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THE CHANGING DEMOGRAPHICS OF THE BLACK AMERICAN MALE POPULATION IN 2010
AND ITS IMPACT ON THE UNITED STATES ARMY OFFICER CORPS

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A thesis presented to the Faculty of the U.S. Army
Command and General Staff College in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree

MASTER OF MILITARY ART AND SCIENCE

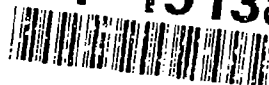
by

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Fort Leavenworth, Kansas
1991

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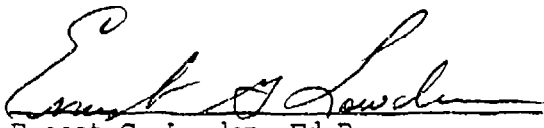
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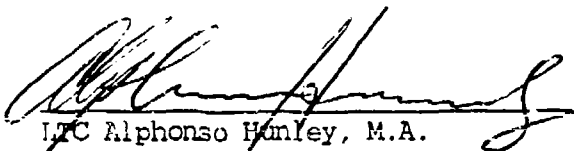
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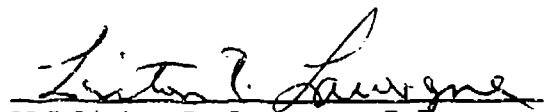
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The opinions and conclusions expressed herein are those of the student author and do not necessarily represent the views of the U.S. Army Command and General Staff College or any other governmental agency. (References to this study should include the foregoing statement.)

ABSTRACT

THE CHANGING DEMOGRAPHICS OF THE BLACK AMERICAN MALE POPULATION IN 2010 AND ITS IMPACT ON THE UNITED STATES ARMY OFFICER CORPS by MAJ Robert C. Fittard, USA, 184 pages.

The research hypothesis is that the percentage of black male Army officers is significantly less than the percentage of black males in the 18-24 age group in the United States. This study examines the effects of population, crime and prisons, families, income, education, and the Army's planned reduction of forces on the 18-24 year old population of black males in the year 2010, as well as the impact of those effects on the U.S. Army officer corps.

The study used linear regression graphs to project socioeconomic trends and analyzed their effect on the 18-24 year old black male population. The study used statistical tests to analyze the results of the survey administered to black Army officers.

The research hypothesis was proven by showing that 9.9 percent of male Army officers are black, whereas 13.8 percent of the 18-24 male age group in the U.S. is black. The study further concludes that there will be a 0.4 percent increase in the number of qualified 18-24 year old black males in 2010. The study concludes that the reduction of forces and decline in Historically Black College and University production of black male officers will cause the percentage of black male officers to decline 5 percent annually. The study finds that 78 percent of black male officers surveyed have a positive perception of their Army careers, and that they can have a positive impact on the pool of qualified 18-24 year old black males.

The study recommends that the Army must recruit, train, and commission more black males in the 18-24 age group. This will increase the percentage of black male officers so that they will be more representative of the 18-24 year old black male population in the United States.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | Page |
|--|------|
| Approval Page | ii |
| Abstract | iii |
| Acknowledgements | iv |
| Table of Contents | v |
| List of Tables | vii |
| List of Figures | ix |
| Chapter | |
| 1. INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| Background. | 4 |
| Problem Statement | 8 |
| Research Question | 8 |
| Assumptions | 11 |
| Limitations | 11 |
| Delimitations | 12 |
| Definitions | 12 |
| Thesis Structure | 15 |
| 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE | 19 |
| Introduction | 19 |
| Historical Perspective | 20 |
| Selected Socioeconomic Factors, Trends, and Impact on Black Males | 30 |
| Current Status of Black U.S. Army Officers | 37 |
| Percentage of Black Males as U.S. Army Officers in Year 2010 | 40 |
| Summary | 42 |
| 3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY | 47 |
| Introduction | 47 |
| Data Collection. | 47 |
| Survey Design | 51 |
| Survey Data Collection Methods. | 56 |
| Data Analysis | 65 |
| 4. DATA ANALYSIS | 71 |

| Chapter | Page |
|--|------|
| Introduction | 71 |
| Results and Discussion | 71 |
| Population | 72 |
| Crime and Prisons | 74 |
| Families | 77 |
| Income | 82 |
| Education | 91 |
| Army's Planned Reduction of Forces | 112 |
| Comparative Analysis. | 119 |
| Survey Data Analysis | 125 |
| Discussion | 132 |
| 5. CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS | 136 |
| Introduction | 136 |
| Conclusions | 138 |
| Socioeconomic Trends. | 138 |
| "Army Officers, All grades" Survey Conclusions | 139 |
| Impact on the U.S. Army Officer Corps | 140 |
| Recommendations. | 142 |
| Recommendations for Further Research | 143 |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY | 145 |
| APPENDICES | |
| APPENDIX A - ARMY OFFICERS, ALL GRADES SURVEY. | 153 |
| APPENDIX B - SUMMARY OF ALL BLACK OFFICER RESPONSES | 158 |
| APPENDIX C - SUMMARY OF MALE BLACK OFFICER RESPONSES | 163 |
| APPENDIX D - SUMMARY OF FEMALE BLACK OFFICER RESPONSES | 168 |
| APPENDIX E - INTERVIEW WITH COLONEL HARRIS, ROTC | 173 |
| APPENDIX F - SAMPLE REQUEST FOR INFORMATION LETTER | 178 |
| SAMPLE SURVEY COVER LETTER | 179 |
| COVER LETTER TO TRADOC SCHOOLS | 180 |
| AIR DEFENSE SCHOOL RESPONSE | 181 |
| APPENDIX G - INITIAL DISTRIBUTION LIST | 182 |

LIST OF TABLES

| Table | Page |
|---|------|
| 1. BLACK MALES 18-24 YEARS OLD | 72 |
| 2. BLACK MALES 18-24 AGE GROUP | 73 |
| 3. NET GROWTH RATE | 74 |
| 4. HOMICIDE RATES | 75 |
| 5. BLACK POPULATION | 76 |
| 6. BLACK FAMILIES | 78 |
| 7. PERCENT OF BLACK FAMILIES AND CHILDREN LIVING BELOW POVERTY LEVEL | 80 |
| 8. FAMILY INCOME UNDER \$10,000 WITH CHILDREN UNDER 18 | 80 |
| 9. BLACK CHILDREN LIVING IN POVERTY 1988 AND 2010 | 82 |
| 10. BLACK FAMILY MEDIAN INCOME | 84 |
| 11. BLACK FAMILY INCOME | 84 |
| 12. BLACK AND WHITE INCOME LEVELS | 87 |
| 13. BLACKS AND WHITES IN POVERTY | 87 |
| 14. BLACK AND WHITE FAMILY MEDIAN INCOME | 88 |
| 15. BLACK FAMILIES BELOW POVERTY LINE | 90 |
| 16. BLACK MALE H.S. GRADS 18-24 | 92 |
| 17. BLACK AND WHITE SAT SCORES | 95 |
| 18. 18-24 BLACK MALE HS GRADS ENROLLED IN COLLEGE | 98 |
| 19. BLACK MALE HS GRADS ENROLLED IN COLLEGE | 98 |
| 20. AVERAGE COLLEGE COSTS | 101 |
| 21. FEDERAL FUNDS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION | 102 |
| 22. DEPT OF EDUCATION FUNDS | 103 |
| 23. BLACK MALES 25-34 YEARS OF COLLEGE COMPLETED | 105 |

| Table | | Page |
|-------|---|------|
| 24. | DEGREES VS ENROLIMENT | 105 |
| 25. | BLACK MALES COMMISSIONED | 108 |
| 26. | BLACK MALE HBCU PRODUCTION | 110 |
| 27. | PLANNED OFFICER REDUCTION | 112 |
| 28. | BLACK OFFICER PERCENTAGE | 116 |
| 29. | BLACK MALE OFFICERS | 117 |
| 30. | CUMULATIVE EFFECTS OF SOCIOECONOMIC FACTORS ON BLACK MALES 18-24 YEARS OLD | 120 |
| 31. | NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF BLACK OFFICERS RESPONDING TO QUESTION THIRTEEN | 125 |
| 32. | NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF BLACK MALE OFFICERS RESPONDING TO QUESTION THIRTEEN | 125 |
| 33. | NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF BLACK FEMALE OFFICERS RESPONDING TO QUESTION THIRTEEN | 126 |
| 34. | AFCS YEARS - ALL BLACK OFFICERS | 127 |
| 35. | COMMAND - ALL BLACK OFFICERS | 128 |
| 36. | AFRICAN-AMERICAN AS RATER OR SENIOR RATER ALL BLACKS AND MALE OFFICERS | 129 |
| 37. | BLACK SENIOR OFFICERS FY 91 | 130 |
| 38. | OFFICER HAS RATED ANOTHER BLACK OFFICER ALL BLACK OFFICERS | 130 |
| 39. | PERCEPTION QUESTION #8 - ALL BLACK OFFICERS | 131 |
| 40. | BLACK MALE OFFICER PRODUCTION | 140 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| Figure | | Page |
|--------|---|------|
| 1. | BLACK OFFICER SURVEY RESPONDENT DISTRIBUTION BY GRADE AND GENDER | 59 |
| 2. | SURVEY DISTRIBUTION | 64 |

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The history of blacks and black officers in the U.S. Army is a direct reflection of the socioeconomic trends in American society. As blacks progressed through society they have also advanced in the Army. The number of blacks in the Army has been dictated by society from colonial times through the early 1950s when desegregation became Armywide. The progress of black officers within the Army has been a direct reflection of the socioeconomic status of blacks in American society and the eventual recognition of the Army that there needed to be a representative number of black officers in the officer corps.¹ However it was not until World War I that black officers were allowed to serve in any large numbers, and not until after the Korean War did many remain in the Army as regular officers. From colonial times through the present the percentage of black officers has not been reflective of the population of blacks within American society.²

The years following the Vietnam War, 1973 through 1981, saw significant changes in the official attitude of DOD and the Army toward minorities. The following are the most prominent of the DOD directives on equal opportunity and race relations:

1. the DOD Equal Opportunity Program which mandated equal opportunity for all DOD employees, tasked the services to develop Affirmative Action programs, and gave commanders the latitude to impose sanctions on civilian institutions that did not practice

equal opportunity or committed discriminatory acts toward servicemen or their dependents;

2. the Task Force on the Administration of Military Justice was formed in 1972, and by 1973 it reported that the military justice system practiced intentional and systemic discrimination; it recommended the elimination of discrimination in the military justice system as well as a Race Relations Program to educate all military personnel;

3. the Defense Race Relations Institute was established to train armed forces personnel as instructors in race relations;

4. the Equal Opportunity in Off-Base Housing program established a Housing Referral Office on each DOD installation to eliminate off-post discrimination against DOD personnel.³

As a result of the legislation enacted during the 1960s and the efforts of the Army to eliminate discrimination, blacks had higher expectations of the Army and began to reenlist at a higher rate than whites. With the advent of the All Volunteer Force (AVF) in 1973 the percentage of black enlisted soldiers increased from 13.5 percent in 1970 to 21.3 percent by 1974,⁴ and to the 1990 level of 30.9 percent of all Army enlisted soldiers.⁵ The Gates Commission, a commission President Nixon appointed in 1969 to look at the possibility of having an all-volunteer force, reported that blacks would not become greater than a 19 percentile of the enlisted ranks. The Institute of Defense Analyses suggested that young blacks would find it easier to earn more money in uniform and would enlist in greater numbers than the 19 percent predicted by the Gates Commission.⁶ As a matter of fact the economy took a downturn between 1981 and 1983 and consequently there were fewer jobs available in the civilian economy. The Army benefitted because it could raise its standards and enlist the best qualified applicants.⁷ The percentage of black high school graduates enlisting in the Army rose from 52 percent in 1974 to 95.4 percent in 1985 compared to 87.6 percent of white recruits

with a high school diploma.⁸ Between 1981 and 1985 black enlistments dropped slightly, but still remained significantly above the national percentile of 10 to 12 percent.⁹ The percentage of black officers in the Army has also increased from 4.0 percent in 1973¹⁰ to the current level of 11.2 percent.¹¹ The rise in the officer corps has not been as dramatic as the enlisted ranks, but the percentage has more than doubled. "Of the four services the Navy has been the slowest to recruit large numbers of blacks...The Army has always been at the forefront."¹² There are several reasons for this statement. The first is the sheer numbers of black officers in the Army versus the other services: the Army has 11,285, the Navy 2570, the Marines 1012, and the Air Force has 5633 black officers.¹³ The second factor is the access to commissioning sources and the availability of Army ROTC versus the other services--there are twice as many Army ROTC programs as the other services at the HBCUs, and a greater number at predominantly white campuses.¹⁴ The United States Military Academy graduates a greater number of blacks each year, and has a longer history of black graduates than either the Naval or Air Force Academy.¹⁵ The appointment of Clifford Alexander as the first black Secretary of the Army in 1977 has had a positive impact as well as the higher number of black flag officers in the Army, to include the appointment of General Colin Powell as Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff (CJCS) in October 1989, the first black man to hold that position. These last two examples illustrate that there is upward mobility in the Army and that a young black lieutenant can make a successful career in the Army.¹⁶ The 1980s have seen a large increase in the number of blacks commissioned, the number of blacks promoted to field grade and flag rank, and the number of

blacks selected for mid-level and senior service schools.¹⁷ Black officers within the Army have made tremendous strides since World War II and the Korean War. This study will examine how black officers in the U.S. Army will progress into the 21st Century.

BACKGROUND

There are several different factors within society that affect the number of blacks who eventually become Army officers. In the 1950s and 1960s the inception and implementation of a national civil rights movement and its consequences had a significantly positive impact on the prospects of young blacks who aspired to become Army officers. The advent of civil rights gave young blacks better educational and job opportunities, and allowed them to begin integrating into all levels of the corporate structure in the U.S. marketplace. These changes in society were reflected in the Army, and blacks were given greater opportunities to succeed. In the 1970s equal opportunity and affirmative action caused a ripple effect throughout society and gave blacks greater access to the commissioning sources such as ROTC, West Point, and OCS; as well as better opportunities to excel within the Army. As the country progressed into the 1980s black enrollment and graduation from high school increased, black enrollment and graduation from college was at an all-time high, more blacks were being commissioned than ever before, and blacks were earning more money in professions previously denied them.¹⁸ Blacks in America were taking great strides toward realizing the "American Dream". However as more blacks became prosperous other trends within society began to develop that had a negative effect on blacks in America. The Civil Rights Act of

1968 opened many previously closed housing areas to blacks. As black professionals earned more money they began to integrate neighborhoods outside of the city. Many black families moved from the more urban areas of the cities to the "suburbs". When the black professionals left the inner cities they created a void in the leadership within the black community. This created an "underclass" that has since reached 53 percent of the black population in America today.¹⁹

The Great Migration of blacks from the South to the North in the 1920s and 1930s saw over 20 million blacks gravitate to the northern industrial cities for better jobs and equality.²⁰ As a result 57 percent of blacks live in central cities, and 40 percent of all blacks live in 11 urban areas.²¹ These communities were fairly close-knit and had their own hierarchy of social classes from "lower" to "middle class". The middle class was made up of the black professionals such as doctors, lawyers, teachers, etc. When they began to move out of the inner cities they left behind the lower class who could not afford to leave.

In the mid-1980s there has been an increase in the birth rate of blacks, almost 50 percent higher than that of whites. However, of the black babies born today their life expectancy is 69.5 compared to 75.5 for whites, for black males it is 65.1 years compared to 72.1 for white males.²² Infant mortality for black babies is twice as high as white babies²³ and a black male age 18-24 has a six times greater chance of dying by violent death as his white counterpart.²⁴ Substance abuse is taking its toll on blacks--over 29 percent of drug abuse deaths are black, in relation to a 12.3 percentile of blacks in the U.S. population.²⁵ Increases in drug use, participation in gang violence, and violent crimes

has increased the numbers of blacks under the supervision of the criminal justice system. Over 609,000 black men between the ages of 20-29 are in the criminal justice system (either on probation, on parole, or in jail) compared to 436,000 of the same age enrolled in college.²⁶ The number of black jail inmates is 335,288 compared to 392,295 white inmates for a combined total of 727,583 blacks and whites in jail (does not include federal prisoners). Blacks represent 46 percent of this total compared to 12.3 percent of the U.S. population.²⁷ Black college enrollment has dropped from 35.5 percent of black high school graduates in 1976 to 26.1 percent in 1985, whereas overall black graduation from high school has increased from 67.5 to 75.6 percent in the same time period.²⁸ However, the dropout rate of inner-city black youth from high school is 36 percent.²⁹ Over half of all black families with children live below the poverty line of \$10,989 annual income compared to 22 percent white families.³⁰ Seventy-three percent of the black families below the poverty line are headed by single mothers.³¹ Sixty-two percent of all black children are born to unmarried mothers, of whom 22.6 percent are teenagers. This is in contrast to 16.7 percent of white babies born to unwed mothers of whom 10.4 percent are teenagers.³² Black teenage males have an unemployment rate of 40 percent, twice as high as white teenage boys,³³ and adult black males make up only 4.9 percent of today's labor force.³⁴

These are examples of the current socioeconomic trends that may have an impact on the number of blacks available to become Army officers in the future. This study will analyze the impact of these trends on the available pool of black males between the ages of 18-24 and its possible

effect on the percentage of black male officers in the year 2010. The time frame for analysis will be from 1960 to the present, and then project the impact of current trends 20 years into the future. The year 2010 was selected for three reasons: the U.S. Census Bureau projects population figures in five, ten, and twenty-year increments; the target age for officer recruitment is from 18-24 and children born from 1986 through 1992 would be within that age group in 2010; and finally the Army is tracking officer projections out to 2008 because of the length of a normal career span--20 years. Black males were selected because the statistics indicate they are the population sub-group most affected by the current trends.¹ In addition black males represent 9.9 percent of male Army officers,³⁵ 43 percent of whom are in the combat arms, compared to 58 percent of white officers in the combat arms.³⁶ Black female officers represent 19.4 percent of female officers in the Army.³⁷ This raises another question: what is the appropriate percentage when determining the black male population of officers? The percentage that this study will consider as the appropriate percentage is the percentage of black males within the male U.S. population age group 18-24 which is 13.8 percent.³⁸ This study is limited to the examination of the effects of six socioeconomic factors: families, crime/prisons, population projections, education, income, and the projected reduction of forces. Each factor will be analyzed to determine the significance of its impact on black males in the United States and its possible impact on the percentage of black males as Army officers.

The Army has a responsibility to provide the best leadership possible for its soldiers. This includes attracting the highest caliber

college graduate, and developing these graduates into officers who will be prepared to lead soldiers at each level of command from platoon to battalion and beyond. The Army also has the responsibility to provide the opportunity for its leadership to be representative of the society it was created to defend. This includes representative numbers of minorities in leadership positions in the officer corps.

"Presently, the dominant issue regarding the role of blacks in the military is representation, a concept which proceeds on the assumption that the armed services should approximate a broad cross-section of the American male population in the 18 to 24 year old age group...Some critics have asserted that a representative military is imperative if it is to enjoy political legitimacy and widespread public support."³⁹

In 1990 the indications were that by 2010 the percentage of black male Army officers will be significantly less than the percentage of black males in the U.S. population as projected by the U.S. Census Bureau.

PROBLEM STATEMENT. The percentage of black male officers in the United States Army is significantly below the percentage of black males in the United States population. This is a result of the current socioeconomic trends reducing the number of black males qualified to become United States Army officers.

RESEARCH QUESTION. "What impact will current socioeconomic trends have on the percentage of black males in the U.S. Army officer corps in the year 2010?"

Subordinate Questions:

1. How do the selected demographic trends impact on the available pool of black males?
2. What are the changes in selected demographic trends from 1960 to 1990?
3. What is significant when determining the impact of specific socioeconomic factors?
4. What are the current perceptions of black officers and how will that affect the future of black officers in the Army?

Purpose of the Thesis. The purpose of this thesis is to first determine if there is a valid problem; second, if there is a valid problem, to determine the impact of the problem on the U.S. Army; and third, to discuss possible solutions.

As the nation progresses into the 21st Century the qualified pool of black-officer candidates has the potential to shrink below present levels and possibly below the representative percentage of the growing black population in the United States. There seems to be no appreciable decrease in the number of young blacks enlisting in the Army. What this means is that the percentage of black enlisted soldiers will remain the same or increase slightly while the percentage of black officers may decrease. This may cause a perception of a reversion back to a pre-integration Army when blacks were segregated with white officers providing most of their leadership.⁴⁰ Without a steady flow of black officers into the Army, the Army would become "top heavy" with black field and senior grade officers, with few junior officers to actually lead at the troop

levels. A closely related problem is the percentage of black male officers in the combat arms branches: infantry, armor, field artillery, air defense artillery, aviation, and combat engineers.⁴¹ Females are generally denied access to these branches; therefore a decrease in the percentage of black male officers would have a significant impact on black soldiers serving in combat units. Black male officers are role models for black male soldiers. They provide essential leadership, counseling, and mentoring for black soldiers.⁴² Black officers also ensure that the soldiers know that there are members of their own race involved in making decisions that can have a significant impact on their lives.

Operation Desert Storm, the U.S. led effort to force Iraqi forces from Kuwait, underscored this need for minority leadership. The Army had been criticized for the disproportionate number of black enlisted soldiers serving in the Persian Gulf. The percentage of black soldiers throughout the Army is 30.9 percent, and they made up 29.8 percent of the soldiers that were deployed to the Persian Gulf.⁴³ Critics stated that blacks would die in disproportionate numbers in relation to their percentage of the U.S. population which is 12.3 percent. A greater percentage of minority officers, particularly in the combat arms branches, may have circumvented some of the critics' arguments. General Colin Powell, Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, replied that

"...the military provides upward mobility to those who join, and that the risk of combat, and its attendant casualties is a fact of military life...it is undeniable that if the armed forces are sent into combat there will be a higher percentage of blacks in combat than there will be a percentage of blacks in the general population. It is mathematical that if any particular group is represented in the armed forces at a higher percentage than their representation in the general population, then it is mathematical that that group...will bear a disproportionate share of the casualties. And that's simply a given."⁴⁴

Many black leaders were concerned that this represented a return to the early years of Vietnam when the percentage of black soldiers killed was twice the percentage of blacks in the general population. This phenomena during the Vietnam War left an anti-war, anti-military mentality among many black leaders and the black middle class. Today, many families who can afford to send their children to college do not encourage military service. In addition many black professors on college campuses do not encourage military service as the first option for their black students.⁴⁵ This mentality may have a direct impact on the pool of qualified and available black males who could become Army officers.

Assumptions.

1. The U.S. Army will continue to commission qualified black males as officers.
2. There will be no significant change in the current Department of the Army (DA) Equal Opportunity Policy, Army Regulation 600-20, Chapter 6 on Equal Opportunity, or the DA Affirmative Action Plan, DA Pamphlet 600-26.
3. The target recruiting population for entry-level officers will continue to be 18-24 years old.

Limitations.

1. Population trends and statistics based on U.S. Census Bureau figures by year.
2. U.S. Army statistics based on official publications and other related documents.

3. Selected socioeconomic factors from 1960 to the present as they effect blacks: crime/prisons, population projections, income, education, families, and the Army's planned reduction of forces.

Delimitations.

1. This study will only use the population of U.S. Army officers to determine the impact of current socioeconomic trends on the U.S. Army.

2. Black Americans will be the population studied, with the focus being black males.

3. Statistics from 1960 to the present will be used to provide data as a baseline for comparison of selected socioeconomic factors.

4. The survey, "Army Officers, All Grades", will be limited to active duty black officers serving between January 1990 and February 1991.

Definitions of Selected Terms.

1. African-American: a black American citizen descended from Africans and identifies himself with that racial/ethnic group.

2. Birth Rate: the number of live births per year of a particular group. Birth rates are compared annually to give an indication of the population of a particular ethnic group during a specific year.

3. Black: an American citizen of African descent, normally is used to officially describe members of this racial/ethnic group. Can be used interchangeably with the term African-American.

4. Commissioning Sources: those sources from which officers in the armed forces receive their commissions.

5. Hispanic: those persons of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban or

Latin American descent or who identify with that ethnic group.

6. Historically Black College or University (HBCU): a college or university established by southern state education systems after Reconstruction to provide for the higher education of black youth prior to desegregation.

