THE INFLUENCE OF ACADEMIC RESILIENCE AMONG AFRICAN AMERICAN FIRST YEAR MALES AT A PRIVATE HISTORICALLY BLACK UNIVERSITY IN THE UNITED STATES

by

Harriet T. Hobbs

A dissertation submitted to the faculty of
The University of North Carolina at Charlotte
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in Curriculum and Instruction

Charlotte

2022

Approved by:

_____
Dr. Chance Lewis

_____
Dr. Greg Wiggan

_____
Dr. Xiaoxia Newton

_____
Dr. Mark D`Amico

ABSTRACT

HARRIET T. HOBBS. The Influence of Academic Resilience Among African American First Year Males at a Private Historically Black University in the United States (Under the direction of DR. CHANCE LEWIS)

This quantitative study sought to operationalize academic resilience through social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, and commitment to college among African American first-year males at a private, urban HBCU in the United States. This study utilized secondary data from Ruffalo Noel Levitz's College Student Inventory Survey (CSI) Form B administered to 223 African American first-year male students. Utilizing a binary logistic regression analysis, the researcher examined the relationship between social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, commitment to college, and retention and graduation. The results indicated that social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, and commitment to college were not statistically significant in predicting retention and graduation. However, the role of family support, social engagement, capacity for tolerance, and commitment to college is important for African American males. The results from this study did not show that because of the limited time and exposure the students had to the college environment. In light of data, this study is grounded in three theoretical frameworks, critical race structuralism, anti-deficit, and resiliency which bring in a deeper discussion and broader contextualization in understanding the academic resilience of African Americans and the historical roles HBCUs have played in educating African Americans. Recommendations based are provided for HBCU senior administrators, HBCU faculty, families of African American males, and future research.

Keywords: Academic resilience, Academic success, African American males, Historically Black Colleges and Universities

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am grateful to God for the strength and tenacity that have allowed me to be resilient and persevere to the finish line. To my beloved sons, Qualik, Ethan, and bonus son Lucas, the patience, love, and support shown through this process are immeasurable. I could not have continued this journey without the cheers and words of encouragement.

To my beloved niece and brother, Divya and Terry, the prayers and words of encouragement are appreciated. To my yoga instructor Shay, the sessions were invigorating and provided a space for me to recenter and to stay grounded in knowing that my light shines from within. To my church family, Friendship Missionary Baptist Church, I am grateful for the prayers and words of encouragement.

To the best advisor and mentor in the academy, Dr. Lewis, I owe a debt of gratitude for pushing me, and I would not be where I am today without his wisdom and guidance. Dr. Wiggan, the master teacher, I learned so much from the teachings and course readings and has contributed to my scholarly transformation. Dr. Newton, the methodical expertise and enhancements, and patience with me through the quantitative process are greatly appreciated.

Dr. D'Amico, the expertise in higher education brought a deeper perspective to this work, and for that, I am grateful. Last but certainly not least, I want to thank my parents. They would be so proud of my accomplishments. To my ancestors, I stand on the shoulders of many who have sacrificed and lost their lives for me to be in this space. Ase` Ase`

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my African American brothers, who pushed through and overcame adverse circumstances to obtain a college degree. To my African American brothers who are still pushing, keep pushing. We all rise together!

POSITIONALITY STATEMENT

I am passionate about my dissertation topic because African American males are near and dear to my heart. First, I am the mother of two African American males who have demonstrated resilience. Second, I have worked at various institutions in higher education for the past 20 years, where African American males have been marginalized and looked upon as ineducable. My dissertation seeks to contribute to the field by debunking this myth and highlighting in the discourse their ability to bounce back and overcome adverse events through their academic resilience.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

African American males have been historically marginalized and oppressed more than any other racial group in the United States (Anderson, 1988; Du Bois, 1994/1903; Wilson, 2012). The oppression and marginalization of African Americans males are linked to stereotypes, racism, biases, prejudice, and systemic discrimination. These are major factors that influence educational outcomes, employment opportunities, disproportionate rates of incarceration, and brutal treatment and murder of African Americans by police officers (Taylor et al., 2019). Taylor et al. (2019) described the stereotypes and racism toward African Americans in the United States "as the product of a legacy of brutal slavery that stemmed from White racist attitudes that were operationalized through oppressive and discriminating actions that accentuate how enslaved people should think and behave" (p. 213). Moreover, not only was slavery used to control how Black people think, but slavery also separated Black families, alienated, and dishonored Black people, and left them feeling powerless and socially dead (Anderson, 1988; Du Bois, 1994/1903; Wilson, 2012). Essentially, the dominant racial narratives were designed to depict Black people as subhuman and immoral (Guy, 2014). The educational system perpetuates these stereotypes and racist attitudes.

For example, after the *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka* court ruling to desegregate schools, many African Americans were hopeful for equal educational opportunities (Bell, 1980; Moore & Lewis, 2012). Yet, 67 years after the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision, disparities continue among African American males' academic achievement (Moore & Lewis, 2012; Taylor et al., 2019). Allen et al. (2007) and Wiggan and Scott (2015) posited that African Americans have always been judged by the color of

their skin, denied an equal educational opportunity, and told that the education gap between Blacks and Whites is the reason for African Americans' subjugated status in society.

Anderson (1988) posited that Blacks emerged from slavery with a strong belief in the ability to read and write. As a result, federal Black land grants established colleges between 1870 and 1890 to educate Blacks in the South at the collegiate level. The American Missionary Association and African Methodist Episcopal Church were instrumental in creating Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs). Several scholars, including Allen (1992), Freeman and Thomas, (2002), and Outcalt and Skewes-Cox (2002) have documented that HBCUs provide African American students with supportive environments conducive to their personal and academic development and high levels of student achievement.

Moore and Lewis (2012) argued that "education is the foundation of a democratic society and a characteristic of a productive nation for all humanity" (p. 3). Therefore, the educational gap should not be a part of the Black struggle. However, with nearly six decades of data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress, Black students continue to fall behind their White counterparts in academic achievement (Phillips et al., 1998; Yeung & Conley, 2008). Consequently, these disparities are widening in higher education, and there is a need to understand ways to increase the number and success of Black males in the higher education pipeline (Bonner & King, 2014; Maramba et al., 2010).

According to Naylor et al. (2015), African American males are consistently overrepresented in poverty and underrepresented in the higher education system. Many of

the barriers faced by Blacks males are based on pseudo-cognitive research juxtaposed with European and Western ideologies (Guthrie 1998; Wiggan, 2007). Moreover, Blacks continue to pursue higher education with faith, perseverance, and resilience, and are convinced that the deliverance from racial oppression lay hidden in the pages of books that Blacks were forbidden to read (Allen et al., 2007). As a result of the disparities and barriers in educational attainment, Sedlacek (1999) asserted that academic success looks different for Black and White students in higher education. Thus, there are debates on what to include in the educational attainment for African Americans (Lanham et al., 2011; Tracey & Sedlacek, 1987). For example, Debb et al. (2018) asserted that emphasis should be placed on evaluating how success at the college level can be conceptualized using noncognitive characteristics rather than grade point averages (GPAs) and standardized test scores.

To elucidate this point, Debb et al. (2018) argued that White students who are judged by GPA and standardized testing face minimal environmental obstacles outside of the classroom and will more likely achieve their undergraduate degree in four years. Black students, however, are more likely to face extreme environmental obstacles such as structural racism and working two or more jobs; therefore standardized test scores and grade point averages may not adequately predict their academic achievement (Debb et al., 2018). The current measures of success such as grade point average and retention should not be the only indicators for predicting the academic success of Black males. Therefore, factors that influence academic resilience should be at the center of the discourse for African American males' academic success (Debb et al., 2018).

There is a plethora of literature that focuses on deficit-laden research on Black males. However, the literature is scant on African American males' ability to bounce back from oppression and other societal atrocities that they have endured to persevere and succeed in college. Goings (2016) suggested that when investigating the Black male experience, researchers should use an asset-based approach to challenge the existing deficit-laden research. Therefore, a notable area receiving attention is academic resilience.

Academic resilience is an ongoing process that students go through to succeed academically, despite challenging experiences (Bryan, 2005; Morales & Trotman, 2004; Wang et al., 1997). Risk factors, protective factors, vulnerability areas, and compensatory strategies are the four dynamics discussed in resilience theory (Kitano & Lewis, 2005; Morales, 2008). The interplay between risk and protective factors, vulnerability areas, and compensatory strategies encompass the resilience process and will be addressed in the literature review.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to disrupt the deficit framing that depicts African American males as ineducable, unintelligent, disadvantaged, and at-risk of failing academically (Harper, 2012; Howard, 2015; Jenkins, 2006; Kim & Hargrove, 2013) and to explore the academic resilience of African American males. As posited by Harper (2012), there is an influx of literature that promotes an anti-deficit framing of African American males but a gap regarding their academic resilience in the literature exists. Thus, the analysis of Black males' academic resilience in pursuit of academic excellence is notably absent (Howard, 2015). Therefore, the emphasis on African American males'

deficit framing must be counterbalanced with their persistence in earning an undergraduate degree, despite transition issues, racist stereotypes, and academic under-preparedness (Harper, 2012).

Secondly, through this study, I investigated if the concept of academic resilience was manifested through social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, and commitment to college among first year African American males' retention and graduation at an urban Historically Black University (HBU) in the United States. According to the National Student Clearinghouse Research Center (2015), persistence is defined as students who return to college at any institution for a second year, whereas retention refers to students who return to the same institution for a second year. For this dissertation, retention and graduation were examined as outcome variables. Given the disparities in college retention and graduation rates associated with income, ethnicity, race, and first-generation college status, examining factors that influence academic resilience among African American males at a Historical Black University allows for a deeper understanding of the internal and external factors that threaten their educational attainment (Kim & Hargrove, 2013).

Significance of the Study

This research is critical for understanding factors that affect the academic achievement of African American male students in higher education. Therefore, the relationship between social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, commitment to college, and retention and graduation is critical to determine if these scales impact African American males' academic success at a private, urban HBU. Limited research has examined the relationship of these factors and viewed it from first

year males' perspectives at an HBU. Scholars Cassidy (2015), Connor and Davidson (2003), and Wang and Gordan (1994) have argued that strong academic resilience can lead to academic success. This research seeks to inform university faculty, college administrators, and advisors on strategies and specific programs to improve the academic success of African American first-year males. This research provides recommendations to university faculty, families of African American males, senior administrators, and future research.

Statement of the Problem

The specific problem is the lack of understanding of the factors that affect the academic achievement of African American male students in higher education. Guy (2014) pointed out that the plight of Black males in society and education is equivalent to a salmon racing upstream against the current:

> To survive despite life-threatening obstacles and predators, countless salmon struggle to swim upstream to reach the headwaters where they would breed and eventually complete the circle of life. Yet, the salmon continues to swim against the current, jump waterfalls, and risk death at the hands of a predator. The salmon swimming upstream is an analogy for comprehending the life environmental circumstances faced by Black men in America. The metaphor can be applied to how researchers have examined the experiences of Black males in adult education. The focus is more on the barriers Black men face going against the current than examining those who successfully navigated the rocky waters. (p. 1)

Current data show that African American males have the lowest enrollment and graduation rates in higher education. As seen in Table 1, in 2020, the high school

completion rate for African American males was 89.1%, and their baccalaureate degree attainment was 24.4% (National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) (NCES, 2020). As indicated by NCES (2019b), in 2019, there were fewer African American males (11.4%) enrolled at postsecondary institutions than White males (56.1%) and Hispanic males (19.83%). As shown in Table 3, African American males were the lowest group to graduate at 18.1% (NCES, 2019a). It is important to note that the four-year graduation rate for African American males has increased by 2-5% between 1996 and 2012 (NCES, 2019a). However, as shown in Table 2, the enrollment for African American males at postsecondary institutions declined between 2015 and 2019 (NCES, 2019c).

Table 1

Rates of High School Male's Completion and Bachelor's Degree Attainment

High school completion	White	Black	Hispanic	Total	Asian	Pacific Islander	American Indian/ Alaska Native	Two or more races
2016	93.4	87.0	67.2	92.3	92.2	94.9	84.1	92.8
2017	93.7	87.4	69.5	92.5	92.7	89.1	83.0	93.2
2018	93.9	88.3	70.7	92.8	92.9	92.2	79.3	92.5
2019	94.2	88.1	70.8	92.8	92.8	93.3	84.1	91.0
2020	94.8	89.1	73.8	92.8	92.8	92.6	86.2	92.6
Bachelor's Degree								
2016	37.2	21.8	15.4	57.7	59.4	22.2	16.5	25.6
2017	37.8	22.6	15.8	55.7	57.2	26.2	17.7	30.3
2018	38.9	23.7	16.6	58.5	60.1	23.6	15.4	30.0
2019	39.9	24.4	16.9	59.4	60.9	24.8	12.9	31.1
2020	41.0	24.4	19.4	62.3	63.6	31.5	18.2	28.8

Note. U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, U.S. Census of Population

Table 2

Fall Enrollment and Percentage of Males at Degree-Granting Postsecondary Institution

Undergraduate race/ethnicity	Fall Enrollment in thousands					Percentage				
	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
White	4,848	4,736	4,632	4,501	4,395	59.3	58.6	57.8	57.0	56.1
Black	998	959	942	911	894	12.2	11.9	11.7	11.5	11.4
Hispanic	1,389	1,439	1,479	1,506	1,547	17.0	17.8	18.4	19.1	19.8
Asian/Pacific Isl.	602	610	617	626	634	7.4	7.5	7.7	7.9	8.1
Asian	577	586	594	604	612	7.1	7.3	7.4	7.6	7.8
Pacific Isl.	25	23	23	22	22	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Amer./Native Indian/Alaska Native	58	56	53	51	49	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6
Two or more	277	281	295	305	313	3.4	3.5	3.7	3.9	4.0
Nonresident	548	555	551	541	528	†	†	†	†	†

Note. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Educational Statistics. †Not applicable.

Table 3

Graduating Rate by Percentage of First-time, Full-time Bachelor's Degree Seeking Males at 4-year Postsecondary Institutions (Graduating within 4 years after start)

Starting Cohort	Total	White	Black	Hispanic	Asian	Pacific Islander	American Indian/Alaska Native	Two or more races	Non-Resident Alien
1996	28.5	30.6	13.9	19.0	---	---	15.1	---	38.6
2000	31.1	33.4	15.3	21.7	---	---	17.1	---	39.2
2002	31.4	33.9	14.8	21.9	---	---	17.3	---	36.8
2003	32.2	34.8	14.7	22.5	---	---	17.7	---	37.7
2004	33.0	35.7	15.1	23.3	---	---	18.9	---	39.7
2005	33.5	36.4	15.0	24.2	40.2	19.6	18.8	40.2	40.1
2006	34.3	37.2	15.7	24.9	41.6	21.6	17.6	43.2	39.6
2007	34.5	37.7	15.6	25.5	41.5	24.3	18.6	44.7	39.3
2008	34.8	38.1	16.2	25.7	42.5	25.0	18.9	40.7	41.0
2009	34.7	38.2	16.0	25.7	44.4	24.3	20.6	36.4	43.0
2010	35.6	39.6	16.5	26.8	44.9	26.5	18.5	34.3	43.8
2011	36.5	40.7	16.5	27.6	45.3	26.4	18.6	33.3	43.8
2012	38.2	42.2	18.1	28.6	47.3	28.7	20.0	33.9	44.6

Note. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, graduation rates.

---Not available

Even when disaggregating by institutional type, disparities still exist among African American male and female students enrolled at HBCUs. For example, the number of African American males enrolled at four-year HBCUs in the fall of 2018 was 81,055 compared to 142,108

African American female student enrollment (NCES, 2019d). Similarly, the number of degrees conferred in 2017-2018 for African American males was 9,083 compared to 17,193 degrees conferred for African American females (NCES, 2019d). Despite the low enrollment and graduation of African American males, they are born with an innate desire for self-determination and an unlimited capacity for morality and intelligence (Bush & Bush, 2018). In addition, research has shown that HBCUs provide better learning environments that nurture and support African American students (Laird et al., 2007; Maramba et al., 2010; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

Table 4

Total Full-time Enrollment and Degrees Conferred at Historically Black Colleges and Universities

Fall Enrollment	Public	Private
Total Enrollment, Fall 2018	4-Year	4-Year
Males	185,733	70,288
Males, Black	68,415	27,530
Females	51,863	23,634
Females, Black	117,318	42,758
Degrees Conferred, 2017-2018	94,026	38,335
Associate's	1,294	229
Males	320	106
Males, Black	135	88
Females	974	123
Females, Black	456	114
Bachelor's	23,603	9,036
Males	8,715	3,237
Males, Black	6,292	2,791
Females	14,888	5,799
Females, Black	11,924	5,269

Note. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.

Furthermore, HBCUs are institutions of liberation that center on the Black struggle for equality and dignity (Allen et al., 2007). As Wiggan and Scott (2015) eloquently asserted, HBCUs are considered the titans of Black higher education, hence there is a need to investigate factors that may impact academic resilience and the retention and degree completion of African American males at these institutions (Maramba et al., 2010). This research is necessary because little research has explored the

concept of academic resilience through social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, and commitment to college of African American males at a private urban HBU in the United States.

Methods

The research questions for this quantitative study included: 1) Are measures of academic resilience (social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, and commitment to college) predictive of retention? and 2) Are measures of academic resilience (social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, and commitment to college) predictive of graduation? Using a correlational quantitative design, I explored secondary data from the Ruffalo Noel Levitz's College Student Inventory (CSI) Form B administered in 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, and 2015. The CSI is an annual online survey administered by Carter G. Woodson University (CGWU is a pseudonym) at the beginning of the fall semester to first-time first year students at CGWU. The purpose of the CSI is to provide early alerts to faculty and advisors to identify and intervene on behalf of students who may be considering dropping out of college. Additionally, the CSI uses leading noncognitive indicators of college student success to provide college administrators with detailed information about each student's academic motivations, areas of risk, and receptivity to specific student services.

The total sample size was 223 African American first year male participants. SPSS version 27 was used, and all variables were re-coded. Utilizing binary logistic regression analysis, the researcher examined if a relationship exists between four predictor variables: social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, and

commitment to college. The key outcome variables of this study were retention and graduation.

Dissertation Overview

The primary purpose of this dissertation was to examine if African American first year males' academic resilience is related to social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, commitment to college, and retention and graduation through a quantitative secondary analysis study at a private HBU in the United States. Academic resilience research is understudied as it relates to African American males' academic success in college. Therefore, this research is necessary because few if any studies have operationalized academic resilience through the measures of social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, and commitment to college. This study utilized data from the Ruffalo Noel Levitz's College Student Inventory (CSI) Form B survey administered in the fall semester of 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, and 2015 to African American first year male students. This dataset allows for the examination of identified predictive and outcome variables. This dissertation encompasses five chapters.

Chapter 1 provided a brief overview of the inequality of educational opportunities for African American males, the purpose of the study, problem statement, research questions, and key terms. Chapter 2 gives an overview of existing research on resilience, academic resilience, framing academic resilience in the context of higher education, the role of Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs), and Black male achievement in higher education and at HBCUs. Additionally, Chapter 2 reviews factors influencing resilience in higher education and presents the context about the gap in the existing literature. The theoretical frameworks are explained and applied to this research.

Chapter 3 provides the study design, the survey used, survey reliability and validity, research questions, sample population, data procedure, and analysis method used for this study. In addition, the variables and limitations of the study are described. Chapter 4 provides results from the study and the analysis for each research question. Chapter 5 presents answers to the research questions and provides recommendations for future research.

Key Terminology

Academic Resilience: is defined as patterns of action that allow students to overcome, recover, and learn from academic obstacles and failures (Martin & Marsh, 2006; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012; Yeager & Dweck, 2012).

Academic Self-Efficacy: is a person's confidence in their abilities to execute a plan to accomplish an educational goal (Bandura, 1997; Cassidy, 2015).

Compensatory Strategies: are strategies and tactics that students develop to protect themselves from being vulnerable (Kitano & Lewis, 2005; Wolinsky et al., 2012)

Commitment to College: is the degree to which students value a college education. This includes satisfaction of college life and the long-term benefits of graduation (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2019).

Capacity for Tolerance*:* is defined as the student's tendency to be open to new ideas and to the sensitive and sometimes threatening aspects of the world (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2019).

Family Support: is defined as the quality of communication, understanding, and respect students have experienced in their families (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2019).

Graduation Rate: is the percentage of full-time, first-time, degree-seeking enrolled students who graduate after 150 percent of the normal time for completion; defined as six years for four-year colleges (National Center for Educational Statistics, n.d.).

Historically Black College and University: refers to any accredited institution of higher education founded prior to 1964, whose primary goal was to educate African Americans (Brown, 2013).

