

Diversity, equity, and inclusion in higher education: An examination of the lived experiences of
African American board of trustees within community colleges

by

Carl Bernard Smalls

B.S., North Carolina Agriculture & Technical State University, 1983
M.B.A., Clark Atlanta University, 1988

AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Department of Education
John E. Roueche Center for Community College Leadership

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

2023

Abstract

This qualitative narrative inquiry study explored the lived experiences of African American boards of trustees within community colleges around race, barriers, and influencers. Research reveals an underrepresentation of racial diversity among community college boards of trustees that fails to emulate the racial and ethnic diversity of their community college students. Historically and currently, the majority of the board of trustees in American community colleges are older white males. An analysis of the research shows negligible progress in diversifying minority-serving community college boards of trustees, which has created a need to understand what has led to this underrepresentation of minority community college boards of trustees. The qualitative study applied Critical Race Theory (CRT), Critical Race Theory in Education (CRTE), and the Theory of Representative Bureaucracy (TRB) as its theoretical frameworks and lens respectively to conduct the proposed research.

An illustrative sample of African American boards of trustees representing diverse backgrounds within community colleges across several states and regions in the United States participated in the study. The participants in the study provided insight into their lived experiences of being a board of trustee member. The study consisted of semi-structured interviews. The trustees described their perceptions of the underrepresentation of African Americans among the board of trustees at community college, their appointment or election to the board of trustees, and the preparation necessary to become a board of trustee member at a community college. Additionally, the study was designed to make a practical, theoretical, and social contribution to the study of the underrepresentation of race in the community college board of trustees, and discuss implications for future research and practice.

Keywords: Community Colleges, Minority Community College Boards of Trustees, Critical Race Theory, Critical Race Theory in Education, Theory of Representative Bureaucracy, Leadership, Type of Authority, Governing Board, Method of Selection, Lay Citizens, African American, Latino/Hispanic, Systemic Biases and Racism, Barriers, Race, Influencers, Predominately White Institutions.

Diversity, equity, and inclusion in higher education: An examination of the lived experiences of
African American board of trustees within community colleges

by

Carl Bernard Smalls

B.S., North Carolina Agriculture & Technical State University, 1983
M.B.A., Clark Atlanta University, 1988

A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Department of Education
John E. Roueche Center for Community College Leadership

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

2023

Approved by:

Co-Major Professor
Dr. Margaretta Mathis

Approved by:

Co-Major Professor
Dr. Terry Calaway

Copyright

© Carl B. Smalls 2023

Abstract

This qualitative narrative inquiry study explored the lived experiences of African American boards of trustees within community colleges around race, barriers, and influencers. Research reveals an underrepresentation of racial diversity among community college boards of trustees that fails to emulate the racial and ethnic diversity of their community college students. Historically and currently, the majority of the board of trustees in American community colleges are older white males. An analysis of the research shows negligible progress in diversifying minority-serving community college boards of trustees, which has created a need to understand what has led to this underrepresentation of minority community college boards of trustees. The qualitative study applied Critical Race Theory (CRT), Critical Race Theory in Education (CRTE), and the Theory of Representative Bureaucracy (TRB) as its theoretical frameworks and lens respectively to conduct the proposed research.

An illustrative sample of African American boards of trustees representing diverse backgrounds within community colleges across several states and regions in the United States participated in the study. The participants in the study provided insight into their lived experiences of being a board of trustee member. The study consisted of semi-structured interviews. The trustees described their perceptions of the underrepresentation of African Americans among the board of trustees at community college, their appointment or election to the board of trustees, and the preparation necessary to become a board of trustee member at a community college. Additionally, the study was designed to make a practical, theoretical, and social contribution to the study of the underrepresentation of race in the community college board of trustees, and discuss implications for future research and practice.

Keywords: Community Colleges, Minority Community College Boards of Trustees, Critical Race Theory, Critical Race Theory in Education, Theory of Representative Bureaucracy, Leadership, Type of Authority, Governing Board, Method of Selection, Lay Citizens, African American, Latino/Hispanic, Systemic Biases and Racism, Barriers, Race, Influencers, Predominately White Institutions.

Table of Contents

List of Figures	xi
List of Tables	xii
Acknowledgments	xiii
Dedication	xv
Chapter 1 - Introduction.....	1
Statement of the Problem.....	3
Background of the Problem	9
Purpose of the Study	11
Research Questions.....	11
Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks	11
Alignment Table	15
Methodology	15
Delimitations and Assumptions	16
Significance of the Study.....	17
Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations Assumptions.....	18
Definition of Terms	19
Chapter Summary	21
Organization of the Study	22
Chapter 2 - Literature Review	23
Introduction.....	23
The Literature Search.....	23
Historical Milieu of Higher Education	24
History of Community Colleges	28
State Systems Governing Boards.....	29
Trustees' Role/Responsibility in Diversification of Faculty and College Leadership	38
Diversity Equity and Inclusion in Higher Ed and Community College Governing Boards	40
Board Members Capacity to Influence Diversity, Equity and Inclusion.....	54
Critical Race Theory	59
Critical Race Theory in Education.....	61

Theory of Representative Bureaucracy.....	62
Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks	64
Conclusion	68
Chapter 3 - Methodology.....	69
Introduction.....	69
Purpose of the Study	69
Research Questions.....	70
Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks	71
Research Design	73
Alignment Table	75
Study Setting.....	75
Study Participants	75
Instrumentation	76
Data Collection and Data Sources	76
Data Analysis.....	80
Study Quality	82
Trustworthiness.....	82
Trustworthiness of Data Coding and Analysis	84
Ethical Considerations	85
Limitations	86
Summary.....	87
Chapter 4 - Analysis and Summary of Research Findings	88
Introduction.....	88
Overview of Participant Characteristics	89
Characteristics of the Participants.....	91
Research Question 1:	95
What are the lived experiences of African American community college trustees in their role as Trustees?.....	95
Political Affiliation Had Little to No Impact.....	95
Having an Advocate or Mentor is Critical	98
Community or Public Service Experience was Essential to Being Appointed.....	99

Racism Is Still Prevalent, Whether or Not You Recognize It.....	103
Diversity Is Seen as a Strength, Not as a Weakness	107
Research Question 2 Findings Presented by Impediments, Barriers, or Prejudices/Biases ...	109
Research Question 2:	110
Lack of Exposure and Accountability.....	110
Willingness to Serve	111
Political Makeup of Those Making the Selections	113
The Privilege of Having Time	113
Valuing Those Who Are Not Like You	114
Research Question 3 Findings Presented by Best Practices That Community College Trustees and CEOs Undertake to Influence Diversity and Inclusion.....	118
Research Question 3:	119
Equity Advocate - Diversity and Inclusion is Everyone's Job	119
Restorative Justice	122
Summary	124
Chapter 5 - Summary, Discussion, and Recommendations.....	125
Overview of the Study	125
Discussion of the Findings.....	126
Recommendations for Practice	134
Findings Related to the Literature	136
Influence of state-appointed Board of Trustees	136
The role/responsibility of trustees in the diversification of faculty and college leadership	137
The board members' capacity to influence diversity, equity, and inclusion	137
Implication for Further Research.....	137
Conclusion	139
References.....	142
Appendix A - Literature Review Topics Alignment with Research Questions.....	162
Appendix B - Interview Questions	163
Appendix C - Participant Informed Consent Form.....	166
Appendix D - IRB Forms.....	168

List of Figures

Figure 1.1. Trustees by Gender.....	4
Figure 1.2. Trustees by Race and Ethnicity	4
Figure 2.1. Method of Selection of Public Community College Trustees by State.....	32
Figure 4.1. Locations of the Board of Trustees' Colleges in the U.S. (map of the U.S.)	90
Figure 4.2. Board of Trustees Profession.....	91
Figure 4.3. Years of Service	92
Figure 4.4. Board of Trustees Gender.....	93
Figure 4.5. Board of Trustees Age.....	93
Figure 4.6. Board of Trustees Education	94

List of Tables

Table 1.1. Trustees by Race and Ethnicity	5
Table 1.2. Community College Governance Structures	7
Table 1.3. Survey Response Rates by Sector.....	10
Table 2.1. Public Board Members by Race/Ethnicity.....	41
Table 2.2. Percentage of Women on the Board from 1969-2020	43
Table 2.3. Percentage of Women on the Board Compared to Women Students from 1969-2020	43
Table 3.1. Research and Interview Questions Alignment.....	79

Acknowledgments

In an old book known as the bible, there is a verse that says “ The harvest is plentiful, but the laborers are few” (Matthew 9:35). Thanks to all who have poured into my life to prepare me for this harvest.

That said, my deepest gratitude to my co-major professors Dr. Terry Calaway (CEO Emeritus), Dr, Margaretta Mathis (Senior Director at Kansas State University), my other committee members Dr. Quentin Johnson (President at Southside Virginia Community College) and Dr. Royce Ann Collins (Professor and Interim Chair at Kansas State University), for their unwavering support, invaluable guidance, and expertise throughout this research journey. Their mentorship and encouragement have been instrumental in shaping the direction and the completion of this dissertation.

Also, my immense gratitude to my family and friends for their continuous love, understanding, and encouragement. Their untiring backing and belief in my abilities have been a constant source of inspiration.

Additionally, my extended appreciation to the participants who were willing to share their time and insights that made this research possible. Their contributions have enriched this study profoundly. Moreover, my appreciation to the staff of the participants’ colleges for their diligence in scheduling the interviews.

Likewise, my indebtedness to Kansas State University, staff, and faculty for providing the necessary resources and environment for conducting this research. My sincerest appreciation to Guilford Technical Community College for all their support as well.

Finally, to everyone who has played a part, no matter how big or small, in the accomplishment of this dissertation, thank you. Your support and encouragement have been invaluable in achieving this milestone.

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my loving family, whose unwavering support and belief in my abilities have been the driving force behind my academic journey. Thank you to my late parents Claude and Isabelle Smalls for instilling in me the value of education and hard work. Your endless encouragement me to make the world a better place and that wisdom was truly invaluable.

I would like to dedicate this work to my son Isaiah, whose love, understanding, and patience have been pillars of my strength. Your support and belief have made this achievement possible. To my siblings Deborah, Claude, Jr., Sharon and Sampson, as well as my nieces and nephews this manuscript is dedicated to you for all your support and unconditional love.

I also dedicate this dissertation to my close friends, and basketball buddies whose friendship and camaraderie have provided much-needed laughter, jokes, fun, support and inspiration along the way.

Lastly, I dedicate this work to my Guilford Technical Community College family, former teachers and coaches, my pastor Bishop J.C. Hash, Sr., and to those who have paved the path of knowledge before me. To future generations of researchers and scholars, continue to push the boundaries of understandings.

May this dedication serve as a token of my appreciation and gratitude to all who have been a part of my academic journey. Thank you.

Chapter 1 - Introduction

Research reveals that although U.S. higher education institutions endorse egalitarian principles which champion the ideals of liberty, justice, and equality in their language, historical records show clear patterns of engaged practices that reinforce beliefs and values antithetical to those ideals (Wolfe & Dilworth, 2015a). Many of those practices are centered on White male dominance. In today's society, the struggle of suppression, fairness, and equal opportunity remains due to traditional practices that either overlook or support biased behavior against minority groups (Wolfe & Dilworth, 2015b). Traditionally marginalized groups often compete with one another, while the dominant group does not due to their already inherent status of power and privilege.

According to the United States Census Bureau (2020), over 31% of America's total population are either African American or Black (13.4%), and Hispanic or Latino (18.5%) citizens. These two groups represent the largest race/ethnic minority populations in the United States (U.S.). However, in the fall of 2018 combined African American (6%) and Hispanic (6%) faculty represented only 12% of the full-time instructional faculty in degree-granting institutions of higher education (NCES, n.d.). Similarly, from 2018 through 2020, African Americans and Hispanic students represented approximately 30% of the student population (IPEDS, n.d.). On the other hand, the white student population is roughly 53% and the white full-time instructional faculty is 80%. As a result of this paradoxical phenomenon, scholars have engaged in discourse and research to explore the underrepresentation, histories, experiences, and perspectives of African Americans at predominantly White institutions (PWIs) of higher education (Russell et al., 2019).

Studies show that the long-standing underrepresentation of African American and Hispanic faculty and graduate students at leading doctoral-granting colleges and universities has detrimental consequences for such faculty and graduate students including marginalizing their contributions, limiting their voices, and impeding their successes within academe (Burden et al., 2005; Hodge & Corbett, 2013; Hodge et al., 2004). To uncover this phenomenon, that has typically gone unrecognized as normal behavior, the Critical Race Theory (CRT), Critical Race Theory in Education (CTRE), and the Theory of Representative Bureaucracy (TRB) will be used as the theoretical frameworks and lenses.

There is a considerable amount of scholarship generated about the position of African Americans in higher education, specifically full-time faculty. Yet there is very little research on the underrepresentation of African American community college trustees as well as their experiences at PWIs. For example, most studies concerning African Americans have focused on the retention of students or faculty (Wolfe & Dilworth, 2015d). Furthermore, previous research suggests that increasing the number of faculty members and administrators of color may contribute to the “critical mass” needed to have a positive effect on educational quality and student achievement (Fujimoto, 2012).

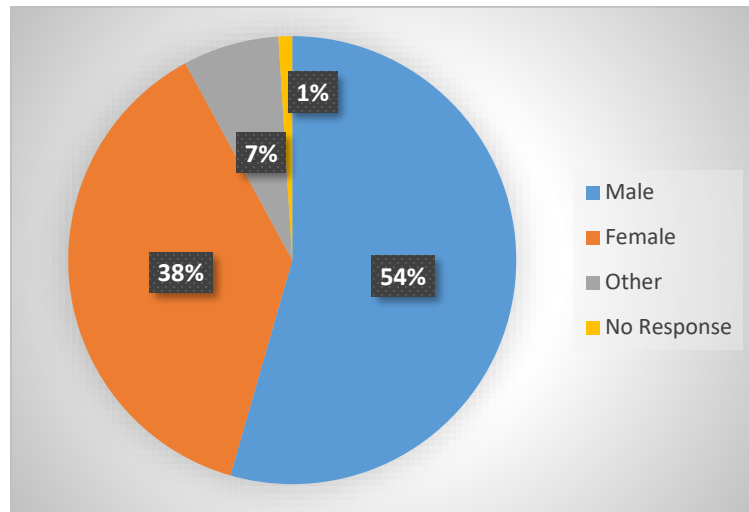
Advancing diversity, equity, and inclusion is difficult for a variety of reasons such as the lack of diversity on boards themselves; challenges in framing the issues for action; racism and the challenges of talking about race; low levels of confidence by key stakeholders in board leadership; and common governance shortcomings, which include a lack of sophistication on student and faculty issues, insufficient use of data and dashboard and competing issues (TIAA Institute, 2016a). However, trustees are uniquely positioned to advance transformational change in ways that other key stakeholders cannot because they can illuminate the context, ensure

attention to the issues, hold institutions accountable for progress, and contribute their resources, insight, and wisdom (TIAA Institute, 2016b). In other words, boards govern in partnership with the president and senior leadership. Hence, the goal of the study is to explore how a diverse board will influence the mission, by focusing on the greater impact of diversity equity, and inclusion. Additionally, the researcher will explore if a diverse board of trustees can influence the number of African American faculty, administrators and senior leaders joining their colleges.

Statement of the Problem

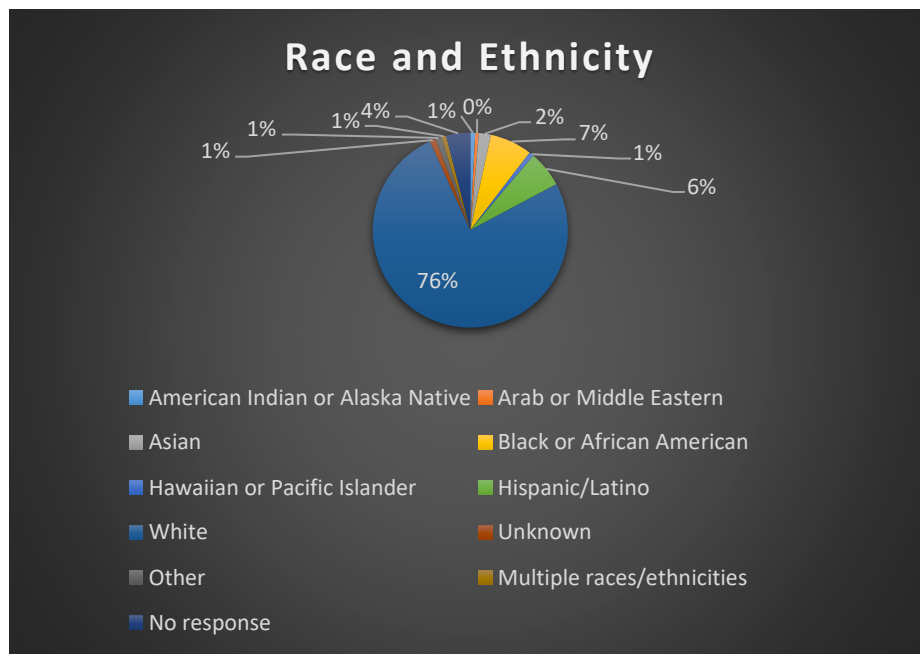
In a perfect world, the governing boards and leadership would ethnically and racially mirror their student population (Higgs, 2014). Research has shown an obvious underrepresentation of minority community college trustees (Moltz, 2009). Furthermore, research shows little to no progress in hiring African American administrators at PWIs (Levin, Walker et al., 2013). In addition, as shown in Figures 1.1 and 1.2 (and Table 1.1), the 2018 Citizen Trustee Survey by the Association of Community College Trustees (ACCT) revealed gender and racial gaps among community college boards of trustees in the United States (ACCT, 2018).

Figure 1.1. Trustees by Gender



Source: ACCT, 2018

Figure 1.2. Trustees by Race and Ethnicity



Source: ACCT, 2018

Table 1.1. Trustees by Race and Ethnicity

Race and Ethnicity	Percent
White	76%
Black	7%
Hispanic/Latino	6%
No Response	4%
Asian	2%
Unknown	1%
Other	1%
Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	1%
American Indian or Alaska Native	1%
Multiple Races/ethnicities	-1%
Arab or Middle Eastern	0%

Source: ACCT, 2018

Concerning race, Jackson (2001) states that the reality is racial equality continues as a barrier confronting higher education. According to Polonio and Miller (2012) lay citizens' boards are part of every community college in this country through local governing or advisory boards or state-level governing or coordinating boards. It is imperative that these local bodies reflect the communities that they serve, otherwise it may complicate the types of policies and programs they pursue (Gillett-Karam, 2013) or the chief executive officers or senior leadership they recruit and hire (Vaugh & Weisman, 1997).

As a result of an open-door admissions policy, community colleges have become the institution of choice for many students pursuing higher education and a better standard of living. Community colleges provide affordable educational opportunities to many students of various ages, backgrounds, experiences, and cultures. According to the Community College Research

Center (CCRC, 2019), as of the fall of 2017, 5.8 million students were enrolled in community colleges. Community colleges in the United States admit 41% of all undergraduates in higher education (AACC, 2018a). For example, the student population of community colleges represents the majority of undergraduates enrolled at colleges and universities today, with 56% of Native Americans, 52% of Hispanics, 43% of African Americans, and 40% of Asian/Pacific Islanders (AACC, 2018b). Although the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) and the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) annually report a constant growth in racial/ethnic minority student enrollment in community colleges, research shows that community colleges lag behind four-year colleges and universities in the diversification of their faculty and administrator ranks, and they are not attaining the same level of diversity that exists among their student populations (Rifkin, 2008; Robinson et al., 2013).

Moreover, research reveals that the success potential of most community colleges rests within their efforts to provide diverse role models for their changing student demographics. According to research, African America (or Black) students at community colleges perform better academically when they have African American faculty with whom they can relate (Fujimoto, 2012; Laden & Hagedorn, 2000; Sadao, 2003). Hence, community colleges must recruit, hire and retain African American faculty so that they can support the success and completion rates of the African American student population. According to Kayes (2006), attempts at the diversification of faculty remain to be an unsuccessful undertaking for most colleges. Although many community colleges professed to increase the number of racial/ethnic minority faculty at their colleges nearly 10 years ago, the underrepresentation of African American faculty in the U.S. higher education system remains a perpetual issue (Allen et al., 2000; Bower, 2002; Daufin, 2001; Fujimoto, 2012; Harvey & Valadez, 1994; Kayes, 2006;

Levin et al., 2014; Levin, Walker et al., 2013; Turner et al., 2008; Turner et al., 1999). According to the NCES, in the Fall of 2020, nearly three-quarters of faculty were white. The next largest racial/ethnic group was Asian/Pacific Islander faculty, which was 12%. Black (or African Americans) full-time faculty was 7%. Hispanics, American Indian/Alaska Native individuals, and individuals of Two or more races each made up one percent or less of full-time faculty. Therefore, a diverse board of trustee members could influence the hiring practices and outcome because the board set goals and policies for their community college (see Figure 1.2 Trustees by Race and Ethnicity).

An examination of who is governing community colleges and making significant policy decisions to address student success is critical. While there are a variety of governing structures for community and/or technical colleges, the majority of states, 36 (see Table 1.1 below) to be exact, employ local governing boards to provide oversight of community colleges (ACCT, 2014).

Table 1.2. Community College Governance Structures

Governance Models	No. of States
Local Community College Board	36
<i>Scope of Authority: College or multi-college district.</i>	
State-Level Community College Board	25
<i>Scope of Authority: All community and technical colleges for the state, with some state combining community colleges with primary and secondary education</i>	
Higher Education State Board	24
<i>Scope of Authority: All postsecondary education for the state, including community and/or technical colleges with some states also combining higher education with primary and secondary education.</i>	
Governing Board of a University	6
<i>Scope of Authority: A university governing board that directly governs some or all Community and/or technical colleges within, a state as well as the university system</i>	
Source: ACCT, 2014	

One of the main reasons for local governance is the ability to influence outcomes to local needs, also it is often assumed (and in most cases not necessarily true) that the local board of trustees reflects their communities. However, there is strong evidence suggesting that this is incorrect. Recent research on governing boards for all forms of higher education, including state and local community college governing boards, indicates that the individuals governing postsecondary education in America are for the most part White and male (Gillett-Karam, 2013; Hines, 1997; Moore, 1973; Vaughan & Weisman, 1997). As of 2018 the same disparity continued according to ACCT (2018), 76% of trustees were white, 7% were black or African American, and 6 percent were Hispanic or Latino. In comparison, nationally, community college students are 50% white, 15% Black or African American, and 24% Hispanic or Latino (ACCT, 2018).

According to Brekken et al., (2019), to better represent the needs of constituents and create policies that address the needs of underrepresented groups, the authors stressed the importance of descriptive representation, which occurs when a governing body mirrors the community it serves. Though this hypothesis has its detractors who argue that shared characteristics are not related to better representation of constituent groups (Pitkin, 1967), other scholars have found empirical support that descriptive representation of minorities and women in the community influences policy outcomes. For example, there has been a series of empirical studies of K-12 public education systems that have found that increased minority participation on the school board is associated with policy outcomes, including increased student performance for minority and nonminority students (Hicklin & Meier, 2008; Meier et al., 1999). However, few scholars have examined the representativeness of higher education governing bodies, and even fewer have looked at local governing boards of community colleges.

This research will serve to provide direction to dealing with the gap in existing research to understanding the persistently low racial representation of minority boards of trustees at community colleges.

Background of the Problem

There are 36 states (see Table 1.1 Community College Governance Structures above) that have some type of local governing board that has some degree of autonomy and oversight of community colleges (ACCT, 2018). These boards can set priorities, establish policies, determine to fund, hire and fire college presidents and much more. They are often responsible for determining what academic and workforce training programs to offer and may oversee millions of dollars of public funding (Hines, 1997; Moore, 1973; Polino & Miller, 2012).

Also, worth mentioning is a 2020 study conducted by the Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges (AGB). AGB is an association with over 100 years of experience, with 40,000 members from more than 2,000 institutions (AGB, 2021). The survey was administered electronically and remained in the field from November 2020 through March 2021. Surveys were returned by 117 public governing boards for a 14.8% response rate; 325 independent governing boards for a 32.4 % response rate, and 97 foundations for an 11.6% response rate (see Table 1.2 Survey Response Rates by Sector).

Table 1.3. Survey Response Rates by Sector

	Total Invitations Sent	Total Responses	Proportion of Total Responses Within Sector	Proportion of Total Responses Across Sector
Public	805	117	14.5%	21.7%
Independent	1003	325	32.4%	60.3%
Foundations	836	97	11.6%	18.0%
Total	2644	539	20.4%	100.0%

Source: AGB, 2021

The majority of state and local community college governing board trustees are appointed by the governor (ACCT, 2018), which may contribute to their lack of diversity. As Carson and Lubensky (2009) noted, the selection criteria and process for most governing board appointments are rarely methodical or transparent, and “existing conservatism with selection is perpetuated by a recruitment process that is also designed to protect the status quo,” (p. 88).

The fact that community college governing boards may not reflect the demographic of the constituencies they serve could have significant policy implications that adversely impact the progress of students from under-represented groups. The lack of research on local community college governing boards is alarming. Because community colleges are the primary provider of postsecondary education to low-income and minority students, it is imperative to understand who is governing the majority of these institutions and what influence that may have on the board’s decisions.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to develop a basic understanding of the lived experiences of African American trustee members within community colleges, their influence on the colleges' diversity, equity, and inclusion strategies, and the effect that these trustees can have on the hiring of a diverse faculty and leadership teams.

Research Questions

The research will focus on the following three questions:

1. What are the lived experiences of African American community college trustees in their role as Trustees?
2. What impediments, barriers, or prejudices/biases have African American community college trustees observed that effect and impede the deeper diversification of college faculty, staff, and leadership?
3. What best practices might college trustees and CEOs undertake to influence a more diverse and inclusive environment, resulting in a more diverse college environment?

Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

Both Critical Race Theory (CRT) and Critical Race Theory in Education are the theoretical frameworks that will be deployed. CRT's basic tenet is that racism is a normal part of American life (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017a). The theory suggests that society fails to see racism because it is an everyday experience, which is often taken for granted unless it becomes a blatant form of discrimination (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017b). Racism is the norm in society, and African

Americans will only have success when they are in unison with the White agenda (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017c). Secondly, racism advances the interest of the dominant White society; hence, there is little incentive to eradicate it (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017d).

Thirdly, it acknowledges race as a social construct with no biological or genetic reality (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017e). More recently, included in this tenet is the notion of differential racialization; that is, Whites racialize different groups more so than others at different times. This was seen with the Muslims during the 911 attack, the recent Anti-blackness movement and racial profiling, and the treatment of those with Chinese heritage with the recent novel Coronavirus. Because of their distinct histories and experiences with oppression, various groups may communicate to the White population matters that Whites do not know, have not experienced, and are unable to give voice. This is the storytelling component of CRT, and it is in this component, that nondominant groups can recount their experiences with racism and apply their unique perspective (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017f). Stories confront the status quo and help put together a consensus to create a shared, common understanding. As such, CRT can be a way to convey the stories of African American faculty and administrators who seek employment and their perception of the challenges and barriers faced while pursuing these job opportunities. Scholars assert that CRT could prove useful in uncovering and revealing discrimination in multiple variations in the realm of higher education.

Fourthly, CRT recognizes interest-convergence, the process in which White power structures tolerate or encourage racial advances if they promote White self-interest (Bell, 2000; Delgado, 1995). Lastly, CRT critiques claims of meritocracy that sustains white as property (Harris, 1993; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995). According to Harris (1993), the property is not just a tangible object; it is a metaphysical extension of certain rights as pointed out in U.S.

history. The central notion of whiteness as property is “the legal legitimization of expectations of power and control that enshrine the status quo as a neutral baseline while masking the maintenance of white privilege and domination” (Harris, 1993, p. 1725).

Critical Race Theory is paramount to understanding individual, institutional, and societal racism; and listening and learning from the narratives of African American faculty and administrators. Their experiences can influence institutional change in significant ways, which could have an insightful impact on the recruitment of African American trustees. This study will focus primarily on the tenets of racism as a normal part of life, counter-storytelling, interest-convergence, and whiteness as property.

Additionally, the other framework that will be used to develop a basic understanding of the lived experiences of African American trustees within community colleges is the Critical Race Theory in Education (Hirald, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1998). According to Ladson-Billings (1998), there are five tenets within this theory which are:

1. Counter-storytelling,
2. The permanence of racism,
3. Whiteness as property,
4. Interest conversion, and
5. The critique of liberalism

Two of the five tenets will be applied to the research in explaining the phenomenon in the lived experiences of the participants, which are the permanence of racism, and counter-storytelling.

The conceptual lens that will be used to view this study is the Theory of Representative Bureaucracy (TRB). TRB is the expectation that public administrators who possess the authority to influence public policy represent the people in terms of race, ethnicity, and sex (Bradbury &

Kellough, 2011). Kingsley (1946) during the initial stages of the theory of representative bureaucracy argued the administrative structure should always reflect the essence of the social structure of the population, which at the time in Great Britain was class-based and therefore his perspective was it should reflect the dominant class (Meier, 1975). In the United States when representative bureaucracy was first explored as an alternative method for monitoring administrative power, Levitan (1946) defined “representativeness” as meaning every level and branch of government in the United States should be representative of American society. There are two basic components of the theory of representative bureaucracy, which are passive representation and active representation. Salden (1997) defines passive representation as the degree to which a government will hire individuals of various demographic backgrounds leading to active representation, or the development of guidelines reflecting the interest and needs of those individuals. According to Mosher (1982), active representation is when individuals or management are expected to advocate for the interests and needs of those they are supposed to represent. The theory of representative bureaucracy suggests if administrators’ attitudes emulate the attitudes held by the workforce, the decision made by the administrators will be responsive to the wants and needs of the public (Meier & Nigro, 1976). According to Kranz (1976), the following governance consideration could lead to a more racially inclusive and diverse bureaucracy:

- More Democratic decision-making and better decisions by expanding the number and diversity of views brought to bear on policy-making;
- Improved operations and outputs from decisions and services to the needs of all citizens, particularly minority groups;
- Better human talent development and management decisions;

- An increase, both symbolically and actually, in the legitimacy of public service and other governance institutions; and
- Elevation of social equity and justice to prime administrative values on par with other values in public administration paradigms. (p. 390).