7. Minorities: racial/ethnic groups in the United States other than whites.

8. Mortality Rate: The rates of death per 100,000 of a particular group. Normally mortality rates examine reasons for the death rates of a particular group to determine past, current, and future trends. This helps the Census Bureau to project population trends and life expectancy of a particular group.

9. Officers Candidate School (OCS): A 14-week U.S. Army school designed to train enlisted soldiers, noncommissioned officers, and college graduates without prior military training how to be second lieutenants in either the reserves, the National Guard, or the Regular Army.

10. Poverty: the poverty index is based solely on annual money income. The poverty thresholds are updated every year to reflect changes in the Consumer Price Index. The Census Bureau poverty level with the latest CPI adjustment is \$10,563 for a family of four.

11. Qualified: capable or suitable for a particular office or function; meeting minimum standards for a particular position. For the Army officer this includes, being a U.S. citizen, a minimum of 60 hours of transcribed college credits, 19-29 years old, good physical condition, good medical health, cannot be a felon or have a history of substance abuse, and be able to pass the Officer Selection Battery (OSB) test with

a minimum score of 90.⁴⁶

12. Qualified Pool: those black males between the ages of 18 and 24 that have the ability to prepare themselves for service as a U.S. Army officer.

13. Reserve Officers Training Corps (ROTC): U.S. Army program on many college and university campuses designed to train civilian, full-time college students how to be second lieutenants for either the reserves, National Guard, or the Regular Army. Established by the National Defense Act of 1916 it is a two-, three-, or four-year program that is competitive in nature for entrance, scholarships, commissioning, admission onto active duty, and into the Regular Army. It is the primary source of Army officers.

14. Socioeconomic: anything of, relating to, or involving social and economic factors.

15. United States Military Academy (USMA) at West Point: Established in 1802, West Point has traditionally been the primary commissioning source for Regular Army officers. Cadets are admitted to West Point through a selective nomination and admission process to try to attract the best of high school graduates and develop them into the best of Army officers.

16. White: those persons relating to or of the Caucasian race, or who identify themselves with that racial/ethnic group. A person can be Caucasian but identify with a different ethnic group, such as Italians, Irish, etc.

Thesis Structure. This thesis is divided into five chapters. Chapter 1 is an introduction to the problem and its significance. Chapter 1 will state the problem, the research question, limitations and delimitations, and give more insight into the problem. Chapter 2 is the review of literature. This chapter will give information on the depth of the search of information that helped to define the problem and provided relevant information. Chapter 3 details the research methodology used to research this problem. Chapter 4 is the data analysis chapter, and discusses in detail issues introduced in Chapter 1. Finally, Chapter 5 discusses conclusions, recommendations, and further areas of study related to, but not covered within this thesis. The appendices will contain the survey, specific survey results, and the bibliography. Each chapter will have its own endnotes page for reference.

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CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

The problem, as stated, is that the percentage of black male officers in the U.S. Army is significantly less than the percentage of black males in the general U.S. population. The research question asks what impact current socioeconomic trends may have on the percentage of black males as U.S. Army officers as compared to the population of black males in the U.S. population in the year 2010.

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature related to the aspects of this study. This study reviewed literature to attain relevant information that focused on the following areas:

1. A historical perspective of blacks and black officers in the Army.
2. Past and current trends of selected socioeconomic factors and their impact on the U.S. black population.
3. The impact of current trends of selected socioeconomic factors on black males in the year 2010.
4. The impact of current trends of selected socioeconomic factors on the percentage of black males as U.S. Army officers in 2010.
5. Military research in the area of the demographic population of black officers in the 21st Century.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

The progress of black officers within the military and the Army in particular is fairly well documented. There have been several books written about blacks in the Army from the colonial period through the early 1980s. There are also several Department of Defense (DOD) and Defense Technical Information Center (DTIC) studies that document different aspects of the development of black officers in the military.

However this literature survey was used to get a historical perspective and how that perspective related to the current status of black Army officers. This meant studying books with more recent information and analysis. The three books most widely used in this context were Black Americans In Defense of Our Nation, a DOD publication, Strength for the Fight, A History of Black Americans in the Military, by Bernard C. Nalty, and Blacks and the Military by Martin Binkin and Mark Eitelberg. The DOD publication gave a good historical overview of the progress of blacks and black officers in the military. It also chronicled the rise of blacks in the reserves and National Guard, military nurses, black Medal of Honor recipients, and blacks at the service Academies. The Nalty book does an in-depth analysis on the social factors that influenced the progress of blacks in the military, particularly the social dynamics of each period as expressed by legislative action, U.S. Supreme Court decisions, and civil rights activities led by black Americans. The Binkin book gives a brief history of black participation in the Army from 1636 through the Korean War, then it focuses on Vietnam and the advent of the All Volunteer Force (AVF) in 1973 through 1981.

Colonial Years Through Reconstruction

From 1619 to 1862 blacks were used sparingly in segregated volunteer units. The majority of blacks were slaves and most whites feared an armed revolt if blacks were given the opportunity to serve in the Army for any length of time, so their service was normally reserved for emergency situations.¹ In 1862, during the Civil War, the Emancipation Proclamation was issued and for the first time in American history blacks were allowed to serve in the federal Army on a large scale. The Civil War also saw the service of almost 100 blacks as officers in various state militias.²

Reconstruction followed the Civil War from 1866 to 1877. Many blacks were given the opportunity to serve in public office at the local, state, and national level, as general officers in South Carolina and Louisiana militias, and as part of the four newly formed regular Army regiments--the 9th and 10th Cavalry, and the 24th and 25th Infantry Regiments created in 1869 by an act of Congress.³ The first two Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC) programs for blacks were introduced on the campuses of Hampton Institute and Howard University in the 1860s and became the first of 12 black colleges to organize ROTC units.⁴ It was during this time that Henry O. Flipper became the first black to graduate from the United States Military Academy (USMA) at West Point. In 1877 Lieutenant Henry O. Flipper became the first black regular army officer, and was assigned to the 10th Cavalry Regiment.⁵

The Post-Reconstruction Years

In the years following Reconstruction from 1877 through 1900 the four black regiments served in the West during the American expansion to

the Pacific, fought in the Spanish-American War, and were involved in the Philippine insurgency. These four regular Army regiments distinguished themselves in battle. The 9th and 10th Cavalry earned themselves the nickname "Buffalo Soldiers" from the Indians they fought as a sign of respect. However their exploits were ignored by the American public and by the Army.⁶ In 1896 the U.S. Supreme Court upheld the "separate but equal" doctrine in public schools in the landmark case Plessy v. Ferguson. This decision established the right of states to pass "Jim Crow" laws which prohibited blacks from voting, living and going to school with whites, from owning land, from use of public facilities, and segregated all facets of life, particularly in the South. The impact on the military was to negate any gains made during Reconstruction and gave legislators and white military personnel a tool to use to support discriminatory practices.⁷

World War I

When World War I broke out in 1914 there were serious inequities in social, economic, and educational opportunities between blacks and whites. Many blacks saw the war in Europe as a way of gaining civil rights at home by showing a willingness to fight abroad.⁸ When the United States declared war in April 1917 the Army formed two black divisions: the 92nd and the 93rd Infantry Divisions.⁹ In addition the Army opened a special officer training school to commission blacks to serve in these two divisions and other support units.¹⁰ The 93rd Division was given to the French and used in a piecemeal fashion. However the French people treated them well and did not practice discrimination as a rule.¹¹ The 92nd suffered from poor leadership and poor training and established a

reputation for poor performance in battle.¹² The 92nd Division was used as a part of the American Expeditionary Force and the blacks in those units suffered from the discriminatory practices of their white officers.¹³ Over 400,000 blacks served in the Army during World War I. Ten percent were assigned to combat units, and the rest served as stevedores, laborers, or in other support units.¹⁴ Over 1300 blacks were commissioned as officers, the highest ranking black officer was Lieutenant Colonel Charles Young. Colonel Young had been forcibly retired at the outbreak of the War, but was reinstated five days before the War ended.¹⁵ There were three other black officers who attained field grade rank. There was still a great deal of discriminatory practices within the Army, but World War I saw the largest number of black commissioned officers ever to serve in the U.S. Army.¹⁶

The Interim Years (1918-1941)

The DOD publication describes the years between World War I and World War II as a time of increased racism and little change for black soldiers and officers:

During the interim years from 1919 to 1941 black soldiers returned to America to find that little had changed. Jim Crow laws were still in effect, and they found that many whites, especially in the South, were vehemently opposed to any ideas of racial equality or civil rights. The year 1919 saw an increase in racial violence and in lynchings as whites fought to suppress black veterans "infected with foreign ideas and by foreign women." Many people within the War Department felt that blacks should be removed from the peacetime Army. In 1924 a secret report submitted to the Army Chief of Staff stated as fact that blacks were inferior and should be limited in their participation in future mobilizations. During the 1930s blacks were confined to the four black regiments which had existed before the war--the 9th, 10th, 24th, and 25th Regiments. These regiments were confined to western posts and kept understrength. During this period other War Department studies stressed the poor leadership quality of black officers and argued for their removal. It was conceded that blacks could fight well, but only when motivated and led by white officers. As a result of

these studies and general discriminatory practices within the Army, by 1939 there were only five black officers in the Army, three of whom were chaplains. As fascism grew in Europe and the possibility of another World War became evident, the War Department created several new black regiments, as well as inducting blacks into the Army through the Selective Service System initiated in 1940. In October 1940 the War Department announced that blacks would comprise only ten percent of the Army in proportion to their population within the U.S.¹⁷

In October 1940 Benjamin O. Davis, Sr. became the first black regular Army officer promoted to the rank of general. This milestone showed that a black could attain flag rank, and helped open the doors to other black officers as the country entered World War II.¹⁸

World War II

In World War II the Army implemented its policies from World War I on the utilization of blacks. Most were assigned to combat support or service support units, primarily to quartermaster and transportation units.¹⁹ The two black divisions from World War I were reactivated, the 92nd and 93rd Infantry Divisions. The 92nd saw limited action but was branded as cowardly because of the actions of a few units. The overall performance of the division was good but could not overcome the cowardly label. The 93rd also saw little combat. The best known black unit in World War II was the 761st Tank Battalion which eventually earned the Presidential Unit Citation for service in the European Theater of Operations.²⁰

Black officers constituted 0.3 percent of all officers in the Army in 1942.²¹ The production of black officers was slow due to the newly opened Officer Candidate Schools (OCS) in 1940, the small number of black officers graduating from ROTC programs on Historically Black College and University (HBCU) campuses, and the slow graduation rate of black officers

from USMA. By 1945 the numbers of black officers increased but never grew to more than 1.9 percent of the total number of Army officers and never approached the ten percent ceiling established by the War Department.²²

Interim War Years (1945-1950)

In the fall of 1945 the Secretary of War, Robert P. Patterson, approved the establishment of the "Gillem Board", named after Lieutenant General Alvan C. Gillem, to make an objective assessment of the future use of black troops.²³

In the findings published by the Board in April 1946 they "acknowledged the right and duty of black citizens to participate in the defense of their country, but insisted that the Army had an obligation to make the most efficient use of the nation's manpower, a task that required a modified form of racial segregation."²⁴ The Board specifically recommended that small units composed of blacks be assigned to larger white units, and as a further restriction the number of blacks in the Army be kept at the percentage of blacks within the general U.S. population, roughly 10 percent.²⁵

"Although the members of the Gillem Board saw their report as marking the beginning of a gradual transition from segregation to integration, the Army's leaders interpreted it as a means of prolonging indefinitely the separation of the races. Emphasis shifted from greater opportunity within segregation to segregation itself."²⁶

In the aftermath of World War II blacks in America began to demand equality and their civil rights. In 1948 President Truman's closest advisors insisted that black voters could be the key to a Presidential victory and that he should make a stand on civil rights. This helped to precipitate the issuance of Executive Order 9981 by President Harry Truman

on July 26, 1948.²⁷ This Executive Order was a significant milestone in the service of blacks in the armed forces because it directed:

"that there shall be equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the armed services without regard to race, color, religion, or national origin." The new policy was to go into effect "as rapidly as possible, having due regard to the time required to effectuate any necessary changes without impairing efficiency or morale."²⁸

The directive also established a seven-member President's Committee on Equality of Treatment and Opportunity in the Armed Forces. In November 1948 President Truman appointed Judge Charles Fahy as chairman to help the services transition to integration and begin the reforms required to implement Executive Order 9981.²⁹

The Fahy Committee concentrated on basic reforms designed to support 9981 and to efficiently use the Army's manpower.

The committee proposals called for equal access to jobs and schools for qualified soldiers, an end to segregated units, assignments and promotions based on individual ability rather than race, and the abolition of racial quotas. As a substitute for racial quotas the Committee suggested an Army General Classification Test to determine eligibility for enlistment or reenlistment. Using a score of 90 points on the test the Committee showed that only 16.5 percent of the black population could attain that score. The Committee said this standard would improve the overall competence of the enlisted force without excluding qualified blacks. As a result the racial quota ended on the last day of March 1950.³⁰

The Korean War

The Korean War began in June of 1950 and slowed the integration of the Army.³¹ At the onset of the Korean War some units that deployed were still segregated, but as those all-black units reached their personnel ceilings and white units were under-strength due to combat

casualties, the Army began the integration of front line units.³² General Ridgeway, the Far East commander, felt that racial integration would improve the efficiency of his command and began to assign soldiers regardless of race in the spring of 1951. Blacks were integrated into white units and whites were integrated into black units.³³ By mid-1951 blacks comprised 13.5 percent of the Army, but 80 percent of blacks in Korea were still assigned to all-black units, two-thirds of which were service support units.³⁴ White commanders still did not want blacks in their units and devised ways to keep them segregated by creating small pockets of blacks within the units.³⁵ The stigma of the 24th Infantry Regiment, which was alleged to have panicked and run from the enemy, followed the black soldiers wherever they served.³⁶ Regardless of the positive contributions made by other black units and black soldiers in white units, the stigma remained. There still remained widespread discrimination as different commanders integrated their units at different speeds. General Handy, the Commanding General, European Command, was not as quick to integrate and did not begin integrating units in Europe until spring 1952.³⁷

Interim War Years (1954-1960)

Following the Korean War a study released in 1954 by Johns Hopkins University concluded that racially segregated units limited overall Army effectiveness, while integration enhanced effectiveness. The study, called "Project Clear", also concluded that integration within the Army was feasible and that a quota on black participation was unnecessary.³⁸ As a result of this study, and the Army's willingness to integrate, the last all-black unit was disbanded on October 30, 1954, and blacks began

to come into the Army in larger numbers as both enlisted soldiers and officers.³⁹

The year 1954 is also important because it signaled the beginning of the end for Jim Crow laws, legalized discrimination and segregation in American society. This was the year that the Supreme Court overturned the doctrine of "separate but equal" in relation to schools in the landmark case Brown v. Topeka Board of Education.⁴⁰ Discrimination still remained within the Army in the form of segregated on-post clubs and other on-post facilities, off-post housing, and the inequities in the military justice system.⁴¹ However the Department of Defense (DOD) took steps to eliminate these problems by making it the responsibility of commanders to develop equal treatment in both on- and off-post situations.⁴² This moved the military, and the Army in particular, to the forefront of civil rights activities and served as an example to American society of how a large institution could operate under a modicum of equal opportunity.

The Vietnam Era (1960-1973)

The Vietnam Era from 1960 to 1973 was a watershed period for the armed forces and American society in general. The expectations of blacks in the Army were raised because of civil rights legislation that was passed during the 1960s and early 1970s.⁴³ The Civil Rights Act of 1964, among other things, prohibited discrimination in public accommodations, suspended funds for any locally administered federally-funded programs that practiced racial discrimination, and created different agencies to ease the work of racial integration.⁴⁴ This Act gave teeth to the 1954 Supreme Court decision and applied it to all public facilities, not just schools. During this time the Gesell Committee, a committee formed by

President Kennedy to study race relations within the armed forces, made several recommendations. It recommended that commanders of stateside and overseas posts be held responsible for the equal treatment of their minority soldiers and to interact with the civilian or foreign community to ensure that the soldiers were treated fairly off-post as well as on-post. In addition the Gesell Committee recommended that the National Guard begin recruiting qualified blacks for both enlisted and officer ranks.⁴⁵ The federal open housing law, the Civil Rights Act of 1968, gave DOD the ammunition it required to enforce the findings of the Gesell Committee within the civilian community.⁴⁶ These advances in civil rights for minorities in American society reflected the actions of the Army during this same time period. However, discriminatory practices still remained in the Army and became evident as the Vietnam War continued.

When U.S. ground forces were committed in 1965 only regular Army soldiers were used. As the war escalated the administration decided to go to the draft to increase the number of soldiers. This caused a disproportionate number of blacks to be drafted.⁴⁷ Blacks represented 16 percent of all soldiers drafted, but only 11 percent of the U.S. population. This was due to the inability of many blacks to receive deferments and the underrepresentation of blacks on local draft boards, especially in the South.⁴⁸ As the war intensified blacks began to take casualties at almost twice their percentage in the Army. Blacks represented about 11 percent in the Army, but were almost 22 percent of the combat casualties.⁴⁹ Civil rights leaders in America protested the high number of black combat casualties and the seemingly disproportionate

number of blacks in combat units. As a result more blacks began to serve in combat support and service support units which eventually brought the combat casualty rate down to 13 percent by the end of the war.⁵⁰

The percentage of black officers and black soldiers in the Army increased during this time period. At the beginning of the Vietnam War blacks represented about 3.3 percent of the officer corps, and by the end of the war they constituted 4.0 percent of Army officers.⁵¹ The increase in the number of officers was not enough to offset the continued discriminatory practices within the Army. Blatant racism gave way to more subtle forms of racism both on- and off-post.⁵² The heightened racial pride exhibited by many young blacks increased sensitivity to problems but also created apprehension among white leaders. As the Vietnam War progressed there were many incidents of racial violence in Vietnam, in Germany, and in the United States.⁵³ These incidents as well as a growing number of DOD policies and directives on equal opportunity caused the Army to begin implementation of a "race relations" education program in 1973.⁵⁴

SELECTED SOCIOECONOMIC FACTORS, TRENDS, AND THEIR IMPACT ON BLACK MALES

Sources for discussion on the selected socioeconomic trends varied from articles in medical journals to DTIC studies. The best source of statistical information on socioeconomic factors and their trends was the Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1990 published in 1990 by the U.S. Census Bureau. It provided statistical data on birth rates, mortality rates, life expectancy tables, reasons for deaths, population and population projections, education figures, employment and unemployment, crime and prison populations, income levels, and families.

The data extended as far back as 1960 and in some cases such as population, there were projections out to 2050. The Army published data on future demographics in the U.S. population in Field Circular (FC) 21-451, titled I Am The American Soldier. In this FC the Army projected a decline in the overall 17-19 year old population, but an increase in women and minorities as a percentage of that population.⁵⁵ It predicted that blacks in the 18-21 age group would increase from a 13.5 percent of that age group to a 16.1 percent in the year 2000, and that blacks in the 22-34 age group will rise through the 1990s but decline slightly in 2000.⁵⁶ This served as a basis for looking at the age group 18-24 as the target age group for the pool of blacks with the potential to become Army officers.

Most prominent of the topical literature published in the last five years that helped to define the current trends of selected socioeconomic factors were Essence magazine and its series of articles in the 1989 November issue; U.S News and World Report's articles in June 1987 and August 1988; the Special Edition issue of Ebony magazine titled "A Generation In Peril" in August 1988; the Emerge articles on black children in May 1990; the The Economist articles on black colleges in March 1987; the article on black children in America in March 1990 issue of America; and the series of "Facts and Figures" articles in Black Enterprise magazine. These articles helped to describe selected socioeconomic factors and their current trends, as well as possible impacts on the black population and in many cases black males specifically. The socioeconomic factors most mentioned as having a bearing on the problem were education, poverty, rising birth rates, low life expectancy, violent crime, th

number of black males under the control of the American criminal justice system, infant mortality, drug and alcohol abuse, unemployment, and income.

These socioeconomic factors do not stand alone as independent variables, they are interrelated and are symptoms of a social condition experienced by many black males in today's society. Spencer Holland in his article "Positive Primary Education for Young Black Males" points out:

"The inability of urban public schools to stem the tide of failure that characterizes the plight of black male children in the inner city is well documented. The most common reason cited for their academic and social failings are that such boys come from poor, single-parent, female-headed households, that they have no positive male role models, and that they view the educational setting as feminine and not relevant to their daily lives....the consequences of this failure are quite evident in the high drop-out rate of black males, in the large numbers of young black males who populate our prisons, and most alarmingly, in the epidemic of homicide among black males in their teens and twenties"⁵⁷

In her article "Why America May Go to Hell", Marian Wright Edelman focuses on the problems of black children in America. Specifically she discusses black children in poverty, single-parent families, teen-age pregnancy, poor education, health risks, the interrelationship of all these factors, and their impact on the future of black children.

"Today our educational system is actually helping to condemn many poor and minority children to lives of poverty, ignorance and hopelessness by failing to equip them with the skills they will need to find well-paying jobs and become productive citizens... Between now and 2000 nearly one-third of those who enter the work force will be from the same minority groups that are now being shortchanged by our educational system. Unless we act quickly, many of these young adults will not be prepared to do the jobs that are waiting for them."⁵⁸

WORKFORCE 2000, a study on work and workers for the 21st Century conducted by the Hudson Institute for the U.S. Department of Labor, agrees with the

above premise. It states that:

"If the policies and employment patterns of the present continue...by the year 2000 the problems of minority unemployment, crime, and dependency will be worse than they are today...For black men and Hispanics, the job market will be particularly difficult. In contrast to their rising share of the new entrants into the labor force, black men will hold a declining fraction of all jobs if they simply retain existing shares of various occupations. Black women, on the other hand, will hold a rising fraction of all jobs if they retain their current shares of each occupation..." 59

"Minority workers are not only less likely to have had satisfactory schooling and on-the-job training, they may have language and attitude problems that prevent them from taking advantage of jobs that will exist...The complex interconnections between employment, education, literacy, cultural values, income, and living environments argue that employment problems cannot be solved without also addressing issues of individual and family responsibility...Before minority unemployment can be significantly reduced, there must be change in the cultural values that make it seem more attractive to sell drugs or get pregnant than to do well in school and work at McDonald's." 60

These publications provide a framework to analyze the impact of selected socioeconomic factors by making the reader aware that these factors must be examined in conjunction with each other, not in a vacuum. Other factors that may have a significant impact are the death rates of blacks, specifically homicides, suicides, and infant mortality.

The Journal of the American Medical Association (JAMA) provided in-depth medical analysis of many trends surfaced in the previous publications. Specifically JAMA discusses medical or scientific reasons for the high infant mortality rate among black children compared to white children. In the 6 February 1987 edition it is stated that there is a

"...two-fold disparity in infant mortality between black and white infants from 1960-1984..." The actual numbers are 18.4 deaths per 1000 black babies born versus 9.4 deaths per 1000 white children. The cited causes are socioeconomic status, lack of maternal education, health insurance coverage, and access to

prenatal, infant and other health care services.⁶¹

The 27 October 1989 issue of JAMA examined "Recent Trends in Suicide and Homicide Among Blacks". It showed that, in 1986, per 100,000 population, the suicide rate of white males was 20.5, black males 11.5, white females 5.4, and black females the lowest at 2.4. However the peak period for black males is the 25 to 34 age group.⁶² In addition the death rate by homicide in 1986 for black males was 55.9 as compared to 8.4 for white males. "Black males...were six times more likely to be homicide victims than white males..."⁶³ There were a few explanations given for the relatively low suicide rate among blacks, but none could adequately explain the differences between blacks and whites:

"While all of these theories are plausible in attempting to explain black suicide, none of them accounts for the fact that white suicide rates are higher than black suicide and that black female suicide rates are indeed so very low."⁶⁴

The reasons for the high homicide rate among black men are more credible because they are not based on race or racism, but on sociological conditions.