Persistence: is continued enrollment at any higher education institution which may include one different from the institution of initial enrollment in the fall semesters of a student's first and second year (National Student Clearinghouse, 2015)

Protective Factors: are factors such as self-efficacy, coping skills, positive self-concept, and the ability to deal with change and adaptation that could alter a person's response to adverse life events (Rutter, 1985).

Retention rate: is the enrollment from the fall of the first year enrollment to the fall of the next year at the same institution (National Center for Educational Statistics, n.d.).

Risk Factors: are existing constructs that could create roadblocks to academic success (Hakanir et al., 2018; Zautra et al., 2010).

Social Engagement: is defined as the student's desire to meet other students and to participate in group activities (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2019).

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

"An educator in a system of oppression is either a revolutionary or an oppressor."
– Lerone Bennett, Jr.

This dissertation investigated the influence of academic resilience among African American first year males at a private HBU in the United States. This chapter provides a review of the literature and begins with a discussion on the phenomena of resilience and how it has evolved. The review of the literature identifies gaps in the research and discusses factors that influence resilience, academic resilience, and resilience in higher education, the role of Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs), and Black male achievement at HBCUs.

Resilience is not a static phenomenon that is present in certain students. It is an action-oriented process that provides a vantage point for students to recognize that resilience can be developed and further enhanced (Connor & Davidson, 2003; Reyes et al., 2015; Stephens et al., 2017). Therefore, resilient students can survive and thrive after periods of stress and adversity (Hartley, 2012; Stephens et al., 2017). According to Anthony (1974), Garmezy, (1971) and Masten and Fowler (2001), research on resilience dates back to the 1970s where researchers and scientists hypothesized that children were at risk for mental illness due to genetics and experiential circumstances. Anthony (1974) and Garmezy (1971) argued that children who developed well in the context of risk or adversity held the potential to inform mental health theories. As a result, research was published that supported their theory and informed policy (Garmezy, 1974; Murphy, 1974; Murphy & Moriarty, 1976; Werner & Smith, 1982). Moreover, this research contributed to decades of investigation, debates, and criticisms (Luthar et al., 2000; Masten, 1999; Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). Masten and Fowler (2001) stated that "the

study of resilience development has overturned many negative assumptions and deficit models about children growing up under the threat of disadvantage and adversity" (p. 1).

Theoretical Frameworks

This dissertation research was grounded in three theoretical frameworks: Harper's (2012) anti-deficit achievement framework, Fergus and Zimmerman's (2005) resiliency theoretical framework, and the critical race structuralism (CRS) framework (Jones, 2000 & Wiggan et al., 2020). The researcher investigated factors that could lead toward degree completion for African American males despite risk exposure and racist stereotypes experienced in life.

Anti-Deficit Achievement Framework

Utilizing Harper's (2012) framework, the researcher drew on one specific question to better understand if academic resilience was significant in helping African American undergraduate males successfully navigate their way to and through higher education. It would be too expansive for the researcher to apply all the concepts. Therefore, the researcher focused on the resilience of Black male collegians in earning degrees, despite transition issues, racist stereotypes, academic under-preparedness, and other negative forces (Harper, 2012).

Critical Race Structuralism

Critical race structuralism (CRS) is a theoretical framework that explains racial and ethnic relations within the context of power in social and institutional systems (Jones, 2000; Wiggan et al., 2020). Power is structural and embedded within the beliefs and ideologies that dominate society, and varies by context, space, status, and race (Bell, 2017; deMarris and LeCompte, 1998; Sensoy & DiAngelo, 2017). Additionally, CRS

examines inequitable patterns and relationships that emerge in race, culture, gender, social structures, and educational opportunities.

CRS in higher education confronts institutional and structural racism, bias, and prejudice that exists and creates barriers for African American males' academic success. CRS brings a timely analysis and discussion on the educational outcomes of African American males in higher education by highlighting the role institutions play in perpetuating inequitable opportunities and outcomes (Wiggan et al., 2020). Despite institutional barriers, African American males have always exhibited resilience in encountering racism and societal stumbling blocks (Irvin, 2019). Therefore, the goal is to better understand how social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, and commitment to college contributes to African American males' academic resilience and academic success (Harper, 2012).

Resiliency Theory

In addition, Fergus and Zimmerman's theory was appropriate for this study because the resiliency theory focuses on positive factors, such as protective factors and compensatory strategies, that counter the exposure to risks that assist students in overcoming negative experiences of risk exposure (Fergus & Zimmerman, 2005). The resiliency theory provides a conceptual framework that considers a strengths-based approach to understanding child and adolescent development and informing intervention design (Zimmerman, 2013). According to Connor and Davidson (2003), resilience is the ability to successfully cope with stressors in one's life by utilizing personal qualities to help overcome risk.

Earlier studies have examined resilience through the lens of work-related adversity and stressful life events (Cohen et al., 1983; Kobasa, 1979; Rutter, 1985). However, this approach does not easily generalize to academic resilience. For example, Kobasa's (1979) research investigated the effects of stressful life events and illness and found that among the two groups of middle and upper-level executives, one group suffered high stress without falling ill, while the other group reported becoming sick after encountering stressful life events.

Furthermore, Rutter's (1985) research discussed the operation of protective factors and how they interact with resilience. For example, Rutter referred to protective factors as self-efficacy, coping skills, positive self-concept, and the ability to deal with change and adaptation that could alter a person's response to adverse life events. Rutter (1985) asserted that resilience does not lie in avoidance of stress but rather in encountering stress at a time and in a way that allows an individual's self-confidence to increase through mastery and appropriate responsibility. Hence, the quality of resilience resides in how individuals deal with life changes and what they do about their situations (Rutter, 1985). Additional scholars (Edwards et al., 2016; Johnson, 2012; Reynolds & Weigand, 2010) have found resiliency as a contributing factor for the academic success of African American students.

Harper's (2012) anti-deficit achievement framework offers a counternarrative to the deficit orientation that often depicts African American males' success as dismal. Harper (2012) stated that "the framework inverts questions that are commonly asked about educational disadvantage, underrepresentation, insufficient preparation, academic underperformance, disengagement, and Black male student attrition" (p. 5). While the

anti-deficit achievement framework is grounded in research on Black men in higher education, I extend this theory by incorporating the insights learned from studying academic resilience and offering an asset-based approach recognizing the strengths and potential of African American male students. Given the disparities in college retention and graduation rates associated with income, ethnicity, race, and first-generation college status, and less attention on resilience, examining academic resilience among African American males at an HBU allows for a deeper understanding of the internal and external factors that threaten their educational attainment (Chung, 2017; Eunyoung & Hargrove, 2013).

Framing Academic Resilience in the Context of Higher Education

According to Ayala and Manzano (2018) and Debb et al. (2018), African American males' transition from secondary education to higher education can be a challenge while adjusting to the demands and norms of college. However, academic resilience can be a key component in the success of African American males attending colleges and universities (Ayala & Manzano, 2018; Debb et al., 2018). Academic resilience is referred to as the student's ability to cope with stressors in life despite environmental adversities (Debb et al., 2018). Several scholars (Cassidy, 2015; Connor & Davidson, 2003; Wang & Gordan, 1994) argued that strong academic resilience enhances students' ability to handle academic tasks which can lead to academic achievement. A study conducted by Ayala and Manzano (2018) investigated the relationship between the dimensions of resilience, engagement, and the academic performance of first year university students. Ayala and Manzano (2018) found that the academic performance of first year students was related to the dimensions of resilience and engagement.

Ayala and Manzano (2018) suggested that if a university's focus is on improving student success, then both resilience and engagement should be considered. Moreover, Ayala and Manzano (2018) argued resilience and engagement contributed to improving students' first year academic performance and they were less likely to drop out of college. Therefore, resilience and engagement can be essential for first year students' academic performance (Haktanir et al., 2018).

Although students are responsible for improving their levels of resilience and engagement, universities can contribute by providing specific programs that help students to adapt to change, better understand their strengths and weaknesses, and have the ability to cope when situations arise (Ayala & Manzano 2018; McKenzie & Schweitzer, 2001). Examining resilience in the context of students adjusting to meet the demands of college can contribute to students' perceived stress. To illustrate this point, Cohen et al. (1983) conducted a study using a modified version of the College Student Life-Event Scale (CSLES) to measure students' perceived stress and life events while adjusting to the demands of college. Cohen et al. (1983) found a small to moderate correlation between the number of life events and perceived stress. In one case, the correlation increased when the scale score considered the respondent's perception of stress and life events (Cohen et al., 1983).

Alva (1991) and Waxman et al. (2003) highlighted that academically resilient students often succeed academically and maintain motivation to succeed even when faced with stressful events. Cassidy (2015) and Masten and Fowler (2001) postulated that resilience does not come from special qualities or traits but from everyday life experiences that may be normal experiences relating to students' families, relationships,

and communities. Masten and Fowler (2001) argued that resilience is a common phenomenon that results in the operation of basic human adaptation systems. These experiences are what Skinner et al. (2020) identified as exposure to distal risk factors and adversities that students may encounter. For example, risk factors can be exposure to high community crime rates, negative interactions with the police, and low teacher expectations, and adversities can be such circumstances as experiencing poverty and homelessness (Skinner et al., 2020).

Moreover, recent literature has focused more on noncognitive factors such as academic self-efficacy, academic mindset, and a sense of belonging to promote resilience (Bandura, 1997; Chemers et al., 2001; Davey et al., 2003; Han et al., 2017; Johnson et al., 2007; Shen et al., 2016). For example, academic self-efficacy impacts students' resilience, persistence, and effort toward goal completion (Bandura, 1997; Chemers et al., 2001; Strayhorn, 2010). Individuals with a strong sense of academic self-efficacy often persist in the face of obstacles even when other attempts may fail (McGowan et al., 2016). Therefore, students with higher levels of academic self-efficacy exhibit the resilience necessary to accomplish their goals (McGowan et al., 2016).

Additionally, researchers posit that strong positive correlations are being observed more between noncognitive factors (Duckworth, 2016; Duckworth & Gross, 2014; Strayhorn, 2014a; Wolters & Hussain, 2015). Recently, Etherton et al. (2020) tested a model addressing self-efficacy and self-set goals and found that student resilience had an indirect effect on students' academic performance. Han et al. (2017) and Shen et al. (2016) argued that noncognitive factors, such as academic self-efficacy, motivation, and a sense of belonging predict college students' academic performance and retention.

Etherton et al. (2020) affirmed that individuals with higher levels of resilience maintain higher self-efficacy and reduce stress. Furthermore, Han et al. (2017) examined first year college students' academic mindset, perceived academic self-efficacy, a sense of belonging, academic motivation and performance, and first-to-second-year retention and found that self-efficacy was closely associated with academic performance. However, a sense of belonging was more closely associated with retention (Han et al., 2017). A sense of belonging is an essential component of African American males' academic experience because it plays a significant role in their thoughts, beliefs, and behaviors about college (Brooms, 2019; Uwah et al., 2008).

Other scholars have examined how a sense of belonging, or mattering, affects learning and achievement (Booker, 2006; Goodenow & Grady, 1993; Johnson et al., 2007; Osterman, 2000). Booker (2006) argued that an unwelcoming and unaccepting school environment for African American students negatively impacts their academic achievement. Additional research from Johnson et al.'s (2007) study examined a sense of belonging from different racial groups and found that African American, Hispanic/Latino, and Asian Pacific American students reported less sense of belonging than their White/Caucasian counterparts at PWIs. Chemers et al.'s (2001) study examined the effects of academic self-efficacy and optimism on students' academic performance, stress, health, and commitment to remain in school and found that academic self-efficacy and optimism were strongly related to performance, adjustment, and a commitment to remain in school. Chemers et al. (2001) asserted that academic self-efficacy influences a student's courses of action and the effort it takes to persevere when challenges and failures exist.

Academic Resilience

Academic resilience, often referred to as motivational resilience, has been broadly defined as patterns of action that allow students to overcome, recover, and learn from academic obstacles and failures (Martin & Marsh, 2006; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012; Yeager & Dweck, 2012). These obstacles and failures can present internal and external stressors for students; however, their ability to cope with these stressors can influence if students are successful or unsuccessful in adapting to earlier disruptions (Connor & Davidson, 2003). Moreover, Allan et al. (2014) and Morales (2010) argued that overcoming adverse situations increases resilience, self-efficacy, and confidence in one's ability to influence the environment. Whiting (2006) stated, "When self-efficacy is positive for Black males, they experience high resilience and have a clear understanding and belief that they can accomplish tasks that are associated to their academic achievement" (p. 133).

Applying academic resilience in the context of higher education supports African American students' perseverance toward degree completion, despite obstacles that may interfere with their academic success (Bryan, 2005; Debb et al., 2018; Eunyoung & Hargrove, 2013). Brooms et al. (2018) conducted a qualitative study with 34 participants who identified as men of color examining their transition to college and found that the men relied on strong family support when facing obstacles which enhanced their motivation and strengthened their resilience toward degree completion. Allan et al. (2014) purported that resilience is derived from overcoming challenges. Therefore, resilience can be instrumental in African American males' academic success (Masten & Fowler, 2001; Werner, 2000). Furthermore, Ayala and Manzano (2018) asserted that for males, engagement factors and resilience played a more balanced role in explaining their

academic performance. Consequently, resilience serves an important role in facilitating the students' ability to adjust to alarming challenges (Haktanir et al., 2018; Wilson et al., 2019).

Hartley (2012) and Radford et al. (2010) argued that if student preparedness is questionable, resilience may be what separates an underprepared undergraduate student who perseveres to degree completion when compared to one who drops out when faced with situational or environmental challenges (Radford et al., 2010). Resilient students tend to thrive in the face of adversity and experience positive outcomes in otherwise overwhelmingly stressful situations (Hartley, 2012; Stephens et al., 2017). A quantitative study conducted by Haktanir et al. (2018) examined the association between resilience, academic self-concept, and first year student adjustment. Haktanir et al. (2018) found that resilience and academic self-concept to be significant positive predictors of first year students' college adjustment. Furthermore, McGowan et al. (2016) highlighted stories of achievement and success for Black men in the academy and attributed their persistence and success in college to resilience.

The ability to overcome challenges and bounce back from adversity and setbacks is a key skill for African American males when overcoming failures, challenges, and other hardships while pursuing a college degree (Backmann et al., 2019). Although African American males may exhibit great resilience while encountering uncertainties and challenges in adapting to the academic environment, the lack of resilience could impact their retention and degree completion (Backmann et al., 2019; Irvine, 2019). Additionally, researchers (Dualeh et al., 2018; Johnson, 2012; Wilkins, 2005; Wood et al., 2015) posited that students' resilience is a key factor in academic success. Wilkins

(2005) and Wood et al. (2015) suggested that self-efficacy can serve as a resilience factor in the college persistence process. For example, Wilkins (2005) interviewed Black men to better understand their attributes, coping mechanisms, and navigational strategies that help them persist as Black males in higher education. Wilkins (2005) found that resilience, self-efficacy, endurance, and self-regulation were contributing factors in their progression to degree attainment.

In addition, Irvine (2019) credited resilience as a factor that has assisted many African American males while dealing with racism, and cultural, personal, and societal impediments. For example, Irvine (2019) found that resilience helped students possess strong personal characteristics to cope with conflict and recover rapidly from barriers to their academic success. Furthermore, Bush and Bush (2018) posited that African American males are born with an innate desire for self-determination and the capacity for morality and intelligence. Therefore, understanding how African American males succeed academically can help inform college administrators to develop strategies that strengthen African American males' academic resilience (Irwin, 2019). The next section discusses the risk, protective, and compensatory factors that influence resilience.

Factors Influencing Resilience

Risk, protective, and compensatory factors influence students' resilience (Hakanir et al., 2018; Kitano & Lewis, 2005; Morales, 2014; Werner, 2000; Zautra et al., 2010). Risk factors are characteristics of an individual or environment that predict a negative outcome (Hakanir et al., 2018; Zautra et al., 2010). Protective factors are characteristics that predict better outcomes, particularly among those facing adverse circumstances (Evans et al., 2010; Stephens et al., 2017). In addition to negative interactions with the

police and low teacher expectations, other risk factors may include environmental issues such as inferior schools, a culture of violence, and a lack of parental support (Morales, 2014; Skinner, 2020).

Risk Factors

Risk factors are existing constructs that could create roadblocks to academic success (Hakanir et al., 2018; Zautra et al., 2010). For instance, risk factors such as poverty, substance abuse, and incarceration can have a harmful effect on individuals (Morales, 2010). The consequences of protective and compensatory factors vary depending on risk level (Kitano & Lewis, 2005; Morales, 2014). Kitano and Lewis (2005) and Morales (2014) argued that protective factors such as self-esteem, positive coping strategies, and internal locus of control are used as a safeguard for resilience. However, vulnerability factors are the opposite of protective factors and have little effect on resilience (Kitano & Lewis, 2005; Morales, 2014).

Most of the literature on risk factors often highlights African Americans from a deficit lens (Bowman et al., 2007; Evans et al., 2010; Henneberger et al., 2013; Luthar et al., 2000; Stewart & Simons, 2010). However, academic resilience allows scholars to depart from the deficit orientation and focus on African American males' strengths and successes in college (Mills, 2021). Therefore, this dissertation research debunks the deficit framing of African American males in higher education. The next section of the literature review will focus more on the protective factors that contribute to the resilience of African American males in higher education.

Protective Factors

According to Fergus and Zimmerman (2005), Garmezy (1971, 1974), and Masten (1998), compensatory and protective models of resiliency are the two most studied in the research literature. Zimmerman (2013) described the protective model in the context of adolescent health as a strengths-based approach to understanding child and adolescent development and informing intervention design:

> The protective factor model suggests that promotive assets or resources modify the relationship between risk and promotive factors and outcomes. The two possible protective models are risk-protective and protective-protective. Risk-protective models indicate that promotive factors operate to moderate or reduce the association between risks and negative outcomes. Protective-protective models operate to enhance the effects of either promotive factor for predicting an outcome. (p. 40)

According to Stephens et al. (2017) and Reyes et al. (2015), protective factors are defined as a processes of development that occurs to successfully navigate perceived stress and adversities. Richardson (2002) and Stephens et al. (2017) argued that resilient individuals possess certain protective factors such as positive social support, perseverance, faith, hope, and self-awareness that help them grow despite adversity. To illustrate this point, a study conducted by Wilson et al. (2019) of first year undergraduates found that self-efficacy was a salient predictor of academic success, and strong academic skills may serve as a protective factor for adaptability. Wilson et al. (2019) further indicated that self-efficacy and adaptability are considered protective factors, and these

factors together contribute to how resilient an individual is when faced with challenges or setbacks.

Furthermore, Morales (2014) elucidated that protective factors can counterbalance risk factors, hence resilience has been valued for its connections to the protective qualities that help students succeed (Allan et al., 2014; Prince-Embury, 2011). In this respect, Noguera (2003) and Henderson (2013) argued that environmental and cultural factors can influence the academic performance of Black males. Henderson (2013) posited that students' resilience is fostered when internal and environmental protective factors are strengthened. Furthermore, Cassidy (2015) and Zautra et al. (2010) described academic resilience as an asset that seeks to identify factors that may contribute to resilience in promoting interventions for students.

Allan et al. (2014) and Morales (2014) posited that protective factors are both a personality trait and an acquired skill, reinforcing the importance of self-reflection and intentional development. Therefore, protective factors such as a caring relative, a strong work ethic, an internal locus of control, and community support are strengths that students have working to mitigate risk factors (Morales, 2008; Wilson et al., 2019). Resilience encompasses risk, compensatory strategies, and positive adaptation and provides an anti-deficit approach that seeks to examine the process of adjustment or recovery through the reduction of risk accomplished by the application of compensatory strategies and protective factors (Luthar et al., 2000; Rutter, 1985).

Compensatory Strategies

According to Wolinsky et al. (2012) and Kitano and Lewis (2005), compensatory strategies are tactics that students develop to protect themselves from being vulnerable.

Zimmerman (2013) described the compensatory model in the context of adolescent health as a strengths-based approach to understanding child and adolescent development and informing intervention design:

> In the compensatory model, promotive factors neutralize risk exposure in a counteractive fashion. Thus, compensatory factors have an opposite effect on a developmental outcome (e.g., healthy eating, violence) than risks which are a direct and independent effect of risks. Thus, compensatory factors contribute to the prediction of outcomes and are entered in a regression analysis after risks are accounted for in the equation. Parental support, for example, was found to compensate for risks associated with fighting and being around violent adults. (p. 40)

Kitano and Lewis (2005) posited that compensatory factors such as healthy and strong family support and high aspirations for college can have beneficial consequences for African American males. Furthermore, Rhodes and Schechter (2014) and Fife et al. (2011) asserted that resilience can also be fostered by supportive environments (e.g. family, faculty, staff, and community). In Wolinsky et al.'s (2012) study, resilience correlated with a higher sense of self-control for African American students after adjusting for racial attitudes, beliefs, and identity.

