heightened for African American faculty employed at these institutions (Thompson & Dey, 1998).

In addition to being marginalized, faculty of color also experience isolation upon entering the professoriate. The lack of collegiality between senior and junior faculty often contributes to junior faculty experiencing isolation and difficulty with the socialization process. In fact, Turner et al. (1999) quantitative study of institutions in the Midwest concluded that isolation and the absence of mentoring are significant contributors to faculty of color having negative socialization experiences.

Lack of Collegiality

Collegiality is often a high expectation or priority for new faculty when they join an institution (Menges, 1999; Whitt, 1991). However, according to Boice (1992b), most new faculty experience loneliness and under-stimulation. Johnsrud (1993) believes this aspect of the socialization of faculty of color could be enhanced considerably by increased interaction with senior faculty. Further, she considers the lack of collegiality and collaborative efforts as one of the most disappointing aspects of academia. Research by Johnson and Harvey (2002) indicated that African American faculty at HBCUs believed a barrier in their socialization was the failure of senior faculty to “show them the
ropes” (p. 306). According to Baldwin (1990) senior faculty or a supportive department chair willing to respond to questions can remove many of the obstacles that confront new faculty during their socialization. Johnsrud and Des Jarlais (1994) discovered in a quantitative study of 229 faculty that one of the primary reasons faculty cited for leaving was their relationship with the chair and the lack of support from the chair. Other examples of collegial efforts that may enhance the socialization of faculty of color include jointly pursuing research grants and collaborating on manuscripts.

Ultimately, much of the work in academia tends to separate and isolate faculty from one another. Lucas and Murry (2002) characterized the life of an academician as one of “solitary pursuit” (p. 22). However, they encouraged new faculty to take advantage of every opportunity to counterbalance this isolation. Without the guidance of a senior faculty member, new faculty of color are more likely to struggle through the socialization process (Turner et al., 1999).

The aforementioned barriers are major contributors to faculty of color having less than positive socialization experiences. In turn, faculty of color who perceive their socialization experiences as negative may endure higher levels of stress, conflict, and isolation. Ultimately a negative socialization experience may result in discontented faculty who are more likely to leave their institution prior to completing the tenure and promotion process (Johnson, 2001). Research suggests these barriers can be removed, at least in part, through improved collegiality and mentoring.

**Mentoring**

Blackwell (1989) defines mentoring as “a process by which persons of superior rank, special achievements, and prestige instruct, counsel, guide, and facilitate the intellectual and/or career development of persons identified as protégés” (p. 9). In
academia, persons of superior rank would include senior faculty or the department chair. The traditional nature of the mentoring relationship suggests that faculty members are more inclined to mentor junior faculty who are like themselves (Tillman, 2001). Mentors are more likely to select protégés who share the same ethnic, religious, academic, and/or social backgrounds. Given the aforementioned criteria for the selection of protégés, African Americans, much less African American males, are not likely to be selected as protégés because they will probably reside in departments with few, if any other African Americans (Tillman).

During the latter 20th century, as greater emphasis was placed on diversity in higher education, scholars such as Blackwell (1989) and Tillman (2001) suggested mentoring might be an effective strategy for assisting in achieving diversity in the professoriate. Asserting that the underrepresentation of faculty of color is “extremely serious” (p. 421), Blackwell suggested mentoring might directly influence the pipeline for increasing the faculty of color population, particularly African American faculty. Tillman not only believes mentoring can be used to promote the development of African American faculty, but that it can be used to increase the number of African American faculty at PWIs.

Blackburn, Chapman, and Cameron (1981) consider mentoring to be an important aspect of the training and development of new professionals. Additional research by Alexander-Snow and Johnson (1999) revealed that mentoring was beneficial to new faculty, particularly new faculty of color. According to Tillman (2001), mentoring benefits African American faculty by contributing to their growth and development. However, Tillman also notes the success of the mentoring relationship is typically defined by the protégé and, in the majority of cases, the perceived success of the
mentoring relationship is related to the achievement of tenure and promotion for the junior faculty member.

Kram (1985) describes the mentoring relationship as the “prototype of a relationship” (p. 2) that enhances career development. She asserts institutional or organizational constraints often make it difficult for individuals to provide mentoring or engage in developmental relationships because of the competitive climate that exists in most organizations, especially in academia. Developmental relationships such as mentoring provide a range of functions that enhance career advancement and the psychosocial development of the mentor and protégé. Mentoring relationships are dynamic and changing, and may transition from a positive developmental relationship to a negative and destructive one.

Tillman (2001) has what can be considered a comprehensive definition of the mentoring experience:

a process within a contextual setting; a relationship between a more experienced individual; a means for professional networking, counseling, guiding, instructing, modeling, and sponsoring; a developmental mechanism (personal, professional, and psychological); a socialization and reciprocal relationship; and an opportunity for identity transformation for both the mentor and the protégé. (p. 296)

In general, the mentor is a senior person who assists in the development of a junior person through teaching, coaching, and counseling (Lucas & Murry, 2002). The mentor should be available to assist the protégé in achieving career goals, offering encouragement, and constructive criticism; however, the relationships between the mentor and protégé should be strong enough to withstand the constructive criticism/feedback (Blackwell, 1988).

A mentoring relationship is one of the most complex and developmentally important relationships that can be established (Levinson, 1978). Sands, Parson, and
Duane (1991) consider it to be not only complex, but also a “multidimensional activity” (p. 189). Mentoring is not defined in terms of its formal roles but in terms of “the characteristics of the relationship and the functions it serves” (Levinson, p. 98). These functions vary depending on the mentor/protégé relationship. According to Levinson, the role of the mentor may include being a teacher, sponsor, host, guide, exemplar, or counselor; however, he considers another function as “developmentally the most crucial one: to support and facilitate the realization of the Dream” (p. 98).

Mentoring Functions

Mentors perform a variety of functions for their protégés. Mentoring functions are those aspects of the mentoring relationship that enhances the protégé’s growth and development and are categorized as either career or psychosocial functions (Kram, 1985; Luna & Cullen, 1995; Smith, Smith, & Markham, 2000; Tillman, 2001; Welch, 1997).

Career Functions

Career functions enhance learning within the organization and prepare the protégé for organizational advancement. Components of the career functions include sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments (Kram, 1985; Tillman, 2001). Examples of career functions are protection from being assigned to time consuming and demanding committees (protection), providing feedback, guidance, and sharing information (coaching), and nominating junior faculty for career enhancing opportunities (sponsorship). Career functions are possible because of the mentor’s expertise, position, and influence within the organization (Kram).

Psychosocial Functions

The psychosocial functions of mentoring “enhance a sense of competence, clarity of identity, and effectiveness in a professional role” (Kram, 1985, p. 22) and consist of
role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling, and friendship. Psychosocial functions occur when an interpersonal relationship is established between the mentor and protégé based on trust and intimacy. Although the levels of career and psychosocial functions vary in the mentoring relationship, relationships that exhibit both types of functions typically have a greater intimacy and interpersonal bond (Kram, 1985).

Kram (1985) acknowledges that the career and psychosocial functions are not distinctly independent. The functions provided in the mentor relationship are determined by the developmental tasks each individual brings to the relationship, the interpersonal skills of the participants and the organizational context in which the relationship develops. Regardless of the mentoring function, it can occur in either a formal or informal manner.

Formal Mentoring

Formal mentoring is “managed and sanctioned by the organization” (Russell & Adams, 1997, p. 4). With formal mentoring, senior faculty and junior faculty are purposely paired and participate in activities/programs that are designed and offered by a third party (the institution or department) (Tillman, 2001). Formal mentoring most often focuses on short-term career achievement. A significant concern with formal mentoring programs is that they usually are not well-developed nor widely utilized (Lucas & Murry, 2002). Advocates of formal mentoring contend that informal mentoring occurs infrequently and those faculty members, women and faculty of color, who are most likely to benefit from a formal mentoring program fail to benefit from informal mentoring programs (Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001).
Informal Mentoring

Informal mentoring occurs without “external involvement from the organization” (Russell & Adams, 1997, p. 4) resulting in it not being managed, structured, or formally recognized by the organization. It typically occurs over an extended period of time as the mentor and protégé learn to trust and become familiar with one another (Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001). Established based on mutual interests or developmental needs, informal mentoring relationships usually focus on long-term career goals – e.g., achieving tenure and promotion. Faculty-to-faculty mentoring is typically informal and is usually self-selecting, voluntary, and mutually agreed upon (Blackburn et al, 1981; Sands et al, 1991; Tillman, 2001).

Benefits of Mentoring

Blackburn et al. (1981) consider mentoring to be an important aspect of the training and development of new professionals. Blackshire-Belay (1998) indicates that “mentoring new faculty members can make or break their academic career” (p. 33). This assertion is further supported by Alexander-Snow and Johnson (1999) who indicate that mentoring is particularly beneficial to new faculty of color.

Specifically identified benefits of mentoring include greater job success, faster promotion, increased compensation, accelerated career mobility, higher self esteem, and reduced stress and conflict (Russell & Adams, 1997; Smith et al, 2001). Boice (1992a) indicates that mentoring resulted in faculty becoming more rapidly socialized to their respective campuses and improved teaching evaluations when compared to faculty who were not mentored. Additional benefits of mentoring include the new faculty member gaining a better understanding of the organization’s culture, access to informal
communication networks, and defining and achieving career goals (Luna & Cullen, 1992).

Blackwell (1989) believes mentoring can directly influence the pipeline for increasing faculty of color, especially African Americans. Tillman (2001) also suggests that mentoring, whether formal or informal, should be considered an effective strategy for assisting in the professional development and growth of African American faculty and in achieving diversity in the professoriate at PWIs.

**Theoretical Framework – Enculturation Model**

The theoretical framework for this study is Rosch and Reich’s (1996) Enculturation Model. This model was selected for a theoretical framework because it addresses faculty socialization experiences from anticipatory socialization (graduate education) through the role continuance phase (promotion and tenure) of organizational socialization. It is grounded in the ways that different academic disciplines select, socialize, and express institutional culture to new faculty. Previous research on institutional culture (Tierney), socialization (Van Maanen), and new faculty experiences inspired the development of this framework (Rosch & Reich). In addition the framework examines the bi-directionality of the socialization process.

Rosch and Reich (1996) posit that new faculty members typically experience a four-stage process of socialization or enculturation. Enculturation is an anthropological term that means socialization (Reynolds, 1992). The enculturation model suggests that socialization is a cumulative learning experience and that new faculty will have the opportunity to “introduce new norms and values resulting in new or blended cultural patterns” (Rosch & Reich, p. 129).
The stages of the enculturation process include: 1) pre-arrival; 2) encounter; 3) adaptation; and 4) commitment or metamorphosis. The pre-arrival (anticipatory socialization) stage focuses on the predispositions of new faculty prior to their entering a new work environment (organizational entry). The characteristics of the pre-arrival stage are congruent with the characteristics of anticipatory socialization (Lucas & Murry, 2002). It is during this stage that the professional identity and role orientation of the prospective faculty member is examined. Rosch and Reich believe, “The higher education view of professional socialization is that professional identity is acquired through extensive and intensive formal education and that, once acquired, role orientation remains relatively stable over time” (p. 116). The pre-arrival stage involves the prospective faculty member being exposed to the values, norms, customs, and attributes of his/her graduate institution. Unfortunately, graduate preparation for prospective faculty is not organized in a particularly systematic or developmental manner (Austin, 2003). Austin’s research indicates that prospective faculty seldom engage in dialogue about what it means to be a faculty member, how higher education is changing, and what skills and abilities are needed to succeed as faculty. Furthermore, the pre-arrival (graduate) experiences of prospective faculty will vary by discipline, institution, department, and the individual’s level of willingness to learn what is required to be successful as a faculty member.

The second phase of the enculturation model is the encounter stage. During the encounter stage new faculty predispositions intermingle with their perceptions of the faculty role that were developed as a result of the recruitment and interview process (Rosch & Reich, 1996). During the recruitment and interview process the faculty candidate uses past experiences and accomplishments as a point of reference in
developing an understanding of the new institution’s norms and values (Rosch & Reich). Conflict occurs when the new faculty member’s predispositions and the new institution’s norms and values differ (Lucas & Murry, 2002). The encounter stage ends once new faculty have established a set of preconceptions in which they expect to function. This transitional learning process results in either support or confusion in the individual’s new role as a faculty member. Both the encounter and adaptation stages parallel the organizational socialization phase of initial entry.

Adaptation is the third stage of the model. The differences between the graduate institution and the new work environment are considered during this stage. New faculty may experience “a sense of disorientation or foreignness” (Rosch & Reich, 1996, p. 118). The socialization process in this stage either supports or confuses the newcomer to the organization. Numerous individual relationships influence the new faculty member’s perceptions of the organization during this stage. These relationships cause the faculty member to interpret events positively or negatively and to formulate appropriate or inappropriate responses (Rosch & Reich). The new faculty member attempts to reconcile the differences between graduate school and their current position during the adaptation stage (Lucas & Murry, 2002).

The final stage of the enculturation model is the commitment or metamorphosis stage (Lucas & Murry, 2002; Rosch & Reich, 1996). The commitment stage and role continuance phase are comparable. New faculty settle into their roles and begin establishing a niche during the commitment stage. The new faculty member’s commitment to the organization is influenced by both personal predispositions and organizational interventions (Rosch & Reich). Organizational commitment is defined as “the affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one’s role in
relation to these goals and values, and to the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in the organization” (Rosch & Reich, p. 118). During the commitment stage the values, beliefs, and norms of the institutions are internalized by the new faculty member (Lucas & Murry). Organizational identification occurs once the individual has gained an understanding of the organization’s goals and values and those goals and values are integrated with the personal goals and values of the individual (Rosch & Reich).

This model was used as a theoretical framework for understanding the socialization process in general. However, to gain a broader and more in-depth understanding of the socialization experiences of African American male faculty, elements of Critical Race Theory (CRT) were incorporated into the study framework.

**Critical Race Theory (CRT)**

Critical Race Theory (CRT) originated in the 1970s as a response to Critical Legal Studies (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004; Ladson-Billings, 1998; Lynn, Yosso, Solórzano, & Parker, 2002). It is derived from a variety of disciplines, including law, sociology, history, ethnic studies, and women’s studies (Solórzano, Ceja, & Yosso, 2000). Although first used in legal studies, CRT extended to areas such as education during the late 20th century and is emerging as a powerful theoretical and analytical framework for educational scholars (DeCuir & Dixson; Solórzano, et al.). Incorporating an activist component, CRT focuses on the effects of race and racism with an end goal being to facilitate change that will implement social justice (DeCuir & Dixson; Solórzano & Yosso, 2002).

Solórzano and Yosso (2002) state CRT “advances a strategy to foreground and account for the role of race and racism in education and works toward the elimination of
racism as part of a larger goal of opposing or eliminating other forms of subordination based on gender, class, sexual orientation, language, and national origin” (p. 25). It recognizes people of color as creators and holders of knowledge that may challenge and critique mainstream traditions (Delgado Bernal & Villalpando, 2002). In addition, CRT serves as a framework for identifying, analyzing, and transforming the structural and cultural aspects of education that maintain subordinate and dominate racial positions in and out of the classroom (Solórzano & Yosso).

CRT is comprised of five basic tenets: (a) counter-storytelling; (b) the permanence of racism; (c) Whiteness as property; (d) interest convergence; and (e) the critique of liberalism (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004). Counter-storytelling is “a method of telling a story that ‘aims to cast doubt on the validity of accepted premises or myths, especially ones held by the majority’” (DeCuir & Dixson, p. 27). The use of counter-storytelling is a means for providing a voice to marginalized groups and for exposing and critiquing normalized dialogues that perpetuate racial stereotypes (DeCuir & Dixson; Ladson-Billings, 1998, Ladson-Billings, 2000). Counter-stories provide a rich method for understanding knowledge from people of color (Delgado Bernal & Villalpando, 2003). Found in several forms, counter-stories include personal stories/narratives, other people’s stories/narratives, and composite stories/narratives and are a tradition for African Americans, Chicanos, Asian Americans, and American Indians (Delgado Bernal & Villalpando).

The second basic tenet of CRT is the permanence of racism. CRT scholars posit that race and racism is a permanent, powerful, dominant and normal component of American society (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004; Ladson-Billings, 1998; Lynn et al., 2002; Solórzano & Yosso, 2002). This is so much so the case, that CRT scholars are more
surprised at the absence of racism than they are by its presence (Broido & Manning, 2002). Lopez (2003) suggests society fails to see racism because it is an everyday experience that is often taken for granted. Racism is so common that society fails to realize how it functions and how it shapes our institutions, relationships, and ways of thinking. Thus, an additional purpose of CRT is to “expose and unveil White privilege…and reveal a social order that is highly stratified and segmented along racial lines” (Lopez, p. 84).

Whiteness as property is the third tenet of CRT. Due to the role of race and racism in history, CRT scholars argue that Whiteness can be considered a property interest (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004). It is the belief of CRT scholars that the U.S. is a nation built on property rights (Ladson-Billings, 1998; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995). Property functions for Whites include the rights to use and enjoyment, to exclude, and of reputation and status (Ladson-Billings). Historically, the ownership of property entitled one to be franchised, resulting in the legal pursuit of happiness and reputation and the right to exclude. From an educational viewpoint, the right to exclude has resulted in faculty of color, including African American male faculty, being marginalized or isolated in academia.

The fourth tenet of CRT is interest convergence. Interest convergence is the concept that the primary beneficiaries of civil rights legislation are not people of color but Whites (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004; Ladson-Billings, 1998). It has been suggested by CRT scholars that the landmark Brown v. Board of Education decision was made because the material interests of Whites converged with the civil rights interests of African Americans (DeCuir & Dixson; Lopez, 2003). In short, critical race theorists suggest the Brown decision was made for the benefits of Whites and not African Americans.
Convergence such as this ensures that racism remains and that social progress advances at a pace determined by Whites (Lopez, 2003).

The critique of liberalism is the final tenet of CRT. CRT scholars are critical of the concepts of colorblindness, the neutrality of the law, and incremental change (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004). Colorblindness is discounted because being White is considered the accepted norm or standard for understanding the experiences of people of color. Second, the idea that the law is neutral is insufficient because rights and opportunities in the U. S. have often been conferred and withheld based on race. Finally, incremental change is not promoted because change for marginalized groups should not come at a pace that is acceptable to those in power (DeCuir & Dixson).