"A more reasonable explanation may be that the disproportionately high rate of homicide among blacks is not based on racial or ethnic factors, but on situational sociological factors that relate to poverty. This proposal is supported by two lines of inquiry: one indicates that poverty is an underlying risk factor for death by homicide, and the other line shows that when socioeconomic status is held constant, the racial differences in homicide rates decrease substantially."⁶⁵

In other words there is an inverse relationship between socioeconomic status and homicide rates. When the socioeconomic status of blacks is increased the rate of homicide goes down. Other reasons cited for the high homicide rate are: the effects of overcrowding in inner cities, the

effects of mass media, parenting behaviors, and the criminal justice system because "it makes it easy to kill blacks because the punishment of those who take a black life has been usually less severe than that meted out to individuals who kill whites."⁶⁶

The selected socioeconomic factors have their greatest impact on the black "underclass". The creation of which is described in "The Origins of the Underclass" an article by Nicholas Lemann in the June 1986 issue of Atlantic Monthly. Lemann says that the underclass was brought about through demographics:

"...specifically, two mass migrations of black Americans." The first was from the rural South to the urban North in the 1920s. "This migration brought the black class system to the North virtually intact, though the underclass became more pronounced in the cities" The second migration began in the late 1960s: "...a migration out of the ghettos by members of the black working classes, who had been freed from housing discrimination by the civil-rights movement. Until then the strong leaders and institutions of the ghettos had promoted an ethic of assimilation for the underclass, which worked up to a point. Suddenly most of the leaders and institutions (except criminal ones) left, and the preaching of assimilation by both blacks and whites stopped. What followed was a kind of free fall into what sociologists call social disorganization. The result of the exodus from the ghettos is dramatic, both in the statistics and on the streets...As the population of the ghettos has dropped, the indices of disorganization there (crime, illegitimate births) have risen."⁶⁷

This article not only helps to define the socioeconomic problems, but also which group is most affected by them and why.

In contrast to the articles and studies mentioned above there are many periodicals that chronicle different trends within the same selected socioeconomic factors. These other trends are a reflection of the emergence of a large black middle class, and are exemplified by the increases in black families earning more than \$50,000, the increase in black families living in the suburbs, the increase in black politicians

and blacks in managerial/ executive positions, and the increase in the percentage of black college graduates. These advances are discussed in depth in Bart Landry's The New Black Middle Class, in an 1989 EBONY magazine Special Edition on the black middle class, in an 1989 TIME magazine article "Between Two Worlds", in Jacqueline Fleming's Blacks in Colleges, and in a New York Times Magazine article titled "Black Universities: In Demand and In Trouble". The significance of these studies is that they look at the economic class of black Americans that will probably provide the bulk of black males qualified to eventually become Army officers. The rise of the black middle class therefore requires attention because of its importance to the increased opportunities of all black Americans.

In his book Small Futures author Richard H. deLone discusses the chances of upward mobility of individuals based on their parents economic conditions:

"...only 20 percent of American males exceed the status of their fathers through individual effort and competition...And for black males, the combined chances that they will either move down the ladder or remain at the same rung they began on exceed the possibility of their moving up...the few studies that have concentrated on blacks or women in United States have found significantly lower rates of mobility, both intergenerational and within the same generation. Particularly striking is the finding that the typical black male ends up just about where he began in the labor force. His exclusion from the normal white pattern of career advancement and an increase in earnings is one more tangible example of the profound nature of racial inequality in the United States."⁶⁸

Using deLone's theory the increase in a black middle class would inexorably lead to a steady continued growth of that middle class. In addition because of the greater opportunities offered by parents in middle class families the percentage of children showing intergenerational upward

mobility may increase to reflect greater numbers of blacks attaining this economic status within the next 20 years. DeLone's book also shows a link between median income and student performance on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) normally used as a criteria for entrance into most colleges and universities.

"One reason is that school performance--grades and test scores--substantially correlate with the socioeconomic status of a student's family. The higher the student's social status, the higher the probability that he or she will get high grades. Similarly, the higher the grades and test scores, the more likely an individual from any socioeconomic status is to get more schooling."⁶⁹

This would indicate that as the numbers of blacks in the middle class increases so too will the numbers of blacks qualified to go to college and eventually form a larger black middle and upper class.

CURRENT STATUS OF BLACK U.S. ARMY OFFICERS

As stated previously the DOD publication, Nalty, and Binkin book discuss the status of black Army officers in the early 1980s. The Binkin book, Blacks and the Military, helps to define the problem of underrepresentation of black officers in the U.S. Army and discusses reasons for this underrepresentation. He says that

"Black underrepresentation in the officer corps is therefore an issue of concern to many people, yet it generally receives much less attention than black overrepresentation in enlisted personnel. This may be, first, because the proportion of black officers in the armed forces is roughly in line of all college graduates in the relevant age group who are black, and second, because the proportion of blacks in the officer corps has been steadily rising."⁷⁰

He also states that other reasons for the underrepresentation of black officers include the difficulty of recruiting qualified minority students because of civilian competition, and the lack of interest in the armed

forces by the "cross-over generation" who tends to be more suspicious of whites and tend to see more discrimination than other members of the black community.⁷¹

However there have been changes since then that need to be addressed and there are few publications that discuss this issue. Charles C. Moskos, a prominent military psychologist, wrote an article in the May 1986 issue of the Atlantic Monthly entitled "Success Story: Blacks In The Army" in which he discusses the success of both black officers and noncommissioned officers in the Army. He states:

"Above the noncommissioned officers in the Army is the officer corps, where one person in ten today is black (the figure was one in twenty-five as recently as 1972). If officers are the executives of the armed forces, then the armed forces boast more black executives than any other institution in the country."⁷²

Dr. Moskos also discusses the origins of these black officers. He says that about seven percent of the West Point graduates in recent years have been black, but that most officers, white or black, come from ROTC.

"ROTC produces six times as many officers as the Military Academy does, and one ROTC graduate out of five is black. The expansion of the black officer corps is due in part to the expansion of ROTC since 1969 at historically black colleges...Almost half of all Army ROTC commissions received by blacks are awarded by twenty-one black schools."⁷³

Dr. Moskos goes on to point out that black officers are selected at about the same rates as white officers for advanced service schools, war colleges, and command. However, if there is a concern among black officers "it has to do with the newly minted black second lieutenants, fresh out of ROTC."⁷⁴ Dr. Moskos states the reasons for this concern:

"A relatively small percentage of blacks at predominantly white schools participate in ROTC. And though ROTC enjoys more general support at historically black schools, this support is not as strong as it once

was. These schools, moreover, no longer attract the cream of black high school graduates. Observers agree that the levels of writing and analytic skills are lower than those of their predecessors--a development that could affect promotion rates. Black leaders in the Army worry that the pool of highly qualified black officer-candidates could dry up. One senior black officer told me that unless the black middle class gets behind ROTC, the pattern of the old segregated Army might recur--with blacks aplenty in the enlisted ranks and a senior officer corps consisting solely of whites."⁷⁵

Dr. Moskos also mentions the use of opinion surveys to discern perceptions of racial climate within the Army, he says they "...repeatedly reveal that whereas black soldiers are more likely than white soldiers to discern the persistence of racial discrimination in the military, they are also more likely to express satisfaction with their Army careers."⁷⁶ This helped lay the groundwork for the use of a survey in this present study to determine career perceptions of black officers currently on active duty.

The Department of Defense also published a "Profile of the Military" as a supplement to the 16 October 1989 issue of the Army Times. In this supplement the percentage of minorities in each of the four services, Army, Navy, Marines, and Air Force, is graphically displayed and the possible reasons for these percentages is discussed. The supplement is one of the few official DOD publications to compare and contrast the minority populations of each service. The DTIC studies which have been the greatest source of information are "Black Colleges as a Major Source of Black Officers in the Armed Forces", "Socialization of Black Naval Officers", and "Determining Factors Which Influence Black Attrition Rates in Undergraduate Pilot Training". These studies were done in the late 1970s and early 1980s, but still helped give a military perspective to the problem, and provide statistical data that was difficult to find elsewhere

in the public domain.

There were a number of unpublished sources that provided the bulk of the statistical data on black officers in today's Army. Most of this material was produced upon request by several government agencies specifically for this study. The government agencies include: the United States Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences (ARI), United States Total Army Personnel Command (PERSCOM) Officer Accessions, United States Military Academy (USMA) Office of Institutional Research, U.S. Army ROTC Cadet Command (ROTC), and the Human Resources Directorate for the U.S. Army Deputy Chief of Staff for Personnel (DCSPER).

Each of these agencies was able to provide a piece of the puzzle that gave a total picture of the percentage of black officers in the Army by grade and gender, as well as where they received their commissions for the past 20 years. They were able to provide timely data not normally found in the public domain.

PERCENTAGE OF BLACK MALES AS U.S. ARMY OFFICERS IN YEAR 2010

The only study that specifically looks at accession, retention, and development of black officers through the year 2008 is an unpublished study done by Lieutenant Colonel Lee Kichen in February 1989. This study was done at the request of the DCSPER to examine the future of black officers, both males and females, in the combat arms (CA), combat support (CS), and combat service support (CSS) branches. The study is done in four parts: defining the problem, presenting supporting data, possible options, and recommended solutions. The study focuses on the continued

accession of blacks at a steady rate within the Army, their development within different branches, and their eventual ascension to battalion command. This is done in five year increments from 1988 through 2008. LTC Kichen looks at percentages of blacks, by gender, in each branch to help determine where blacks are over- or under-represented, and then looks at solutions for cross-levelling black officers for equitable representation. The study defines equitable representation as being comparable to the black population within the general U.S. population-- 11.9 percent. The study also projects the black population within the United States increasing in percentage to 13.1 percent thus increasing the "equitable representation" percentage in 2008. The overall goal of the study is to develop options that produce "A percentage of black officers in their first year of eligibility for battalion command selection (in CA) that approximates the percentage of blacks in the U.S. population as a whole (now 11.9, 13.1 in 2008)."⁷⁷

The DCSPER study does not examine the impact of socioeconomic factors on the pool of blacks that could become officers. It looks at ways of increasing the quality of accessions from ROTC, from within noncommissioned officer (NCO) ranks, and increasing the number of accessions from USMA. It acknowledges the importance of Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU) in providing the bulk of black officers, however it does not look at where these black officer candidates will come from before they arrive at these institutions, or whether there will be enough blacks qualified for accession. This gap in information underscores the importance of looking at the U.S. population to determine if there will be enough blacks, and black males in particular, to provide

the steady stream of blacks for accession into the Army for eventual battalion command that the DCSPER study lists as its major concern.

The information on the projected Army "drawdown" or reduction in forces and its impact on the officer corps was provided by the Officer Division of the Office of Personnel Management, DCSPER. The information provided by Captain Richard Mustion provides nominal numbers for the projected end strength of officers by grade each year from Fiscal Year (FY) 91 through FY 96. This is in anticipation of a general Army reduction of 200,000, from 720,000 to a total end strength of 520,000 soldiers and officers. The impact of this drawdown on minority officers has not been assessed by official Army personnel managers.

SUMMARY

There are several related articles and studies that help define the socioeconomic problems that impact on black males. However the literature becomes scarce when trying to apply those selected socioeconomic factors and their current trends to a specific profession such as United States Army officers. The literature does provide enough information to determine if these selected socioeconomic factors and their trends will affect the pool of black males that can qualify themselves to become officers, and from those conclusions determine if there will be an impact on the percentage of male black officers in the U.S. Army in the year 2010.

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CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

This chapter gives an in-depth review of the methods used to collect and analyze the data used in this study. The study required four types of methodology. First, doing research into current socioeconomic trends and their possible impact on black American males. Second, requesting the most recent information on the status of black officers. Third, sampling the perceptions of black officers currently on active duty in the Army, and fourth, interviewing certain officers to receive their opinions on specific issues concerning the future of black officers and particularly black male officers in the United States Army.

DATA COLLECTION

The demographic and population statistics are derived from the U.S. Census Bureau 1990 Statistical Abstract. In each category the black demographic numbers were compared to the white population to give a basis for a comparative analysis. The specific areas are:

- a. past and present population by age groups
- b. projected population age group
- c. past, present and projected birth rates and net growth rates
- d. past and present death rates, to include infant mortality, homicide and accidental death rates
- e. education statistics to include: high school graduation rates, college enrollment rates, number of years of college

- f. percentage of births to teenage mothers, low infant birth weights, and life expectancy at birth
- g. civilian employment figures by occupation and profession
- h. current and projected labor force, and school enrollment compared to labor force figures
- i. Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) results

The 1990 Census results were not available for this study. The data used dates from 1960 or 1970 through 1988. This represented the most current data for demographic and population figures.

The data gathered on the population and percentage of black officers in the U.S. Army and from the various commissioning sources was compiled from specific federal agencies by request (Appendix F). The United States Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences (ARI) provided the number of blacks commissioned from the Reserve Officers Training Corps (ROTC) between 1981 and 1989. ARI presented the information in six ways:

- a. number of total black officers commissioned each year from 1981 through 1989;
- b. the number of black males and females commissioned each year from 1981 through 1989;
- c. the percentage of black males and females commissioned of the total number of blacks commissioned each year from 1981 through 1989;
- d. the colleges and universities that commissioned black officers from 1981 through 1989 with the number of black officers commissioned from each school in each year;
- e. the percentage of blacks commissioned against the total commissioned each year from 1981 through 1989;
- f. the year each officer commissioned from 1981 through 1989 actually entered ROTC, this information was presented as a total per year dating back to 1960 and brought forward each year there was a response through 1989.

The United States Army R.O.T.C. Cadet Command provided information on the numbers of blacks commissioned from ROTC from 1985 through 1990, the number of whites commissioned in the same years, the gender of each cadet commissioned, and the number and gender of all

black cadets commissioned from Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) from 1985 through 1990.

The Office of Officer Accessions, U.S. Total Army Personnel Command (PERSCOM) provided the total number of officers by grade and gender on active duty each year from fiscal year 1982 through 1991, the total number of black officers on active duty by grade and gender each of those years, the percentage of the total number of black officers in the Army, and the percentage of black officers by grade and gender.

The Office of Officer Personnel Management and Human Resources Directorate of The Deputy Chief of Staff for Personnel (DCSPER) provided information on the number and percentage of black officers by gender, by branch, and by commissioning source. This information is current as of 1989. The Officer Division of the Office of Personnel Management, DCSPER, also provided the specific projections for officer end strength from Fiscal Year (FY) 91 through FY 96.

The United States Military Academy at West Point (USMA) Office of Institutional Research provided data on the number of blacks that have entered and graduated by year, by gender, and as a percentage of the total number who entered the Academy each year, and the percentage of blacks that graduated versus the number that entered the Academy four years previously. This data is from 1960 through 1990.

The Combined Arms and Research Library (CARL) at Fort Leavenworth provided information from many historical sources, and several periodicals. CARL also provide access to the Defense Technical Information Center (DTIC) computer network which provided the titles of studies previously done within the Department of Defense (DOD) that had

relevance to this study. But many of the more recent articles that discuss the selected socioeconomic factors were found at the Leavenworth Public Library, the Kansas City Main Branch of their Public Library system, and the Student Library located on the campus of the University of Kansas at Lawrence.

The use of a survey instrument in this study gave the researcher a basis for determining the current status of blacks on active duty and their perceptions of their service at this point in their careers. This is important because the Army has a history of being perceived as a career opportunity for many blacks. This perception continues to attract many black college graduates into the Army as officers. One of the most powerful resources the Army has in attracting black college graduates are black Army officers.¹ Major General Arnold, Commanding General of U.S. Army ROTC Cadet Command, has requested greater participation from black officers in recruiting qualified black collegiates.² Almost half of the black officers currently on active duty come from Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) and that trend looks to continue in the future.³ Many black officers retain ties with their alma maters and can help influence black collegiates and even high school students to become Army officers. This will only happen if these black officers perceive the Army as a viable career for young black college graduates. The survey was designed to explore the perceptions black officers currently on active duty have of the racial environment of the Army and their satisfaction with the Army as a career. In addition the survey provided demographic information to help divide the subjects into sub-groups and determine if the sub-groups

are significantly different in their response to the various questions on perceptions of the Army.

An interview instrument was used as another way to gather information on Cadet Command from the perspective of the officers who make policy within that organization. That organization is significant because it produces almost half of all black officers commissioned each year, and does a good job of examining socioeconomic trends that may impact on blacks coming into ROTC because of their extensive recruiting efforts of minority students. The officers selected for interview were Major General Wallace Arnold, Commanding General USA ROTC Cadet Command, and Colonel Kenneth A. Harris, Director of Training USA ROTC Cadet Command. The interview instrument consisted of five questions that requested the perception of the interviewee on the future of black males in the Army as officers, and the ability of Cadet Command to influence the future of black male officers in the Army. The interview questions and results are in Appendix E, and will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter Four.

SURVEY DESIGN

The objective of the survey was to gather data on the perceptions of black officers currently on active duty concerning the racial environment of the Army and the impact of that environment on their career opportunities.

The survey was developed specifically for this study. It has twenty-seven questions for response. The first half of the survey listed 14 questions that requested demographic information. The second

half of the survey listed 13 questions which evaluated the respondent's perceptions of the racial environment in the Army and his career opportunities. The second half of the survey also included a category labeled "Additional Comments". This provided each respondent an opportunity to express their opinion on the survey, the thesis subject, or any issue he/she felt was important.

The following are sample demographic and perception questions:

5. Source of Commission.

A. USMA B. ROTC C. OCS D. Direct

4. African-American officers are judged by the same standards as white officers.

A. 1 B. 2 C. 3 D. 4 E. 5

The demographic questions were designed to provide a clear picture of the composition of black officers currently serving on active duty. The demographic data also provided information required to break down the general population of black officers into sub-groups to determine if there were significant differences in perception by sub-group.

The demographic information requested was:

- | | |
|-------------------------|---|
| 1. Age | 8. African-American in rating scheme |
| 2. Rank | 9. Rating scheme of an African-American |
| 3. Branch of service | 10. Gender |
| 4. Level of education | 11. Racial/ethnic group |
| 5. Source of commission | 12. Age |
| 6. Command | 13. Area of country |
| 7. Level of command | 14. Racial composition of college |

The perception questions were developed based on issues that several black officers felt were important to their career opportunities. The black officers consulted were officers assigned to Fort Leavenworth and officers attending Command and General Staff Officers Course (CGSOC) and the Combined Arms and Services Staff School (CAS3). Officers assigned to Fort Leavenworth were given 15 issues to evaluate for their relevance to black officers and to evaluate their impact on career opportunities. The officers attending CGSOC and CAS3 gave their opinions of these 15 issues during Officer Professional Development (CPD) seminars held between October 1989 and January 1990. The original 15 issues were:

1. Are black officers as well prepared as white officers when they come on active duty?
2. Do black officers from HBCUs have poorly developed communication skills?
3. Do senior black officers have a responsibility or obligation to seek out and mentor junior black officers?
4. Does institutional racism still exist in the Army?
5. If so, in what form is it manifested?
6. What, if any, is the impact of General Colin Powell's appointment as Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff (CJCS)?
7. Are black officers given the same opportunity to succeed as white officers?
8. Do black officers have the same opportunity to command as white officers?
9. Are black officers relegated to command of headquarters companies rather than "line" companies?
10. Are black females given the same opportunity to succeed as their white peers?
11. Are black officers required to work harder for the same recognition as their white peers?
12. Do black officers get relieved from command quicker than white officers?
13. Are blacks disproportionately assigned to the combat support (CS) and combat service support (CSS) branches?
14. Are black officers judged by the same standards as white officers and are they promoted at the same rate?
15. Can black officers make the Army a successful career?

Thirteen perception questions were developed based on the

discussions in the OPD seminars and the evaluations of black officers canvassed at Fort Leavenworth. Some of the 15 original questions were not deemed as important as others, and some issues were included that had not been addressed previously. An example of a question added was Question #3: "It is the responsibility of junior African-American officers to seek out the advice and counsel of senior African-American officers." The process of issue refinement continued from October 1989 through January 1990.

Next the questions for the "perceptions" half of the survey were developed. The required responses dealt with perceptions without regard to a right or wrong response, but gave the respondent a spectrum from which to choose. The Likert Scale of responses was used with a slight modification. The response "No Opinion" was substituted for "Neither Agree nor Disagree", this allowed the respondent the opportunity to express their lack of knowledge of an issue. The response of "Neither Agree nor Disagree" implies knowledge of the subject but that the respondent is neutral. The responses ranged from "Strongly Disagree" given a value of "1" to "Strongly Agree" given a value of "5". The more negative the response the lower the number, a "No Opinion" response had a value of "3".

The questions were written in active voice and stated a specific perception related to the 13 selected issues. The questions were evaluated by three black officers at Fort Leavenworth: Colonel Charles Walden, Deputy Director CAS3; Captain James Harris, action officer Combined Arms Training and Integration Directorate; and Captain Herbert Hodges, action officer Combined Arms Training and Integration

Directorate. They evaluated the questions on clarity, grammatical correctness, spelling, and intent. The intent of the questions was to elicit a response from the respondent. To do this each question was worded so that it stated a specific perception, the respondent was given the opportunity to strongly agree, agree, give no opinion, disagree, or strongly disagree. Some questions were worded to give a negative perception, others a positive perception, and some were "neutral" statements that were derived from Department of the Army (DA) Equal Opportunity (EO) policy.

An example of a question with a negative perception is Question #6: "The Officer Evaluation Report (OER) is used as a tool to covertly implement racially biased attitudes of individual raters and senior raters." An example of a positive perception question is Question #12: "General Colin Powell's appointment as CJCS will have a positive impact on the opportunities of African-American officers for future advancement." An example of a neutral statement is Question #7: "African-American officers have the same opportunity to succeed as white officers."

The questions were grouped in such a way as to give a neutral statement then follow it with perceptions related to the policy contained within the neutral statement. The deviation from this pattern is Question #13, the last question, which asks the respondent about career satisfaction. The questions were ordered this way to give the respondent an opportunity to respond to both neutral and issue-related perception questions.

SURVEY DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Description of the Subjects.

The population surveyed was black U.S. Army officers from the grade of first lieutenant through colonel, currently on active duty with a minimum of three years active federal commissioned service (AFCS). The survey solicits responses from male and female officers. The responses of the female officers give a basis for comparison with the males to determine if there are significant differences in the way they perceive the Army, and to look at the significant differences in demographic data.

This population was selected to give a wide spectrum of black officers with different levels of experience and time in the Army. The criteria of three years AFCS was used as a guideline to try to ensure respondents had at least a modicum of experience from which to make their responses with some confidence.

Selection of Subjects.

The selection of subjects was based on availability, timeliness of response, accessibility, and the criteria listed above. The subjects came from specific organizations, courses, and locations. The subjects came from U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC) branch service school Officer Advanced Course (OAC) students and faculty; students and faculty from CAS3 classes 90-3 and 90-4; students and faculty from CGSOC Academic Year (AY) 1990-1991; black officers assigned to the Pentagon; and to Fort Leavenworth. Each group of subjects has unique characteristics that help make the population three-dimensional.

OAC: These students are normally captains with a minimum of three years AFCS or one PCS tour of duty. Of these captains many have not commanded, but have worked in one or two organizations. They have limited experience in the Army and their perceptions should reflect that limited experience. All branches require their officers to attend some form of officer advanced course. Each OAC can vary in length but are normally four to six months long. The faculty can range from captain to colonel, but as minimum must be an OAC graduate.

CAS3: This is a 9-week staff officer course. These students are normally captains with five to seven years of AFCS. Many of these captains have commanded at least one company and have served in at least two PCS assignments and several organizations. They have probably rated other officers and have a greater experience level than OAC students. All officers from year group (YG) 1979 to the present are required to attend CAS3 prior to their ninth year of AFCS. There were approximately 80 black officers attending the course. The faculty is made up of promotable majors, or lieutenant colonels, preferably lieutenant colonels who are former battalion commanders. The students are divided into 12-man staff groups where they are given their instruction by a staff group leader. The staff groups are divided into committees, normally six staff groups per committee.

CGSOC: The students attending the resident CGSOC at Fort Leavenworth were selected by a Department of the Army (DA) board and are primarily promotable captains or majors. They normally have a minimum of 10 years of AFCS, and can range across a wide spectrum of year groups, but the majority are from four year groups in any particular academic year. The 1990-1991 CGSOC class is primarily made up of officers from YGs 76, 77, 78, and 79. There are 120 black U.S. Army officers currently attending the course. The course is a 10 month course from August to June. The faculty range from majors to colonels with the minimum criteria of being a CGSOC graduate.

Pentagon: The Pentagon was chosen as a source of senior black Army officers primarily due to access to several black officers through an organization known as ROCKS. This organization is composed of black Army officers and has a chapter in the Pentagon. A member of the organization, Captain Bobby Henry, volunteered to administer the survey to black officers in the rank of lieutenant colonel and above, in addition if there were not at least 10 percent female officers in those grades he was to administer the survey to the highest-ranking female officers available. The use of this organization allowed the survey to be administered and returned in a timely fashion.