Critics of the theory of representative bureaucracy suggest the theory does not identify which societal group should be represented (Larson, 1973). However, Kingsley (1946) theorizes the dominant groups in society should be represented within the administration, while Mosher (1982) argues representation should be a diverse representation composed of all groups within society. A significant challenge influencing the relationship between advocacy and bureaucratic diversity for marginalized people's interests is the influence of administrative socialization (Bradbury & Kellough, 2011). Rehfuss (1996) argues racial minorities and women share the same management ideology as their White male counterparts, which may work against the augment of direct representation of group interests.

Alignment Table

In Appendix A on Table 1, the alignment table consists of the literature findings, research questions, theoretical/conceptual framework, and methodology.

Methodology

The study used a qualitative research design to explore and illuminate African American trustees' lived experiences as Trustees at community colleges. Qualitative research is a way to explore, irradiate and softly investigate the participants' descriptions of their experiences (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). A narrative inquiry method will be implored. Narrative inquiry is

an interdisciplinary qualitative approach that pursues a narrative way of knowing by exploring the narratives or stories of participants (Kim, 2016). An understanding of the perspective of the board of trustees' lived experiences or allowing their voice to be heard can be invaluable in contrast to the more structured quantitative calculation, measuring feelings, emotions, and ideas. The qualitative approach is more humanistic when dealing with data that reflect the human condition, perspectives, and attitudes because the outcomes will be reflected more accurately (Gay & Airasian, 2003). The most effective way to capture a historical understanding of lived experiences is through storytelling. Storytelling is a significant component of CRT (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017g). Furthermore, according to Solorzano & Yosso (2002), counter-story telling is a tool for exposing, analyzing, and challenging the majoritarian stories of racial privilege. Also, counter-stories can break complacency, challenge the leading dialogue on race, and further the fight for racial reform.

Delimitations and Assumptions

The study is delimited by the selection of participants, geographical location, and the number of community colleges. Therefore, the findings may not be transferable to other institutions of higher education in general or community colleges specifically within or outside the selected locations.

According to Roberts and Hyatt (2019), assumptions are “what you take for granted relative to your study” (p. 111). One assumption of this study is that there are impediments, barriers, or biases affecting the diversification of the board of trustees, faculty, staff, and leadership positions within community colleges.

Significance of the Study

The study is designed to inform governors, public community college leadership, executive search firms, trade associations, boards of trustees, city and county officials, and other stakeholders of public community colleges. There is a great benefit to be gained in understanding African American trustees' perceptions of the underrepresentation of minorities serving on the boards of public community colleges. The study also will seek to augment understanding of the failure of the academy to address the phenomenon given decades of longitudinal studies on the underrepresentation of African Americans on the board of trustees at public community colleges.

The study is designed to contribute to filling a void in the scholarship of the board of trustees at public community colleges (Espinosa et al., 2019; NCES, 2019; Gagliardi et al., 2017; Selingo et al., 2017). Exposing racial disparities on the community college board of trustees is intended to contribute to a meaningfully serious dialogue examining culturally systemic barriers in higher education, thus allowing more minorities to prepare, develop proficiencies, and persist to become trustees (ACCT, 2018). This study aims to make a practical, theoretical, and social contribution by adding to the literature and field on the underrepresentation of racial diversity on the board of trustees at public community colleges. The study is designed to help to guide community college practitioners by:

- (a) bringing awareness to the issue of racial diversification on the board of trustees,
- (b) informing them about organizational climates and cultures that eliminate structural and institutional barriers that may inhibit diverse board of trustees,
- (c) providing a framework to inform the board of trustees and governors of the selection and recruitment practices that may lead to an increase in representation of minorities on the board of trustees,

(d) informing future, current and former trustees of practices, necessary training, selections, and recruiting of trustees.

(e) providing a recommendation on the process and steps a Board of Trustees might undertake to implement a more equitable and inclusive environment for faculty, and administrators

Furthermore, the study will add to the literature by deepening our understanding of the perceptions and lived experiences of African American boards of trustees at public community colleges.

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations Assumptions

Assumptions

Roberts and Hyatt (2019) define assumptions as “what you take for granted relative to your study” (p. 111). One assumption of this study is that there are barriers affecting African Americans who are missing from the board of trustees from public community colleges. Moreover, a review of the literature seems to support this assumption. Other assumptions of the study include:

1. Participants will answer interview questions honestly and candidly.
2. The inclusion criteria of the sample participants are appropriate and assure that participants have experienced the same or similar phenomena examined by the study.
3. Participants have a sincere interest in participating in the study, and their responses accurately reflect their journeys and experiences without another agenda.

Limitations

1. The validity of interview results, in general, has the potential to be distorted by any relationships with and the perceptions of the interviewer.

2. Participants may not always answer honestly.

Delimitations

1. The study will include only current and former community college boards of trustees in the United States.
2. The experiences of each board of trustees may differ based on governance models, their means of becoming a board member, the location, size, student demography, and type of institution/system served, and that institution/system's cultural impact on the nature and role of the trustees.
3. Community college boards of trustees referred to in the study are limited to public, not-for-profit, two-year institutions affiliated with the AACC.

Definition of Terms

African American – an ethnic group consisting of Americans with partial or total ancestry in sub-Saharan Africa, and generally denotes descendants of enslaved Africans who are from the United States (U.S. 2020 Census Bureau).

Black/African American faculty - a college or university faculty member who identifies as African American and is a minority presence in most colleges and universities (Laden & Hagedorn, 2000); members of an underrepresented group (Opp & Smith, 1994; Whetsel-Ribeau, 2007).

Caucasian/White - used in the United States to describe White people (Moses, 2017).

Critical mass - the number of minorities hired that will represent the corresponding number of minority enrollment (Fujimoto, 2012).

Critical race theory – a collection of activists and scholars interested in studying and transforming the relationship between race, racism, and power (Delgado, 2001, p2).

Critical race theory in education - challenges ahistoricism and the unidisciplinary focus on most analyses, and insists on analyzing race and racism in education by placing them in both a historical and contemporary context using interdisciplinary methods (Solorano, 1998, as cited in Harper et al., 2009; Lynn & Dixson, 2013). It is a way to begin to theorize on race and to utilize such a theory to examine inequality in educational institutions (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995).

Decentralization - is the process of destroying a people's culture and replacing it with a new culture (Spring, 2006).

Deculturalization - is an educational process in which a people's culture is stripped and subjugated under the guise of schooling (Wolfe & Dilworth, 2015 and Spring, 2013).

Higher Education Administration - encompasses the management and organization of various programs and activities for colleges and universities (Study.com, 2020).

Hispanic/Latino – a person of Cuban, Mexican, Puerto Rican, South or Central American, or other Spanish culture or origin regardless of race (U.S. 2020 Census Bureau).

Lived Experiences - are those of a person or a group of people (Moustakas, 1994). An individual's account of lived experiences of a phenomenon (Moustakas, 1994).

Marginalization - the act of placing a person or thing in a position of lesser importance, influence, or power (Burden et al., 2005).

Majoritarian Stories – stories generated from a legacy of racial privilege, they are stories in which racial privilege seems “natural” (Solorzano & Yosso, 2002).

Minority - a term that refers to a group of people who, because of physical or cultural characteristics, are singled out from others in society for differential and unequal treatment; self-perceived as collective discrimination objects (Jackson, 2020).

People of Color/Person of Color - any individual not identified as White, including at various points in US history, African Americans, Hispanic Americans, Asian-Americans, and others (Perez, 2020).

Race - the word race has undergone a variety of meanings, but it is generally understood as a socially constructed category to denote differences among people and politically sustained to assign people to categories (Banton, 2002). Skin color and facial features are common descriptions for defining racial groups (Salett & Koslow, 1994). Refers to socially defined differences based on physical characteristics, culture, and historical domination and oppression, justified by entrenched beliefs (Acker, 2008).

Racism - is a term that relates to a belief that a specific race is superior or inferior to another or that a person's social and moral attributes are predetermined by biological characteristics; different races should remain segregated from one another (ADL, 2020).

Restorative Justice - an approach to justice that seeks to repair harm by providing an opportunity for those harmed and those who take responsibility for the harm to communicate about and address their needs in the aftermath of a crime. Based on an understanding that crime is a violation of people and relationships and is based on principles of respect, compassion and inclusivity. It encourages meaningful engagement and accountability and provides an opportunity for healing, reparation and reintegration (Johnstone, 2011).

Chapter Summary

This chapter provides an overview of the study, including the background of the problem being studied, the purpose of the study, and the significance of the study. The critical race theory and the critical race theory in education will be applied to provide historical contextualization of

African American trustees' experiences in higher education through the lens of the theory of representative bureaucracy. Also, an overview of the methodology that will be used in the study will be addressed including the research assumptions, limitations, and delimitations, as well as the definitions of key terminology found in the study.

Organization of the Study

Chapter two will provide a detailed review of the literature that will inform the study. The literature review will include what researchers have found regarding community college history, localization, equity-minded and culturally sustaining governance, influencers, the Critical Race Theory, the Critical Race Theory in Education, and the Theory of Representative Bureaucracy (TRB). Chapter three will discuss the research methodology that will be used in the study. Chapter four will describe the analysis of the data collected and key findings from the study. Chapter five will reflect the findings and offer implications for scholars and professionals, as well as recommendations for further research.

Chapter 2 - Literature Review

Introduction

This chapter discusses the literature search and provides an overview of existing research relative to community college history, localization, equity-minded and culturally sustaining governance, and influencers. Additionally, this chapter includes a review of the theoretical and conceptual frameworks supporting this study.

The first section starts with the literature search, next is the historical milieu of higher education, followed by the history of community college. The next section is the state system governing boards, followed by trustees' role/responsibility in diversification of faculty and college leadership. The following sections are DE&I in higher ed and community college governing boards, influencers: DE&I board impact, critical race theory, critical race theory in education, and theory of representative bureaucracy, The last two sections are the theoretical and conceptual frameworks, and conclusion.

The Literature Search

The information in this chapter was gathered from a variety of sources. Both current and historic, from 1896 to 2021, encompass the earliest work on selecting and recruiting, and capturing the lived experiences of African American board of trustees. According to Creswell (2005), the purpose of the literature review is to provide the credibility required to justify conducting the study. Hence, the research will be analyzed to add to the body of knowledge related to the proposed dissertation topic. Specific literature sources include scholarly databases such as ProQuest, ERIC, Sage, and Google Scholar, scholarly journals, books, articles,

dissertations, working papers, and college/university websites. In addition to electronically published government documents, and law reviews.

Historical Milieu of Higher Education

According to Wolfe and Dilworth (2015a), there is evidence to suggest a long-standing connection between historical ideologies of injustice and higher education access, equal opportunity, and career mobility related to people of color. For African Americans, this phenomenon has been often attributed to the uniqueness of the Black/White clash of race relations in the United States. For some scholars, the historical legacy of slavery becomes a fundamental variable in explaining the continued disadvantages that African Americans face today (Wolfe & Dilworth, 2015b).

Historical Look at Race and Education

This reoccurring issue in the history of education in America (Wolfe & Dilworth, 2015c) reveals a challenge between a dominant White Protestant Anglo-American culture and other impending cultures. Since colonial times, educators have advocated for equal opportunity and Democratic citizenship while simultaneously engaging in acts of racial segregation, cultural genocide, and discrimination against non-Whites (Spring, 2005). For those considered non-White, Protestant Anglo-American domination threatened potential deculturalization. Deculturalization is defined as an educational process in which a culture is stripped of subjugation under the guise of schooling (Wolfe & Dilworth, 2015d).

For example, Wolfe and Dilworth (2015f) noted, that the first five colleges in the British American colonies, were Harvard (established 1636), William and Mary (1693), Yale (1701), Codrington in Barbados (1745), and College of New Jersey (1746), now known as Princeton

University were all considered weapons used in the “conquest of indigenous people” and used alongside the rise of the African slave trade and slavery to sustain a network of college growth with the mission to expand White dominance. For schools in the United States, deculturalization (Wolfe & Dilworth, 2015e) has been recycled in varying forms as attempts not only to eradicate other cultures but also to develop a long-term status of second-class citizenship (Spring, 2005, 2006).

Landmark Cases in Education

As a result of such second-class treatment, African Americans began challenging the forces of White domination based on the U.S. Constitution. For instance, in the 1896 landmark case of *Plessy v. Ferguson*, the court ruled against Plessy stating that segregation was permissible if both entities were equal and were provided the same service, which birthed the “*separate but equal*” treatment (Wolfe & Dilworth, 2015f). The significance of the ruling not only granted Whites the ability to keep one particular entity separate, but the decision also gave way to further separations, especially within educational institutions (Wolfe & Dilworth, 2015g). Furthermore, the Plessy decision restricted African Americans from participating in choice occupations in all areas of society. Subsequently, Fleming et al., (1978a) revealed why predominately white institutions (PWIs) refused to hire African American faculty or administrators.

Consequently, African Americans mostly either attended or worked at private Negro Colleges or the public colleges established for African Americans after the passage of the Morrill Act of 1890 (Preer, 1982) referred to as historically black colleges or universities (HBCUs). The Plessy decision stood unchallenged for nearly 50 years as a precedent to deny African Americans

and other racial minorities access and opportunities across the United States (Wolfe & Dilworth, 2015h).

Next, *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas (1954)* successfully challenged previously prohibited equal access and opportunities for African Americans on a larger scale. The plaintiffs of the 1951 class-action lawsuit argued that the Topeka Board of Education's separation of public schools for African American and White children denied African American children equal educational opportunities (Brubacher & Rudy, 1997). The 1954 Brown decision demanded an immediate change to segregation laws, especially in public schools. As a result, African Americans began applying in significant numbers to what were then all-White colleges and universities (Anderson, 1988; Fleming et al., 1978b). Though the court's ruling legalized integration and opportunity, the actual enactment of equality in academia moved at a much slower pace—especially in the South.

Civil Rights Acts of 1964

According to Bell (1980), true equal protection against racial discrimination under the law for Blacks would remain stagnant because it would “require the surrender of racism-granted privileges for Whites”, an idea that many Whites simply could not envision. This theme of White resistance continues even today, decades after the Brown decision, as African American stagnation is signaled by poor school performance, dwindling educational resources in their zoned areas, and the resegregation of public schools (Anderson, 2007).

In response to African Americans' ongoing struggle and protests against institutional and racially discriminatory practices, the U.S. government passed the Civil Rights Acts of 1964 and 1965, granting de facto rights of admission to people of color at many institutions of higher education, especially those that were predominantly White (Green, 1999).

Affirmative Action

Another educational push for access to PWIs developed as a result of the affirmative action executive orders backed by the federal government. All employers, including institutions of higher education that received federal contracts of at least \$50,000 and had a minimum of 50 employees, were required to end discrimination based on race, creed, national origin, or sex. In addition, higher education institutions were obligated to develop affirmative action programs to ensure that underrepresented groups were hired at the rate of their availability in the workforce (Fleming et al., 1978c). In 1971, Executive Order 11246 directed affirmative action mandates to higher education institutions to provide broad-based access to all areas of the academy for African Americans and other minority groups (Washington & Harvey, 1989).

Effects of Racism

Racism in the form of Jim Crow, which is a racial caste system that forced racial segregation in the south dates from 1877, the end of Reconstruction, to the 1950s, which begin the civil rights movement (Allen et al., 2000). A well-known entertainer, Thomas Dartmouth Rice of the 1830s was attributed with commercializing the Jim Crow character which portrayed African Americans as indolent, inane, and insensitive. The portrayal of African Americans as foolish and illiterate was normal (Lords, 2002). Sears, Van Laar, Carrillo, and Kosterman (1997) labeled this method of racism as primitive racism.

According to Allen (2001) racism as a system bequeathing unearned privileges and power to individuals identifying with the dominant group while discriminating against individuals identifying as people of color. Moreover, Jones (2007) maintains racism is multifaceted and categorized as individual racism, institutional racism, and cultural racism. According to Jones (2007), individual racism occurs when African Americans encounter racial

discrimination on a personal level; institutional racism occurs when African Americans encounter discrimination through the enactment of policies within an institution or organization prohibiting them from equal involvement and benefits accessible to their White counterparts, and cultural racism occurs when the dominant group's cultural practices are regarded as superior to the least dominant group.

History of Community Colleges

The first community college in the nation, Joliet Junior College (JJC) in Illinois, was the beginning of the two-year institution model. The superintendent of Joliet Township High School came together with the president of the University of Chicago to create JJC in 1901. As an experimental postgraduate high school program, the college provided the first two years of a four-year college or university degree, designed to accommodate students who lived within the community and did not want to leave to pursue a college education. It began with six students and within a few years, the concept of "community" had expanded to students outside the high school district.

Following the implementation of the G.I. Bill after World War II, America's community colleges exploded as soldiers returned home and required retraining to enter the workforce. In 1965, around the time that many states were establishing their community college governance systems, the Illinois Legislature voted to create specific community college districts that could raise funds to support their institutions. Two years later, the residence of 12 high school districts voted to establish Illinois Community College District 525, with its own elected Board of Trustees, which oversaw JJC.

Overtime, the college expanded to many new campuses and sites within the district. With 35,000 credit and non-credit students, JJC is now one of 40 community college districts statewide that fall under the purview of the Illinois Community College Board, which is under the Illinois Board of Higher Education (History of Joilet Junior College). There is no other state system like it. While not every community college's story is the same, the tale of growth and expansion and the simultaneous evolution of a state and/or local governance system is a shared experience across much of the nation.

State Systems Governing Boards

As discussed earlier, community colleges started with close ties to school districts, the American community college lies in between the jurisdictions of K-12 and colleges and universities that grant four-year and higher degrees. In the first half of the 20th Century, these institutions were referred to as junior colleges, two-year colleges, or if they were part of a municipal district, or city colleges (Cohen & Brawer, 2003). A general characteristic shared by these institutions is that they provide the first two years of college. Although some two-year postsecondary institutions are privately funded, the "community college" is generally publicly funded (Rauh, 1969; Gleazer, 1963). Cohen and Brawer (2003) define community colleges as "any institution regionally accredited to award the associate in arts or the associate in science as its highest degree," (p.5). But there are a growing number of community colleges that have begun to offer four-year degrees in fields in which there is high demand (Marcus, 2014). Community colleges today, offer certificates and two-year associate degrees in the trades and a complement of liberal arts and science courses, certificates, and degrees designed to allow students to transfer to bachelor-degree-granting universities or colleges.

They also provide adult basic education, English-language courses for non-native speakers, personal enrichment, dual-credit opportunities for high school students, non-credit workforce training-related courses such as contract courses to meet the needs of local-employers, and courses that teach computer literacy or other workforce skills. There are 1,132 community colleges nationwide, 1,600 including branch campuses, and 986 community colleges that are publicly funded institutions (AACC, 2014b). Community colleges are grouped into two different forms:

1.) Single and multi-campus institutions, each led by a single president who reports to a board of trustees and;

2.) Community college districts, composed of many colleges or campuses, each with its president who reports to a chancellor, who reports to a board of trustees (Levinson, 2005).

Governance is the central decision-making entity for an organization. For community colleges, it is typically exercised through faculty, staff, administrators, and students through a shared-governance process and lay boards or non-professional educators (Lovell & Trouth, 2002, 2004; Amey, Jessup-Anger & Jessup-Anger, 2008). The latter is the focus of this research.

These representatives are often referred to as trustees or regents (McGuinness, 1997). State governing systems vary in how they incorporate lay boards. States with consolidated governance systems have one board that governs all public two- and four-year institutions or one board for all four-year institutions and a separate one for all community colleges. Segmental systems have separate boards governing distinct types of postsecondary institutions, such as research universities, state colleges, and community colleges. Campus-level boards have authority over individual campuses that are not part of consolidated or segmental systems and public institution governing boards, which are modeled after private college and university lay

boards, have authority over single colleges. While there is a perception that most colleges and universities have their lay boards, 65% of U.S. higher education students attended multi-campus institutions that had governing boards that oversaw multiple campuses (McGuinness, 1997). The term statewide coordination refers to formal policies, plans, and guidelines that states employ to ensure postsecondary institutions across the state align with state priorities and usually involve a coordinating mechanism (McGuinness, 1997; Polonio & Miller, 2012). Agencies representing the entire state's higher education priorities are typically called coordinating authorities, boards, committees, or councils.

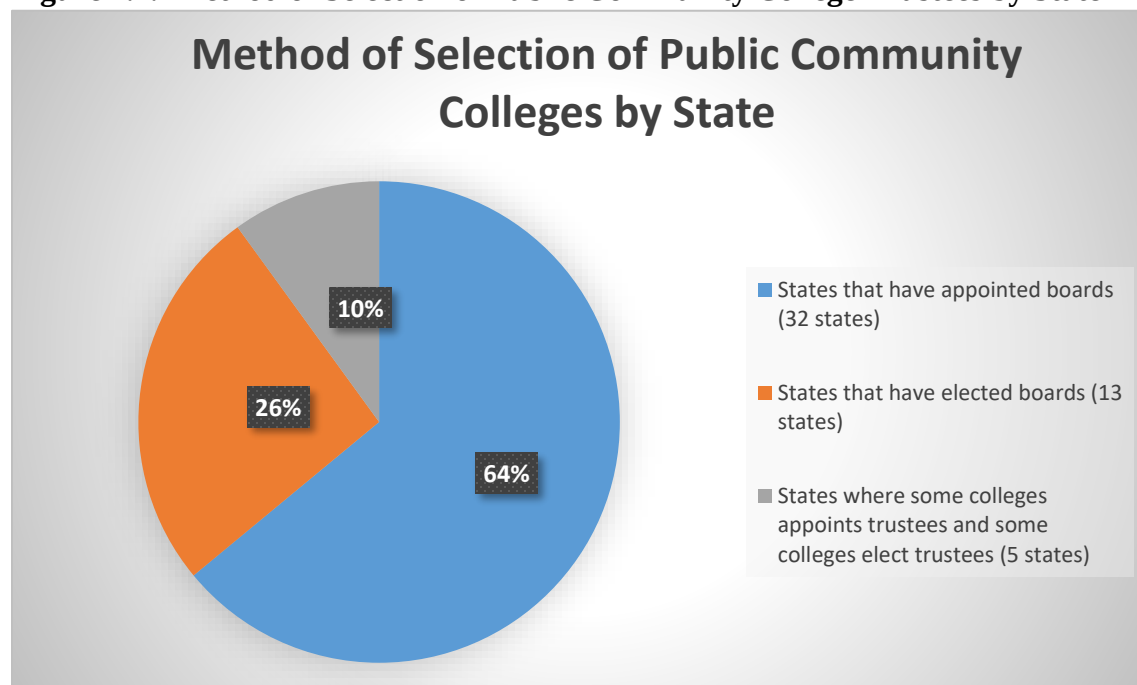
These entities represent a formal mechanism to ensure collaboration among states' higher education institutions and conduct statewide planning, review academic programs, allocate resources, disburse financial aid, implement statewide initiatives or projects and protect against mission creep. Although the responsibilities of governing and coordinating entities seem similar, governing boards are distinguishable by their responsibility to hire and fire college presidents (Lovell & Trough, 2002; McGuinness, 1997; Polonio & Miller, 2012). Statewide systems can also include mechanisms for local control (Lovell & Trough, 2002; McGuinness, 1997; Richardson, 2014).

States may allow for local control of community colleges through advisory and governance boards that are established through legislation or approved by voters. Local governing boards are generally created by statute and deal with policy-making, not day-to-day management. Members may receive a salary or no compensation for their service (Mitchell, 1997). Establishing a community college district and special bonding or tax levies has also been accomplished directly by voters through the ballot box (Zoglin, 1976). The selection of trustees

for higher education and community college governing boards at state and local levels varies in each state.

There are three methods: appointment, election, and service by position (ACCT, 2018). The governor, legislature, local elected officials, or members of the board itself may appoint trustees. The citizens of the state or residents of specific districts may elect them to serve through non-partisan elections and some states have laws requiring that certain public officials serve, often in an ex officio capacity, under their position. Some higher education governing boards have members who are selected by all three of these methods (Kohn & Mortimer, 1983; Polonio & Miller, 2012, ACCT, 2018).

Figure 2.1. Method of Selection of Public Community College Trustees by State



According to Higher Education Governing Boards, lay boards date back as early as 12th Century Italy, when city-states appointed citizen boards to mediate between students and faculty. The first higher education lay board began in America when John Harvard bequeathed his library to create the endowment for a university and a group of clergy and laymen was created to ensure its continuity. This was in direct contrast to the senior faculty governance boards of Oxford and Cambridge. William and Mary and what is now called Yale University then followed suit. In the late 1700s, states created lay boards to oversee their public universities, and some states such as Michigan and Nevada enshrined these governance boards in their constitutions to protect these institutions from political influence (Zwingle, 1980).

According to AGB (2021), the average board size from 2010 – 2020 was 11.8 voting members. For colleges offering only associate degrees governing board's average size was 9.8 voting members, according to a 2020 survey of 117 college and university governing boards, (AGB, 2021). Also, according to the survey, typically community colleges have smaller boards than statewide higher education systems or boards at universities and colleges. The college's president or chief executive officer serving as a voting member was 4.9%, as a non-voting member 24.5% of the governing board, and 29.4% as voting or non-voting respondents' institutions.

The governor of the state did not serve as a member of any college offering only associate degree respondents' boards, compared to gubernatorial representation reported at 7.7% of responding bachelor-degree granting institutional boards, 6.9% of master's degree institutional boards, 5.9% of doctoral/research's degree institutional boards and 5.6% of system boards. A student was found to be a voting member of 44.7% of all public colleges and universities

respondents, 29.1% were found to be non-voting, 18.4% of faculty voted, 8.7% of faculty were non-voting, 8.7% of staff voted, and 4.9% staff were non-voting.

Local board oversight of public entities such as community colleges is a product of the Progressive Era when, in the early 1900s, elected officials representing political parties were viewed with skepticism as beholden to political machines. It was during the good-government movement that America experienced an increase in nonpartisan citizen lay boards with fixed terms, which were viewed as a way to make the government more accountable and Democratic (Mitchell, 1997).

As stated earlier, community college governing boards provide governance and oversight to public community and technical colleges. According to the Association of Community College Trustees (2014a), which is a non-profit educational organization of governing boards, representing more than 6,500 elected and appointed trustees who govern over 1,200 community, technical, and junior colleges in the United States and beyond states governing boards have legal, fiduciary, and ethical responsibilities to oversee their respective institutions and in most cases select and appoint the president or chancellor. They approve appointments, and billion of dollars of expenditures and ensure institutional compliance with regulatory requirements. Furthermore, the board holds the institutions accountable for academic quality and student success (ACCT, 2014b).

Moreover, the governance structure is important because it determines lines of authority and accountability and establishes the rules of the game that create outcomes for higher education. Governance systems evolve as their higher education institutions grow to meet the needs of the constituencies that they serve (McGuiness, 1997). Many factors shape higher education governance structures, including mission, conflicting organizational goals, local, state,

and federal legislation and politics, community needs, available resources, public scrutiny, competition, attitudes and values of key decision-makers, organizational cultures, and the preferences and values of the board members (Amey, et. al, p. 6, 2008). The design of the structure also sets the budgeting process; the framework for performance measurement and quality assessment; the institutional mission and the parameters that incentivize collaboration with other colleges and universities in the system (Richardson, 2004). Higher education governing boards generally share three common responsibilities, including hiring, firing, and evaluating the president, establishing policies, and ensuring fiscal accountability (Hines, 1997; Minor, 2008; McGuinness, 1997; Smith, 2000).

Also, additional responsibilities may include clarifying the institution's mission, overseeing academic programs, enhancing the college's public image, interpreting the community's needs for the college, and preserving institutional dependence (Nason, 1980; Smith 2000). Governing board members can protect campuses from external political pressures and other intrusions, prevent the college from pursuing narrow institutional interests and ensure that public needs and values are served. (Hines, 1997; McGuinness; 1997; Smith, 2000).

Classification systems and national trends separated community colleges from K-12 schools combined with the dramatic growth and popularity of community colleges in the 1960s led to the establishment of many state and local community college governing boards. State boards sprung from a desire to coordinate entire systems or districts of community colleges. Some states, such as Hawaii, North Dakota, and Nevada, placed responsibility for all coordination of postsecondary institutions under a single statewide governing board, while others divided the responsibility for community colleges to separate coordinating boards or agencies

and local governing boards. A few states have assigned the sole governing authority of their community colleges to local governing boards.

Although states have continually played a more important role in funding community colleges and account for between 75% and 90% of colleges' total revenues in some states, the majority of community college systems have a local governance mechanism that still plays a significant role in the policy and control over these institutions (Richardson & de los Santos, 2001). To better understand how colleges and universities within a state relate to each other and its governing authorities, scholars have created multiple classification systems for higher education (Lovell & Trough, 2004). The Education Commission of States (ECS) undertook the first effort to categorize community college systems in 1997, which provided an important contribution to the literature on community college governance and the most widely used taxonomy to date (Lovell & Trough, 2004; Richardson & de los Santos, 2001). They developed six categories:

- 1.) States in which a state board of education coordinates and regulates community colleges;
- 2.) States in which a consolidated governing board oversees two-year and four-year institutions;
- 3.) States in which a coordinating board for all postsecondary institutions coordinates community colleges that are governed at the local level through local governing boards;
- 4.) States in which independent state boards coordinate community colleges and technical schools;
- 5.) States in which independent state boards govern community colleges and technical schools; and

6.) States in which four-year institutions have two-year branch campuses.