CRT in education begins with the premise that race and racism are prevalent (Solórzano & Yosso, 2002). Solórzano et al (2000) describe the CRT framework for education as:

- different from other CRT frameworks because it simultaneously attempts to foreground race and racism in the discourse on race, gender, and class by showing how these social constructs intersect to classed experiences of communities of color and offers a laboratory and transformative method for examining racial/ethnic, gender, and class discrimination. (p. 63)

CRT is used in educational research to bring attention to the experiences of people of color. It is particularly relevant to this study because it will allow for a better and more in-depth understanding of the socialization experiences of African American male faculty, a traditionally underrepresented and marginalized subgroup of the professoriate. Through the use of counter-storytelling, African American male faculty will have the opportunity to provide narratives about their varied and unique socialization experiences.
Conceptual Map

Socialization occurs in two very distinct phases: anticipatory and organizational (Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). Anticipatory socialization typically occurs during graduate school and organizational socialization occurs once the individual becomes a member of the department. Organizational socialization also occurs in two phases: initial entry and role continuance (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). Rosch and Reich’s (1996) Enculturation Model is based in part on Tierney’s and Van Maanen’s research on faculty socialization and organizational culture in higher education. My conceptual map uses constructs from Rosch and Reich’s model to illustrate the socialization process for new faculty.

The following conceptual map illustrates the pre-arrival phase (graduate education) as the initial step in the socialization process for aspiring faculty. The pre-arrival stage occurs during graduate education. It is during this stage that aspiring faculty learn the values and roles of faculty (Rosch & Reich, 1996). The pre-arrival stage leads to the encounter stage, which is consistent with initial entry into the organization. This stage includes the recruitment and hiring process. Conflicts between the graduate experience and the current professional experience may occur (Lucas & Murry, 2002). The third stage of the enculturation process is the adaptation stage. The adaptation stage continues the initial entry phase of the socialization process. New faculty attempt to compare and reconcile the differences in their graduate and professional experiences (Rosch & Reich). Commitment is the final stage of the enculturation or socialization process. During the commitment stage faculty become attached to the organization’s goals and seek to establish their own niche (Rosch & Reich).

The conceptual map also illustrates that at any point during the socialization process new faculty may exit academia. Due to the numerous barriers, including
marginalization, isolation, and the lack of collegiality and mentoring that often exists in academic departments, many prospective and junior African American male faculty may leave academia during the enculturation process. My contention is that African American male faculty who have positive experiences will likely persist in the organization until achieving promotion and tenure.

**Summary**

The review of the literature acknowledges that the socialization process is vital to the success of newcomers joining an organization, particularly faculty entering the academy. It is also important to acknowledge that faculty, regardless of ethnicity and gender, may have some similar socialization experiences upon entering the academy. However, it is just as important to recognize that faculty will have differing experiences based on their race, ethnicity and/or gender. Considering this, scholars are encouraged by
Tierney (1997) to explore the socialization experience in its entirety and from the various perspectives of faculty of color and women.

Regardless of race, ethnicity, or background, being a faculty member is difficult; however, it is even more difficult for faculty of color (Branch, 2001). Thompson and Dey (1998) argue that the faculty role is intensified for African American faculty, so much so that they characterize the experiences of African Americans as frequently demoralizing and stifling to their intellectual development. Finally, Rowley (2000) informs us that African American males are marginalized and isolated in academia because they are not adequately prepared for the numerous roles of a faculty member.

Additional research is needed to gain an understanding of the unique experiences and perspectives of African American male faculty. Previous research has focused on the socialization experiences faculty of color and women but not specifically on the experiences of the African American male. Elements of Critical Race Theory (CRT) were incorporated to gain a broader and more in-depth understanding of the experiences of African American male faculty. Because the socialization experiences of African American male faculty have not been thoroughly researched, my research contributed to the understanding of the socialization experiences of a subgroup in academia that has traditionally been excluded and often misunderstood.
CHAPTER III – METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to explore the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male professors. A mixed methodology research design was utilized. Elements of Critical Race Theory (CRT) were incorporated to gain a better and more in-depth understanding of the experiences of this particular subgroup of the professoriate. In this chapter I will explain my rationale for using a mixed methodology design, how I incorporated CRT, the sampling procedures, and the data collection and analysis methods.

The use of mixed methodologies requires extensive data collection, time-intensive analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data, and expertise on the part of the researcher with both quantitative and qualitative research methods (Creswell 2003). Employing a mixed methodology in this study allowed for an in-depth understanding of the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty while at the same time allowing generalization of the study’s findings.

Mixed methods research utilizes both qualitative and quantitative data collection and data analysis techniques in either a parallel or sequential phase (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). Teddlie and Tashakkori posit that mixed methods research is “superior” (p. 14) to single method designs for the following reasons: 1) Mixed methods research can answer research questions that cannot be answered by a particular method used in isolation; 2) Mixed methods research provides better inferences (conclusions/outcomes); and 3) Mixed methods allow for a greater diversity of divergent views. An additional benefit of mixed methods is that they are useful for understanding ethnic and cultural diversity issues in learning and development because they “allow researchers to examine both outcomes and processes, and both the close-up experiences of particular groups and
where those groups fall on the larger social scale” (Orallana & Bowman, 2003, p. 29). In addition to the use of mixed methods, I incorporated a critical race methodology. Solórzano and Yosso (2002) posit “a critical race methodology in education challenges White privilege, rejects notions of ‘neutral’ research or ‘objective’ researchers, and exposes deficit-informed research that silences and distorts epistemologies of people of color” (p. 26). Furthermore:

> CRT offers insights, perspectives, methods and pedagogies that guide our efforts to identify, analyze, and transform the structural and cultural aspects of education that maintain subordinate and dominant racial positions in and out of the classroom. (Solórzano et al., 2000, p. 63)

CRT provides a framework for communicating the experiences and realities of the oppressed (Ladson-Billings, 1998). Traditional research paradigms and theories are challenged by CRT. For this study, CRT provided a means for better understanding the socialization experiences of African American male faculty. Full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty had an opportunity to tell the “stories” of how they were socialized and learned the norms of their respective institutions.

**Research Questions**

To explore the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty and to discover any differences that exist in the socialization experiences of this subgroup of the professoriate at HBCUs and PWIs, the following research questions guided this study:

RQ1. What are the stories that full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty tell about their socialization experiences?

RQ2. What factors influence the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty?
$H_0$: There are no factors that influence the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty.

RQ3. What differences exist in the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty at HBCUs and full-time tenured and tenure-track African American males at PWIs?

$H_0$: There are no differences in the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty at HBCUs and full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty at PWIs.

**Sequential-Exploratory Design**

This study employed a sequential-exploratory mixed methods design. Creswell, Clark, Gutmann, and Hanson (2003) categorized the sequential-exploratory design as one of six major mixed methods designs. In a sequential-exploratory study, the initial phase of the study involves qualitative data collection and analysis followed by a quantitative phase of data collection and analysis (Creswell et al.). Exploring or examining a phenomenon is the primary goal of the sequential-exploratory design. The phenomenon explored in this study is the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty.

Phase I (qualitative phase) of the study permitted me to gain an in-depth understanding of the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty at both HBCUs and PWIs. Whitt (1991) states that qualitative methods are particularly useful for understanding culture and cultural processes such as socialization. In addition, the qualitative phase provided me an opportunity to describe in detail the unique and diverse socialization experiences of those selected to participate in this study. Phase II (quantitative phase) consisted of developing
and distributing a questionnaire to full-time tenured and tenure-track African American
male faculty at HBCUs and PWIs. The questionnaire was developed from the findings of
Phase I of the study and the review of the literature. The quantitative data collection and
analysis allowed the findings of the study to be generalized to full-time tenured and
tenure-track African American male faculty at colleges and universities designated in the
Carnegie Classification system as doctoral research institutions and master’s colleges and
universities HBCUs and PWIs in the Southern Regional Educational Board (SREB)
states.

In a sequential-exploratory study, priority is given to the qualitative phase of the
study and the quantitative phase is used to assist in the interpretation of the qualitative
findings. Findings from the qualitative and quantitative phases of a sequential-
exploratory study are integrated during the interpretation phase of the study (Creswell,
2003). The findings from the participants’ interviews and the questionnaire were
integrated during the interpretation phase of the study. Creswell also recommends the use
of the sequential-exploratory design when the researcher develops an instrument. A
questionnaire was developed primarily from the data collected during the participant
interviews and in part from the review of the literature. Advantages of the sequential-
exploratory design include being easy to implement and straightforward to describe and
report (Creswell).

Sample

Both purposive and probability sampling methods are utilized when employing
mixed methods. Purposive sampling (also called nonprobability sampling) describes
“samples in which the researcher uses some criterion or purpose to replace the principle
of canceled random errors” (Kemper, Stringfield, & Teddlie, 2003, p. 279). Purposive sampling techniques result in samples that are minimized and more focused.

Probability sampling’s primary goal is generalizability and the ability to make inferences to a population from a sample or subset of the population (Kemper et al., 2003). Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) define probability sampling as “selecting [a] relatively large number of units from a population, or from specific subgroups (strata) of a population, in a random manner where the probability of inclusion for every member of the population is determinable” (p. 713).

Since a sequential-exploratory design was selected, and the emphasis of this study was on the qualitative phase of the study, a purposive sampling technique was utilized for the initial phase of data collection. Purposive sampling is described as being “information rich” (Kemper et al., 2003, p. 279). The purposive sampling technique I selected for use in this study was criterion sampling. Criterion sampling is the selection of a sample that meets predetermined criteria (Creswell, 1998). The selection criteria for participants in Phase I of this study were full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty employed at HBCUs and PWIs in the SREB states (See Appendix – C) that are doctoral research institutions and master’s colleges and universities based on the 2000 Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education. Because the socialization process for full-time tenured and tenure-track faculty differs from that of part-time and adjunct faculty, no part-time or adjunct faculty participated in the study. Only full-time tenured and tenure-track faculty at the ranks of assistant, associate, and full professor were asked to participate in the study.

The purposive sample consisted of both tenured and tenure-track faculty. Sixteen full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty employed at five
institutions were interviewed. Four participants were interviewed at the HBCU doctoral research institution, four at the PWI doctoral institution, four at the PWI master’s college and university, and four at two HBCU master’s colleges and universities. I interviewed both full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty to gain a more in-depth understanding and perspective of their socialization experiences.

The HBCU doctoral research institution (Randolph State University) is a public co-educational university. It is located in a large metropolitan area in the southern U. S. Its undergraduate enrollment exceeds 9,700 students. Ninety percent of the students at Randolph State are African American. Females comprise 58% of the enrollment and males 42%. Approximately 570 full and part-time faculty members are employed at Randolph State.

The predominately White doctoral research institution (Deep South University) is a large state-supported university. It is the flagship institution for its state. Located in a metropolitan area, Deep South has an enrollment that exceeds 31,000 students. Eighty-six percent of the students are White; with 52% of the enrollment female and 48% male. There are more than 1,300 full-time faculty members and over 3,000 staff members employed at Deep South. The university has a history of exclusionary practices for students, faculty, and staff of color. The first faculty of color was not hired at Deep South until the late 1960s/early 1970s.

The PWI master’s college and university (Southern State University) is a public, co-educational institution located in a small city in the South. It is approximately one hour from a large metropolitan area. There are approximately 10,000 students enrolled and more than 450 full-time faculty employed at Southern State. Eighty-one percent of the students at Southern State are White; females comprise 59% of the student enrollment.
and males 41%. Southern State also has a history of exclusionary practices for employees and students of color. The first faculty of color was not hired at Southern State until 1970.

One of the HBCU master’s colleges and universities (King University) is a public, land-grant, co-educational institution located in a small town in the South. There are approximately 3,000 students enrolled at King. Ninety-three percent of the students are African American. Females comprise 56% of the enrollment and men 44%. King employs 120 full and part-time faculty with 87% of the faculty employed full-time.

The second HBCU master’s college and university (Douglass College) is a public, land-grant, co-educational institution located in a large metropolitan area. It has an enrollment exceeding 9,700 students, with approximately 8,600 enrolled as undergraduates. Ninety-six percent of the students at Douglass are African American. Females comprise 61% of the student enrollment and males 39%. More than 570 faculty members are employed at Douglass with 71% of them full-time. There are two other colleges, a large public research PWI and a community college, within 10 miles of Douglass.

The differences in the institutional environments and cultures of the institutions selected for participant interviews are a limitation of this study. Considering there are only seven HBCUs classified as doctoral research institutions, and the largest of these has an enrollment of approximately 10,000 students, comparisons between an HBCU and a PWI that are more similar demographically was not feasible.

I identified prospective interview participants through professional and personal contacts, networking, and various campus offices (e.g., institutional planning, research, multicultural affairs, affirmative action, and human resources). Through these offices, the name and email address of each prospective participant was obtained. Requests for
participation were then sent via email to prospective participants outlining the study’s goals and objectives.

For Phase I of the study a non-proportional stratified random sample of African American male faculty at HBCUs and PWIs throughout the southeastern U.S. was selected for participation in the study. In stratified random sampling, “the population is divided into subpopulations called strata” (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 2003, p. 146). Non-proportional simply means the strata (subpopulations) are not equal in proportion. Stratification of the sample ensured representation of the various ranks of tenure-track faculty (e.g., assistant, associate, and full professors). More specifically, faculty were selected from institutions located in the SREB states (see Appendix C). The rationale for selecting institutions in the SREB states is that the institutions selected for participant interviews and most HBCUs are located in SREB states.

In Phase II, I obtained rosters with the names of prospective participants and their email addresses through professional and personal contacts, networking, and various campus offices (e.g., institutional planning, research, multicultural affairs, affirmative action, and human resources). An email outlining the study’s goals, objectives, and containing a web link to the questionnaire was sent to prospective participants. The questionnaire was distributed via email using Websurveyor to all accessible full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty at HBCUs that are designated by the Carnegie Classification system as doctoral research universities and master’s colleges and universities in the SREB states. Questionnaires were also distributed to selected PWIs that were matched with the HBCUs based on Carnegie Classification and enrollment (see Appendices D & E).
Data Collection

According to Johnson and Turner (2003), using both qualitative and quantitative methods “will result in the most accurate and complete depiction of the phenomenon under investigation” (p. 299). For this study the phenomenon studied was the socialization of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty. The fundamental principle of mixed methods research is that of “complementary strengths and nonoverlapping weaknesses” (p. 299). This principle recognizes that all methods have their limitations and strengths. When the fundamental principle is applied to the collection of data, the collection methods should be combined in a manner where the weaknesses do not overlap and that convergent and divergent evidence may be provided about the phenomenon being studied. This study sought to take advantage of the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods.

During Phase I of the study, I interviewed full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty. Through the interviews, I was able to obtain rich, personal, and in-depth descriptions of the socialization experiences of the study’s participants. Due to the limited number of interviews, a limitation or weakness of this phase of the study is the inability to make generalizations regarding the findings of the qualitative phase. However, this weakness was offset by a strength of the quantitative phase of the study. The primary strength of the quantitative phase of this study is the ability to make generalizations regarding the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty at HBCUs and PWIs. A limitation of quantitative research is the inability to describe the personal experiences of the study’s participants.
Qualitative (narrative) data was collected via participant interviews during the initial phase of the study. Marshall and Rossman (1999) discuss three general types of interviews: the informal conversational, the general interview guide, and the standardized open-ended approach. The qualitative data was collected via tape-recorded general interviews. An interview protocol (see Appendix A) was used to guide the interviews. The interview protocol for general interviews is comprised of unstructured and open-ended questions (Creswell, 2003). This format is designed to gain a broader narrative of the participants’ experiences. Other strengths of the general interview format include being able to get large amounts of data quickly, the potential for immediate follow-up and clarification, and an opportunity to gain an understanding of the meanings associated with the participants’ daily activities (Marshall & Rossman). Disadvantages of interviews include the potential for the researcher’s presence biasing the participants’ responses (Creswell, 2003) and the participants perceiving the likelihood of their anonymity being maintained as low (Johnson & Turner, 2003). The willingness of the participant to be interviewed and the ability of the interviewer to ask questions that evoke long narratives are also potential limitations to conducting interviews. Since some of the participants in this study were untenured faculty, concerns were expressed by them regarding their anonymity being maintained. As a result some participants were reluctant to fully discuss their socialization experiences.

Critical race methodology was utilized during Phase I of the study to gain a more in-depth understanding of the experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty. One of the fundamental elements of CRT is the centrality of experiential knowledge (Solórzano & Yosso, 2002). “Critical race theory recognizes that the experiential knowledge of people of color is legitimate, appropriate, and critical to
understanding, analyzing, and teaching about racial subordination” (p. 26). Critical race theorists believe experiential knowledge is a strength and therefore use storytelling, family histories, biographies, scenarios, parables, chronicles, and narratives to learn about people of color (Solórzano & Yosso). Critical race methodologies provide a means for communicating the experiences and realities of the oppressed (Ladson-Billings, 1998).

I used storytelling or counter-storytelling to learn more about the socialization experiences of full-time tenure-track African American male faculty. Counter-storytelling is “a method of telling a story that aims to cast doubt on the validity of accepted premises or myths, especially one held by the majority” (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004, p. 27). Counter-storytelling “counters a set of unexamined assumptions made by the dominant culture… [and is considered] a rich way of understanding knowledge from communities of color” (Delgado Bernal & Villalpando, 2002, p. 172). Counter-storytelling allows for the challenge of privileged discourses, thus allowing it to serve as a means for providing a voice to marginalized groups (DeCuir & Dixson). It is telling the stories of those whose experiences are not often told (Solórzano & Yosso, 2002). Found in various forms, counter-storytelling may include personal narratives, other people’s stories/narratives, and composite stories/narratives (DeCuir & Dixson). For the purposes of the study, personal stories/narratives were recorded to advance the understanding of the participants’ experiences.

The interviews incorporated CRT through the use of counter-stories and were designed to elicit information about the participants’ experiences as new faculty. Each interview was tape-recorded and took place in a mutually agreed upon location – most often the participants’ offices. Pilot interviews were conducted with two full-time tenured African American male faculty. The pilot interviews were conducted to test the quality of
the interview questions, estimate the length of the interviews, and to identify any problems with the interview process. Interviews lasted between approximately 30 and 75 minutes. All interviews were conducted during the spring and summer 2005. An interview protocol (see Appendix A) incorporating critical race methodology was utilized to guide participants through the interviews. The interviews were transcribed verbatim during the data analysis phase.

Additional data were collected through the analysis of documents. Document analysis is one of four basic types of qualitative data collection (Creswell, 1998; 2003) and is typically used to enhance and enrich research that utilizes other qualitative methods (Bogdan & Biklan, 1998; Love, 2003; Marshall & Rossman, 1999). I incorporated the use of both general and personal documents in this study. Documents “are any written or recorded material that was not prepared specifically in response to a request from an inquirer or for some official accounting” (Love, p. 85). Documents are categorized as either general or personal (Love). An example of a general document is a policy statement. An email or letter would be considered a personal document. The general documents analyzed for this study were the promotion and tenure policies of the institutions where Phase I of the study was conducted. The personal documents analyzed were the curriculum vitae (CVs) of the faculty participating in the qualitative phase.