Fort Leavenworth: There are 75 black officers stationed at Fort Leavenworth. This population represented a cross-section of branches, grades, and levels of experience, as well as accessibility and ease of distribution. The majority of officers stationed at Fort Leavenworth are captain and above and have a minimum of three years AFCS.

The sampling of the black officer population in the U.S. Army was done through the selection of these specific populations. As of the end of month October 1990 of Fiscal Year (FY) 91 there were 9771 black officers in the U.S. Army. Of this number 2978 were second and first lieutenants who normally have 0 to 4 years AFCS. The majority of the population eligible to be surveyed was represented by the captains and above which numbered 6793 officers. The Sampler on Sampling by Bill Williams states that a sample should be spread proportionally over the group, and that proportional allocation results in a self-weighting design and has good variance properties for most measurements. According to "The Sampler" the selected population should approximate the proportionate number of the whole population using a specific criteria. The criterion selected for this population were grade and gender. The population selected would have to be approximately 24 percent female, and conform as close as possible to the percentages by grade represented in the black officer population. In addition the survey needed to be administered by a central agency, done in a timely manner, and without unnecessary hardship on the agency administering the survey. The solution to these criteria was to select pre-formed populations, that if surveyed, would approximately represent the U.S. Army black officer population.

| Black Officer Survey Respondent | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|------|------|------|-----|-----|-----|--------|------|
| Distribution by Grade and Gender | | | | | | | | |
| RANK | 1LT | CPT | MAJ | LTC | COL | GEN | FEMALE | MALE |
| SURVEY | 12.8 | 53.9 | 25.6 | 6.1 | 1.4 | 0.0 | 18.0 | 82.0 |

Figure 1 BLACK OFFICER SURVEY RESPONDENT DISTRIBUTION BY GRADE AND GENDER

The rank and gender of the survey respondents approximated the rank and gender distribution among black officers in the Army. The biases in the sample population stem from the accessibility of the subjects. The CGSOC population may not be as representative of all black majors in the Army because of the selection process for attendance. The CGSOC population is supposed to represent the upper half of each year group and may have an extremely high satisfaction level. However the CGSOC population does represent a cross-section of grade and gender that is representative of the general population of black majors, and because of its accessibility made these subjects acceptable. The other sample population with a built in bias may be the Pentagon black officers represented by membership in the ROCKS organization. This is an organization developed to help senior black officers mentor junior black officers and to develop "networking" among black officers within a particular area. The officers in such a group probably have a strong sense of racial identity and strong opinions on

certain perceptions of the racial climate of the Army. The members of the organization were used as a means to survey senior black officers in a timely manner although they may have some built in biases on issues concerning black officers in the Army.

The sample population is still representative of the overall black officer population regardless of the built-in biases of portions of the sample population.

Survey Distribution.

Each segment of the selected population required its own distribution method. The surveys sent to the TRADOC school OACs were administered through the Office of Evaluation and Standardization (OES), Department of Academic Operations, U.S. Army Command and Staff College, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. The Director of each school Directorate of Evaluation and Standardization (DOES) was sent a cover letter from Dr. Earnest Lowden of OES (Appendix F), which stated the purpose of the survey and the selected population. Each school was sent a total of 25 surveys with the instructions to administer the survey to black officers attending their OACs, if there were more than 25 black officer students the schools were to randomly select 25 black officers to participate. On 15 December 1990 the survey was sent to 16 TRADOC branch schools with 30 January 1991 as a suspense date for the return of the surveys. There was a total of 400 surveys sent out to the TRADOC schools. The 16 TRADOC schools were:

- U.S. Army Armor Center and School, Fort Knox, Kentucky
- U.S. Army Air Defense Artillery Center and School, Fort Bliss, Texas
- U.S. Army Aviation Center and School, Fort Rucker, Alabama
- U.S. Army Chemical School, Fort McClellan, Alabama
- U.S. Army Engineer Center and School, Fort Leonardwood, Missouri
- U.S. Army Field Artillery Center and School, Fort Sill, Oklahoma

U.S. Army Health Services Center and School, Fort Sam Houston, Texas
U.S. Army Infantry Center and School, Fort Benning, Georgia
U.S. Army Intelligence Center and School, Fort Huachuca, Arizona
U.S. Army Military Police Center and School, Fort McClellan, Alabama
U.S. Army Ordnance Center and School, Aberdeen Proving Grounds, Maryland
U.S. Army Ordnance and Missile Munitions School, Redstone Arsenal, Alabama
U.S. Army Quartermaster School, Fort Lee, Virginia
U.S. Army Soldier Support Center (Adjutant General and Finance), Fort Benjamin Harrison, Indiana
U.S. Army Signal Center and School, Fort Gordon, Georgia
U.S. Army Transportation Center and School, Fort Eustis, Virginia

The survey distribution for CAS3 was conducted through the auspices of the CAS3 OES with the help of Lieutenant Colonel Linton Lavergne. The survey received initial approval for administration from the Deputy Director of CAS3, Colonel Strange, and was distributed to each staff group leader for administration to his black officer students. CAS3 does not routinely track the race of its students so it was necessary for Lieutenant Colonel Lavergne to ask each staff group leader how many black officers there were in each staff group. The surveys were then distributed by hand to each staff group leader through their committee chiefs with a cover letter stating the reason for the survey, the voluntary nature of the survey, and the return suspense date of 8 February 1991. (Appendix F) There were approximately 80 black officers in the 90-3 and 90-4 CAS3 classes.

The distribution to the black officers in CGSOC was done by hand. The list of black officers was independently developed by Major Cranson Butler who had independently requested that black officers in the course provide their names for a social roster on a voluntary basis.

Like CAS3, CGSOC does not formally track the race of its students, therefore there was no official way to obtain a list of CGSOC black

officers. The list provided was as comprehensive as possible and provided the names of 120 black Army officers attending CGSOC AY 90-91. The survey was distributed to the section box of each officer on the list with a cover letter similar to the CAS3 cover letter with instructions to return the completed survey to the section box of the researcher by 25 January 1991.

The distribution and administration of the survey in the Pentagon was done during the February monthly meeting of the ROCKS organization. Fifty copies of the survey and one copy of the cover letter were express mailed to Captain Bobby Henry for distribution. Captain Henry read the cover letter to the assembled group of officers and administered the survey to fifty members present who volunteered to respond to the survey, to include at least 10 to 12 female officers, and as many officers possible in the rank of lieutenant colonel and above. The suspense date for these surveys was 25 February 1991.

The list of black officers stationed at Fort Leavenworth was provided by the Officer Personnel Management division of the post Adjutant General. The list consisted of the officer's name, rank, racial code, and directorate of assignment. The surveys were distributed by sealed envelope with the name, rank, and directorate of each officer through the post distribution system. Each survey was accompanied by the same cover letter that went to students in CAS3 and CGSOC. The surveys were to be returned to the researcher by 18 February 1991 through post distribution and through the office of the Director of CGSOC, this was done to maintain the anonymity of each respondent.

The selected population also included the respondents used for

the pilot survey. These respondents were gathered from various CAS3 classes, black officers PCS to Fort Leavenworth, and officers attending CGSOC in AY 89-90. Colonel Charles Walden, the then Deputy Director CAS3, received permission from the CAS3 OES to administer the survey to CAS3 students as part of the OPD seminars held on a bi-monthly basis. The pilot of the survey was conducted from January through June 1990. Officers in attendance at these OPD seminars ranged from CAS3 students, CGSOC students, and officers PCS to Fort Leavenworth. Officers attending the OPD were read the statements concerning the purpose of the survey, and the anonymous and voluntary nature of the survey. The survey was only administered to those who volunteered to respond. The first fifty surveys were given to officers to take home and bring back when they had finished filling out the survey. They were to return the survey to the office of Colonel Walden to preserve their anonymity. However, using that method of administering the survey resulted in only a 25 percent response rate. To increase the survey response percentage the next fifty surveys were administered and completed at the end of the OPD which resulted in a 80 percent response. This resulted in an overall response of 52 percent of surveys administered during this time period.

Survey Response.

There were 825 surveys sent out through the various distribution systems, there were 345 total responses. The table of distribution and responses is shown below:

Figure 2 SURVEY DISTRIBUTION

| SURVEY DISTRIBUTION AND RESPONSES | | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------|-----------|---------|
| POFULATION | # of SURVEYS | RESPONSES | PERCENT |
| TRADOC | 400 | 94 | 23.5 |
| CAS3 | 80 | 53 | 66.3 |
| CGSOC | 120 | 67 | 55.8 |
| Pentagon | 50 | 38 | 76.0 |
| PCS | 75 | 41 | 54.7 |
| Pilot | 100 | 52 | 52.0 |
| TOTAL | 825 | 345 | 41.83 |

These percentages are not indicative of the available population that responded, but percentages of the number of surveys sent out to a specific population. An example is OAC. The 94 responses received represented the total number of black officers that were attending the branch OACs of the 10 schools that administered the survey. This is the percentage represented above, not the percentage of the total number of 400 surveys sent to TRADOC schools. There were 25 surveys sent to each school to ensure there was a sufficient number of surveys, there was no evidence to suggest that there was 25 black officers attending the OAC of any branch school. Therefore the low percentile of response from the schools that did administer the survey is not a reflection of a lack of black officers that volunteered, but a low number of black officers attending the branch OACs during the survey distribution time frame.

The reverse is true in examining the response percentage of the other populations. In CAS3, CGSOC, PCS officers, and the Pentagon there

was an approximate number that was known prior to the survey distribution, as well as names and locations. As a result of the greater pinpoint distribution the response percentile was higher.

Other reasons for low responses for TRADOC schools include at least one school that chose to not administer the survey, the USA Air Defense Center and School (Appendix F). This accounts for 11 schools, but does not account for the other five schools that did not respond.

Other surveys returned without action are those that could not be delivered because the officer had been reassigned (8), those that had been completed by non-black officers (10), or those that were not completely filled out (3). The rest of the surveys were either not completed or not returned.

DATA ANALYSIS

Procedures for Analyzing Data.

The "Survey of Army Officers, All Grades" was used to measure survey respondent's perception of the racial climate in the Army, and its impact on their career opportunities. This data was recorded on the survey itself and entered into a data base and spreadsheet. The database and spreadsheet were programs in the Lotus Symphony integrated package version 2.2.⁴ A cross-tabulation was made to compare responses to questions surveying participant perception with participant demographic data and selected questions within the survey.

The actual analysis was conducted using a nonparametric statistical test, Chi square two-way classification.⁵ The Chi square two-way classification technique provided a means to determine the

difference between the frequency of an occurrence in two or more categories with two or more groups and test for statistical significance. Statistical significance refers to the difference in sample results that were probably not due to chance and can therefore be attributed to another factor.

Comparison of Demographic Information.

The response to perception question, Question #13 "I have enjoyed my service in the Army and plan on making it a career." provided the comparison of demographic groups. This question looks at satisfaction with the Army and the desire to make it a career. Those respondents who answered "Agree" or "Strongly Agree" were compared against those who answered "Strongly Disagree", "Disagree", and "No Opinion". The response "No Opinion" was considered a negative response for comparison purposes. The respondents responses were then compared with questions 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 13, and 14 on the first half; and questions 1 through 10 on the second half of the survey to determine if there was any demographic significance in how respondents answered perception Question #13, and if there was a discernible pattern to the answering of perception Questions 1-10. The comparison provided the following information:

1. Demographic information of respondents who had positive career aspirations.
2. Demographic information on respondents who had negative career perceptions.
3. Comparison of perceptions of female and male black officers on the racial climate in the Army and their career perceptions.
4. Comparison of perceptions of each of the three categories of branches and their perceptions of the racial climate and career perceptions.
5. Comparison of perceptions of officers who have had a black officer within their rating scheme versus those who have not had a black officer in their rating scheme.

This data will provide information on the specific populations of respondents that have similar and dissimilar perceptions of the Army, but will not explain why those perceptions exist nor the reasons for the differences.

Analysis of Selected Socioeconomic Factors and Their Trends.

Each selected socioeconomic factor has a graph which displays the trends of each factor over the past 20 years. Each factor will be compared against graphs depicting the percentage of black males in the 18-24 year age group in the U.S. during the same time frame to determine if there is any correlation between societal trends and the percentage of black males in the 18-24 age group. The comparison of trend lines to determine significance will help eliminate those selected socioeconomic factors which do not seem to have an effect on the 18-24 year old black male population and identify those that do seem to have an effect.

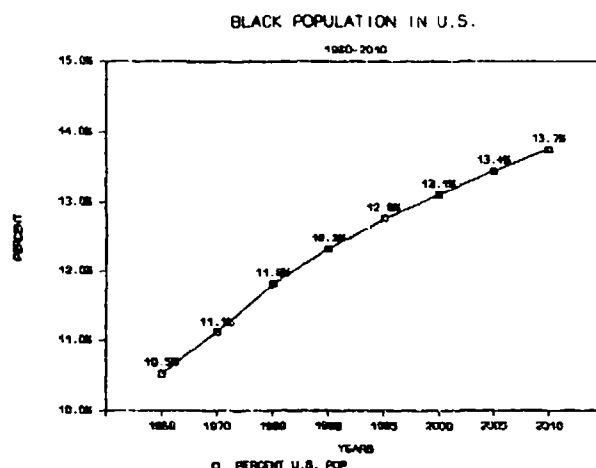
The selected socioeconomic factors that seem to have an historical impact over the past twenty years on the 18-24 year old black male population be further examined by looking at their current trends and determining the impact those trends will have on the black male percentage in the United States Army officer corps 2010.

This data will be presented by using a multivariate linear regression analysis that applies the current trends of selected socioeconomic factors against the population of 1000 black males born within a specific year. The data will be used to compare the percent of those 1000 males that would have the ability to prepare themselves to become U.S. Army officers between the ages of 18 and 24 in 1990 and 2010. The year of birth would be between January and December of 1969,

and 1989. This provides a median age of 21 for the males in the 18 to 24 age group in the years 1990 and 2010. The baseline data for each comparison is the projected black male percentage of the male 18-24 year old population in the years 1990 and 2010.

The formula to determine the future trends of each socioeconomic factor on a linear regression line is: $Y=A+BX$. The symbol "Y" is the dependent variable, "X" is the independent variable, and "B" is the slope of the line. The CGSOC LINPLOT program plots the actual linear regression and gives the standard error of the estimate, the coefficient of correlation (R), and the coefficient of determination (R^2) to show the variation in the dependent variable due to its relationship with the independent variable.⁶ The following is an example of socioeconomic trend graph that depicts past data, current data, and future projections:

Table 1 BLACKS AS A PERCENT OF U.S.
POPULATION



The analysis of this data will give an indication of the pool of qualified black males that will exist in 2010 and the impact it will have on the black male population of Army officers in the year 2010.

CHAPTER 3 ENDNOTES

1. Interview with Colonel Kenneth Harris, Director of Training U.S. Army ROTC Cadet Command, in collaboration with Major General Wallace Arnold, Commanding General, U.S. Army ROTC Cadet Command (February 25, 1989).

2. Interview, 2.

3. Historically Black Colleges and Universities Conference, U.S. Army ROTC Cadet Command (21-23 March 1989), 23.

4. Lotus Symphony, Version 2.2, Lotus Development Corporation (Cambridge: 1990).

5. Q. McNemar, Psychological Statistics, 3rd Edition (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1962), 473.

6. Command and General Staff College Program for Linear Regression, Program-LINEPLOT, Language-BASIC (Fort Leavenworth: CGSC, 1990), 2-4.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

INTRODUCTION

This chapter is an analysis of selected socioeconomic factors, their past, current, and projected trends; and the results of the "Army Officers, All Grades" survey. The results of this analysis will be assessed according to its impact factors on the changing demographics of American black males and its effect on the percentage of black male officers in the U.S. Army in 2010.

The analysis will address the following specific questions:

1. How do the selected demographic trends impact on the available pool of black males?
2. What are the changes in selected demographic trends from 1960 to 1990?
3. What is significant when determining the impact of specific socioeconomic factors?
4. What are current perceptions of black officers and how will that affect the future of black officers in the Army?

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

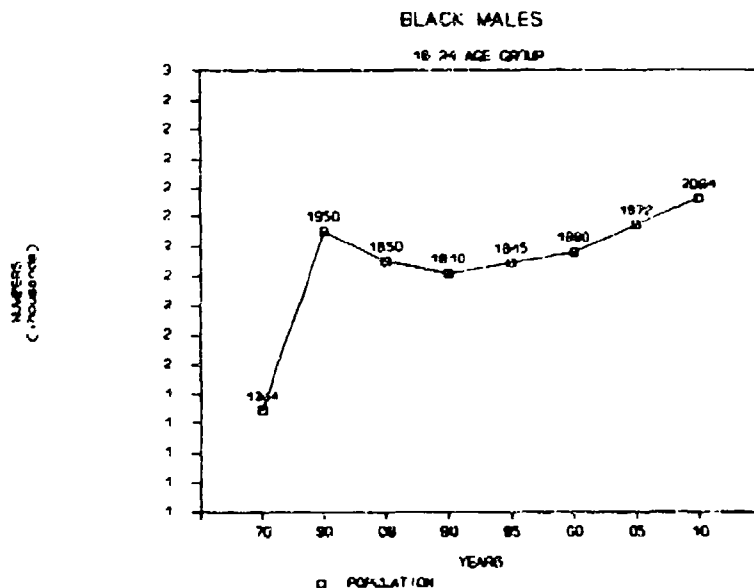
The selected socioeconomic factors are: population, crime and prisons, families, income, education, and the U.S. Army's planned reduction of forces.

Population

The U.S. Bureau of the Census presents the population of black males in the 18-24 year old age group in three ways: the actual numbers within that population, as a percentage of all black males, and as a percentage of total males in America in that age group. This analysis will only consider the actual number of the black males in the 18-24 year old population and its percentage of males in that age group.

The 18-24 black male population increased 45 percent from 1970 to 1980, but decreased 5 percent from 1980 to 1988. The Census Bureau projects a 12 percent increase from 1988 to 2010. The actual population is shown in Table 1.

Table 1 BLACK MALES 18-24 YEARS OLD

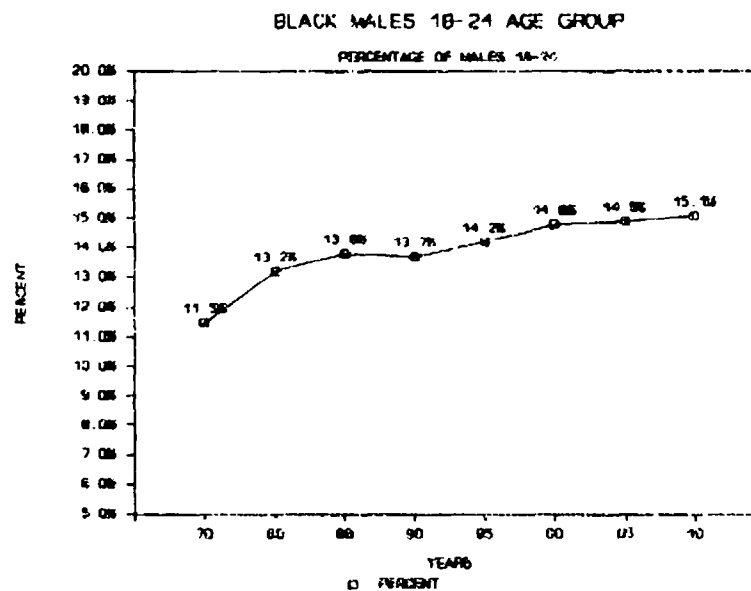


The greatest increase is between 1970 and 1980. This corresponds to a

similar increase in the total U.S. population which increased 26 percent, and a 30 percent increase in the overall male 18-24 year old population in the same time period. The fluctuations in the actual population are not significant without determining the relationship between the black male 18-24 year old population and the overall 18-24 year old male population.

The percentage of black males in this age group increased from 11.5 percent in 1970 to 13.2 percent in 1980. In 1988 black males represented 13.8 percent of the 18-24 year age group, and the percentage is projected to increase to 15.1 in 2010. The graph of this progression is shown in Table 2.

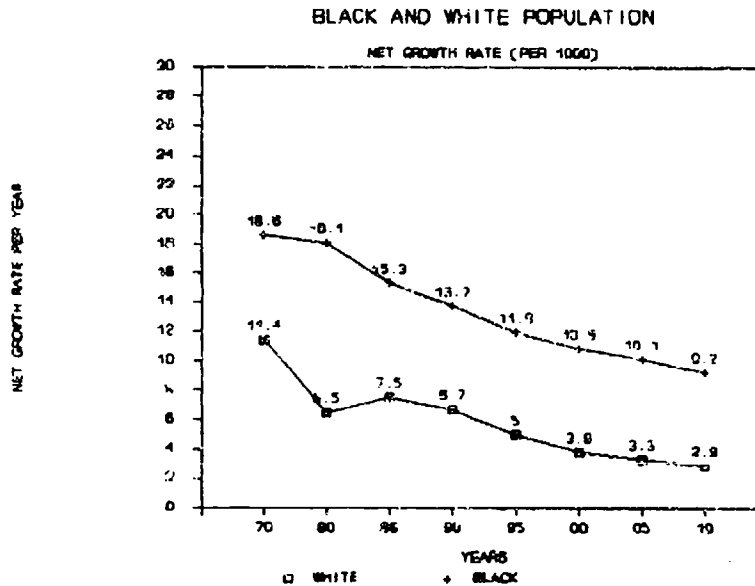
Table 2 BLACK MALES 18-24 AGE GROUP



There has been a steady increase in the percentage of black males in this age group. This is due to increased birth rates and a declining death

rate among blacks. This has resulted in a higher net growth rate among blacks over whites, with the gap in net growth rate projected to increase through 2010. This is shown in Table 3.

Table 3 NET GROWTH RATE



The percentage of black males in the 18-24 year old age group is the baseline data for this comparative analysis. As each socioeconomic factor is examined it will be compared against the percentage of black males in the 18-24 age group to determine the significance of its effect on that population.

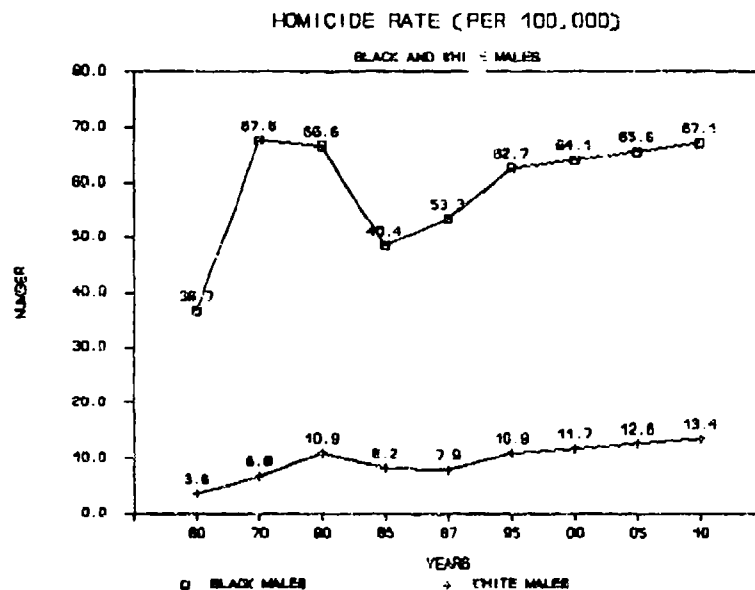
Crime and Prisons

The socioeconomic factor of crime and prisons deals with the amount of crime committed by and against black males and the numbers and percentages of black males in local, state, and federal prisons. The

significance of these numbers is determined by the past, current, and projected trends and their effect on the percentage of qualified black males for service as Army officers.