Furthermore, Brown (2008) conducted a study focusing on undergraduate African Americans' racial socialization and social support such as experiences, coping abilities, and cultural pride and found that components related to resilience behaviors were significant in African Americans' academic achievement. Protective factors, vulnerability areas, and compensatory strategies are part of the resilience process and can contribute

significantly to positive outcomes for African American males in higher education (Kitano & Lewis, 2005; Morales, 2014). The next section of the literature review will discuss the role of Historically Black Colleges and Universities.

Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs)

The United States Department of Education Office of Civil Rights (1991) described how there were no institutions of higher learning for African Americans but support later developed for educating African American students:

> Before the Civil War, there was no structured higher education system for African American students. Public policy and statutory provisions prohibited the education of African Americans in various parts of the nation. The Institute for Colored Youth, the first higher education institution for African Americans was founded in Cheyney, Pennsylvania, in 1837 and later followed by two other Black institutions, Lincoln University in Pennsylvania in 1854 and Wilberforce University in Ohio in 1856. (p. 1)

Cheyney University of Pennsylvania is America's oldest Historically Black College and University Institution (HBCU) in higher education (Cheyney, 2021). Cheyney University was founded in 1837 by Richard Humphreys, a Quaker philanthropist who established the school to educate and prepare people of African descent to become teachers. First known as the African Institute, Cheyney was later renamed the Institute for Colored Youth and provided training in agriculture skills (Cheyney, 2021).

In 1902, the Institute relocated to George Cheyney's farm, a 275-acre property west of Philadelphia. The name Cheyney became associated with the school in 1913, though the school's official name changed several times during the 20th century. As a charter member of the Pennsylvania State System of Higher Education, Cheyney State College became Cheyney University of Pennsylvania in 1983 and is the only HBCU in the state system (Cheyney, 2021). Cheyney continues to educate teachers; however, alumni pursue other careers such as journalism, medicine, business, science and technology, law, and communications.

> According to the United States Department of education, following the Civil War, public support was garnered through the Second Morrill Act of 1890 for the higher education of African American students. The Act required states with racially segregated public higher education systems to provide a land-grant institution for African American students. With the passage of the Act, public land-grant institutions were established specifically for African Americans in the southern and border states. As a result, some new public Black institutions were founded, and several formerly private Black schools came under public control, with 16 Black institutions designated as land-grant colleges. These institutions offered courses in agricultural, mechanical, and industrial subjects, with few offering college-level courses and degrees. (United States Department of Education Office of Civil Rights, 1991, p. 1)

The first Morrill Act of 1862 was established to provide funding and land for Historically White Land-Grant Universities to offer agricultural, military, and mechanical

education. However, Historically Black Colleges and Universities were not included in the first passage of the Morrill Act except for the University of Virgin Islands and the University of the District of Columbia (Allen & Esters, 2018). To forbid racial discrimination against newly freed slaves, the 1890 Morrill Act passed and established 18 Black Land-Grant institutions as Blacks could not attend Historically White Land-Grant Universities (Lee & Keys, 2013). A century later, Historically Black Land-Grant Universities are still receiving disproportionate funding compared to White Historically White Land-Grant Universities.

Despite the inequitable and injustice acts of federal and state funding, there are failed financial commitments that are discriminatory and without recourse towards HBCUs. More importantly, private HBCUs rely heavily on student enrollments and other private grants and contracts to keep the doors open (Williams & Davis, 2019). HBCUs continue to provide quality education to African Americans even though the Morrill Act has failed to provide equitable funding.

With that said, the amended Higher Education Act of 1965 defined an HBCU as any Historically Black College or University that was established before 1964 whose principal mission was the education of Black Americans (Humphreys, 2005). More importantly, Historically Black Colleges and Universities were once Traditional Black Institutions (TBIs) and were established to eliminate the adverse atrocities of slavery and a century of legally sanctioned racism and discrimination against United States citizens of African descent (Humphreys, 2005; National Center for Educational Statistics, n.d.). Thereby, TBIs improved the progress of many Blacks in the United States by training the majority of Black doctors, lawyers, dentists, and teachers in this country (National Center

for Educational Statistics, n.d.). Furthermore, HBCU graduates have made a significant impact by becoming national leaders in many fields. For example, alumni include Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. from Morehouse College; Dr. John Hope Franklin, renowned historian, from Fisk University; Dr. William Julius Wilson, the leading scholar on Black poverty; Leontyne Price, Metropolitan Opera diva, from Wilberforce University; and Ossie Davis, Ruby Dee, Andrew Young, and Kamala Harris from Howard University (Henderson, 2001). In addition to King and Young, many other leaders of the civil rights movement were HBCU graduates.

Before the establishment of HBCUs, African Americans were denied admission to Traditionally White Institutions (TWIs). Therefore, HBCUs became the means for providing postsecondary education to African Americans (United States Department of Education Office of Civil Rights, 1991). Although these institutions were called universities or institutes from their founding, a major part of the institution's mission was to provide elementary and secondary schooling for students who had no previous education (United States Department of Education Office of Civil Rights, 1991). It was not until the early 1900s that HBCUs offered courses and programs at the postsecondary level (United States Department of Education Office of Civil Rights, 1991).

According to the United States Department of Education Office of Civil Rights (1991), by 1953, over 32,000 students were enrolled in private Black institutions such as Fisk University, Hampton Institute, Howard University, Meharry Medical College, Morehouse College, Spelman College, the Tuskegee Institute, and smaller Black colleges located in the South. Moreover, in the same year, over 43,000 students were enrolled in Black public colleges. Currently, there are 101 HBCUs located in 19 states, the District

of Columbia, and the U.S. Virgin Islands (National Center for Educational Statistics, n.d.). Many HBCUs are located in the South and are near areas with relatively low levels of economic well-being and where the generation of economic activity is critical (National Center for Educational Statistics, n.d.).

Most recent data show that of the 101 HBCUs, 51 are public institutions, and 50 are private nonprofit institutions. The number of HBCU enrollments increased 47 percent, from 223,000 to 327,000 students, between 1976 and 2010, then decreased 11 percent, to 292,000 students, between 2010 and 2018 (National Center for Educational Statistics, n.d.). In comparison, the number of students in all degree-granting institutions increased 91 percent, from 11 million to 21 million students, between 1976 and 2010, then decreased 7 percent, to 20 million students, between 2010 and 2018 (National Center for Educational Statistics, n.d.). In 2019, a total of 223,163 students enrolled at an HBCU (National Center for Education Statistics, 2019c).

Recent scholars argue that Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) are still the gateways to higher education for Black and other racial and ethnic minority students seeking a college degree (Arroyo & Gasman, 2014; Debb et al., 2018; Gasman et al., 2017a; Wiggan & Scott, 2015). More importantly, Lomax (2017) stated that HBCUs have been at the forefront in creating best practices to get underprepared, first-generation students ready for the rigor of college work. Lomax (2017) purported that the moment students arrive on the campus of an HBCU, the president, faculty, counselors, and support staff carefully monitor their progress.

For example, most HBCUs track whether students are showing up for classes, whether students are falling behind in their studies and whether students are utilizing the

tutoring and support services (Lomax, 2017). HBCUs share a common mission of providing African Americans with opportunities for self-empowerment, social connectedness, and increased educational opportunities (Arroyo & Gasman, 2014; Toldson, 2018). Therefore, African American students choose to enroll at HBCUs because they are academically challenging and provide a supportive environment that surrounds and uplifts African American students (Arroyo & Gasman, 2014; Bonner & King, 2014).

African American students who attend HBCUs learn to navigate stressors such as culturally embedded racism and discriminatory stereotypes that are often associated with being Black in America (Debb et al., 2018; Greer & Chwalisz, 2007). The institutional racism that conspires to overwhelm African American students makes it seem as though non-majority students are not performing at a standard expected at the college level which perpetuates stereotypes (Arroyo & Gasman, 2014). Debb et al. (2018) postulated that HBCUs do not ignore societal problems or force African American students to develop an identity based on the dominant group's culture. HBCUs provide students with a nurturing environment that engages and supports their identity, culture, and academic achievement (Gasman et al., 2017a).

Research suggests that HBCUs contribute to the success of Black students in special ways (Gasman et al., 2017b). For example, a qualitative study by Palmer and Young (2009) described factors underlying the success of Black men attending a Historically Black College and found that student involvement helped students foster meaningful relationships with the campus constituencies. Additional findings from Palmer and Young (2009) indicated that positive interactions with faculty demonstrating

empathy, concern, and belief in their ability to succeed were significant in African American males' academic success.

A recent literature review by Gasman et al. (2017a) examined the academic contributions of HBCUs and found that Morgan State University, Morehouse College, and Texas Southern University were among the top three producing Black male graduates in business. However, in the area of homeland security and law enforcement, the top three institutions were North Carolina A&T University, Tennessee State University, and Edward Waters College. The top three institutions in education were Tennessee State University, Harris-Stowe State University, and Morgan State University. Closely examining these institutions can provide insight into practices that may contribute to the academic resilience and academic success of African American males (Gasman et al., 2017b).

Other scholars (Palmer & Gasman, 2008; Toldson, 2018) suggested that HBCUs are well-known for supporting and empowering African American students and should be a model for institutions to follow. Other scholars (Arroyo & Gasman, 2014; Cokley 2000; Flowers 2002; Flowers & Pascarella, 1999; Kimbrough & Harper, 2006) have argued that HBCUs not only improve the experiences of African American undergraduate males but produce high levels of academic achievement among African American students, and positively influence African American students' success during and after matriculation. Consequently, HBCUs serve as a counter-space that acknowledges their strengths and potential despite their socioeconomic, cultural, and racial background (Arroyo & Gasman, 2014; Gasman et al., 2017b). The next section discusses African American males' academic achievement in higher education.

African American Males' Academic Achievement in Higher Education

Black male achievement narratives are often viewed and presented from a deficit lens and fail to address the academic disparities, inequality of opportunities, and unjustified treatment of African American males (Harper, 2012; Howard, 2015). For example, Bennett et al.'s (2004) research focused on the plight of Black males in education that addressed dropout rates, low test scores, academic failure, and the underrepresentation in gifted programs. Additional data on Black male educational experiences consistently depict this notion of an achievement gap when comparing White males as the reference group, in particular, the percentage of Black males graduating with a four-year degree. For example, recent data from the National Center for Education Statistics (2019e) revealed that 70,811 bachelor's degrees were conferred to African American males; 516,342 to White males; 111,468 to Hispanic males; 70,925 to Asian/Pacific Islander males; 30,219 to males with two or more races; and 3,419 to Native/American Indian males. Although, the number of degrees for African American males is higher than that of their counterparts who identify as two or more races and Native American, the number of baccalaureate degrees conferred to African American males was the lowest between their Asian/Pacific Islander, White, and Hispanic male counterparts.

Likewise, when comparing females, Noguera (2003) and Polite and Davis (1999) argued that Black men continue to lag behind their female and White male counterparts regarding college participation, retention, and degree completion rates. The educational problems and issues that Black men experience in elementary and secondary schools are similar in postsecondary education (Cross & Slater, 2000). According to the National

Center for Education Statistics (NCES, 2019e), recent data revealed that African American females earned more bachelor's degrees than their African American male counterparts. For example, in 2018-2019, 125,845 bachelor's degrees were conferred to African American females; 673,667 to White females; 173,542 to Hispanic females; 85,611 to Asian/Pacific Islander females; 43,423 to females with two or more races; and 5,746 to Native/American Indian females. As previously mentioned, the number of bachelor's degrees awarded to African American males in 2018-2019 was 70,811.

Although African American male academic achievement looks vastly different when comparing this group to their female and White counterparts, their rates of entrance, retention, and graduation, regardless of gender, are the lowest in the United States (Allen, 1992; de Brey et al., 2019; Harper, 2012; Nichols & Evans-Bell, 2017; Toldson & Lewis, 2012). However, the narratives about African American males' achievements fail to address the systemic and institutional barriers that impact their success (Brooms, 2016; Harper, 2012). Bennett et al. (2004) and Sundstrom (2008) postulated that as the Browning of America and the demographic shifts in our nation change, there is a mandate that we attend specifically to African American males' academic achievement if this nation expects to maintain a decent standard of living and a place in the global economy. Even though the troubling status of Black males in higher education has garnered national attention educators, administrators, and policymakers must grapple with what must be done to improve African American males' academic achievement (Harper & Kuykendall, 2012). Thus, focusing on how African American males succeed academically in higher education is a critical topic (Sundstrom, 2008).

Harper's (2012) anti-deficit framework provides an example of the resurgence of Black male achievement. According to Warren et al. (2016), President Obama's administration developed an initiative, My Brother's Keeper (MBK), which was an evidence-based practice in schools and communities that situated African American males as a population that is equally deserving of an excellent education. The MBK recommended a conceptual model steeped in the experiences of Black males and questioned barriers that impede their progress (Warren et al., 2016). Other scholars (Brown, 2011; Eunyoung & Hargrove, 2013; Harper, 2009) have discovered evidence that contradicts the African American male achievement failure often displayed in society.

Brown (2011) conducted a study to examine how the trajectories of the past have shaped the theories and explanations about African American males in social science and educational literature from the 1930s to 2011. Brown (2011) found that the literature on Black males has been framed around conceptual narratives that depict African American males as absent, powerless, endangered, and in crisis. Similar to Brown's research (2011), Eunyoung and Hargrove (2013) conducted a literature review that departs from the deficit-informed framework by seeking out themes that speak to and explain African American male resiliency. The developments in the research discussed African American males enrolled at Predominantly White Institutions (PWIs) and HBCUs. In the review of literature, Eunyoung and Hargrove (2013) highlighted that African American men are resilient and do succeed in college despite challenges.

Moreover, Harper (2009) offered a counter-narrative that captured the experiences of 158 African American men who were productive and resistant to the stereotypical

actions that were projected towards them during their academic journey. Moreover, negative images of Black males are often a symptom of larger media and societal components that seek to dehumanize Black males, which diminishes Black male academic achievement when it does not meet deficit-based narratives (Brown, 2011; Eunyoung & Hargrove, 2013; Harper, 2009). Broom et al. (2018) elucidated this assertion, offering analysis of 40 Black males and how the support from the surrounding community empowered these students as they existed in spaces that often disregard their identity and academic success.

Broom et al.'s (2018) analysis acknowledged a salient point that African American male achievement begins with effective engagement and the creation of counter-spaces that affirm their gender and racialized identities. While the counter-narrative on African American males' academic success in higher education has grown, many faculty and administrators at PWIs are circumspect to fully embracing an equitable approach to promoting academic achievement for Black males (Broom et al., 2018; Harper, 2012). While several universities offer Black male retention programs such as the African American Male Initiative Program, Minority Male Mentoring, and Black Male Think Tank which are effective at supporting Black males, the vast majority of universities across the United States do not (Brooms et al., 2018). These programs intend to offer Black male students the opportunity to engage in climates that safeguard them from social and racial isolation that is often rampant at PWIs (Brooms, 2016; Brooms et al., 2018). HBCUs are culturally supportive environments that enrich the social, emotional, and academic progress of African American males (Bonner & King, 2014; Palmer et al., 2010; Palmer & Gasman, 2008).

African American Males' Achievement at Historically Black Colleges and Universities

The academic success and degree attainment for undergraduate African American males at Historically Black Colleges and Universities remains a major concern. By definition, academic achievement includes retention and graduation rates, but other variables such as campus culture, financial support, and resiliency may impact students' academic achievement (Randolph, 2019). The impetus of most research centers around their academic achievement and experiences (Farmer & Hope, 2015). Over the last 20 years, studies on African American males' academic success at HBCUs have grown (Bonner, 2003; Cooper 2018; Goings, 2016; Shappie & Debb, 2019). In an effort to extinguish the looming gap in the literature on African American male students at HBCUs, several scholars have conducted both qualitative and quantitative studies.

Bonner (2003) conducted a phenomenological case study on two high achieving American males enrolled at an HBCU and a PWI. Bonner (2003) found that a welcoming and positive college climate, positive family influence and support, and positive relationships with faculty and peers were factors that influence African American males' levels of perceived academic success. Likewise, Cooper (2018) interviewed 10 Black males at different HBCUs to highlight the academic progress of Black male athletes. Cooper (2018) found that each of the students maintained a passing grade point average and agreed that their growth as men and as students was directly related to the supportive environment at their HBCU. Furthermore, Cooper's (2018) findings dismantle the typical narrative that Black male student-athletes are ill-equipped to be students first and athletes second.

Similarly, Goings (2016) conducted a phenomenological inquiry to investigate the academic and social experiences of four Black male undergraduates. Throughout the investigation, the participants provided an in-depth description of how, despite being non-traditional students, the students, faculty, and climate aided their progression towards a baccalaureate degree. Despite the contention often discussed concerning HBCUs, they are known for their alternative methods of unlocking and defining success to support African American males' academic achievement (Gasman et al., 2017b; Goings, 2016).

In contrast to the qualitative studies, Kim and Conrad (2006) conducted a nine-year longitudinal data and hierarchical non-linear modeling analyses of African American students attending an HBCU and Historically White College (HWI). Kim and Conrad (2006) found that African American students attending the HBCU and HWI had similar results in the probability of obtaining a bachelor's degree. A preliminary analysis of Kim and Conrad's (2006) research showed that the mean degree completion rate did not differ significantly between HBCUs and HWIs, and African American students' college GPAs did not differ between the two types of institutions.

Shappie and Debb (2019) conducted a recent quantitative analysis of 241 African American undergraduate students at an HBCU to investigate if student engagement was associated with student achievement and persistence to degree completion. Shappie and Debb (2019) found that performance and skills engagement were significant in the students' achievement. For example, the African American students in the sample who thought they could succeed in their courses achieved a higher final grade in their course. Shappie and Debb (2019) asserted that HBCUs may be better equipped to facilitate African American students' feelings of academic self-efficacy by providing an

atmosphere where students are not afraid to ask their professors or peers for help or guidance.

In addition, a quantitative study was conducted by Farmer and Hope (2015) to examine if high school grade point averages and first semester grade point averages (GPAs) had a relationship to retention and graduation for African American males at an HBCU. Farmer and Hope (2015) found that students with higher high school GPAs were more likely to be retained and graduate than those with lower GPAs. Students with higher first semester GPAs were most likely to be retained and graduate than those with lower first semester GPAs (Farmer & Hope, 2015).

In contrast, Strayhorn (2014b) researched 140 African American first year students at an HBCU and presented a different perspective that examined the relationship between first year GPA and self-authorship. According to Strayhorn (2014b), self-authorship is a relatively new research concept and is described as the ability to collect, interpret, and analyze information and reflect on one's own beliefs to form judgments. Strayhorn (2014b) found that self-authorship predicts first year GPA above and beyond background characteristics and traditional measures of academic preparation for college such as high school GPA, ACT, and SAT scores.

Many participants described the HBCU environment as a supportive and caring environment that has enabled them to succeed. While success can be measured in many ways, the top three indicators that HBCUs utilize to define academic success are students' grade point average (GPA), retention, and graduation rates (Arroyo & Gasman, 2014). Therefore, institutions of higher learning can glean from the experiences of

HBCUs as conduits in positively impacting the lives of African American males by having strategies and support services in place to improve their plight.

As Brooms (2019) contended, “Toldson and Lewis have urged us to challenge the status quo and critically develop proactive strategies that prepare African American males to compete at a college or university” (p. 806). Despite the policy discourse and deficit-framing of African American males’ academic success, proactive strategies along with an examination of historical narratives juxtaposed with new narratives must be part of the achievement paradigm (Bonner & King, 2014; Brooms, 2019; Gasman et al., 2017b; Lewis et al., 2008). Given this reasonable concern, the focus on resilience, retention, and graduation is to better understand those who have been successful and those who have not (Harper, 2012; Morales, 2010).

Ruffalo Noel Levitz Retention Management System

According to Ruffalo Noel-Levitz (2019), the Retention Management System (RMS) is an effective assessment tool designed to promote academic and social integration for students on college campuses by allowing each student to attain intellectual and personal growth within their capacity. The primary purpose of the RMS is to foster effective communication between students and their advisors. Essentially, this is accomplished by identifying students’ needs, attitudes, motivational patterns, resources, coping mechanisms, and receptivity to intervention.

Moreover, this proactive approach to student retention is designed to enable institutions to: (1) assess students’ individual academic and personal needs, (2) recognize students’ specific strengths and coping mechanisms so that successful intervention techniques in areas of need can be implemented, (3) identify students who may have

academic or personal difficulties and who may drop out, (4) understand students' attitudes and motivational patterns so that interventions are more successful, and (5) enable advisors to have effective and rewarding personal contact with students early in the first term (Ruffalo Noel-Levitz, 2019). The RMS assessment enables institutions to address student characteristics that lead to retention and graduation. The RMS assessment allows institutions to choose the appropriate forms of the College Student Inventory Forms A, B, and C to address their student's characteristics that lead to attrition (Ruffalo Noel-Levitz, 2019). This dissertation will use secondary survey data from the College Student Inventory - Form B.