Document analysis is an unobtrusive method, considered rich in portraying the values and beliefs of participants in the setting (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). The analysis of the promotion and tenure policies enriched my understanding of the culture and expectations of the institutions where faculty participating in the initial phase of the study are employed. The review of the CVs permitted me to obtain demographic data such as educational and employment history. In addition, I developed better insight into
the participants’ research interests, courses taught, and involvement both within and outside their respective institutions.

The primary strengths of document analysis are their richness as a source of additional data and their ability to stimulate additional interview questions (Love, 2003). The most significant limitation to document analysis is the non-interactiveness and non-responsiveness of the process (Love). However, Marshall and Rossman (1999) consider the unobtrusiveness and non-reactiveness of document analysis to be a strength because it can be conducted without disturbing the setting. An additional weakness of document analysis is the amount of inferential reasoning or interpretation by the researcher (Marshall & Rossman).

During Phase II of the study, I collected quantitative data via a questionnaire. The questionnaire was developed primarily from the qualitative data analysis with contributions from the literature on faculty socialization. A pilot study was conducted with full-time tenured and tenure-track African American female faculty during June 2005. The instrument was distributed to full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty at select institutions during October 2005. The HBCUs were selected and matched with a PWI based on Carnegie Classification, enrollment, and public/private status.

I distributed the questionnaire via email using Websurveyor. Questionnaires were distributed to full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty at HBCUs and PWIs that are designated in the Carnegie Classification system as doctoral research institutions and master’s colleges and universities in the SREB states. An email was sent with the questionnaire informing the prospective participants of the study’s
purpose and goals. A follow-up email was sent to prospective participants if they had not responded to the questionnaire after one week.

**Data Analysis**

Mixed methods data analysis is “the use of quantitative and qualitative analytical techniques, either concurrently or sequentially, at some stage beginning with the data collection process, from which interpretations are made in either a parallel, an integrated, or an iterative manner” (Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie, 2003, pp. 352-353). Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie posit that two major rationales exist for conducting mixed methods data analysis – representation and legitimation. Representation is “the ability to extract adequate information from the underlying data” (Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie, 2003, p. 353) and legitimation is the validity of the data interpretation. Representation was achieved by thoroughly analyzing both the qualitative and quantitative data to best articulate the experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty. Legitimation involves assessing the trustworthiness of both the qualitative and quantitative data and the interpretation of the data (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Legitimation in this study occurred through triangulation. Triangulation is constituted by the “combinations and comparisons of multiple data sources, data collection and analysis procedures, research methods, and/or inferences that occur at the end of a study” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003, p. 717). I collected data from multiple sources (African American male faculty) using multiple data collection methods (qualitative and quantitative) and analyses (constant comparative method and ANOVA), to gain a better and more in-depth understanding of the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty.
Through the use of mixed method data analysis techniques I was able “to understand the phenomena better.... [and] to get more out of the data” (Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie, 2003, p. 353). A sequential qualitative-quantitative data analysis was employed. In sequential-exploratory studies the findings are integrated during the data analysis phase, with the primary purpose of the quantitative phase being to support or assist in the interpretation of the qualitative phase.

The interviews were transcribed verbatim and narrative data from the interviews were analyzed, categorized, and coded using the constant comparative method (Creswell, 1998). More specifically, the constant comparative method can be used to compare the views, situations, actions, accounts, and experiences of different people (Charmaz, 2000). When utilizing the constant comparative method, data are analyzed and themes are developed to the point of saturation. Saturation occurs when data analysis leads to no new themes or categories being established (Creswell, 1998). Thematic development occurs through three phases of coding: open (initial categorical development), axial (the interconnecting of the categories), and selective (building a story that connects the categories) (Creswell). According to Charmaz, coding is the start of theory development.

The quantitative data analysis occurred through descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics provide demographic information regarding the study sample. Inferential statistics permit the researcher to study samples and to then make generalizations about a particular population from which the sample was selected (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2000).

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the quantitative data. ANOVA is used to assess whether the means of dependent variables are significantly different among groups (Green & Salkind, 2003). Factors (independent variables) in this
study were institutional type and Carnegie Classification. The qualitative data collection and analysis suggested the specific experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty that were explored in the questionnaire.

SPSS statistical software was used to assist in analyzing the quantitative data. I reported the quantitative findings in tabular form, including both the descriptive and inferential data. In addition, data related to the demographics of the sample, including the number that failed to reply to the questionnaire, were collected and analyzed. The quantitative data collection and analysis were used to assist in the interpretation, expansion, and generalizability of the qualitative analysis.

**Inference Quality/Transferability**

Inference quality is a mixed methods term that Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) define as a “researcher’s construction of the relationships among people, events and variables as well as his or her construction of respondents’ perceptions, behaviors, and feelings and how these relate to each other in a coherent and systematic manner” (p. 692). Inference quality for this study was determined by analyzing the narratives of the qualitative phase and the findings of the quantitative phase.

Member checking (validation) was employed to ensure the qualitative data accurately depicted the experiences of the participants interviewed. Member checking is a qualitative term used to determine the trustworthiness of the data analysis. By participating in member checking, study participants have the opportunity to review the researcher’s conclusions to ensure they accurately depict the participants’ personal experiences (Creswell, 1998). Participants were provided verbatim copies of the transcribed interviews for their review and to ensure the accuracy of my transcriptions. Neuman (2000) describes a study as member valid if the participants recognize and
understand the researcher’s description as reflective of their social experiences. Potential limitations of member validation include the participants objecting to the description because it does not portray their experiences accurately or favorably and the participants disagreeing with the thematic development because it is not from their perspective (Neuman).

To ensure the quality of the quantitative data analysis, the assumptions of the specific test (ANOVA) were not violated. Green and Salkind (2003) identified three assumptions for ANOVA: 1) the dependent variables must be normally distributed; 2) the population variances and covariances are equal; and 3) the participants must be randomly selected. The variables were checked to assure they were normally distributed and homogeneous. There were an unequal number of cases, therefore, the Type III sum of square analysis was used. No post hoc tests were conducted because only two groups were used.

The biases of the researcher must also be considered when ensuring the quality of the inferences. Marshall and Rossman (1999) assert that a challenge of qualitative researchers must confront is allowing personal interest to bias the study. The review of the literature on the socialization experiences of faculty of color definitely biased me. I had an expectation that the qualitative phase of the study would provide numerous examples of struggles during the socialization process for those participants who entered the academy in environments that were less than welcoming. As an African American male who has worked in higher education administration, I expected to be able to identify with many of the issues that were discussed by the participants in the qualitative phase of the study. However, I was committed to maintaining an open-mind and presenting the
findings in a manner that best articulated the experiences of those participating in the study.

To check myself, I provided copies of the interview transcripts to the participants to ensure the accuracy of the transcriptions. The findings of the study were then provided to a subset of the participants in Phase I to ensure that their experiences were accurately presented. In addition, the findings were debriefed by two colleagues who are familiar with the content of the study. Both colleagues have had professional experiences at HBCUs and PWIs.

The interpretive rigor of the study was determined by examining for cross-reference and theoretical consistency; in addition, the interpretive agreement and distinctiveness of the inferences was considered. I examined the qualitative and quantitative inferences to determine if they were consistent with one another. Although this study focused specifically on the socialization of African American male faculty, the data was analyzed for theoretical consistency with previous research on the socialization experiences of faculty of color and women. For example, previous research indicates faculty of color and women in general experience social and professional isolation in the academy (Jackson, 1991). Did the findings of my research indicate this is true for African American males or was it divergent?

Inference transferability according to Tashakkori & Teddlie (2003) “refers to [the] generalizability or applicability of inferences obtained in a study to other individuals or entities, other settings or situations, other time periods, or other methods of observation measurement” (p. 710). Transferability is the ability to generalize or apply the inferences from a study to a population (Tashakkori and Teddlie). In this study, I attempted to make
inferences that are transferable to African American male faculty. More specifically, a goal of this study was to make inferences that were transferable to full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty at HBCUs and PWIs in the SREB states.

Procedures

The following procedures were utilized to protect the rights of those participating in the study and to inform them of the study’s purpose: 1) all necessary Institutional Review Board (IRB) documentation (See Appendices F & G) was completed prior to beginning data collection; 2) participants in both phases of the study had their anonymity and confidentiality protected through the use of pseudonyms and the removal of institutional names; 3) written consent was received from faculty participating in the qualitative phase of the study; 4) the research objectives were articulated in writing and verbally to participants in Phase I of the study; 5) participants in Phase I of the study were provided verbatim copies of the interview transcripts to verify the accuracy of the transcripts; and 6) prospective participants in Phase II had the research objectives articulated to them in writing (via email).

Phase I – Qualitative

Sixteen full-time tenured and tenure-track African American males participated in the qualitative phase. Eight general interviews were conducted with faculty at three HBCUs and eight general interviews were conducted with faculty at two PWIs. The interview participants were comprised of seven full professors, three associate professors, and six assistant professors. Five interview participants’ academic disciplines are considered hard-sciences and 11 participants’ academic disciplines are considered social sciences. Of the 16 interview participants, 56% received their undergraduate degree from an HBCU. All of the participants, except one, received their doctoral or terminal degree
from a PWI. Twelve of the participants are either Ph. Ds or Ed. Ds, three have Jurist Doctorates, and one has a Master of Social Work.

The interviews were conducted during a six month period. An initial request for participation was forwarded to prospective faculty via email. Faculty were informed of the purposes of the study, the format of the interview (tape-recorded, general, and open-ended), and the approximate length of the interview. Prospective faculty were selected at four institutions for participation: two HBCUs – one doctoral research institution and one master’s college and university; and two PWIs – one doctoral research institution and one master’s college and university. Institutions were selected and matched based on Carnegie Classification, enrollment, public/private status, and location in an SREB state. Three of the institutions responded favorably to the request for faculty rosters. I conducted interviews at the doctoral research PWI and master’s college and university PWI within a six-week span. Interviews at the doctoral research HBCU were conducted both face-to-face and via phone during a two-month period. The master’s level college and university HBCU declined numerous requests (via email and phone) for a faculty roster. A fifth institution, a Carnegie Classification master’s college and university HBCU was selected. The request for a roster of the full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty was met with favorably; however, the faculty response was minimal. Only one faculty member agreed to be interviewed. After numerous email attempts to prospective participants, a request for participation was emailed to faculty at a sixth institution, also a master’s college and university HBCU. The response was favorable and the final three interviews were conducted over a two-month period.

I encountered some difficulty in getting the participants at the HBCUs to participate in Phase I of the study. The eight interviews at the three HBCUs were
conducted over a six-month period. In comparison, the eight interviews at the PWIs were conducted within a one-month period. Some of the prospective participants at the HBCUs stated they would participate only if other prospective participants declined to take part in the study. I believe that potential participants at the HBCUs may have mistrusted my motives as a member of a PWI. This lack of trust may have contributed to their lack of willingness to participate. However, once prospective participants agreed to take part in the study, establishing a rapport was relatively easy. For example, one participant with whom I conducted a phone interview asked, “Are you a person of color?” When I responded in the affirmative, he was more than willing to share the stories of his experiences in academia.

The following is a thick description of the participants that participated in Phase I of the study. All of the participants in Phase I of the study were African American male, full-time, and tenured or tenure-track.

Mitchell is a full professor at Randolph State. He has had several high-level administrative posts in his career. He has been at Randolph for 24 years and in academia for 34 years. He has professional experience at both HBCUs and PWIs. His undergraduate and law degrees are from Randolph State. His J.S.M. (master’s of law) is from a large private research PWI located in the West. He worked in private industry prior to entering academia.

James is a tenure-track assistant professor in a social science at Randolph State. His undergraduate degree is from a small public PWI in the Northeast. He possesses a Juris Doctorate (J. D.) from a PWI. He has been employed in academia for 10 years. He
is currently an assistant dean in his college. James has been actively involved in politics, having previously held an elected office.

Anderson is a tenure-track assistant professor in a social science at Randolph State. He has been employed in academia for four years. His undergraduate degree is from Randolph and his master’s degree is from a large public research PWI. He has worked as an adjunct faculty member. He has experience in the counseling/social service profession.

Samuel is a full professor and is currently the department chair. He has been employed at Randolph State for 41 years. During his tenure he has served in other administrative positions at Randolph. His undergraduate degree and master’s are both from Randolph State. He obtained his Ph. D. from a large public research PWI.

Simmons is an associate professor at King and is currently the chair of his department. He has been employed at King for 10 years. His undergraduate degree and Ph. D. are both from large public research PWIs in the Midwest. He is retired from private industry.

Robert is a full professor in a social science at Douglass. He has been at Douglass for 34 years and has been employed in academia for 38 years. He has been employed at a community college, a HBCU, and a PWI during the course of his career. His undergraduate degree is from a mid-sized public research HBCU in the South. His master’s degree and Ph. D. are both from a large research PWI located in the South. He has served as department chair and as a graduate school administrator.

Lawrence is a full professor at Douglass. He is currently serving as the department chair. He has been employed at Douglass for 32 years and has been in academia for 33 years. He earned an Ed. D. from a large research PWI in the west. His
undergraduate degree and two master’s degrees are all from Douglass. He has worked at
both a HBCU and a large public research PWI. Prior to entering higher education, he was
a teacher and an administrator on the K-12 level.

Wilson is a tenure-track assistant professor at Douglass. He has been in academia
for seven years. He is a faculty member in a hard science. His undergraduate and
master’s degree are from Douglass. He possesses a Ph. D. from a large public research
PWI located in the South. He has worked as an adjunct professor at a community college
and at a PWI.

Arthur is an assistant professor in a social science at Deep South. He has been
employed at Deep South for five years. His undergraduate degree is from a private
research PWI. He possesses a Juris Doctorate (J. D.) from Deep South. Prior to accepting
a tenure-track position at Deep South, he was employed with a large law firm. He has
worked in both print and visual media.

Madison is a chaired professor at Deep South. He attended a HBCU as an
undergraduate and was valedictorian of his high school class. His Ph. D. is from a large
public research PWI. He has been employed at Deep South for 14 years. Prior to coming
to Deep South, he was employed at two large research PWIs in the South. He also has
experience in private industry.

John is a full professor in a social science at Deep South. He has been employed
at Deep South for 32 years. Prior to coming to Deep South, he was employed at a HBCU
for one year. Both his undergraduate and master’s degree are from HBCUs. His Ph. D.
was obtained at a large PWI in the Midwest. He has also worked as a research associate.

Walter is an associate professor at Deep South University. His discipline is a
hard-science. He has been employed at Deep South for seven years. His undergraduate
degree is from a public research PWI. His master’s degree and Ph. D. are both from the same small private research PWI. He was promoted to associate professor in 2003. Prior to entering academia, he was employed in private industry as a researcher associate.

Evan is an assistant professor at Southern State University. He has been at Southern State for four years and has been employed in academia for 10 years. He has been employed as a tenure-track and as an adjunct faculty member. His previous institution of employment was a small PWI located in the upper Midwest. His undergraduate degree is from a small private liberal arts PWI. His master’s and Ph. D are both from large public research PWIs.

Charles is a full professor in a social science at Southern State University. He has been employed at Southern State University for 35 years. He was the first faculty of color on his campus. Charles obtained his undergraduate degree from a small HBCU and both his master’s and Ph. D. are from PWIs. He has served as an administrator in his college, both on an interim and permanent basis.

Willie is an associate professor in a social science at Southern State University. He has been employed at Southern State University for four years and has been in academia for seven years. He obtained his Ph. D. from a large public research PWI in the Midwest. His undergraduate degree is from a small private liberal arts PWI and his master’s degree is from a public PWI. Both institutions are located in the southern U. S.

Fred is an assistant professor in a social science. He has been employed at Southern State University for three years. Both his undergraduate and master’s degree are from the same public research PWI. His Ed. D is from Southern State University. Prior to becoming a faculty member he was a counselor. He has experience in as a K-12 teacher. He is also a classically trained musician.
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Phase II – Quantitative

Fifty-eight institutions (29 HBCUs and 29 PWIs) were selected for participation in Phase II of the study. The HBCUs were selected based on their Carnegie Classification and location in an SREB state. They were then matched with a PWI based on Carnegie Classification, enrollment, public/private status. Twenty-four institutions (7 HBCUs and 17 PWIs) responded favorably to the request for faculty rosters, including four PWIs that informed me they employed no full-time tenured or tenure-track African American male faculty. The faculty rosters, including name and email, of prospective participants were obtained via personal contacts, offices of human resources, and affirmative action/equal employment opportunity offices.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to test the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. Because of the limited number of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty in academia, I distributed the pilot questionnaire to full-time tenured and tenure-track African American female faculty at three institutions. The institutions were comprised of one PWI doctoral research institution; and one HBCU and one PWI master’s college and university. The questionnaire was distributed to 53 tenured and tenure-track African American female faculty members. Twenty percent of the prospective participants in the pilot study responded to the questionnaire. The last item on the instrument sought the feedback of the pilot participants. From this feedback, revisions were made to the format and wording of the questionnaire.
Quantitative Demographics

Data for Phase II of the study were collected via Websurveyor software. An email was distributed to all accessible full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty at 20 doctoral research and master’s colleges and universities in the SREB states (See Appendix C) requesting their participation in the study. A sample of 701 full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty was compiled. Sixty-three emails were deemed “undeliverable,” resulting in 638 ($n = 638$) prospective participants.

There were 621 full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty employed at the seven HBCUs. Fifty-three emails were “undeliverable” resulting in a sample of 568 ($n = 568$) African American male faculty at the HBCUs. Ninety-one or 16% of the faculty responded to the questionnaire, including 35 full professors, 30 associate professors, 23 assistant professors, and three who listed their rank as “other.”

![Figure 2. Number of HBCU Faculty Participants and Rank](image)

Sixty or 66% of the HBCU participants were tenured. Seventy-seven percent possess a Ph. D. or Ed. D. and 70% attended an HBCU as an undergraduate. The number of HBCU participants was almost equally divided among faculty employed at institutions designated by the Carnegie Classification system as doctoral research (51%) and master’s colleges and universities (49%).
The mean number of years participants at HBCUs were employed at their current institutions was 12.85 years. The mean number of years as a faculty member was 18.72. Fifty-five percent of participants at HBCUs were employed in departments with less than 10 faculty of color and the mean number of African American male faculty (including the participant) in participants’ respective departments was 6.37.

Eighty African American male faculty were employed at the PWIs. Seven email addresses were “undeliverable” resulting in a sample of 73 ($n = 73$) prospective faculty members at the PWIs. Thirty-seven or 51% of the full-time tenured and tenure-track faculty at the PWIs responded to the questionnaire, including 13 professors, 13 associate professors, nine assistant professors and two whose rank was identified as “other.”