In 1987 45 percent of all Americans murdered were black, 94 percent of them were killed by other blacks. Black males have a life risk of 1 in 30 of being murdered compared to a 1 in 179 risk for white males. Black males have a six times greater chance of being murdered than do white males as shown in Table 4. Over 35 percent of arrests for serious crimes were blacks, and black males make up almost 50 percent of prisoners in America.¹

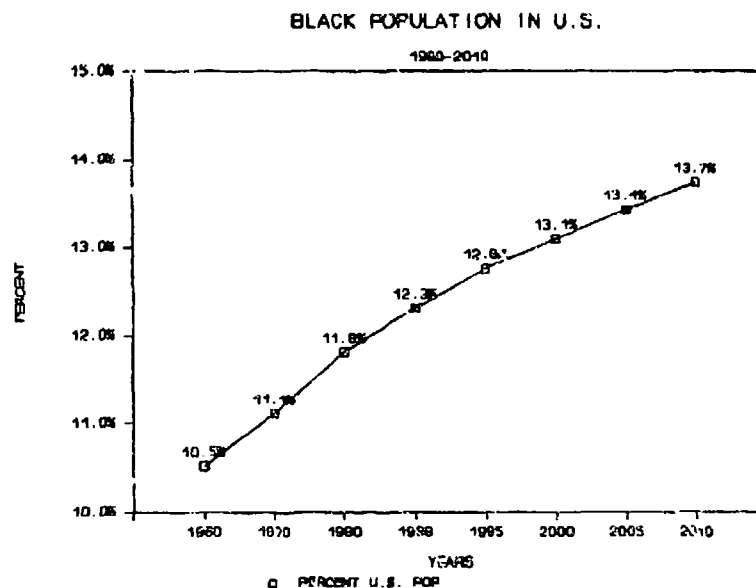
Table 4 HOMICIDE RATES



The significance of these numbers is shown by comparing the percentages of black crime statistics against the percentage of blacks in the U.S. population. Table 5 shows blacks represent 12.3 percent of the

U.S. population and will increase to 13.7 percent by 2010.

Table 5 BLACK POPULATION IN U.S.



The disproportionate crime statistics are an indication that a comparatively smaller percentage of black males will have the opportunity to become Army officers than white males. Black males in the 18-24 year age group make up the second highest group in the prison population with a 26.7 percent distribution. This compares to a 12.9 distribution of 18-24 year old black males among the total population of black males. There are more black males in this age group that are under the supervision of the criminal justice system than are attending college, 609,000 compared to 436,000. This means that proportionately speaking black males in this age group will have a lesser chance of qualifying themselves to become Army officers and as the trend continues upward, the proportionate number will grow smaller. In the article "One In Four" in The New Republic, it

states "... that one in four black men in their twenties is either behind bars, on parole, or on probation,...and that any positive contribution they can make to the community will be delayed or lost forever."²

The high violent crime rate and subsequent disproportionately high prison population of black males is a symptom of a larger socioeconomic condition that has a significant effect on the number of black males that will be able to qualify themselves as U.S. Army officers. This larger socioeconomic condition is poverty. In the October 27, 1989 issue of the Journal of the American Medical Association it is postulated that the high homicide rate among young adult black males is directly related to poverty and that there is a direct correlation between socioeconomic status and the rate of violent behavior. The article goes on to state that other sociological factors that may explain this behavior are overcrowding, parenting behavior, poor housing, poor nutrition, and poor health care.³ These factors are a direct result of poverty. Therefore it is important to examine the nature of poverty, determine the trends of blacks living in poverty, and its impact on the pool of qualified black males. In this study poverty will be examined within the context of families and income.

Families

Historically the black family has been the fabric of the black community. However recent trends have shown that the fabric may be unraveling and as a consequence creating many of the problems among black males. In his article "Mentioning the Unmentionable," Mortimer B. Zuckerman states that there has been a massive failure within society which has caused the high rate of violent crime among black males as well

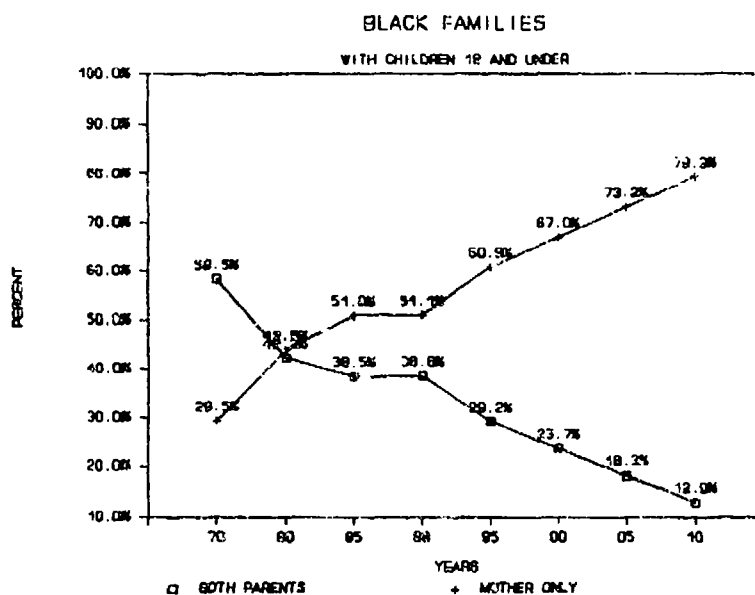
as poor performance in school. He goes on further to say that:

"The massive failure may have complex and interacting causes, but at the heart of it is the deterioration of the black family and its ejection into society of a hostile community of young blacks who drop out of school and out of work, often living on drugs and crime, and preying on society, especially black society. And too many of

these children are having children."⁴

The deterioration of the black family can be shown graphically by the percentage of families with children 18 years old or less with both parents present, or with the mother only. This is displayed in Table 6.

Table 6 BLACK FAMILIES



The significance of these figures is discussed by Richard deLone in his book Small Futures. DeLone discusses two related concepts called "inter-and intra-generational mobility". Intergenerational mobility is the ability of an individual to rise above the socioeconomic status of his parents. Intragenerational mobility is the ability of an individual

to make significant gains in his occupational status over the course of a lifetime. In the context of determining the percentage of black males 18-24 that can qualify themselves as U.S. Army officers, deLone's theory provides a basis for examining the impact of both family and income on black males. DeLone states that only 20 percent of white males exceed the status of their fathers, and only 57 percent improve their status during their own lifetime. However the figures for blacks and women are much lower. A black male will typically "end up just about where he began in the labor force." Deleone attributes this trend to the "profound nature of racial inequality in the United States". However the combined effects of being a black male and coming from a female-headed family decreases the chances of upward mobility even more. DeLone states that

"any child in a minority household or a household headed by a women bears a greater chance of being poor, for discrimination by race and sex in this country adds a 'dividend' ensuring that such families bear an extra share of inequality's burden."⁵

The following two tables show the percentage of black families living below the poverty level, the percentage of black children living below the poverty level, and a composite view of black families with children under 18 that earned less than \$10,000 in 1988.

Table 7 PERCENT OF BLACK FAMILIES AND CHILDREN
LIVING BELOW POVERTY LEVEL

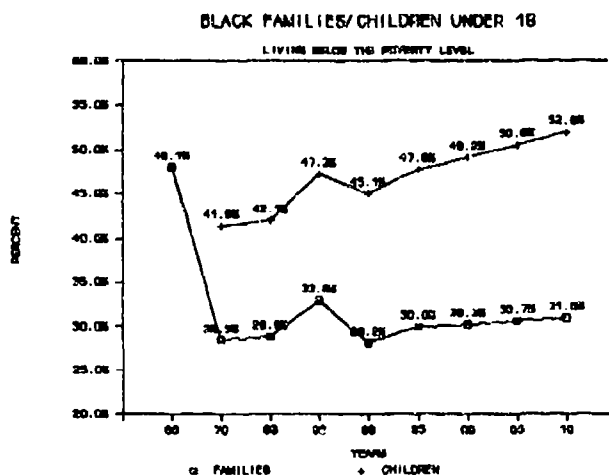
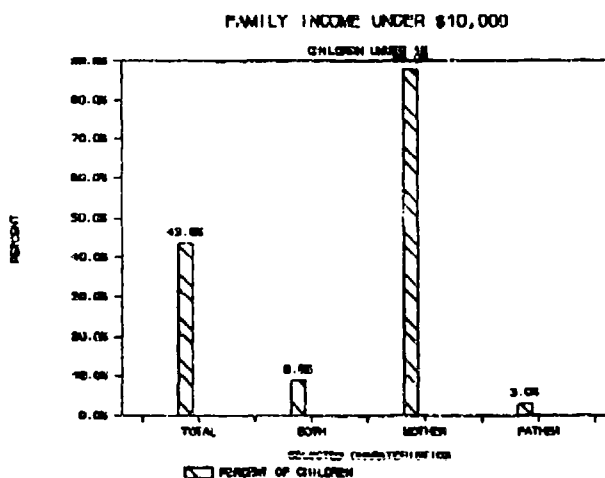


Table 8 FAMILY INCOME UNDER \$10,000
WITH CHILDREN UNDER 18



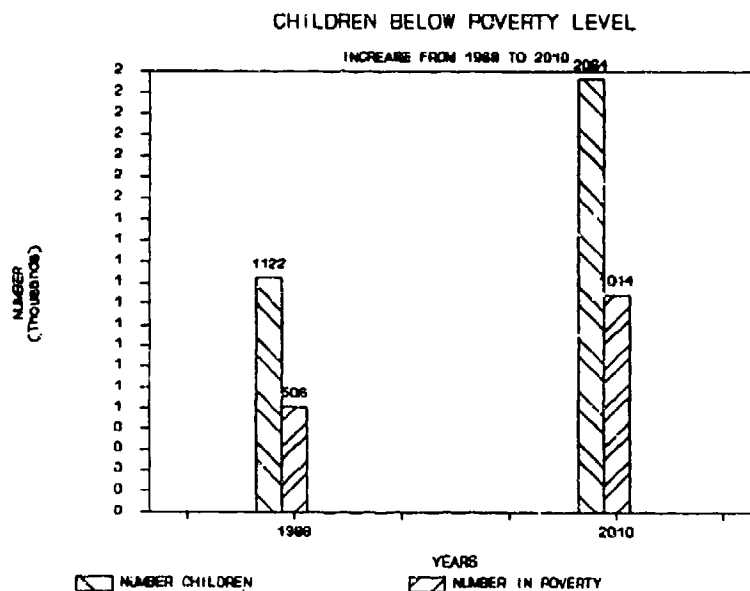
The above tables illustrate the increasing problems with the black family and black children. The trends show that an increasing number of

black families will fall below the poverty line within the next twenty years. Consequently an even higher percentage of black children will be living in poverty by 2010. The underlying factor which is helping to cause this trend is the increasing number of single-parent families headed by women. In her article "Why America May Go to Hell," Marian Wright Edelman states that "...by the year 2000 only one black baby in five will be born to a married woman. This trend virtually guarantees the poverty of two generations of black children."⁶ In 1988, 88 percent of the families whose annual income was less than \$10,000 were headed by females. Although this trend will continue into 2010, it will be mitigated by an increase 40 percent of women in the workforce.⁷ Women have less earning power than men, the salary of the average black man is 85 percent of a white man in a comparable job, and black women earn even less."⁸

The significance of these figures is that they represent an adverse impact on the number of black children growing up between the ages of 14 and 17. Data is not available for the percentage of 18-24 year olds living in poverty. The the 14-17 age group will be used for comparison purposes in 1982 and 2005 and extrapolated into 1987 and 2010 as the 18-24 age group. In 2005, 14-17 year old black youth will have a 12 percent greater chance of living in poverty than in 1987. This 12 percent increase 2005 translates to an increase of 500,000 blacks 18-24 living below the poverty line in 2010.

Table 9 shows the total number of black children 14-17 years old and black children 14-17 living in poverty in 1988, compared with the number of black 18-24 year olds in 2010 and the number of 18-24 year olds that could have lived in poverty by 2010.

Table 9 BLACK CHILDREN LIVING IN POVERTY 1988 AND 2010



The application of deLone's theories of inter- and intra-generational mobility would seem to indicate that a fewer number of black males in the 18-24 age group will break out of their socioeconomic condition by 2010. A greater number will have come from single-parent households, and will have been exposed to the sociological factors mentioned by Drs. Bell and Griffith that are a direct result of poverty. These trends indicate that a greater percentage of black males 18-24 will not have the opportunity to qualify themselves to become U.S. Army officers in 2010.

Income

The annual income of an individual or a family has a direct effect on the opportunities of that individual or family to provide for a good

education, to live comfortably, and to share in the "American Dream". Income is a widely used indicator of socioeconomic status, and is an important tool for the U.S. government to examine socioeconomic trends in the United States. Therefore when determining the opportunity of a certain demographic population and their chances of success in America, their income level is an important factor to consider.

The Census Bureau categorizes income seven ways: under \$5,000; from \$5,000 to \$9,999; from \$10,000 to \$14,999; from \$15,000 to \$24,999; \$25,000 to \$34,999; \$35,000 to \$49,999; and over \$50,000. For the purposes of this study the categories have been combined and reduced to three: under \$10,000; \$10,000 to \$49,999; and over \$50,000. This equates to the three socioeconomic status attributed to income: lower, middle, and upper. The middle class is further broken into two categories: skilled working and middle.⁹ The skilled working class represents 55 percent in the \$10,000 to \$24,999 income range and the middle class represents 45 percent in the \$25,000 to \$49,999 range of the overall category middle class, \$10,000 to \$49,999. Table 10 graphically displays the current and projected trends in black family income in constant dollars. Table 11 shows the median income of black families in current dollars. Constant dollars refers to the application of the monetary worth of 1988 money to income every year, and current dollars represents the actual monetary value of income each year.

Table 10 BLACK FAMILY MEDIAN INCOME

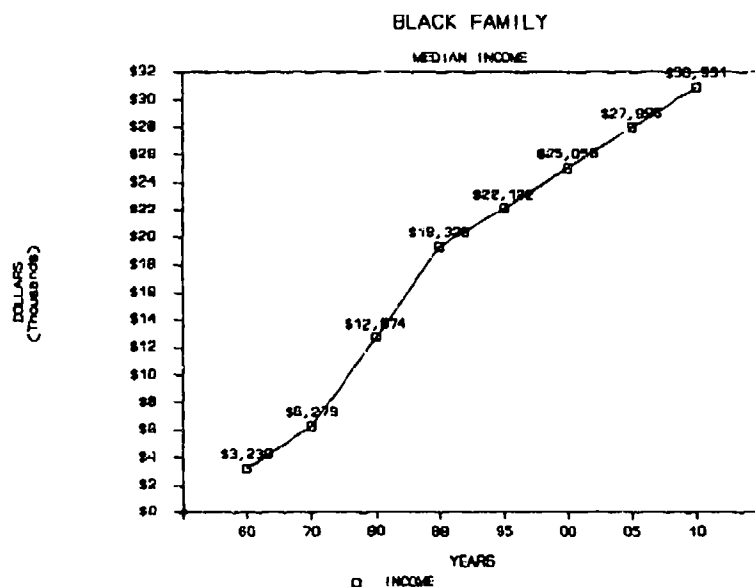
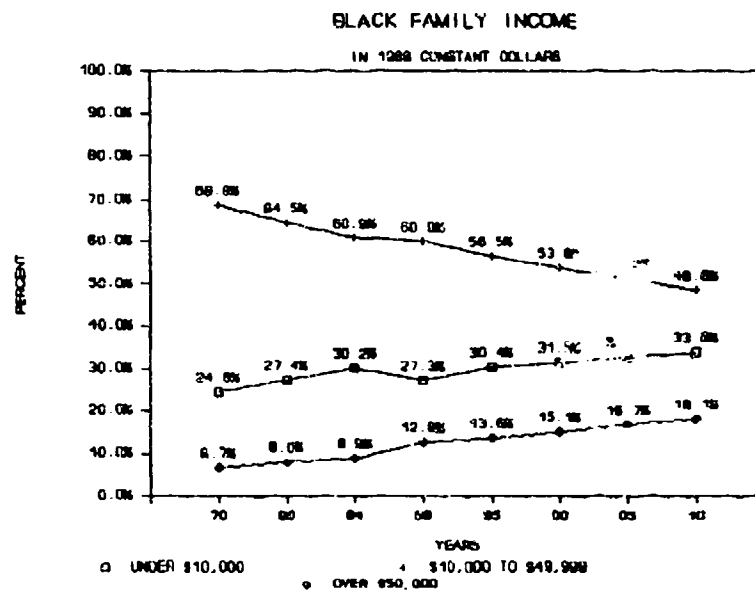


Table 11 BLACK FAMILY INCOME



The income of black families underwent significant changes between 1970 and 1988. The percentage of black families earning over \$50,000 almost doubled, the percentage in the middle class decreased almost nine percent, and the families earning less than \$10,000 increased by three percent. Bart Landry in his book The New Black Middle Class, attributes the changes in income to five factors: civil rights and integration, increased educational opportunities, increase in black entrepreneurship, an increase in blacks at the managerial and executive levels/professional occupations, and the impact of the 1981-1982 recession.¹⁰ The most important of which is the increased opportunities brought about by the civil rights movement in the 1960s. As a result middle class incomes increased from 38 percent in 1960 to 68.8 percent in 1970, lower class incomes dropped from 48.1 percent in 1960 to 24.6 in 1970, and upper income levels doubled. These have been the most significant changes in the past 30 years and has increased the number of black males that could qualify themselves to become U.S. Army officers. However the trend seems to be shifting.

In 1981 and 1982 the United States underwent its worst recession since World War II, and this caused a change in the trends of black family income. Landry states that the effect of a recession, and this one in particular, combined with cuts in federal domestic program budgets, reduction in affirmative action programs, and cuts in financial aid for colleges created a condition where blacks seem to be affected in disproportionate numbers.¹¹

From 1980 to 1984 the upper income level increased by 0.9 percent, the middle income level dropped by 3.6 percent, and the lower income

bracket increased by 2.8 percent. It is clear that almost three percent of the middle class dropped out of that income level into the lower income bracket. This was caused by increased unemployment and fewer well-paying jobs. The families on the borderline of the middle income class were most affected and had a greater chance of falling below the \$10,000 income level.

This recessional effect is shown in Table 7. The black families and black children living below the poverty level increased 4.1 and 5.2 percent respectively. The effect is also shown in Table 6. The number of black children living with both parents dropped 3.7 percent from 1980 to 1985 as the percentage of black children living with their mother increased from 43.9 to 51 percent.

The importance of this analysis is to demonstrate that there is at least 5 percent of the black population that is extremely vulnerable to the effects of the economy. Every segment of society is adversely affected by economic downswings, however the black community is affected disproportionately to the white community. The reason for this is that blacks have fewer families in the higher income levels than whites, higher percentages of families in the lower income brackets, have a greater percentage of their population in poverty, and make less money on the average than whites. In addition, in 1980 blacks represented twice the unskilled labor force than whites: 31.2 percent compared to 16.5 percent. A comparison of black and white socioeconomic levels based on income is shown in Table 12, 13, and 14.

Table 12 BLACK AND WHITE INCOME LEVELS

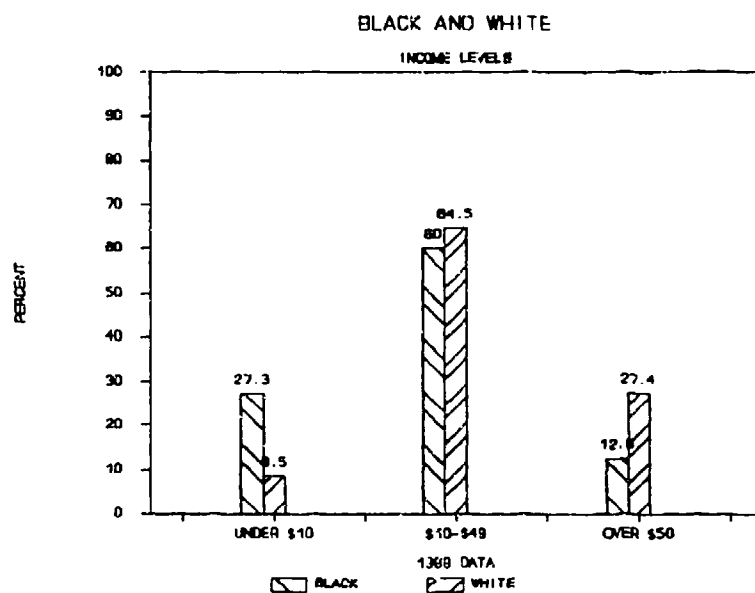


Table 13 BLACKS AND WHITES IN POVERTY

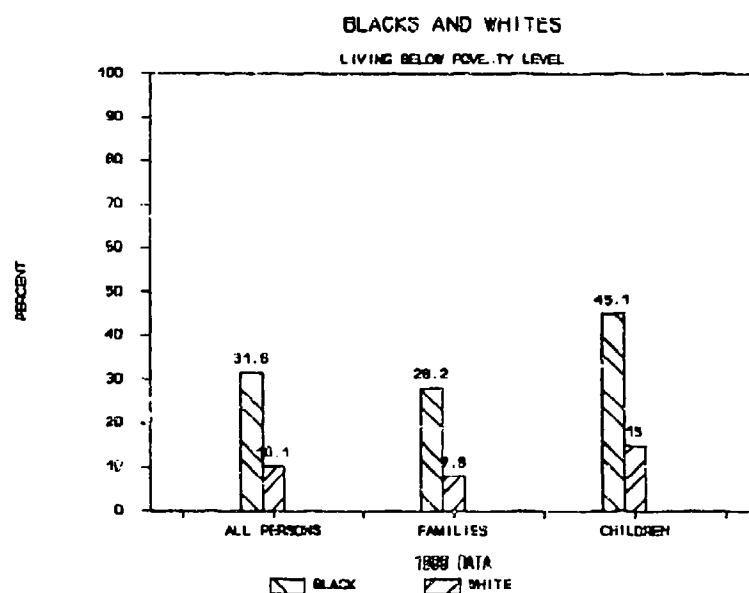
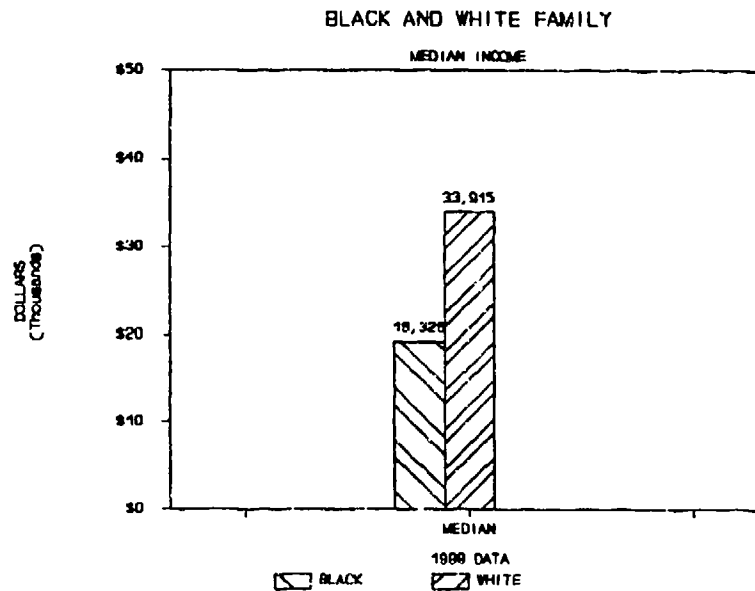


Table 14 BLACK AND WHITE FAMILY MEDIAN INCOME



The economic disparity between whites and blacks is an example of deLone's theory of economic racial inequality. The figures add weight to deLone's hypothesis that it is more difficult for blacks to achieve "upward mobility" out of their socioeconomic status than whites. As a result, a disproportionately smaller number of black children will have the opportunity to achieve economic success because proportionately they are in greater numbers in the lower income levels.

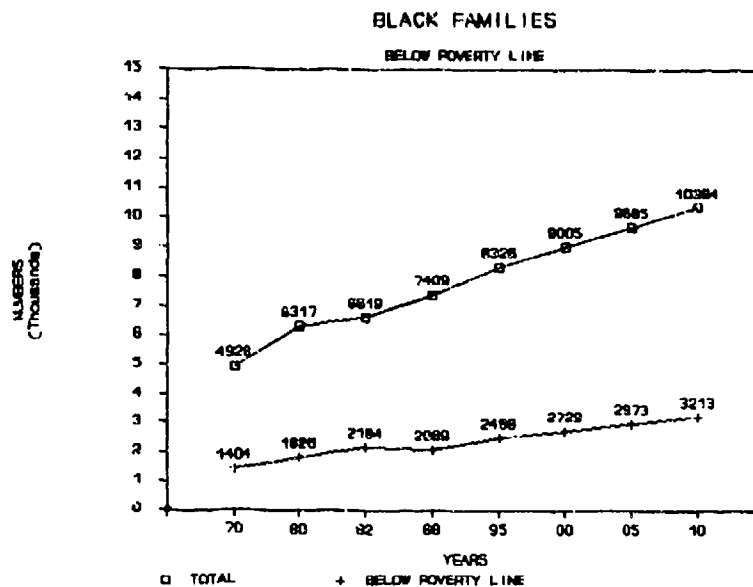
In 1984 the economy began to improve and the indicators of socioeconomic status for blacks improved as well. From 1982 to 1988 the black families below the poverty line decreased almost 5 percent, and black children living below the poverty line decreased 2.2 percent in the same time period. The lower income level percentile dropped 3 percent from 1984 to 1988, the middle class dropped 0.9 percent, and the upper

class increased by almost 4 percent.