College Student Inventory Form B

The College Student Inventory (CSI) is the foundation of the RMS and was designed especially for incoming first year students (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2021). There are currently three versions of the CSI: Form A, Form B, and Form C. The author of the CSI, Michael L. Stratil, began his research in academic and social motivation to create a coherent framework for understanding human motivation and identifying motivational variables that are closely related to persistence and academic success in college and developing reliable and valid instruments for measuring these variables (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2021). As a result of his research, the original version of the CSI (titled the "Stratil Counseling Inventory") was published in 1984. The current versions of the College Student Inventory—Form A, Form B, and Form C—were published in 1988, 2000, and 2006 respectively. Each of the three versions was developed in response to the specific needs of various student populations (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2021).

The College Student Inventory (CSI) Form B contains 100 items. The student's responses to these items are summarized by 17 different scales and organized under three categories: academic motivation, general coping skills, and receptivity to support services (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2010). The scales include study habits, intellectual interests, verbal confidence, math and science confidence, desire to finish college, attitude toward educators, social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, career closure, sense of financial security, academic assistance, personal counseling, social enrichment, career counseling, financial guidance, and commitment to college (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2010). The CSI weighs the above scales to construct four compound scales designed to summarize a student's academic motivation, dropout proneness, predicted academic difficulty, and receptivity to institutional help (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2010). However, for this dissertation, the researcher examined four scales: social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, and commitment to college to determine if these scales impact African American males' academic resilience.

Social Engagement

According to Kahu (2013), social engagement is defined as the process whereby students participate or engage in college clubs, sports, and other campus activities to develop a sense of belonging, build social networks, and develop relationships with other students. Shappie and Debb (2019) and Kahu (2013) posited that social engagement may facilitate persistence toward a student's degree completion. To illustrate this point, Flynn (2014) used the Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study to examine the social and academic student engagement of students and their baccalaureate degree attainment at 4-year institutions. Flynn (2014) found that academic and social student

engagement behaviors significantly impact students' degree attainment in postsecondary education.

To expand the research on social engagement, Brooms (2020) conducted a qualitative study to explore the experiences of 65 Black males in a Black Male Initiative (BMI) at three different higher education institutions in the United States. The findings indicated that the BMI program provided Black males with a sense of self and connected them to campus. Additional findings highlighted how their identities matter and how engaged they were with other Black men by learning about their race and gender identities. These findings debunk the deficit projections of Black male students as underachieving and uncaring about their education. The BMI programs increased their sense of belonging and foster a sense of brotherhood among the participants (Brooms, 2020).

Ruffalo Noel Levitz (2019) described social engagement scale measures as the student's general inclination to join social activities. The relationship between social engagement and academic outcomes can be complex. However, Palmer et al. (2010) opined that the culture of social engagement and participation of Black males at HBCUs has increased retention and persistence. Brooms (2018) asserted that investigating how students might benefit from social engagement in student-centered programs, activities, and organizations can help support their academic success.

Family Support

Several scholars Danforth and Miller (2018), and Palmer et al. (2011) have argued that strong family support is a contributing factor influencing the academic success of African American male college students. Using a grounded theory approach, Danforth

and Miller (2018) uncovered essential resources that increased African American males' likelihood of college enrollment. Moreover, this grounded theory examined African American males' perspectives regarding the role that single mother families play in contributing to their resiliency and helping them enroll in college. Danforth and Miller (2018) found that the participants' mothers had non-negotiable expectations of college attendance and served as the backbone of the resiliency processes. Moreover, the mothers encouraged precollege socialization for their sons, including practicing authoritative parenting, providing hands-on assistance during the application process, and setting an example by attending college themselves (Danforth & Miller, 2018).

Conversely, Palmer et al. (2011) conducted a qualitative study of 11 Black male students at a public HBCU to gain insight into how family support promoted their academic success. Palmer et al. (2011) found that family support emerged as a salient factor for all participants' academic success. Furthermore, Palmer et al. (2011) found participants indicated that role modeling was used to impress upon them the significance of obtaining a college degree.

Palmer et al. (2011) argued that educational institutions must be proactive about involving family to support student success. College administrators, faculty, and staff should recognize that families of color are uniquely skilled at supporting and encouraging minority students. Therefore, colleges and universities should consider understanding the dynamics of family relationships to learn how to engage families in the academic and social experiences of African American students (Palmer et al., 2011). As Palmer et al. (2011) and Kahu (2013) posited, it is enlightening to know that family support influences retention in college and persistence; however, knowing how family impacts African

American males' academic success can help institutions effectively configure support programs.

Ruffalo Noel Levitz (2019) described the family support scale measures as the student's satisfaction with the quality of communication, understanding, and respect they have experienced in their family. These are factors that can influence their ability to adapt to the stresses of college life. Hence, advisors can offer encouragement and empathy to low-scoring students or can refer students for personal counseling. According to Ruffalo Noel Levitz (2019), low family support has repeatedly emerged in the validity studies as a strong correlate of attrition, particularly in academically successful students.

Capacity for Tolerance

According to Thompson (2014), undergraduate educational experiences on college campuses should prepare students to have the capacity for tolerance, understanding, and mutual respect to meet society's twenty-first century needs for civic-minded individuals. Faried and Shams (2018) conducted a qualitative study of undergraduate students to explore the level of tolerance students had towards certain social and religious factors such as gender, ethnicity, and religion. Faried and Shams (2018) found that tolerance can reframe a person's way of thinking and can transfer from an emotional manner to an intellectual and rational manner which is important for students to develop a conscious mind, be more tolerant, and avoid prejudices and stereotypes.

In the same vein, Deafenbaugh's (2017) dissertation indicated that cultural processes through the folklife education approach developed students' capacity for social tolerance by helping students gain more complex understandings about the interlocking

nature of cultural similarities and differences. Thompson (2014) opined that students with these skills, dispositions, and intellectual capabilities may be effective globally and among diverse individuals. Educational practices must include the need to foster readiness to learn new information and ways of thinking, re-examine prior beliefs and views regarding knowledge, and employ pedagogies of engagement to develop empathy and commitment among college students (Thompson, 2014).

Ruffalo Noel Levitz (2019) described the capacity for tolerance scale measures as the student's tendency to be open to new ideas and sensitive to sometimes threatening aspects of the world. First year students often are exposed to different cultural events, political philosophies, customs, interpersonal relationships, and narrow or defensive reactions that may interfere with their education. Ruffalo Noel Levitz (2019) suggested alerting low-scoring students to the new ideas they will be studying in college. Therefore, advisors can encourage them to make a conscious effort to broaden their cultural and personal horizons.

Commitment to College

Savage et al. (2019) and Tinto (1993) stated that students' commitment to stay or leave an institution may be due to their academic progress and the messages students receive from university members. Additionally, student commitment to the institution may reflect how students perceive members of the university and the institution's values and goals. Tinto (1993) argued that a student's commitment to college impacts their time to degree completion.

Woosley et al. (2005) conducted a quantitative study of 1,172 students who withdrew from a Midwest public university and subsequently re-enrolled. Woosley et

al.'s (2005) purpose was to broaden previous research by examining the extent to which students withdrew and returned to the institution. Woosley et al. (2005) found that many of the students who withdrew from the institution returned, and the students' academic goals and institutional commitment were significant predictors for their re-enrollment.

In an analysis of the effects on students' adjustment and commitment to college, Grant-Vallone et al. (2003) conducted a quantitative study that collected survey data from 118 college students to examine the relationship between academic and social adjustment and college commitment. According to Grant-Vallone et al. (2003), the findings indicated that students who adjusted to campus life were more likely to be committed to obtaining a college degree and more committed to their university. Grant-Vallone et al. (2003) argued that offering academic and social support services programs such as the Educational Opportunity Program (EOP), the Academic Support Program for Intellectual Rewards and Enhancement (A.S.P.I.R.E.), and the Faculty Mentoring Program (FMP) can increase underrepresented students' retention and graduation rates. Grant-Vallone et al. (2003) suggested that offering extra counseling and support services to underrepresented students builds a bridge between the student and the university. More importantly, it helps students develop a stronger academic foundation while recognizing their academic resiliency and scholastic abilities.

Ruffalo Noel Levitz (2019) described the commitment to college scale measures as the degree to which the student values a college education, is satisfied with the college life, and the long-term benefits of graduation. This scale identifies students who possess a keen interest in persisting, regardless of their prior level of achievement. Furthermore, Palmer et al. (2015) maintained that engaging African American males in the institutional

community validates their academic development, facilitates their adjustment, and increases their confidence to succeed academically.

Retention in Higher Education

According to Randolph (2019), retention and graduation rates are essential for any institution to succeed in the current higher education market. Randolph (2019) asserted that academic achievement encapsulates retention and graduation rates and other variables such as campus culture, financial support, and resiliency. Tinto's (1993) Interactionist Theory describes retention as a function between the student's academic capabilities and motivation and the institution's academic and social characteristics that determine if a student will remain at the institution. Retention of students, specifically African American males in higher education, varies among a wide range of personal and social characteristics and institutional practices such as family support, institutional commitment, academic preparedness, academic experience, academic and social match, and finance and employment (Thomas, 2002). According to Brooks et al. (2013), the lack of academic preparation, absence of similar cultural backgrounds, and financial need, coupled with being away from home, contribute to retaining African American males.

Ruffalo Noel Levitz (2019) conducted a study on student retention practices to determine the most effective retention practices for public and private, two-year, and four-year institutions. Ruffalo Noel Levitz (2010) concluded that academic support programs that are designed to raise the retention rates of first year students place an institution-wide emphasis "on teaching and learning and have the best student retention practices" (p. 1). Hence, universities can offer programs that assist students in improving their academic skills and performance in college courses and better prepare students to

adapt to college life which may improve the retention and graduation rates of African American males (Raju & Schumacker, 2015).

In the same vein, Brooks et al. (2013) conducted a mixed-method study of 136 African American freshman males at a large metropolitan university to investigate if retention programs were effective. The results were statistically significant when comparing students who participated in the first year retention program and those who did not. Moreover, African American male participants reported having a stronger relationship with mentors, better university academic acculturation, and improved social integration into the university community (Brooks et al., 2013). According to Brooks et al. (2013), the most notable impact from the results was for the retention coordinator's position to be solely responsible for retention initiatives.

Milea et al. (2018) conducted a longitudinal study evaluating residential living, attendance programs, demographic attributes, average class size, and student academic preparation as factors impacting retention and graduation at a midsized university in the United States. Milea et al. (2018) found that retention and graduation rates were higher for academically prepared students, students who received grants or scholarships, and students in smaller classes. However, these results were not influenced by sex, race, absenteeism, or living in residence halls (Milea et al., 2018).

Palmer et al. (2014) described HBCUs "as the critical linchpin in fostering the retention and bachelor's degree attainment of Black men" (p. 16). Therefore, HBCUs award a high proportion of bachelor and doctoral degrees to Black men. Moreover, Thomas (2002) asserted that improving the retention and success of students requires a thorough commitment from institutions:

> It is not merely the need to provide some additional student support services, nor is it an external student finance problem that can be ignored. The empirical research suggests that relationships and positions are at the heart of student success, and institutions must be willing to examine their internal structures of power and representation, including the spheres of governance, curricula, and pedagogy. (p. 440)

Graduation in Higher Education

Nearly every conversation regarding accountability in higher education includes graduation or graduation rates (Cook & Pullaro, 2010). Graduation rates are defined as the number of students who enter college and graduate within a certain number of years (Cook & Pullaro, 2010). Much of the literature on graduation includes aggregated data at the institutional level and depicts disparities (Gordon et al., 2021). The disparities in graduation rates have been an extensive problem for many years and have long-term negative consequences on future earnings and social and economic mobility that exists between Black and White students (Naylor et al., 2015; Raju & Schumacker, 2015).

A study conducted by Ciocca Eller and DiPrete (2018) examined secondary data from the Education Longitudinal Study of 2002, and the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System to identify the primary sources of the bachelor's degree completion gap comparing Black and White students enrolled at four-year colleges. Ciocca Eller and DiPrete (2018) found that bachelor's degree completion was lower among African American students than White students. Furthermore, Ciocca Eller and DiPrete (2018) concluded that African American students had lower academic and

socioeconomic resources. However, Black students were more likely to enroll in four-year colleges than White students, given pre-college resources.

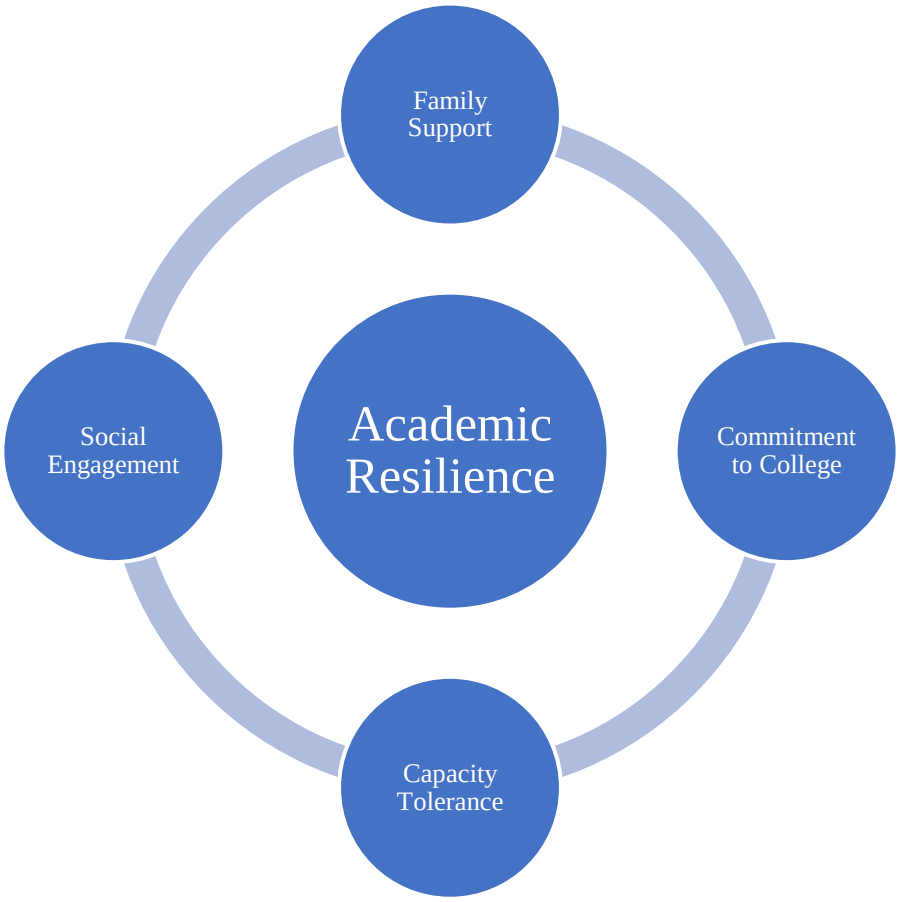
Similarly, Stout et al. (2018) conducted a quantitative study using archival data retrieved from the Integrated Postsecondary Education System (IPEDS) to examine how faculty diversity or variance affects college graduation rates for underrepresented minority students (URM) and Non-URM students. Stout et al. (2018) found that faculty diversity is lower at colleges and universities in the United States. In addition, Stout et al. (2018) found that the overall graduation rates for underrepresented minority students of all races/ethnicities are positively affected by the increased diversity of faculty. Unlike Ciocca Eller and DiPrete (2018) and Stout et al. (2018), a more recent study conducted by Gordon et al. (2021) developed a control group of institutions comparing HBCUs success and found that HBCUs have a higher graduation rate for African American students than their peers.

Similar to retention, a wide range of personal and social characteristics and institutional practices impacts students' degree completion (Thomas, 2002). Students with higher levels of academic and social integration persist in college and graduate. Guy (2014) maintained that despite the bleak picture for African American males, there are many examples of Black men who are leading productive lives. Therefore, the achievement of Black males contrasts sharply with the discourse of the endangered Black males (Guy, 2014). Hence, these studies highlight the need to examine academic resilience to determine if it impacts the retention and graduation of African American males enrolled at a private HBU. The proposed conceptual model in Figure 1 was applied to this study. The subscales of social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance,

and commitment to college were examined to determine if these subscales influence the academic resilience of African American first year males.

Figure 1

Conceptual Model for Operationalizing Academic Resilience Among African American Males



Summary

Dating back to the 1970s, resilience was examined through the lens of work-related adversity and stressful life events (Cohen et al., 1983; Kobasa, 1979; Rutter, 1985). Current researchers have found that academic resilience is strongly related to academic success (Ayala & Manzano, 2018; Eunyoung & Hargrove, 2013). More recently, researchers have made progress in understanding the influence of academic resilience among African American males (Bryan, 2005; Debb et al., 2018). Others have developed academic resilience scales (Cassidy, 2016; Connor & Davidson, 2003) and a conceptual framework (Fergus & Zimmerman, 2005) that considers a strengths-based approach to understanding resiliency.

Despite the progress, disparities are still widening in higher education when comparing African American males to their White and Asian counterparts (Moore & Lewis, 2012; Taylor et al., 2019). Based on past and current research, it is evident that there is a link between academic resilience and academic success. Therefore, it is imperative that researchers continue to investigate academic resilience and its relationship to academic success. Therefore, this study is timely and critical.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

The primary purpose of this correlational study was to examine if the relationship between commitment to college, family support, social engagement, and capacity for tolerance are a manifestation of academic resilience and predictive of retention and graduation among African American first year males at a private Historically Black College and University in the United States. Thus, a logistic regression was conducted to examine the relationship between the predictor variables (commitment to college, family support, social engagement, and capacity for tolerance) and the outcome variables (retention and graduation).

This dissertation study adopts Harper's (2012) anti-deficit framework that disrupts the deficit framing that African American males are ineducable, unintelligent, disadvantaged, and at-risk of failing academically (Harper, 2012; Howard, 2015; Jenkins, 2006; Kim & Hargrove, 2013). The emphasis on African American males' academic success must be counterbalanced with their academic resilience in undergraduate degree attainment despite transition issues, racist stereotypes, and academic under-preparedness (Harper, 2012). This chapter describes the methodology of the study, including (a) the institutional context, (b) the study design, (c) the research questions, (d) the sample population, (e) the survey instrument, (f) the survey reliability and validity, (g) data procedure, (h) variables used in the analysis, and (i) study limitations.

Institutional Context

Carter G. Woodson University (CGWU) is a pseudonym to protect the institution's privacy. CGWU is a small independent private liberal arts Historically Black College and University located in the United States and enrolls approximately 1,600

highly talented students from various backgrounds (CGWU, 2021). CGWU continues to gain a national reputation for integrating the liberal arts with business, the sciences, and technology in innovative and socially conscious ways to empower students to become diverse entrepreneurial citizens and leaders (CGWU, 2021). CGWU offers both undergraduate and graduate programs. CGWU provides an enriching environment that enables students to explore and grow intellectually, socially, culturally and spiritually, and develop a sense of social responsibility. CGWU is committed to hiring expert faculty members who prepare students for rewarding careers by helping them develop the professional and social skills needed for workforce success. CGWU continues to evolve into a 21st-century university that builds upon its long legacy of producing compassionate and forward-thinking leaders (CGWU, 2021).

According to the NCES (2021), CGWU undergraduate enrollment in 2019 was approximately 1,500 students, with 39.7% males, and 60.3% females. Additionally, 82.7% identify as Black or African American, 0.6% as American Indian or Alaskan Native, 0.3% as Asian, 2.2% as Hispanic/Latino, 0.1% as Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, 1.5% as White, 0.4% as two or more races, 1.1% as Non-resident alien, and 11.2% race and ethnicity were unknown. According to CGWU (2021), in 2016-2017, 83 full-time faculty members had terminal degrees, with 29 part-time faculty holding terminal degrees. In the fall of 2019, CGWU had 86 full-time faculty and 70 part-time faculty (NCES, 2021).

Study Design

The research design utilized in this study was a correlational quantitative analysis of secondary survey data to examine the strength and direction of relationships between

the variables (Mertens, 2015). I explored secondary survey data from the Ruffalo Noel Levitz College Student Inventory (CSI) collected by CGWU. The CSI survey measures students' attitudes and motivational patterns that capture the perceptions of students' experiences inside and outside the classroom and collects student demographic information (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2019).

The CSI helps pinpoint challenges and priorities by looking at the institution inside and outside the classroom to analyze a wide spectrum of issues affecting the student experience (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2019). Over the past ten years, CGWU has developed a dataset of first year students capturing information on the following variables: social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, commitment to college, dropout proneness, career plans, and financial security (CGWU, 2021).