![Figure 3. Number of PWI Faculty Participants and Rank](image)

Twenty-eight or 79% of the participants employed at PWIs were tenured. Seventy-six percent possessed either a Ph. D. or Ed. D. and only 40% attended an HBCU as an undergraduate. Twenty or 59% of the participants were employed at Carnegie Classification doctoral research institutions.

The mean number of years participants at PWIs were employed at their current institutions is 13.66 years and the mean number of years as a faculty member is 18.28. One hundred percent of the participants employed at PWIs were in departments with less
than 10 faculty of color and less than 10 African American male faculty members. The mean number of African American male faculty in their respective departments, including the participant, was 1.92.

**Summary**

In this chapter, I provided a description of my research methodology, including data collection and analysis methods, and descriptive statistics of the study’s participants. The research design used was a mixed methodology (qualitative-quantitative – sequential-exploratory). Elements of Critical Race Theory (CRT) were discussed, particularly counter-storytelling and the permanence of racism. The counter-storytelling element of CRT was incorporated to gain a better understanding of the experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty. The findings from this study, presented in Chapter IV, may be used to bring attention to the experiences of African American male faculty, to assist administrators and senior faculty in implementing policies that may assist African American male faculty during their entry into the academy, and to inform prospective African American male faculty.
CHAPTER IV – FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to explore the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty employed at HBCUs and PWIs that are designated by the Carnegie Classification system as doctoral research institutions and master’s colleges and universities. In this chapter I discuss the qualitative and quantitative findings of the study. First, I present the discussion of how participants became interested in academia followed by discussion of their preparation for entering the academy. I then discuss how participants “learned the ropes” of being a faculty member. The findings on how participants’ socialization experiences are affected by their race and gender are presented, followed by a discussion of the barriers that African American male faculty encounter in the academy. How the participants adapted to and influenced their department is then discussed. I then turn to a discussion of the disappointment that African American male faculty have with the expectations that African American students establish for themselves. What is most rewarding about academia for the participants is discussed next. Additional findings from the study are then presented. I then present the advice offered by the participants for prospective and junior African American male faculty. Finally, I present the discussion on the “socialization experience” variable that was computed for the study. I begin by discussing how participants developed an interested in academia.

Developing an Interest in Academia

Participants in Phase I revealed they were motivated to become faculty members for a number of reasons. Some participants thought their “value” or ability to positively influence others would be higher in academia than in other professions – e.g., law. Others
thought academia would be a good fit for their personalities, and still others entered into the academy not knowing exactly what that would entail.

Considering the small number of African American male faculty in academia, Arthur, an assistant professor at Deep South who possesses a Jurist Doctorate, thought his “value” would be higher in an academia than in a courtroom. He responded, “I had my first Black professor while I was in my second year of law school. I thought I would have more value on a [college] campus than I would in a court room.”

Madison, a tenured faculty member at Deep South, entered the academy because of his desire to teach and work with students. He commented:

After going back to graduate school, I realized how much I loved teaching. And so, when I decided to pursue a career, I started thinking about teaching as a career, because I love interacting with students. I have always loved promoting students and encouraging them.

Describing himself as opinionated and outspoken, James an assistant professor at Randolph State, thought a career in academia would match his personality. He surmised, “I’ve always been opinionated. In academia you [have] the ability to engage in give-and-take and that’s what I like the most. That’s what got me interested.”

Willie, an assistant professor at Southern State University, revealed that his desire to enter academia was an indirect result of fleeing from the police. He tells of growing up in a large southern city and observing some individuals on a college campus in long black robes as he was literally being chased by the police and declaring he would get one someday, not realizing what he had to do to get it:

When I was a high school student in [a large southern city]; during the time when it was not acceptable for minority folk to go into particular neighborhoods; amusingly, what myself and a few of my friends used to do was ride our bikes in the wrong neighborhoods. As an escape route, we had the university campus to sort of get away from the cops and literally, I remember being on that particular campus during the end of the fall semester and I noticed these individuals in these
black robes of sorts. At that particular time, I told myself I want to get one of those, not necessarily knowing what that was or what it meant to get one, but somewhere I felt that was something I should have. So in the back of my mind I always knew I was going to get a terminal degree at that advanced level, but exactly in what, it was never completely certain.

The reasons identified by participants for pursing careers in academia varied. Among the reasons discussed were opportunities to teach and assist in the development of students, and because it fulfilled an intrinsic desire or value.

**Preparing to Enter the Academy**

Many of the participants in Phase I of the study do not believe their graduate experience adequately prepared them for the professoriate. In addition, the expectations they established in graduate school were often inconsistent with their reality of entering the academy. When asked if his graduate experience had prepared him to be a professor, Willie responded, “I’m not certain that any of those experiences prepared me for being an academic. I just realized that, if they can do it, I can do it.” Evan, an assistant professor at Southern State, also believed that graduate school had not properly prepared him for academia. He attended a large, research PWI for his doctoral studies but is employed at an institution that emphasizes teaching. His expectations of the professoriate were not consistent with his reality because of the differences between his graduate institution and his institution of employment. He commented:

> [My graduate education] didn’t do a whole lot, because it kind of skewed it [my expectations]. So like in graduate school, this was the life of an intellectual; always dealing with these issues and things. You know you get away from that and you realize that the academic life away from some of these larger institutions is a lot more pragmatic. It’s dealing with students who come from all over the state who don’t have the preparation that they need. How do you do that? [There’s] no longer [the] pondering of issues of existence or anything like that. It’s like figuring out how can I get through to somebody who doesn’t know what a complete sentence is.
Madison also believed he was not properly prepared to enter the academy. However, his incongruence was the result of disciplinary norms. In his discipline, post-doctorate fellowships are common and much of the preparation for entering academia occurs during the fellowship and not in graduate school. He stated:

As a graduate student you are sort of removed from the life of a professor. And I didn’t do a post-doc [fellowship]. So normally, a post-doc would introduce you to life as a professor, and I didn’t do [one]. I went directly to a faculty position.

Participants in Phase II of the study were asked to respond to two specific items about their preparation for entering the professoriate and their expectations of the academy. Item #13 asked participants to “Please rate the aspects of the professoriate that your graduate experience adequately prepared you for.” Those aspects included the teaching, research, and service components of the professoriate. Faculty at the HBCUs believe that graduate school prepared them more so for research than teaching and service. Sixty-four percent of participants at the HBCUs believe they were “Very much” prepared for the research component of their responsibilities. However, only 50% believe they were “Very much” prepared for the teaching component of their responsibilities and only 25% believed graduate school prepared them “Very much” for their service commitments. Similarly, 68% of African American male faculty at the PWIs believed they were “Very much” prepared to conduct research, 49% were “Very much” prepared for teaching and 30% were “Very much” prepared for their service commitments.

Item #22 on the questionnaire asked participants “Were the expectations of the professoriate you established in graduate school consistent with the reality of entering the professoriate?” Only 23% of participants at the HBCUs responded the expectations they established in graduate were “Very much” consistent with the reality of entering the professoriate and 54% responded they were somewhat consistent. Twenty-two percent of
participants at the PWIs believed the expectations of the professoriate established in graduate school were “Very much” consistent with the reality of entering the academy and 56% responded they were somewhat consistent.

![](image)

**Figure 4. Percentage of Participants **“Very Much” Prepared for Teaching, Research, & Service

Both Phase I and Phase II participants acknowledged the expectations of the professoriate established in graduate school are inconsistent with the reality of entering the academy. As for their preparation for the three core responsibilities of faculty, participants’ responses were similar regardless of institutional type (HBCU or PWI). Participants were more likely to believe they were prepared for the research component of the professoriate than for the teaching and service components.

**Learning the Ropes**

Participants in Phase I of the study were asked to describe how they “learned the ropes” of being a faculty member. For most of the participants, learning the ropes most often occurred through on-the-job training, trial-and-error, and observation.

When asked how he “learned the ropes,” Charles, a history professor at Southern State University surmised, “It was on-the-job training; shall we put it that way? Nobody
told you what to expect. You just learned on your own.” Mitchell, a professor at Randolph State, also “learned the ropes” through on-the-job training, “It was on-the-job training because being a faculty member was something growing up I never wanted to do.”

Trial-and-error was another method for “learning the ropes.” Madison stated, “I had to learn by hard knocks.” Meaning he had to learn by trial-and-error and without guidance from a senior faculty member. He further described his socialization experience by stating, “I really had to learn on my own, with some degree of mentoring from various persons who took an interest in me. There was no formal mentoring process.”

For others, “on-the-job training” occurred prior to entering the academy as full-time faculty. On-the-job training for these participants happened while they were employed as adjunct faculty. An advantage participants identified of serving in an adjunct position was the opportunity to enhance their teaching skills prior to entering the professoriate full-time. Anderson described how his experience as an adjunct faculty member assisted in his preparation for a tenure-track position:

I think that in terms of the specifics of it and the particular job duties, etc., I began to learn it [how to be a professor] when I came on board as an adjunct instructor. That began the practice of actually lecturing here at the university and also preparing for a course, developing the syllabus, you know, selecting books, text books.

Wilson, an assistant professor at Douglass, also pursued adjunct faculty positions to assist in his preparation for entering the academy as a full-time faculty member. He pursued an adjunct position after being advised that he needed teaching experience prior to pursuing a full-time position:

My major advisor told me that I needed some teaching experience to be an effective professor. So he suggested that I either go to the community college
system or a high school system and teach some courses, so I could get a feel for what teaching was all about.

In addition to learning the ropes during his adjunct experience, Anderson also learned through observation and informal interactions with colleagues. He described it [interactions with colleagues] as a “social agent.” “You learn so much informally and just by listening to people and watching people and so that’s been really a real social agent for me.”

James acknowledged that he too learned through observation, “My rule was kind of keep your head down, listen more than you talk and try to figure out what was going on.” Simmons, an associate professor at King University, “learned the ropes” while in graduate school by observing his major professor. He explained, “I kind of thought about how he did things and watched him and drew upon my experience as a graduate student and how other department members at [my graduate institution] operated.”

Some faculty admitted they “learned the ropes” through a combination of methods, such as “trial-and-error” and “observation.” Robert, a tenured professor at Douglass, recalled “learning the ropes” through both his adjunct experience and by observing others:

I had taught for a year at a high school; [a] junior college situation in Mississippi. I had basically cut my teeth in terms of teaching, from those experiences. And then you learn and pick from teachers as you go through the process. And you pick up both good, I think, and bad techniques perhaps; but you try to keep all of the good techniques and put those to practice.

Data from Phase II supported the themes developed from Phase I of the study. Seventy-four percent of the respondents at the HBCUs responded that they “learned the ropes” of being a faculty member through “on-the-job training” Other prominent methods
“learning the ropes” by faculty at HBCUs included: “observation” (59%), “trial-and-error” (57%), and “graduate school” (51%).

Faculty at the PWIs responded in a similar manner. Participants responded they “learned the ropes” of being a faculty member primarily (minimum response rate of 50%) via “on-the-job training” (79%), “observation” (76%), and “trial-and-error” (68%). Only 38% of PWI participants selected “graduate school” as a means for learning the ropes.

Study participants “learned the ropes” through multiple methods. The most common methods identified by participants for “learning the ropes” were on-the-job training, observation, and trial-and-error. These themes were convergent for Phase I and Phase II.
Mentoring

The mentoring experiences of African American male faculty were also explored in Phase I of the study. Participants at the HBCUs and the PWIs provided numerous examples of being mentored during their graduate education and upon entering the academy. The mentoring of junior faculty was more likely to occur informally than formally. In addition, the mentoring experience was more likely to occur in “isolated” instances instead of in sustained, long-term relationships with a particular mentor.

Mentors performed a variety of functions for their protégés. Among the functions most frequently noted were: 1) assisting junior faculty with learning the department; 2) assisting with the publishing process; and 3) providing junior faculty with feedback and constructive criticism. Anderson thought the senior faculty in his department were encouraged by the presence of junior African American male faculty and were more than willing to serve as mentors, “They [senior faculty] are encouraged to see a young Black man in particular, and so they do tend to offer to help or take you under their wings.” He further elaborated by discussing how the senior faculty in his department took the initiative to “expose and orient” him to certain aspects of academia:

In terms of my socialization into academia or this institution in particular, certainly some of my colleagues here in the department in which I work have, you know, sort of certainly [have] been available and also taken [the] initiative to expose me and orient me to certain situations and opportunities.

An additional mentoring function that senior faculty performed was assisting junior faculty with the publication process. Arthur admitted that he was uninformed about the process for submitting a paper for publication and that he learned about the process through a colleague who mentored him.

I think there is probably one professor in particular that’s been able to be really helpful. That was the guy that I went to when I had problems with statistics and
he really helped me with statistics. I have actually done two other projects with him and in the process of doing one of those projects I got a better understanding of the whole process of writing papers. I understood how we got the idea. I understood how we developed the instrument. I understood how we tested the instrument. I understood how we went through the process and then also wrote the paper itself….Even the politics for the revise and resubmits are something I would not have learned but for my work with him. So it’s been a good experience working with him.

Wilson appreciated the advice/feedback that his mentors provided him. The mentoring that he received assisted him with his classroom management. He stated, “I did have some help from several professors who, in a sense mentored me. Told me some things I should be looking for; some things that I should be doing. And they gave me advice on grading and teaching.” He commented further on the benefits of being mentored.

One thing it provided for me was just, one – opportunity and two – information; which was probably the most important. Information on running my classroom, information on grading, information on handling certain situations within the classroom, information on teaching a particular topic – little things that you don’t know going in as an instructor in your first semester or even your first year. So they give you little hints on things that work and little hints on things that they’ve tried, that they found that work and things that just would not work. So what these guys did for me was provided me with a lot of information on things that helped me get through the particular course.

Mitchell, although grateful, actually seemed surprised that he was mentored as a junior faculty member. He was not seeking to be mentored, but was, and admitted that he benefited from the experience:

I don’t know, for some unknown reason, people voluntarily mentor me. For some reason there were two associate deans at [prior institution] that basically ran the law school….Until this day I have absolutely no idea why they would sit around with me and talk about their jobs and talk about law school administration. But I learned a lot about university administration from them.

Despite providing numerous examples of being informally mentored, African American male faculty, particularly junior faculty at the PWIs, lamented the lack of
overall mentoring that occurs in the academy. Participants discussed specific areas of their professional development that suffered because of the lack of mentoring. Arthur, who admitted being mentored by two of his colleagues, discussed how his teaching and research had suffered due to the overall lack of mentoring provided by senior faculty in his department:

I never received any help on teaching from anyone in the department. I wish there were more people that were helpful in terms of sending articles to before they went out for review for publication. I wish there were more people I could talk to about how to manage my career so that I am successful at the end of six years.

Fred, an assistant professor at Southern State University, also discussed the lack of mentoring that he received. He acknowledged that in his tenure at Southern State he has never had a mentor, “Nobody’s taken the time to take me under their wings. I’m just saying in my department there is no obvious mentoring. Matter of fact, I haven’t had a mentor since I’ve been here.”

To further illustrate the concerns of African American male faculty regarding the lack of mentoring in academia, Willie offered this perspective:

As I mentioned before, when I think about that mentor/mentee relationship at majority institutions, unless you want to be like them [White faculty], the notion of them truly taking you under their wing to help you grow and evolve into that future faculty person is not something that happens. What I always try to do is, when I interact with faculty that I respect, I try to think about the qualities that they have that I like and try to incorporate some of those qualities into who I am.

Evan commented on the overall lack of mentoring he has received as a junior faculty member, “I certainly didn’t have any kind of formal mentoring where somebody said, I’m going to take you under my wing and do this for you.”

Analysis of the data from Phase II revealed the participants of this study mentoring experiences varied. Responses from the questionnaire indicate that 21% of the HBCU participants were mentored “Very much,” 20% “Often,” and 28% “Sometimes.”
Only 18% responded they were “Never” mentored. Sixty-six percent of participants at HBCUs acknowledged being mentored informally. The primary functions (minimum response rate of 50%) of mentors at the HBCUs included sharing information (59%), offering encouragement (52%), and providing constructive feedback/criticism (51%) to their protégés. Twenty-nine percent of participants at the HBCUs responded a function of their mentors was to assist with career/professional goals. Mentors for participants at the HBCUs were overwhelmingly male (77%) and either African American (48%) or White (40%).

![Mentor Functions - HBCU](chart)

Figure 7. Functions of Mentors at HBCUs

Forty-one percent of participants at PWIs believe they were mentored “Very much,” 6% “Often” and 21% “Sometimes.” Eighteen percent responded they were “Never” mentored. The roles of mentors (minimum response rate of 50%) at the PWIs were to offer encouragement (62%), provide constructive feedback/criticism (54%), and assist the protégé in achieving his career goal (51%). Forty-nine percent of participants responded that a function of their mentors was to share information. Participants were most often informally mentored (65%). Mentors for participants at the PWIs were most likely male (78%) and White (62%), with 43% of participants identifying an African American mentor.
In addition to responding to multiple items on the questionnaire regarding their mentoring experiences, participants were asked “Did a senior faculty member/administrator ‘show you the ropes’ upon joining your current academic unit?” Sixteen percent of participants at the HBCUs selected “Very much” and 28% selected “Never.” Twenty-two percent of PWI participants responded by selecting “Very much” and none of the participants responded “Never.”

The participants in this study acknowledged that they were mentored. However, participants in Phase I of the study spoke of isolated mentoring experiences. They also described specific experiences where the lack of mentoring hindered their professional development or told of not being mentored at all. This contributed to many of them expressing desires for increased mentoring or a sense that the overall mentoring experience was lacking. The findings of Phase II were divergent. Over 65% of participants at both the HBCUs and PWIs responded they were mentored at least some of the time.

**Race and Gender**

The race and gender of the study’s participants had mixed effects on their experiences in the academy. Although participants told stories about their race and
gender affecting their socialization experiences, the focus of their stories was most often race. As a result of their employment at HBCUs, many of the participants at the HBCUs believed their race and gender had a positive affect on their experiences in the academy.

For example, Anderson was convinced that his race and gender had positively influenced his experiences as a faculty member at an HBCU. He stated, “It’s made a difference that I’m a Black male. Yes, I think it’s made a difference in some interactions and just [my] experiences overall. I think it’s been real positive in most ways.” Simmons concurred that being an African American at an HBCU had positively influenced his socialization. He stated, “with it being a HBCU, it probably, being Black, helped more so than hurt.” In addition, he thought his gender had benefited him because he described King University as “a male dominated society.”

Lawrence, a professor at Douglass, described how being an African American male positively influenced his experience in a variety of settings:

I think it has affected my experiences positively. Because of my background I was able to relate to students who are here, who also happen to be African American. Before coming here I was at [another institution] and had a class of almost all White students. Because of my background I was able to do some things with [White students] that had them question things. So my race and my gender, I think, have been positive.