The future of black economic status is a combination of positive and negative trends. When discussing the percentage of black males that will be part of the qualified pool of 18-24 year olds in 2010 the two most important economic indicators are the numbers of black families living in poverty and the number of black children living below the poverty line. These two segments of the black community represent the number of blacks that will have the most difficulty achieving upward mobility.

In the year 2010 the trends indicate that the percentage of black families below the poverty line and those that earn less than \$10,000 income will increase to 31 and 33.8 percent respectively. The actual numbers of black families living below the poverty line will increase by 54 percent because of the combined factors of an increase in the black population as well as the projected increase in black families. Table 15 shows this increase.

Table 15 BLACK FAMILIES BELOW POVERTY LINE



As discussed previously, the number of black children below the poverty line will also increase and cause a doubling of actual numbers from 506,000 to over 1 million.

The positive trends are the increase in the median income of black families, and the percentage of upper-class black families. The median income will increase from \$19,329 in 1988 to \$30,931 in 2010. The percentage of black families in the "over \$50,000" income level will increase to 18.1 percent in 2010, but the middle income level will decrease to 48.6 percent.

In the context of the ability to provide the opportunity for children to achieve upward mobility, the percentage of families that have that ability will decrease from 72.6 percent in 1988 to 66.7 in 2010, a reduction of 5.9 percent. In actual number of families that equates to

611,240. The average number of children in black families in 1988 is 2.31. When multiplied by the increased number of families that will lack the ability to provide inter-generational upward mobility the number of children is 1.4 million. This approximates the number of the increase of children that will fall below the poverty level in 2010, and represents an increase of over 12 percent that will be in families earning less than \$10,000.

In 2010 the Census Bureau projects there will be 2,064,822 black males in the 18-24 age group. Of this number 50.6 percent will have lived below the poverty level as children in 2005. This means that 49.4 percent will have had the ability to achieve upward mobility in a strictly economic context. This compares to 45.1 percent in 1987 of children below the poverty line and 54.9 percent above the level of poverty.

The impact of poverty in the context of families and income is to lower the percentage of black males 18-24 years old with the ability to achieve inter-or intra-generational upward mobility by 5.5 percent. This represents a decrease in the percentage of the qualified pool of 18-24 black males in 2010 that could become U.S. Army officers.

Education

The most important factor in considering the qualified pool of 18-24 year old black males is their ability to attain the educational credentials to qualify to become a U.S. Army officer. This includes high school graduation, entrance into college, attainment of at least two years of college or graduation from a four-year institution, and acceptance by the Army into one of four commissioning sources: the United States

Military Academy (USMA), Reserve Officers Training Corps (ROTC), Officer Candidate School (OCS), or direct commission. Each has slightly different criteria for entrance, but the basic qualifications for education are listed above.

The high school graduation rate among black males is the first area for analysis. Table 16 shows the trends in black male high school graduation from 1970 to 1988, and then the projections out to 2010.

Table 16 BLACK MALE H.S. GRADS 18-24

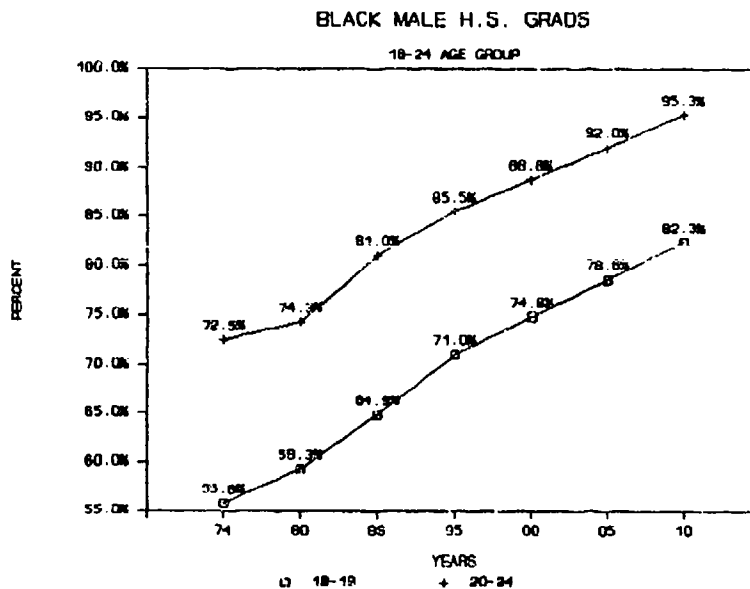


Table 16 depicts the upward trends of black male high school graduates. The 18-19 age group is lower and the 20-24 group is higher. This may be due to an increased awareness of the need of at least a high school diploma in order to be competitive for the job market or college. The 18-19 rate increased 16 percent from 1974 to 1986 and is projected to increase an additional 26.8 percent by 2010. The 20-24 rate increased 18

percent between 1974 and 1986, and is projected to increase an additional 11.4 percent by 2010. The 18-19 rate may be the more important of the two because the average age of a high school graduate is eighteen. Therefore the more high school graduates at that age, the greater the percentage of black males qualified for possible commissioning at that age. However the median age of 18-24 is 21 and that age falls in the category of 20-24. The black males in that age group will graduate at an extremely high rate by 2010 if current trends continue.

These figures are overall rates of high school graduation, they do not take into account the lower or higher graduation rates of black males in inner-city environments versus suburban locales. The literature suggests that drop-out rates among inner-city black males can reach as high as 50 percent, but the percentage of those not graduating in that environment is not significant enough to adversely affect the total rate of graduation.

In fact the graduation rate has increased and is projected to continue increasing. This will increase the percentage of black males 18-24 years old qualified on the first rung of the educational ladder by a minimum of 11.4 percent.

The next rung of the educational ladder is college. It is at this rung that income and families will have a pivotal impact. The important factors to consider are: Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores, family income, cost of education, availability of financial aid, admission requirements of USMA and ROTC, the role of the Historically Black College or University (HBCU) and two-year institutions.

The Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) is a standardized test used by

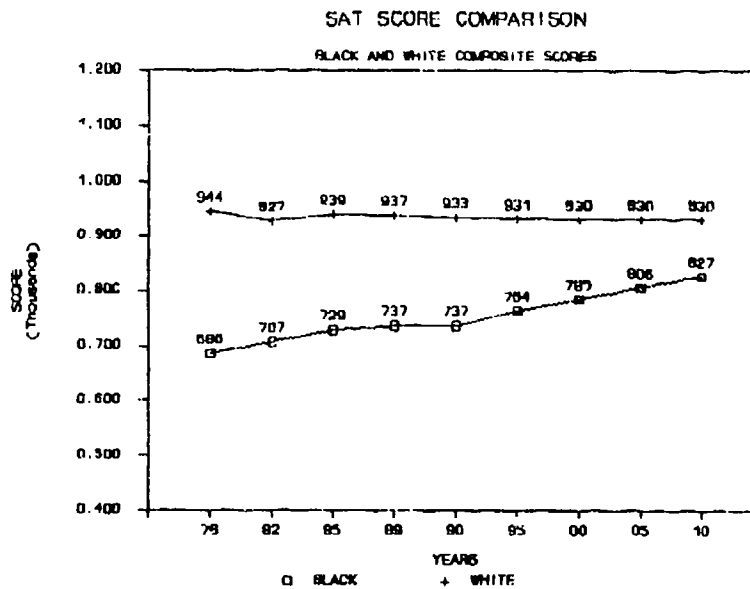
most colleges and universities to determine the quality of an applicant. It is composed of two parts: a verbal and a math test, each with a minimum score of 200 and a maximum score of 800, for a total possible score of 1600. It is administered during the junior and senior years of a high school student's career and can give an indication of the quality of the secondary institution as well as the individual. In Small Futures Richard deLone discusses the impact of family income on SAT scores. He states that "The higher the student's social status, the higher the probability that he or she will get high grades and test scores."¹²(italics added) This relationship is based on the average income of students scoring in a certain numeric range. An example is the average income of students scoring between 650 and 699 was \$21,292. These income averages are in the current dollars of 1974. The value of income in current dollars has increased 99.2 percent or almost double. Therefore when drawing conclusions from deLone's table in 1988 dollars, the income levels were doubled. DeLone used each individual portion of the SAT as a variable to determine the mean. The mean was 462, with 647,031 students testing.

SAT SCORE/INCOME CORRELATION

| 1974 | | 1990 | |
|--------------|---------------|--------------|---------------|
| <u>SCORE</u> | <u>INCOME</u> | <u>SCORE</u> | <u>INCOME</u> |
| 750-800 | \$24,124 | 1500-1600 | \$49,000 |
| 700-749 | \$21,980 | 1400-1499 | \$44,000 |
| 650-699 | \$21,292 | 1300-1399 | \$42,500 |
| 600-649 | \$20,330 | 1200-1299 | \$40,600 |
| 550-599 | \$19,481 | 1100-1199 | \$38,800 |
| 500-549 | \$18,824 | 1000-1099 | \$37,600 |
| 450-499 | \$18,122 | 900-999 | \$36,200 |
| 400-449 | \$17,387 | 800-899 | \$34,600 |
| 350-399 | \$16,182 | 700-799 | \$32,300 |
| 300-349 | \$14,355 | 600-699 | \$28,600 |
| 250-299 | \$11,428 | 500-599 | \$22,800 |
| 200-249 | \$8,639 | 400-499 | \$17,200 |

These scores and income averages are meaningless without the average scores of the present population and the income averages of students taking the test. The income averages of students taking the test was not available, therefore the income range percentiles can be compared against the deLone correlation to give an indication of the percent of blacks scoring in certain brackets. The average composite scores of black and white students from 1975 to 1990, and projections on scores to 2010 is displayed in Table 17.

Table 17 BLACK AND WHITE SAT SCORES



The figures provided by the National Center for Education Statistics are broken down by race or sex, but not both. Males average 55 points higher overall than females, and whites average over 200 above blacks. For the purposes of this study these SAT scores will be

considered accurate for black males and white males.

The median income of blacks in 1988 was \$19,329, for whites it was \$33,915. This would indicate that the probability is higher that white students would score higher than blacks. When applied to the SAT/income correlation table 50 percent of white students should be above the 800-899 range, while 50 percent of black students should be above the 500-599 range. This is because a median income level does not necessarily equate to an average score. The average SAT score for blacks in 1990 was 737, and for whites was 933. The median being a figure in the middle of a list of figures, and the mean or average is the sum of the list of figures divided by the number of figures in the list. The disparity between median incomes for blacks and the average scores for black suggests that the two figures cannot necessarily be correlated. The white average score was closer to the median income range but not enough to draw a correlation between the two numbers.

The conclusion is that there is no correlation between the average SAT score and the median income level. In his research study "Black Colleges as a Major Source of Black Officers in the Armed Forces," Roosevelt Greer shows that 15 percent of blacks scored 950 or better on the SAT in 1982.¹³ The average black score that year 707. The increase in average score from 707 in 1982 to 737 indicates that there was also an increase in the percentage of blacks scoring above 950. However there were no figures available that gave an updated percent of distribution. Therefore the best methodology for providing a distribution percentage is the percentile of income levels applied to the SAT scores to give an indication of the number of blacks scoring within a certain range. This

is important when looking at the percentage of 18-24 year old black males qualified to become Army officers because of the admission standards of the various commissioning sources. The Military Academy requires a minimum of 1010 (480 Verbal, 530 Math) on the SAT while Cadet Command (ROTC) requires a minimum of 850 for admission.

Black students whose families earn \$34,600 or more have a higher probability of scoring 850 or higher. This represents 26 percent of black families in 1988. Black families earning more than \$34,600 will increase to 34 percent in 2010. This indicates that in actual numbers 31 percent more black families 1988 to 2010 will be earning income in the range that represents a score of 850 or better on the SAT. As a result the number of black high school graduates that score high enough to qualify for ROTC will increase. The average test scores are projected to increase from 737 in 1988 to 827 in 2010. This is also suggestive of the increase in black families earning over \$34,600 and students scoring 850 or better.

The percentage of black males 18-24 years old that are qualified to both enter college and enter ROTC or USMA will increase by 31 percent. This represents a total of 34 percent of black male high school graduates that will be qualified.

The next rung in the educational ladder is enrollment in college. The figures used reflect only black male enrollment in both two- and four-year institutions. Table 18 gives the percentages of black males 18-24 that have graduated high school and are currently enrolled in college. Table 19 shows the trends of black males enrolling in high school the same year of graduation, this suggests the college enrollment of the 18-19 age group.

Table 18 18-24 BLACK MALE HS GRADS ENROLLED IN COLLEGE

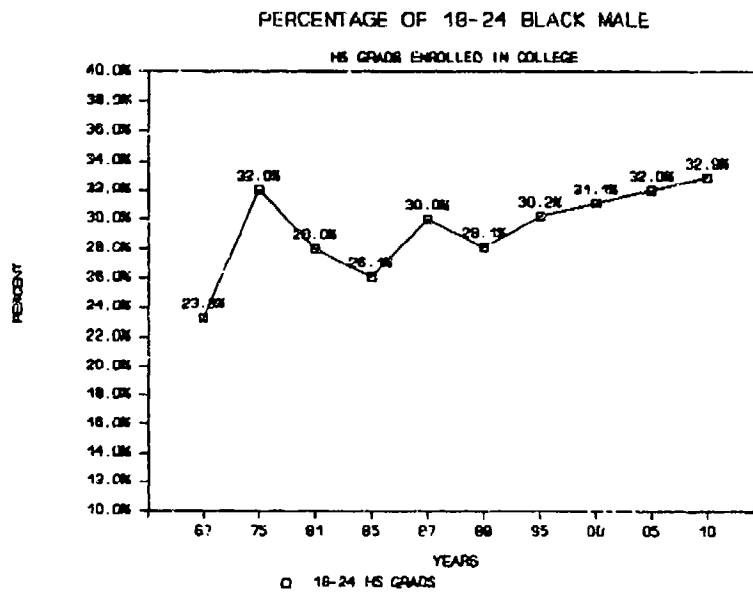
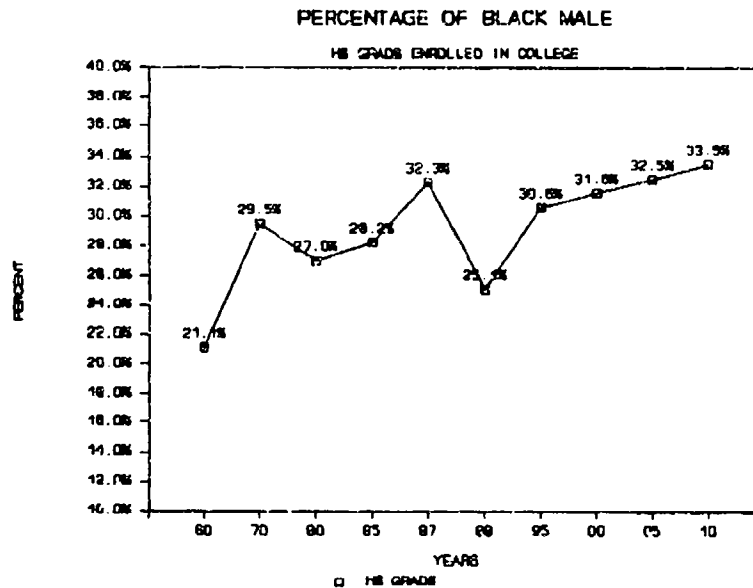


Table 19 BLACK MALE HS GRADS ENROLLED IN COLLEGE



Both tables have similar trends: each shows an increase in enrollment between 1960 and 1975, each shows a decline near 1981, each shows an increase in 1987, and another decline in 1988. The overall trend has been positive and the projections of college enrollment for both groups in 2010 is similar.

Each fluctuation in college enrollment is a result of the previously discussed socioeconomic factors. College enrollment increased due to the increased educational opportunities offered by the civil rights movement, integration, and a significant increase in federal financial aid. In 1981 the recession had an adverse impact on the number of black male college enrollees. College became harder to pay for as costs increased and fewer families were able to send their children to college. Between 1985 and 1987 as the economy improved the black male college enrollment increased. However in 1988 colleges saw a decrease in federal financial aid and once again the college enrollment of both groups dropped.

These trends are indicative of the sensitivity of black male college enrollment to changes within the economy. In her article "Fewer Blacks on Campus," Pat Wingert says when examining the decline in black high school graduates attending college the "most surprising is the decline of middle-income blacks attending college."¹⁴ In 1976 53 percent of middle-income black high school graduates attended college compared to 36 percent in 1988. "Even more dramatic is the loss of middle-income black men, in 1976 53 percent were in college compared to 28 percent in 1988."¹⁵ In this same article Deborah J. Carter of the American Council on Education said there were three reasons for this decline: money, higher

admission standards, and lack of support on campus.

Money is the most important reason. Carter says that middle income blacks are more concentrated in the lower half of the income bracket. The percentage of black families in the \$10,000 to \$14,999 is 23 percent of the middle income bracket compared to 12.6 percent white families in the same income range. In the 1970s blacks were eligible for federal college grants and college attendance increased significantly, however in the 1980s federal aid was reserved for the lowest income level. Black college entrance exam scores have also increased, but continue to be far lower than white scores, and consequently fewer blacks are getting into college.

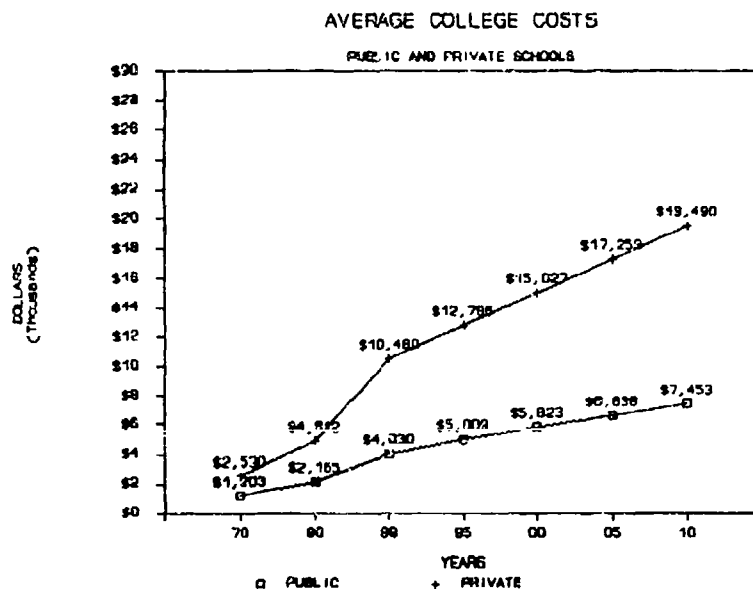
The percentage of blacks enrolling in college corresponds closely to the percentile of blacks scoring 800 or better on the SAT using deLone's correlation table. The projections for both trends in 2010 are very close, 34 percent for 850 or better on the SAT, and a 33 percent rate projected for 18-24 black males enrolling in college. This lends cred bility to the theory that income not only increases the probability of scoring higher on the SAT but also increases the chances of attaining higher education. "Similarly, the higher the grades and test scores, the more likely an individual from any socioeconomic status is to get more schooling..., this makes it inevitable that a higher proportion of the most desirable credentials will go to the children of the affluent."¹⁶

The percent of 18-24 year old black males in college will increase from 28.1 percent in 1988 to 32.9 percent in 2010. This represents an increase of almost five percent in black males 18-24 enrolling in college, thus increasing the pool of that age group who can prepare themselves to

became Army officers.

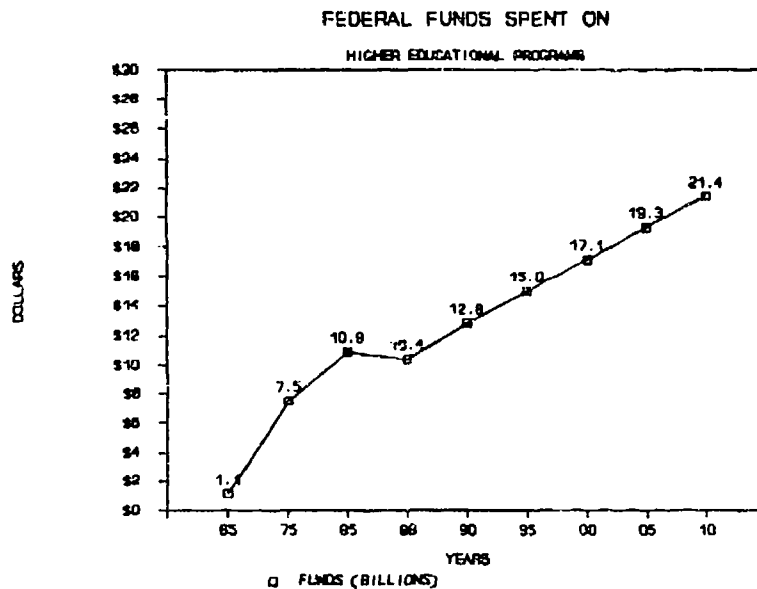
Following enrollment in college is sustainment, staying in school long enough to graduate. Table 20 shows the increase in college costs form 1970 to 1988, and the projected increases based on current trends.

Table 20 AVERAGE COLLEGE COSTS



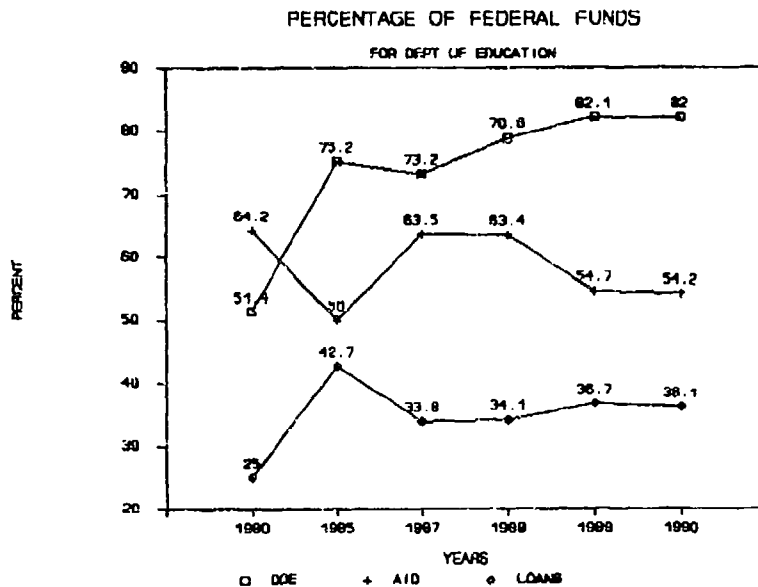
The above table illustrates the rising costs of education and the reason many blacks could not attend college in the 1980s. At the present rate of increase, the cost of college will almost double by the year 2010. The median income of the black family will increase by 60 percent and will not keep up with the rising cost of education. Federal spending on higher education programs increased over 1000 percent from 1960 to 1990, and is projected to continue to rise an additional 67 percent by 2010. Table 21 shows these trends in billions of dollars spent by the U.S. government on higher education programs.

Table 21 FEDERAL FUNDS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION



Federal funds are available, in 1990 82 percent of federal funds spent on education went to the Department of Education (DOE), and of that amount 54 percent was spent on student financial aid and 36 percent on student loans. The distribution of these funds has changed from 1980 to 1990. More federal money has gone to DOE, but the DOE distribution has also changed. Table 22 illustrates these changes in distribution.