Using secondary data provided the opportunity to study a sample of African American first year male students on the predictor and outcome variables. Utilizing a binary logistic regression analysis, the researcher determined if a relationship exists between measures of academic resilience using the following subscales: social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, and commitment to college. The key outcome variables of this study are graduation and retention.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this dissertation study:

RQ1: Are measures of academic resilience (social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, and commitment to college) predictive of retention?

H_0: Measures of academic resilience (social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, and commitment to college) are not predictive of retention.

H_1: Measures of academic resilience (social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, and commitment to college) are predictive of retention.

RQ2: Are measures of academic resilience (social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, and commitment to college) predictive of graduation?

H_0: Measures of academic resilience (social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, and commitment to college) are not predictive of graduation.

H_1: Measures of academic resilience (social engagement, family support, capacity for tolerance, and commitment to college) are predictive of graduation.

Sample

This study used five years of survey data from CGWU with a focus on the first year African American male participants who completed the CSI survey in 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, and 2015 who entered the university as first-time, full-time students. The researcher selected these five cohorts to increase the sample size of the study. As a result, in 2011, 42 African American first year male students responded to the CSI survey questions. In 2012, 51 participants responded, and 46 responded in 2013. In 2014, 35 responded, and 49 in 2015. The total sample size was 223 African American first year male participants. Although the sample size is small, it is a representative sample of the 647 African American first year males enrolled at CGWU from 2011-2015.

Of the 223 African American males completing the survey, all were first year African American males. Ninety-eight percent of the African American male participants ranged from the age of 17-20, and 2% range from the age of 26-28. The researcher selected the above cohort years because it typically takes a student four to six years to graduate from college. Therefore, the researcher defined graduation as students

completing college within four, five, or six years and defined retention as students who enrolled in the fall semester and returned in the proceeding fall semester (National Center for Educational Statistics, n. d.; Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2019).

Survey Instrument

The data used for this study was secondary data from the Ruffalo Noel Levitz's College Student Inventory (CSI) Form B administered in 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, and 2015. The CSI Form B survey contains 100 items and is summarized by 17 different constructs under three categories: Academic Motivation, General Coping Skills, and Receptivity to Support Services (Ruffalo Noel-Levitz, 2010). The scales maintained in CSI-B include study habits; intellectual interests; verbal confidence; math and science confidence; the desire to finish college; attitude toward educators; sociability; family emotional support; opinion tolerance; career closure; a sense of financial security; academic assistance; personal counseling; social enrichment; career counseling; financial guidance; and desire to transfer (Ruffalo Noel-Levitz, 2010). The CSI weighs these scales to construct four composite scales designed to summarize students' academic motivation, dropout proneness, predicted academic difficulty, educational stress, and receptivity to institutional help. The CSI measures four items per students' social engagement and family support, with six items measuring capacity for tolerance and eight measuring commitment to the college (Ruffalo Noel-Levitz, 2010).

The CSI is administered annually online at the beginning of the fall semester to first-time, full-time students at CGWU. The online use of the CSI allows CGWU access to the reports immediately upon completion of the CSI. The purpose of the CSI is to provide early alerts to faculty and advisors to identify and intervene on behalf of students

who may be considering dropping out of college. (Noel Levitz, 2019). The CSI uses leading noncognitive indicators of college student success to provide college administrators with detailed information about each student's academic motivations, areas of risk, and receptivity to specific student services (Noel Levitz, 2019).

Survey Reliability and Validity

The reliability and construct validity of the College Student Inventory – Form B (CSI-B) survey was conducted by Ruffalo Noel Levitz. According to Ruffalo Noel Levitz (2010), internal consistency of .80 suggested that the scales constructed in the CSI-B are well-grounded and statistically sound. The three constructs used for this dissertation had an internal consistency of .725 for commitment college, .723 for family support, and .748 for social engagement. Capacity for tolerance was removed from the model because the internal consistency was -.104. Moreover, the CSI scales significantly outperform more traditional, standardized measures of ability, such as test scores and high school grades. Furthermore, the findings show significant relationships exist between motivation and student success in college (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2010).

Ruffalo Noel Levitz College Student Inventory Form B is a 100-item survey tool used by four-year universities because of its scores on the reliability and validity tests and its large national norm base (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2021). The CSI has been used by more than 1,400 institutions and completed by more than 2.6 million students nationwide (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2021). Moreover, the CSI was created specifically for incoming first year students to complete during the first few weeks of classes as a leading tool for early identification and early alerts and intervention for new students.

The level of satisfaction is measured using a seven-point Likert scale, with seven being completely true and one being not at all true. Students completing the survey self-report their ratings on each of the items. This study focused on academic resilience and used the following scales: social engagement, family support, and commitment to college to explore students' perceptions of academic resilience (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2021).

Data Procedure

The researcher obtained University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval by exempt status because no human subjects were directly involved. After the University's IRB approval, the researcher completed a second IRB application for Carter G. Woodson University (pseudonym) to obtain the secondary dataset. The researcher received de-identifiable data from the data provider in an excel file format. The file was scanned for missing data and later imported into SPSS version 27. The data file contained data that was requested from the IRB application.

The researcher examined responses for data inconsistencies by sorting the data for each variable. Variables were re-coded before the analysis. For example, the retention and graduation outcome variables were re-coded as binary variables (0-No, 1-Yes). Ten items from the survey questions that aligned with each predictor variable (commitment to college, capacity for tolerance, family support, and social engagement) were reverse coded so that negative responses would indicate the same type of responses for each item. DeVellis (2017) states that reverse coding responses ensure a high score transforms into the corresponding low scores on the scale.

After the reverse code, twenty-six items were computed to create a composite score for each predictor variable. Of the 223 cases, six were missing due to nonresponses

to survey questions in the following categories: family support, commitment to college, social engagement, and capacity for tolerance. The researcher did not identify any other data errors or inconsistencies. The resulting sample size in the analysis was 217.

The data was screened for goodness of fit, assumptions, multicollinearity, and outliers. There were no outliers in the dataset. Last, a binary logistic regression analysis was conducted to test four predictor variables (commitment to college, capacity for tolerance, family support, and social engagement) with the two outcome variables (retention and graduation) at a 95% confidence level.

Variables Used in Regression Analysis

The logistic regression model helped to determine if academic resilience is manifested through the predictor variables among African American first year males at a private HBU in the United States. According to Harrell (2015), a binary logistic regression allows a study to test a set of predictor variables related to a dichotomous response variable. The predictor variables of this study were commitment to college, capacity for tolerance, family support, and social engagement. Retention and graduation were the outcome variables with a dichotomous response.

The answer choices for the outcome variables of retention and graduation were binary with (1) for yes and (0) for no. Logistic regression was performed with the outcome variables and predictor variables. Retention was entered as the outcome variable, and family support, commitment to college, social engagement, and capacity for tolerance were predictor variables. An additional logistic regression was performed with the outcome variable of graduation with predictor variables of family support,

commitment to college, social engagement, and capacity for tolerance. The equation for the logistic regression model is as follows (Cohen et al., 2003).

$$\ln\left(\frac{\hat{p}}{(1-\hat{p})}\right) = b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + \ldots + b_pX_p$$

As shown in Table 5, the definitions of variables are provided.

Table 5

Definitions of Variables

Predictor Variables	Definition
Capacity Tolerance	Is defined as the student's tendency to be open to new ideas and to the sensitive and sometimes threatening aspects of the world (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2019).
Commitment to College	Is the degree to which students value college education. This includes satisfaction of college life and the long-term benefits of graduation (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2019).
Family Support	Is defined as the quality of communication, understanding, and respect students have experienced in their families (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2019).
Social Engagement	Is defined as the student's desire to meet other students and to participate in group activities (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2019).
Outcome Variables	
Graduation	Is the percentage of full-time, first-time, degree-seeking enrolled students who graduate after 150 percent of the normal time for completion, defined as six years for four-year colleges (National Center for Educational Statistics, n.d.).
Retention	Is the enrollment from the fall of the first year enrollment to the fall semester of the next year at the same institution (National Center for Educational Statistics, n.d.)

Social Engagement

Shappie and Debb (2019) and Kahu (2013) suggested that social engagement may facilitate persistence toward a student's degree completion. The social engagement predictor variable was computed as an ordinal variable. This variable was based on the following survey questions about students' perception of social engagement: question 24, I like to attend informal gatherings where I can meet new friends; question 33, participating in large social gatherings are of little interest to me; question 43, I like to find out more about student government and various student activities on campus; question 48, I enjoy getting together with a crowd of people and having fun; question 67, I would like to meet an experienced student who can show me around and give me some advice; question 71, it is hard for me to relax and have fun with a group of people; question 91, I would like to find out more about the clubs and social organizations at my college; and question 96, I am very adventurous and outgoing at large social gatherings. Questions 33 and 71 were reverse coded.

Family Support

Palmer et al. (2011) and Kahu (2013) opined that family support influences retention in college and knowing how family impacts African American males' academic success can help institutions effectively configure support programs. The family support predictor variable was computed as an ordinal variable. This variable was based on the following survey questions about students' perception of family support: question 21, when I was a child, my parents understood and respected my judgment in ways that helped me grow; question 45, my family had one way of looking at me when I was a child, and they didn't understand my feelings; question 65, my family and I

communicated very well when I was young, and we had a good understanding of each other's viewpoint; and question 87, when I was a child, the other members of my family often said hurtful things. Questions 45 and 87 were reverse coded.

Capacity for Tolerance

Deafenbaugh (2017) and Grant-Vallone et al. (2003) argued that capacity for social tolerance help students gain complex understandings about the interlocking nature of cultural similarities and differences as they adjust to campus life. Thus, students are more likely to commit to obtaining a college degree. The capacity for tolerance predictor variable was computed as an ordinal variable. This variable was based on the following survey questions about students' perception of capacity for tolerance: question 15, I get along well with other people who disagree with my opinion; question 26, when someone opinions strongly disagree with my own, I tend to develop unfriendly feelings; question 41, I feel comfortable with someone who thinks differently than I do on major social issues; question 63, I find it easy to be with friends whose political ideas differ from my own; question 81, I feel uneasy and distrustful toward people whose way of thinking is dissimilar to my own; and question 89, I tend to stay away from people whose ideas are quite different from my own. Questions 26, 81, and 89 were reverse coded. As previously mentioned, capacity for tolerance was removed from the model.

Commitment to College

Tinto (1993) and Woosley et al. (2005) argued that a student's commitment to college impacts their time to degree completion. The commitment to college predictor variable was computed as an ordinal variable. This variable was based on the following survey questions about students' perception of commitment to college: question 16, I

dread the thought of going to school for several more years and there is a part of me that would like to give up the whole thing; question 25, of all the things I could do at this point in my life going to college is definitely the most satisfying; question 38, I am deeply committed to my educational goals and I am prepared to make sacrifices to obtain them; question 51, I am strongly dedicated to finishing college no matter what obstacles get in my way; question 60, I have a very strong desire to continue my education and I am determined to finish a degree; question 74, I have no desire to transfer to another college before finishing a degree at this college or university; question 85, I can think of many things I would rather do than go to college; and question 94, I often wonder if a college education is really worth all the time, money, and effort that I'm being asked to put into it. Questions 16, 85, and 94 were reverse coded.

Retention and Graduation

According to Arroyo and Gasman (2014) and Gasman et al. (2017a), academic achievement encapsulates that retention and graduation are essential to African American males' academic success. Moreover, both factors determine if a student will remain at the institution. The outcome variable of retention was coded as binary (No= 0, Yes=1) if the participants returned next fall.

Gordon et al. (2021) found that HBCUs have a higher graduation rate for African American students than their peers. Similar to retention, Thomas (2002) asserted that a wide range of personal and social characteristics and institutional practices impact students' degree completion. The outcome variable of graduation was coded as binary (No= 0, Yes=1) if the participants graduated in either four, five, or six years.

Limitations and Delimitations

There were several limitations to this study. First, the survey was administered to first year students during the first three weeks of the fall semester (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2021). Thus, students may not have adjusted to college at the appropriate time to provide accurate responses. Since the CSI is administered early in the semester, the Mid-Year Student Survey could have been used as a follow-up survey to gauge students' perception of family support, commitment to college, and social engagement. The researcher could have included additional questions in the CSI survey about students' perceptions of academic resilience. However, since the researcher obtained the secondary data after the survey administration, the opportunity to add questions had passed.

A second limitation is the survey did not ask questions regarding how the institutional structure or practices impacted their academic resilience. Third, the secondary data from the participants did not represent all African American males enrolled at CGWU from all academic levels (sophomores, juniors, and seniors). Thus, the analysis does not adequately represent all African American males in higher education attending an HBCU or PWI. This limitation is important given existing research highlighting the underperformance of African American males when compared to their White and Asian counterparts on academic success (Harper, 2012; Palmer et al., 2009).

There were several delimitations in this study. First, additional variables such as sense of belonging, academic self-efficacy, dropout proneness, predicted academic difficulty, and educational stress that may have impacted the analyses could not all be included in this study. Therefore, the variables I chose were correlated and had a positive

interaction based on the literature. Variables not included were socioeconomic status, grade point averages, and SAT and ACT scores.

The second delimitation was the sample size of only first year African American males from one private HBU in the United States. Although there are over 100 HBCUs in the United States, this study gleaned from the perceptions of African American first year males at one private HBCU. More importantly, the results of this study may not be generalizable to all HBCUs or African American first year males. Even though scholars (Arroyo & Gasman, 2014; Flowers & Pascarella, 1999; Kimbrough & Harper, 2006) have argued that HBCUs improve the experiences and produce high levels of academic achievement, investigating multiple HBCUs and increasing the sample size should be addressed in future research.

Summary

Chapter 3 provided details regarding the methodology for this research. The purpose of this research, institutional context, study design, research questions, sample population, survey instrument, survey reliability and validity, data procedure, variables used in the regression analysis, and study limitations were presented. Utilizing three theoretical frameworks, Harper's (2012) anti-deficit achievement, Fergus and Zimmerman's (2005) resiliency theoretical framework, and critical race structuralism (CRS), the researcher investigated if family support, commitment to college, and social engagement manifested as academic resilience and predicted retention and graduation among African American first year males at a private HBCU in the United States. Ruffalo Noel Levitz's College Student Inventory (CSI) Survey Form B was used for this study.

The survey contained the variables for the study that was completed by first year African American male students at CGWU. The sample size included 223 African American male participants. The predictor variables examined included commitment to college, family support, and social engagement. The outcome variables included retention and graduation. Both research questions were answered utilizing a binary logistic regression analysis using SPSS version 27. Chapter 4 discusses the findings from this analysis.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS/FINDINGS

The purpose of this research was to determine if a commitment to college, family support, and social engagement is a manifestation of academic resilience predicting retention and graduation among first year African American Males at a private HBU in the United States. In this chapter, the descriptive statistics are discussed, the data screening procedures, and the assumptions for logistic regression analysis. To respond to the research questions, the result for the null hypotheses are presented, including the logistic regression results, the Chi-square, and odds ratios for each predictor variable of commitment to college, family support, and social engagement, and outcome variables of retention and graduation.

Research Questions

The research questions were modified after capacity for tolerance was removed from the model.

Research Question 1: *Are measures of academic resilience (social engagement, family support, and commitment to college) predictive of retention among African American first year males at a private HBU in the United States?*

Research Question 2: *Are measures of academic resilience (social engagement, family support, and commitment to college) predictive of graduation among African American first year males at a private HBU in the United States?* A binary logistic regression was performed in SPSS version 27.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive analysis and frequencies were calculated on all the variables. As shown in Table 6, descriptive results indicated a sample size of 223. As shown in Table

7, the descriptive results indicated six responses were missing from the analysis due to nonresponse to the survey questions. Table 8 depicts crosstabulation results of the outcome variables. Due to the scope of this dissertation topic, only first year African American males were included in the sample population. In terms of age, 97.8% of African American first year males ranged between the ages of 17-24, and 2.2% ranged between the ages of 26-28. Of the sample size, 173 (77.6%) returned in the fall, 22.4% did not return, and 89 (39.9%) graduated and 134 (60.1%) did not graduate within 4, 5, and 6 years.

Table 6

Demographics of Sample

Variables	Number	Percentage
Age		
17-24 years of age	218	97.8%
26-28 years of age	5	2.2%
Returned in the Fall		
Yes	173	77.6%
No	50	22.4%
Graduated		
Yes	89	39.9%
No	134	60.1%

Table 7

Descriptive on Predictor Variables

Variables	*N*	*M*	*SD*
Commitment to College	217	44.2581	7.10944
Family Support	217	21.3917	4.95802
Social Engagement	217	39.2857	8.26088

Table 8

Crosstabulation on Outcome Variables

		Graduation		
		No	Yes	Total
Retention	No	49	1	50
	Yes	85	88	173
Total		134	89	223

Assumptions

Before running this analysis, assumptions for logistic regression were tested. Multicollinearity was tested and indicated that the intercorrelations among the predictor variables were low (Pallant, 2010). The assumptions, goodness of fit, and regression coefficients were met. The multicollinearity test indicated a Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) value of 1.235 and tolerance of .814, indicating the absence of multicollinearity. The Hosmer and Lemeshow test were not statistically significant for retention, χ^2 (3, N = 217) = 4.331, p =.228. The model explained between 2% (Cox & Snell R Square) and 3% (Nagelkerke's R Square) of variance in the outcome variable and correctly classified 78% of cases. The Hosmer and Lemeshow test were not statistically significant for graduation, χ^2 (3, N= 217) = 1.102, p = .777. The model explained between 5% (Cox & Snell R Square) and 7% (Nagelkerke's R Square) of variance in the outcome variable and correctly classified 78% of cases.

Logistic Regression Analysis Results

A binary logistic regression analysis was conducted to investigate factors predicting African American males' retention and graduation. According to Harrell (2015), logistic regression allows one to test a set of predictor variables related to a

dichotomous response variable. This model contained three predictor variables (commitment to college, family support, and social engagement) and the two outcome variables (retention and graduation) at a 95% confidence level. Retention was coded as "0" for No and "1" for yes. Graduation was coded as "0" for No and "1" for yes. African American first year males were the only sample size for this study. Therefore, no codes were created for males and ethnicity.

Response to Research Question One

The results of the binary logistic regression were not statistically significant, χ^2 (3, n =217) = 4.331, p = .228. As shown in Table 9, the model was weak according to Cox and Snell's (R^2 = .020) and Nagelkerke's (R^2 = .030). In response to research question one, the results indicated that social engagement, family support, and commitment to college were not significant predictors of retention for first year African American males at a private HBU in the United States. None of the variables were significant within the model. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 9

Logistic Regression Model for Retention

X^2	p	Cox & Snell R^2	Nagelkerke's R^2
4.331	.228	.020	.030

Response to Research Question Two

The results of the binary logistic regression were not statistically significant, χ^2 (3, n=217) = 1.102, p = .777. As shown in Table 10, the model was weak according to Cox and Snell's (R^2 = .005) and Nagelkerke's (R^2 = .007). In response to research question two, the results indicated that social engagement, family support, and commitment to college were not significant predictors of graduation for first year African

American males at a private HBU in the United States. None of the variables were significant within the model. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 10

Logistic Regression Model for Graduation

X^2	*p*	Cox & Snell R^2	Nagelkerke's R^2
1.102	.777	.005	.007

Retention

As shown in Table 11, the researcher investigated three predictor variables (commitment to college, family support, and social engagement) against retention. The commitment to college variable for Wald ratio was not statistically significant, χ^2 (1) = .056, p = .813. This result indicated that commitment to college and retention for first year African American males was not statistically significant. The odds ratio for commitment to college was 1.006, indicating that African American first year males were 1.006 times more likely to return in the next fall than African American first year males who did not return based on their commitment to college. Nonetheless, as indicated by the Wald statistic, this relationship was not statistically significant.

Table 11

Summary of Logistic Regression for Predicting Retention

Predictor Variable	*B*	*SE*	Wald	*df*	*p*	EXP*(B)*	Lower	Upper
Commit to College	.006	.026	.056	1	.813	1.006	.956	1.059
Family Support	.016	.035	.207	1	.649	1.016	.949	1.088
Social Engagement	.035	.023	2.457	1	.117	1.036	.991	1.083

The family support variable for Wald ratio was not statistically significant χ^2 (1) = .207, p = .649. This result indicated that family support and retention for first year African American males were not statistically significant. The odds ratio for family support was 1.016, indicating that African American first year males were 1.016 times more likely to return in the next fall than African American first year males who did not return based on family support. Nonetheless, as indicated by the Wald statistic, this relationship was not statistically significant.

The social engagement variable for Wald ratio was not statistically significant χ^2 (1) = 2.457, p = .117. This result indicated that social engagement and retention for first year African American males were not statistically significant. The odds ratio for social engagement was 1.036, indicating that African American first year males were 1.036 times more likely to return in the next fall than African American first year males who did not return based on social engagement. Nonetheless, as indicated by the Wald statistic, this relationship was not statistically significant.