Contrary to their colleagues at HBCUs, African American male faculty at the PWIs believed their race adversely impacted their experiences in the academy. The PWI participants placed greater emphasis on the role of race in their socialization than did their colleagues at the HBCUs. Evan who described his race as “ambiguous” told how his race had affected his relationships with African American students. He explained, “There’s often a moment with African American students where they say; they like make this connection, like wait a minute, he is a brother [African American male]!”
Participants believe their race was one reason students, particularly White males, were inclined to challenge them in the classroom. A professor at Deep South believed his authority was challenged for no other reason than his race. He described an encounter with students:

I had some students to kind of challenge my authority in the classroom. I had to deal with that. That could happen in any instance. I think that one of the reasons was that I was African American. That’s my belief, now, in terms of how it happened.

Wilson, who is a junior faculty member at Douglass, but has previous teaching experience at a community college and a large public research institution (a PWI), told a similar story. He had no doubt that his race was the reason the White male students in his classes challenged his ability to instruct the class:

Race has played a part, I can say that. I taught for a semester at [a PWI] and several semesters at [a community college] and what I found in particular at [the PWI], the White students, the White male students, not necessarily the White female students, the White male students tended to really challenge me in the early beginnings of teaching the class. And until it got to the point where they felt or they could see that I knew more than them and that I was the person in charge. But they tended to challenge a lot: Why don’t you do it this way? Can’t we just do it this way? Well, my teacher showed me we could do it this way. They tended to challenge me a lot more than African American males, African American females or White females, up unto the point where you were able to prove to them or show them you were superior to them in whatever course you were teaching. And that was across the board. That happened at [the community college], but more so at [the PWI].

Participants at the PWIs also revealed they were concerned about their race affecting their research interests, their ability to recruit students, and having their scholarly works more closely scrutinized. John stated that one of his concerns when he joined the faculty at Deep South was how his race and research agenda (which focuses on the experiences of ethnic minorities) would impact his ability to collaborate with colleagues. He explained his dilemma as such:
The next thing I thought about was, how was I going to establish my niche here so that I could not only survive but, adapt in this kind of situation. Also, another concern that I had was, in finding a niche of people to socialize with but who shared the same kind of research interests I had. Would I be able to find that here? You know, research is something that you establish collaborative relationships. You want to find people who have similar interests. Since my interests had to do with ethnic minorities, I was a little bit uncertain as to whether I would find an adequate number of scholars or people who had an interest in this in order to kind of create a critical mass to support my research. So I was concerned about that. What I was disappointed in was that I thought that [Deep South] being the flagship university of the state would be further along and more progressive than I found. I was disappointed in that because I didn’t find that.

Another professor at Deep South stated, “There is no doubt that race comes into everything.” His story provides an example of how race has affected his ability to recruit students, how he is perceived by those who may not know him, and how his scholarship has been scrutinized despite having over 200 publications and scholarly presentations.

Early on I could attract a wider variety of students. Students would come from all over to work with me because I wasn’t quite as known. They knew the name but they didn’t know who I was. They didn’t know that I was Black. Many of my students were White. Matter of fact, I attended a meeting at NSF once and I walked in and they said, “Welcome [Madison Smith]!” and a friend of mind, a White female was sitting near a White guy and he whispered, “Is that [Madison Smith]?” and she said “Yes. Don’t you know him?” and he said, “I never met him before, but I always pictured [him] as a little short fat Jewish guy.” Now that I am better known and people know that I am Black, I more or less attract Black students. There is nothing wrong with that. I get some very excellent Black students, but I don’t want to be seen as a Black professor working only with Black students. I want to be seen as a professor who works with all students. So race comes into that aspect, I have even been told by one of my White students [that] he was challenged by another graduate who said, “You can work for a Black guy? Why would you work for a Black guy?” The other thing is no matter what you accomplish people will scrutinize your record more carefully because you are Black. As thick as my vita is, right there, there are people who will nit-pick my vita and say, “Oh, he hasn’t done this, he hasn’t done that.” No matter how much I accomplish it is not enough.

Charles, who was the first faculty member of color on his campus, reflected on his experience as a new faculty member at Southern State University. He was keenly aware
of the institution’s history of discrimination and even used an encounter with a White female student as motivation for succeeding as a faculty member:

My worst experience was my very first semester here, which turned out to be my best experience. Now let me explain that. We were in a classroom with double doors. There were two entrances and my desk was at one door and there was another entrance at the back of the room. A young White lady walked into the back of the room, looked at me and said that she could not learn anything from no n-word and walked out. She didn’t say it to me directly, but she said it loud enough for me to hear and I said to myself that will be your loss [be]cause I will prove that I am one of the best teachers here. So in that sense it was a negative and a positive. It was her loss, but it gave me the motivation to prove that I could be one of the best teachers in the department.

Race not only affected the experiences of African American male faculty in the classroom but outside of the classroom. John, who is employed at a PWI, described his worst experience as an encounter with a White female who “mistakenly” thought he was a part of the custodial staff:

Probably, the worst experience would probably be being mistaken for a janitor by an elderly White woman. In spite of the fact that I didn’t look like a janitor. I was dressed professionally and so I just assumed that there were some people here who were more set in their ways and did not want to accept African Americans as professionals. Here I was a professional, probably in a higher position than she was in and being “mistaken for a janitor.” That was probably the lowest situation because, so what, it’s not going to influence my salary, it’s not going to influence my position and rank, but just to think that you are in an environment that has these kind of people.

The race and gender of participants in the study had both positive and negative affects on their socialization experiences, although greater emphasis was placed on their race. Participants at the HBCUs for the most part believed being African American was to their advantage. Although there were no Phase I HBCU participants who believed their race and gender adversely affected their experiences, there were a few HBCU participants who perceived their race and gender as having no affect on their experiences. The race and gender of participants at the PWIs affected their experiences in variety of
ways. PWI participants revealed that students, particularly White male students were more likely to challenge them because of their race. In addition, participants at the PWIs had less than positive encounters with colleagues, students, and others in the university community because of their race.

Analysis of the data from Phase I resulted in numerous examples of race affecting the experiences of African American male faculty in academia both positively and negatively. However, analysis of the data from Phase II indicated that participants perceived the racial climate of their respective departments as positive. Eighty-one percent of participants employed at the HBCUs and 78% of participants at the PWIs believed the racial climate in their department was either “Excellent” or “Good.”

**Barriers**

A number of barriers were identified during the participant interviews that contributed to African American male faculty having less than positive socialization experiences upon entering the academy. These barriers included the lack of collegiality, being lonely or isolated, politics, and the lack of support from deans and department chairs.

**Lack of Collegiality**

Phase I participants at both the HBCUs and PWIs expressed concerns about the lack of collegiality in their departments. At one of the HBCUs the lack of collegiality was, in part, attributed to age differences. James described it as older faculty taking issues with younger faculty members. “Younger” was defined by age and length of time in the department. He stated, “let’s not call them junior untenured [faculty] members, but some of these professors who are now tenured, they have been here 15 years instead of 30
years, there’s still a divide between them and the 30-year folks.” He continued by describing the relationship between the older and younger faculty:

I don’t think the young [professors] want to fight, but the old want to fight. And I have no earthly idea why it’s like that. But a lot of times, I think it’s just that people are fixed in their ways and when new people come along with a different approach and new ideas; when you’ve done something a certain way for a long time you’re not as necessarily interested because you have a rhythm to what you are already doing.

Evan also expressed concern about age differences contributing to the lack of collegiality in his department. He commented, “The division we have in my department that’s difficult to broach is an age difference.”

The lack of collegiality at the PWIs was most often attributed to race. Participants at the PWIs attributed the lack of collegiality to race and the lack of friendships in their departments. Willie believes that most White faculty see faculty of color as “minority hires.” He thought this contributed to the lack of collegiality in his department.

In terms of general faculty, they are cordial, for lack of a better way of putting it, but as I think about the notion of African American faculty being on predominately [White] campuses, I see them as being tolerant and maybe moderately accepting of us as colleagues and by that I mean, I still think when they look at us they see us as minority hires who may not be as qualified as they [are] even though in most cases we have come from a more rigorous program of study.

The disappointment in not being able to establish collegial relationships with colleagues in his department was clear when Willie added:

So I am not surprised nor shocked about what I have encountered [the lack of collegiality]. But I am just disappointed that when I think about what the potential could be [and] because of how they have not fully embraced the minority faculty as genuine colleagues, I think they miss some things. You are always wondering whether or not when they are talking amongst themselves whether or not they are actually talking about you in terms of being that minority hire.
Madison also was convinced that race contributed to the lack of collegiality. More specifically, he was convinced his White colleagues were unaware of how their comments could be construed as racist. He summarized his feelings by stating:

There are lots of good-minded/good intentioned people here on this campus who I hear express racist comments all the time and they don’t even realize they are racist. I think if people can be made to recognize how certain thinking can be racist, then things can be improved on campus, because there are good people here on this campus but there are certain things, the way they think about it, they don’t ever think about it as racist.

In addition to race, participants believed the absence of true friendships contributed to the lack of collegiality. John, who is tenured, made a distinction between colleagues and friends when he described his relationship with a faculty member in his department, “He is one non-African American that I can truly call a friend and there hasn’t been that many here. I’ve had colleagues and associates but not a lot of friends among non-African American faculty/staff.” Charles discussed the lack of interaction between himself and other faculty, “I worked in the department. I taught my classes; but there was not a great deal of interaction between me and my colleagues. He later admitted that relationships in the department had improved but not to the point of calling his colleagues friends:

Now I am not going to say, I became personal friends with anybody in the department; but it was a very good, cordial, working relationship. After 35 years, I cannot say, this guy in this department is my personal friend. I can’t say that.

Participants at both the HBCUs and PWIs indicated they experienced a lack of collegiality among their colleagues. Participants at both institutional types attributed the lack of collegiality to age differences and their length of time employed at the institution. Although age contributed to lack of collegiality at the PWIs, participants employed at the PWIs attributed the lack of collegiality primarily to their race.
Marginalized/Lonely and Isolated

The HBCU participants in Phase I of this study did not tell stories of being marginalized or experiencing loneliness and isolation in the academy. Their colleagues at the PWIs however did express disbelief in having their research and achievements marginalized. “Marginalized” is defined as having their research interests, the quality and number of their scholarly works questioned, and feelings of being devalued. This marginalization occurred not only within their respective institutions but regionally and nationally. Madison stated:

When I was nominated for an award as a distinguished faculty and I won this award; the person who nominated me said somebody came to him and said “How many publications does Smith have? 20? 25?” ‘I’m a chaired professor and there is no chaired professor on this campus with 20 [or] 25 publications. When the person said over 200, they couldn’t believe it. Expectations are that Blacks are given things; that they don’t earn them around here; just constantly having to prove myself over and over and over again. I never had that feeling at [previous institution] that I was constantly proving myself over and over again.

Fred felt as if his colleagues questioned the “validity” of his work. Based on his interactions with them at Southern State, he offered this response, “[It] seems as though what I have to contribute sometimes has a question mark, like it is not valid enough.”

Because of their experiences as African American faculty at Deep South and considering the institution’s history and tradition of exclusion, John and two colleagues established [an Association of Black Faculty/Staff]. He explained that establishing [an Association of Black Faculty/Staff] was one avenue for addressing the isolation and marginalization African American faculty experienced at Deep South:

There [were] a number of different things that we felt we had to address and that’s why this organization was established. Because I was the only African American in my department, I had to seek support for the kinds of things I was interested in, particularly if I was bringing about change to [Deep South].
Madison elaborated further by discussing how he was marginalized when he successfully ran for president of a professional association in his discipline:

[I’ve had problems] people not accepting your qualifications, not accepting who you are, [not accepting] your achievement. And it doesn’t matter what level. There are people who respect me. I ran for president of the [professional association] at the encouragement of other people. It doesn’t matter whether it is state, regional, national, it all ends up the same way.

As a result of being marginalized and due to the low number of African Americans in their respective departments, Phase I participants at the PWIs described their experiences in academia as lonely and isolated. Madison, who has been at his current institution for almost 15 years, simply stated, “It’s been a lonely existence. I don’t have many friends in my department.” Charles of Southern State also described his experiences in a similar manner, “It was lonely. Isolated.” John, who has been employed at his institution for over 30 years, expressed frustration in his department’s inability to establish a critical mass of African American faculty in his department. Today, there are the same number of African American faculty in his department as there were after he was hired – one.

There were no African American faculty members here. I was the first one and I’m still the only one. Although we’ve had some over the years, we’ve had as many as two in the department at one time. Over the years people come and go. Now there’s still only one. It’s kind of amazing that 32 years later, there’s only one African American faculty member, regardless of the attrition. People get lost. We’ve never been able to get a critical mass of African American faculty members in [my department].

Having their research and scholarly efforts marginalized and experiencing loneliness and isolation were themes that developed from analysis of the data in Phase I. Analysis of the data indicated being marginalized and experiencing loneliness were unique to the PWI participants in Phase I of this study. However, the findings from Phase II of the study were divergent. Fifty-five percent of participants at the HBCUs responded
that they had “Seldom” or “Never” been marginalized or isolated in any way and only nine percent acknowledged being marginalized or isolated “Very much” or “Often.”

Analysis of the data resulted in similar findings for faculty employed at the PWIs. Fifty-eight percent of faculty at the PWIs responded that they had “Seldom” or “Never” been marginalized and only 11% responded they had been marginalized or isolated “Very much” or “Often.”

Through the counter-stories numerous examples of being marginalized and experiencing loneliness and isolation were provided by the Phase I participants employed at PWIs. However, a majority of the Phase II participants (both institutional types) indicated they had seldom if ever experienced being marginalized or isolated.

Additional barriers identified in Phase I that contributed to less than positive socialization experiences for faculty at both the HBCUs and PWIs were campus/departmental politics and the perceived lack of support from deans and department chairs.

Politics

Participants at both the HBCUs and PWIs discussed how politics had affected their socialization. “Politics” as defined by the participants involved having to deal with departmental issues and concerns, the bureaucracy associated with higher education, and the personalities and egos of faculty. Anderson referred to the politics he has encountered at Randolph State as “politricks.”

I would really have to add on politics or “politricks.” Institutions of higher learning are often very bureaucratic in some ways and quite political. And I’ve had a chance to see some of that even just in my third year as a full-time faculty member. I’ve been able to see some of that and try to navigate and stay out of it as much as possible but also be astute enough to know that it does exist and that we’re all political in some way.
Robert provided an example of politics influencing administrative and leadership decisions. He expressed concerns about politics being involved in the promotion and tenure process in his department:

Sometimes administrators and those that are your leaders don’t play by the same rules. Politics get involved in promotion and leadership roles. That kind of thing, or friendship as opposed to looking at the records, become paramount and you find individuals with less training, less experience, less publications, less professional involvement are receiving I guess some of the rewards.

John explained that he entered his department during the middle of a political crisis and that this adversely affected his socialization, “I arrived at Deep South in [my department] at a time when there was kind of a riff going on in the department and that made it [socialization] much more difficult.”

Concerns about politics adversely influencing the experiences of African American male faculty in the academy were supported in Phase II of the study. When asked to respond to the open-ended item: “What is least rewarding about being a faculty member?” examples of participants’ responses included: “dealing with politics;” “the politics, the bureaucracy;” “petty personal issues;” “academic politics;” “all of the bull;” and “the bureaucracy and politics that has permeated the field of post-secondary education.”

When asked to respond to the following open-ended item on the questionnaire, “What barriers (problems) have you encountered as a faculty member?” Phase II participants once again identified politics and the bureaucracy of higher education as barriers they have encountered. Examples of participants’ responses to this item included: “administrative pettiness;” “red tape;” “slow paper trails in the university;” and “politics.”
In sum, politics contributed to African American male faculty having less than positive socialization experiences. Having to “deal with” the politics and bureaucracy of higher education was a frustration of participants in the study.

Administrative Support

Several of the junior faculty members interviewed were not convinced of their college and department’s commitment to their success. More specifically, deans and department chairs were cited for their perceived lack of support and interest in the professional well being of junior faculty, the lack of mentoring they offered, and for failing to keep promises that were made during the recruitment and hiring process. Arthur discussed his frustration with not being granted release time by his department after his third-year review:

I think the department chooses to forego some of the opportunities that other departments use to foster research. The easiest example is most departments allow professors that receive “thumbs up” for their third-year review to take off the following semester to get their research agenda in shape for the following year. This department doesn’t do it. In fact, I taught summer and two classes in the fall. I look at colleagues in English who are at the same level in terms of year that I am, and when [they] had nine months to do research without being covered by any teaching obligations, I taught two classes. And so I think those are things that can potentially be harmful.

Willie described the lack of collegiality that exists between him and his dean. He believes the dean has made a concerted effort to engage with other faculty members and to be a mentor to them; however, he has not been the recipient of such interactions.

The dean of the college has made overtures to suggest that he is curious about establishing that relationship. But, the actions have not been there. I don’t necessarily think that it has to be my place to do, when I see he and others go out of their way to interact with each other.

Wilson provided an additional example of a perceived lack of support from a dean or department chair. He expressed frustration with a new department chair who wanted to
limit his ability to incorporate new pedagogies in the classroom. He recounted some of
his frustration with the department chair:

The second department chair was not as helpful as, you know, I thought he should
be. By the time we got our second department chair, I had been working probably
about two or three years. I had a lot of new ideas and ways of teaching and ways
of getting the material to the students. And this department chair was not
particularly helpful in trying to implement some of these ideas.

Some participants expressed concerns about a lack of perceived support from
their deans and/or department chairs. Junior faculty expectations regarding the roles of
their deans and chairs in the socialization process were often inconsistent with the reality
of the roles of the deans and chairs.

A number of barriers influenced the socialization experiences of participants in
this study. Barriers that were identified included the lack of collegiality, being
marginalized, which led to loneliness and isolation, politics, and a lack of administrative
support from deans and department chairs.

Adapting to/Influencing the Department

Participants in Phase I of the study employed at the HBCUs believed the bi-
directionality of the socialization experience increased after their initial entry into the
academy. This happened as they became more acclimated to their departments. Wilson
acknowledged that upon being hired his presence did not have an immediate influence on
the department; however, as he gained more experience, senior faculty and administrators
were more receptive to his suggestions. He stated:

As I got older, older in the department, I saw some changes coming about and that
also happened with the changing of department chairs as well….The longer I
stayed in the department, I guess the more respected I was by my colleagues and
they began to listen to some of my ideas and implement some of my ideas. And
so, to a certain extent, yes the department did adapt to me.
Anderson believed his ability to influence the department was somewhat more immediate. He sensed that the department was willing to adapt to him because he considered his suggestions to be new and innovative. He replied, “I think they’ve had to adapt to me too, because I do bring fresh ideas and innovative ideas to the faculty meeting table or to whatever table we’re at.”