Table 22 DEPT OF EDUCATION FUNDS



The increase in percentage of money dedicated to student loans is the factor that prohibits many black families from sending their children to college. Carter says the "...prospect of loans that can quickly amount to five figures intimidates many college hopefuls..."¹⁷ Marian Edelman echoes these remarks by stating

"In 1985, more than one-fifth of all black college students came from families with annual incomes of less than \$10,000. These families obviously cannot afford to send their children to college without considerable financial help, but financial aid is inadequate to meet the rising costs of college, and is harder to get now than it was in 1980."¹⁸

The final factor in the reduction of college enrollment and sustainment by black males is a lack of support. In his article "Why Fewer Blacks are Graduating," Ronald Taylor states that the reasons

include a "backlash from white students and professors against affirmative action on predominantly white campuses, a shift in financial aid from grants to loans, poor racial climate at white schools, and a lack of money."¹⁹ In the March 21, 1987 issue of the Economist it is stated that the dropout rate for black students on white campuses is five times the dropout rate of black students on black campuses. This is attributed to the more supportive environment on Historically Black College or University (HBCU) campuses. In Pat Wingert's article Warren Simmons states that "...colleges that aggressively recruit blacks often make little effort to retain them,...once they admit a student to the halls of higher learning, it's strictly the student's responsibility to succeed." In his research study "Black Colleges as a Major source of Black Officers in the Armed Forces," Roosevelt Greer states that

"On white campuses, black students experience little socialization with their white counterpart and are generally isolated from the mainstream of campus activities. The psychological stress that often accompanies social isolation can breed apathy, frustration, and academic failure. Many black students perform poorly because of the lack of support systems that would promote academic persistence. Many white professors appear insensitive or unresponsive to black student needs."²⁰

All these factors have a combined effect to significantly reduce the number of black male college graduates from those who enroll in college. This is the final rung on the education ladder: graduation from college. Tables 23 and 24 describe the percentage of college years completed in the 25-34 age group of black males, and the percentage of black males enrolled in college vs the percentage of degrees conferred, Table 24 is a percentage of all male college students.

Table 23 BLACK MALES 25-34 YEARS OF COLLEGE COMPLETED

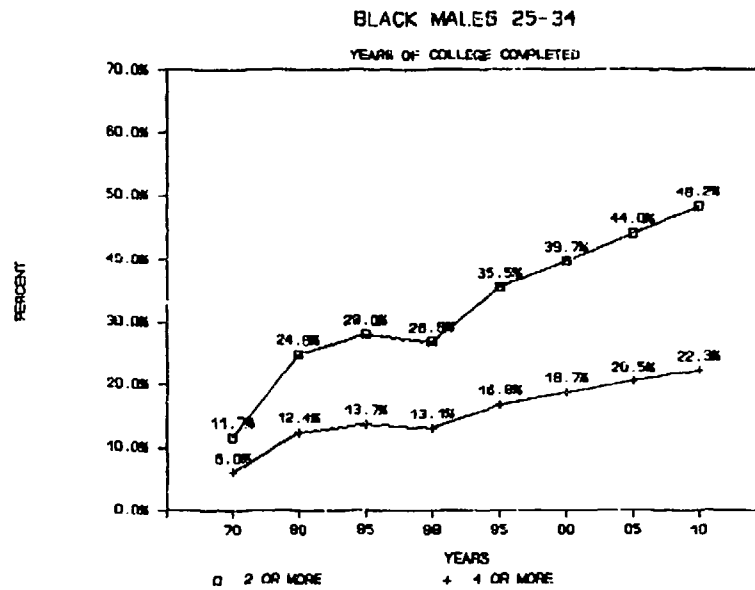
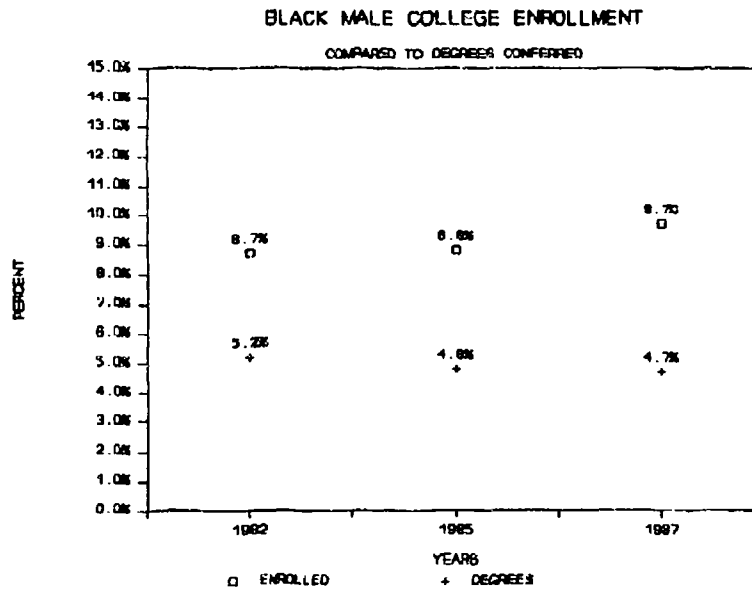


Table 24 DEGREES VS ENROLLMENT



Greer states that "Minorities are attending college at an older age. The percentage of blacks who are 25 or younger enrolled in institutions of higher education will decrease from 57.1 percent in 1984 to 51.3 percent in 1992."²¹ This trend is also indicated in the tables comparing 18-24 year old black male college enrollment to black males enrolling in college the year of high school graduation. The percentage of 18-24 year olds is 2 percent higher than those enrolling the same year. As a result black males graduate at an older age.

The analysis of the above tables suggests that 50 percent of all black males 25-34 who enroll in college do not finish four-year curriculums. It also indicates that there is an almost 50 percent dropout rate from college for black males, and that black males graduate at one-third their percentage of the male population. There was no available data by race, sex, and age to do an analysis of the college completion rate of 18-24 year old black males. However when applying Greer's data on the increasing age of black students and the above graph the indication is that the available pool of 18-24 year old black males will be further reduced by 50 percent by the time they graduate college. This is primarily due to the factors listed above as well as the increased attendance of blacks at two-year institutions. The percentage of blacks attending two-year schools has increased from 29.5 in 1982 to 33.2 in 1988. This represents a 12.5 percent increase in actual numbers in a six year period. Two-year institutions offer black students an opportunity to take college courses without the expense associated with four-year schools. Fifty percent of blacks at white institutions are enrolled in two-year colleges.²²

This reinforces the figures in Tables 23 and 24, only 50 percent of black males in college will graduate from a four-year institution in any given year. This would eliminate 50 percent of the qualified pool of 18-24 year old black males from three of four commissioning sources which require a four-year or higher degree.

The four commissioning sources are the United States Military Academy (USMA), Reserve Officers Training Corps (ROTC), Officer Candidate School (OCS), and direct commissioning. The Military Academy and ROTC require a bachelor's degree, OCS requires a minimum of two-years of transcribed college courses, and direct commissioning is a vehicle the Army uses to commission professionals it cannot train itself. Examples of these officers are doctors, chaplains, lawyers, veterinarians, and dentists. These are called non-OPD managed officers. These occupations require professional degrees and will not be considered for the purposes of this study. The percentages of black males commissioned through the other three commissioning sources is shown in Table 25.

BLACK MALES COMMISSIONED FY 90



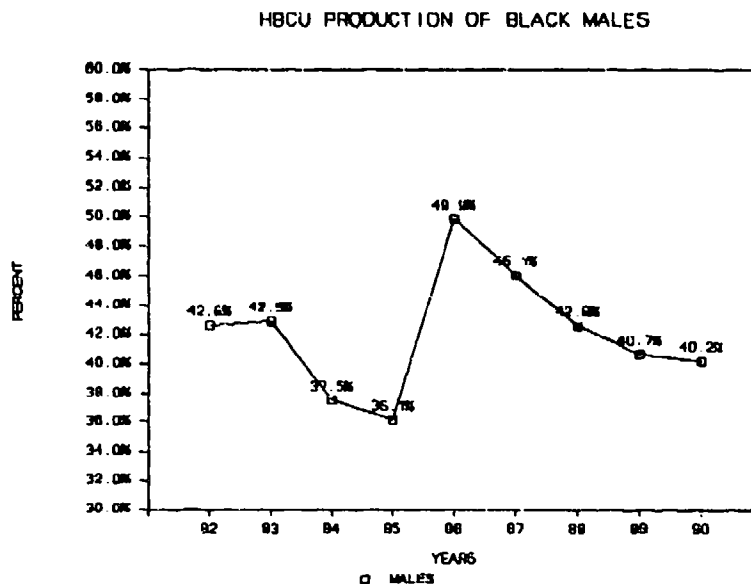
The total number of black males commissioned in 1990 was 955. Of that total 89.3 percent were commissioned through ROTC, 6.1 percent at USMA, and 4.6 percent through OCS. This means that at least 95 percent of blacks commissioned received a bachelor's degree or completed four years of higher education. This limits the number of the pool of 18-24 year old black males to those who can complete four years of college. That number is 50 percent of the black males in the 18-24 age group entering college. The other 50 percent completing two years of college or attending two-year institutions would qualify for only five percent of the possible commissions in any given year.

The role of the HBCU takes on an important note when analyzing the following statistics: HBCUs enroll 20 percent of blacks in college but award 40 percent of the degrees for black graduates, blacks at HBCUs

have a five times higher retention rate than blacks at white schools, and 66 percent graduate.²³ The HBCU production of Army officers is pivotal when discussing the sources for black male Army officers. In 1990 the 20 HBCU schools with ROTC programs produced 384 black male officers. This represents 45 percent of black males commissioned through ROTC, and 40.2 percent of all black males commissioned in 1990. The other 469 (55 percent) black males commissioned through ROTC were commissioned through 196 predominantly white schools. This means that the HBCU production ratio is 8:1 or eight times that of white schools. The data for black male HBCU ROTC graduates was not available prior to 1982. Historically HBCUs produced over 66 percent of black officers until the 1970s when white schools began to integrate and black attendance at HBCUs dropped to 16 percent. However HBCUs remained the major source for black male Army officers.²⁴

Table 26 shows the HBCU production of black males as a percentage of all black male officers from 1982 to 1990.

Table 26 BLACK MALE HBCU PRODUCTION



The HBCU ROTC production has been, and will continue to be, an important source of black male officers for the Army. Major General Wallace Arnold, the Commanding General for Cadet Command, stated that the HBCU ROTC programs have been designated "protected programs" and would not be cut as the Army looks for ways of cutting its budget and reducing its forces. He said HBCUs were important to the production of minority officers and did not want to see that production stopped.²⁵

The United States Military Academy has graduated an average of 61.3 percent of their black male cadets in the decade between 1980 and 1990. In the past four years, 1987 to 1990, black males have graduated at the average rate of 71 percent. These graduation rates are well above the national average of black males, is comparable to the top five HBCU graduation rates (80.5), and above the average graduation rate at the

other 112 predominantly black schools (less than 59 percent). The graduation rate of black males at the Academy in the past four years is actually higher than the graduation rate of the entire Academy male population, 70.8 percent. The reasons for this are the highly competitive process of admissions to the Academy, the Academy's goal to admit only the best high school students possible, and the cohesive, supportive environment on campus. In the case of black males it means the upper 10 percentile academically, student leaders, and athletes from primarily black high schools as well as white high schools. The Military Academy represents a free education with a six year obligation to the Army, and is very attractive to young black males who may not be in the upper 1 percentile of their classes but have a great deal to offer the Army.

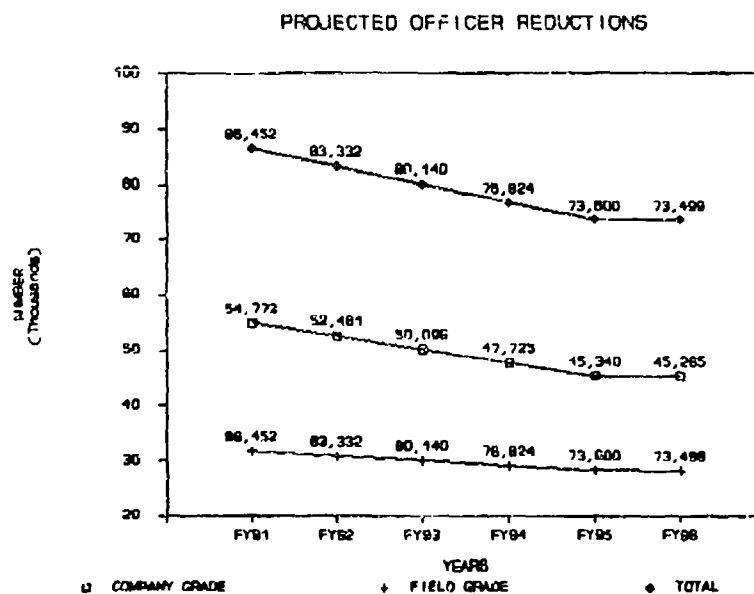
The impact that the available pool of 18-24 year old black males has on USMA is that the selection is more limited than that of white applicants. Using deLone's correlation table, USMA would have 20 percent of the 18-24 black male population to select from, compared to 40 percent white applicants. This means that, proportionately speaking, white students have twice as much chance to be selected to the Academy as blacks. The pool of possible applicants for ROTC is larger because the admission standards are lower, 25 percent of black males compared to 48 percent white males.

The problem for the Army is that it must maintain its high standards for selection and admission into its premier officer education programs, and continue to pull in its fair share of the 18-24 year old black male population. This is the problem that faces the Army as it prepares to reduce its force by over 200,000 soldiers by 1996.

The Army's Planned Reduction of Forces

The U.S. Army, as part of a general DOD reduction in budget and manpower, is reducing its active duty forces. The reduction will take place over a five-year period from Fiscal Year 91 through FY 96. The reduction will be from a present strength level of 720,000 to a final end strength of either 580,000 or 520,000. This is a reduction of 21 to 28 percent of the force. The officer strength levels will be reduced as well. Table 27 shows the nominal figures being used for planning purposes by the Deputy Chief of Staff for Personnel (DCSPER) Officer Division, Office of Personnel Management.

Table 27 PLANNED OFFICER REDUCTION



The planned officer reduction will reduce the officer strength by 18.6 percent. This will mean fewer active duty officer slots available on an annual basis for ROTC and OCS graduates. As the number of officers

goes down so will the need to fill empty spaces. As a result, the commissioning sources will reduce the number of officers they produce annually to save money and maintain the officer strength at its proposed levels.

Another effect the reduction will have is on recruiting for officer candidates and cadets for USMA, ROTC, and OCS. Lieutenant Colonel Kichen of DCSPER stated that the Army would probably increase accession of officers through OCS from within its own ranks, and reduce the number of cadets commissioned through ROTC and USMA. Cadet Command will take the brunt of the reduction in officer accession. The process to close 50 ROTC units has already begun with more expected in the next five years.²⁶ As stated previously by Major General Arnold the 20 HBCU ROTC units are "protected" and will not be closed in the foreseeable future.

In addition certain programs have been eliminated that helped keep production of ROTC-trained officers at the level required to sustain the Army. One such program is the Early Commissioning Program (ECP) which gave cadets the opportunity to receive their commission without having earned their degree over a four-year period. The elimination of this program means that MS4s or seniors about to graduate are required to have their degree. As a result there has been a "migration" of cadets to subsequent year groups (YG). An example is YG 91. Cadet Command projects a mission production of 3950 officers for FY 91, compared to the 6450 that could have been commissioned with the ECP. This represents a migration of 38.7 percent cadets for the Command in FY 91, the remaining 2500 have migrated to YGs 92 and 93. The HBCU programs show a greater decrease in production. Their FY 91 mission projection is 198 total (139 male, 59

female) from a possible 487 cadets. This represents a 59.5 percent migration to YGs 92 and 93. The loss of the ECP has had a significant effect on the difference in production from FY 90 to FY 91. Cadet Command's decline in production from FY 90 to FY 91 is 55.7 percent, and the HBCU production decreased by 63.6 percent.

In the analysis of the impact of the impending reduction of forces, the loss of such programs is important. The "protection" of HBCU ROTC units is vital to continue the production of black male officers, but the decline in black officer production compared to the Command as a whole suggests that the impact is greater on cadets at HBCUs than cadets at "mainstream" institutions. Over the past three years HBCUs have contributed an average of 6.6 percent of all cadets commissioned through ROTC. The decline in production in FY 91 indicates a five percent representation from HBCUs, showing a declining percentage of production from 1988 to 1991.

HBCU PRODUCTION AS A PERCENT OF CADET COMMAND

| <u>YEAR</u> | <u>HBCU</u> | <u>COMMAND</u> | <u>%</u> |
|-------------|-------------|----------------|-------------------|
| FY 88 | 596 | 8179 | 7.3 |
| FY 89 | 543 | 8224 | 6.6 |
| FY 90 | 544 | 7791 | 6.0 |
| FY 91 | 198 | 3950 | 5.0 ²⁷ |

Another effect of the reduction in officer accession will be increased competition for officer education programs and a possible raising of admission standards. Presently the ROTC scholarship program recipients have qualifications that are comparable to USMA appointments. The average SAT score for scholarship winners in 1989 was 1250. Blacks

represented 12 percent of the scholarship winners in 1990 with a total of 215 recipients. However the ROTC Quality Enrichment Scholarship Program, Green to Gold program, and Enhanced Skills Training program may be reduced or eliminated altogether. Each program was designed to increase both quality and quantity of officers commissioned at HBCUs:

Quality Enrichment Program (QEP): A program designed to attract high quality applicants of any ethnic group to attend an HBCU. The applicant is offered a full four-year scholarship with the stipulation of attending an HBCU full-time. In 1990 200 QEP scholarships were earmarked for HBCUs.

Green to Gold QEP Scholarship Program: This program is available for all active duty enlisted soldiers. The applicant must have served for at least two years, have a minimum SAT score of 850, and be willing to attend an HBCU for the duration of the four-year scholarship. There were 75 such scholarships available for 1990.

Enhanced Skills Training Program (EST): A program implemented to ensure that officers commissioned from HBCUs have the reading, writing, speaking, and mathematics skills to compete successfully with their peers.²⁸

The loss of these programs at HBCUs, the largest producers of black male officers, may have a significant impact on the quality of black officers commissioned. This would cause them to be less than competitive with their peers and result in fewer promotions, fewer blacks as senior-grade officers, and fewer blacks that could make the Army a career.

The decline in HBCU production not only affects Cadet Command but affects the entire Army. Table 26 depicts the importance of HBCU production for black male officers. A decline of 63.6 percent HBCU production would mean an overall reduction of 19.5 percent of black male

officers. The 19.5 percent reduction in black male officer production is slightly higher than the 18.6 planned reduction of all officers by 1996, and represents an annual five percent proportional loss of black male officers. This could reduce the 12.7 percent of black males commissioned in 1990 to 10.7 percent in 1991 and 1992. The twenty-year ripple effect could cause the conditions mentioned above for black male career aspirations.

The past 30 years has seen a distinct increase in the percentage of blacks as U.S. Army officers, although it has not reached the percentage of the black population in the United States. In addition the percentage of black males commissioned annually or on active duty is not representative of the percentage of 18-24 year old population. The following two tables portray the two trends.

Table 28 BLACK OFFICER PERCENTAGE

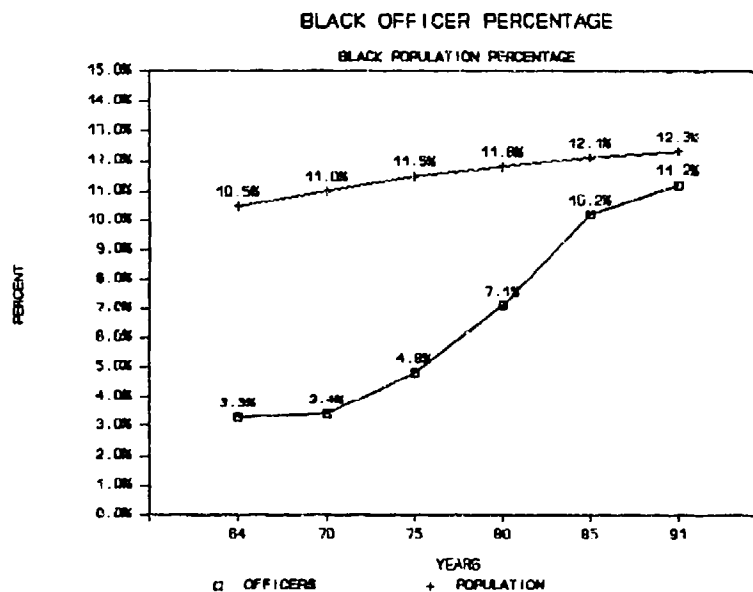
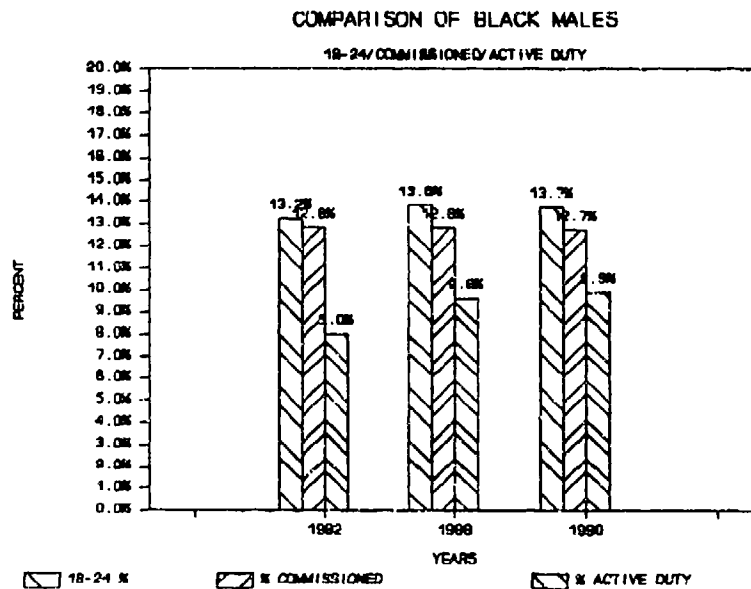


Table 29 BLACK MALE OFFICERS



The percentage of officers is an indication of the same socioeconomic trends that affect the general population. However the Army has made the recruitment of highly qualified black high school graduates a major concern and has increased its ranks of black officers through its own efforts. The steady increase of black officers is a testament to those efforts.

The percentage of black male officers compared to the percentage of 18-24 year old black males portrays a different trend. The black male officer population has increased and was at an all-time high in 1990, however it continued to fall behind the 18-24 age population. In 1990 the difference of 3.8 percentage points represented 22.1 percent fewer black officers compared to the 18-24 black male age group.

The reduction of officer strength levels, reduction in officer

accessions, and reduction in HBCU production will reduce the number of black male officer commissioned and accessed into the Army. This will eventually cause an overall reduction in the number of black male officers serving on active duty, and will increase the gap between the percent of black male officers and the percentage of 18-24 year old black males.

The following is a statement made by Colonel Kenneth Harris, Director of Training, U.S. Army ROTC Cadet Command, in response to an interview question on the importance of the issue of a representative population of black male officers:

" - Finally, I do believe that the black male officer population is an important issue. I believe that our Army has to mirror our society in all races and ethnicities and that we should strive to achieve 'more-or-less' proportioned ratios in both the enlisted and officer forces. I also believe that to the extent possible we should seek to balance this representation among all grades and branches/MOSs. Right now, as you know, we are skewed with our black male officer-to-enlisted representation. I also think that it is today's problem and a near-term problem that ought to not wait until 2010..."

Colonel Harris' remarks exemplify the concern of many officers on the subject of representation of black male officers. As the Army moves into the 21st Century and continues to downsize its force it will have to compete for the high quality black males to fill its officer ranks. The following is a statement by Colonel Harris on this subject:

"The competition for blacks on these campuses is tremendous...everyone wants/needs black representation...The problem is that many of these organizations can and do offer better enticements than we can afford or are allowed. Finally, in my view, most (not all) blacks in predominantly-white colleges come from solid, dual-parent families. My hunch is that many of these parents want something "better" for their children than what you or I do for a living. Hopefully, Desert Storm and the omnipresent, effective General Powell is turning that around."²⁹

This attitude among middle-class black families is a hindrance to

recruiting qualified black males. It is incumbent upon the Army to help change this attitude and to continue to attract highly qualified black males.