Graduation

As shown in Table 12, the researcher further investigated three predictor variables (commitment to college, family support, and social engagement) against graduation. The commitment to college variable for Wald ratio was not statistically significant, χ^2 (1) = .029, p = .866. This result indicated that commitment to college and graduation for first year African American males was not statistically significant. The odds ratio for commitment to college was 1.004, indicating that African American first year males were 1.004 times more likely to graduate than African American first year males who did not

graduate based on their commitment to college. Nonetheless, as indicated by the Wald statistic, this relationship was not statistically significant.

Table 12

Summary of Logistic Regression for Predicting Graduation

Predictor Variable	*B*	*SE*	Wald	*df*	*p*	EXP*(B)*	Lower	Upper
Commit to College	.004	.022	.029	1	.866	1.004	.961	1.049
Family Support	.024	.030	.647	1	.421	1.025	.966	1.087
Social Engagement	.005	.019	.057	1	.812	1.005	.968	1.043

The family support variable for Wald ratio was not statistically significant, χ^2 (1) = .647, p = .421. This result indicated that family support and graduation for first year African American males were not statistically significant. The odds ratio for family support was 1.025, indicating that African American first year males were 1.025 times more likely to graduate than African American first year males who did not graduate based on family support. Nonetheless, as indicated by the Wald statistic, this relationship was not statistically significant.

The social engagement variable for Wald ratio was not statistically significant, χ^2 (1) = .057, p = .812. This result indicated that social engagement for first year African American males was not statistically significant. The odds ratio for social engagement was 1.005, indicating that African American first year males were 1.005 times more likely to graduate than African American first year males who did not graduate based on social engagement. Nonetheless, as indicated by the Wald statistic, this relationship was not statistically significant.

Last, the researcher conducted Pearson's correlation on three predictor variables (commitment to college, family support, and social engagement) and two outcome variables retention and graduation. As shown in Table 13, social engagement was moderately positive correlated to commitment to college, r (217) = .435, p < .001, than to family support, r (217) = .262, p < .001. These findings indicate that social engagement explains more variability in commitment to college than family support.

Table 13

Correlation among Variables (N=217)

	Family Support	Social Engagement	Graduation
Commitment to College	.293**	.435**	
Family Support		.262**	
Retention			.416**

Note. ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The correlation coefficient of family support and commitment to college was found to have a small positive correlation (r=.293, p<.001). Family support and social engagement were found to have a small positive correlation (r=.262, p<.001). Commitment to college and social engagement were found to have a moderately positive correlation (r=.435, p<.001). Pearson's correlation was also conducted on the outcome variables (retention and graduation). Retention and graduation were found to have a moderately positive correlation (r=.416, p<.001). Although the results were not statistically significant as previously indicated, there were correlations among the variables.

Summary

Chapter 4 provided a summary of the data collection and the procedures analyzed for the data. Descriptive statistics, Pearson's correlation, and results from the logistic regression analysis were reported. The statistical analysis found that the predictor variables of family support, commitment to college, and social engagement were not statistically significant predictors of retention and graduation. The researcher failed to reject the null hypotheses. Pearson's correlation revealed correlations among some variables. A notable correlation was that a commitment to college and social engagement had a moderately positive correlation. Retention and graduation were found to have a moderate positive correlation. Family support and commitment to college were found to have a small positive correlation. Family support and social engagement were found to have a small positive correlation. Chapter 5 discusses the conclusions and recommendations related to the findings and the implications of this study.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION & RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this correlational quantitative study was to examine the influence of academic resilience among African American first year males at a private HBCU in the United States. Utilizing the frameworks of Harper's (2012) anti-deficit achievement, Fergus and Zimmerman's (2005) resiliency, and critical race structuralism (CRS), the researcher investigated if family support, commitment to college, and social engagement manifested as academic resilience that could lead to retention and graduation for African American males despite risk exposure and racist stereotypes experienced in life. The predictor variables investigated were family support, commitment to college, and social engagement. The dependent outcome variables were retention and graduation. Limited research has examined these variables among African American first year's males at a private HBU utilizing secondary data from the College Student Inventory Survey. This research sought to understand if these factors manifested through academic resilience. This chapter provides a discussion of the results aligned with prior research and literature followed by conclusions, implications, and recommendations.

Discussion

Academic resilience is defined as patterns of action that allow students to overcome, recover, and learn from academic obstacles and failures (Martin & Marsh, 2006; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012; Yeager & Dweck, 2012). Family support was defined as the quality of communication, understanding, and respect students have experienced in their families (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2019). Commitment to college was defined as the degree to which students value a college education (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2019). Social engagement was defined as the student's desire to meet other students and participate in

group activities (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2019). The outcome variable was retention and graduation. Retention was defined as enrollment from the fall of the first year to the fall of the next year at the same institution (National Center for Educational Statistics, n.d.). Graduation was defined as a full-time, first-time, degree-seeking student graduating within four to six years (National Center for Educational Statistics, n.d.). Grounded in three theoretical frameworks,

Family Support and Retention and Graduation

In this study, family support was not found to be a statistically significant predictor of retention and graduation utilizing subscales from the CSI survey. Cassidy (2015) and Masten and Fowler (2001) postulated that resilience does not come from special qualities or traits but from everyday life experiences that may be normal experiences relating to students' families, relationships, and communities. Masten and Fowler (2001) argued that resilience is a common phenomenon that results in the operation of basic human adaptation systems.

These experiences are what Skinner et al. (2020) identified as exposure to distal risk factors and adversities that students may encounter. Brooms et al. (2018) and Jones (2001) argued that African American males rely strongly on family support when facing obstacles. Family support enhanced their motivation to maintain enrollment and strengthened their resilience toward degree completion. In addition, Brooms et al. (2018) affirmed that family support played a critical role in providing African American males emotional, academic, and family support.

Commitment to College and Retention and Graduation

In this study, commitment to college was not found to be a statistically significant predictor of retention and graduation utilizing subscales from the CSI survey. Although low enrollment, retention, and graduation rates among African American males in higher education is a national crisis (Dualeh et al., 2018), literature on African American males postulates a deficit perspective that blames the students but fails to examine institutional barriers (Dualeh et al., 2018; Harper, 2012). Therefore, poor institutional commitment can be a barrier to students' commitment to remain enrolled and graduate (Woosley et al., 2005).

Woosley et al. (2005) examined undergraduate students who voluntarily withdrew from a Midwest public university. The results found that many of the students that withdrew returned to the institution, and their goals and commitments were significant predictors of their re-enrollment. Woosley et al. (2005) argued that university administrators need to differentiate between the various types of student departure because some departures are permanent, and some are temporary. In comparison to Woosley et al.'s (2005) study, this study indicated whether students returned in the fall semester after their previous fall enrollment. Moreover, survey questions in this study did not provide questions regarding the institutional environment.

Social Engagement and Retention and Graduation

In this study, social engagement was not found to be a statistically significant predictor of retention and graduation utilizing subscales from the CSI survey. Previous research (Ayala and Manzano, 2018) found that the academic performance of first year students was related to resilience and engagement. Ayala and Manzano's (2018) research

utilized the Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale Questionnaire (CD-RISC; Connor & Davidson, 2003), comprised of 23 items to measure the three scales of resilience: hardiness, resourcefulness, and optimism.

In addition, Ayala and Manzano (2018) utilized the Engagement Survey by Schaufeli et al. (2002) in the context of academics to measure dimensions of engagement. In this study, the CSI survey measured social engagement as the student's desire to meet other students and participate in group activities (Ruffalo Noel Levitz, 2019). In contrast to this study, Ayala and Manzano's (2018) research measured engagement as vigor, dedication, and absorption focused on first year students enrolled in administration and business management at two public universities. They argued that if a student's performance improved during their first year, they were less likely to drop out of college due to resilience and engagement (Ayala & Manzano, 2018).

Research Questions

Research Question 1: Are measures of academic resilience (social engagement, family support, and commitment to college) predictive of retention? The goal of this analysis was to determine if there was a relationship between the predictor variables (commitment to college, family support, and social engagement) and the outcome variables retention and graduation as a manifestation of academic resilience. The results from the analysis indicated that social engagement, family support, and commitment to college were not significant predictors of retention for first year African American males at a private HBU in the United States. Therefore, the results are not generalizable for the population.

Research Question 2: Are measures of academic resilience (social engagement, family support, and commitment to college) predictive of graduation? The results from the analysis indicated that social engagement, family support, and commitment to college were not significant predictors of graduation for first year African American males at a private HBU in the United States. Therefore, the results are not generalizable for the population. Retention and graduation were found not to be statistically significant predictors of commitment to college, family support, and social engagement. Although previous research has found these factors to be critical to African American males' retention and graduation (Arroyo & Gasman, 2014; Gasman et al., 2017a).

Study Implications

Although much research has examined variables regarding retention and graduation, this study is unique in that it examines commitment to college, family support, and social engagement in the context of academic resilience. Using three frameworks, Harper's (2012) anti-deficit achievement, Fergus and Zimmerman's (2005) resiliency theory, and critical race structuralism (CRS), this study considered the interactions of these dimensions and the impact they have on African American males' academic resilience. Research grounded in these three frameworks regarding African American males' unique experiences is lacking in the literature. This study adds to the knowledge base of the influence of academic resilience among African American males by providing a starting point for additional research.

The results of this study indicated that African American first year male students' perception of commitment to college, family support, and social engagement as a manifestation of academic resilience alone is not enough to predict retention and

graduation. Although the findings of this study are not consistent with Debb et al.'s (2018) research that utilized the Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale to gauge African American students' resilience, Debb et al. (2018) found the instrument to be appropriate for students who identified as juniors. Moreover, Debb et al. (2018) stated that juniors displayed a slightly higher than average resilience when compared to the general population. Earlier studies (Kobasa, 1979; Rutter, 1985) opined that commitment, tolerance, and engagement are characteristics of resilience.

Based on the conflicting findings of this study and earlier research, it is important to consider other factors that may have influenced the results. Academic self-efficacy, a sense of belonging, and the institutional environment (Bandura, 1997; Cassidy, 2015; Han et al., 2017) should be examined so that researchers can gain a deeper understanding of African American males' perceptions of academic resilience, which may yield results that are consistent with earlier research studies. Academic self-efficacy as a measure of academic resilience was explored by Cassidy (2016), who developed a multidimensional construct measure of academic resilience scales (ARS-30). Cassidy (2016) found that the ARS-30 has good internal reliability and construct validity. Moreover, using this scale among university students provided a unique approach to measuring academic resilience (Cassidy, 2016).

In addition, Han et al. (2017) posited that academic self-efficacy and a sense of belonging are considered noncognitive factors that predict college students' academic performance and retention. Han et al.'s (2017) research used various scales (Solberg et al.'s (1993) Course Efficacy and Johnson et al.'s (2007) Sense of Belonging subscale) to examine first year college students' perceived academic self-efficacy and sense of

belonging with academic performance and first-to-second-year retention. Han et al. (2017) found that academic self-efficacy was more closely related to academic performance, and a sense of belonging was more closely related to retention.

Consequently, questions regarding students' perception of the institutional environment must not go unnoticed. The CSI did not provide questions for students to respond to the institutional environment. Therefore, I was not able to obtain students' perceptions of the institutional environment. Booker (2006) argued that an unwelcoming and unaccepting school environment for African American students negatively impacted their academic achievement. Incorporating questions from Johnson et al.'s (2007) sense of belonging subscale provides additional variables in understanding the influence of academic resilience and the institutional environment among African American males.

Furthermore, the re-enrollment status of African American males in any semester after enrollment must not be ignored. In this study, institutional data provided retention on students who were only enrolled in the first fall semester and returned in the next fall. However, this provided limited information to the researcher. Additional institutional data about students' persistence could have provided the researcher with additional insight.

Additional implications for this study were time and exposure to the campus environment. The survey was administered early in the fall semester to first year students. Consequently, students may not have adjusted to the campus environment at the appropriate time to provide accurate responses. However, administering the survey early allow the institution to receive early alerts as a data analytic tool to provide interventions for this population of students.

Another issue that emerged from the findings is the possibility of students' self-report of response bias to the survey questions. Rosenman et al. (2011) assert that self-report bias occurs when respondents offer biased responses because of social desirability bias, where respondents want to 'look good in the survey, even if the survey is anonymous. Lastly, the sample population in this study is different from similar research studies (Cassidy, 2016; Debb et al., 2018). Therefore, the sample of the target population in this study may not have been large enough to adequately represent the perceptions of all African American males attending CGWU.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations for HBCU Senior Administrators

The first recommendation is for Vice Presidents and Deans to initiate asset-based programming that supports African American males' commitment to college and social engagement. Harper's (2012) anti-deficit framework considers asset-based approaches that recognizes the strengths and potential of African American male students. Examples of Black male initiatives include offering or re-enacting summer bridge programs, peer and minority male mentoring programs, and hosting events that promote academic resilience for African American males (Palmer et al., 2015). The second recommendation is to conduct focus groups by utilizing the Community College Survey of Men (CCSM) to understand the needs of first year African American males, which will inform senior administrators on the types of programs that are beneficial to their commitment to college and social engagement. Bonner and King (2014) suggest using this survey can identify challenges that African American males encounter while in college.

The third recommendation is to implement critical friend circles among senior administrators and first African American males to enhance their commitment to college and social engagement. Critical friend circles are a form of assessment that provides feedback to an individual, administrator, or group to understand the context of the work and the expected outcomes for the group (Costa & Kallick, 1993). Jones and Thomas (2012) assert critical friend circles have positively influenced student retention and social engagement.

The fourth recommendation is for Vice Presidents of Institutional Advancement offices to apply for grants that support academic resilience for African American males.

According to Allen et al. (2018) and Williams and Davis (2019), due to inequitable distribution of resources, HBCUs lack resources to research and fund programs that impact African American males' academic success. Therefore, applying and receiving grant funding can ensure programs are in place to serve these students. As such, the United States Department of Education recently announced a grant for 182 million dollars to fund projects to improve retention and graduation for minoritized college students (United States Department of Education, 2021). Given that African American males are considered minorities, this grant and others can bolster university programming that fosters students' commitment to the college and social engagement and influences students' academic resilience (Ayala & Manzano, 2018).

Recommendations for HBCU Faculty

The first recommendation for HBCU faculty is to provide a classroom environment that is welcoming, culturally affirming, and have a sense of belonging for African American male students (Han et al., 2017; Ward, 2018). Downey (2008) and Johnson et al. (2007) argue that a welcoming environment sends a message that students should feel comfortable asking questions and seeking help. Han et al. (2017) postulate that a sense of belonging is closely related to retention. Providing a welcome classroom environment influences African American males' commitment to college and is consistent with Johnson et al.'s (2007) research that suggests that a welcoming environment is a shared responsibility by the student and institution. Wiggan et al. (2020) assert that critical race structuralism is embedded within the beliefs and ideologies that dominate space and creates barriers for African American males' academic success.

Therefore, it should not be the sole responsibility of the students to cultivate a sense of belonging.

The second recommendation is for faculty to openly discuss with all students that challenges in the course are expected and part of the learning process (Robinson, 2017). More importantly, faculty members should be transparent and share their struggles as college students, and provide students with effective coping strategies (Morales, 2014). These strategies are necessary to help African American males identify coping strategies that contribute to their academic resilience.

Recommendations for Families of African American Males

The first recommendation for the families of African American males is to continue to empower African American males that despite negative stereotypes, they are resilient and can overcome difficulty and persevere to graduation (Herndon & Moore, 2002). The second recommendation is to conduct weekly check-ins with African American males to discuss updates on their progress and experiences in college. The weekly check-ins should provide an opportunity for words of encouragement that uplifts and instill hope which can boost their academic resilience.

The third recommendation is for families to expose African American males early to college outreach programs to help ease the transition to college. Bonner and King (2014) suggest establishing the P-20 initiative that provides academic, social, and financial support as an institution-based initiative. If these programs are not available in the community, the fourth recommendation would be to adapt the P-20 model with a community-based focus led by families. This program should be in collaboration with local HBCUs. Bonner and King (2014) described the P-20 initiative as a tool that informs

families about financial aid, college recruitment, student services, and degree programs. Bonner and King (2014) and Herndon and Moore (2002) opine that family support and exposure to these types of initiatives are critical for helping African American males navigate through college.

Recommendations for Future Research

The first recommendation for research is to consider incorporating Cassidy's (2016) Academic Resilience Multidimensional Scale (ARS-30) in conjunction with the subscales from the College Student Inventory Form B or the Mid-Year Student Survey by Ruffalo Noel Levitz. Cassidy's (2016) ARS scale provides 30 survey items that explore the aspects of resilience based on students' cognitive and behavioral responses to academic adversity. The resiliency theory provides a conceptual framework that considers a strengths-based approach to understanding academic resilience and informs intervention design (Zimmerman, 2013). Cassidy (2016) asserts the ARS scale are suitable constructs to investigate among university students.

The second recommendation is to conduct a qualitative study utilizing the participatory action research approach to gather additional follow-up responses from the participants. Creswell and Poth (2018) asserted that participatory action research is practical and collaborative where the researcher engages the participants as active collaborators. The third recommendation for research is to examine African American males' academic resilience across multiple HBCUs. The final recommendation is to examine the variables in this study and other variables such as academic self-efficacy, a sense of belonging, and the institutional environment as factors that may influence African American males' academic resilience.

Conclusion

Although the findings were not statistically, the guiding frameworks in this study: critical race structuralism (CRS), the anti-deficit, and resiliency, bring in a deeper discussion and broader contextualization to help us understand the resilience of African Americans in obtaining a college degree and the historical roles that HBCUs have played in educating Black doctors, lawyers, dentists, and teachers. Carter G. Woodson's (1920) seminal text, *The Education of the Negro Prior to 1861*, gives a historical account of the resilience of African Americans to become educated despite individual and structural racism. In addition, Du Bois's (1902) seminal work, *The College-Bred Negro,* eloquently discussed five types of Traditionally Black Institutions that provided collegiate education to African Americans. The first was the Ante-Bellum Schools (Lincoln University, Wilberforce University, and Berea College), established before the civil war between 1854 and 1855. The second was the Freedman Bureau Schools (Atlanta University, Howard University, Fisk University, Johnson C. Smith University, Claflin University, and many others), established after the civil war between 1864 and 1868. The third was the Church Schools (Clark Atlanta, Benedict College, Shaw University, and others), established by the Church Societies after the closing of the Freedman Bureau Schools.

The fourth was the Schools of Negro Church Bodies (Livingstone College, Morris Brown, Paul Quinn College, and others) established by the African Methodist Episcopal Church and the Baptist Churches between 1880 and 1885. The fifth was the State Colleges (Delaware State and North Carolina A & T, and others) known as Land Grant Institutions. The second Morrill Act of 1890 donated public land to several states to endow agricultural colleges and forbid racial discrimination against newly freed slaves

because Blacks could not attend the Historically White Land-Grant Universities (Lee & Keys, 2013). In the parlance of HBCUs, they have been the linchpin of educating African Americans and are still critical institutions today in nurturing and cultivating, and producing African American leaders (Wiggan, 2021).

Although a commitment to college, social engagement, retention, and graduation had moderate positive correlations, such factors as a sense of belonging, academic self-efficacy, and institutional culture are important and must be investigated to address the disparities among African American males' academic success. There is a critical need for asset-based conceptual models that debunk the deficit models framing African American males' academic success as dismal. These theoretical frameworks highlight factors that historically influence the academic resilience of African American males and examine how academic resilience can contribute to their academic success. This dissertation provides a foundation for future studies contributing to the academic success of African American males. Recommendations regarding university programming, research, and strategies for HBCU senior administrators, university faculty, and families of African American males are provided.

References

Allan, J. F., McKenna, J., & Dominey, S. (2014) Degrees of resilience: Profiling psychological resilience and prospective academic achievement in university inductees, *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, *42*(1), 9-25. https://doi.org/10.1080/03069885.2013.793784

Allen, B. C. M., & Esters, L. T. (2018). Historically Black land-grant universities: Overcoming barriers and achieving success [Research Brief]. Penn Center for Minority Serving Institutions. https://cmsi.gse.rutgers.edu/sites/default/files/HBLGUs_0.pdf

Allen, W. R. (1992). The color of success. African-American college student outcomes at predominantly White and historically Black public colleges and universities, *Harvard Educational Review*, *62*(1), 26–44. https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.62.1.wv5627665007v701

Allen, W. R., Jewell, J.O., Griffin, K. A., & Wolf, D.S. (2007).75 years of facilitating excellence in Black education. *The Journal of Negro Education, 76*(3), 263-280.

Alva, S. A. (1991). Academic invulnerability among Mexican American students: The importance of protective resources and appraisals. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 13*(1), 18-34. https://doi.org/10.1177/07399863910131002

Anderson, J. (1988). *The education of Blacks in the South, 1860-1935.* University of North Carolina Press.

Anthony, E. J. (1974). The syndrome of the psychologically invulnerable child. In E. J. Anthony & C. Koupernik (Eds.), *The child in his family: Children at psychiatric risk* (pp. 529-545). Wiley.