Participants employed at the PWIs expressed concern about the lack of bidirectionality in the socialization process. Many admitted that their presence in the department had not resulted in the department adapting to them in any significant way. A junior faculty member at Deep South commented, “Not happening. To my knowledge there has been no change in department policy or practices based on my experience here.” An assistant professor at Southern State associated the concept of “adapting to the department” with assimilation. He was adamant that he had not assimilated:

I guess I haven’t. I don’t know what that means. I am who I am and I accommodate the situation but I don’t think I have been very conscious about trying to adapt. I interpret adapting to [mean being] like everybody else. I interpret adapting to assimilating. I don’t know how to do that. I take the blows as they come. Try to understand them; try to think about how I can be different; but I don’t know how to assimilate. That’s just not in my practice.

He also believed the department had not adapted to him. He responded by simply stating, “Probably not to the extent that they could or should.”

Charles, a tenured professor at Southern State, wanted African American male faculty entering the academy to understand what was required to be successful and to not expect the department to change for them. He wanted prospective and junior African American male faculty to realize it was their responsibility, and not the department’s, to meet the criteria for being successful in the academy. “They [tenured-faculty] are not
going to change their requirements because of you, so you gotta learn what is required and then meet those requirements.”

Analysis of the data from Phase II diverged from the themes developed in Phase I. Participants were asked “Do you believe you had the opportunity to influence the culture of your department during your initial entry into the professoriate?” An overwhelming majority (75%) of the HBCU participants in Phase II acknowledged they were able to influence the culture of their department “Very much” or “Some” upon joining their respective departments. At the PWIs, 70% of the participants responded they were able to influence the culture of their department “Very much” or ‘Some.”

Phase II participants were asked to respond to the following item regarding assimilating to their department: “In what ways have you assimilated to the culture of your department?” HBCU participants acknowledged they assimilated in numerous ways. Their responses to the open-ended item included: “I try not to be the nail that stick ups (to get hammered);” “I honor seniority;” “I have learned to play the game;” “Accepting of ideas that I would have previously questioned;” and “Coming from a predominately White environment, I had to learn to think Black.” PWI participants acknowledged they assimilated in the following ways: “Involvement in social functions, being constantly aware and as correct as possible when it comes to verbal communication;” “I have observed cultural norms in the department and have shaped my behavior around my interpretation of those norms;” and “I have become more diplomatic in my approach to issues and concerns.”

Phase I participants at the HBCUs generally believe they had an impact on the culture of their department but it was not an immediate impact. Their colleagues at the PWIs did not believe they had influenced the culture of their departments. Analysis of the
data from Phase II indicated faculty at both the HBCUs and PWIs believed they were able to influence the culture of their department upon entering the academy.

**Disappointment with the Expectations of African American Students**

A concern or disappointment that African American male faculty have are the expectations or *lack* of expectations that African American students had for themselves. Participants were disappointed that African American students did not take advantage of the opportunities that were presented to them. Simmons explained to his African American students that he expected no less of them because they were African American, He seemed frustrated by the low expectations that his African American students had for themselves:

> Because I have predominately Black students, I said, “Black students pay to come to college to try and get the least out of it.” I said, “You try to get as little as possible out of the class and yet you pay for it.”

Robert also was disappointed in the expectations that African American students established for themselves. He believes that African American students are settling for less than what is best:

> I think that when I find young people, students, not doing their best, that’s disappointing to me. Because our situation as African Americans is so critical now, [that] I think we lose sight of our purposes on a college campus….They have everything it takes to move to an unprecedented level. I see many young Condoleezza Rices and Colin Powells and Rodney Slaters; potential Bill Clintons in Black, and Hillary Clintons in Black. There are some extremely brilliant young people on this campus. Just like there are some disappointing students who don’t know. And so those disappointments are the things that really trouble me.

John was not only disappointed but saddened. He described the situation as “pathetic” because he believes African American students, particularly student-athletes, allow themselves to be used by the institution and then leave the institution without obtaining their degree:
African American students leave without getting their degree. That’s kind of saddening. Football players come and [are] utilized and leave [without] their degree. To me that’s pathetic because they come into this environment anyway, maybe in some instances people expect they are going to fail.

When asked to describe his worst experience as a faculty member, Wilson’s response also focused on the low expectations that his students have for themselves. He stated:

[Students who] don’t study or who don’t turn their homework in on time. Or those students who expect you to give them something because they’ve come to class or because they have an excuse. By far, those little experiences eat at me. That the [students] won’t do what you ask them to do and they expect you to give makeup tests, makeup quizzes, give bonus points when they haven’t done the things they could have done all along.

Evan believes African American students expect faculty of color to have lower expectations for them and when the students are challenged, the faculty member is seen as selling out.

So, I think there can be a problem that there’s that expectation that he’s gonna play it easy on us because of some racial solidarity issue and the disappointment when that doesn’t happen. And then you can see this kind of wall come down and it’s like OK he’s one of those [a sell out].

An open-ended item on the questionnaire asked participants, “What is least rewarding about being a faculty member?” Responses from Phase II supported the thematic development of Phase I. Participants were often disappointed with the low expectations that African American students establish for themselves. Examples of the responses from the questionnaire included: “Working with students that have no vision;” “Difficulty motivating students to love learning for its own sake;” “The lack of some students’ interest in learning;” “Students not meeting expectations;” “A lack of student preparation and/or interest in learning;” and “Student motivation is sometimes lacking. I worry about their lack of development.”
Clearly, one of the greatest disappointments for African American male faculty, regardless of institutional type, is the low expectations African American students have for themselves. Participants in the study expressed dismay that African American students were satisfied with their level of achievement.

**Rewards**

Participants in both phases of the study were asked to identify what was most rewarding about being a faculty member. Their relationships with students, not only African American students but all students, and scholarly work were the most rewarding aspects of academia. Participants took great pleasure in being a part of the maturation and intellectual development of students. Faculty at both the HBCUs and PWIs were intrinsically rewarded through their interactions with students. Charles commented on how his Black history course contributed to the success of some of his former students who had attended law school:

> Having students come back and tell me how much my class has prepared them in other areas. I have a number of young men that went on to law school and they’ve come back [to visit]. [They would tell me,] “We discussed Civil Rights law in your Black history class and we discussed that in law school. I already knew something about it.” So for them to tell me [that] meant I had said something that stuck with them that they appreciated down the road.

James also took pleasure in having former students return and express gratitude for their experiences in his courses:

> To me it’s always the same one, where somebody you taught comes back to you after having said how mean and terrible you were when you were teaching them and saying, “You know what, I really appreciate you making us write so much or I’m really glad you made us go to the library and read.” That’s always the best experience, because you know you made a difference.
Willie concurred in his assessment of what has been his most rewarding experience as a faculty member. For him, it was when he connected with a student in the learning environment:

The best experience is when I connect with students….I have not had that opportunity as much as I would like, but the best experiences are when I am in that classroom and students believe there’s something to offer and they are surprised that others and I want to listen. That translates into them becoming stronger students and stronger thinkers. When they see me as someone who has nurtured [them] unselfishly, has always been what matters most to me. As I define the best experiences, I think it would be all those occasions where I made a connection with the student; whether it would be in the classroom or in a one-on-one.

Anderson also expressed satisfaction with the relationships he had established with students, “The best experience has been being able to help students through their educational experience. What I mean by that is by serving as a mentor myself and serving as an advisor.”

In addition to being a part of the students’ growth and development, the creation/development of knowledge was rewarding to participants. Faculty at both the HBCUs and PWIs took pleasure in having manuscripts accepted for publication, books published, and presenting scholarly papers. Robert stated his greatest reward was in having the history of the institution published. “Probably my best experience at Douglass has been when I published and wrote the history of the university. The university embraced that and we had a wonderful reception. That would probably be the number one experience.”

Walter, an associate professor in a physical science at Deep South, reveled in the culmination of the publishing process:

The satisfaction of having some result published is the thing I take the most pride in. I get a lot of pride from that. I guess that’s my most satisfying moment. That’s a long process from collecting the data to analyzing the data to interpreting it, to
writing it up, and submitting it, and having to revise it based on some reviews that
you had, and ultimately having the volume in which it’s published come out and
to hold it and say “Ah, yes, finally!

A scholarly paper presented at a national conference was the most rewarding
faculty experience for Arthur. He stated:

I would say that my best experience just happened two months ago. When I went
[to] a conference and presented a statistical paper. [I am] real nervous about
statistics. It was the first time I actually had to do it without having the safety net
of a colleague there and [I] not only held my own, but established that I knew
what I was talking about for statistics. So it was fun to go and show a mastery of a
particular subject.

Themes developed from an open-ended item on the questionnaire were
convergent with the themes developed from Phase I of the study. When asked “What is
most rewarding about being a faculty member?” HBCU and PWI participants in Phase II
identified involvement with students and scholarly work such as having papers published
and/or presented at conferences as rewarding aspects of a career in academia. Participants
articulated working with students as rewarding through comments such as “the students,
the students, the students;” “mentoring and teaching African American students;” “the
success of my students,” “helping students learn,” and “the ability to assist students in
their development and watch them grow.” Responses indicating that scholarly work was
a rewarding aspect of the professoriate included: “the rare but valued opportunity to
pursue my research agenda;” “academic freedom;” and “being able to reach several goals
in the area of scholarship.”

The findings indicated that African American male faculty take great pleasure in
their relationships with students. Participants expressed pleasure in being a part of the
academic and professional development of students. In addition, the pursuit of scholarly
work was extremely rewarding to participants.
Additional Skills Needed for Success

Two additional skills that were identified as necessary for success in the academy included excellent time management and grant-writing. Junior faculty members participating in Phase I of the study stressed the importance of good time management. Other participants believed that the lack of grant-writing skills hindered their advancement in the academy.

In regards to time management, Anderson admitted he has struggled with balancing professional and personal demands. He commented on balancing his scholarship, service, and personal life:

I’m learning that I have to manage my time a little better and dedicate more time to myself really. This is a selfish thing, but to dedicate and to have more time to write….I’m trying not to spend so much time in the community that I’m not able to have personal time for myself with family, as well as other personal endeavors, things that I want to do on a personal level. I’m trying to find a balance.

Walter concurred when he detailed his struggles with time management and balancing the needs of students with his own needs.

The more difficult thing that I found was the one of managing time. I can’t do all of this perfectly, I am going to have to decide which one [responsibility] I want to do perfectly. The others I am going to say, that gets two hours of my time and after that it’s going to have to stand on its on.

Grant-writing was identified by participants as a skill that could further contribute to their success in the academy. Anderson expressed excitement about the opportunity to enhance his grant-writing skills:

Some of the exciting things that I’ve been a part of include having the opportunity to write grants, federal grants….I’ve been able to hone and to receive some pretty top notch training as it relates to grant writing and proposal development, etc. That was a recent experience just this last semester. It was quite time consuming and intense to put together a federal grant.
A junior faculty member at Douglass thought his lack of grant-writing experience had hindered his progress in the academy. He commented on how his lack of experience “penalized” him, “I would have done more research and more grant writing early on. As I’ve gotten older that has kind of penalized me a little bit in that I don’t have the grantsmanship experience.”

Findings from the qualitative data analysis revealed that participants believed good time management skills were imperative for succeeding in the academy and balancing professional and personal responsibilities. Others thought the acquisition of grant-writing skills would contribute to them being more successful in the academy.

**Advice for African American Male Faculty**

To conclude the interviews, participants were asked, “What advice would you provide to new African American male faculty?” Themes that developed from the participants responses included: a) having an established research agenda and excellent teaching skills upon entering the academy; b) developing an understanding of the institutional/departmental culture; c) being prepared to be lonely and/or isolated; d) negotiating an excellent start-up package; and e) to be mindful of their relationships with female students.

The importance of having an established research agenda and possessing excellent teaching skills was acknowledged by faculty at both the HBCUs and the PWIs. According to Madison, “The biggest thing that aspiring professors need to understand is the importance of research and the process. Start with a detailed research agenda.” From a teaching perspective, Anderson suggested that junior faculty, “Continue to hone their skills and become good at teaching and to become not just good, but to become excellent.” He further added, “In HBCUs, we’re known for nurturing our students and
getting nurturance here.” Simmons replied, “The first thing one wants to do is establish themselves as a teacher that has some innovative ideas and has a good rapport with students and can show that these innovative ideas are effective.”

Faculty members at both the HBCUs and PWIs emphasized the importance of learning and understanding the institutional and departmental cultures. Simmons stated, “First, learn the culture of the university and learn the dynamics.” Similar advice was offered by Mitchell, “The most important thing is to understand the nature of the environment that you place yourself in.” Charles echoed the advice offered by his peers, “Learn what is required of you in your department. This is what the department requires of faculty members and then set out to meet those requirements, and if you do that, other things will fall into place.” John suggested that new faculty learn as much as possible about the institution and the department prior to accepting a position. He stated, “Find out as much as you can about the department [and] the university before you come, because you are going to have to live with it [your decision] for at least a certain period of time.”

Participants employed at PWIs or those with prior experiences at PWIs expressed the importance of being resilient and persevering in an environment that may not always be welcoming or collegial. Madison, who is a chaired professor at Deep South, said he would inform junior African American male faculty to:

Be prepared for the hard-knocks that you are going to encounter; just in general be prepared. Be prepared to perform at a level of expectation higher than your colleagues. Because if you perform at the same level, you can be nit-picked away and I’ve seen people being denied tenure for the same qualifications. Tenure is a political process. I’ve seen people who have had essentially the same qualifications – one will get tenure and one will not get tenure. If you are African American, you don’t want your credentials to be marginal. You want your credentials to be above that of your colleagues. That’s the way to survive. You have to perform better than your colleagues.

Willie opined:
Don’t let their [White faculty] perceptions of you define who you are. Don’t compromise your standards or principles in terms of what you need to do or should do. Understand what the criteria is for moving forward and if you can find yourself someone who can help you keep that hunger at the front burner. Give it your best. Never give up.

Mitchell who has been employed at both institutional types wanted prospective African American male faculty to understand that their tenure process, particularly for those employed at PWIs, would parallel the experiences of their White colleagues. He wanted them to realize that White faculty members are “mean” to all junior faculty during the tenure process. He stated:

One of the things that was fortunate for me was I got tenured at [a PWI], so when I would speak to African Americans about the whole tenure process, I would say, “Look, let me tell you how they [Whites] treat each other.” So you’ll know that if they’re mean to each other, then they are gonna be mean to you. So you have to have thick skin if you’re gonna go through this process.

Additional advice offered by faculty at the PWIs was the importance of negotiating an excellent startup package. John stated:

I realized that if you don’t ask for what you want when you come, you are not going to get it. I knew also that I needed to place my request at a high standard because I was going to have to live in an environment that would not provide me with all of the comfort that I needed and support that I needed to survive. And I think I was right.

Walter also expressed the importance of negotiating an excellent startup package. He stated:

Subsequent to getting an offer, make sure to negotiate a startup package, and that includes salary, funds for any research equipment you might need, for space, for technical support, for travel funds, for office support, for TAs, for students you might want to have in a way that most effectively insures that you are going to succeed. A lot of people don’t realize that that’s your chance to set yourself up right. I think many people, or maybe particularly African Americans might think, or other minorities might think in a way of frugality and think that that would be appreciated by the university. Nothing could be further from the truth.

Several of the faculty members at the HBCUs expressed concerns about faculty/students relationships. More specifically they expressed concerns about the
relationship between African American male faculty and female students. They advised junior colleagues to be extremely cautious in their relationships with female students.

Wilson responded:

First real advice that I would give them [junior African American male faculty] is to be cautious of your relationships with the students, especially female students. Because you can certainly get yourself into a lot of trouble with things that may seem innocent, that can be construed as not so innocent. You don’t want your reputation ruined by something that may be innocent but at the same time inappropriate or construed as inappropriate.

Simmons, who is currently the department chair, warns his male faculty about establishing relationships outside the classroom.

This is one thing I am adamantly against. A lot of, not just Black males, but males who come in; especially young ones and they see these young women, and they quid pro quo [or] something for something. I let it be known that anyone caught doing that will be fired right on the spot. I think a young faculty member has to make up his mind, even if a student approaches him, squash it quickly. In fact I can give you a story when it happened to me. When I first came here I wasn’t married. I was a widower. I remember a student coming in, she wanted some advising. So I said OK. She was going to come in and she came in with practically nothing on. So I looked her straight in the eye. “Look, next time you come and ask for any type of meeting with me, you better wear better clothes. Put on some clothes. Because I [am not] bothered with students. End of it!” That was just my way. About a year or so later, maybe two years, I heard some students out in the hall talking. “You can’t do that to him because he doesn’t play that.”

Two final pieces of advice offered by participants were to have a sense of humor and to simply work hard. Evan suggested humor as a way of surviving in the academy. He stated, “I can’t see how a Black male academic could not, but have a sense of humor. Because it’s gonna be about the only way to handle it [academia].” Robert’s advice to African American males entering the academy was put in the simplest of terms, “Work hard.”

Based on the advice offered by the Phase I participants, African American male faculty should enter the academy with an established research agenda and excellent
teaching skills if they expect to succeed. They need to learn what the requirements are for succeeding in the academy. In addition, they should be prepared to experience loneliness and isolation, particularly at the PWIs. Finally, caution was advised in how their relationships with female students could potentially be perceived by others at their institutions.

Socialization Experience

To quantitatively analyze the socialization experiences of African American male faculty a composite variable was computed. The composite labeled “socialization experience” was established from questionnaire items 14, 19, 20, 21, and 23. The specific items were: 14) “Were you mentored during graduate school or upon entering the professoriate?” 19) “How would you describe the racial climate in your department?” 20) “Did a senior faculty member/administrator “show you the ropes” upon joining your current academic unit?” 21) “Have you been marginalized or isolated in any way?” and 23) “Do you believe you had the opportunity to influence the culture of your department during your initial entry into the professoriate?” Therefore, quantitatively the factors that comprised the “socialization experiences” of African American male faculty were their mentoring experiences, the racial climate of their department, whether or not they were shown the ropes, whether or not they were marginalized/isolated, and their ability to influence the culture of their department. The items included in the composite variable were selected because the review of the literature indicated they often affected the socialization of new faculty, particularly faculty of color. The internal consistency estimate of reliability was computed for “socialization experience.” The value for the coefficient alpha was .64, indicating moderate reliability.
An ANOVA (2 x 2) was conducted to evaluate if there was any difference in the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty based on institutional type and Carnegie Classification. Missing data for the ANOVA was deleted listwise; resulting in cases with missing data being removed from the analysis. The means and standard deviations for the ANOVA are presented in Table 2 and the results of the ANOVA are presented in Table 3. There was not a main effect between socialization experience and institutional type $F(1, 112) = 1.72, p = .19$, nor between socialization experience and Carnegie Classification $F(1, 112) < .01, p = .96$. In addition, there was not a significant interaction between institutional type and Carnegie Classification, $F(1, 112) = .04, p = .84$.