These categories are nonexclusive and some states, such as South Carolina for example, fit into multiple categories. In 1999, Tollefson expanded upon ECS' work and created a taxonomy with five categories, which organized community colleges by the type of state board responsible for their oversight, including

1.) States in which community colleges fall under a State Board of Education along with K-12;

2.) States in which community colleges are responsible to a state higher education board or commission;

3.) States in which community colleges fall under a statewide community college coordinating board;

4.) States that have a state community college governing board; and

5.) States that have a single Board of Regents for all postsecondary institutions, including community colleges.

In the Association of Community College Trustees (ACCT) 2014 report, community college governance models were classified in each state, noting that many states employ multiple layers of governance. Their structure highlights the importance of the local governing or advisory board for a single community college as one of four forms of governance. The other three include a community or technical college governing board at the state level that governs or coordinates; A state governing board that governs or coordinates all postsecondary institutions; and a university governing board that directly governs some or all community and or technical colleges. Colorado is the only state to employ all four. There are 36 states with local community college governing boards, 15 of which have local governing boards and a community or technical college

governing board at the state level. There are four states – Arizona, Michigan, Nebraska, and New Jersey that have a local governing or advisory board for each community college. While these classification systems exist, it is important to note that no state community college governance system is exactly like another; each has its nuances (Martinez, Farias & Arellano, 2002). Although these classifications help scholars and policymakers describe and compare certain systems, additional research is needed to determine how effective each structure is. However, the most important takeaway from the present classification structures for community colleges is the emphasis on the state level. While these institutions were founded to serve localities, the classification systems are focused on state governance and to what extent the state model has centralized or decentralized control of community colleges (Polonio & Miller, 2012; Tollefson, 1999), further indication that more research is needed on local community college governing boards to understand their perspectives and impact.

Trustees' Role/Responsibility in Diversification of Faculty and College Leadership

The website of ACCT (2022), states that the Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion Committee ensures leadership for the involvement of historically underrepresented diverse populations within the governance activities of ACCT. It promotes respect for and acceptance of diverse individuals and promotes awareness and educational opportunities for underrepresented populations. It advises the ACCT Board by strengthening the links with the minority membership, identifying issues that require member input, and recommending strategies to gather input.

According to Yang (2019), research about the opportunities and challenges of being a faculty and leader of color has been done for years, but these studies did not provide practical strategies about how to reach real equity in higher education institutions. The experience of leaders of color still needs to be explored and needs to be a concern to all in higher education. Progress in faculty diversity has not kept pace with student diversity (American Federation of Teachers, 2010). The representation of racially and ethnically underrepresented faculty in colleges and universities is disproportionately low compared to the general or undergraduate and graduate student demographics.

According to the American Federation of Teachers (2010), there are continual barriers in the faculty hiring process. Prospective faculty from underrepresented racial and ethnic groups may encounter difficulties searching for jobs because of two nationwide influences beyond college campuses. First, resistance to affirmative action efforts and the false assumption that minority faculty members are less qualified than their colleagues (American Federation of Teachers, 2010). The second national influence is the difficulty for ethnic groups seeking jobs is the national trend of colleges and universities moving away from creating and filling full-time tenure-track faculty positions. This trend significantly narrows the career options faced by underrepresented groups (American Federation of Teachers, 2010).

To alleviate these obstacles Delgado and Stefancic (2001), advocate race-conscious, intentional, institutional practices and policies. They indicate this approach is paramount if the intent is to increase student success for all, especially for African American and Latinx students. For example, the Center for Urban Education (2017), stresses that the hiring process should be equitized from beginning to end; equity-minded job announcements encouraging African American and Latinx applicants; nontraditional recruitment strategies designed to attract

applicants of color; equity-minded training for hiring committees members who reflect student demographics interview questions that allow applicants to share how their lived experiences illustrate a connection to and comfort with students of color; and commitment from senior administrators to require a diverse applicant pool for the final interview. In addition, growing programs, such as faculty diversity internship programs, is recommended to create a pipeline of diverse and prepared individuals to enter the faculty and administrators' ranks (Nguyen et al., Skinner, 2016a).

Moreover, according to Mundy et al., (2019) to learn more about the hiring practices at their member colleges, they began by interviewing their directors of Human Resources and learned that some of the more successful colleges are highly intentional in their efforts to recruit, hire, and retain minorities. For example, one of their member colleges reported the following best practices, among others: job openings are advertised in publications that target minorities (racial); human resources representatives attend HBCU (Historically Black Colleges and Universities) job fairs; efforts are made to hire from the Minority Professional Teaching Fellows Programs, and hiring committees are required by policy to have racial diversity training.

Diversity Equity and Inclusion in Higher Ed and Community College Governing Boards

Scholars widely accept that higher education boards lack racial diversity (AGB, 2010; Kohn & Mortimer, 1983; Smith, 2000; Vaughan & Weisman, 1997). Most of what is known about the composition and characteristics of local community college governing boards comes from more general surveys of all higher education governing boards. For example, according to

AGB (2021), the majority of public board members were White (non-Hispanic) at 64.7% and just over 30% were racial/ethnic minorities (see Table below).

Table 2.1. Public Board Members by Race/Ethnicity

Race/Ethnicity	Percentage
White (Non-Hispanic)	64.7%
Total Minorities	30.1%
American Indian/Alaska Native	1.7%
Asian	3.1%
Black/African American (Non-Hispanic)	20.3%
Hispanic/Latino	4.0%
Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	0.9%
Multiracial	0.3%
Unknown	4.9%

Source: ARB (2021)

The majority of research specific to community college governing boards is outdated and does not distinguish between state and local governing boards. Much of the most recent data on all higher education governing board composition does not break down race by type of institution, blending all public institutional lay boards. The data that is specific to community college trustees' race also does not differentiate between state and local boards, selection methods, or regions. Among the first surveys on all higher education governing boards, Rauh (1968) noted the lack of scholarly research in this area and surveyed a stratified random sample of doctoral-granting universities, private non-doctorate-granting institutions, public and private four-year institutions, and public and private two-year institutions. His research entailed using 74-item questionnaires, which he mailed to the governing boards of 536 institutions, including 67 public community colleges. Of the 536 questionnaires mailed to community college trustees (on state and local boards), 48% (or 257) responded. Rauh did not produce all tables of data and so the descriptive characteristics specific to community college trustees are not available for most of his variables.

He noted in his narrative that the vast majority of higher education trustees were White, male Protestants that had a bachelor's degree or higher. Although he did not provide the specific racial breakdown of community college trustees, he noted in the narrative that 1.9 percent of them were African American, 30% of community college trustees had less than a bachelor's degree and 52.2% were Republicans at the time (Rauh, 1969). Again, those numbers did not distinguish between state and local community college governing boards. Kohn and Mortimer (1983) cited Gomber and Atelsek's 1977 study of public college and university trustees that found 85% were male; 93% were White; 65% were 50 years or older; 90% had a baccalaureate degree and nearly 75% worked in business, education and other professions. Longitudinal research on the composition of higher education governing boards, including universities, colleges, and community colleges from the AGB suggests these boards are slowly becoming more diverse. The AGB conducts a regular survey of public higher education governing boards.

AGB Survey

The most recent AGB survey in 2021 presents a far different picture than Rauh's 1969 survey. As shown above, the AGB found that the majority of higher education governing board trustees are still White (64.7%), but there were far more minorities on boards, with Asian, Black, and Hispanic trustees comprising 27.4% of all board members. More specifically, higher education trustees were 20.3% Black/African American (non-Hispanic), 4.0% Hispanic, 3.0% Asian, 0.9% Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, and 1.7% American Indian/Alaskan Native members. Similarly, as shown in Table 2.1, according to AGB (2021), women also made gains, comprising 37% of board positions. However, women remain disproportionately underrepresented on public boards compared to the number of women students at all colleges

and universities (AGB, 2021). Increasing only 25 percentage points over the past 51 years (see Table 2.1 below).

Table 2.2. Percentage of Women on the Board from 1969-2020

	1969	1977	1985	1997	2004	2010	2015	2020
Public	12%	18%	23%	30%	29%	28%	32%	37%

Source: AGB, 2021

Table 2.3. Percentage of Women on the Board Compared to Women Students from 1969-2020

	1969	1977	1985	1997	2004	2010	2015	2020
Public Women Board Members	12%	18%	23%	30%	29%	28%	32%	37%
All Women Students	41%	49%	53%	56%	57%	57%	56%	57%

Source, AGB 2021

In the 1970s, a handful of scholars conducted research specific to community college trustees' demographics, aggregating results for those on local and state boards. In 1971, the Junior College Journal published the results of a survey that found 95% of community college trustees were White, 85% were male, 98% had never graduated from a junior college, 77% were Protestant, 68% considered higher education a privilege and not a right, 70% earned more than \$15,000 annually and 88 percent were older than age 40 (Moore, 1973). For the most part, community boards are for the 50-year-old conservative WASP male managers earning more than \$25,000 annually, who listen to 'the people' speak in his golfing foursome at the local country club and over the tinkle of martini glasses at 'sophisticated' cocktail parties," Moore stated (p. 173) more than four decades ago. By 1995 when Vaughan and Weisman conducted another

survey of community college governing board trustees whose institutions were members of the American Association of Community College Trustees, not much had changed. Their efforts drew a 39% response rate from 618 trustees. Among them, the authors found that 86.6 percent were White, 7.9% were African American and 2.3% were Hispanic. Approximately two-thirds of trustees were men. They also surveyed community college presidents and received a much higher response rate of 74% from 680 community college presidents. They found that 85.6% of community college presidents were White and 82% were men, leading Vaughan and Weisman to question whether the lack of diversity on community college governing boards is related to the lack of diversity of their chief executive officers, given these boards' roles in the hiring, evaluating and firing of college presidents (Vaughan & Weisman, 1997). This survey is still cited in more recent works on community college trustees, including Smith (2000). "Bluntly stated, is the predominantly white 'old boys' club' alive and well among trustees and presidents, leaving women and minorities on the periphery of the presidential selection process?" (Vaughan & Weisman, 1997, p. 6). More research needs to be done to help policymakers understand why the composition of these boards remains stubbornly homogeneous and how to achieve a more representative board, whereas a board representing diverse racial perspectives may lead to increased benefits for under-represented minorities.

Policies, Practices, and Composition

In its 2021 policies, practices, and composition, the AGB stressed the importance of appointing trustees that are representative of the state's population and the importance of constituents perceiving that they are represented on those boards in terms of gender, sexual orientation, race, and ethnicity. The AGB concluded the composition by stressing that much more reform must take place because the number of women and minorities on college and

university boards has remained disproportionately low for decades compared to the student population and the large U.S. population. Furthermore, the tragic events of 2020 related to racial and socioeconomic inequity and the corresponding worldwide and national protests over racial injustice make this disparity loom even larger. The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education has also advocated for higher education board membership to reflect the constituencies served by the institution (Gable, 1980). Concerning the research questions posed in this research, none of the surveys done to date on community college trustees specifies between state and local governing boards, nor does it provide any insight into how other environmental or structural factors may contribute to more diverse boards. However, AGB (2021) in their survey did broach the issue by asking respondents if they had a diversity, equity, and inclusion (DE&I) plan, and if so, whether the plan applied to the entire campus or system, not just to the board. The survey reported that 27.8% of public institutions answered yes and another 30.6% answered that a plan was under discussion. Some respondents answered that DE&I had already been a board priority, so no new plan was necessary. Of those who had a plan, 89.7% of public institutions responded that it applied to the entire campus or system, not just the governing board. Since committee work is as crucial to board governance as an overall plan, respondents were asked if their board had added a new DE&I committee, either as a standing committee or ad hoc. The overwhelming majority, 82.7% answered no.

Governing Boards' Diversity

The diversity of governing boards has symbolic importance, particularly for two-year schools or community colleges. According to Kohn and Mortimer (1983), a diverse board comprised of people of different sexes, races, creeds, ages, occupations, and perspectives adds to a board's legitimacy. Moreover, the representation of local governing boards, given their

responsibility to promote the community's perspectives, is perhaps more important for local governing boards of single institutions than for state boards that oversee multiple colleges spanning diverse geographic areas. Additionally, Zoglin (1976), compared the relationship of a two-year college to its community as a marriage, noting that the college must offer meaningful educational and workforce training to residents in a designated area and the community must provide the resources to sustain it, whether they attend its courses or not. Because financial obstacles generally prohibit residents from attending colleges outside their locale, Zoglin (1976), emphasized the importance of local input and that it is "essential that residents be able to create the kind of college that best serves their particular needs," (p. 27). It was local community conditions and interests that led to the development of community colleges. "As they were formed, schoolteachers became college professors and school superintendents became college presidents, a significant force for building an institution that would accord prestige to its staff and its township. Before midcentury, the notion of statewide systems or a national agenda hardly existed," (Cohen & Brower, p.11, 2003).

Much more can be learned about community college local governing boards once it is understood who serves on them and in what context. The literature on representation includes a complex array of theories and empirical works that may be applied to this governmental body. This review will cover the history of scholarly work surrounding the theory of descriptive representation, a theory of representation that has developed over time to mean a representative body that mirrors the appearance and shared experiences of its constituents (Griffiths & Wollheim, 1960; Mansbridge, 1999; Pitkin, 1967; Young, 2000), followed by a discussion of the environmental and structural variables that may impact the racial composition and descriptive representativeness of governing boards. It is this theory that is most relevant to the research

questions related to the composition of local community college governing boards and serves as the lens through which local community college governing boards and their racial composition will be examined. The theory of descriptive representation dates back to discussions surrounding the founding of the American Republic.

In advocating for a representative form of government over a direct democracy, John Adams and James Wilson advanced the concept of legislative bodies as mirror-like portraits of constituents during the Constitutional Convention. The development of a theory called proportional representation arrived next. In the 1800s, John Stuart Mill argued for a parliamentary system in which members would reflect the nation's economic classes with mathematical accuracy (Pitkin, 1967). To him, such representation was necessary to prevent an uprising of an underrepresented faction of society meaning the working poor, and ensure their interests were represented in proportion to their numbers. In a May 30, 1867 address to parliament, Mill advocated unsuccessfully legislation to increase the diversity of representation.

No working man whom I have conversed with desires that the richer classes should be unrepresented, but only that their representation should not exceed what is due to their numbers: that all classes should have, man for man, an equal amount of representation. He does not desire that the majority should be alone represented. He desires that the majority should be represented by a majority, and the minority by a minority; and they only need to have it shown to them how this can be done. But I will go further. It is not only justice for the minorities that are here concerned. Unless minorities are counted, the majority which prevails may be but a sham majority. (Mill, 1867).

Background of Theory of Representative Bureaucracy

At the beginning of the 20th Century, the theory of representative bureaucracy began to take route among scholars studying the public administrators that implement the policies of elected representatives. The theory examines the extent to which our public employees mirror the society they serve (Hong-Hai, 2006; Kingsley, 1944; Meier, 1975; Meier, Wrinkle, and Polinard, 1999; Mosher, 1968; Riccucci, Meyers, 2004). Kingsley (1944) is one of the founding researchers in this area, having released an extensive review of the British Civil Service after World War II. He theorized that government administration generally reflects social class and power structures and predicted that dangerous situations arise when it fails to keep up with changing demographics. Also, Kingsley (1944) warned that “bureaucracies are responsible today to the extent that they are broadly representative,” (p. 279). In his *History of the United States Civil Service* (1958), Paul Van Riper took a step further and described the benefits of an ethnically and racially representative bureaucracy in its ability to increase the status of minorities and demonstrate the 29 open competition within and transparency of government. In 1960, Griffiths and Wollheim were the first to coin the phrase ‘descriptive representation,’ (Pitkin, 1960; Mansbridge, 1999) as a concept of representation in which someone represents another by being like him.

I am a descriptive representative of my generation – a sample specimen, or analog – when I am sufficiently like my fellows for someone to be reasonably safe in concluding the other members of my generation from what they know about me (Griffiths & Wollheim, p. 188, 1960).

This concept is distinguished from other forms of representation, such as symbolic representation, in which constituents have ascribed a thematic set of attitudes to an individual, or

accredited representation, in which a representative negotiates something, e.g. a law, on behalf of constituents. Pitkin (1967) highlighted descriptive representation in her book exploring the many theories of representation and using the term interchangeably with mirror representation. In contrast to descriptive representation, she presented the idea of substantive representation, in which legislators vote or make policy decisions on behalf of the groups they purport to represent.

Proponents of TRB

From 1975 to the early 2000s, political scientist Ken Meier conducted several empirical studies to link the impact of the descriptive representation of racial minorities to substantive benefits (Meier, 1975; Meier & England, 1984; Stewart, England & Meier, 1989; Meier & Stewart, 1992; Meier, Juenke and Wrinkle, 2005). In Richard Fenno's *Home Style*, the importance of congressional representatives' descriptive connections to their constituents is an important theme, but Fenno's qualitative case studies also show how voters appear to use these characteristics as informational short-cuts to understanding their representatives' character (Sass, 2000). Voters, particularly in low-information races, use race and gender as cues to attribute ideology and issue positions to 30 candidates (McDermott, 1998). Common demography between representatives and constituents can also produce other outcomes beneficial to the maintenance of a productive Democratic government, including increased communication, empathy, and trust among groups, increased legitimacy of underrepresented populations, an appearance of a successful and inclusive democracy, and prominence of traditionally underrepresented interests and perspectives in deliberative discussions (Mansbridge, 1999; Sass, 2000; Young, 2000; Sowa & Seldon, 2003; Hong-Hai, 2006). But most importantly, there is little argument that minorities and women are less likely to represent in even the most contemporary and progressive democracies. Social and economic obstacles have excluded them from

influential political discussions for generations. Combined with selection mechanisms that favor non-descriptive representatives, these inequalities have hindered their ascent into the governing ranks (Young, 2000). The marginalization of these groups undermines Democracy's iconic promise of equal opportunities and Young (2000) argued that increased inclusion of disenfranchised groups could help society confront and ameliorate longstanding structural inequalities. As Mill emphasized (1867), without the minority's participation in government, the majority's authority is illegitimately exercised.

Opponents of TRB

However, among those who subscribe to the normative theory of representation as standing in a position for someone, descriptive representation has many critics. Although Pitkin highlighted descriptive representation among the many prominent theories of representation, she concluded that political representation is most efficacious when representatives act in the interest of their constituents. She was critical of descriptive representation because she argued it does not require representatives to do anything. Rather, she said it depends on an elected official "being" something, (p. 61). While descriptive representation does not necessitate substantive representation, she stated non-descriptive members are equal to the task of representing groups to which they do not belong. In 1999, Jane Mansbridge expanded upon the scholarly definition of descriptive representation, providing a solution to Pitkin's qualm. Before Mansbridge's writings, few commentators noted that physical descriptors, such as race or gender, are often tied to shared experiences among those with similar characteristics. A shared experience involves similar backgrounds, upbringings, socialization, or education and provides a similar lens with which members of these groups use to interpret events around them (Mansbridge, 1999; Young, 2000). It is this shared experience, Mansbridge (1999) argued, that is fundamental to descriptive

representation (p. 629) and provides the basis for legislative discussions that represent the group in question and that would not occur among solely non-descriptive members. A second frequent criticism of the descriptive representation theory also points out that a government body cannot represent all groups and the challenge of deciding which groups to represent when it comes to making critical decisions that impact the health and welfare of constituents. Pennock (1979) was one of the first to raise these questions and his adage, “No one would argue that morons should be represented by morons,” is often cited by critics of descriptive representation (p. 314). Others have pointed out that constituents expect their government to be smarter and have more expertise in the field in which they are making decisions than the average voter (Meier, 1975). As Young (2000) noted, the assumption that representatives must be identical to constituents or represent every group with which they affiliate is an impossible requirement. But Mansbridge’s analysis articulated how to decide which groups should be represented to increase the efficiency of the Democratic process. Using left-handers as an example of an under-represented group, she wrote,

The perspectives and 32 interests of left-handers should be represented in deliberation when their perspectives are relevant to a decision (e.g., in decisions regarding the design of surgical instruments) and in aggregation when their interests conflict with those of others (p. 635).

She noted that nondescriptive representatives can easily represent left-handers’ interests if there are reelection incentives. Normative Democratic theory poses that power on behalf of specific interest groups must only be used in proportion to the size of their constituency. However, Mansbridge argued that a left-handed representative has more commitment to preparing, proposing, and supporting lefthanded legislation. She argued that only someone who has lived the gauche life can overcome the historic mistrust between left-handers and right-handed

legislators and maintain effective deliberation between representatives and constituents and among representatives on left-handed issues. “In deliberation, perspectives are less easily represented by non-descriptive representatives ... the open-ended quality of deliberation gives communicative and informational advantages to representatives who are existentially close to the issues,” Mansbridge (1999, p. 635-636) wrote. But ultimately, critics of descriptive representation, she advocated, should judge the theory based on how well it explains substantive representation or the public policy decisions that protect the interests of under-represented groups. Empirical research in this area also varies. Some of the first studies examining Black or women members of Congress found that the descriptive representatives in these cases did not see themselves as representing Black or women's interests (Diamond, 1977; Mansbridge, 1999; Swain, 1993). In her 2014 analysis of the 111th Congress, Sophia Wallace found that partisanship is the key to determining a member’s voting behavior, not a race, ethnicity, or constituent demographics and that Black and Democrats provided Latinos with considerable substantive representation on the issues of social security, immigration, labor, and education. However, other scholars have found empirical support, indicating that White lawmakers differ from minority legislators in ways that underscore the importance of descriptive representation (Gonzalez Juenke & Preuhs, 2012; Grose, 2005; Hicklin & Meier, 2008; Minta 2009; Tate, 2001). While conceding that non-descriptive representatives positively respond to minority constituent preferences, Gonzalez Juenke and Preuhs (2012) advocated that minority legislators provide an additional level of substantive representation through votes on bills considered important to minorities. In their study of 50 state legislatures in 1999-2000, Eric Gonzalez Juenke and Robert Preuhs (2012) found that minority legislators expressed additional ideological variation unique to their racial and ethnic backgrounds. For example, a review of hearing

transcripts from the 107th Congress found that minority members of Congress were more likely than White legislators to participate in racial oversight hearings (Minta, 2009). In 2001, Katherine Tate found that Black constituents expressed higher levels of satisfaction with their members of Congress if they were Black. In 2008, Hicklin and Meier argued the body of research confirming the importance of descriptive representation is substantial enough to explore descriptive representativeness at every level of government. Scholars have created an impressive litany of research to support the extent to which local elected officials mirror their communities in terms of gender and ethnicity matters in state legislatures, local city councils, and school boards (Hicklin & Meier, 2008; Riccucci & Meyers, 2004; Meier, Wrinkle & Polinard, 1999; Stewart, England & Meier, 1989). At the local level, Stewart, England, and Meier (1989) found a relationship between the descriptive representation of school boards and the diversity of school administrators and that there was a distinct positive relationship between the percentage of Black school administrators and Black teachers, showing an indirect connection between the racial composition of the board and faculty. After analyzing data from 350 Texas school districts over six years, Meier, Wrinkle and Polinard (1999) found a relationship between representative bureaucracy and organizational outputs for minority and nonminority students. They found that White and minority K-12 students both do better and had higher pass rates in schools with more minority teachers. The impact of minority teachers on students' test performance is not large, however, and the authors noted that environmental factors have a far more significant impact on school performance. To wrap up this section, minority representation on policymaking boards is an important symbol of democracy and its promise of equity. There is enough research on the relationship between the racial composition of local governing bodies and substantive outcomes

to examine local community college governing boards, their racial composition, and the impact of minority representation.

Board Members Capacity to Influence Diversity, Equity and Inclusion

Scholars have long debated the merits of appointing versus electing members of governing boards (Gale, 1980; Minor, 2008; Zwingle, 1980). The majority of higher education governing boards that oversee community colleges are comprised of appointed individuals. Gubernatorial appointment with legislative approval is the most common method to select trustees of public higher education institutions. Kohn and Mortimer (1983) estimated that 70 percent to 75 percent of public four-year institution trustees were selected in this manner. However, of the 33 states that have local governing boards for community colleges, only 16 – just about half -- are appointed (Friedel, Killacky, Miller & Katsinas, 2014; Polonio & Miller, 2012). Political culture and tradition play a significant role in the appointment process and politics surrounds elections. In many instances, the party in power uses the positions of patronage to loyal members and donors (Hines, 1997; Kohn & Mortimer, 1983).

In a few cases, 35 trustees are screened before an appointment, but even when screening committees are part of the process, elected officials have in some cases bypassed their recommendations. Kohn and Mortimer (1983) cited several instances that demonstrate the politics and power involved in the selection of public higher education trustees, including a yet-to-be-inaugurated governor who convinced the legislature to block all appointments of the previous governor to a university board. In another state, an education official promised a party loyalist that if he served a term on the state college board, he would be appointed next to the more prestigious university board. Elected officials responsible for appointments often argue that

they are accountable to voters at the end of the day for the board's performance and must appoint people that they can trust to do the job effectively (Kohn & Mortimer, 1983).

Appointed Governing Board Members

Appointed members may be selected to represent ethnic, racial, religious, economic, social, or political groups. Or if the appointing authority has enough of the political majority to ignore certain groups, members may be appointed to represent a single perspective (Moore, 1973). Shoulder tapping is a significant problem accompanying appointments (Minor, 2008). In 1973, AGB conducted a survey and found that more than two-thirds of the 800 respondents felt that elected officials often fail to appoint the best candidates on public institutional boards (Gable, 1980). Given the lack of accountability and perception of cronyism surrounding appointments, the election of governing board trustees appears far more Democratic and equitable. However, trustees who must run for office must often be entrenched in local and state party politics to win nonpartisan elections. Kohn and Mortimer found that in Michigan, where the support of labor unions in the 1980s was critical to winning office, most of the candidates hoping to serve on higher education boards had to be longtime Democrats with a relationship to the UAW's political leader (p. 33).

Elected Governing Board Members

Advocates of election as a board selection method argue that those who go through the process of running for office are far more likely to rigorously protect it from political interference. But critics note that those who may be most qualified to sit on these boards have little time or lack the resources to conduct a successful campaign (Kohn & Mortimer, 1983). There is particular controversy surrounding at-large elections and whether they disenfranchise minority candidates. Decades of scholarly research have been devoted to this subject with mixed

results (Engstrom & McDonald, 1981). The selection method that most effectively produces a representative board is a question scholars continue to study. The political science literature is apt with empirical evidence that large elections disadvantage minority candidates in a variety of other venues. Following the Voting Rights Act of 1965, there was a series of successful court challenges to at-large systems, starting with the landmark U.S. Supreme Court Case of *White v. Regester* (1973). The justices' decision, in that case, defined when at-large elections were appropriate and prescribed ward-based systems as the remedies, which then led to the transformation of a number of the at-large municipal election systems or multi-seat districts in the South to district or ward systems (Davidson & Korbel, 1981). Sass (2000) found evidence to suggest that district elections provide an appropriate remedy and are associated with increases in Hispanic representation in municipal government. His work supported that of others, including Engstrom and McDonald (1981), Bullock and MacManus (1990), and Alozie and Manganaro (1993), who also found support that district election were empirically associated with increases in Black or Hispanic representation in city councils. At the K-12 district level, Robinson, England, and Meier noted that access to appointed board positions requires access to elected officials (1985), which highly qualified individuals from traditionally under-represented groups may not possess. In their study on the representation of African Americans on U.S. urban school district boards, Stewart, England, and Meier (1989) found that ward elections within school districts were more likely to contribute to a representative board than an appointive system or districts with at-large elections, which both were strongly related to the under-representation of Black members on these bodies.

The region is a significant factor in explaining diversity and representativeness in the literature. Stewart, England, and Meier (1989) are among good companies when it comes to

researchers finding region to be a significant factor related to the composition of policymaking bodies (Davidson & Korbel, 1981; Heppen, 2003; Hero, 1998; Key, 1949). The South stands out with its historical concoction of voter disenfranchising methods, i.e. poll taxes, literacy tests, grandfather clauses, White primaries, and gerrymandering that combined with later elements of de jure segregation have traditionally limited minority access to the polls and elected positions. Southern local government entities also relied heavily on at-large elections before the 1970s (Davidson & Korbel, 1981). Key (1959) identified unique political elements that he related to the racial composition of Southern states and counties. When using the region as a variable, some scholars have relied on a dummy variable South/Non-south to explain variation (Hero, 1998). Stewart, England, and Meier (1989) constructed their regional variable based on those states that maintained a de jure segregated school system in 1954. Those that did were considered Southern and the variable had a strong negative correlation to the number of Black school board members.

Board Size The good government era of the early 20th Century aspired to take party politics out of local governments and help them run more efficiently. One of the techniques to do so was to make governing boards smaller, which had the adverse and perhaps intentional impact of making them less diverse. Empirical research has since shown that larger bodies are more likely to be diverse (Bullock & MacManus, 1991; Davidson & Korbel, 1981).

Board Prestige It is unclear the extent to which board prestige has any relationship to board diversity. Scholars have opined that the more prestige a governing body has, the more competitive a position on it is, and therefore, the more resources needed for an interested individual to acquire membership. This would then harm the selection of members from groups that had been oppressed, disenfranchised, or subject to de jure racism. Some research on women in city politics, for

instance, has found an inverse relationship between the selection of female candidates and highly sought board seats (Welch & Karnig, 1979).

In 2010, the Delta Cost Project reported that between 1998 and 2008, America's private and most prestigious higher education institutions increased the number of administrators by 36 percent, while only increasing faculty by 22 percent. Combined with the rising cost of higher education, there is at least a perception that in higher education, prestige is associated with a hefty administration (Ginsberg, 2011). Hero (1998), argued that the ethnic and racial compositions of individual states within a region influence politics and policies and that social diversity have an impact on state-level and sub-state-level institutions. Elazar (1994) found that the state's political subcultures were derived from dominant ethnic and religious groups, suggesting that local political cultures may vary based on the diversity of constituents. Empirical research suggests that the diversity of jurisdiction is related to the diversity of its governing bodies. Grose (2005) noted that scholars studying the relationship between minority legislators and minority constituents must be wary of the two variables having a high correlation in any statistical analysis involving the two variables. That said, there is research to support that those areas with greater African American populations are more likely to elect African Americans (with a similar positive relationship between Latino populations and legislators) and those jurisdictions that are homogenous with small minority populations are far less likely to do so (Hero, 1998; Davidson & Korbel, 1981; Grose, 2005; Stewart, England & Meier, 1989). Socioeconomic Variables Engstrom et. al (1981) took umbrage with contemporary works that they felt downplayed the importance of selection methods on the level of minority representation. MacManus (1978) looked at other causal variables that might impact the equity of minority representation. After conducting a correlational analysis of the election plan and

representation of more than 200 city councils, she found that any relationship between the two disappears when controls are included for socioeconomic characteristics. Specifically, she found that education, median income, ethnicity, and age of the city, and region have stronger relationships with equity of minority representation than councils' election plans. Latimer (1979) also found that socioeconomic variables influence the representation of minorities.