Arroyo, G., & Gasman, M. (2014). An HBCU-based educational approach for Black college student success: Toward a framework with implications for all institutions. *American Journal of Education*, *121*(1), 57–85. https://doi.org/10.1086/678112

Ayala, C. J., & Manzano, G. (2018). Academic performance of first year university students: The influence of resilience and engagement. *Higher Education Research and Development*, *37*(7), 1321–1335. https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2018.1502258

Backmann, J., Weiss, M., Schippers, M. C., & Hoegl, M. (2019). Personality factors, student resiliency, and the moderating role of achievement values in study progress. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *72*, 39-48. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2019.04.004

Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy: *The exercise of control*. Freeman.

Bell, D. (1980). *Brown v. Board of Education* and the interest-convergence dilemma. *Harvard Law Review*, *93*(3), 518–533. https://doi.org/10.2307/1340546

Bell, G. C. (2017). *Talking Black and White: An intercultural exploration of twenty first century racism, prejudice, and perception.* Lexington Books.

Bennett, A., Bridglall, B., Cauce, A., Everson, H., Gordon, E., Lee, C., Mendoza-Denton, R., Renzulli, J., & Stewart, J. (2004). *All students reaching the top: Strategies for closing academic achievement gaps. A report of the national study group for the affirmative development of academic ability.* https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED483170.pdf.

Bonner, F. (2003). To be young, gifted, African American, and male. *Gifted Child*

Today Magazine, *26*(2), 26–34. https://doi.org/10.4219/gct-2003-97

Bonner, F., & King, T. (2014). *Building on resilience: Models and frameworks of Black male success across the P-20 pipeline*. Stylus Publishing.

Booker, K. C. (2006). School belonging and the African American adolescent: What do we know and where should we go? *The High School Journal*, *89*(4), 1-7. https://doi.org/10.1353/hsj.2006.0005

Bowman, M. A., Prelow, H. M., & Weaver, S. R. (2007). Parenting behaviors association with peers, and delinquency in African American adolescents: A mediated-moderation model. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 36, 517–527. https://doi:10.1007/10964-006-9117-7

Brooks, M., Jones, C., & Burt, I. (2013). Are African-American male undergraduate retention programs successful? An evaluation of an undergraduate African-American male retention program. *Journal of African American Studies*, *17*(2), 206–221. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12111-012-9233-2

Brooms, D. R. (2020). Connecting with my Brothers: Exploring Black men's community, bonding and identities in college. *Gender and Education*, 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1080/09540253.2020.1837347

Brooms, D. R. (2018). Exploring Black male initiative programs: Potential and possibilities for supporting Black male success in college. *The Journal of Negro Education*, *87*(1), 59-72. https://doi.org/10.7709/jnegroeducation.87.1.0059

Brooms, D. R. (2016). Building us up: Supporting Black male college students in a Black male initiative program. *Critical Sociology*, *44*(1), 141–155. https://doi.org/10.1177/0896920516658940

Brooms, D. R. (2019). I was just trying to make it: Examining urban Black males' sense of belonging, schooling experiences, and academic success. *Urban Education*, *54*(6), 804-830. https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085916648743

Brooms, D. R., Clark, J., & Smith, M. (2018). *Empowering men of color on campus: Building student community in higher education.* Rutgers University Press. https://doi.org/10.36019/9780813594798

Brown, A. L. (2011). Same old stories: The Black male in social science and educational literature, 1930s to the present. *Teachers College Record, 113*(9), 2047-2079.

Brown, D. (2008). African American resiliency: Examining racial socialization and social support as protective factors. *Journal of Black Psychology, 34*(1), 32–48. https://doi.org/10.1177/0095798407310538

Brown, M. C., II. (2013). The declining significance of historically Black colleges \ and universities: Relevance, reputation, and reality in Obammerica. *The Journal of Negro Education*, *82*(1), 3-19. http://search.proquest.com.proxy1.ncu.edu/docview/1419801410?accountid=28180

Bryan, J. (2005). Fostering education resilience and achievement in urban schools through school-family-community partnerships. *Professional School Counseling, 8,* 219-227.

Bush, L., & Bush, E. C. (2018). A paradigm shift? Just because the lion is talking

doesn't mean that he isn't still telling the hunter's story: African American male theory and the problematics of both deficit and nondeficit models. *Journal of African American Males in Education*, *9*(1), 1-18.

Carter G. Woodson University. (2021). *About CGWU*. https://www.gcwu.edu/about

Cassidy, S. (2015). Resilience building in students: The role of academic self-efficacy. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *6*, 1781–1781. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2015.01781

Cassidy S. (2016). The academic resilience scale (ARS-30): A new multidimensional construct measure. *Frontiers in psychology*, *7*, 1787. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.01787

Chemers, H. (2001). Academic self-efficacy and first year college student performance and adjustment. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *93*(1), 55–64. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.93.1.55

Cheyney University (2021). The first HBCU - Cheyney University. https://cheyney.edu/who-we-are/the-first-hbcu/

Chung, T. (2017). Differences in resilience between traditional and non-traditional university students. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, *18*(1), 77–87. https://doi.org/10.1177/1469787417693493

Ciocca Eller, C., & DiPrete, T. A. (2018). The paradox of persistence: Explaining the Black-White gap in bachelor's degree completion. *American Sociological Review*, *83*(6), 1171–1214. https://doi.org/10.1177/0003122418808005

Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S.G., & Aiken L .S. (2003). *Applied multiple*

regression/correlation analysis for behavioral sciences (3rd ed.). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Cohen, S., Kamarck, T., & Mermelstein, R. (1983). A global measure of perceived stress. *Journal of Health Social Behavior, 24(*4), *385–396.* https://doi.org/10.2307/2136404

Cokley, K. (2000). An investigation of academic self-concept and its relationship to academic achievement in African American college students, *Journal of Black Psychology*, *26*(2), 148–164. https://doi.org/10.1177/0095798400026002002

Connor, K., & Davidson, J. (2003). Development of a new resilience scale: The Connor-Davidson resilience scale (CD-RISC). *Depression and Anxiety*, *18(2)*, 76-82. https://doi.org/10.1002/da.10113

Cook, B., & Pullaro, N. (2010). College graduation rates: Behind the numbers. https://www.acenet.edu/Documents/College-Graduation-Rates-Behind-the-Numbers.pdf

Cooper, J. (2018). Strategic navigation: a comparative study of Black male scholar athletes' experiences at a Historically Black College/University (HBCU) and Historically White University (HWU). *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, *31*(4), 235–256. https://doi.org/10.1080/09518398.2017.1379617

Costa, A., & Kallick, B. (1993). Through the lens of a critical friend. *Educational Leadership*, *51*(2), 49–51.

Creswell, J. W., & Poth, N. C. (2018). *Qualitative inquiry & research design:*

Choosing among five approaches. Sage.

Cross, T., & Slater, R. B. (2000). The alarming decline in the academic performance of African-American men. *The Journal of Blacks in Higher Education*, *27*, 82–87. https://doi.org/10.2307/2679017

Danforth, L., & Miller, J. (2018). African American males from female-headed households: Using family resilience to navigate their way to college. *Journal of Family Social Work*, *21*(1), 63–79. https://doi.org/10.1080/10522158.2017.1321604

Davey, M., Eaker, D., & Walters, L. (2003). Resilience processes in adolescents: Personality profiles, self-worth, and coping. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, *18*(4), 347–362. https://doi.org/10.1177/0743558403018004002

Deafenbaugh, L. (2017). *Developing the capacity for tolerance through folklife education* (Publication No. 10831852). [Doctoral dissertation, University of Pittsburgh]. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global.

de Brey, C., Musu, L., McFarland, J., Wilkinson-Flicker, S., Diliberti, M., Zhang, A., Branstetter, C., & Wang, X. (2019). *Status and trends in the education of racial and ethnic groups 2018* (NCES 2019-038). U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved from https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/

Debb, S. M., Colson, D., Hacker, D., & Park, K. (2018). Applying the Connor-Davidson resilience scale for use with third-year African American college students. *Journal of Negro Education*, *87*(1), 73-89. https://doi.org/10.7709/jnegroeducation.87.1.0073

deMarrais, K., & LeCompte, M. (1998). *The way schools work: A sociological analysis of education* (3rd ed.). Longman.

DeVellis, R. F. (2017). *Scale development: Theory and applications* (4th ed.). Sage.

Downey, J. A. (2008). Recommendations for fostering educational resilience in the classroom. *Preventing School Failure*, *53*(1), 56–64. https://doi.org/10.3200/PSFL.53.1.56-64

Dualeh, D., Diaz-Mendoza, V., Son, M., & Luperon, C. (2018). The implementation of P.O.W.E.R. (pushing our will to experience resilience): An intervention to address retention and graduation rates among men of color. *Journal of College and Character*, *19*(2), 167–174. https://doi.org/10.1080/2194587X.2018.1445641

Du Bois, W. E. B. (1994/1903). *The souls of Black folks.* Dover Publications.

Du Bois, W.E. B. (1902). *The college-bred Negro: A report of a social study made under the direction of Atlanta University in 1900 edited by W.E. Burghardt Du Bois*. https://repository.wellesley.edu/object/wellesley30405

Duckworth, A. (2016). *Grit: The power of passion and perseverance*. Scribner.

Duckworth, A., & Gross, J. J. (2014). Self-control and grit related but separable determinants of success. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *23*(5), 319-325. https://doi.org/10.1177/0963721414541462

Edwards, T., Catling, J. C., & Parry, E. (2016). Identifying predictors of resilience in students. *Psychology Teaching Review*, 2*2*(1), 26-34.

Etherton, K., Johnson, D. S., Salvano, K., & Kovacs, N. (2020). Resilience effects on

student performance and well-being: The role of self-efficacy, self-set goals, and anxiety. *The Journal of General Psychology*, 1–20. https://doi.org/10.1080/00221309.2020.1835800

Eunyoung, K., & Hargrove, D. T. (2013). Deficient or resilient: A critical review of Black male academic success and persistence in higher education. *Journal of Negro Education*, *82*(3), 300-311. https://doi.org/10.7709/jnegroeducation.82.3.0300

Evans, W. P., Marsh, S. C., & Weigel, D. J. (2010). Promoting adolescent sense of coherence: Testing models of risk, protection, and resiliency. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, *20*(1), 30–43. https://doi.org/10.1002/casp.1002

Faried, S. A., & Shams, A. (2018). Measuring college students' perceptions to tolerance dimensions: Socio-anthropological study at Cairo. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, *10*(2), 59-70. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijps.v10n2p59

Farmer, E. D., & Hope, W. C. (2015). Factors that influence African American male Retention and graduation: The case of Gateway University, a historically Black college and university. *Journal of College Student Retention*, *17*(1), 2-17. https://doi.org/10.1177/1521025115571074

Fergus, S., & Zimmerman, M. A. (2005). Adolescent resilience: A framework for understanding healthy development in the face of risk. *Annual Review of Public Health*, 26, 399–419. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.publhealth.26.021304.144357

Fife, J. E., Bond, S., & Byars-Winston, A. (2011). Correlates and predictors of

academic self-efficacy among African American students. *Education*, *132*(1), 141-148.

Flowers, L. (2002). The impact of college racial composition on African American students' academic and social gains: Additional evidence. *Journal of College Student Development, 43*(3), 403–410.

Flowers, L., & Pascarella, E. (1999). Cognitive effects of college racial composition on African American students after 3 years of college. *Journal of College Student Development, 40*(6), 669–677.

Flynn, D. (2014). Baccalaureate attainment of college students at 4-year institutions as a function of student engagement behaviors: Social and academic student engagement behaviors matter. *Research in Higher Education*, *55*(5), 467-493.

Freeman, K., & Thomas, G. E. (2002). Black colleges and college choice: Characteristics of students who choose HBCUs. *The Review of Higher Education*, *25*(3), 349-358. https://doi.org/1010.1353/rhe.2002.0011.

Garmezy, N. (1971). Vulnerability research and the issue of primary prevention. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, *41*(1), 101-116. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1939-0025.1971.tb01111.x

Garmezy, N. (1974). The study of competence in children at risk for severe psychopathology. In E. J. Anthony & C. Koupernik (Eds.), *The child in his family: Vol. 3. Children at psychiatric risk* (pp. 77-97). Wiley.

Gasman, M., Nguyen, T.-H., & Commodore, F. (2017a). Advancing Black male success: Understanding the contributions of urban Black colleges and universities. *Urban Education*, *52*(9), 1129–1139. https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085915618725

Gasman, M., Nguyen, T. H., Conrad, C. F., Lundberg, T., & Commodore, F. (2017b). Black male success in stem: A case study of Morehouse College. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education, 10*(2), 181-200. https://doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000013

Goings, R. B. (2016). (Re)defining the narrative: High-achieving nontraditional Black male undergraduates at a Historically Black college and University. *Adult Education Quarterly, 66*(3), 237–253. https://doi.org/10.1177/0741713616644776

Goodenow, C., & Grady, K. (1993). The relationship of school belonging and friends' values to academic motivation among urban adolescent students. *The Journal of Experimental Education, 62*(1), 60–71. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220973.1993.9943831

Gordon, E.K., Hawley, Z. B., Kobler, R. C., & Rork, J.C. (2021). The paradox of HBCU graduation rates. *Research in Higher Education, 62*(3), 332-358. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11162-020-09598-5

Grant-Vallone, E., Reid, K., Umali, C., & Pohlert, E. (2003). An analysis of the effects of self-esteem, social support, and participation in student support services on students' adjustment and commitment to college. *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory & Practice, 5*(3), 255–274. https://doi.org/10.2190/C0T7-YX50-F71V-00CW

Greer, T., & Chwalisz, K. (2007). Minority-related stressors and coping processes among African American college students. *Journal of College Student Development, 48*(4), 388–404. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2007.0037

Guthrie, R. (1998). *Even the rat was White: A historical view of psychology* (2nd ed.).

Allyn & Bacon.

Guy, T. C. (2014). The (End)angered Black male swimming against the current. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, *2014*(144), 15–26. https://doi.org/10.1002/ace.20110

Haktanir, A., Watson, J. C., Ermis-Demirtas, H., Karaman, M. A., Freeman, P. D., Kumaran, A., & Streeter, A. (2018). Resilience, academic self-concept, and college adjustment among first year students. *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory & Practice*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1521025118810666

Han, C., Farruggia, S.P., & Moss, T.P. (2017). Effects of academic mindsets on college students' achievement and retention. *Journal of College Student Development 58*(8), 1119-1134. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2017.0089

Harper, S. (2009). Niggers no more: A critical race counternarrative on Black male student achievement at predominantly White colleges and universities. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, *22*(6), 697–712. https://doi.org/10.1080/09518390903333889

Harper, S. R. (2012). *Black male student success in higher education: A report from the National Black male college achievement study*. University of Pennsylvania, Center for the Study of Race and Equity in Education. https://webapp.usc.edu/web/rossier/publications/231/Harper%20(2012)%20Black%20Male%20Success.pdf

Harper, S. R., & Kuykendall, J. A. (2012). Institutional efforts to improve Black male

student achievement: A standards-based approach. *Change, 44*(2), 23–29. https://doi.org/10.1080/00091383.2012.655234

Harrell, F.E. (2015) *Binary logistic regression. In: Regression modeling strategies*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-19425-7_10

Hartley, M. T. (2012). Assessing and promoting resilience: An additional tool to address the increasing number of college students with psychological problems. *Journal of College Counseling, 15*(1), 37-51. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-1882.2012.00004.x

Henderson, J. L. (2001). Last word: HBCUs will still have a role to play in the 21st century. *Black Issues in Higher Education, 17*(25), 128.

Henderson, N. (2013). Havens of resilience. *Educational Leadership, 71*(1), 22–27.

Henneberger, A. K., Durkee, M. I., Truong, N., Atkins, A., & Tiolan, P. H. (2013). The longitudinal relationship between peer violence and popularity and delinquency in adolescent boys: Examining effects by family functioning. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence,* 42, 1651–1660. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-012-9859-3

Herndon, M. K., & Moore, J. L. (2002). African American factors for student success: Implications for families and counselors. *The Family Journal, 10*(3), 322–327. https://doi.org/10.1177/10680702010003009

Howard, T. C. (2015). How does it feel to be a problem? Black male students, schools, and learning in enhancing the knowledge base to disrupt deficit frameworks. *Review of Research in Education, 37*(1), 54–86. https://doi.org/10.3102/0091732X12462985

Humphreys, J. (2005). *Economic impact of the nation's historically Black colleges and universities.* https://permanent.fdlp.gov/gpo5593/2007178.pdf

Irvine, F. R. (2019). Academic success of African American males in a Historically Black University. *Journal of African American Studies, 23*(3), 203-216. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12111-019-09434-w

Jenkins T. S. (2006). Mr. nigger: The challenges of educating Black males within American. *Journal of Black Studies, 37*(1), 127-155. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0021934704273931

Johnson, D. R., Soldner, M., Leonard, J. B., Alvarez, P., Inkelas, K. K., Rowan-Kenyon, H. T., & Longerbeam, S. D. (2007). Examining sense of belonging among first year undergraduates from different racial/ethnic groups. *Journal of College Student Development, 48*(5), 525-542. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2007.0054

Johnson, E. (2012). *The secrets for motivating, educating, and lifting the spirit of African American males*. iUniverse.

Jones, C. P. (2000). Levels of racism: A theoretic framework and a gardener's tale. *American Journal of Public Health, 90*(8), 1212–1215. https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.90.8.1212

Jones, L. (2001). *Retaining African Americans in higher education: Challenging paradigms for retaining students, faculty & administrators*. Stylus Publishing, LLC.

Jones, R., & Thomas, L. (2012). *Promoting social engagement: Improving STEM*

student transition, retention and success in higher education: A report from the National HE STEM programme. University of Birmingham. https://www.birmingham.ac.uk/Documents/college-eps/college/stem/promoting-social-engagement-he-stem-transition.pdf

Kahu, E. R. (2013). Framing student engagement in higher education. *Studies in Higher Education 38*(5), 758–773. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2011.598505

Kim, E., & Hargrove, T. D. (2013). Deficient or resilient: A critical review of Black male academic success and persistence in higher education. *The Journal of Negro Education*, *82*(3), 300-311. https://doi.org/10.7709/jnegroeducation.82.3.0300

Kim, M. M., & Conrad, C. F. (2006). The impact of historically Black colleges and universities on the academic success of African-American students. *Research in Higher Education*, *47*(4), 399–427. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11162-005-9001-4

Kimbrough, W., & Harper, S. (2006). African American men at historically Black colleges and universities: Different environments, similar challenges. In M. J. Cuyjet (Eds.), *African American men in college* (pp.189–209). Jossey-Bass

Kitano, M. K., & Lewis, R. B. (2005). Resilience and coping: Implications for gifted children and youth at risk. *Roeper review*, *27*(4), 200-205.

Kobasa, S. C. (1979). Stressful life events, personality, and health: An inquiry into hardiness. *Journal of Personality Social Psychology*, *37*(1), 1-11. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.37.1.1

Laird, T. N., Bridges, B.K., Morelon-Quainoo, C.L., Williams, J.M., & Holmes, M.S.

(2007). African American and Hispanic student engagement at minority serving and predominantly White institutions. *Journal of College Student Development 48*(1), 39-56. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2007.0005.

Lanham, B., Schauer, E., & Osho, G. (2011). A comprehensive analysis of the efficacy of non-cognitive measures: Predicting academic success in a historically Black university in south Texas. *Journal of College Teaching and Learning, 8*(4), 43–50. https://doi.org/10.19030/tlc.v8i4.4193

Lee, J. M., & Keys, S. W. (2013). *Land grant but unequal: State one-to-one match funding for 1890 land-grant universities* [Policy brief]. Association of Public and Land-Grant Universities. https://www.aplu.org/library/land-grant-but-unequal-state-one-to-one-match-funding-for-1890-land-grant-universities/file

Lewis, W. C., James, M., Hancock, S., & Hill-Jackson, V. (2008). Framing African American students' success and failure in urban settings: A typology for change. *Urban Education, 43*(2), 127–153. https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085907312315

Lomax, M. (2017). *Black colleges matter: Debunking the myth of the demise of HBCUs*. United Negro College Foundation. https://www.uncf.org/the-latest/black-colleges-matter-debunking-themyth-of-the-demise-of-hbcus

Luthar, S. S., Cicchetti, D., & Becker, B. (2000). The construct of resilience: A critical evaluation and guidelines for future work. *Child Development, 71*(3), 543-562. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8624.00164

Maramba, D., Davis, R., & Palmer, R. (2010). Role of an HBCU in supporting academic success for underprepared Black Males. *The Negro Educational Review, 61*(1-4), 85–106.