Table 2. Means and Standard Deviations for Socialization Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Carnegie Classification</th>
<th>Institution Type</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Master’s</td>
<td>HBCUs</td>
<td>14.49</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PWIs</td>
<td>16.75</td>
<td>3.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All</td>
<td>15.04</td>
<td>3.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctoral/Research</td>
<td>HBCUs</td>
<td>16.21</td>
<td>3.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PWIs</td>
<td>15.72</td>
<td>3.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All</td>
<td>16.05</td>
<td>3.27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To further summarize, the findings of the 2 X 2 ANOVA, based on the mean scores, African American male faculty at the PWI master’s colleges and universities had better socialization experiences than their colleagues at the HBCU master’s colleges and universities. African American male faculty at the HBCU doctoral research institutions
Table 3. Analysis of Variance Findings for Socialization Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Institutional Type (HBCU/ PWI)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.39</td>
<td>16.39</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>.223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carnegie Classification (Doctoral or Master’s)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction of Inst. Type &amp; Carnegie Classification</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>39.39</td>
<td>39.39</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1101.42</td>
<td>10.91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

had better socialization experiences than their colleagues at the PWI doctoral institutions. However, there was not a statistically significant difference in the experiences of African American male faculty based on their institutional type and Carnegie Classification.

In addition to the ANOVA, descriptive statistics were generated for each of the variables which were used to construct the composite. The objective of the descriptive analyses was to determine if any of the specific items indicated possible evidence of variation across the different types of institutions in the study. The results are presented in the following tables.

Table 4. Percentage and Cases for Questionnaire Item #14

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 14: Were you mentored during graduate school or upon entering the professoriate?</th>
<th>Master’s Colleges &amp; Universities</th>
<th>Doctoral Research Institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HBCUs</td>
<td>PWIs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Much</td>
<td>10.5% (4)</td>
<td>58.3% (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>21.1% (8)</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>39.5% (15)</td>
<td>25.0% (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>10.5% (4)</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>18.4% (7)</td>
<td>16.7% (2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

111
With one exception, the analysis of the descriptive statistics indicated an apparent lack of variance in the percentages of the responses of the five variables that comprise the composite variable “socialization experience.” The data from Item #20 indicates possible variation based on institutional type (HBCU or PWI). None of the participants at the

Table 5. Percentage and Cases for Questionnaire Item #19

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 19: How would you describe the racial climate in your department?</th>
<th>Master’s Colleges &amp; Universities</th>
<th>Doctoral Research Institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HBCUs</td>
<td>PWIs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>19.5% (8)</td>
<td>28.6% (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>56.1% (23)</td>
<td>35.7% (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>17.1% (7)</td>
<td>35.7% (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>7.3% (3)</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. Percentages and Cases for Questionnaire Item #20

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 20: Did a senior faculty member/administrator “show you the ropes” upon joining your current academic unit?</th>
<th>Master’s Colleges &amp; Universities</th>
<th>Doctoral Research Institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HBCUs</td>
<td>PWIs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Much</td>
<td>14.3% (6)</td>
<td>28.6% (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some</td>
<td>21.4% (9)</td>
<td>50.0% (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Much</td>
<td>38.1% (16)</td>
<td>21.4% (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>26.2% (11)</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PWIs (regardless of Carnegie Classification) selected “Never” when asked “Did a senior faculty member/administrator ‘show you the ropes’ upon joining your current academic unit?”

Table 7. Percentages and Cases for Questionnaire Item #21

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 21: Have you been marginalized or isolated in any way?</th>
<th>Master’s Colleges &amp; Universities</th>
<th>Doctoral Research Institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HBCUs</td>
<td>PWIs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Much</td>
<td>7.1% (3)</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>7.1% (3)</td>
<td>0.0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>31.0% (13)</td>
<td>35.7% (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>26.2% (11)</td>
<td>28.6% (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>28.6% (12)</td>
<td>35.7% (5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: This item (#21) was recoded so that data used would be scaled consistent with other items included in the socialization variable.

Table 8. Percentages and Cases for Questionnaire Item #23

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item 23: Do you believe you had the opportunity to influence the culture of your department during your initial entry into the professoriate?</th>
<th>Master’s Colleges &amp; Universities</th>
<th>Doctoral Research Institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HBCUs</td>
<td>PWIs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Much</td>
<td>33.3% (14)</td>
<td>21.4% (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some</td>
<td>40.5% (17)</td>
<td>57.1% (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not much</td>
<td>21.4% (9)</td>
<td>14.3% (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>4.8% (2)</td>
<td>7.1% (1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

113
Summary

In this chapter, the findings from the study exploring the socialization experiences of full-time, tenured and tenure-track, African American male faculty were presented. The findings were presented in an integrated manner. In the next chapter, I will provide discussion of the findings in relation to the research questions and the literature. I will also provide conclusions, implications for higher education, limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research.
CHAPTER V – DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, FUTURE RESEARCH, AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to explore the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty at HBCUs and PWIs. In this chapter I discuss the findings of the study and their implications for higher education. I then present the limitations of the study and my recommendations for future research.

This study was guided by the following research questions:

RQ1. What are the stories that full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty tell about their socialization experiences?

RQ2. What factors influence the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty?

RQ3. What differences exist in the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty at HBCUs and full-time tenured and tenure-track African American males at PWIs?

Discussion of Research Questions

What Are the Stories That Full-time Tenured and Tenure-Track African American Male Faculty Tell about Their Socialization Experiences?

Through the use of counter-stories African American male faculty told the stories of their socialization experiences. Lopez (2003) defined counter-stories as stories that are ignored, downplayed or simply not told because they do not fit socially accepted norms. The stories that the participants of this study told were counter to the stories that have been traditionally accepted as the norm. Historically, the culture of the PWI has been White-normed and White-dominated (Thompson & Dey, 1998) and the use of CRT challenges that norm (Taylor, 1998). Thus, the stories African American male faculty
told were counter to the experiences of Whites in the academy, particularly White males, whose experiences traditionally have been accepted as the norm.

The use of a critical race methodology in obtaining the stories of African American male faculty provided a method for the participants of this study to communicate the realities of their experiences in academia. The stories they told brought further attention to the unique experiences of this particular subgroup of the professoriate. Participants’ told stories of both positive and challenging experiences in the academy.

The positive stories African American male faculty told were most often in regards to their involvement in the academic and professional development of students and the creation of scholarly works. However the challenges that participants spoke of were numerous. For participants at both the HBCUs and PWIs, these challenges included but were not limited to, being inadequately prepared for the numerous demands and responsibilities of the professoriate and an absence of mentoring and being shown the ropes upon entering the academy. This finding was consistent with previous research by Rowley (2000) indicating African American males are inadequately prepared to enter the academy. For participants at the PWIs, additional challenges identified from their stories were marginalization, loneliness, and isolation in the academy.

A positive aspect of the stories that African American male faculty told about their experiences in academia related to the relationships they developed with students. Participants acknowledged that being involved in the academic and personal development of students was one of the more rewarding aspects of being a faculty member. Research by Johnson (2004) indicated this was a prime reason African American faculty pursued opportunities in academia at HBCUs. Although their interactions with students was
considered one of the more rewarding aspects of the professoriate for African American males, their stories also revealed disappointment with the expectations that African American students have for themselves and with students’ perceived unwillingness to pursue the opportunities presented to them.

Participants told stories of how both their race and gender affected their socialization into the professoriate. However, their stories often focused more on their race than their gender. African American male faculty at the HBCUs brought attention to how their race and gender positively affected their experiences as faculty members. While their colleagues at the PWIs told stories of their race and gender adversely affecting their socialization experiences.

The stories of the participants also revealed they learned to be faculty primarily through experiential learning that took place after entering the academy. Although some participants told of being mentored and having senior faculty show them the ropes, the primary means for learning how to be faculty occurred via on-the-job training, trial-and-error, and observing others in the academy. Van Maneen’s (1978) research indicated trial-and-error and personal experiences were common methods that faculty used to learn the responsibilities of their position.

Participants expressed concern about the overall lack of mentoring they received upon entering the academy. They considered the overall mentoring experience as lacking because their stories were of isolated or specific mentoring experiences and not sustained, long-term relationships with mentors. Participants felt as if there was no one to guide and assist them with particular aspects of the professoriate when needed. Participants, particularly junior faculty at the PWIs, were disappointed in the level of mentoring that
their deans and department chairs provided. They felt as if the lack of mentoring by their
deans and chairs contributed to them having less than positive socialization experiences.
The relationship, or lack thereof, between junior faculty and the dean/chair was cited by
Johnsrud and Des Jarlais (1994) as one of the major reasons that junior faculty leave
academia.

Through the telling of their stories, participants offered prospective African
American male faculty advice for succeeding in the academy. Admittedly, much of the
advice offered would be sound advice for any junior faculty member, regardless of their
race or gender; however, participants thought it was important for African American
males to heed their advice. To be successful in the academy, participants suggested the
following: a) have an established research agenda and excellent teaching skills upon
entering the professoriate; b) develop an understanding of the institution’s/department’s
culture; c) be prepared to experience loneliness and isolation in the academy, particularly
for African American males employed at PWIs; d) negotiate an excellent start up
package; and e) be cognizant of how your relationships with female students are
perceived.

From a critical race perspective, the advice offered by participants at the PWIs in
Phase I of the study indicates that race continues to affect the experiences of African
American males in academia. In telling their stories, participants wanted prospective and
junior African American male faculty to understand that they have to be better than their
White colleagues, that their socialization into the academy would be difficult both
because of the nature of the process and because of their race, and that their race would
affect all aspects of their endeavors in academia.
In conclusion, when telling the stories of their socialization experiences, African American male faculty described an experience that is both rewarding and difficult. It is rewarding because of the relationships that development with students and as a result of their scholarly endeavors. While at the same time it is difficult because higher education has not fully overcome its history and tradition of exclusionary practices and African American males encounter numerous barriers and challenges upon joining the professoriate.

What Factors Influence the Socialization Experiences of Full-time Tenured and Tenure-Track African American Male Faculty?

A number of factors influenced the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty. Participants in the study acknowledged feeling unprepared for the professoriate, particularly the teaching and service components. The expectations that African American males established in graduate school of the professoriate were often inconsistent with their reality of entering the professoriate. Both Austin (2002; 2003) and Tierney and Rhoads (1993) indicated that preparation during the pre-arrival stage (graduate education) was often incongruent with the encounter stage of the socialization process.

The lack of overall mentoring adversely affected the socialization experiences of African American males in the academy. The absence of mentoring is a significant contributor to faculty of color having negative socialization experiences (Turner et al., 1999). When telling the stories of their mentoring experiences, participants acknowledged being positively mentored in isolated or specific instances but not in sustained, long-term mentor/protégé relationships. Although participants could identify specific mentoring experiences that contributed to their success, they had a desire to be
mentored in those areas of their professional development that they were uninformed about or needed skills enhancement, such as the publishing process. The absence of mentoring in these areas contributed to a sense that the overall mentoring experience was lacking. Given African American males’ desire to be mentored, senior faculty and administrators must demonstrate a willingness to mentor members of this particular subgroup of the professoriate. Both Blackwell (1989) and Tillman (2001) suggested mentoring as an effective strategy for increasing diversity in academia, particularly at PWIs.

African American males’ race and gender were also factors in their socialization experiences. The participants in this study discussed both their race and gender, but most often focused on how race had impacted their socialization experiences. Participants at the HBCUs acknowledged benefiting from being African American males. However, their colleagues at the PWIs socialization experiences were adversely affected by their race. How race affected the socialization experiences of African American male faculty in this study can be accounted for by differences in the institutional types, such as their environments and cultures.

A number of factors affected the socialization experiences of the participants in this study. Many of the participants did not believe their graduate education properly prepared them for careers in academia. Their expectations and the reality of joining the professoriate were often incongruent. Despite acknowledging being mentored, participants expressed a desire for additional or long-term mentoring. Finally, the race and gender of the participants were factors in their socialization. Depending on the
participants’ institutional type, their race and gender either positively or adversely affected the socialization process.

What Differences Exist in the Socialization Experiences of Full-time Tenured and Tenure-Track African American Male Faculty at HBCUs and Full-time Tenured and Tenure-Track African American Males at PWIs?

Analysis of the composite variable “socialization experience” indicates there was not a significant difference in the socialization experiences of African American male faculty based on their institutional type or Carnegie Classification. However, analysis of the descriptive data regarding the variables included in the composite indicated there may be some variance in whether or not the participants of this study were shown the ropes by senior faculty and administrators upon entering the academy.

How African American male faculty “learned the ropes” were similar at the HBCUs and PWIs. Participants responded that they learned the ropes of being a faculty member primarily through on-the-job training, observation, and trial-and-error. However, a majority of the participants (51%) at the HBCUs believed graduate school assisted them in learning the ropes; with only 32% of PWI participants responding that graduate school assisted them in “learning the ropes.”

Certain aspects of participants’ mentoring experiences differed based on institutional type (HBCU or PWI). The analysis of the data from the questionnaire revealed that participants at the HBCUs identified the primary functions of their mentors as the sharing of information, offering encouragement, and providing feedback. The primary functions of mentors at the PWIs were to offer encouragement, provide feedback, and assist with career goals. The functions of mentors at both the HBCUs and PWIs were a combination of what Kram (1985) defined as career and psychosocial
functions. Consistent with research by Blackburn et al (1981), Sands et al (1991), and Tillman (1991), participants were most likely to engage in mentoring that was informal, self-selecting, voluntary, and mutually agreed upon. Findings from Phase II revealed that mentors at the HBCUs were more likely to be African American or White and that mentors at the PWIs were more likely to be White. This can be attributed to the majority of African American male faculty being employed at HBCUs and the disproportionately low number of African American male faculty employed at PWIs.

The stories of the participants at the HBCUs did not indicate they were marginalized or that they experienced loneliness and isolation in the academy. Research by Johnson (2001; 2004) found that HBCUs in general offered supportive environments to their African American faculty. However, the PWI participants told stories of being marginalized, experiencing loneliness and isolation, and having their work devalued. This finding was consistent with previous research (Alexander-Snow & Johnson, 1999; Jackson, 1991; Thompson & Dey, 1998) that indicated the sense of marginality is increased for faculty of color at PWIs. The factors that contributed to the lack of collegiality for participants differed based on institutional type. Participants at both the HBCUs and PWIs attributed the lack of collegiality in part to age differences. Although age differences were a factor in the lack of collegiality at the PWIs, greater emphasis was placed on race as a factor in the lack of collegiality among PWI participants and their colleagues.

Statistically there was not a difference in the “socialization experience” of African American male faculty based on their institutional type and Carnegie Classification. The descriptive statistics indicate there may be some variance in senior faculty and
administrators “showing the ropes” to African American male faculty when they enter the academy. Analysis of the data from the questionnaire indicated differences in how African American male faculty learn the ropes and the functions of their mentors. Finally, the race and gender of the participants affected their socialization in different ways depending on their institution types.

**Implications for the Academy**

One of the purposes of the study was to bring attention to the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty. This study was important for several reasons. First, it provided another opportunity for this subgroup of the professoriate to tell the stories of their socialization experiences. Second and most importantly, the faculty socialization experiences of African American male faculty were explored from both a qualitative and quantitative perspective. This study provided a means for gaining a more in-depth understanding of the unique experiences of African American male faculty at both HBCUs and PWIs. More specifically, this study identified how African American male faculty are enculturated into the academy and how they “learn the ropes” of being a faculty member. Through the use of counter-storytelling, African American male faculty had the opportunity to tell the stories and realities of their experiences in the academy. The findings of the study revealed that African American male faculty experience the academy in both similar and dissimilar ways regardless of institution type and that they encounter numerous challenges upon entering the academy. Boice (1992b) reminds us that “the potential new faculty who reject us [higher education] first are likely to come from underrepresented and badly needed kinds of professors” (p. 7). Considering African American males continue to be
underrepresented in academia, particularly at PWIs, it is important to learn and gain a better understanding of their unique socialization experiences. The use of a critical race methodology provided an opportunity for this occur.

There are several implications for academia from this study. First, mentoring can assist African American male faculty in succeeding in the academy. Senior faculty and administrators should be willing to serve as mentors and “show the ropes” to African American males entering the academy. Although Tillman (1991) has suggested that senior faculty members who serve as mentors are more inclined to select protégés who are like themselves, perhaps mentoring across racial, gender, and cultural differences can assist new African American male faculty in dealing with not only individual racism but institutional racism. If higher education is truly committed to having faculties that are representative of society, then efforts must be made to assist faculty of color in succeeding in the academy. Establishing mentoring relationships and showing the ropes to African American male faculty is one method for doing so. Senior faculty and administrators can mentor and “show the ropes” to junior/new African American male faculty in a variety of ways. These methods include, but are not limited to, collaborating with African American male faculty on research and scholarly efforts, offering suggestions for effective classroom strategies, and informing them of departmental policies and procedures.

Second, to enhance the likelihood of African American male faculty succeeding in academia, the pre-arrival stage of their enculturation (graduate education) has to become more congruent with the reality of the encounter stage (initial entry). Austin and Wulff (2004) posit improving the preparation process for prospective faculty has become
a significant issue in academia. Thus, the graduate preparation of prospective African American male faculty has to be enhanced in an effort to better prepare them for the academy. Graduate programs should provide opportunities for prospective African American male faculty to teach courses and conduct research. Seminars on writing for publication and grant-writing should be offered and travel assistance provided for professional development activities. Graduate faculty should assist in the enculturation process for prospective African American male faculty by serving as mentors and assisting them with their preparation for entering the academy as full-time tenure-track professors. Mentors should give attention to the unique challenges that future African American male faculty will encounter upon entering the academy and assist them in developing strategies that will increase their likelihood of succeeding.

Third, African American male faculty will continue to experience marginalization and be isolated in the academy until departments and universities make a commitment to address those factors (barriers) that adversely affect the socialization experiences of African American males. Senior faculty and administrators should commit to addressing the concerns of those subgroups of the professoriate that have traditionally been underrepresented. Institutions should evaluate their recruitment, hiring, and retention efforts for African American male faculty. Senior faculty and administrators should express a willingness to mentor and “show the ropes” to junior African American male faculty. For institutions with formal mentoring programs, the programs should be evaluated for their effectiveness in assisting African American male faculty with their socialization. Departmental and university policies and procedures should be assessed and evaluated to determine if and how they adversely affect the experiences of African American male faculty. Administrators should also examine the racial climate of the
institution and address factors that adversely impact the experiences of African American male faculty.

**Limitations**

There are several limitations to this study. The number of participants at HBCUs limits the ability to generalize the findings of the study to full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty at HBCUs in the SREB states. There were 621 prospective participants at the HBCUs with 91 or 16% responding to the questionnaire. Prospective participants’ lack of trust in the researcher and the objectives of the study may have contributed to the low response rate at the HBCUs. Contributing to the inability to statistically differentiate between the experiences of African American male faculty at HBCUs and PWIs is the low number of African American males employed at PWIs in the SREB states. Of the 17 PWIs that provided faculty rosters, the total number of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty employed at these institutions was 80. Thirty-seven (51%) of the prospective participants at the PWIs responded.