Critical Race Theory

Critical Race Theory (CRT) is a theoretical framework created in the 1970s by African American, Asian, and Latino scholars and social activists who studied law and legal policies to address racial suppression, relationships between law and race, and other societal issues (Howard-Hamilton, 2003). To understand and address issues in the areas of education surrounding racism and discrimination, Delgado and Steffanic (2012) reexamined the work of Derrick Bell, who is credited with being the originator of CRT. Delgado and Stefanic (2012) describe CRT as,

The Critical Race Theory is a collection of activists and scholars interested in studying and transforming the relationship between race, racism, and power. The movement considers many of the same issues that the conventional Civil Rights and ethnic studies discourses take up but places them in a broader perspective that includes economics, history, context, group-and self –interest, and even feelings and the unconscious (pp. 2-3).

According to Zamudio et al. (2011), CRT contest the concept of meritocracy and assumes equal access to opportunity and success is granted to all people. Applying the CRT implies race is the principal driver in American culture (Blauner, 2001). While the reality of racism is not a

hypothetical problem, Blauner (2001) suggests members of the dominant group would rather embrace a neutral position instead of acknowledging the truth about racism. CRT is a useful concept for investigating power and its relationship to racism within the processes, practices, and policies in the field of higher education (Fujii, 2014).

Fujii (2014) conducted a qualitative study exploring the level of diversity in the community college search process. For this study, Fujii interviewed administrators and faculty members from three different colleges, 12 participants in total. The interviews examined the communication of diversity in the faculty search. The data collected from the study regarding the role of leadership within the colleges concluded race and ethnicity were significant when it came to addressing the underrepresentation of African American faculty and the internal silence surrounding issues of race in educational administration as problematic, irregular, or strained (Rusch & Horsford 2009). Fujii (2014) further concluded that if authentic discussions for creating fundamental change were to take place, leadership within the colleges would need to accept the notion that racism exists and CRT could be used to facilitate the discussion.

Fujii (2014) presented a narrative supporting the use of CRT as an appropriate theoretical framework and its practicality in addressing the value of diversity and its minimization or eradication of racism in the community college hiring process. Findings from Fujii's study revealed that the community colleges' search committees all acknowledged valuing diversity, but their hiring practices suggested the opposite. According to Fujii (2014), CRT is a useful educational tool that allows researchers to engage in meaningful conversations geared toward recognizing barriers, analyzing educational policies and institutional power structures, as well as hiring practices used to maintain the status quo within leadership positions.

Levin et al., (2013) conducted a qualitative field study exploring the connection between the lived experiences of minority faculty members in higher education and CRT. Levin et al. elected to use the CRT because it provided a framework appropriate for identifying the drivers of the colleges' policies and norms. The purpose of the study was to "examine double consciousness and explain how it relates to the professional identity of faculty of color" (Levin et al., 2013, p. 315). Double consciousness is a term coined by W.E.B. DuBois, which means the idea of feeling divided into multiple parts and seeing one's self through the lens of others (DuBois, 1903; Levin et al., 2013). Their findings suggest faculty of color were optimistic about change occurring at their respective institutions; nevertheless, the likelihood of change occurring, they felt, was low (Levin et al., 2013). As it relates to double consciousness, faculty members of color acknowledged its present, and some expressed feelings of having to change or alter their identities to keep from feeling excluded (Levin et al., 2013).

Critical Race Theory in Education

Initially, CRT in education was applied as an analytical framework to assess different forms of social inequity in education (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995), and it has since been expanded to analyze educational research and practice (Ladson-Billings, 2013). Solórzano and Yosso (2002) have argued that CRT is an evolving methodological, conceptual, and theoretical construct that attempts to disrupt racism and dominant racial paradigms that exist in the American educational system. Ledesma and Calderón (2015, p.207) divided CRT into K–12 education and higher education. In the area of K–12 education, the authors identified these themes: (a) curriculum and pedagogy, (b) teaching and learning, (c) schooling, and (d) policy/finance and community engagement. In higher education, they identified the following

themes: (a) colorblindness, (b) selective admissions policy, and (c) campus racial climate.

Ladson-Billings (1998) posited that policies and school finance highlight inequity and racism and that this inequality is a direct function of the institutionalized racism that CRT attempts to address. Although the U.S. has made advances toward abolishing legalized discrimination, the legacy of institutionalized racism in the form of systems, structures, processes, and procedures that disadvantage and disenfranchise persons of color, particularly African Americans, has regressed as indicated by the recent civil and social unrest instigated from the highest office of leadership in the country during the presidency of Donald Trump.

Solórzano and Yosso (2002) argued that CRT for education is different from other frameworks because it 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 communities of color. Previous research shows there are multiple uses for CRT in education, hence it lends itself as an appropriate theoretical framework for this study.

Theory of Representative Bureaucracy

The theory of representative bureaucracy is the expectation that public administrators who possess the authority to influence public policy represent the people in terms of race, ethnicity, and sex (Bradbury & Kellough, 2011). Kingsley (1946) during the initial stages of the theory of representative bureaucracy argued the administrative structure should always mirror the character of the social structure of the population, which at the time in Great Britain was class-based and therefore his perspective was it should reflect the dominant class (Meier, 1975).

In the United States when representative bureaucracy was first explored as an alternative method for monitoring administrative power, Levitan (1946) defined “representativeness” as meaning every level and branch of government in the United States should be representative of American society. There are two essential components on which the theory of representative bureaucracy builds passive representation and active representation. Salden (1997) defines passive representation as the degree to which a government hires individuals of varied demographic backgrounds leading to active representation, or the development of guidelines reflecting the interest and needs of those individuals. According to Mosher (1982), active representation is when individuals or management are expected to advocate for the interests and needs of those they are supposed to represent. The theory of representative bureaucracy suggests if administrators' attitudes reflect the attitudes held by the workforce, the decision made by the administrators will be responsive to the wants and needs of the public (Meier & Nigro, 1976).

According to Kranz (1976), the following governance consideration could lead to a more racially inclusive and diverse bureaucracy:

- More Democratic decision-making and better decisions by expanding the number and diversity of views brought to bear on policy-making;
- Improved operations and outputs from decisions and services to the needs of all citizens, particularly minority groups;
- Better human talent development and management decisions;
- An increase, both symbolically and actually, in the legitimacy of public service and other governance institutions; and
- Elevation of social equity and justice to prime administrative values on par with other values in public administration paradigms. (p. 390).

Critics of the theory of representative bureaucracy suggest the theory does not identify which societal group should be represented (Larson, 1973). However, Kingsley (1946) posits the dominant groups in society should be represented within the administration, while Mosher (1982) argues representation should be a diverse representation composed of all groups within society. A significant challenge influencing the link between advocacy and bureaucratic diversity for marginalized people's interests is the influence of administrative socialization (Bradbury & Kellough, 2011). Reh fuss (1996) argues racial minorities and women share the same management ideology as their White male counterparts, which may work against the augment of direct representation of group interests.

Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

Studies show that the long-standing underrepresentation of African American and Hispanic faculty and graduate students at leading doctoral-granting colleges and universities has detrimental consequences for such faculty and graduate students including marginalizing their contributions, limiting their voice, and impeding their successes within academe (Burden et al., 2012; Hodge & Corbett, 2013; Hodge et al., 2004). To uncover phenomena that have typically gone unrecognized as normal behavior, critical race theory is used as the theoretical framework.

Critical Race Theory (CRT) is the theoretical framework that will guide this research. CRT's basic principle is that racism is a normal part of American life (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017a). The theory suggests that society fails to see racism because it is an everyday experience, which is often taken for granted unless it becomes a blatant form of discrimination (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017b). Racism is the norm in society, and African Americans will only have success when they are in unison with the White agenda (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017c). Secondly, racism

advances the interest of the dominant White society; hence, there is little incentive to eradicate it (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017d). Thirdly, it acknowledges race as a social construct with no biological or genetic reality (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017e). More recently, included in this tenet is the notion of differential racialization; that is, Whites racialize different groups more so than others at different times. For example, this was seen with the Muslims during the 911 attack, the recent Anti-blackness movement and racial profiling, and the treatment of those with Chinese heritage with the recent novel Coronavirus. Because of their distinct histories and experiences with oppression, various groups may communicate to the White population matters that Whites do not know, have not experienced, and are unable to give voice to. This is the storytelling component of CRT, and it is in this component, that non-dominant groups can recount their experiences with racism and apply their unique perspective (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017f). Stories confront the status quo and help put together a consensus to create a shared, common understanding. As such, CRT can be a way to convey the stories of African American faculty and administrators who seek employment and their perception of the challenges and barriers faced while pursuing these job opportunities. Scholars assert that CRT could prove useful in uncovering and revealing discrimination in multiple variations in the realm of higher education.

Fourthly, CRT recognizes interest-convergence, the process in which White power structures tolerate or encourage racial advances if they promote White self-interest (Bell, 2000; Delgado, 1995). Lastly, CRT critiques claims of meritocracy that sustains white as property (Harris, 1993; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995). According to Harris (1993), the property is not just a tangible object; it is a metaphysical extension of certain rights as pointed out in U.S. history. The central notion of whiteness as property is “the legal legitimization of expectations of power and control that enshrine the status quo as a neutral baseline while masking the

maintenance of white privilege and domination” (Harris, 1993). CRT is paramount to understanding individual, institutional, and societal racism; and listening and learning from the narratives of African American faculty and administrators. Their experiences can influence institutional change in significant ways, which could have an insightful impact on the recruitment and retention of African American faculty and administrators. This study will focus primarily on the tenets of racism as a normal part of life and counter-storytelling.

Critical race theory in education (CRTE) is a derivative of CRT (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001; Harper et al., 2009; Hiraldo, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1998; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995; Lynn & Dixson, 2013), and is the conceptual framework lens that will be applied. CRTE consists of five tenets: counter-storytelling; the permanence of racism; Whiteness as property; interest conversion; and the critique of liberalism (Hiraldo, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1998). According to Hiraldo (2010), the five tenets of the CRTE are exceptional tools to examine the different types of "social inequities reinforced through the institution of higher education" (p. 53). Nevertheless, for this study, just three of the five CRTE tenets will be used because the research believes that although the other two tenets are relevant they add very little substance to the study. The three tenets to be employed in the study are:

- Permanence of racism
- Counter-storytelling, and
- whiteness as property.

The permanence of racism was selected for this study because Bell declared that “racism is a permanent fixture of American life” (as cited in Ladson-Billings, 1998, p. 11), and his strategy was one of “unmasking and exposing racism in its various permutations” (Ladson-Billings, 1998, p. 11). Moreover, counter-storytelling was used because it gives African American faculty and

administrators in community colleges a voice. According to Ladson-Billings (1998), anecdotes supply the essential background for understanding, feeling, and interpreting. The voice component of CRT connects “form and substance in scholarship” (Ladson-Billings, 1998, p. 13).

The permanence of racism has been embedded within American society ever since the African slave trade. Some CRTE theorists have illustrated that racism is "natural and permanently etched in the social and cultural order of the American society" (Morris, 2001, p. 577). The embeddedness of racism in the deep structure of the society in the U.S. has allowed the White race to be "privileged" over African Americans in every aspect of life, including education (Hiraldo 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1998; Lynn & Dixson, 2013). Allen et al. (2000) concluded that for the status of African American faculty to improve in any higher educational institution, researchers must begin examining how higher education was organized and how it functions, especially since higher education institutions operate based upon an "academic hierarchy." Similarly, Price, Hyle, and Jordan (2009) indicated that race-related issues were not uncommon in community colleges and urged serious attention to be placed on diversity and racism on the community college campus. Therefore, it is applicable to employ the CRTE tenet of counter-storytelling to African Americans faculty on today's community college campuses to share their stories about their experiences in a predominantly White institution. CRTE theorists believe counter-storytelling can aid in investigating the atmosphere of college campuses as well as provide openings for further research so that institutions can become more inclusive and not appear "superficially" diverse (Hiraldo, 2010). CRTE allows the researcher to use counter-storytelling for African Americans faculty to voice their experiences and realities surrounding their marginalization in the educational system (Hiraldo, 2010; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995). This is paramount since institutions of higher education are a part of American society, and

possess the ideologies of racism, thereby impacting the racial inequalities experienced by African American faculty, resulting in their underrepresentation in today's community college campuses. CRTE provided the researcher with a relevant framework for understanding, describing, and explaining how African American faculty made sense of how racial inequalities affected the experience at their community college.

Conclusion

CRT and CRTE are the conceptual frameworks and TRB is the lens that will be employed for searching out complexities in the lived experiences of African American board of trustees in the recruiting and selecting of trustees.

This research study will contribute to the current body of literature by revealing African American board of trustees' voices and experiences. The research participants' experiences can influence institutional change in significant ways, which could have an insightful impact on the recruitment and selection of African American board of trustees. Their descriptions can become the insight that the leadership might gain new knowledge and establish the standard and consistent processes and procedures in the recruiting, selection, and retention process of African American trustees.

Chapter 3 - Methodology

Introduction

This chapter will review the purpose of the study, the all-encompassing research questions addressed in the study, and the theoretical and conceptual frameworks informing the study. In addition to discussing the methodology that will be used in the study, the rationale for selection will be presented, and information on the research design, study setting and participants, and instrumentation. Lastly, the researcher will review the type of data to be collected, sources, analysis and credibility, ethical considerations for the study, and limitations of the study.

Purpose of the Study

If surviving lions do not live to tell their story, hunters will take all the credit.

Dr. Martin Luther King Jr.

The purpose of this study is to develop a basic understanding of the lived experiences of African American boards of trustee members within community colleges, which will allow the researcher to assess, and make recommendations on the influence trustees can have on their colleges' diversity, equity, and inclusion plans. In addition, the study will identify best practices on ways Trustees can influence hiring, and bring measurable diversity increases to the faculty and leadership ranks. According to McMillan (2012), qualitative researchers will not implant their stance or perspective into the study. Instead, the researcher should allow the themes, meanings, and patterns to surface from the participants and then seek to understand the meanings and how they influenced the behavior of the participants.

Research Questions

The research study will focus on the following three questions:

1. What are the lived experiences of African American community college trustees in their role as Trustees?
2. What impediments, barriers, or prejudices/biases have African American community college trustees observed within their college or as a Trustee, that effect and impede the deeper diversification of college faculty, staff, and leadership?
3. What best practices might college trustees and CEOs undertake to influence a more diverse and inclusive environment, resulting in a more diverse college environment?

Rationale for Narrative Inquiry

This study will be based in qualitative research. The researcher will use narrative inquiry as the methodological approach for the collection and analysis of primary data. It is the best approach to use when investigating a problem which is not clearly defined or has not been studied in-depth or when no previous research has been done to help understand the problem more efficiently (Creswell, 2014; Suter, 2012). Suter (2012) supported this practice, stating, “To understand a complex story, you must consider the multiple realities experienced by the participants themselves” (p. 344). The researcher will use data gathered from interviews about the lived experiences and perceptions of participants, from their individual perspectives, to explain the narrative under investigation.

Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

The theoretical framework that will be used to guide this study is the critical race theory (CRT), which states that racism is a normal part of American life (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017a). The theory suggests that society fails to see racism because it is an everyday experience, which is often taken for granted unless it becomes a blatant form of discrimination (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017b). As stated, racism is the norm in society (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017c).

Critical Race Theory is paramount to understanding individual, institutional, and societal racism; and listening and learning from the narratives of African American faculty and administrators. Their experiences can influence institutional change in significant ways, which could have an insightful impact on the recruitment and retention of faculty and administrators of color and African Americans.

Therefore, the storytelling component of CRT will be used to recount the participants' experiences with racism and apply their unique perspectives (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017f). Furthermore, stories confront the status quo and help put together a consensus to create a shared, common understanding. As such, CRT can be a way to convey the stories of African American faculty and administrators who seek employment and their perception of the challenges and barriers faced while pursuing these job opportunities. Scholars assert that CRT could prove useful in uncovering and revealing discrimination in multiple variations in the realm of higher education.

The other framework that will be used to develop a basic understanding of the lived experiences of African American trustees within community colleges is the Critical Race Theory in Education (Hiraldo, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1998). According to Ladson-Billings (1998), there are five tenets within this theory which are:

1. 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 & Dixon, 2004, p.27).
2. The permanence of racism, “racism is an integral, permanent, and indestructible component of this society. At best, blacks can hope for what I have called temporary “peaks of progress,” short-lived periods of improved conditions that last a few years until white dominance once again reasserts itself (Delgado & Stefancic, 2005g, p.309).
According to Bell, “when whites perceive that it will be profitable or at least cost-free to serve, hire, admit, or otherwise deal with blacks on a nondiscriminatory basis, they do so. When they fear – accurately or not – a loss, inconvenience, or upset to themselves or other whites, discriminatory conduct usually follows” (Delgado & Stefancic, 2005h, p.310).
3. Whiteness as property, property is not just a tangible object; it is a metaphysical extension of certain rights as pointed out in U.S. history (Harris, 1993). The central notion of whiteness as property is “the legal legitimization of expectations of power and control that enshrine the status quo as a neutral baseline while masking the maintenance of white privilege and domination” (Harris, 1993, p.1715).
4. Interest conversion, “the interest of blacks in achieving racial equality will be accommodated only when it converges with the interests of whites” (Delgado & Stefancic, 2005, p.37).

5. The critique of liberalism, “critical race theorist (or “crits”) hold that color blindness will allow us to redress only extremely egregious racial harms, ones that everyone notice and condemn.; but if racism is embedded in our thought processes and social structures as deeply as many crits believe, then the “ordinary business” of society – the routines, practices, and institutions that we rely on to effect the world’s work – will keep minorities in subordinate positions (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001, p.21).

Three of the five tenets will be applied to the research in explaining the phenomenon in the lived experiences of the participants, which are the counter-storytelling, permanence of racism, and whiteness as property.

Research Design

Human beings, who are almost unique in having the ability to learn from the experience of others, are also remarkable for their apparent disinclination to do so.

— Douglas Adams

In this qualitative study, a narrative inquiry design will be used to describe and interpret the lived experiences of African Americans board of trustees within community colleges. A qualitative methodology was chosen because it will allow the researcher to discover and describe the participants’ experience with the recruiting and hiring process and what the participants do in their everyday lives at work and what their actions meant to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Furthermore, the qualitative approach is appropriate for this study because it assumes that the lives of the participants are stories, and it will allow the researcher to collect data to describe their lives (Lawson-Sanders, Campbell-Smith & Benham, 2006).

As stated earlier, qualitative research is a way to explore, irradiate and softly investigate the participants' descriptions of their experiences (Creswell & Creswell, 2018a). Qualitative research seeks to understand the study of phenomena, things as they appear in the experiences, which are experienced from the first-person point of view (lived experience), along with the significant meaning of experiences (Gall et al., 2007). Furthermore, an understanding of the perspective on their lived experiences or allowing their voice to be heard can be invaluable in contrast to the more structured quantitative calculation, measuring feelings, emotions, and ideas. The qualitative approach is more humanistic when dealing with data that reflect the human condition, perspectives, and attitudes because the outcomes will be reflected more accurately (Gay & Airasian, 2003). The most effective way to capture a historical understanding of lived experiences is through storytelling. Storytelling is a significant component of CRT (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017g).

A face-to-face and in-depth individual interview will be conducted to explore and understand the subjective world from the participant's perspective. The interviews will be video-recorded (Zoom) with the participant's consent. According to Van Manen (1993), individual interviews can be used to have an everyday conversation with the participants about an experience's meaning. Listening carefully is vital so that the researcher can unveil the sense and the meanings of the story. As stated earlier, a qualitative study informed by the tool of critical race theory will be used to explore the recruiting and hiring practices as well as the lived experiences of African American board of trustees within community colleges.

Alignment Table

In Appendix A on Table 1, the alignment table consists of the literature findings, research questions, theoretical/conceptual framework, and methodology.

Study Setting

The sites selected will be based on the following criteria. The selected colleges will be those who have African American Trustees on the ACCT Diversity Committee and/or trustees at colleges that have won the ACCT Diversity Award in the past 10 years. Additionally, the college will have participants who have been trustees for at least three years at one of the selected public community colleges. In total three to five institutions will be selected. The researcher will consider disparities due to size (big or small) and location (urban, suburban or rural). According to Creswell & Creswell (2018b), the appropriate sample size for a phenomenology study is in the range of 3-10 participants. Hence, a base of three to five institutions will provide an appropriate sample size. Pseudo-names for the institutions will be used to protect their true identity.

Study Participants

Population

The population for this research study will be African American board of trustees from ACCT award-winning public community colleges within the past ten years.

Sample Participants

Participants for the study will be current and former African American board of trustees from public, technical, or urban/suburban community colleges throughout the United States from among the site colleges for this study. It is anticipated that 8 to 12 trustees will be interviewed.

The researcher expects that trustees will come from different states with various governance models. Potential participants will be identified through contacts (such as the president, and/or CEOs, current and past trustees, and the ACCT) from each location who had met the minimum criteria of self-identifying as being African American, serving on the board for at least three years as a board member. Invitations will be sent to the African Americans board of trustees identified via e-mail to solicit their participation in the study. Participants will be identified by gender, state, governance model, type of authority, and method of selection, as well as racial or ethnic affiliation. For reporting, pseudonyms will be used for trustees and their institutions to maintain anonymity.

Instrumentation

Scholars consider the individuals who execute interviews as the instrument (Wambaleka, 2019). This study will use in-depth interview questions designed to obtain data from research participants (Trigueros, 2017a). There are eight demographics and 14 interview questions that will be used to align the study with the research question (see Appendix B). Interviews establish a relationship between the participant and interviewer (Trigueros, 2017b).

Data Collection and Data Sources

Data for this study will be gathered from participant interviews. The interviews will be conducted via an online video platform (Zoom) due to COVID-19 cautions and convenience. Informed consent agreements (see Appendix D) from all participants will be obtained before audio and video recordings take place. This method will allow the researcher to produce verbatim transcripts and review interviews as often to ensure correct reporting of data.

Participants will be advised that responses will be audio recorded (via Zoom), and handwritten notes will be taken. The transcriptions will serve as the primary data collection for this qualitative study. Transcripts will be emailed to the participant, allowing an opportunity for review clarifications and approval of the transcript.

The Rev transcription software will be used to transcribe the audio recordings. Phenomenological research involves experiences within a real-life, contemporary context or setting (Neubauer et al, 2019). This study will interpret African American board of trustees lived experiences within community colleges. Permission will be needed to use interview data (see Appendix C).

According to Seidman (2006a), in-depth phenomenological interviews should not be less than 90 minutes, with that in mind interviews will be at a minimum of 90 minutes. Similarly, Creswell and Creswell (2018a) state that it is imperative to have a mechanism that will structure the interviewing process. All interview sessions will be guided by protocols that allow the researcher to collect data in an organized and consistent manner. For example, an introductory email will be sent to participants outlining the intent and guidelines for the study. Also, a participant consent form (Appendix C) informing participants in writing that they could opt out and withdraw from the study at any time will be sent. Furthermore, a list of semi-structured questions interview questions, a statement of researcher positionality, and IRB approval to conduct the research will be provided. All interview questions will be open-ended so that each participant can share freely their lived experiences. The aligned questions will examine the lived experiences of African Americans board of trustees within community colleges (see Appendix B).

Techniques for the narrative inquiry interviewing approach described by Seidman (2012a) was deployed. According to Seidman (2006b), narrative inquiry research attempts to examine lived experiences through in-depth interviews with a specific focus for each one. This process according to Seidman (2012b) entails three separate 90-minute interviews. The first interview will focus on the participants' life histories, experiences, and reflections on the meaning of their experiences. The primary goal will be to have each participant reconstruct his or her experiences as an African American board of trustee member to discover the essence of the experience (Seidman, 2012c). On the day of the interview, each participant will be greeted and engaged in a brief discussion to calm the environment and make the interviewee feel welcomed and appreciated for his/her assistance and time. After the greeting and brief conversation, the signed consent form will be collected (if not already collected via email), the purpose of the study will be reviewed, and the participants will be told how the results of the interview will be used. During the interview, the researcher will use good interviewing practices by being respectful of the interviewee, asking open-ended probing questions, being a great listener, taking excellent field notes, and adhering to the allotted interviewing timeframe. When the interview ends, the researcher will ask the participants if they have any questions. If they did not have any questions, the researcher will thank the participants for their time and kindly remind them about the next steps in the process, which will be the transcription of the interviews. Table 3.1 below illustrates the alignment of the primary research questions guiding the study, the interview questions supporting the primary questions, and the theoretical framework corresponding to each interview question:

Table 3.1. Research and Interview Questions Alignment

Research Question 1. What are the lived experiences of African American community college trustees in their role as Trustees?	
Interview Questions	Theoretical Framework
IQ1. How did you find out about the board of trustee opportunity?	CRT/CRTE/TRB
IQ2. If you were appointed by the governor, what was his/her political affiliation?	CRT/TRB
IQ3. If you were elected, how long did it take and how much did it cost you?	CRT/CRTE/TRB
IQ4. Have you served on any other type of board?	CRT/CRTE/TRB
IQ5. What are the demographics of your community?	TRB
IQ6. What influenced your decision to accept the appointment?	CRT/TRB
IQ7. What influenced your decision to run for the board of trustees?	CRT/CRTE/TRB
IQ8. Describe your experience as an African American board of trustees.	CRT/CRTE
IQ9. Have you experienced or observed racism?	CRT/CRTE
IQ10. Have you or your board been the recipient of an ACCT Association Award?	CRT/CRTE/TRB
Research Question 2. What impediments, barriers, or prejudices/biases have African American community college trustees experienced within their colleges or as a Trustee, that affects the deeper diversification of college, staff, and leadership?	
Interview Questions	Theoretical Framework
IQ1. Based on your experience, what factors do you believe have contributed to the underrepresentation of minorities on the board of trustees at community colleges in the United States?	CRT/CRTE/TRB
IQ2. Use brief descriptors, and describe the factors that you believe contribute to racial and gender disparities among the board of trustees at community colleges.	CRT/CRTE
IQ3. To what extent do you believe that race and racism contribute to racial and gender underrepresentation of the board of trustees at community colleges?	CRT/CRTE/TRB
IQ4. Please describe an incident where race and/or gender have positively influenced your selection or election to the board of trustees.	CRT/CRTE
IQ5. Please describe an incident where race and/or gender have negatively influenced your selection or election to the board of trustees.	CRT/CRTE
IQ6. Describe how race and gender played a role in your pursuit of becoming a board of trustee at your community college.	CRT/CRTE/TRB
IQ7. Describe any challenges or barriers you navigated on your journey to becoming a board of trustee at your community college.	CRT/CRTE
Research Question 3. What policies, practices, and/or action steps should college trustees and CEOs take to influence a more diverse and inclusive environment, resulting in a more diverse college environment?	
Interview Questions	Theoretical Framework
IQ1. What does equity mean for your campus, and what does equity mean for your board?	CRT/CRTE
IQ2. When is the last time that the board questioned business as usual in their actions and role as board members?	CRT/CRTE
IQ3. Do you and the board understand the value, desire, and actualize equality as a board?	CRT/CRTE
IQ4. Are you or the board asking for disaggregated data that gives you information to compare within and across groups over time?	CRT/CRTE
IQ5. What are the resource-rich relationships that you have been able to establish on campus that can help you to enact equity work?	CRT/CRTE
IQ6. What voices is the board of trustees not hearing? What additional connections does the board need to make?	CRT/CRTE
IQ7. How does the board of trustees maintain a mutually beneficial relationship with decision-makers across campus?	CRT/CRTE
IQ8. What type of diversity, equity, and inclusion (DE&I) plan does your board of trustees have? Does the plan apply to the whole campus?	CRT/CRTE

IQ9. How does the DE&I committee work get done on your board? Do you have a DE&I committee, etc.?	CRT/CRTE
IQ10. What/who are barriers to more equitable outcomes around policy, program, practice, process, or decisions?	CRT/CRTE
IQ11. Does your college have a diversity, equity, and inclusion policy approved by the board?	CRT/CRTE
IQ12. Has your board developed and implemented a public DE&I statement, white paper, philosophy, or value statement for your college website?	CRT/CRTE
IQ13. Do your college's strategic plan and institutional effectiveness reports reflect the board's DE&I goals?	CRT/CRTE
IQ14. Does the board have a regular schedule for conducting equity-minded policy reviews, i.e. with and equity lens?	CRT/CRTE
IQ15. Does the board have a DE&I policy regarding contracts, minority bidding, etc.?	CRT/CRTE

Data Analysis

According to Creswell and Creswell (2018d), researchers can gather information from their interviews by taking notes, audiotaping, or videotaping. In this study, the researcher will take notes and videotape (Zoom) the participants. Data analysis is an operational procedure that constantly evolves based on the data collected. The researcher will use the literature review, coupled with participants' experiences, to discern categories and themes. The researcher will analyze data during the collection phase. Multiple steps will be used to conduct the data analysis, including listing in the interviews and counter-stories from participants that will form narratives. A modified interpretative phenomenological approach (IPA) as well as systematic coding steps to analyze the data will be employed. Phenomenology "is a design of inquiry coming from philosophy and psychology in which the researcher describes the lived experiences of individuals about a phenomenon as described by participants" (Creswell, 2014, p. 42).