Martin, A. J., & Marsh, H. W. (2006). Academic resilience and its psychological and educational correlates: A construct validity approach. *Psychology in the Schools*, *43*(3), 267-281. https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.20149

Masten, A. S. (1999). Resilience comes of age: Reflections on the past and outlook for the next generation of research. In M. D. Glantz, J. Johnson, & L. Huffman (Eds.), *Resilience and development: Positive life adaptations* (pp. 282-296). Plenum.

Masten, A. S., & Coatsworth, J. D. (1998). The development of competence in favorable and unfavorable environments: Lessons from research on successful children. *American Psychologist*, *53*(2), 205-220. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.53.2.205

Masten, A., S., & Fowler, R. D. (2001). Ordinary magic: Resilience processes in development. *The American Psychologist*, *56*(3), 227–238. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.56.3.227

McGowan, B., Palmer, R., Wood, J., & Hibbler, J. (2016). *Black men in the academy narratives of resiliency, achievement, and success*. Palgrave Macmillan US.

McKenzie, S., & Schweitzer, R. (2001). Who succeeds at university? Factors predicting academic performance in first year Australian university students. *Higher Education Research and Development*, *20*(1), 21–33. https://doi.org/10.1080/07924360120043621

Mertens, D. M. (2015). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology*. Sage.

Milea, M., Wills, R., Elder, A., & Molina, D. (2018). What matters in college student success? Determinants of college retention and graduation rates. *Journal of*

Education, *138*(4), 309- 322.

Mills, K. J. (2021). Black students' perceptions of campus climates and the effect on academic resilience. *Journal of Black Psychology*, *47*(4-5), 354–383. https://doi.org/10.1177/00957984211001195

Moore, J., & Lewis, C. (2012). *African American students in urban schools: Critical issues and solutions for achievement.* Peter Lang.

Morales, E. E. (2008). Exceptional female students of color: Academic resilience and gender in higher education. *Innovative Higher Education*, *33*(3), 197–213. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10755-008-9075-y

Morales, E. E. (2010). Linking strengths: Identifying and exploring protective factor clusters in academically resilient low-socioeconomic urban students of color. *Roeper Review*, *32*(3), 164-175. http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=EJ893166&site=ehost-live&scope=site&custid=s5822979

Morales, E. E. (2014). Learning from success: How original research on academic resilience informs what college faculty can do to increase the retention of low socioeconomic status students. *International Journal of Higher Education, 3*(3), 92-102. http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=EJ1067580&site=ehost-live&scope=site&custid=s5822979

Morales, E. & Trotman, F. K. (2004). *Promoting academic resilience in multicultural America: Factors affecting student success*. Peter Lang.

Murphy, L. B. (1974). Coping, vulnerability, and resilience in childhood. In G. V.

Coelho, D. A. Hamburg, & J. E. Adams (Eds.), *Coping and adaptation* (pp. 69-100). Basic Books.

Murphy, L. B., & Moriarty, A. E. (1976). *Vulnerability, coping, and growth: From infancy to adolescence*. Yale University Press.

National Center for Educational Statistics. (n.d.). Fast facts: The traditionally Black institutions of higher education 1860 to 1982. https://nces.ed.gov/pubs84/84308.pdf

National Center for Educational Statistics. (2021). College navigator. https://nces.ed.gov/collegenavigator/

National Center for Education Statistics. (2020). High school completion and degree attainment. https://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d19/tables/dt19_104.10.asp

National Center for Education Statistics. (2019a). Graduation rates. https://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d19/tables/dt19_326.10.asp

National Center for Education Statistics. (2019b). Fall enrollment and percentage of males at degree-granting postsecondary institution. https://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d15/tables/dt15_306.10.asp

National Center for Education Statistics. (2019c). Selected statistics on degree-granting historically Black colleges and universities. https://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d19/tables/dt19_313.30.asp?current=yes

National Center for Education Statistics. (2019d). Bachelor's degrees conferred to males by postsecondary institutions, by race/ethnicity and field of study: 2017-18 and 2018-19. https://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d20/tables/dt20_322.40.asp

National Center for Education Statistics. (2019e). Bachelor's degrees conferred to

females by postsecondary institutions, by race/ethnicity and field of study: 2017-18 and 2018-19. https://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d20/tables/dt20_322.40.asp

National Student Clearinghouse Research Center (2015). *Snapshot report: Persistence and retention.* https://nscresearchcenter.org/wp-content/uploads/SnapshotReport18-PersistenceRetention.pdf

Naylor, L. A., Wyatt-Nichol, H., & Brown, S. L. (2015). Inequality: Underrepresentation of African American males in U. S. higher education, *Journal of Public Affairs Education*, *21*(4), 523-538. https://doi.org/10.1080/15236803.2015.12002218

Nichols, A. H., & Evans-Bell, D. (2017). A look at Black student success: Identifying top and bottom performing institutions. https://edtrust.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/09/A-Look-at-Black-Student-Success.pdf

Noguera, P. (2003). The trouble with Black boys: The role and influence of environmental and cultural factors on the academic performance of African American males. *Urban Education, 38*(4), 431–459. https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085903038004005

Osterman, K. F. (2000). Students' need for belonging in the school community. *Review of Educational Research, 70*(3), 323-367. https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543070003323

Outcalt, C. L., & Skewes-Cox, T. E. (2002). Involvement, interaction, and satisfaction: The human environment at HBCUs. *The Review of Higher Education, 25*(3), 331-347. https://doi.org/10.1353/rhe.2002.0015

Pallant, J. (2010). *SPSS: Survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using*

SPSS. McGraw-Hill.

Palmer, R., Davis, R. J., & Hilton, A. (2009). Exploring challenges that threaten to impede the academic success of academically underprepared Black males at an HBCU. *Journal of College Student Development*, *50*(4), 429–445. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.0.0078

Palmer, R. T., Davis, R. J., & Maramba, D. C. (2011). The impact of family support on the success of Black men at an historically Black university: Affirming the revision of Tinto's theory. *Journal of College Student Development*, *52*(5), 577–597. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2011.0066

Palmer, R. T., Davis, R.J., & Thompson, T. (2010). Theory meets practice: HBCU initiatives that promote academic success among African Americans in STEM. *Journal of College Student Development*, *51*(4), 440–443. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.0.0146

Palmer, R., T., & Gasman, M. (2008). It takes a village to raise a child: The role of social capital in promoting academic success for African American men at a Black college. *Journal of College Student Development, 49*(1), 52-70. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2008.0002

Palmer, R. T., Wood, J. L., & Arroyo, A. (2015). Toward a model of retention and persistence for Black men at Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs). *Spectrum*, *4*(1), 5–20. https://doi.org/10.2979/spectrum.4.1.02

Palmer, R. T., Wood, J. L., Dancy, T. E., & Strayhorn, T. L. (2014). Black male collegians: Increasing access, retention, and persistence in higher education. *Ashe Higher Education Report*, *40*(3), 1-147. https://doi.org/10.1002/aehe.20015

Palmer, R., T., & Young, E. (2009). Determined to succeed: Salient factors that foster academic success for academically unprepared Black males at a Black college. *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory & Practice, 10*(4), 465–482. https://doi.org/10.2190/CS.10.4.d

Pascarella, E.T., & Terenzini, P.T. (2005). *How college affects students: A third decade of research* (3rd ed.). Jossey-Bass.

Phillips, M., Crouse, J., & Ralph, J. (1998). Does the Black White test score gap widen after children enter school? In C. Jencks & M. Phillips (Eds.), The Black-White test score gap (pp. 229-272). Washington, DC: Brookings Institute.

Polite, V. C., & Davis, J. E. (1999). (Eds). *African American males in school and society: Practices & policies for effective education*. Teachers College Press.

Prince-Embury, S. (2011). Assessing personal resiliency in the context of school settings: Using the resiliency scales for children and adolescents. *Psychology in the Schools*, *48*(7), 672-685. https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.20581

Radford, A. W., Berkner, L., Wheeless, S. C., & Shepherd, B. (2010). Persistence and Attainment of 2003-04 beginning postsecondary students: After 6 years (NCES 2011-151). http://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch

Raju, D., & Schumacker, R. (2015). Exploring student characteristics of retention that lead to graduation in higher education using data mining models. *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory & Practice*, *16*(4), 563–591. https://doi.org/10.2190/CS.16.4.e

Randolph, T. S. (2019). *Past is prologue: A case study on the viability of Historically*

Black Colleges and Universities (Publication No. 13904413). [Doctoral dissertation, Northcentral University]. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global.

Reyes, A., Andrusyszyn, M., Iwasiw, C., Forchuk, C., & Babenko-Mould, Y. (2015). Nursing students' understanding and enactment of resilience: A grounded theory study. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, *71*(11), 2622–2633. https://doi.org/10.1111/jan.12730

Reynolds, A., & Weigand, M. (2010). The relationships among academic attitudes, psychological attitudes, and the first-semester academic achievement of first year college students. *Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice*, *47*(2), 173-193. https://doi.org/10.2202/1949-6605.6004

Rhodes, A., & Schechter, R. (2014). Fostering resilience among youth in inner city community arts centers: The case of the artists collective. *Education and Urban Society*, *46*(7), 826–848. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013124512469816

Richardson, G. (2002). The metatheory of resilience and resiliency. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, *58*(3), 307–321. https://doi.org/10.1002/jclp.10020

Robinson, C. (2017). Growth mindset in the classroom. *Science Scope*, *41*(2), 18-21. https://www.proquest.com/scholarly-journals/growth-mindset-classroom/docview/1942178538/se-2?accountid=14605

Rosenman, R., Tennekoon, V., & Hill, L. G. (2011). Measuring bias in self-reported data. *International Journal of Behavioral & Healthcare Research*, *2*(4), 320–332. https://doi.org/10.1504/IJBHR.2011.043414

Ruffalo Noel Levitz (2021). *College student inventory. For incoming first year*

students at four-year and two-year campuses. https://www.ruffalonl.com/enrollment-management-solutions/student-success/rnl-retention-management-system-plus/college-student-inventory/

Ruffalo Noel Levitz (2019). *College student inventory: Form B scale descriptions*. https://www.ruffalonl.com/wp-content/uploads/pdf/RMS_CSI_FormB_ScaleDescriptions.pdf

Ruffalo Noel Levitz. (2010). The college student inventory coordinator's guide: The retention management system plus. https://www.ruffalonl.com/wp-content/uploads/pdf/CSI_CoordinatorsGuide.pdf

Rutter, M. (1985). Resilience in the face of adversity: Protective factors and resistance to psychiatric disorders. *British Journal of Psychiatry*, *147*(6), 598–611. https://doi.org/10.1192/bjp.147.6.598

Savage, M. W., Strom, R. E., Ebesu Hubbard, A. S., & Aune, K. S. (2019). Commitment in college student persistence. *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory & Practice*, *21*(2), 242–264. https://doi.org/10.1177/1521025117699621

Schaufeli, Martínez, I. M., Pinto, A. M., Salanova, M., & Bakker, A. B. (2002). Burnout and engagement in university students: A cross-national study. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *33*(5), 464–481. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022102033005003

Sedlacek, W. E. (1999). Black students on White campuses: 20 Years of research. *Journal of College Student Development*, *40*(5).

Sensoy, O., & DiAngelo, R. (2017). *Is everyone really equal: An introduction to key*

concepts in social justice education (2nd ed.). Teachers College Press.

Shappie, A. T., & Debb, S. M. (2019). African American student achievement and the Historically Black University: The role of student engagement. *Current Psychology*, *38*(6), 1649-1661. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-017-9723-4

Shen, C., Miele, D. B., & Vasilyeva, M. (2016). The relation between college students' academic mindsets and their persistence during math problem solving. *Psychology in Russia: State of the Art, 9*(3), 38–56. https://doi.org/10.11621/pir.2016.0303

Skinner, E. A., Graham, J. P., Brule, H., Rickert, N., & Kindermann, T. (2020). I get knocked down but I get up again: Integrative frameworks for studying the development of motivational resilience in school. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, *44*(4), 290-300. https://doi.org/10.1177/0165025420924122

Skinner, E. A., & Pitzer, J. (2012). Developmental dynamics of engagement, coping, and everyday resilience. In S. Christenson, A. Reschly, & C. Wylie (Eds.), *Handbook of research on student engagement* (pp. 21–45). Springer Science.

Solberg, V. S., O'Brien, K., Villareal, P., Kennel, R., & Davis, B. (1993). Self-efficacy and Hispanic college students: Validation of the college self-efficacy instrument. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 15*(1), 80–95. https://doi.org/10.1177/07399863930151004

Stephens, S., Smith, P., & Cherry, C. (2017). Promoting resilience in new perioperative nurses. *AORN Journal*, *105*(3), 276–284. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aorn2016.12.019

Stewart, E. A., & Simons, R. L. (2010). Race, code of the street, and violent delinquency: A multilevel investigation of neighborhood street culture and individual norms of violence. *Criminology: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, *48*, 569–605. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745/9125.2010.00196.x.

Strayhorn, T. L. (2014a). Making a way to success: Self-authorship and academic achievement of first year African American students at Historically Black Colleges. *Journal of College Student Development*, *55*(2), 151–167. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2014.0011

Strayhorn, T. L. (2014b). What role does grit play in the academic success of Black male collegians at predominantly White institutions? *Journal of African American Studies*, *18*(1), 1-10. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12111-012-9243-

Strayhorn, T. L. (2010). Buoyant Believers: Resilience, self-efficacy, and academic success of low-income African American collegians. In T. L. Strayhorn & M. C. Terrell (Eds.), *The evolving challenges of Black college students: New insights for policy, practice, and research* (pp. 49-65). Stylus Publishing, LLC.

Stout, R., Archie, C., Cross, D., & Carman, C. A. (2018). The relationship between faculty diversity and graduation rates in higher education. *Intercultural Education (London, England)*, *29*(3), 399–417. https://doi.org/10.1080/14675986.2018.1437997

Sundstrom, R. (2008). *The Browning of America and the evasion of social justice*. SUNY Press.

Taylor, E., Guy-Walls, P., Wilkerson, P., & Addae, R. (2019). The historical

perspectives of stereotypes on African-American males. *Journal of Human Rights and Social Work, 4*(3), 213–225. https://doi.org/10.1007/s41134-019-00096-y

Thomas, L. (2002). Student retention in higher education: The role of institutional habitus. *Journal of Education Policy*, *17*(4), 423–442. https://doi.org/10.1080/02680930210140257

Thompson, R. J. (2014). *Beyond reason and tolerance: The purpose and practice of higher education*. Oxford University Press.

Tinto, V. (1993). *Leaving college: Rethinking the causes and cures of student attrition*. The University of Chicago Press.

Toldson, I. A. (2018). Why Historically Black colleges and universities are successful with graduating Black baccalaureate students who subsequently earn doctorates in STEM. *The Journal of Negro Education, 87*(2), 95–98. https://doi.org/10.7709/jnegroeducation.87.2.0095

Toldson, I. A., & Lewis, C. W. (2012). Challenge the status quo: Academic success among school-age African American males. Washington, DC: Congressional Black Caucus Foundation

Tracey, T. J., & Sedlacek, W. E. (1987). A comparison of White and Black student academic success using noncognitive variables: A lisrel analysis. *Research in Higher Education*, *27*(4), 333-348.

United States Department of Education Office of Civil Rights (1991). Historically Black colleges and universities and higher education desegregation. https://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/docs/hq9511.html

United States Department of Education (2021). Announces $182 million in education

innovation and research grants to improve academic achievement for underserved students. https://www.ed.gov/news/press-releases/us-department-education-announces-182-million-education-innovation-and-research-grants-improve-academic-achievement-underserved-students#:~:text=U.S.%20Secretary%20of%20Education%20Miguel,and%20Research%20(EIR)%20program.

Uwah, C., McMahon, H. G., & Furlow, C. (2008). School belonging, educational aspirations, and academic self-efficacy among African American male high school students: Implications for school counselors. *Professional School Counseling*, *11*(5), 296-305. https://doi.org/10.5330/PSC.n.2010-11.296

Wang, M.C., & Gordon, E. (1994). *Educational resilience in inner-city America: Challenges and prospect*. L. Erlbaum Associates.

Wang, M. C., Haertel, G. D., & Walberg, H. J. (1997). Toward a knowledge base for School learning. *Review of Educational Research*, *63*(3), 249-294. https://doi.org/10.2307/1170546

Ward, V. J. (2018). *Diversity and democracy: Lessons in resistance and resilience*. Association of American Colleges and Schools. https://www.aacu.org/diversitydemocracy/2018/winter/ward

Warren, C. A., Douglas, T. R. M., & Howard, T. C. (2016). In their own words: Erasing deficits and exploring what works to improve K-12 and postsecondary Black male school achievement. *Teachers College Record, 118*(6), 1-6.

Waxman, H. C., Gray, J. P., & Padron, Y. N. (2003). Review of research on

educational Resilience (CREDE Publication No. 11). Institute of Education Sciences. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED479477.pdf

Werner, E. E. (2000). Protective factors and individual resilience. In J. P. Shonkoff & S. J. Meisels (Eds.), *Handbook of early childhood intervention* (p. 115–132). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511529320.008

Werner, E. E., & Smith, R. S. (1982). *Vulnerable but invincible: A study of resilient children.* McGraw-Hill.

Whiting, G. W. (2006). From at risk to at promise: Developing scholar identities among Black males. *Journal of Advanced Academics*, *17*(4), 222-229. https://doi.org/10.4219/jsge-2006-407

Wiggan, G. (2021). Black health and wellness—Race is a social construction, but racism is real. *Black History Bulletin*, *84*(2), 29–34. https://doi.org/10.1353/bhb.2021.0003

Wiggan, G. (2007). Race, school achievement and educational inequality: Towards a student-based inquiry perspective. *Review of Educational Research*, *77*(3), 310-333.

Wiggan, G., Pass, M. B., & Gadd, S. R. (2020). Critical race structuralism: The role of science education in teaching social justice issues in urban education and pre-service teacher education programs. *Urban Education*, 1-30. https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085920937756

Wiggan, G., & Scott, L. (2015). *Last of the Black titans: The role of historically Black colleges and universities in the 21st Century*. BRILL.

Williams, K. L., & Davis, B. (2019). *Public and private investments and divestments*

in historically Black colleges and universities [Issue Brief]. American Council on Education, United Negro College Foundation. https://www.acenet.edu/Documents/Public-and-Private-Investments-and-Divestments-in-HBCUs.pdf

Wilkins, R. (2005). Swimming upstream: A study of Black males and the academic pipeline. (Publication No. 3244696). [Doctoral dissertation, Georgia State University]. ProQuest Dissertations Publishing.

Wilson, C. A., Babcock, S. E., & Saklofske, D. H. (2019). Sinking or swimming in an academic pool: A study of resiliency and student success in first year undergraduates. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education, 49*(1), 60–84. https://doi.org/10.7202/1060824ar

Wilson, W. J. (2012). *The truly disadvantaged: The inner city, the underclass, and public policy* (2nd ed.). University of Chicago Press.

Wolinsky, F. D., Andresen, E. M., Malmstrom, T. K., Miller, J. P., Schootman, M., & Miller, D. K. (2012). Childhood school segregation and later life sense of control and physical performance in the African American Health cohort. *BMC Public Health*, *12*(1), 827. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-12-827

Wolters, C. A., & Hussain, M. (2015). Investigating grit and its relations with college students' self-regulated learning and academic achievement. *Metacognition & Learning*, *10*(3), 293- 311. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11409-014-9128-9

Wood, J. L., Newman, C. B., & Harris, F. (2015). Self-efficacy as a determinant of academic integration: An examination of first year Black males in the community college. *The Western Journal of Black Studies*, *39*(1), 3-17.

Woodson, C. G. (1920). *The education of the Negro prior to 1861*. Kessinger Publisher.

Woosley, S., Slabaugh, K., Sadler, A. E., & Mason, G. W. (2005). The mystery of stop-outs: Do commitment and intentions predict reenrollment? *NASPA Journal*, *42*(2), 188-201. https://doi.org/10.2202/1949-6605.1472

Yeager, D. S., & Dweck, C. S. (2012). Mindsets that promote resilience: When students believe that personal characteristics can be developed. *Educational Psychologist*, *47*(4), 302-314. https://doi.org/10.1080/00461520.2012.722805

Yeung, J. W., & Conley, D. (2008). Black-White achievement gap and family wealth. *Child Development*, *79*(2), 303–324. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2007.01127.x

Zautra, A., Hall, J. S., & Murray, K. (2010). Resilience: A new definition of health for people and communities. In J. R. Reich, A. J. Zautra, & J. S. Hall (Eds.), *Handbook of Adult Resilience* (pp. 3–30). Guilford Press.

Zimmerman M. A. (2013). Resiliency theory: A strengths-based approach to research and practice for adolescent health. *Health Education & Behavior: The Official Publication of the Society for Public Health Education*, *40*(4), 381–383. https://doi.org/10.1177/1090198113493782