An additional limitation of this study is the inability to differentiate between African and African American male faculty. According to federal government guidelines for affirmative action and equal opportunity reporting, institutions are not required to distinguish between African and African American employees. Individuals who identify as either African or African American are reported in the same race/ethnic category for demographic purposes. I attempted to ensure that the participants in Phase II of the study were African American by including in the questionnaire instructions that only “full-time tenured or tenure-track African American (Black) male” were to complete the instrument.
Based on the assumption that the questionnaire instructions were followed by the participants, it is assumed that all Phase II participants were African American.

Finally, the lack of private institutions participating in the study limits the ability to draw conclusions about the experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty at private colleges and universities. However, considering the small number of African Americans male faculty employed in academia, particularly at PWIs, the experiences of African American male faculty at these institutions is not expected to vary greatly from those employed at public institutions.

**Recommendations for Future Research**

Based on the findings of this study, there are several recommendations for future research. I am recommending that additional research be conducted to address the divergent themes in this study. First, the role of race and gender in the socialization experiences of African American male faculty should be explored further. I would suggest additional qualitative research (interviews) to gain a broader understanding of how race and gender affects the experiences of this particular subgroup of the professoriate. The findings of this study indicated the race and gender of the participants had varied affects on their socialization experiences. Analysis of the Phase I data revealed that race and gender affected the experiences of African American male faculty both positively and negatively. More specifically, Phase I participants at the HBCUs told stories of their race positively affecting their socialization experiences; while their colleagues at the PWIs stated their race adversely affected their experiences in the academy. Analysis of the Phase II data indicated that participants at both the HBCUs and PWIs perceived the racial climate of their respective departments as positive. Eighty-one
percent of participants employed at the HBCUs and 78% of participants at the PWIs believed the racial climate in their department was either “Excellent” or “Good.” Future research should examine whether or not the disparate qualitative and quantitative findings can be attributed to individual or institutional racism. By this I mean, exploring whether or not racism in the academy is the result of individuals’ overt or covert actions (individual racism) or the result of university policies and procedures that adversely affect African American male faculty (institutional racism) (Scheurich & Young, 1997).

The findings regarding the participants’ ability to influence the culture (the bi-directionality of the socialization process) of their respective departments were also divergent. Phase I participants did not believe they were able to influence the culture of their departments. However, a majority of the participants in Phase II responded they were able to influence the culture of their department upon entering the academy. Again, I would suggest additional qualitative research (interviews) to gain a broader understanding of the bi-directionality of the socialization process. More specifically, I would explore the ability of African American male faculty to influence the culture of their respective departments.

Additional research needs to be conducted at HBCUs to learn more about the experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty employed at these institutions. Only seven HBCUs provided rosters of prospective participants with a response rate of approximately 16%. Considering the doctoral research HBCU in Phase I of the study was recently re-categorized by the Carnegie Classification system as a master’s college and university, the additional qualitative research should specifically examine the experiences of African American male faculty at doctoral research HBCU institutions.
I would also recommend that interviews be conducted with African American male faculty at private colleges and universities. No African American male faculty employed at private institutions participated in this study. Thus, the experiences of African American male faculty employed at private colleges and universities are not represented.

This study should be replicated to provide other racial/ethnic subgroups of the professoriate additional opportunities to tell the stories of their experiences in the academy. By doing so, further attention would be brought to the unique experiences of all subgroups that constitute the faculty.

Additional quantitative research should be conducted to further explore the mentoring experiences of African American male faculty, particularly the role of senior faculty and administrators. Analysis of the descriptive statistics in this study suggests there may be some variance based on institutional type in regards to senior faculty and administrators “showing the ropes” to African American male faculty. I would also recommend qualitative research that explores how African American male faculty identities shape their socialization and subsequent professional experiences.

Finally, I would recommend researching the relationship between African American male faculty and students. Participants in both phases of the study identified their relationships with students as one of the more rewarding and also problematic aspects of the professoriate. Undoubtedly, participants received satisfaction in serving as mentors and assisting in the scholarly and professional development of students. Future research could further explore the roles of African American male faculty in the mentoring and development of students.
Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to explore the socialization experiences of full-time tenured and tenure-track African American male faculty at HBCUs and PWIs and to bring attention to their unique experiences in academia. Thompson and Dey (1998) remind us that we should focus on each individual population in the professoriate as a means for understanding their unique experiences. In this study, I examined the experiences of a subgroup of the professoriate that has been under-researched. The findings of this study indicated the experiences of African American males in the academy were not only unique but were both rewarding and challenging simultaneously. While it is important to recognize there are similarities in the socialization experiences of all faculty, the race and gender of the participants in this study distinctly affected their socialization into the academy. For participants at the HBCUs their race and gender often positively affected their experiences. Participants at the PWIs revealed that their race and gender not only adversely affected their experiences, but that race was a factor in all aspects of their experiences in the academy.

This study contributed to the literature on faculty socialization by exploring the experiences of African American male faculty at HBCUs and PWIs. Senior faculty and administrators can use the findings of this study to enhance their understanding of the unique experiences of African American male faculty and to improve the socialization process for this particular subgroup of the professoriate. Finally, prospective African American male faculty can use the findings of this study gain insight as to what they may experience in the academy.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX A – INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

1. Describe what it is like to work at the university or college where you are employed?
   a. **How long** have you been at this institution?
   b. What were your **initial impressions** about the institution?
   c. Tell me a story about your **experiences as a faculty member** at your institution.

2. Tell me how you “learned the ropes” (**how to do your job**) of being a faculty member.
   a. In **graduate school?**
   b. Upon **entering the academy**

3. How did you get **interested in academia**?

4. How did your **graduate education** prepare you for the responsibilities of being a faculty member?
   a. Tell me a story about an **experience in graduate school** that prepared you for the professoriate.

5. Tell me about **being recruited** to your current institution?

6. Tell me a story about what has been your **best experience** as a faculty member.
7. Tell me a story about what has been your **worst experience** as a faculty member.

8. What **individual/group** has been/was the **most helpful in your socialization** to the professoriate?
   a. Tell me a **story** about your interactions with this individual/group?
9. Who has been/was the **least helpful in your socialization** to the professoriate?
   a. Tell me a **story** about your interactions with this individual?

10. Do you think your **race and/or gender affected** your experiences as a professor?
    a. **Yes** – **Tell me a story** how race and/or gender has affected your experience
    b. **No** – **Tell me why**

11. In what way(s) have you had to **adapt to your department**?
12. What would the **implications** have been if you had **not adapted**?
    a. **Tell a story** or provide an example of how you adapted.
13. In what ways did the **department adapt** to you?
    a. Provide me with **examples** or tell a story about the department adapting to you?

14. What one thing would you **change about your experiences** here?
15. What opportunities and/or barriers have you encountered in learning to be a faculty member in this department/institution?  
   a. Tell me a story about these experiences.

16. Describe your relationship with administrators and other faculty in your department.  
   a. Tell a story about your relationship with a colleague.

17. Tell me about your relationship with others at your institution, in the profession, or in the community.

18. Are you being or have you ever been mentored? If so, describe the relationship between you and your mentor?  
   a. Ask for race, gender, approximate age of mentor  
   b. Ask if mentor is someone at the institution

19. What advice would you give to new AAMF?
APPENDIX B – BIOGRAPHICAL DATA – INTERVIEW PARTICIPANTS

Pseudonym:

Age:

Institution:

College:

Academic Discipline:

Years at Present Institution:

Years in Academia:

Faculty Rank:

Vitae:

Education:

• Baccalaureate
• Master’s
• Ph. D. (Terminal Degree)

Other Significant Experience:
APPENDIX C – SOUTHERN REGIONAL EDUCATIONAL BOARD (SREB)

STATES

1. Alabama
2. Arkansas
3. Delaware
4. Florida
5. Georgia
6. Kentucky
7. Louisiana
8. Maryland
9. Mississippi
10. North Carolina
11. Oklahoma
12. South Carolina
13. Tennessee
14. Texas
15. Virginia
16. West Virginia
## APPENDIX D – HBCUS IN THE SREB STATES

Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) in the Southern Regional Educational Board (SREB) States Designated as Carnegie Classification Doctoral/Research Universities and Master’s Colleges and Universities

### Doctoral/Research Institutions

1. Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical University
2. Clark Atlanta University (Georgia)
3. Howard University (Washington D.C.)
4. Jackson State University (Mississippi)
5. South Carolina State University
6. Tennessee State University
7. Texas Southern University

### Master’s College and Universities

1. Alabama State University
2. Albany State University (Georgia)
3. Alcorn State University (Mississippi)
4. Bowie State University (Maryland)
5. Coppin State University (Maryland)
6. Delaware State University
7. Fayetteville State University (North Carolina)
8. Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University
9. Fort Valley State University (Georgia)
10. Grambling State University (Louisiana)
11. Hampton University (Virginia)
12. Morgan State University (Maryland)
13. Norfolk State University (Virginia)
14. North Carolina Agricultural and Technical State University
15. North Carolina Central University
16. Prairie View A&M University (Texas)
17. Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College at Baton Rouge (Louisiana)
18. Tuskegee University (Alabama)
19. University of District of Columbia
20. University of Maryland Eastern Shore
21. Virginia State University
22. Xavier University of Louisiana
**APPENDIX E – PWIS IN THE SREB STATES**

*Predominately White Institutions (PWIs) in the Southern Regional Educational Board (SREB) States Designated as Carnegie Classification Doctoral/Research Extensive Institutions & Master’s Level*

**Doctoral/Research Institutions**

1. Louisiana State University
2. Rice University (Texas)
3. University of Arkansas
4. University of Maryland – Baltimore County
5. University of Mississippi
6. University of Southern Mississippi
7. Vanderbilt University

**Master Colleges and Universities**

1. Arkansas State University
2. Augusta State University (Georgia)
3. Delta State University (Mississippi)
4. Florida Gulf Coast University
5. Francis Marion University
6. Frostburg State University
7. Georgia Southwestern State University
8. Henderson State University (Arkansas)
9. Nicholls State University (Louisiana)
10. Regent University
11. Salisbury University (Maryland)
12. Sam Houston State University (Texas)
13. St. Mary’s University (Texas)
14. Tennessee Tech University
15. University of Baltimore
16. University of North Carolina – Pembroke
17. University of St. Thomas
18. University of Texas – Tyler
19. University of West Florida
20. Wayland Baptist University
21. West Texas A&M University
22. Winthrop University (South Carolina)
Dear Name:

My name is Dorian L. McCoy and I am a doctoral candidate in higher education at Louisiana State University – Baton Rouge campus. This letter is a request for your participation in my dissertation research.

My dissertation is entitled *Entering the Academy: Exploring the Socialization Experiences of African American Male Faculty*. The purpose of this study is to explore how full-time tenure-track African American male faculty are socialized into academia. Criteria for participation include: a) African American male, b) full-time tenure-track or tenured, c) employed at a predominately White (PWI), Carnegie Classification institution in a Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) state or a historically black college or university (HBCU) Carnegie Classification or master’s level one institution in a SREB state.

I am asking for your participation in a tape-recorded interview. The interview will take approximately one (1) hour and will take place in a mutually agreed upon location. Interview questions will focus on your socialization experiences as an African American male faculty member. Participation in the interview is voluntary and you may withdraw from participation at any time. There are no known risks for participating in this study. Interview participants will be provided the opportunity to review the transcripts from the recorded interviews. Results of the study may be published but no names or identifying information will be included. The identity of all participants will remain confidential. Participants will sign this letter as consent of their participation prior to the interview.

You may contact me at dmccoy1@lsu.edu or (225) 272-8408 if you need additional information. Dr. Becky Ropers-Huilman (broper1@lsu.edu or (225) 578-2892 and Dr. Marietta Del Favero (delfavm@lsu.edu or (225) 578-2156 are my major professors and may also be contacted.

Sincerely,

Dorian L. McCoy
The study has been discussed with me and all my questions have been answered. I may direct additional questions regarding study specifics to the investigators. If I have questions about subjects’ rights or other concerns, I can contact Robert C. Mathews, Institutional Review Board, (225) 578-8692. I agree to participate in the study described above and acknowledge the investigator’s obligation to provide me with a signed copy of this consent form.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant’s Signature</th>
<th>Date</th>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Researcher’s Signature</th>
<th>Date</th>
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</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX G – EMAIL NOTIFICATION INTRODUCTION AND INFORMED CONSENT

(QUESTIONNAIRE PARTICIPANTS)

My name is Dorian McCoy and I am an African American male doctoral candidate in Educational Leadership at Louisiana State University. I am writing to request your participation in my dissertation research: *Entering the Academy: Exploring the Socialization Experiences of African American Male Faculty.*

The focus of this study is to gain a bettering understanding of the experiences of African American male faculty in higher education. Your response should take approximately 10-15 minutes and will in no way be associated with your name or institution. Completion and return of the survey is your indication of consent to voluntarily participate in this research. In responding, please reflect on your personal experiences as an African American male faculty member in academia.

There are no known risks. Results of the study may be published, but no names or identifying information will be included in the publication. The identity of all participants will remain confidential unless disclosure is required by law.

You may contact me at (225) 272-8408 or via email at dmccoy1@lsu.edu if additional information is needed. Dr. Becky Ropers-Huilman is my major professor. She may be contacted at (225) 578-2892 or at broper1@lsu.edu. If you have questions about subjects’ rights or other concerns, you may contact Robert C. Mathews, Institutional Review Board, at (225) 578-8692.

Your participation is greatly appreciated. Please click on the following link to access the survey.

[http://www.cae.lsu.edu/ss/wsb.dll/mdelfav/AAMF.htm](http://www.cae.lsu.edu/ss/wsb.dll/mdelfav/AAMF.htm)

Thank you.

Dorian

Dorian L. McCoy  
College of Education  
Louisiana State University  
dmccoy1@lsu.edu
APPENDIX H – 2ND EMAIL NOTIFICATION

This email serves as a reminder asking for your participation in my dissertation research. If you have completed the questionnaire please disregard this email and thank you for participating in this study.

Considering the limited amount of research that has been conducted on how African American male faculty are socialized/enculturated into the academy, your response is critical for gaining a better understanding of the experiences of African American male faculty. If you have not completed the questionnaire, you may access it at the following html. All responses are completely anonymous.

http://www.cae.lsu.edu/ss/wsb.dll/mdelfav/AAMF.htm

Thank you.

Dorian
APPENDIX I – QUESTIONNAIRE

African American Male Faculty Socialization

Instructions: Please complete this survey if you are a full-time tenured or tenure-track African American (Black) male. Please use the "Tab" key to navigate from item to item. Do NOT hit the "Return" or "Enter" key or the questionnaire will be submitted prematurely.

1) Your faculty rank
- Assistant Professor
- Associate Professor
- Full Professor
- Other (please specify)

If you selected other please specify:

2) Your tenure status
- Tenure-Track
- Tenured

3) Highest degree attained
- Master’s
- Ed. D.
- Ph. D.
- J. D.
- Other (please specify)

If you selected other please specify:

4) Undergraduate institution
- Historically Black College & University (HBCU)
- Predominately White Institution (PWI)
5) Institutional type (where employed)
- Historically Black College & University (HBCU)
- Predominately White Institution (PWI)

6) Carnegie Classification
- Doctoral Research
- Master’s College/University

7) Your academic discipline

8) Number of years as a faculty member at your current institution

9) Total number of years as a faculty member

10) How many faculty of color are in your department (including yourself)?

11) How many African American males (including you) are in your department?
12) How did you learn the ropes of being a faculty member? (Please select all that apply.)

- Graduate School
- On the job training
- Trial-and-error/By myself
- Reading texts, journals, The Chronicle of Higher Education, etc.
- Observation
- I was mentored
- Other (please specify)

If you selected other please specify:

13) Please rate the aspects of the professoriate that your graduate experience adequately prepared you for.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very much</th>
<th>Some</th>
<th>No opinion</th>
<th>Not much</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

14) Were you mentored during graduate school or upon entering the professoriate? If your answer is no please skip to Item 18.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mentored</th>
<th>Very much</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Seldom</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

15) Were you formally (program structured by department/college) or informally (unstructured) mentored? (Please select all that apply.)

- Formally
- Informally
16) What is/was the role of your mentor(s)? (Please select all that apply.)

- ☐ Assist in achieving career goals
- ☐ Offer encouragement
- ☐ Provide constructive feedback
- ☐ Share information
- ☐ Provide opportunities
- ☐ Assist with getting published
- ☐ Other (please specify)

If you selected other please specify:

17) What is the race/ethnicity of your mentor(s)? (Please select all that apply.)

- ☐ African
- ☐ African American
- ☐ Asian
- ☐ Asian-American
- ☐ Hispanic - Latino/a
- ☐ White
- ☐ Other (please specify)

If you selected other please specify:

18) What is/was the gender of your mentor(s)? (Please select all that apply.)

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

19) How would you describe the racial climate in your department?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Excellent</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Fair</th>
<th>Poor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Racial Climate</td>
<td>🟢</td>
<td>🟢</td>
<td>🟢</td>
<td>🟢</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
20) Did a senior faculty member/administrator "show you the ropes" upon joining your current academic unit?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very much</th>
<th>Some</th>
<th>Not much</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Show you the ropes&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</table>

21) Have you been marginalized or isolated in any way?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very much</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Seldom</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marginalized/Isolated</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

22) Were the expectations of the professoriate you established in graduate school consistent with the reality of entering the professoriate?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very much</th>
<th>Some</th>
<th>Not much</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expectations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</table>

23) Do you believe you had the opportunity to influence the culture of your department during your initial entry into the professoriate?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very much</th>
<th>Some</th>
<th>Not much</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Influence department's culture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

24) In what ways have you assimilated to the culture of your department?


25) In what ways has the department changed to accommodate you?


26) What opportunities for succeeding as a faculty member have you encountered?

27) What barriers (problems) have you encountered as a faculty member?

28) What factors influenced/contributed to your socialization (how you learned the culture/expectations of your department) as a faculty member?

29) What is most rewarding about being a faculty member?

30) What is least rewarding about being a faculty member?

Thank you for completing this questionnaire.
This survey was created with WebSurveyor
VITA

Dorian L. McCoy is a 1990 graduate of Henderson State University with a Bachelor of Business Administration (BBA) and a 1992 graduate of the University of Arkansas with a Master of Education degree. He has been a student affairs administrator at the University of Florida and Louisiana State University.

Dorian completed his doctoral studies at Louisiana State University in the Spring 2006 and will receive the degree of Doctor of Philosophy during the Spring 2006 commencement. His dissertation topic was: Entering the Academy: Exploring the Socialization Experiences of African American Male Faculty.