IPA is the method of analysis that will be used to formulate meanings from the counter-narratives, and emerging themes to study the phenomena being researched. The researcher will apply a CRT narrative in examining data from participant narratives. Creswell (2014) supported the use of theory-oriented inquiry like CRT as "providing an overall orienting lens for the study of questions of class, and race" (p. 98). The researcher will use CRT in two ways: (a) in the use of tenets as a guide in the formulation of the interview protocol and questions, and (b) in the

analysis and use of counter-storytelling. Counter-stories will be designed from data gathered from the research process itself, including individual interviews. The researcher believes the best approach for data analysis in this study is an adapted IPA strategy which uses free listing cultural domain analysis (CDA) for validation. CDA is “a cognitive anthropological technique that extracts code, as defined by the participants, about a phenomenon or social construct, and reduces it to themes representative of its conceptual domain” (Ladson-Billings, 2013, p. 588).

After the initial coding, the researcher will use a process that is typically used in phenomenological studies called horizontalization of the data, which Moustakas (1994a) stated is a process that treats each statement of the participants as having equal worth and works to develop a list of non-repetitive, non-overlapping statements. After the horizontalization process, the researcher will begin clustering the data for significant meanings and themes. Once that process is completed, the researcher will take the statements and themes to write a description of “what” the participants experienced which, according to Moustakas (1994b), is the textural description. In a phenomenological study, textural descriptions are used to help the researcher write about the context or setting that influenced “how” the participants experienced the phenomenon. By writing a description of the context or setting that impacted the participants’ experiences, the researcher will be engaging in another phenomenological process called structural description. According to Moustakas (1994c), structural description encompasses cognizant steps of contemplating and determining, conceiving, and remembering to attain the true fundamental meaning.

Study Quality

To ensure credibility and sincerity in this narrative inquiry study, the researcher will use reflexive journaling, triangulation, and member checking. First, the researcher will start by identifying his personal experiences of the phenomenon being studied. According to Chan et al., (2013), “researchers need to suspend their predisposition during the data analysis” (p. 5). While the researcher’s experiences can create biases in the study, the researcher will use the reflexive journaling strategy to channel his thoughts about the investigation. To bring reflexivity into consciousness, a reflexive diary will be used to write down his thoughts, feelings, and perceptions. This will allow the researchers to re-examine his position when issues are raised that might affect the research process. For this study, the researcher will use reflexive journaling as the primary bracketing strategy for controlling any personal assumptions. According to Creswell (2013), reflexivity allows the researcher to write about his experience with the phenomenon being studied, thereby, allowing him to identify his assumptions and subjectivities that may have entered into the data analysis process.

Trustworthiness

According to Roberts (2010), researchers who conduct qualitative studies typically use the term trustworthiness when referring to the validity and reliability of a study. Roberts described it as a credibility factor, which is the process that gives the reader confidence in the investigator’s data analysis. For this research, trustworthiness will be used to address dependability. For accuracy and dependability, each interview will be recorded via Zoom (or MS Teams) and transcribed accurately. According to Shank (2002), interviews and data collection conducted in an informal setting are often more trustworthy than those conducted in a more

formal setting. Hence, the researcher will defer to the participants as to the time, and date, the interviews will take place.

Lincoln and Guba (1985), state there are four criteria to establish trustworthiness in qualitative research: transferability, dependability, confirmability, and credibility. These criteria will be used to inform this study to establish trustworthiness. Transferability is the extent to which evidence findings can apply to other settings, contexts, times, and populations. Lincoln and Guba (1985) state that transferability “is, in summary, not the naturalist’s task to provide an index of transferability, it is his or her responsibility to provide the database that makes transferability judgments possible on the part of potential appliers” (p. 316). The researcher will provide meaningful, and insightful descriptions of the participants’ experiences, the range, and the number of participants and descriptions of the setting with context as a technique to facilitate transferability decisions to other contexts or settings. The second criterion is dependability, which is an evaluation of the quality of the integrated processes of data collection, data analysis, and theory generation. Evidence gathered to support dependability included documentation and triangulation. Thematic coding will be used to allow for the data to be compared and contrasted concerning the experiences of the participants and reveal emerging themes. Multiple sources of information and artifacts will be reviewed in support of dependability.

Confirmability is the third criterion of trustworthiness addressing the level of confidence that the research study’s findings are based on narratives and words of the participants rather than potential researcher biases. To control for confirmability in researcher bias, the researcher will use open-ended interview questions, free listing, and paraphrasing for accuracy checks. The extensive double-checking confirmed the evidence collected. Paraphrasing in member checking,

rich description, and clarification of bias are multiple approaches the researcher used to ensure trustworthiness and academic rigor.

Credibility is the last criterion in qualitative research, which refers to the confidence of the data and how well the data and analysis address the focus of the study. The methodology and researcher's background in interpreting the data is a guidelines for the focus of the study. Suter (2012) stated that credibility is related to reliability, "uncovered by evidence revealing that the construct being studied is the same one theory presumes exists" (p. 363). The researcher will also use open-ended questions and paraphrasing to cite conclusions. Although member checking is widely used as a validation method for interpretative phenomenology analysis (IPA) studies, it is not flawless. McGaha and D'Urso (2019) noted a drawback of member checking is that "interpretation can be altered based on the context in which it is reviewed and may allow for participants to control the study" (p. 586). Therefore, the use of open-ended questions and paraphrasing as a validation tool will be used for this study. Crosschecking multiple data sources and collection procedures toward convergence demonstrates triangulation.

Trustworthiness of Data Coding and Analysis

The researcher used narrative inquiry as the methodological approach for the collection and analysis of primary data for this study. The researcher made careful deliberation of thought when crafting and constructing a decision model for a systematic analysis of coding steps to analyze the data. Including, the alignment of the primary research questions guiding the study, the interview questions supporting the primary questions, and the theoretical frameworks corresponding to each interview question (refer to Appendices A & B). Setting a clear research design and methodology enabled the researcher to confer reliability of data, the credibility of the

research methodology, and data collection which was important to solid content analysis. Each supported the criteria standards in establishing trustworthiness in this qualitative research adding transferability, dependability, confirmability, and credibility to the study.

Given the recurring nature of qualitative research, the researcher analyzed data during the initial collection phase. Several steps were deployed to conduct the data analysis, including free listing used in the interviews and counter-stories from participants that formed narratives. To present the information with accuracy and meticulousness, fixed attention was given to understanding and confirming the organization, tracking, and retention of participants' authentic voices for counter-storytelling. The researcher created a five (5) step system of data collection and analysis for the study. The researcher-created system of data collection and analysis constituted the primary analysis tool to code and analyze data for thematic coding and alignment of the theoretical frameworks corresponding to each interview question. Numbers were assigned to each of the ten participants and labeled with dates. The researcher analyzed interviews line by line and reduced each to a thematic view of coding. What follows is the disassembly and reassembly of the data using a matrix designed by the researcher and informed by CRT, CRTE, and TRB frameworks to draw conclusions and make relevant interpretations of the data. Each of the views of the researcher's methodical process of data collection, coding, and analysis allowed for added credibility and trustworthiness for the findings of this study.

Ethical Considerations

The research will abide by the ethical considerations of respect for persons, meaning considering risk versus benefits, and just conscription (Lochmiller & Lester, 2017). Participants will be informed of their rights to exercise their autonomy by providing them with written

consent forms to participate in the interviews, which will stress their participation will be completely voluntary and allow them to participate or withdraw at any time that they may choose. The consent form (see Appendix D) will be emailed to the participant before the Zoom interviews and will be read by the researcher before beginning the interviews. In addition, the consent form will include acceptance to record the Zoom sessions

The participants will be asked for demographic information as part of the interview. Also, participants will be assured of the confidentiality of the study, and be informed that the data to be tabulated will be coded with a pseudonym and not identifiable to them. Furthermore, if any quotes are used pseudonyms will be used.

The researcher will be sensitive to personal information shared and transparent about the purpose of the research, the intent for its use, and the ethical considerations that accompany such disclosures (Creswell, 2014). Also, precautions will be put into place to mitigate undue harm to participants in the research study.

All collected data, including recordings and other information, will be kept in a secure and safe format on the researcher's personal computer, which is only accessible to the researcher. Moreover, all data collected during the study will be kept for a span of three to five years from the date of collection, and then will be destroyed.

Limitations

There are limits to this selection of participants, level of analysis, and geographical locations. The researcher only studied African American boards of trustees from public community colleges. According to Creswell (2012b), "Limitations are potential weaknesses or problems with the study identified by the researcher" (p. 199). Since this study will be conducted

in selected states within the United States and only involved African Americans board of trustees, its findings may not be transferable to other national community colleges, other racial/ethnic groups, or other boards of trustee of color.

Summary

This chapter discussed the content and design of the qualitative research, the research questions that guided this study, and the methodological procedures used to conduct the research including the data collection and analysis procedures. The chapter further detailed the study's population, sample, and context of the study, including the instrumentation, researcher positionality, trustworthiness, and ethical considerations. Next, in Chapter 4, the findings of the research will be presented.

Chapter 4 - Analysis and Summary of Research Findings

Introduction

Chapter 4 provides a demonstration and analysis of the findings of the study. This study explored trustees' lived experiences such as their method of being selected, other board experiences, their perceptions of the underrepresentation of minorities on the board of trustees at community colleges, how race and/or gender influenced their selection, and barriers they experienced. The study begins with an overview, followed by participants' views of equity and how their being on the board has or has not made enrolls into diversity, equity, and inclusion outcomes. An analysis of the research questions and findings will be presented by research questions and organized by relevant themes that emerged from each. As mentioned, a narrative inquiry design was used to describe and interpret the lived experiences of African Americans board of trustees within community colleges. Following the interviews, the researcher analyzed data to determine common themes. The chapter concludes with the chapter summary.

The following research questions guided the study:

1. What are the lived experiences of African American community college trustees in their role as Trustees?
2. What impediments, barriers, or prejudices/biases have African American community college trustees observed within their college or as a Trustee, that affect and impede the deeper diversification of college faculty, staff, and leadership?
3. What best practices might college trustees and CEOs undertake to influence a more diverse and inclusive environment, resulting in a more diverse college environment?

Overview of Participant Characteristics

Ten African American board of trustees participated in the study, each were selected based on their college having won the ACCT Equity Award or their having served on the ACCT Diversity Committee. The participants represented seven states and eight community colleges across the United States. Seven of the trustees were appointed by their governor, one by their school board, one by their board of trustees, and one was elected. The gender breakdown of participants was seven females and three males. The age of the participants was primarily in the category of 51 or older, which represented 80% or eight out of the ten participants and there were one of each respectively in the 41 to 50 and 31 to 40 age group. Similarly, the length of service varied, four participants served less than three years. Another four served between four to six years and two served seven or more years. The majority (six) of the participants were employed in the public sector and the other four worked in the private sector. Two of the participants attended community college and the other eight did not attend a community college. All ten served on other boards as well as one who also served on a four-year college's board of trustees. Lastly, five of the participants' colleges were the recipients of the ACCT Equity Award and five were not a recipient of the award.

The profile of the ten African American board of trustees that participated in the study varied as to how they became a board member, their gender, age, length of service, profession, education, service on other boards, and location. The gender skewed in the direction of females, and length of service varied as well, where some had served as little as a few months to over seven years.

Participants Service Area

The service area of the ten participating boards of trustees was represented in seven states, which were Illinois, Maryland, New Jersey, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, and Washington. As discussed, the study covered colleges on the east coast, Midwest, and west coast, and within these states, eight colleges were represented.

Figure 4.1. Locations of the Board of Trustees' Colleges in the U.S. (map of the U.S.)

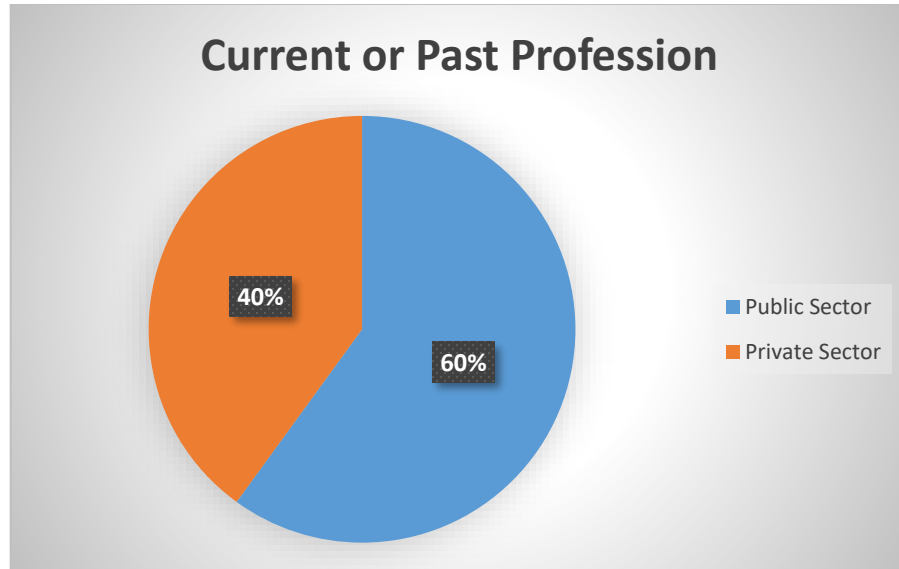


Professional Composition

Participating boards of trustees traveled different paths to their trusteeship, including 60% from the public sector meaning they worked for either the city, county, state, or federal government. The other 40% were from the private sector. One common pathway to their board service was having a strong advocate for their appointment to the board. For example, six were nominated by their state senator, to their governor for consideration. Another commonality was the participants had high profiles in their respective communities due to their high level of community service. This recognition of their local community service became a theme or catalyst for their board

service.

Figure 4.2. Board of Trustees Profession

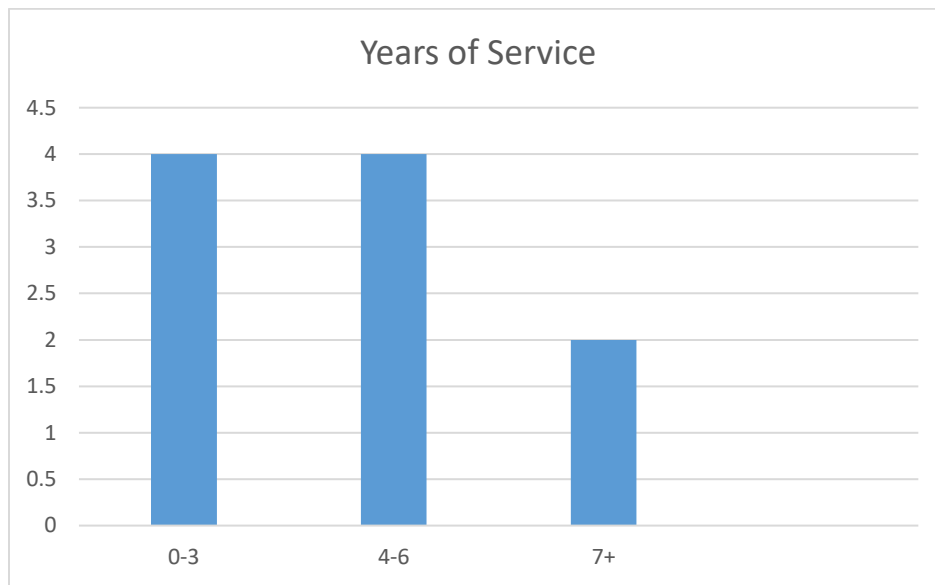


Characteristics of the Participants

Years of Service

The ten participating boards of trustees represented seven females and three males. Their years of service varied (see Figure 4.2). For example, 80% (four with three or fewer years of service and four with four to six years of service) had six years or less and the other 20% had seven years or more.

Figure 4.3. Years of Service



The years of service tend not to have a direct effect on their respective college's diversity, equity, and inclusion outcomes.

The Party Affiliation of Governor Appointed Board of Trustees

The composite of the seven boards of trustees appointed by their respective governors included six who were appointed by a governor from a different political affiliation and one whose governor was the same political affiliation. For example, six Republican governors appointed Democratic boards of trustees, and one Democratic governor appointed a Democratic board member. Hence, political party did not seem to be a factor in this study. This non-partisan mindset appeared to be a theme of importance and will be described in later reporting.

Gender and Age Composition

The breakdown of gender among the participating board of trustees consists of seven females and three males (see Figure 4.4). The categorization of age included eight board of trustees members who were 51 years old or older, one between the age of 41 to 50 years old, and the other between the age of 31 to 40 years of age (see Figure 4.5).

Figure 4.4. Board of Trustees Gender

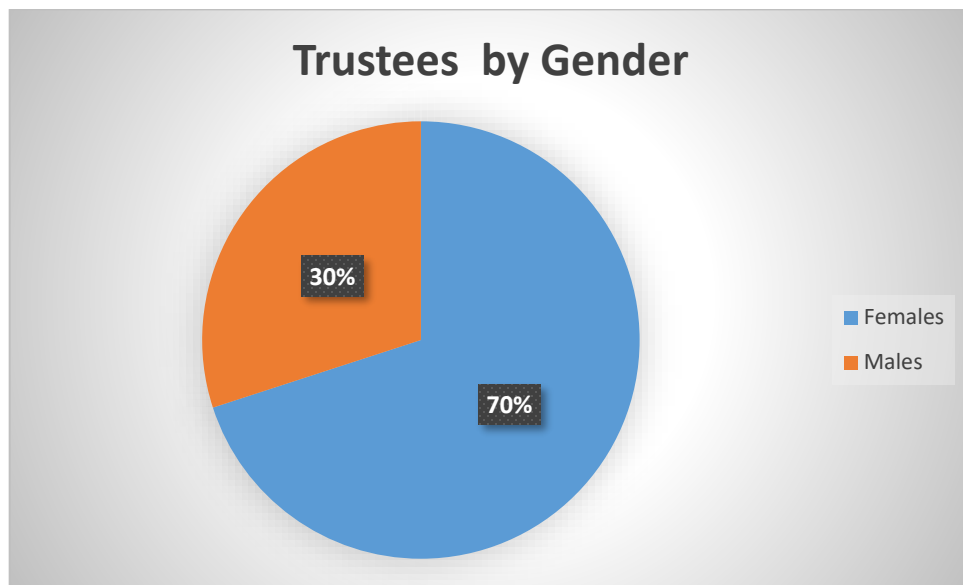
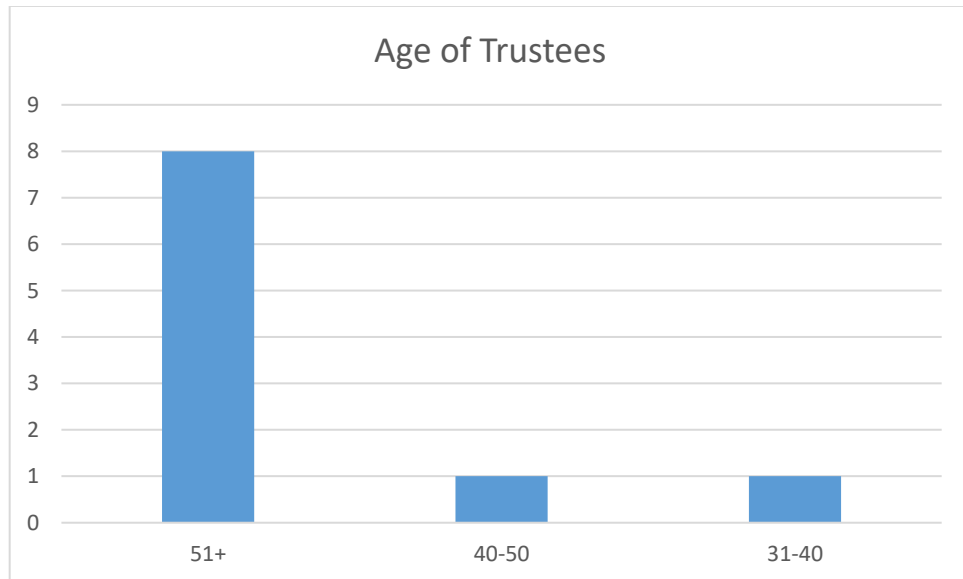


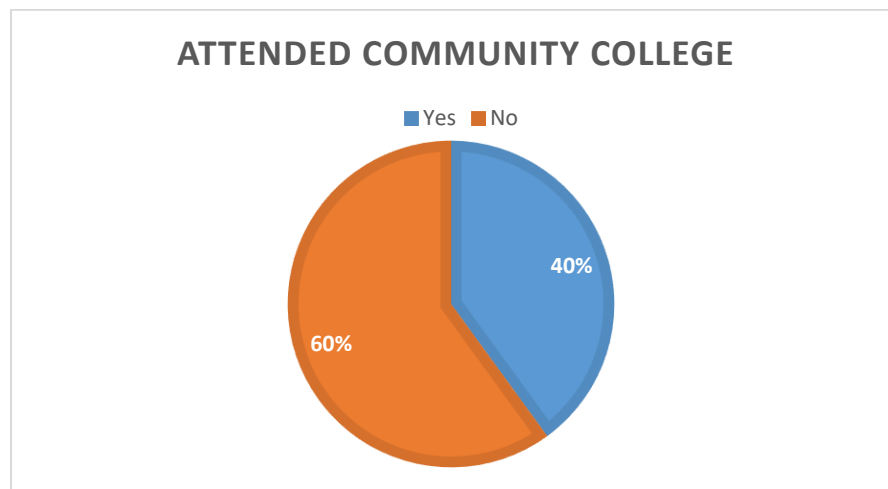
Figure 4.5. Board of Trustees Age



Higher Education Composition

The configuration of higher education among the participating board of trustees consists of eight boards of trustees who attended a four-year college/university, and two who attended a community college (see Figure 4.6). Similarly, six of the board of trustees were employed in the public sector and four of the board of trustees were employed in the private sector (see Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.6. Board of Trustees Education



Findings Presented by Selection Method, Other Board Services and Experience with Racism

This section contains the findings of the qualitative narrative inquiry focused study conducted, an analysis of the research questions, and a summary of the research findings for this study. The arrangement of findings is presented by each of the three research questions as well as the corresponding interview questions for each. The data are presented in order of the way the themes were developed. Each research and interview question is abbreviated by numbers as well as the interview questions and reflected as R1-3 = Research Question and 1Q = Interview Question that parallels with the research question (see Appendix B). As an example, Research Question 1 asked, “*What are the lived experiences of African American community college*

trustees in their role as Trustees?” The researcher asked ten interview questions to probe participants about their lived experiences as African community college trustees. Refer to Appendix B for an overview of the questions.

Themes that arose from participants' comments on the selection method, other board services, and experience with racism that effected their work to influence policy matters related to diversity, equity and inclusion are shown below. Those responses and data for Research Question 1 are presented below.

Research Question 1:

What are the lived experiences of African American community college trustees in their role as Trustees?

Participants described aspects based on their understanding of the appointment and election process, what influenced them to serve, what their experiences were, and whether their college is the recipient of the equity award. Themes from RQ1 that arose for question one include; a) political affiliation had little to no impact; b) having an advocate or mentor is critical; c) prior community or public service experience was essential to their appointment; d) racism is still prevalent and effects the work that we are doing, whether you recognize it or not; and e) diversity is seen as a strength.

Political Affiliation Had Little to No Impact

Participants indicated that their political affiliation had no impact on their being appointed. To be exact, of the seven that were appointed by the governor, six were of a different political affiliation – the governors were Republicans and the trustees were Democrats. There was only one appointee where both the governor's and trustee's political affiliation was the same.

In all cases where the trustees were appointed by a Republican governor, they were reappointed by a different Republican governor for their subsequent term(s).

In all but one of the cases of the governors' appointments, the participants were nominated by their State Senator who was a Democrat. In the case where there was an exception, the trustee was nominated by a local businessman whose political affiliation was neither Republican nor Democrat. Trustee #6 described her appointment as:

I received a call from one of our local businessmen. He contacted me about my interest in being on the board of trustees for the Community College. He felt that I would be an asset to that community college. The next thing I heard, I was appointed a trustee and received a phone call about the appointment from the Governor's office who was a Republican and I am a Democrat.

On all the other occasions the board of trustees was championed by their State Senator other than one board member who was championed by a seated board member and subsequently appointed by the school board. Trustee #5 described her appointment as:

A friend of mine was on the board at the time, and she asked, if I was interested, and I said, sure, I'm interested, so that's kind of how I got involved. My community college is in my hometown, so I saw a lot of growth and change over the years, and I was always kind of interested. So, when the opportunity came I readily accepted it.

When asked, who presented the opportunity, she replied, "the school board". When asked what's the majority political affiliation of the school board, she replied, "Republican", and when asked what is her political affiliation, she replied, "Democrat".

Concerning the board of trustee member that was the only participant in the study who was elected, the Trustee reported that the election was non-partisan. She was asked how long was your campaign, how much did the election cost, and whether it was a drawn-out process.

Trustee #7 stated:

I was elected during COVID, so that limited what we could do. I think you have to sign up, apply to run, and fill out the application to run. I believe it's like five months or so ahead of the election. Like November, December, and then the election was in April.

There was a point where you had to wait until some specific date when everyone could then start their process, and then you could campaign. Then you had up to four months or so to get your signatures in, and do any kind of campaigning that you were going to do. It isn't a lot of campaigning for a college trustee.

They all have, organizations like the League of Women voters where you can speak and ask for their support. But there isn't a campaign per se. It's not that they discourage it, it just doesn't happen that way. From a cost standpoint, it was about \$1,800 for me. I have talked to my colleagues from other states and it is a lot different. In fact, from California, she said it cost her \$30,000.

While much has been reported about the toxic political environment that is occurring nationally, and that the political parties are perceived by some to possibly have some racial bias, that did not appear to be the case within the environment found in the local communities in this study.

Having an Advocate or Mentor is Critical

Whether advancing careers, seeking a position on a committee or, nomination for an appointment, or running for an office, advocates and mentors do appear to have had a major influence on the participants within this study, particularly as the mentors work to advance their protégé professionally. For example, within the study, this researcher found that generally, a seasoned professional took a personal interest in actively shepherding, coaching, and promoting the partaker's professional aspirations. Meaning, they gave advice, offered guidance, and enlarged the partaker's perception of what he/she can do. Also, they networked on their behalf. Similarly, mentors act as role a model and close advisor, conveying his/her knowledge and professional expertise.

Research revealed that all the appointed participants had an advocate or mentor, whether it was a state senator, a local businessman, or simply a friend on the board, someone championed their appointment. As stated earlier, political affiliation had no bearing on their appointment or election, what appeared to matter most was that there was a person who was championing their fate. For example, Trustee #1 stated:

I was approached by my state senator who I had known for over 20 years. I have not held a political office nor an appointed position but have been very active in politics concerning getting our young people to vote.

On another occasion, Trustee #2 described his experience as:

I had been appointed by the governor on other boards or commissions and was very familiar with the process of state senators taking their nominees in front of the governor's appointment committee.

Having a mentor or advocate who could support the trustees work, who would be available for counsel and advice, and who was watching out for the trustees was a powerful and necessary support mechanism cited by each participant.

Community or Public Service Experience was Essential to Being Appointed

The participants believed that their current acts of service brought a level of respect, especially to those who were seeking out individuals to serve on community colleges' boards of trustees. For example, in one case a trustee was approached by her state senator, a person who she did not know personally prior to this interaction, but who subsequently nominated her for the board of trustees as a result of the trustee's prior volunteer work in the community.

Trustee #3 stated:

"I am serving my second term and was appointed by another Republican governor". When asked, why did she think she got a second term by another Republican governor? She stated, "I am doing a good job on the board and I am very actively serving on other boards/committees in my community".

Trustee #9 supported that with:

I have known the president of this college for some time as a result of my role as head of a division in their county where the community college is located. And so, I became very familiar with leadership and the board of trustees. So, when an opening on the board happened, I was asked to join the board.

Also, all participants described the community that their college served as very diverse especially as it relates to race and ethnicity. In some of the communities, the minority population was high as 90 percent. To that end, Trustee #4 described her community as:

The community we serve is very diverse and consists of every walk of life – African Americans, Caribbean, some from the Continent of Africa, Hispanics, and Latinos. Poor, and those well-to-do, educated, and not formally educated, etc. But the majority of the population is African American.

Trustee #5 said her community “is forever changing. Caucasians are still the slight majority, I would say, 50% are Hispanic and African Americans. I may be off a little bit. Trustee #8 shared, “though my community is a minority-majority, Caucasians are 45%, African Americans represented 40% and 15% is other. However, Caucasians still maintain power and influence”.

The consensus among all participants was that they were aware of how community colleges have and can change the lives of those who desire to do better but are not sure how to do it. Each trustee interviewed alluded to how community college is for all meaning whether a person has a high school degree or want to get one, to learn English, need job training, pursuing an Associate degree, or having plans to transfer to a four-year institution; regardless of the need, community colleges can accommodate. Trustee #2 described the desire as wanting to help rid the community of poverty. The participant stated:

Starting with exposure, even before becoming a trustee I was very active in working with the youth of African Americans and other minority groups. I would sponsor trips to Washington, DC to visit museums – a lot of the youth had never traveled out of their communities and didn’t know that museums were free to visit. Also, through my church, we provide mentoring and tutoring programs. So, even before becoming a trustee, I was serving African Americans and others to show them a better life.

Trustee #6 stated that the majority of their population is poor and that community the local college is their first option to improve the situation. The participant stated:

I serve on our Pastor's pantry board and the Executive Committee for the YMCA. We (community college and YMCA) did a county-wide case study with the Salvation Army, the reason we did the study is that we're trying to develop a one-stop shop for the homeless. We want to connect the Salvation Army with the homeless population because they have a soup kitchen, and people know they're going to get a hot meal every single day of the week. Also, the Salvation Army is wanting to do more and they are working with our college to use our land and/or buildings for shelter. So, we (our community) are trying to bring all the services that people would need in our community to that same location. So, it's called the Trustee #6 county and connect.

Moreover, the participants were fully aware that those who are not in the room where decisions are made do not have a voice. Trustee #3 described their motivation behind the decision as:

I was the first generation in my family to receive a college degree. I am an African American female who grew up in a rural area and was raised by a single mother. I initially attended a four-year HBCU and failed miserably in my first year in college. My mother decided to keep me home and enrolled me in our local community college. I have obtained my associate degree, my bachelor and then my master's and I am subsequently a successful professional in my community and serve on many boards.

If I can do it, you can too. I am currently a single parent, which represents the majority of our students who are 70% females, and over half are single parents. Also, the majority of them are the first generation to pursue or obtain a college degree. So, when I speak, and vote on policies I am representing those who don't have a voice at the table.

Trustee #9's experience was similar but described it differently. He shared his desire to help those without a voice as:

Making sure that those who have historically been kept out of the loop have access first to education and then to capital. Helping them with education, starts first with making sure the community is aware of all that community colleges offer. May it be a free education with early college or obtaining your GED. Concerning access to capital the seminars that both his company and college offer about finances.

Also, the majority of the participants expressed honor to be appointed as a board of trustee member and saw the opportunity to serve as their community duty to give back. Trustee #1 describes the opportunity as:

Why not? Nothing ventured, nothing gained. If not me, then who, and if not now, then when? I have always served my community but not in this capacity, so it appears to be a natural progression, and I have a lot of respect for the Senator who nominated me and had worked with her on other community activities.

Trustee #3 stated:

I had been offered the opportunity to serve on the board where I received my bachelor's degree but declined, however when the opportunity to serve on my community college board was presented I accepted it.

When asked why she declined the four-year institution appointment but accepted the community college opportunity, the trustee stated, "I believed I would be a better representative for the females and single parents who attend a community college". Other participants shared that they saw the good work that their community college was doing in their community and wanted to be a part of making the community better. The researcher found from each interview, that the experience gained while doing public service and community work, was not only beneficial in preparing them for trusteeship, but that work also positioned them within the community for their eventual appointment or election within the public's eye.

Racism Is Still Prevalent, Whether or Not You Recognize It

Overall participants stated that they experienced no form of racism from their fellow board members, president/CEO, or the senior leadership team directly or indirectly. However, several board members shared that they observed racism while in their role, or heard of racist activity that they felt needed to be addressed. One board member shared that she experienced racism at a board member's event held on their campus that was catered by an outside company. Trustee #3 stated, "I think just about every person of color, a female or male person of color has experienced racism at some point in their time, whether or not they recognize it". When asked as a follow-up, did that occur as a current trustee? She replied, "I have not experienced racism by my fellow trustees or the college administration but by a staff member from an outside catering company". This is how the trustee described the episode:

The staff member of a catering vendor that the board was using for an event that they were sponsoring mistaken her as a student, staff member, or someone else and treated her as such.

When asked, how did that make you feel? She stated:

To be honest with you, it ticked me off, you know there's another word for that. So, I shared it with my board members and the white trustees' response was " we are shocked that in 2022 that any professional would experience that type of treatment".

So, it opened the door for a conversation. The door it opened was a segue way for another conversation which helped to educate the other colleagues that serve on the commission. What it's like for folks of color, so it was as a teachable moment.

The trustees' policy action was to influence college leadership to remove the company from the approved vendor's list. Also, Trustee #3 saw this situation as a teachable moment to sensitize her fellow board of trustees to racism.

Trustee #10, a board member from a different college stated he had not experienced racism from his fellow board members or leadership, but he did observed racism on his campus. He described it as:

I have not experienced racism. I have observed it. We have had some issues of racist and inappropriate actions on the campus, I mean not on the campus most recently. It was about just before COVID about three years ago. It involved a piece of artwork, a mural outside, where depicting the Japanese treatment in World War II.

It was defaced, and there was some cover-up internally around that I mean some higher-up individuals, and we had to make some changes, including the former president. The Board had to make some changes starting with the president. It made the news, it was a big deal, and it made national news.

Though Trustee #10 had not directly experienced racism as a board member, his community members had and it concerned the board that the president and/or his administration attempted to cover it up.

Similarly, when the participants were asked about their board's diversity as it relates to their student population, all but two participants stated that their board did not reflect their student population. Trustee #9 describes the reason as:

As you know, board opportunities have historically been closed to people of color. There also has been a lack of African Americans and other minorities serving in leadership roles across the state.

Trustee #4 described it as:

Lack of knowledge also contributes to low numbers and not knowing the process of how appointments work. Low interest because of no compensation, and not fully grasping the meaning of power versus money.

Trustee #7, the only participant that was elected described it as:

Having the know-how, time, money, and interest. You first have to know how to apply so that you can run for the office (board of trustee). Then you have to have the time and money to campaign. Then you have to have the interest to want to do those things and attend board meetings and annual retreats. It can be a big sacrifice of your time.

This same participant shared that she was nominated by a seating board member to fulfill a vacancy of a former board member who died prior to completing his term. The participant also shared that she was not selected and that the nominees consisted of one White male, one white female, and herself who is an African American female. She was asked who was selected, and she said that the white female was selected. After a follow-up question her reply was, that no one was more qualified than herself. So, why do you believe that you are more qualified? Trustee #7 stated:

I have worked in higher education for over 30 years and I employed as a senior administrator with one of the top four-year research institutions in the Midwest and the country, and I currently serve on the board of a private four-year college in the area.

So, when asked, if that was the case that the trustee (#7) was more qualified and other members of the board afterwards shared that trustee #7 was the best candidate than why wasn't trustee #7 selected? Trustee #7 stated:

I believe the board preferred an older white male with old money and connection but settled for an older white female with similar characteristics. In other words, let's stay with the status quo.

When asked did she believe that race and racism played a role in the selection process? Trustee #7 stated "They selected the person who they were more comfortable with". Why did she make them more comfortable? "She runs in the circle of those with old money and influence and that was the makeup of the board".

On the other hand, Trustee #9 described the board as representing the community and student population. “Diversity is in everything we do, it trickles down through every aspect of the college to our board, our executive team, and our staff”.

This statement is theoretically true based on how diversity is defined. For example, his board consists of 19 board of trustees, ten are males and nine are females. Diversity is apparent when three African American males, two Asians (one female and one male), and one Middle Eastern male is counted . Conversely, 13 are Caucasians (seven are females and six are males), which is a 68% board representation and their student population is over 50% African Americans. With this in mind, it was made clear by those interviewed that while the position of trustee may cause racism to be less obvious, the reality is that each trustee experienced or observed racism. It currently exists within the environment, however trustees at these award-winning colleges reported that they recognized it was their responsibility to keep watch and address issues when it occurs.

Diversity Is Seen as a Strength, Not as a Weakness

All but one participant stated that their college had a diversity, equity, and inclusion (DE&I) mandate. Each described the focus of their college was to celebrate diversity as a strength, not as a weakness. This perspective was consistent between the award-winning colleges, and seem to separate these colleges’ vision and policy recommendations from many Boards and leadership teams who see diversity as a weakness to be worked upon rather than a strength to be celebrated and manifested. For example, Trustee #1 stated that there were no mandated DE&I initiatives other than what is required by federal law through Title VII of the civil rights acts, which prohibits employment discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex

and national origin. Similarly, to the participant whose college did not have a mandated DE&I, Trustee #5 was not completely clear about how it was to be enforced. For example, Trustee #5 stated, “We hired a diversity officer who reports to the president, but not sure what he does because he does not provide any reports or updates to the board”. On the other hand, the participants whose colleges had been awarded the ACCT Association Equity Award were very direct and intentional with their DE&I mandates. Trustee #2 described:

His college’s DE&I as robust because we see our community college as a beacon of hope for those who might otherwise not have an opportunity. We recognize diversity as a strength. This mandate is carried out through the President’s Advisory Council.

Trustee #9 stated his college is very intentional with its DE&I initiatives and is at the forefront of DE&I and the execution of its policy mandates. For example, his college has a DE&I Vice President whose position resides in the president’s cabinet. Trustee #9 describes it as:

It trickles down through every aspect of the college to our board, our executive team, and our staff. We really have a plan in motion to make sure that the community college board and staff and administration look and feel like the community we serve. It's just not lip service. It actually is something that is near and dear and is actually being executed and implemented.

Similarly, to the participant whose community college’s DE&I actions were very intentional, their college’s actions were also very intentional. Trustee #9 stated his college’s DE&I actions as very profound at his college because it is infused in everything we do.

Trustee #10 reported that his board considered DE&I efforts as:

What are the demographics of our community? Meaning the community where the college is located. The demographics have changed over the years, Over the last, I'd say 15 to 20 years. It was predominantly white, with Asians probably the second largest group. But in recent years, because of technology – Microsoft and Amazon, all those things are in our backyard. The demographics have changed. So, it's more Asian, it's more South Asian Indians. It's more Pakistanis. So, it has gotten Browner and has more African Americans as well.

For example, his board of trustees consists of six members which includes one student. The board of trustees at this college were appointed by the governor and included two Asians, one Pakistani, one Caucasian, and one African American. The gender breakdown is three males and two females. One of the females is the chair of the board. This board was very intentional in development of policy, but also in demonstrating their commitment to DE&I as they appointed members and board officers. This was an intentional “Walk the Talk” demonstration by the trustees.

Research Question 2 Findings Presented by Impediments, Barriers, or Prejudices/Biases

Research Question 2 asked participants *“What impediments, barriers, or prejudices/biases have African American community college trustees observed within their college or as a Trustee, that affects and impede the deeper diversification of college, staff, and leadership?”* The researcher asked seven interview questions to collect data from the participants about their observations within their college as a Trustee that affects diversification. Refer to

Appendix B for an overview of the questions. Themes that arose from participants' comments on the impediments, barriers, or prejudices/biases for research question two are presented below.

Research Question 2:

What impediments, barriers, or prejudices/biases have African American community college trustees observed within their college or as a Trustee, that affects and impede the deeper diversification of college, staff, and leadership?

Participants described their perspective on what factors may or may not contribute to the underrepresentation of minorities on their boards but refrained from suggesting it was universal. Themes that arose for question two include; a) lack of exposure and accountability; b) willingness to serve; c) political makeup of those making the selections; d) privilege of having time; and e) undervaluing those who are not like you.

Lack of Exposure and Accountability

Participants stated that they believe the underrepresentation of minorities on their board of trustees and perhaps on other boards was due to exposure or the lack of exposure to the diverse public being served. For example, Trustee #7 who was elected (she was the only elected trustee among the participants) stated that:

You have to be looking for the opportunity. The positions are advertised but you have to know where to look. You also need to know how to present yourself, how to campaign, and how to ask for support – both financial and otherwise. Also, you need to be willing to commit the time to run and serve.

Trustee #6 stated that:

The lack of exposure of diverse candidates may be because you do not have a relationship with your local politicians or have business connections or the area where you live may not afford you representations or any mentors.

In addition to the lack of exposure, most of the participants suggested there may be a lack of accountability too, Trustee #9 poignantly explained:

The lack of exposure is due to no accountability, which is intentional because if it was not intentional there would be accountability. It (the lack of accountability) is intentional because of those who are trying to keep the power within a small subgroup.

Participants indicated in all cases that the current process of becoming a board of trustee member appears to promote the status quo. Meaning, keeping the power and influence in the hands of only a few white males and females. The trustees who served at these colleges seemed to find ways to overcome the invisible process of recruitment and eventual selection. This may be a result of the trustees' community service work or mentorship by others who are positioned to support them as nominees or candidates.

Willingness to Serve

Several participants believe another factor attributed to the underrepresentation of minorities on their board of trustees is the willingness or lack of willingness to serve. Trustee #4 stated:

When I had previously approached someone who I believed would make a good trustee, the person inquired about the compensation. I shared there was no compensation, and

they then asked about the time commitment. When I shared the number of times the board meets and the level of preparation for the meetings they declined my offer.

Trustee #1 described her experience as:

No one I approached was willing to do volunteer work because of the time commitment. Participants were aware that time is a limited commodity, which none of them or anyone in their community had in abundance and when overlaid with poverty and other personal challenges there was not enough time in the day to even do the mundane. So, to consider volunteer work was not even a remote consideration.

Trustee #10 stated it as:

The privilege of time and generally retired folks have more time than those who are working. It was clear that these trustees made the conscious decision to dedicate their time to this very important work, and their efforts were changing the outcomes around diversity and inclusion.

It became clear from several trustees interviewed that the willingness to serve in a role that was uncompensated and time consuming, was a challenge for some and definitely a factor in finding trustees who can continue to develop diversity and equity policy. Time and willingness may also be a factor for those who have an interest in serving but may not have the time to do the prior community service work that prepares one for the trustee role.

Political Makeup of Those Making the Selections

In all cases, the political party in control determined the selection process regardless of the method of selection. Trustee #5 described her selection as:

I am not political, even though I serve on boards with those who are political and they were supportive and advocated for my appointment to the board of trustees at my college. My community is primarily made up of Republicans and the majority of the school board are Republicans. I am not a Republican but was appointed by a Republican school board.

Trustee #6 shared a similar story about her county, which she referred to as a red county, meaning the majority of residents and politicians are Republicans. However, she was appointed by a Republican governor (her affiliation is Democrat) because her champion was a successful businessman who is nonpartisan. Conversely, Trustee #10 stated his county and primarily the entire state is blue (meaning Democrat) and the makeup of all the appointees on his board are Democrats.

The Privilege of Having Time

Privilege in this context is an advantage that only one person or group of people has, usually because of their position or because they are wealthy, well-to-do, etc. In the research the participant was alluding to those who are retired and have free time.

Furthermore, as alluded to earlier in the theme of the willingness to serve, several participants suggested that one of the reasons that may be attributed to their board being

underrepresented by minorities was because of the time commitment. Trustee #10 described it as:

The privilege of having time. What I mean by this is that most nonprofit boards are made up of retired folks because they have time. For example, there was a younger person (between the age of 38 to 45) on our board who happened to be an African American attorney who had to resign because of the time commitment. You have only limited time after you factor in the demands of your career (during those years of your career you are striving to get ahead) and your family. So, something has to give – in his case, and probably in most cases, volunteer duties are put on the back burner.

This data further support the earlier findings of time and willingness to serve.

Valuing Those Who Are Not Like You

Race and racism were identified as key factors of the impediments, barriers, or prejudices/biases that African American trustees observed within their college that affected and impeded deeper diversification. Trustee #4 described it as:

People not seeing your worth or valuing what you say. I don't like the expectation that I'm going to go along to get along. I like the expectation that I have a brain. I think I'm logical. I'm educated. and when I come to the table with something to say, I want what I say to be looked upon as important and valued.

Trustee #2 referred to it as fear and ignorance – fear of the unknown and capabilities. In other words, not knowing individuals from different communities and what each bring to the table. He also stated “the news media has been very instrumental, unfortunately in painting a broad brush

of negative images of black, brown and men of color in a certain way, which contributes to one's perception or misperceptions".

Similarly, trustee #5 described the challenge of deeper diversification as conservatism, lack of knowledge or needlessness/never done it before historically so, why do it now? To be exact, Trustee #5 stated it this way:

I don't know that you will ever see change without forcing the change. And since a lot of these board members are volunteers, you know the folks in these positions who might feel like well before you make me do something that I have never had to do before, or something that I'm not comfortable with. Then I'm not going to do it. So, descriptors I would say is conservatism, and lack of knowledge. But the meat of it is needlessness. It's we've never done it before historically so, why do it now?

Other participants referred to the impediments, barriers or prejudices/biases as closed systems, good old boy system, and the old guard (closed system so why bother). Trustee #7 described it as:

I don't want to say there is a prejudice or that there is a bias, but you know there was a long period of time before an African American was on the board, So, when you look at community colleges, and not only community college, but I would say, 4-year schools too across the country where the make-up of the boards are basically older white males. So, what's driving this and why is that? Perhaps there is a preference for the status quo.

I am assuming in my situation concerning the appointment to complete the remaining term of a prior board member who was a white male, that the board preference was a white male or a white person. At that time, the majority of the board were white males.

However, there was at least one other female that was on the board who was white. I know her and she asked me to apply but I knew I wouldn't have a shot because of the other person (who was a white female). You know, in hindsight I'm thinking she was well-connected, she was a lawyer and part of the old guard system. You know, the thing such as the right family.

Likewise, Trustee #9 referred to it as institutional racism, a lack of accountability, and trying to keep the power among a small subset. He stated it as:

I think that a lot of it has to do with being intentional. I truly believe this because I have been a board member for seven years and have seen how intentional our college is and it looks like or I feel as though other colleges are unintentional. They may talk about it or they may talk about how it's important, and they may throw carrots, but they lack the execution, and I think more importantly, they lack the execution because they lack the accountability. We hold ourselves accountable for making sure that everyone is properly represented. There is a vice president that is holding us accountable and a president who is holding us accountable, and then ultimately, a board of trustees who is holding us accountable. So, I think it has to do with accountability. I think a lot of other schools lack accountability in that area.

Another thing, you know is your institutional racism and institutional genderism.

Meaning, trying to retain and keep power amongst the small subset. You know, I think that it is very intentional because from their perspective if a small subset can control every aspect of the community they then control the community, which is intentional.

And I think that it was very intentional to keep blacks and minorities and women out of certain positions of power, and I think that's where the institutional piece comes from.

So, I think it was very intentional to keep diversity out of the boardroom.

As discussed, this participant believed that intentionality can be directed in both a positive and negative direction depending on the institutions' motives. Other descriptors used by participants to describe racial and gender disparities or how race or racism may have contributed to the underrepresentation of the board of trustees at community colleges were privilege, and age or ageism. Trustee #10 described it as:

One thing I think I have noticed on boards generally is a lot of retired people. Nothing wrong with it because retired folks tend to have more time to serve on boards, and these boards take time to serve. For example, we have two board members who are retired and they can go to more events during the daytime. Because there's only five of us and the other three are at work. People of color have that same experience. It's more of the privilege of having a lot of time on your hands, and if you're retired, generally you have time and you're contributing, which is notable. But I do think you get a different perspective then you would get from maybe a younger person. To be honest, I do know younger trustees in other states that I've met who are African American who ran for their office and had to campaign. And so, I think that's different. And some of those I met who

happened to be maybe a lawyer had higher aspirations such as planning to run for Superior Court judge, and so they use the trustee platform to get name recognition and for preparation.

I think privilege. I think age or ageism. You know, people may be a little bit more removed from community college. You know the day to day, it's changed from community colleges in the 1960. I think also just a lack of perspective and a lack of exposure to students, and those who different from yourself.

The researcher's notes revealed a commonality among all the participants, whether one referred to the underrepresentation of persons of color as racism, conservatism, the good old boy system, the old guard or needlessness, the intent was the same, it was the institutional system (or process) protecting the archaic institutional system of the past. In these award-winning colleges, the trustees recognized the environment and moved promptly to develop policies and practices that addressed and dramatically improved the situation. In some instances, policy or practice was changed; in other instances, the trustees made college personnel aware of the challenges and were a part of creating a better environment for those who have or will follow them in the role of trustee. The important finding was that the trustees were not willing to allow past undervaluing of diverse community members to continue without proper action.

Research Question 3 Findings Presented by Best Practices That Community College Trustees and CEOs Undertake to Influence Diversity and Inclusion

Research Question 3 asked participants *“What best practices might community college trustees and CEOs undertake to influence a more diverse and inclusive environment, resulting in a more diverse college environment?”* The researcher asked 15 interview questions to inquire

participants about best practices undertaken within their college that influence diversity inclusivity. Refer to Appendix B for an overview of the questions. Themes that arose from participants' comments on best practices within their college for research question three are presented below.

Research Question 3:

What best practices might community college trustees and CEOs undertake to influence a more diverse and inclusive environment, resulting in a more diverse college environment?

Participants described best practices within their college that had an impact on diversity and inclusivity. Themes that arose for question three include; a) wielding power over the majority; b) diversity and inclusion is everyone's job; and c) restorative justice.

Equity Advocate - Diversity and Inclusion is Everyone's Job

Essentially all the participants believed that equity meant equal access to all, not merely based on race and gender but also included equity based upon disability, family, employment, transportation, food, etc. Trustee #4 described it as:

Equity for the campus means accessibility, and that's huge for this community. Not just based on race, because honestly and truthfully, the community is predominantly black. So, it's not really about race. It's more about accessibility and establishing a nurturing environment.

What I see is, you know where do you provide those programs that intersect with those people who never thought that they were going to go to college? Those people who are you know, facing some financial challenges. And then those students who are like the

high school students who could be doing dual enrollment. Those are just generational differences that are homogenous. So, for me, once gain it means total accessibility.

From the board's perspective, the same participant stated equity as:

I think equity relates more to race and gender. Because it is important to have those parts equal. Because I think each race and gender bring something different to the tablet. And because people come from different parts of the community, but the different parts of the community that they're coming from mean the Board members may live in more affluent areas than the student population and the community in general. That has typically been the Caucasian part of the county, and they typically were more, you know, wielding the power. Let's just say were wielding the power over the majority that look like us. So, for the board, there must be equity among the board members, that they have African American women, and that they had black men.

Trustee #9 described it as:

An equal voice and opportunity in leadership. A good example, you know I'm chair of the Finance Committee for the board of trustees. So, having us (African Americans) in positions of leadership within the board, I think, is important.

Participants were adamant about diversity and inclusion being everyone's job. For example, Trustee #10 stated that every applicant of their college is required to submit an equity statement with their application. This participant described it as:

So, equity in terms of the campus means that everybody is welcome. Everybody is treated the same in general and in terms of the campus. Let me give you some

background, we have a process by which, for example, for hiring people, whether it's a dean or chemistry professor, or whatever the position may be, the search committee has an Equity Advocate which I believe is what they call it on each committee. So, we may be hiring a chemistry professor, and you know, I mean I don't know anything about chemistry, but I'm on the search committee as the equity advocate to make sure that everything is done right from an equity standpoint, through an equity lens.

I may not be a subject matter expert in chemistry or biology, or what we're hiring for. So, that is the process across the board. I am on the Search Committee for our search for the president right now as we speak. We all had to go through equity training, and we also have an equity advocate for every hiring position. It's a presidential search, but we do it no matter what position it is, but it's certainly heightened for the Presidential search. So that's equity on the campus.

Also, if you apply for a job, no matter what the job, you have to write an equity statement. We have a question on a blank sheet asking you to write out your equity statement and that is just part of the process. You can have your CV, and all that stuff and all your publications. But that is required for everybody. And, again we're doing it right now, we have 58 candidates for the presidential search and everybody had to do an equity statement. And let me tell you, you can make a lot of decisions just by reading their equity statement. You know what I'm saying, and so that is a requirement I mean for everyone even for the custodian's position. So, that's kind of what we have done.

Trustee #2 stated it as:

Being a mandate from the president's diversity, equity, and inclusion advisory council.

Where the council provided guidance, wisdom, and sensitivity to the college's commitment to advancing opportunities, ensuring equity, and respecting all faculty, staff, and students at their college. We also broaden our definition of diversity that went beyond the normal things such as race, ethnicity, gender, age, etc. which include differences of opinions too.

In a very clear manner, each trustee described that they saw this work not only as their role and responsibility, and also as they worked to influence all others in the college environment to celebrate and look at diversity and inclusion as everyone's role. It may start with the trustees and chief executive, but the real work begins to happen when that perspective is embraced by all within the college community.

Restorative Justice

Restorative justice recognizes and acknowledges that racism permeates across and within communities, industries, and organizations, including colleges. Institutions that practice restorative justice recognize the responsibilities they have in addressing and confronting racism, particularly in the ways they make decisions, the guidance they provide, and the policies and practices they support and engage in.

Only Trustee #10 stated that his college went beyond simply instituting a DE&I plan. He stated his college had gone beyond merely trying to correct a wrong but to understanding the wrong and how best to amend the injustices that African American and other people of color had experienced. He described their approach as:

We have a vice president of diversity, equity, and inclusion. This person sits in the cabinet and reports directly to the president, and this is something I'm very proud of because it happened on my watch as a board member. So, when she was first hired we got away from the college for a couple of days and met. We told her as a board when she was hired, you have a dotted line to us if there are any issues, and the President knew that, and signed off on it.

It was very clear with the President, and we were very clear with her what the President hired her for. It was also shared with her that what she was hired for was going to be very important to us, and she would have a standing agenda item at every board meeting. But that was not the case when I first joined the board.

Also, we are going to be doing this summer a few days of training on restorative justice. Restorative justice is a different type of training, and there are specialists on campus who does this training. Our VP of Diversity Equity, and Inclusion have this person on staff who is phenomenal that does this restorative justice training. So, we as a board heard about this training that she did with faculty and staff, and how they were ranting, and raving about it. As I told you we have an agenda item called DE&I on our agenda at each board meeting. So that was one of the reports on the agenda item. So, while she was in the middle of a presentation. I just interrupted and said, would you provide this for others? They said they could do it for outsiders. You know, when you got faculty and I'm saying, you know across the board, all races singing the training praises. Then it's like we need to check this out. So, that's why the board is going to do the training because if the college sees it as beneficial we want to model the same behavior.

This participant also stated not only are leaders and trustees dogmatic about diversity, equity, and inclusion, but the state's leader also have a mandate that cascades down to each state college and the university. While this finding was described by only one trustee, it has been recognized as a best practice by the Trustee association (Association of Community College Trustees) when awarding the Equity Award, and by other trustees interviewed for this study.

Summary

This chapter presented an analysis of the research questions and a summary of the research findings presented by each research question. The researcher presented relevant themes and findings that were organized by the research questions within the study. They were analyzed from a Critical Race Theory, Critical Race Theory of Education, and Theory of Representative Bureaucracy frameworks. The following Chapter 5 includes a discussion of the findings of the study by research questions and offers conclusions and implications identified through extensive narrative data analysis and interpretation.

Chapter 5 - Summary, Discussion, and Recommendations

Chapter 5 presents an overview of the study, a discussion of the findings by the research question, recommendations for practice, findings related to the literature, implications for future research, a conclusion, and researcher reflections.

Overview of the Study

The purpose of this study was to develop a basic understanding of the lived experiences of African American trustee members within community colleges, their influence on a college diversity, equity, and inclusion (DE&I) strategy, and the effect that these trustees can have on the subsequent hiring of a diverse faculty and leadership teams. An analytical assessment of the findings revealed encouraging DE&I practices, described gaps in the selection of African American trustees, and their influence on the hiring and recruitment of faculty and leadership teams. Findings described how important having an advocate or mentor was and the critical support that they provided; that community or public service experience was essential preparation for the role of Trustee; that racism is still prevalent but there are policies and practices leadership can put in place to address those actions; that in these award-winning colleges diversity is viewed as a strength and not a weakness, accountability is paramount, and valuing those not like you is key. Finally, based on the findings, the inclusion of a restorative justice approach is needed to address biased perceptions of race and gender, systemic biases, and structural racism.

Three research questions guided the investigation:

1. What are the lived experiences of African American community college trustees in their role as trustees?

2. What impediments, barriers, or prejudices/biases have African American community college trustees observed that effect and impede the deeper diversification of college faculty, staff, and leadership?
3. What best practices might college trustees and CEOs undertake to influence a more diverse and inclusive environment, resulting in a more diverse college environment?

A narrative inquiry, using semi-structured interview questions derived from a Critical Race Theory (CRT), and Critical Race Theory in Education (CRTE) framework was the methodology employed for the study. The researcher created a system of data collection and analysis for the study using templates created by the researcher, with methods for reviewing, sorting, and confirming data validation. This qualitative research method and approach allowed the researcher to fully answer and address each research question.

Discussion of the Findings

Findings from the study related to the literature include the influence of state-appointed boards of trustees, the role/responsibility of trustees in the diversification of faculty and college leadership, and board members' capacity to influence diversity, equity, and inclusion. Earlier research indicated that political affiliation determined the selection of trustees. This study revealed that it did not influence the selection of appointed participants involved in this study. Also, earlier research suggested that it was the role/responsibility of trustees for the diversification of their faculty, and college leadership. Fujii (2014) presented a narrative supporting the use of CRT as an appropriate theoretical framework and its practicality in addressing the value of diversity and its minimization or eradication of racism in the community college hiring process. Similarly, Solórzano and Yosso (2002) argued that CRT for education is

different from other frameworks because it 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 communities of color. The study concurred and participants strongly believed that their college's leadership, faculty, and staff reflect that of their student population. Prior research pointed to the board of trustees' capacity to influence diversity, equity, and inclusion. According to the theory of representative bureaucracy (TRB), the expectation is that public administrators who possess the authority to influence public policy represent the people in terms of race, ethnicity, and sex (Bradbury & Kellough, 2011). It is imperative that leadership, staff, and faculty always mirror the character of the social structure of the population they serve. This researcher discovered that the study also revealed the same but there were mixed results on the application of this mandate.

Political Affiliation Had Little to No Impact

An analysis of the trustees' appointments revealed that the majority of the participants' political affiliation was irrelevant, no matter the process they followed to achieve trustee status. For example, only one out of the seven, or 14.3% of participants who were appointed by a governor had the same party affiliation. Meaning that both the participants and the governor were Democrats. On the other hand, a Republican governor appointed the other six remaining Democratic trustees. While there have been significant discussions and many who hold the perception that a highly politicized environment has affected the community college world, this researcher did not find that the current state of the political environment has generally impacted the process used to appoint or elect community college trustees in award-winning colleges.

Having an Advocate or Mentor is Critical

This researcher found that the presence of a mentor in the personal and professional life of the trustee was impactful and critical to the participants' successful selection as a trustee. For some participants, it was a political figure, and for others, it was a local businessman or a friend or colleague on the board. Regardless of the mentor's profession what was painstakingly obvious was that the participants had someone coaching, advising, or guiding them and networking on their behalf. It was this coaching that helped the trustee candidate gain the necessary experience, confidence, and local community visibility that eventually led to them being considered for the trustee role. They helped guide the individual and were at their side when needed to advise them and position them for their future success.

Community or Public Service Experience was Essential to Their Appointment

Research revealed that having community or public service experience was more important than one's political affiliation or having an advocate or mentor. The researcher found that developing public service skills, and a reputation for serving others got them noticed and positioned them within the community for their future appointment as trustee. As such, the trustee "got on the radar" of someone of influence who could advocate on their behalf and mentor the trustee.

As shown, serving was the key to getting noticed by others. In fact, the majority (six out of ten or 60%) of the participants were seen in the community as public servants and were considered for the trusteeship as a result of this visibility as an experienced public servant.

Racism Is Still Prevalent, Whether or Not You Recognize It

Though the researcher discovered that the participants did not profess to experience any direct form of racism from their fellow board members, the leadership team, or the college in general, racism was implicit in the selection method. For example, for the participants who were appointed (even though they might have been appointed by a government official or board whose affiliation differs from theirs) their ability to impact or influence change was perceived by participants to be minimal because they are unable to get the majority votes from their fellow trustees to change policy because in most cases they were the single minority on the board or there were only a few minority trustees.

Similarly, the process of getting appointed or elected had flaws or roadblocks. For the trustees who were appointed, the research determined that prior to being appointed one had to know the process or know someone who understood the process and was experienced with the process. Knowing someone who understood the process was a challenge in itself because the majority of board members, even at these award-winning colleges are older white males. Elected processes have similar barriers. A successful candidate must know when and where to file candidacy papers, must have or raise the funds to campaign, they must know how to run a campaign, what it means and takes to run for an office (how to manage a campaign), all of which has historically been closed processes to African Americans and other minorities.

Another finding made by the researcher was how trustees defined the barriers and impediments found within the process. While the male participants directly defined the barriers and impediments as racism, the female participants were reluctant to refer to the obstacles or situations as racism; instead referring to the phenomenon as conservatism or status quo.

Diversity Is Seen as a Strength, Not as a Weakness

Research revealed that all but one of these award-winning colleges had a DE&I mandate. Though all the other nine participants' colleges had a DE&I strategic plan, one of the participants stated that they were unclear about how it was been implemented. Nevertheless, the researcher observed that each of the colleges that were on the cutting edge of making DE&I inroads had it intertwined in their culture and this was their normal course of business.

The idea that equity was a strength of the college and not a weakness was a consistent message heard during the interviews. Developing this mindset of diversity and equity as a strength permeated the institution and was seen by college leadership and the Trustees as being mission-critical for the institution and the community and this mindset influenced their work and the institution as a whole.

Lack of Exposure and Accountability

The researcher observed from the study that participants believed the underrepresentation of African Americans and other minorities on their board of trustees is a result of a lack of exposure by potential trustees within the community. Lack of exposure appears to be a derivative of no accountability for if there is accountability then exposure would not be happenstance, all individuals within a community would have equal access and exposure. In other words, if left to happenstance, then the diversification of the trustees and then subsequently leadership and faculty will not become more diverse. Therefore, one needs to be intentional and active in actions.

Willingness to Serve the Community

As stated earlier, the lack of exposure can be a by-product. Though willingness to serve was clearly a theme of this study, the researcher found it was more likely a result of the lack of exposure within the community. Additionally, the researcher believed it was a theme because on several occasions the participants stated one of the reasons for some African Americans not being on the board of trustees was their unwillingness to serve.

The researcher believes the willingness (or perhaps the unwillingness) to serve is not a simple question of yes or no relative to volunteer work. It is much deeper and has to do with time, which no one has in abundance, especially those who live in impoverished communities.

The Privilege of Having Time

The element of time was discussed earlier and in a different context, however, in the final analysis, it boils down to whether one has time to serve or not. Though the individuals that the participants in this theme were referencing are not impoverished economically they still had limited time due to professional and family demands. To the researcher's surprise, time was found to be a rare commodity and must be exercised to the fullest to reap the most benefit, especially for those who are early into their career and/or have young families.

Political Makeup of Those Making the Selection

All participants stated that the political environment determined the selection process regardless of the method of selection. Though 87.5% (seven out of the eight participants who were appointed) were selected by a governor or school board whose political affiliation was different than theirs. However, one singular appointment was not adequate to change the overall

diversity makeup of the board; those who were in the majority (predominantly white trustees), concerning overall representation, did not change.

According to Critical Race Theory (CRT), the interest-convergence tenet states, the process in which White power structures tolerate or encourage racial advances happens only if they promote White self-interest (Bell, 2000; Delgado, 1995). The researcher observed that in numerous situations Republican entities appointed Democrats but with the context of remaining in control of the overall majority. It gave the appearance of advancing equality while still maintaining control or power.

Valuing Those Who Are Not Like You

The researcher discovered that race and racism were identified as key impediments, barriers, or prejudices/biases that African American trustees observed within their college and that affected and impeded deeper diversification. Though the majority 87.5% (seven out of eight) of the participants were appointed they were not completely sure that their presence on the board was fully appreciated.

Additionally, the research demonstrated that valuing those who are not like you is not something that can be forced on individuals or institutions and must become part of the culture of the college if there is a plan to achieve true equity and inclusion. As the participant above reported his college has broadened the definition of diversity, which includes opinion. Also, the researcher noted that a commonality among all the participants, was it did not matter how you referred to the underrepresentation, be it as racism, conservatism, good old boy system, the old guard or simply as needlessness, the intent was the same, that the institutional system (or process) was protecting the institutional system.

Also, the researcher found that the award-winning colleges in the study have become leaders in the quest for racial equity and informed advocates for all that are experiencing marginalization. Furthermore, the colleges researched in the study are leading the way, sharing the models and showing that embedding diversity, equity, and inclusion is not a weakness, but a strength. These colleges do this by:

- Fostering a college climate of equity, civility, and inclusion that is welcoming to all.
- Providing an ongoing forum for uncomfortable conversations through the talents and resources already in place.
- Supporting and expanding professional development efforts of offices and initiatives.
- Reviewing academic and administrative policies to eliminate and/or revise those that no longer fit the needs of the college's diverse student, faculty, and staff demographics, and facing head-on the data that shows deficiencies gaps among minority students.

These institutions realize that diverse colleges are more productive and are effective in recruiting, hiring, training, and retaining talented people.

Equity Advocate – Diversity and Inclusion is Everyone's Job

All the participants believed that equity meant equal access to all, not merely based on race and gender but also include disability, family, employment, transportation, food, etc. Furthermore, the research observed that one participant was dogmatic about diversity and inclusion being everyone's job. Similarly, the researcher observed that the colleges that were the recipient of the ACCT Equity Award was serious about DE&I and it was prevalent in all that they do.

Restorative Justice

One participant's college that practiced restorative justice recognized and acknowledged that racism permeated across and within communities, industries, and organizations, including their college. To them, restorative justice meant that they are responsible for addressing and confronting racism, particularly in the ways they make decisions, the guidance they provide, and the policies and practices they support and engage throughout our fabrics within the college.

Furthermore, the participant stated that his college went beyond simply instituting a DE&I plan. He stated his college had gone beyond merely trying to correct a wrong but to understanding the wrong and how best to amend the injustices that African American and other people of color had experienced. This participant also stated not only is his college very serious about diversity, equity, and inclusion, but the state has a mandate that it is passed down to state colleges and universities. The researcher found that if it was a high priority of the state government then it would perhaps be easier to implement for local community colleges. Nevertheless, it must still be a top priority of both the board of trustees and the CEO for it to be meaningful and institutionalized.

Recommendations for Practice

This study identified several inadequacies that impacted the underrepresentation of African American board of trustees and their subsequent influence on diversity, equity, and inclusion at community colleges. Based on the data gathered and analyzed, ten recommendations to improve practice are presented here to provide a roadmap for a more diverse equity-oriented college. If implemented, these recommendations should prepare the college to recruit, interview,

and hire more diverse types of leaders and faculty. The recommendations for practice for this study are:

1. Broaden the definition of diversity to include opinions. Participants didn't feel that they were valued. Expanding the definition of diversity will foster a college climate of equity, civility, and inclusion that is welcoming to all.
2. Potential trustee candidates should intentionally work to gain meaningful experience before joining a college Trustee role by volunteering or serving on community boards such as their YMCA, the local branches of the Urban League and NAACP, Salvation Army, Girls & Boys Club of America, Foundations, or at faith-based organizations.
3. To ensure that equity is a clear part of the vision and mission of the college, the institution's DE&I officers were found to be more effective having a dotted line reporting relationship to the board of trustees and should regularly report at Trustee meetings on institutional goals and progress on diversity and equity efforts.
4. Additionally, trustees should intentionally develop policies that supports DE&I, and should regularly receive reports reviewing academic and administrative goals and actions that no longer fit the needs of community colleges' diverse student, faculty, and staff demographics.
5. Trustees were found to be more effective when they regularly participate in professional development (PD) at ACCT, they should also encourage members of their college trustees and other trustees to serve on the Diversity Equity committee and support and expand PD efforts of offices and initiatives across the college.
6. Trustees should intentionally place measurable expectation and hold the college leadership team accountable for broadening hiring/recruitment practices, and conduct

celebrations of diversity advocates and champions on the campus and in the community.

7. Trustees should establish a diversity advocate function on the board of trustees and receive reports on all hiring committees' recruitment and interview processes.
8. Create a Senior Leadership Council whose main function is to reinforce diversity, equity, and inclusion strategies as imperative business drivers.
9. Form student, faculty, and staff resource group where virtual spaces can be created for employees to feel safe and share authentic experiences.
10. Recognizing that Trustee professional development is critical to the future of the field, it is recommended that the nationally recognized CCLP programs at the John E. Roueche Center for Community College Leadership at Kansas State University, work with the ACCT Board and Diversity Committee to design and implement a national trustee training and development program. The program would have a focus on the diversification of American Community College Trustees and could become a resource to community college trustees nationwide. The program would also support the development of equity and inclusion policy and practice development and would support the diversification of the Trustee members at colleges nationally and the diversification of faculty and executives hired at American Community Colleges.

Findings Related to the Literature

Influence of state-appointed Board of Trustees

Though the study revealed that the political affiliation of the appointing governor appeared not to influence his/her appointment of trustees, racism was still prevalent on the college campuses of the participants. Nevertheless, the findings in the study suggested that

current African American trustees needed to work toward getting more representation of minorities on their boards by encouraging members of the African American community to serve on other boards to gain meaningful experience.

The role/responsibility of trustees in the diversification of faculty and college leadership

There was a unanimous consensus among the participants that their college's leadership, faculty, and staff should reflect that of their student population. However, there were various approaches to how it was getting done. For example, one participant stated they have a DE&I officer but she is not sure of exactly what the officer does. Another shared it is part of the fiber of their institution and carried out through their president's DE&I advisory council. One other participant shared it is vibrant and running at full throttle because the DE&I officer reports monthly to the board of trustees on exactly what is happening through the officer's department.

The board members' capacity to influence diversity, equity, and inclusion

Though the board sets policy and manages the application of policy through the president's leadership, one can only manage what they measure. Meaning if the board is not getting monthly or at least quarterly reports from the office of their DE&I person they are likely not to know of what inroads are being made or if it's a major concern of the president and his/her leadership team. As stated earlier, the colleges that are serious about DE&I have made it their normal way of doing business at their institution.

Implication for Further Research

This study presents an essential look at African American boards of trustees at community colleges, describing their lived experiences. Implications or opportunities for further research include:

- 1) Conduct further research to focus on critical elements of diversity, equity, and inclusion from the voices of African American trustees.
- 2) Broadening the definition of diversity to include opinion. Participants in this study didn't feel that they were valued, and this research could foster a college climate of equity, civility, and inclusion that is welcoming to all.
- 3) Recommend and conduct research around the development of institutional policy that supports DE&I and requires professional development at ACCT.
- 4) Conduct future research focused on ACCT Equity Award recipients around the country and how these colleges have instituted DE&I policy to add a practical contribution to the field.
- 5) Research and evaluate trustee preparation programs around diversity, equity, and inclusion training and how this would contribute to the field. An evaluation of cultural training for stakeholders—including college presidents/CEOs, national associations, boards of trustees, faculty, and staff - and its impact on change would be practical contributions to the field. Such studies would strengthen and deepen the understanding of the issues, qualities, and conditions and support the value of current and future African American trustees, leadership, faculty, and staff of color at community colleges. Studies on the impact of cultural competency training among stakeholder groups as part of formal leadership and professional development would benefit the field by measuring how well these can address the lack of diversity among African American trustees and other trustees of color at community colleges.

- 6) Conduct research on institutional culture and the impact that it may have on the community college's leadership. That study should consider where a majority of African American and people of color as trustees could help to inform practice.
- 7) Further research of community colleges that are proven high-achievers and how they strategize and implement their quest for excellence. Organizations with a deep and committed focus on diversity in higher education such as ACCT, Aspen, and other associations could be used as models to assess diversity, equity, and inclusion. Modeling these colleges of excellence and replicating their metrics and benchmarks can be used as practical applications to the field.

Conclusion

This dissertation research study offered a major opportunity to explore the lived experiences of African American boards of trustees within community colleges. This study shared narratives from a mixed group of ten African American trustees representing seven states across the United States. Eight community college institution types comprised state colleges, and technical colleges in urban/suburban, suburban, and rural communities.

Findings from the study indicate that though the number of African American trustees has increased from a historical standpoint, yet racism is still alive and active. However, the colleges that saw diversity as a strength and not a weakness are performing in a stellar fashion according to ACCT. Stated differently, a participant shared, "Equity and inclusion are in everything that we do. It may be because our president is openly gay and he shared with me that every day that he wakes up, he is reminded that he is gay".

Despite efforts to change the trajectory of DE&I at community colleges, this study affirmed that the number of African American trustees and other trustees of color is expanding

leisurely. Also, this study delivered a diagnostic narrative about several factors that contribute to the lack of African American trustees at community colleges. The prototype of a community college trustee as a white male (or female) presents an impediment to assuring that African American trustees, leadership, faculty, and staff of color reflect that of their student population. This study and those that follow as recommendations in implications for further research help to inform how American community colleges recruit, develop and support trustees in their DE&I efforts.

Narrative inquiries into the African American board of trustees' lived experience at community colleges provided insights for understanding how to increase representation, narrow the gap, and how to change DE&I policies and implement strategies. Simply trying to increase the number of African American (or people of color) trustees or trying to influence DE&I policies without fully understanding their lived experiences, may be inadequate when addressing the needs of DE&I in today's environment. This research study highlighted the importance of investment or continued investment and support in professional development for African American trustees, leadership, faculty, and staff of color in diversifying those who operate their colleges. Today's community colleges fail to mirror the racial and ethnic diversity of their students. Narrative inquiries were valuable in understanding this phenomenon.

Implications of this study include adding voice to the literature on the phenomena experienced by African American trustees at community colleges during their journey and as governing members of the board. The theoretical implications of this study consist of exploring the phenomenon through an integrated lens of CRT, CRTE, and TRB in exploring institutional structures that impede progression. Examining the perceptions of current African American

trustees who serve as committee members on the ACCT Diversity Board or whose college is a current or previous winner of the ACCT Equity Award community college presidents will inform practice and makes a practical, theoretical, and institutional contribution by adding to the literature and field on the lived experiences of African American trustees within community colleges.

References

- Aguirre, A. R., & Martinez, R.O. (2006). Diversity leadership in higher education. *ASHE Higher Education Report*, 32(3), 1-113. <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ791632>
- Alexander, M. (2010). *The new Jim Crow: Mass incarceration in the age of colorblindness*. New Press.
- Allen, R. A., Epps, E. G., Guillory, E. A., Suh, S. A., & Bonous-Hammarth, M. (2000). The Black academic: Faculty status among African American in U.S. higher education. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 69(1/2), 112–127. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/2696268>
- Allen, R. L. (2001). The globalization of White supremacy: Toward a critical discourse on the racialization of the world. *Educational Theory*, 51(4), 467-486.
<https://doi.org/doi:10.1111/j.1741-5446.2001.00467.x>
- Allen, W. R. (1992). The color of success: African American college student outcomes at predominantly White and historically Black public colleges and universities. *Harvard Education Review*, 62(1), 26-45.
- Allen, W. R., Teranishi, R., Dinwiddie, G., & Gonzales, G. (2000). Knocking at freedom's door: Race, equity and affirmative action in U.S. higher education. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 69(1-2), 3-11. <https://doi.org/doi:10.2307/3343241>
- American Association of Community Colleges. (2016). 2010 fact sheet.
<http://www.aacc.nche.edu>
- American Association of Community Colleges. (2018). 2018 fact sheet.
<http://www.aacc.nche.edu>

- American Federation of Teachers. (2010). Promoting racial and ethnic diversity in the faculty: What higher education unions can do. Washington, DC: *American Federation of Teachers*. <https://www.aft.org/sites/default/files/facultydiversity0310.pdf>
- Anderson, J. (1988). The education of Blacks in the south, 1860–1935. University of North Carolina Press.
- Anderson, J. (2007). Race-conscious educational policies versus a color-blind constitution: A historical perspective. *Educational Researcher*, 36, 249–257.
- Association of Community College Trustees. (2018). Equity action agenda for community college governance with the endorsement of the diversity, equity and inclusion committee. [https://www.acct.org/files/Trustee%20Education/Publications/ACCT8102%20\(Equity%20Action%20Agenda%20Report\)FINAL-web.pdf](https://www.acct.org/files/Trustee%20Education/Publications/ACCT8102%20(Equity%20Action%20Agenda%20Report)FINAL-web.pdf)
- Association of Community College Trustees. (2020). Trusteeship in community colleges: A guide for effective governance. Second Edition. Washington, DG: *Association of Community College Trustees*.
- Association of Community College Trustees. (2022). <https://www.acct.org/>
- Association of Governing Boards and Universities and Colleges (2010). Policies, Practices, and Composition of Governing Boards of Public Colleges, Universities and Systems. Washington, D.C.
- Bell, D. A. (2000). Brown v. Board of Education: Forty-five years after the fact. *Ohio Northern Law Review*, 26, 1–171.
- Betts, K., Urias, D., Chavez, J., & Betts, B. (2009). Higher education and shifting U.S. demographics: Need for visible administrative career paths, professional development,

- succession planning & commitment to diversity. *Academic Leadership Empirical Research*, 7(2), 1-9. <https://scholars.fhsu.edu/>
- Blauner, B. (2001). *Still the big news: Racial oppression in America*. Temple University Press.
- Bonilla-Silva, E. (2003). *Racism without racists*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Bower, B. L. (2002). Campus life for faculty of color: Still strangers after all these years? *New Directions for Community College*, 87(118), 79–87.
- Bradbury, M. D., & Kellough, J. E. (2008). Representative bureaucracy: Exploring the potential for active representation in local government. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 18(4), 697-714. <https://doi.org/doi:10.1093/jopart/mum033>
- Bradbury, M., & Kellough, E. (2011). Representative bureaucracy: Assessing the evidence on active representation. *American Review of Public Administration*, 41(2), 157-167. <https://doi.org/doi:10.1177/0275074010367823>
- Brief, A. P., Buttram, R. T., Reizenstein, R. M., Pugh, S. D., Callahan, J. D., McCline, R. L., & Vaslow, J. B. (1997). Beyond good intentions: The next step towards racial equality in the American workplace. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 11(4), 59-72. <https://doi.org/doi:10.5465/ame.1997.9712024839>
- Brief, A. P., & Hayes, E. L. (1997). The continuing “American dilemma”: Studying racism in organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 89-105. <https://www.wiley.com/en-us/Journal+of+Organizational+Behavior>
- Brubacher, J., & Rudy, W. (1997). *Higher education in transition: A history of American colleges and universities, 1636–1976* (4th ed.). Transition.

- Buchanan, L., Bui, Q., and Patel, J. (2020, July). Black lives matter may be the largest movement in U.S. History. The New York Times.
<https://www.nytimes.com/interactive/2020/07/03/us/george-floyd-protests-crowdsize.html>
- Buller, J. (2015) Change leadership in higher education: A practical guide to academic transformation. Jossey-Bass.
- Burden, J., Harrison, L, & Hodge, S. (2005). Perceptions of African American faculty in Kinesiology – based programs at predominantly Whit American institution of higher education. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sports*, Vol. 76, No. 2, pp. 224-237.
<https://doi.org/doi:10.1080/02701367.2005.10599283>. PMID: 16128489.
- Burden, J., Hodge, S., & Harrison, L. (2012). Teacher educators’ views about social justice pedagogies in physical education teacher education. *Journal of Curriculum and Teaching*, 1(1), 6. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1157815.pdf>
- Bustillos, L. T., Siqueiros, M., & Bates, A. (2018, March). Left Out: How exclusion in California’s Colleges and Universities hurts our values, our students, and our economy.
<https://files.acrobat.com/a/preview/050565f2-1ce9-485c-af4f-ec18cdfc8046>
- Byrd-Chichester, J. (2000). The federal courts and claims of racial discrimination in higher education. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 69(1/2), 12-27.
<http://www.journalnegroed.org/>
- Carbado, D. W., & Gulati, M. (2003). The law and economics of critical race theory. *Yale Law Review*, 112(7), 1757-1828. <https://www.yalelawjournal.org>
- Chen, J. M., & Hamilton, D. L. (2015). Understanding diversity: The importance of social acceptance. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 41(4), 586-598.
<https://doi.org/doi:10.1177/0146167215573495>

- Chesler, M., Lewis, A., & Crowfoot, J. E. (2005). Challenging racism in higher education: Promoting justice. Rowman & Littlefield.
- Cohen, A. M., Brawer, F. B., & Kisker, C. B. (2014). The American community college (6th ed.). Jossey-Bass.
- Community College Research Center. (2019). Community college FAQs. <https://ccrc.tc.columbia.edu/Community-College-FAQs.html>.
- Crenshaw, K., Gotanda, N., Peller, G., & Thomas, K. (1995). Critical race theory: The key writings that formed the movement. The New Press.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach (4th edition). Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. & Creswell, J. (2018). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-method approach. 5th edition. Sage Publication.
- Daufin, E. K. (2001). Minority faculty job experience, expectations, and satisfaction. *Journalism & Mass Communication Educator*, 56(1), 18–30.
- Davis, F. J. (1991). Who is Black? One nation's definition: Frontline. <https://www.pbs.org/wgbh/pages/frontline/shows/jefferson/mixed/onedrop.html>
- Davis, J. E. (1994). College in Black and White: Campus environment and academic achievement of African American males. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 63(4), 620-633. <https://doi.org/doi:10.2307/2967299>
- Delgado, R. (1995). Critical race theory: The cutting edge. Temple University Press.
- Delgado, R., & Stefancic, J. (2001). Critical race theory: An introduction. New York University Press.

- Delgado, R., & Stefancic, J. (2012). *Critical race theory: An introduction*. New York University Press.
- Delgado, R & Stefancic, J. (2013). *Critical race theory: the cutting edge*. 3rd edition. Temple University Press.
- Delgado, R., & Stefancic, J. (2017). *Critical race theory*. New York University Press.
- DeSousa, J. (2001). Reexamining the educational pipeline for African-American students. In L. Jones (Ed.), *Retaining African Americans in higher education: Challenging paradigms for retaining students, faculty, and administrators* (pp. 21- 44). Stylus Publishing.
- Dixon, A. & Rousseau, C. (2005). And we are still not saved: critical race theory in education ten years later. *Race Ethnicity and Education*. Vol. 8, No. 1, March 2005, pp. 7-27.
- DuBois, W. E. B. (1903). *The souls of Black folks*. Oxford University Press
- Espinosa, L. L., Turk, J. M., Taylor, M., & Chessman, H. (2019). Race and ethnicity in higher education: A status report. *American Council on Education*.
<https://www.equityinhighered.org/resources/report-downloads/>
- Feagin, J. R., & Sikes, M. P. (1994). *Living with racism: The Black middle-class experience*. Beacon Press.
- Fleming, J., Gill, G., & Swinton, D. (1978). *The case of affirmative action for blacks in higher education*. Howard University Press.
- Fujii, S. J. (2014). Diversity, communication, and leadership in the community college faculty search process. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, 38(10), 903-916.
<https://doi.org/doi:10.1080/10668926.2012.725387>

- Fujimoto, E. O. (2012). Hiring diverse faculty members in community colleges: A case study in ethical decision making. *Community College Review*, 40(3), 255–274.
<https://doi.org/doi:10.1177/0091552112450069>
- Gagliardi, J. S., Espinosa, L. L., Turk, J. M., & Taylor, M. (2017). American college president study 2017. American Council on Education. Center for Policy Research and Strategy.
<https://www.aceacps.org/>
- Galarrraga, F. (2014). Diversity at work: The practice of inclusion. *Journal of Psychological Issues in Organizational Culture*, 5(1), 73-80. <https://doi.org/doi:10.1002/jpoc.21132>
- Gall, M., Gall, J. & Borg, W. (2007). Educational research: An introduction. 8th edition. Allyn and Bacon.
- Gay, L. & Airasian, P. (2003), Educational Research: Competencies for analysis and application. 7 Edition. Prentice-Hall.
- Glazer, N. (2000). Society needs affirmative action in higher education. Affirmative Action.
<http://archive.wilsonquarterly.com/inessence/reconsidering-affirmative-action>
- Greenbank, P. (2003). The role of values in educational research: The case for reflexivity. *British Educational Research Journal*, 29(6), 791-801.
<https://doi.org/doi:10.1080/0141192032000137303>
- Green, P. E. (1999). Separate and still unequal: Legal challenges to school tracking and ability grouping in America's public schools. In L. Parker, D. Deyhl, & S. Villenas (Eds.), *Race is . . . Race isn't: Critical race theory and qualitative studies in education* (pp. 231–250). Westview Press.
- Griffin, K., Muniz, M. & Espinosa, L. (2012). The influence of campus racial climate on diversity in graduate education. *Review of Higher Education*. Vol. 35, Iss.4, (Jul 2012 –

Sep 2012): 535.

<https://fas.columbia.edu/files/fas/content/Influence%20of%20racial%20climate%20and%20graduate%20education%20--%20Griffin%20et%20al.%202012.pdf>

Hamilton, C. (1992). Affirmative action and the clash of experiential realities. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 523, 10–18. <https://www-jstor-org.er.lib.k-state.edu/stable/1047576?seq=1>

Hammarberg, K., Kirkman, M., & de Lacey, S. (2016). Qualitative research methods: When to use them and how to judge them. *Human Reproduction*, 31(3), 498–501.

Harper, S. (2012). Race without racism: How higher education researchers minimize racist institutional norms. *Review of Higher Education*. Vol. 36, Iss.1, (Oct 2012 - Dec 2012): 9-29.

Harris, C. (1993). Whiteness as property. *Harvard Law Review*, 106, 1707–1791.

Harvey, W. B., & Valadez, J. (1994). Creating and maintaining a diverse faculty. *New Directions for Community Colleges*, 22(3), 19–25.

Hicklin, A.; Meier, K.J. (2008). Race, structure, and state governments: The Politics of higher education diversity. *The Journal of Politics*. Vol. 70, No. 3, pp. 851-860.

Hiraldo, P. (2010). The role of critical race theory in higher education. *The Vermont Connection*, 31, 53-59. <https://www.uvm.edu/~vtconn/>

Hodge, S. R., & Corbett, D.R. (2013). Diversity in kinesiology: Theoretical and contemporary considerations. *Kinesiology review* (Champaign, Ill.), 2013, Vol.2(3), p156-169.

Hodge, S. R., Faison-Hodge, J., & Burden, J., Jr. (2004). Politics, pitfalls, and precedents: Going beyond tokenism in diversifying physical education faculty in higher education. *Chronicle of Kinesiology and Physical Education in Higher Education*, 15, 6–7, 12–13.

- Jayakumar, U., Howard, T., Allen, W., & Han, J. (2009a). Racial Privilege in the Professoriate: An Exploration of Campus Climate, Retention, and Satisfaction. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 80(5), 538-563. <https://doi.org/doi:10.1080/00221546.2009.11779031>
- Jayakumar, U., Howard, T., Allen, W., & Han, J. (2009b). Racial Privilege in the Professoriate: An Exploration of Campus Climate, Retention, and Satisfaction. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 80(5), 538-563. <https://doi.org/doi:10.1080/00221546.2009.11779031>
- Jayakumar, U., Howard, T., Allen, W., & Han, J. (2009c). Racial Privilege in the Professoriate: An Exploration of Campus Climate, Retention, and Satisfaction. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 80(5), 538-563. <https://doi.org/doi:10.1080/00221546.2009.11779031>
- Jayakumar, U., Howard, T., Allen, W., & Han, J. (2009d). Racial Privilege in the Professoriate: An Exploration of Campus Climate, Retention, and Satisfaction. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 80(5), 538-563. <https://doi.org/doi:10.1080/00221546.2009.11779031>
- Johnstone, G. (2011). Restorative justice: Ideas, values, debates (2nd ed.). Routledge.
- Jones, W. A. (2007). Living with a majority-minority mindset. *Diverse Issues in Higher Education*, 24(15), 29. <http://diverseeducation.com/article>
- Kaplin, W. A., & Lee, B. A. (2014). The law of higher education (5th ed.). Jossey-Bass.
- Kaplowitz, M. D. (2001). Assessing mangrove products and services at the local level: The use of focus groups and individual interviews. *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 56, 53-60. [https://doi.org/doi:10.1016/S0169-2046\(01\)00170-0](https://doi.org/doi:10.1016/S0169-2046(01)00170-0)
- Kawewe, S. (1997). Black women in diverse academic settings: Gender and racial crimes of commission and omission in academia. In L. Benjamin (Ed.), *Black women in the academy: Promises and perils* (pp. 263–269). University Press of Florida.

- Kayes, P. E. (2006). New paradigms for diversifying faculty and staff in higher education: Uncovering cultural biases in the search and hiring process. *Multicultural Education*, 14(2), 65–69.
- Kim, J. (2016). *Understanding narrative inquiry*. Sage Publishing.
- Kingsley, J. D. (1946). Representative bureaucracy: An interpretation of the British civil service. *The American Historical Review*, 52(1), 129-132. <https://doi.org/doi:10.2307/1845094>
- Laden, B. V., & Hagedorn, L. S. (2000). Job satisfaction among faculty of color in academe: Individual survivors or institutional transformers? *New Directions for Institutional Research*, 105(1), 57–66.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (2005). The evolving role of critical race theory in educational scholarship. *Race Ethnicity and Education*. Vol. 8, No. 1, March 2005, pp. 115-119.
- Ladson-Billings, G., & Tate, W. (1995). Toward a critical race theory of education. *Teachers College Record*, 97, 47–68. <https://ksu-illiad-oclc-org.er.lib.k-state.edu/illiad/illiad.dll?Action=10&Form=75&Value=1062315>
- Ladson-Billings, G. (1998). Just what is critical race theory and what's it doing in a nice field like education? *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 11(1), 7-24. <https://doi.org/doi:10.1080/095183998236863332>
- Ladson-Billings, G. (2013). Critical race theory—What it is not! In M. Lynn, & A. D. Dixon (Eds.). *The handbook of critical race theory in education*. (pp. 34–47). Routledge.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (2014). Culturally relevant pedagogy 2.0: a.k.a. the remix. *Harvard Educational Review*. 84, 74–84.
- Ladson-Billings, G., & Tate, W.F. (1995). Toward a critical race theory of education. *Teachers College Record*, 97(1), 47–68.

- Larson, A. D. (1973). Representative bureaucracy and administrative responsibility: A reassessment. *Midwest Journal of Public Administration*, 7(1), 79-89.
- Levin, J.S., Walker, L., Jackson-Boothby, A., & Harberler, Z. (2013). Community colleges and their faculty of color: Matching teachers and students. California Community College Collaborative, the University of California at Riverside.
http://c4.ucr.edu/documents/GSP2report_C4finalJuly152013.pdf
- Levin, J. S., Haberler, Z., Walker, L., & Jackson-Boothby, A. (2014). Community college culture and faculty of color. *Community College Review*, 42(1), 55–74.
<https://doi.org/doi:10.1177/0091552113512864>
- Levin, J. S., Walker, L., Haberler, Z., & Boothby, A. (2013). The divided self: The double consciousness of faculty of color in community colleges. *Community College Review*, 41(4), 311–329. <https://doi.org/doi:10.1177/0091552113504454>
- Lincoln, Y.S. & Guba, E.G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Sage Publications.
- Lords, E. (2002). Keeping Jim Crow alive: A Ferris State University museum aims to use the pain of racist and offensive material to educate and foster racial healing. *Black Issues – Diverse Issues in Higher Education*, 19(8), 28-31. <https://diverseeducation.com/>
- Lynn, M., & Adams, M. (2002). Introductory overview to the special issue critical race theory and education: Recent development in the field. *Equity & Excellence in Education*, 35(2), 87-92. <https://doi.org/doi:10.1080/713845285>
- Lynn, M., Benigno, G., Williams, D. A., Park, G., & Mitchell, C. (2006). Critical theories of race, class, and gender in urban education. *Encounter*, 19(2), 17-25.
www.ferris.edu/jimcrow.

- Lynn, M., & Parker, L. (2006). Critical race studies in education: Examining a decade of research on U.S. schools. *The Urban Review*, 38(4), 257-290.
<https://doi.org/doi:10.1007/s11256-006-0035-5>
- Marable, M. (1996). Stay on the path to racial equality. In G. E. Curry (Ed.), *The affirmative action debate*. Addison-Wesley.
- Marable, M. (2008). Blacks in higher education: An endangered species.
<http://www.nathanielturner.com/blacksinhighereducation.htm>
- Martin, A. L. (2014). Fifty years after integration: Have we overcome? *Journal of Higher Education Management*, 29(1), 4-15. <http://www.ijhem.com/>
- McNeal, L. R. (2009). Re-segregation of public education now and after the Brown v. Board of Education. *Education and Urban Society*, 41(5), 562-574.
<https://doi.org/doi:10.1177.0013124509333578>
- Meier, K. J. (1975). Representative bureaucracy: An empirical analysis. *The American Political Science Review*, 69(2), 526-542. <https://doi.org/doi:10.2307/1959084>
- Meier, K. J., & Nigro, L. (1976). Representative bureaucracy and policy preferences: A study in the attitudes of federal executives. *Public Administration Review*, 36(4), 458-469.
<https://doi.org/doi:10.2307/974854>
- Meier, K. J., & Smith, K. (1994). Representative democracy and representative bureaucracy: Examining the top-down and bottom-up linkages. *Social Science Quarterly*, 75, 790-803.
<http://socialsciencequarterly.org/>
- Menzel, D., & White, H. (2011). The state of public administration: Issues, challenges, and opportunities. M.E. Sharpe.

- Moltz, D. (2009). Who are community college trustees? *Inside Higher Ed*. April 6, 2009.
<https://www.insidehighered.com/news/2009/04/06/who-are-community-college-trustees>
- Moore, W. (1973). The community college board of trustees: A question of competency. *The Journal of Education*, Vol. 44, No. 3, pp. 171-190.
- Munday, N., Angel, R., Anik, M., Clay, S., Justice, L., Maea, C., McKinley, G., Merrill, T., & Rosenthal, A. (2019). Increasing Diversity of Faculty and Administrators in the Virginia Community College System. *Inquiry: The Journal of the Virginia Community Colleges*, 22 (1). <https://commons.vccs.edu/inquiry/vol22/iss1/4>
- National Center for Education Statistics (NCES). (n.d.).
<https://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts/display.asp?id=61>
- National Center for Educational Statistics. (2019). Digest for education statistics: Characteristics of postsecondary faculty. https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_csc.asp
- National Women's Law Center. (2000). Affirmative action and what it means for women.
- Author
- Palmer, R. T., Davis, J. R., Moore, J. L., & Hilton, A. A. (2010). A nation at risk: Increasing college participation and persistence among African American males to stimulate U.S. global competitiveness. *Journal of African American Males In Education*. 1(2), 105-124.
<http://www.journalofafricanamericanmales.com>
- Parker, L., & Villalpando, O. (2007). A racialized perspective on education leadership: Critical race theory in educational administration. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 43, 519-524. <https://doi.org/doi:10.1177/0010013161X07307795>

- Perna, L. (2002). Retaining African Americans in higher education: Challenging paradigms for retaining students, faculty, and administrators. *The Journal of Higher Education*. Columbus. Vol. 73, Iss. 5, (Sep/Oct 2002): 652-659.
- Pierce, C. M., Carew, J. V., Pierce-Gonzales, D., & Willis, D. (1977, November 1). An experiment in racism: TV commercials. *Education and Urban Society*, 10(1), 61- 87.
<https://doi.org/doi:10.1177/001312457701000105>
- Polino, N. & Miller, E. (2012). 2012 public community college governing boards: Structure and composition. Association of Community College Trustees. Washington, D.C.
- Pietkiewicz, I., & Smith, J. (2014). A practical guide to using interpretative phenomenological analysis in qualitative research psychology. *Psychological Journal*, 18(2), 361-369.
<https://doi.org/doi:10:14691/CPPJ.20.1.7>
- Plessy v. Ferguson, 163 U.S. 537 (1896).
- Ragins, B. R. (1997). Diversified mentoring relationships in organizations: A power perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 22(2), 482-521. <https://doi.org/doi:10.2307/259331>
- Rai, K. B., & Critzer, J. W. (2000). Affirmative action and the university: Race, ethnicity, and gender in higher education employment. University of Nebraska Press.
- Reh fuss, J. A. (1986). A representative bureaucracy? Women and minority executives in California career services. *Public Administration Review*, 46(5), 454-460.
<https://doi.org/doi:10.2307/975785>
- Rifkin, T. (2008, October 22). Public community college faculty. American Association of Community Colleges. <http://www.aacc.nche.edu/Resources/aaccprograms/pastprojects/Pages/publicccfaculty.aspx>

- Robinson, A. R., Byrd, D., Louis, D. A., & Bonner, F. A. (2013). Enhancing faculty diversity at community colleges: A practical solution for advancing the completion agenda. Focus on Colleges, Universities, and Schools, 7(1), 1–11.
- Rosenberg, G. (2004). The 1964 Civil Rights Act: The crucial role of social movements in the enactment and implementation of anti-discrimination law. *Saint Louis University Law Journal*, 49(1147), 1147-1153. <https://www.slu.edu/law/law-journal/>
- Russell, J., Hodge, S., Frank, A. & Vaughn, M. (2019). Academic administrators' belief about diversity. *National Association for Kinesiology in Higher Education*. Vol. 71, No. 1, 66-89. <https://www.tandfonline-com.er.lib.k-state.edu/doi/pdf/10.1080/00336297.2018.1525569?needAccess=true>
- Rusch, E. A., & Horsford, S. D. (2009). Changing hearts and minds: The quest for open talk about race in educational leadership. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 23, 302-313. <https://doi.org/doi:10.1108/09513540910957408>
- Sabharwal, M. (2014). Is diversity management sufficient? Organizational inclusion to further performance. *Public Personnel Management*, 43(2), 197-217. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0091026014522202>
- Sadao, K. C. (2003). Living in Two Worlds: Success and the Bicultural Faculty of Color. *Review of Higher Education*: Baltimore, Vol. 26, Iss. 4, (Summer 2002): 397-5_5. <https://www.proquest.com/docview/220824044?accountid=11789&cid=CID:20221120155530497:732085&fromOL=true&parentSessionId=0CWewsB%2BbVfgg83Kn%2BFHMuI%2F3rXMGdw4O6BtGgaA4Gs%3D>

- Sears, D. O., Van Laar, C., Carrillo, M., & Kosterman, R. (1997). Is it really racism? The origin of white Americans' opposition to race-targeted policies. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 61(1), 16-53. <https://doi.org/doi:10.1086/297785>
- Selden, S. C. (1997). *The promise of representative bureaucracy: Diversity and responsiveness in a government agency*. Routledge.
- Selingo, J., Chheng, S. and Clark, C. (2017). *Pathways to the university presidency: The future of higher education leadership*. Deloitte's Center for Higher Education Excellence and Georgia Institute for Technology's Center for 21st Century Universities (C21U). Deloitte University Press.
- https://www2.deloitte.com/content/dam/insights/us/articles/3861_Pathways-to-theuniversity-presidency/DUP_Pathways-to-the-university-presidency.pdf
- Seltzer, R. (2017, June 20). The slowly diversifying presidency.
- <https://www.insidehighered.com/news/>
- Sethna, B. (2011). Minorities in higher education: A pipeline problem? *Research in Higher Education Journal*. Vol. 13 (Oct 2011): 18. <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1068802>
- Sleeter, C., & Bernal, D. D. (2004). Critical pedagogy, critical race theory, and antiracist education: Implications for multicultural education. In J. A. Banks & C. M. Banks (Eds.), *The handbook of research on multicultural education* (pp. 240–258). Macmillan.
- Smith, C. J. (2000). *Trusteeship in Community Colleges: A Guide for Effective Governance*. The Association of Community Colleges Trustees. Washington, D.C.
- Snyder, D. & Hoffman, C. M. (2007). Digest of education statistics, 2006. *National Center for Education Statistics*. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED497523.pdf>

- Solórzano, D., Ceja, M., & Yosso, T. (2000). Critical race theory, racial microaggressions, and campus racial climate: The experiences of African American college students. *Journal of Negro Education*, 69, 60–73.
- Solórzano, D., & Yosso, T. (2002). Critical race methodology: Counter-storytelling as an analytical framework for education research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 8, 23–44.
- Spring, J. (2005). *The American school, 1642–2004*. 6th edition. McGraw-Hill.
- Spring, J. (2006). *Deculturalization and the struggle for equality: A brief history of the education of dominated cultures in the United States*. 5th edition. McGraw-Hill.
- Spring, J. (2013). *Deculturalization and the struggle for equality: A brief history of the education of dominated cultures in the United States*. 7th edition. McGraw-Hill.
- Stefkovich, J., & Leas, T. (1994). A legal history of desegregation in higher education. *Journal of Negro Education*, 63, 406–420. <https://doi.org/doi:10.2307/2967191>
- Stewart, G. L., & Brown, K. G. (2010). *Human resource management: Linking strategy to practice* (2nd ed.). Wiley.
- Sue, D. W. (2013). Race talk: The psychology of racial dialogues. *American Psychologist*, 68(8), 663–672. <https://doi.org/doi:10.1037/a0033681>
- Sue, D. W., Capodilupo, C. M., & Holder, A. M. (2008). Racial microaggressions in the life experience of Black Americans. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 39, 329–336. <https://doi.org/doi.10.1037/0735-7028.39.3.329>
- Sue, D. W. (2003). *Overcoming Our Racism: The Journey to Liberation*. Jossey-Bass.
- Suter, W. (2012). C. Hines Chp2 Literature Review. In: Newton Suter, W., Ed., *Introduction to Educational Research: A Critical Thinking Approach*. Sage Publications.

- Turner, C., González, J., & Wood, J. (2008). Faculty of color in academe: What 20 years of literature tells us. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*. Vol. 1, Iss. 3, (Sep 2008): 139-168.
- Turner, C. S., Myers, S. L., & Creswell, J. W. (1999). Exploring underrepresentation: The case of faculty of color in the Midwest. *Journal of Higher Education*, 70, 27–59.
- United States Census. (n.d.). <https://www.census.gov/quickfacts/fact/table/US/POP010220>
- Villalpando, O., & Delgado Bernal, D. (2002). A critical race theory analysis of barriers that impede the success of faculty of color. In W. A. Smith, P. G. Altbach, & K. LoMotey (Eds.), *The racial crisis in American higher education: Continuing challenges for the twenty-first century*. Albany State University of New York Press.
- Van Manen, M. (1993). *Researching the lived experience: Human science for an action sensitive pedagogy*. London State University of Western Ontario.
- Vargas, S. (2003). Critical race theory in education: Theory, praxis, and recommendations. In G. R. Lopez and L. Parker (Eds.), *Interrogating Racism in Qualitative Research Methodology* (pp. 1–18). Peter Lang.
- Washington, V., & Harvey, W. (1989). Affirmative rhetoric, negative action: African American and Hispanic faculty at predominantly white institutions.
<https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED316075.pdf>
- Williams, H. (2001). The data speaks: No rest for the weary. In L. Jones (Ed.), *Making it on broken promises* (pp. 15-30). Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing, LLC.
- Wilson, R. (1995). *Affirmative action: Yesterday, today, and beyond*. American Council on Education.

- Wilson, H. A. (1998). Does affirmative action for Blacks harm Whites? Some evidence from the higher education arena. *Western Journal of Black Studies*, 22(4), 218- 225.
<https://education.wsu.edu/wjbs/>
- Wilson, J. L., & Meyer, K. A. (2013). The treatment and use of best practices for diversity in position announcements for new presidents. *Innovative Higher Education*, 38(2), 91-104.
<https://doi.org/doi:10.1007/s10755-012-9227-y>
- Wilson, J. L., Meyer, K. A., & McNeal, L. (2012). Mission and diversity statements: What they do and do not say. *Innovative Higher Education*, 37(2), 125-139.
<https://doi.org/doi:10.1007/s10755-011-9194-8>
- Wolfe, B. & Dilworth, P. (2015). Transitioning normalcy: Organizational culture, African Administrators, and diversity leadership in higher education. *Review of Educational Research*. December 2015, Vol. 85, No. 4, pp. 667-697. <https://journals-sagepub-com.er.lib.k-state.edu/doi/pdf/10.3102/0034654314565667>
- Yosso, T. J. (2005). Whose culture has capital? A critical race theory discussion of community cultural wealth. *Race Ethnicity and Education*, 8(1), 69.
https://thrive.arizona.edu/sites/default/files/Whose%20culture%20has%20capital_A%20critical%20race%20theory%20discussion%20of%20community%20cultural%20wealth_1.pdf
- Yull, D. (2014, October 1). Race has always mattered: An intergeneration look at race, space, place, and educational experiences of Blacks. *Educational Research International*. 2014, https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/57ed/833baa6d6fd978b6e7292771f8d03f40ff7d.pdf?_gl=1*1wpuk70*_ga*NTM0MjA3Njc1LjE2ODUyNzQ4MTA.*_ga_H7P4ZT52H5*MTY4NTI3NDgxMC4xLjAuMTY4NTI3NDgxMy41Ny4wLjA.

Zamudio, M. M., Russell, C., Rios, F. A., & Bridgeman, J. L. (2011). Critical race theory matters: Education and ideology. Routledge.

Zwingle, J.L. (1980). Evolution of lay governing boards. *In the Handbook of College and University Trusteeship*. Ed. Richard T. Ingram. Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Appendix A - Literature Review Topics Alignment with Research Questions

Table A.1. Literature Review Topics Alignment With Research Questions

Topics in the Literature Review	Research Questions Aligned
Historical Milieu	RQ1, RQ2, RQ3
State Systems Governing Boards	RQ2 & RQ3
Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion of Higher Ed and Community College Governing Boards	RQ1 & RQ2
Board Members' Capacity to Influence Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion	RQ1, RQ2, RQ3
Critical Race Theory	RQ1, RQ2, RQ3
Critical Race Theory in Education	RQ2 & RQ3
Theory of Representation Bureaucracy	RQ2 & RQ3

Appendix B - Interview Questions

Interview Questions	Theoretical Framework
IQ1. What is your age group? 31-40; 41-50, 51 or older?	Not applicable (N/A)
IQ2. What is your gender?	N/A
IQ3. What is your ethnicity?	N/A
IQ4. How long have you served on the board of trustees?	N/A
IQ5. What city and state is your community college located in?	N/A
IQ6. What is your profession?	N/A
IQ7. Did you attend a community college?	N/A
IQ8. Were you appointed or elected to the board of trustees?	N/A

Research Question 1. What are the lived experiences of African American community college trustees in their role as Trustees?

Interview Questions	Theoretical Framework
IQ1. How did you become a board member?	CRT/CRTE/TRB
IQ2. How did you find out about the board of trustee opportunity?	CRT/CRTE/TRB
IQ3. If you were appointed by the governor, what was his/her political affiliation?	CRT/TRB
IQ4. If you were elected, how long did it take and how much did it cost you?	CRT/CRTE/TRB
IQ5. Have you served on any other type of board?	CRT/CRTE/TRB
IQ6. What are the demographics of your community?	TRB
IQ7. What influenced your decision to accept the appointment?	CRT/TRB
IQ8. What influenced your decision to run for the board of trustees?	CRT/CRTE/TRB
IQ9. . Describe your experience as an African American board of trustees.	CRT/CRTE
IQ10. Have you experienced or observed racism?	CRT/CRTE
IQ11. Have you or your board been the recipient of an ACCT Association Award?	CRT/CRTE/TRB

Research Question 2. What impediments, barriers, or prejudices/biases have African American community college trustees observed within their colleges or as a Trustee, that affects and impede the deeper diversification of college, staff, and leadership?

Interview Questions	Theoretical Framework
IQ1. Based on your experience, what factors do you believe have contributed to the underrepresentation of minorities on the board of trustees at community colleges in the United States?	CRT/CRTE/TRB
IQ2. Use brief descriptors, and describe the factors that you believe contribute to racial and gender disparities among the board of trustees at community colleges.	CRT/CRTE
IQ3. To what extent do you believe that race and racism contribute to racial and gender underrepresentation of the board of trustees at community colleges?	CRT/CRTE/TRB
IQ4. Please describe an incident where race and/or gender have positively influenced your selection or election to the board of trustees.	CRT/CRTE
IQ5. Please describe an incident where race and/or gender have negatively influenced your selection or election to the board of trustees.	CRT/CRTE
IQ6. Describe how race and gender played a role in your pursuit of becoming a board of trustee at your community college.	CRT/CRTE/TRB
IQ7. Describe any challenges or barriers you navigated on your journey to becoming a board of trustee at your community college.	CRT/CRTE

Research Question 3. What best practices might college trustees and CEOs undertake to influence a more diverse and inclusive environment, resulting in a more diverse college environment?

Interview Questions	Theoretical Framework
IQ1. What does equity mean for your campus, and what does equity mean for your board?	CRT/CRTE
IQ2. When is the last time that the board questioned business as usual in their actions and role as board members?	CRT/CRTE
IQ3. Do you and the board understand the value, desire, and actualize equality as a board?	CRT/CRTE
IQ4. Are you or the board asking for disaggregated data that gives you information to compare within and across groups over time?	CRT/CRTE
IQ5. What are the resource-rich relationships that you have been able to establish on campus that can help you to enact equity work?	CRT/CRTE
IQ6. What voices is the board of trustees not hearing? What additional connections does the board need to make?	CRT/CRTE

IQ7. How does the board of trustees maintain a mutually beneficial relationship with decision-makers across campus?	CRT/CRTE
IQ8. What type of diversity, equity, and inclusion (DE&I) plan does your board of trustees have? Does the plan apply to the whole campus?	CRT/CRTE
IQ9. How does the DE&I committee work get done on your board? Do you have a DE&I committee, etc.?	CRT/CRTE
IQ10. What/who are barriers to more equitable outcomes around policy, program, practice, process, or decisions?	CRT/CRTE
IQ11. Does your college have a diversity, equity, and inclusion policy approved by the board?	CRT/CRTE
IQ12. Has your board developed and implemented a public DE&I statement, white paper, philosophy, or value statement for your college website?	CRT/CRTE
IQ13. Do your college's strategic plan and institutional effectiveness reports reflect the board's DE&I goals?	CRT/CRTE
IQ14. Does the board have a regular schedule for conducting equity-minded policy reviews, i.e. with an equity lens?	CRT/CRTE
IQ15. Does the board have a DE&I policy regarding contracts, minority bidding, etc.?	CRT/CRTE
IQ16. What actions or strategies would you recommend when look to diversify or expand staff, faculty and executives at your college?	CRT/CRTE
IQ17. Where there staregies that you advanced to change the future of your community college?	CRT/CRTE

Appendix C - Participant Informed Consent Form

Dear Community College Board of Trustee Members:

Greetings!

You are invited to participate in a voluntary research project being conducted by Carl B. Smalls, a doctoral student in the Department of Education's Community College Leadership Program at Kansas State University.

Purpose: The purpose of the study is to develop a basic understanding of the lived experiences of African American boards of trustee members within community colleges, which will allow the researcher to measure, and make recommendations on the impact trustees can have on their colleges' diversity, equity, and inclusion plans.

Participants will be given informed consent and interview protocols. An interview will be conducted with the researcher. The interview will be recorded and transcribed at a later date.

Criteria to be considered for the study consist of current or previous serving African American Trustees on the ACCT diversity committee and/or trustees at colleges that have won the ACCT diversity award in the past 10 years.

There are no known physical risk or consequence. However, there may be a social, legal, or economic consequence or risks for completing the interview and having the results published. However, these risks and consequences are eliminated by the use of pseudonyms instead of actual participant names.

It is possible and hopeful that this study will provide insight into the lived experiences of participants to understand the underrepresentation of African American board of trustee members at community colleges.

Your participation in this research is voluntary and you may refuse to participate or may discontinue participation at any time.

No identifying information will be collected in the study and the informed consent will not be shared with anyone outside of the researcher and committee co-chairs. Along with pseudonyms for the participants, the college where each participant serve as a lay trustee will not be identified by name but simply described by general location and type.

Notes from the interviews, transcripts and electronic recordings will be saved and password protected on a personal computer that is also password protected. Written notes will be labeled

with pseudonyms and scanned into an electronic file along with the informed consent for each participant. These files will also be password protected on a personal computer that is also password protected.

If you have any questions about this study, you may email Carl B. Smalls at cbsmall@ksu.edu or committee co-chairs: Dr. Terry Calaway (terry74@ksu.edu) and Dr. Margaretta Mathis (mbmathis1@ksu.edu).

I have read the information provided above and all of my questions have been answered. I voluntarily agree to participate in this study. My completion and the return of this packet will serve as my consent. I have been given a copy of this consent form for future reference.

Printed Name of Participant

Signature of Participant

Date:

Appendix D - IRB Forms

KANSAS STATE
UNIVERSITY

University
Research

Institutional Review Board (IRB) Informed Consent Template Form

comply@k-state.edu | 785-532-3224

If you are performing research involving human subjects, it is your responsibility to address the issue of informed consent. This template is intended to provide guidance for crafting an informed consent document. The Committee for Research Involving Human Subjects (IRB) *strongly* recommends that you model your consent form on this template. However, if you choose a different approach, it must contain at a minimum the same elements as this standard version. Language and terminology used in the consent form must be written at no more than the 8th grade level, so that the potential participant can clearly understand the project, how it is going to be conducted, and all issues that may affect his or her participation. In addition, please write the consent form in a manner that addresses your subjects directly instead of writing it in a manner that addresses the University Research Compliance Office directly. *Information on the important issue of informed consent can be found in 45 CFR 46 at*

<http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/humansubjects/guidance/45cfr46.html#46.116>. **Federal law mandates that all signed and dated informed consent forms be retained by the P.I. for at least three years following completion of the study.**

WAIVER OF INFORMED CONSENT: *There are limited instances where the requirement for a formal informed consent document may be waived or altered by the IRB.*

45 CFR 46 states that “An IRB may waive the requirement for the investigator to obtain a signed consent form for some or all subjects if it

finds either:

- 1) *That the only record linking the subject and the research would be the consent document and the principal risk would be potential harm resulting from a breach of confidentiality. Each subject will be asked whether the subject wants documentation linking the subject with the research, and the subject's wishes will govern; or*
- 2) *That the research presents no more than minimal risk of harm to subjects and involves no procedures for which written consent is normally required outside of the research context.”*

If a study employs only questionnaires and surveys as the source of their data, it may generally be assumed that to answer and return the questionnaire is an appropriate and sufficient expression of free consent. However, there are circumstances that might call this assumption into question - e.g., teacher-student relationship between the investigator and the subject, etc. However, a statement should be included on the questionnaire or survey form indicating that participation of the subject is strictly voluntary, the length of time reasonably expected to complete the questionnaire or survey form, and that questions that make the participant uncomfortable may be skipped.

Form Content

PROJECT TITLE: Full title of project. If possible, the title should be identical to that used in any funding/contract proposal.

PROJECT APPROVAL DATE/ EXPIRATION DATE: provided in the approval letter, must be in place before distributing to subjects.

LENGTH OF STUDY: Estimate the length of time the subject will be expected to participate.

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR/CO-INVESTIGATOR(S): Must be a regular member of the faculty.

CONTACT DETAILS FOR PROBLEMS/QUESTIONS: Name, phone number and/or email address of the P.I.

IRB CHAIR CONTACT INFORMATION: *For the subject should he/she have questions or wish to discuss on any aspect of the research with an official of the university or the IRB. These are: Sara Rosenkranz, Chair, Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects, 203 Fairchild Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506, (785) 532-3224; Heath Ritter, Acting Associate Vice President for Research Compliance, 203 Fairchild Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506, (785) 532-3224.*

PROJECT SPONSOR: Funding/contract entity.

PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH: Explain in lay terms that this is a research project, and why the research is being done.

PROCEDURES OR METHODS TO BE USED: Explain in lay terms and in language understandable at the 8th grade level how the study is going to be conducted and what will be expected of participants. Tell participants if they will be audio or videotaped, if they will be paid, etc.

ALTERNATIVE PROCEDURES OR TREATMENTS, IF ANY, THAT MIGHT BE ADVANTAGEOUS TO SUBJECT: Explain any alternative procedures or treatments if applicable.

RISKS OR DISCOMFORTS ANTICIPATED: Describe any foreseeable risks or discomforts from the study. If there are no known risks, make a statement to that effect.

BENEFITS ANTICIPATED: Describe any *reasonably expected* benefits from the research to the participant or others from the research.

EXTENT OF CONFIDENTIALITY: Explain how you plan to protect confidentiality.

IS COMPENSATION OR MEDICAL TREATMENT AVAILABLE IF INJURY OCCURS: *In cases where more than minimal risk is involved.*

PARENTAL APPROVAL FOR MINORS: If minors or those who require the approval of a parent or guardian are participants, you should include a space for their consenting signature.

PARTICIPANT NAME/SIGNATURE: Name of research participant and signature.

WITNESS TO SIGNATURE (PROJECT STAFF): Staff signature.

If any of the following content sections do not apply to your research, feel free to delete from the consent form.

PROJECT TITLE:

**PROJECT
APPROVAL DATE:**

**PROJECT
EXPIRATION
DATE:**

**LENGTH
OF STUDY:**

**PRINCIPAL
INVESTIGATOR:**

**CO-
INVESTIGATOR(S):**

**CONTACT DETAILS FOR
PROBLEMS/QUESTIONS:**

**IRB CHAIR CONTACT
INFORMATION:**

**PROJECT
SPONSOR:**

PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH:

--

PROCEDURES OR METHODS TO BE USED:

--

BIOLOGICAL SAMPLES COLLECTED (Describe procedure, storage, etc.):

[Select a statement from the drop down menu]
[Select a statement from the drop down menu]

ALTERNATIVE PROCEDURES OR TREATMENTS, IF ANY, THAT MIGHT BE ADVANTAGEOUS TO SUBJECT:

--

RISKS OR DISCOMFORTS ANTICIPATED:

--

BENEFITS ANTICIPATED:

--

EXTENT OF CONFIDENTIALITY:

[Select a statement from the drop down menu]

IS COMPENSATION OR MEDICAL TREATMENT AVAILABLE IF INJURY OCCURS? ☐ Yes ☐ No

**PARENTAL APPROVAL
FOR MINORS:**

**PARENT/GUARDIAN
APPROVAL SIGNATURE:**

--

DATE:

--

Terms of participation: I understand this project is research, and that my participation is voluntary. I also understand that if I decide to participate in this study, I may withdraw my consent at any time, and stop participating at any time without explanation, penalty, or loss of benefits, or academic standing to which I may otherwise be entitled.

I verify that my signature below indicates that I have read and understand this consent form, and willingly agree to participate in this study under the terms described, and that my signature acknowledges that I have received a signed and dated copy of this consent form.

(Remember that it is a requirement for the P.I. to maintain a signed and dated copy of the same consent form signed and kept by the participant).

**PARTICIPANT
NAME:**

**PARTICIPANT
SIGNATURE:**

**WITNESS TO
SIGNATURE: (PROJECT
STAFF)**

DATE:

DATE:

What kinds of supplemental data?

- Anything you and your adviser deem relevant
- [Copyright permissions](#)
- [Fair use evaluations](#)
- Computer code and data sets
- IRB forms and letters (usually in PDF format)
- Surveys and other forms