Comparative Analysis of the Impact of Selected Socioeconomic Factors on the Population of 18-24 year old Black Males in 1990 and 2010

This analysis will be conducted by applying the trends of each socioeconomic factor previously discussed and assessing its impact, through attrition, on the 18-24 year old black male population of 1990 and 2010. The percentage of black males in the 18-24 age group will increase from 13.7 in 1990 to 15.1 in 2010, but this has no bearing on the application of the other socioeconomic factors. The factors will be applied to a population of 1000 black males age 21, the median age of the 18-24 age group. The desired result is a percentage of the original 1000 black males from 1990 and 2010 that represents the cumulative effect of the selected socioeconomic factors which will equate to the pool of 18-24 year old black males that could qualify themselves to become U.S. Army officers in that particular year. The difference between the two numbers will determine if the qualified pool will increase or decrease, this is displayed in Table 30.

TABLE 30

CUMULATIVE EFFECTS OF SOCIOECONOMIC FACTORS ON BLACK MALES

18-24 YEARS OLD

| COMPARISON | | 1990 | | 2010 | |
|--------------------|-----------------|----------|---------------|----------|---------------|
| <u>FACTORS</u> | <u>FUNCTION</u> | <u>%</u> | <u>NUMBER</u> | <u>%</u> | <u>NUMBER</u> |
| BIRTH | ADDITION | 100% | 1000 | 100% | 1000 |
| INF MORT | SUBTRACT | 3.3% | 967.00 | 1.8% | 982.00 |
| JAIL | SUBTRACT | 25.0% | 725.25 | 25.0% | 736.50 |
| HOMICIDE | SUBTRACT | 5.0% | 688.98 | 6.7% | 687.15 |
| POVERTY | SUBTRACT | 12.6% | 602.17 | 19.9% | 550.41 |
| HSGRAD | MULTIPLY | 82.3% | 495.59 | 95.2% | 523.99 |
| INCOME | MULTIPLY | 72.6% | 359.79 | 66.7% | 349.50 |
| COLLEGE DROPCUT | SUBTRACT | 21.5% | 282.44 | 22.0% | 272.61 |
| SAT 850 | MULTIPLY | 58.0% | 163.81 | 65.5% | 178.56 |
| GRADUATE | MULTIPLY | 50.0% | 141.22 | 51.0% | 133.57 |
| MEAN | AVERAGE | | 152.51 | | 156.07 |

Infant mortality. The net growth rate of black males is increasing. One reason is the declining infant mortality rate. In 1970 32.6 black babies died for every 1000 live births, in 1990 the rate is 17.9 infant deaths.³⁰ As a result the 1990 black males were reduced at birth by 33, and the 2010 black males reduced by 18, this represents a loss of 3.3 percent and 1.8 percent respectively.

Crime and Prisons. The increasing trend in homicides among black males gives an indication that the increase in blacks governed by the criminal justice system will also increase. However the impact of that increase is difficult to gauge. For the purposes of this comparison the figures used are provided by the Sentencing Project, a Washington-based group dedicated to sentencing reform. In an 1989 study they predicted that by the year 2000 25 percent of black males in their twenties would

be under the supervision of the criminal justice system.³¹ Therefore each group will decrease an additional 25 percent. In addition each group will decrease by the number of homicide per 1000 during that year. In 1990 it was .053 percent, in 2010 it is projected to be .067 percent. These figures are normally shown per 100,000 to give them statistical significance.

Families. The structure of the black family creates meaningful effects on black males. In 1990 a 21 year old black man had a 51 percent chance of having lived in a single-parent home with his mother, in 2010 the chance is 73.2 percent. Using as a constant the fact that 88 percent of families below the poverty line are headed by single women a comparison can be drawn between 1990 and 2010. In 1990 the percent of families below the poverty line is 28.2 compared with a projection of 31 percent in 2010. This means that in 1990 12.6 percent of black males lived in poverty with their mothers, and in 2010 19.9 percent will live in poverty with their mothers. This was determined by multiplying the percent of female-headed families times the percent of female-headed families below the poverty line times the number of total families below the poverty line. Using deLone's theory of intergenerational upward mobility these males have almost no chance of qualifying themselves as U.S. Army officers. Each group will be decreased by the above percentage.

Income and Education. The educational attainment of the black male is heavily dictated by his socioeconomic status. The higher his attainment the more qualified he becomes. In 1990 the high school graduation rate for a 21 year old was 82.3 percent in 2010 it will increase to 95.2 percent. The 1990 and 2010 age group will each be

multiplied by those percentages. In 1990 there were 72.6 percent families that earned \$10,000 or more, in 2010 the percentage is 66.7 percent. Each age group will be multiplied by that percentage to give an indication of the impact of income on the pool of black males in 1990 and 2010. College enrollment is based on the SAT scores, meeting the minimum academic requirement, and income, or the economic resources to go to college. The application of income gives an indication of those who could possibly go to college, the actual percentages are the ones used previously for the 18-24 year old bracket. For the 1990 age group the percentage is 28.1, for the 2010 age group the percentage is 32.9 percent. The number of 18-24 year old black males in each year group will be reduced to the above numbers by reducing the number of high school graduates by the number of college dropouts and one-third of the percentage of families that earned \$10,000 or more. The difference in numbers represents the black families that earn \$10,000 to \$15,000 or the bottom one-third of the \$10,000 to \$49,999 income level who will not be able to financially sustain their children in college as well as the black males who drop out of college. In 1990 the percentage is 21.5 and in 2010 it will be 22 percent.

The next two factors of SAT scores over 850 and college graduation rates will be used to give a range of the pool of qualified 18-24 year old black males in 1990 and 2010. Each factor is equally useful in defining the pool of qualified black males. The range of percentages for each year will be averaged for a mean percentile, this mean will be used for the actual comparison.

First to be applied is the minimum SAT score required to enter ROTC--850. Using deLone's correlation table, 26 percent of all black

males in 1990 would score 850 or above while 34 percent of the 18-24 age group in 2010 would attain that score. This is affected by the higher percentage of black families earning \$35,000 and above. The overall factor of income has been used once, in this instance the percentage of income \$35,000 and above for those enrolled in college is the key factor as well as the increase in average score. In 1990 the percentage of black males students who are enrolled in college and who score 850 on the SAT is 58 percent, in 2010 the percentage is 65.5 percent. These percentiles will be multiplied by the percent of black males enrolled in college to give an indication of the qualified pool of black males.

Second is the graduation rate of black males from college which is a requirement for 95 percent of U.S. Army commissions. In 1990 the graduation rate from college is 50.1 percent, in 2010 it is 51 percent. This is derived by dividing the percentage of black males who have completed college in 1990 and 2010 by the percentage of high school graduates who enrolled four or five years earlier. The graduation rate is then multiplied times the number of black males enrolled in college for a number representing the percentage of black males who will graduate college. The final number is a mean of the college graduate percentage and the percentage of students scoring 850 or higher on the SAT.

Earlier in the chapter, each socioeconomic factor was analyzed individually. This analysis attempted to combine the effects of each factor and reduce each effect to a numerical value. The effects of income and poverty were given greater weight because of the overwhelming evidence that supports the relationship between attaining higher education and income. The tables that provided the trend projections used a simple

linear regression plot that took the data points given to it and plotted out the line. These projections to 2010 were done without using a combination of factors, but one at a time. The projections helped give an indication of trends but were not necessarily an accurate portrayal of the socioeconomic status of blacks in 2010. The results also rely on a strong economic outlook for the 21st Century. In his book, MEGATRENDS 2000, John Naismith predicts a booming global economy in the 1990's and the year 2000.³²

The result of the application of factors is that the overall percentage of 18-24 year old black males who will have the ability to qualify themselves for service as U.S. Army officers will increase from a mean of 15.2 percent to a mean of 15.6 percent, an increase of 0.4 percent. These figures represent a 90 percent confidence interval of the mean using the formula: $X \pm Z_{\alpha/2}(\sigma/\sqrt{n})$ with a 90 percent confidence coefficient of 1.645. When multiplied times the actual 2010 Census Bureau population projections the increase equates to an additional 8,256 black males in the qualified pool of 18-24 age group.

These figures are not intended to be totally representative of the qualified pool of 18-24 year old black males. The limited nature of the methodology for applying the socioeconomic factors lent itself to possible double counting of males, or the elimination of black males that might not be ordinarily eliminated. Each factor that represented an adverse effect totally eliminated that group from the total of black males. In reality that would not happen. However for the purposes of this study each factor was used as a discriminator that inexorably reduced the number of black males by a numerical factor.

SURVEY DATA ANALYSIS

This section of the chapter is an analysis of black officers' perception of career satisfaction. These perceptions are in response to Question #13 "I have enjoyed my service in the Army and plan on making it a career." This question formed the basis for comparison on the survey: those officers who had a positive perception of the Army as a career and those who had a negative perception. The response "No Opinion" was considered a negative response for comparison purposes.

The analysis will address statistically significant differences in responses to demographic and perception questions. The response rates for Question #13 are shown by gender, by frequency of response, and percentages of responses.

TABLE 31

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF BLACK OFFICERS RESPONDING TO QUESTION THIRTEEN

| | SD | D | NO | A | SA | TOT |
|----------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 13.(ALL) | 10 | 16 | 59 | 128 | 132 | 345 |
| | 3% | 5% | 17% | 37% | 38% | |
| POSITIVE | 0 | 0 | 0 | 128 | 132 | 260 |
| % | 0% | 0% | 0% | 49% | 51% | |
| NEGATIVE | 10 | 16 | 59 | 0 | 0 | 85 |
| % | 12% | 19% | 69% | 0% | 0% | |

TABLE 32

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF BLACK MALE OFFICERS RESPONDING TO QUESTION THIRTEEN

| | | | | | | | |
|-----------|----|-----|-----|-----|-----|----|-----|
| 13.(MALE) | 5 | 10 | 46 | 103 | 119 | 0 | 283 |
| % | 2% | 4% | 16% | 36% | 42% | 0% | |
| POSITIVE | 0 | 0 | 0 | 103 | 119 | 0 | 222 |
| % | 0% | 0% | 0% | 46% | 54% | 0% | |
| NEGATIVE | 5 | 10 | 46 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 61 |
| % | 8% | 16% | 75% | 0% | 0% | 0% | |

TABLE 33

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF BLACK FEMALE OFFICERS
RESPONDING TO QUESTION THIRTEEN

| | | | | | | | |
|-------------|----|-----|-----|-----|-----|----|----|
| 13.(FEMALE) | 5 | 6 | 13 | 25 | 13 | 0 | 62 |
| % | 8% | 10% | 21% | 40% | 21% | 0% | |
| POSITIVE | 0 | 0 | 0 | 25 | 13 | 0 | 38 |
| % | 0% | 0% | 0% | 66% | 34% | 0% | |
| NEGATIVE | 5 | 6 | 13 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 24 |
| % | 1% | 25% | 54% | 0% | 0% | 0% | |

Table 31 depicts all of the respondents responses to Question #13. There were 260 positive responses which represented 75 percent of respondents, and 85 negative responses for 25 percent of respondents. Table 32 shows the number of black male officer respondents and their responses to Question #13. There were 222 positive responses for a 78 percentile compared to 61 negative responses for 22 percent. Table 33 is the total female officer respondents. There were 38 female officers positive responses for a 61 percent rate, compared to 24 negative responses for a 39 percent rate.

The overall positive response rate was 75 percent, however male officers responded with a 78 percent positive perception, with female officer positive perception at 61 percent.

A cross tabulation was conducted with each demographic and perception question to assess statistical significance beyond the .05 level in order to find significant differences in the "positive" versus "negative" populations when compared against the frequency of response for the total population. The areas that showed significance beyond the .05 level are shown and discussed below.

TABLE 34

AFCS YEARS - ALL BLACK OFFICERS

| | 0-3 | | 4-6 | | 7-10 | | 11-14 | | over 14 | | |
|-----|-----|---|-----|----|------|----|-------|----|---------|----|-----|
| | O | E | O | E | O | E | O | E | O | E | |
| POS | 5 | 8 | 65 | 82 | 58 | 61 | 74 | 63 | 58 | 47 | 260 |
| NEG | 5 | 2 | 44 | 27 | 23 | 20 | 9 | 20 | 4 | 15 | 85 |
| | 10 | | 109 | | 81 | | 83 | | 62 | | 345 |

df = 4 $\chi^2 = 38.15$ $.05 > 9.49$

Table 34 shows a statistically significant difference in number of years of active federal commissioned service (AFCS) between the positive officers and the negative officers. The officers with a positive career perception are within the expected values of their responses. The Chi square value is a result of the high percentage of officers with a negative perception in the 4-6 year range. The data suggests these officers have had limited experience in the Army, and the experience they have had may have been negative. This data was similar for both males and females, but showed no statistical significance when cross-tabulated with any other demographic information.

TABLE 35

COMMAND - ALL BLACK OFFICERS

| | | YES | | NO | |
|--------|--|------------------|-----|------------|-----|
| ===== | | ===== | | ===== | |
| | | O | E | O | E |
| ===== | | ===== | | ===== | |
| POS | | 182 | 161 | 78 | 99 |
| | | 260 | | | |
| ===== | | ===== | | ===== | |
| NEG | | 32 | 53 | 53 | 32 |
| | | 85 | | | |
| ===== | | ===== | | ===== | |
| | | 214 | | 131 | |
| | | | | | 345 |
| df = 1 | | $\chi^2 = 28.46$ | | .05 > 3.84 | |

Table 35 shows the black officer response to the question of command experience. The Chi square value is statistically significant in the positive officers' "No" answer, and both the negative officers' answers. This suggests that the experience of command is an important factor in the positive perception of an officer's Army career, and that the lack of command is a detractor. The statistical significance of the command experience was almost the same for males, females, and for the different branches of service. This also adds weight to the analysis of Table 34. The majority of officers with a negative perception of the Army had 4-6 years service, and that is usually not enough time to have had a command.

TABLE 36

AFRICAN-AMERICAN AS RATER OR SENIOR RATER

ALL BLACKS AND MALE OFFICERS

| | | YES | | NO | |
|--------|--|------------|-----|------------|-----|
| ===== | | ===== | | ===== | |
| | | O | E | | O |
| | | | | | E |
| ===== | | ===== | | ===== | |
| POS | | 141 | 130 | | 119 |
| | | | | | 130 |
| | | | | | 260 |
| ===== | | ===== | | ===== | |
| NEG | | 31 | 42 | | 54 |
| | | | | | 43 |
| | | | | | 85 |
| ===== | | ===== | | ===== | |
| | | 172 | | 173 | 345 |
| df = 1 | | x2 = 8.082 | | .05 > 3.84 | |

Table 36 shows the responses of black officers to the question of ever having another black officer in their rating chain, as either the rater or the senior rater. The statistically significant number seems to be the responses of the negative officers. This was true for all black officers combined and for males. Their poor perception of the Army may be a result of not having a mentor of the same ethnic group, or having a senior black officer in their rating scheme. In his thesis "Mentoring: Its Effect on Black Officers' Career Progression Within the Army," James Mason concludes that the presence of a mentor in an officer's career is very important, but he attributes moderate significance to the mentor being of the same ethnic group.³³ His sample group was made up of senior officers who did not have the luxury of being exposed to senior black officers during their careers. Although the number of black senior

officers has increased it still remains small, especially among black males. In fact a young black officer has little chance of having a black officer in his rating scheme. Many young black officers have the expectation of mentoring from senior black officers. When that expectation is not met then that officer will express dissatisfaction with the Army. The percentage of senior black officers is shown in Table 37.

TABLE 37

BLACK SENIOR OFFICERS FY 91

| <u>RANK</u> | <u>MALE</u> | <u>FEMALE</u> | <u>TOTAL</u> |
|-------------|-------------|---------------|--------------|
| GENERAL | 6.2% | 66.7% | 6.6% |
| COLONEL | 4.5% | 10.4% | 4.6% |
| LT COL | 5.1% | 9.0% | 5.4% |
| MAJOR | 9.0% | 13.0% | 9.4% |
| TOTAL | 7.1% | 11.8% | 7.1% |

TABLE 38

OFFICER HAS RATED ANOTHER BLACK OFFICER

ALL BLACK OFFICERS

| | YES | NO | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| ===== | ===== | ===== | ===== |
| | O | O | E |
| ===== | ===== | ===== | ===== |
| POS | 122 | 110 | 138 |
| ===== | ===== | ===== | ===== |
| NEG | 24 | 36 | 61 |
| ===== | ===== | ===== | ===== |
| | 146 | 199 | 345 |

df = 1 x2 = 9.164 .05 > 3.84

Table 38 shows the responses to the question of ever having rated another black officer. The statistical significance was the same for the combined officer responses, male, and female. The observed value for the negative officer "NO" response is significantly higher than the expected value and caused this question to be statistically significant. The data indicates that this may be a combination of several factors: lack of command, and limited years on active duty. Officers rarely rate other officers during the 4-6 years in their career. This may not be an indication of dissatisfaction. However it does help to create the picture of the black officer who has a negative perception of the Army.

TABLE 39

PERCEPTION QUESTION #8 - ALL BLACK OFFICERS

| | Strongly Disagree | | Disagree | | No Opinion | | Agree | | Strongly Agree | | |
|-----|-------------------|---|----------|----|------------|----|-------|-----|----------------|----|-----|
| | O | E | O | E | O | E | O | E | O | E | |
| POS | 6 | 8 | 34 | 29 | 27 | 34 | 117 | 112 | 76 | 80 | 260 |
| NEG | 1 | 2 | 5 | 10 | 18 | 11 | 31 | 36 | 30 | 26 | 85 |
| | 7 | | 39 | | 45 | | 148 | | 106 | | 345 |

df = 4 $\chi^2 = 10.90$ $.05 > 9.49$

Table 39 is the only perception question that had any statistical significance. All perception questions were cross-tabulated to determine statistical significance for combined responses, male responses, or female responses. This question is significant for each category of respondent

who expressed a negative career perception of the Army. The perception question was "African-American officers perform as well as white officers but do not receive the same recognition." The officers with both a positive and negative career perception felt very strongly about this question. Significantly enough to suggest this may be the central issue in causing the perceived dissatisfaction among the spectrum of black officers. The Chi square value indicates it is marginally significant, but it was more significant than other perception questions. The significance is in the "No Opinion" answer by officers with a negative career perception. In fact the officers with a positive perception of the Army expressed a 74 percent "Agree" or "Strongly Agree" percentile compared to 72 percent for the officers with the negative perception. This may indicate a perception among the majority of black officers regardless of career aspirations.

Discussion

The clear majority of black officers expressed a positive perception of their career in the army. The statistically significant questions may not be an indicator of reasons for either a positive or negative perception of an officer's, but may develop a statistically sound profile of officers who have a greater propensity for a negative perception of the Army.

The officers with a negative career perception were not of any particular gender, although female officers responded with the highest negative response rate of 61 percent. These officers had between 4-6 years of active federal commissioned service, and had not experienced

command. The profile also contains little experience with black officers up or down in the rating scheme, as well as a perception of less recognition for comparable performance with a white peer.

These are the significantly different responses to the survey questions when cross-tabulated with negative and positive career responses in a nonparametric Chi square two-way classification and analysis.

The survey showed that 78 percent of black male officers, of all branches, who responded to the survey, have a positive perception of their careers in the Army. This does not mean that they do not perceive problems in the Army, but they accept the problems as a part of being in the Army and cope with them on an individual or institutional level.

This means that the Army has a significant number of black male officers who can help encourage young black males into making the Army a career. These officers can help dispel false perceptions of the Army by getting out and talking to high school and college students, becoming more visible in the community and offering themselves as role models for young black males. The impact of this will help the Army maintain, if not increase, its present level of black male officers, and to continue to attract the high quality black males the Army requires to become officers and to lead soldiers.

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8. deLone, 17.

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12. deLone, 102.

13. Roosevelt Greer, "Black Colleges as a Major Source of Black Officers in the Armed Forces," (Research Study: Industrial College of the Armed Forces, 1986), 34.

14. Pat Wingert, "Fewer Blacks on Campus," Newsweek (January 29, 1990), 75.

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17. Wingert, 75.

18. Edelman, 312.
19. Ronald A. Taylor, "Why Fewer Blacks are Graduating," U.S. News and World Report (June 8, 1987), 75.
20. Greer, 8.
21. Greer, 33.
22. Economist (March 21, 1987), 32.
23. Taylor, 76.
24. Greer, pg.4 Executive Summary.
25. Remarks made by Major General Wallace Arnold, Commanding General U.S. Army Cadet Command, to officers at Fort Leavenworth on 16 and 17 February 1991.
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31. The New Republic, 6.
32. John Naismith and Patricia Aburdene, MEGATRENDS 2000 (New York: Avion, 1990), 1.
33. E. James Mason, "Mentoring: Its Effect On Black Officers' Career Progression Within the U.S. Army," (MMAS Thesis: Fort Leavenworth, 1989), 92, 95.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to analyze the impact of selected socioeconomic factors on the 18-24 black male age group in the year 2010, determine if there is a valid problem, determine its impact on the officer corps in the U.S. Army, and discuss possible solutions.

The specific subordinate questions were:

1. How do the selected demographic trends impact on the available pool of black males in the 18-24 age group?
2. What are the changes in selected demographic trends from 1960 to 1990?
3. What is significant when determining the impact of specific socioeconomic factors?
4. What are the current perceptions of black officers and how will that affect the future of black officers in the Army?

This study required several research and analysis methodologies: library and periodical research, compilation and projection of data using multivariate linear regression models, development and distribution of an original survey instrument, an interview, the application of diverse data to the problem, and a Chi square analysis of the survey results.

The linear regression models were used as a tool to graphically depict the diverse socioeconomic factors involved in the research. Using these models helped determine which factors were significant and which ones were not as significant in their effect on black males.

The results of the research indicated that of all the socioeconomic factors considered, six were the most important: projected population, crime and prisons, families, income, education, and the planned reduction of forces in the U.S. Army. These factors became the focus of this study.

In addition, a survey was conducted of a selected population of black officers to determine their perceptions of the Army as a career. The results of the survey were analyzed to provide information on the officers with negative or positive perceptions, and then determine how those results would effect the qualified pool of 18-24 year old black males. A nonparametric Chi square two-way classification was used to determine if there were any questions that were statistically significant enough to create a profile of officers with positive career perceptions versus black officers with negative career perceptions.

The survey was administered to selected populations that were evaluated as representative of the black officer population. The selected populations were the students attending the Command and General Staff Officers Course, students in the Combined Arms Services Staff School, students in various Training and Doctrine Command branch service school advanced courses, a group of senior black officers at the Pentagon, and black officers stationed at Fort Leavenworth. A total of 825 surveys were sent, 345 officers responded.

CONCLUSIONS

Socioeconomic Trends

The actual number of qualified 18-24 year old black males will become larger. The population of black males will increase as a percentage of the overall population from a current 13.7 to 15.1 in 2010. The number of black males in this age group will also increase from a current 1.8 million to a projected total of 2.1 million in 2010. Consequently, any increase in the percentage of qualified males will cause the actual number to increase and will also create a larger share of the total pool of qualified males by virtue of the increased percentage of black males to the total male 18-24 population.

The final analysis did not produce one number to be applied to black males, but a range of percentages based on the cumulative effects of the selected socioeconomic factors. In 1990 the range was between a low of 14.1 percent and a high of 16.3 percent, with a mean of 15.2 percent. In 2010 range will be wider, with a low of 13.3 percent to a high of 17.8 percent, the mean is 15.6 percent. These numbers represent black males who score 850 or better on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), are enrolled in two-year institutions, or attending four-year schools. Over 50 percent of blacks enrolled in white schools are in two-year institutions, and two-thirds of black males enrolled in college, in any given year, are attending a two-year school. The conclusion is that two-year institutions can contribute the largest number of qualified black males of the two types of schools.

These numbers could fluctuate between the high and low numbers in

each range depending on the economic climate in 2010 and the validity of the socioeconomic projections made by the Census Bureau and the researcher. These figures show a 0.4 percent increase using the mean percentiles and represents an increase of 8,256 black males in the 18-24 year old qualified pool based on the 2010 projected population.

"Army Officers, All Grades" Survey Conclusions

The survey of "Army Officers, All Grades" provided information on the perceptions of black officers of the racial environment in the Army.

The results were that 75 percent of all black officers expressed satisfaction with their careers in the Army. The percentage was 78 percent for males and 61 percent for females. There were five questions out of a possible 26 that showed any statistical significance when cross-tabulated with those officers who responded with a positive or negative career perception:

1. Number of years of active commissioned service.
2. Have you commanded?
3. Have you ever been rated or senior-rated by an African-American officer?
4. Have you ever rated or senior rated an African-American officer?
5. African-American officers perform as well as white officers but do not receive the same recognition.

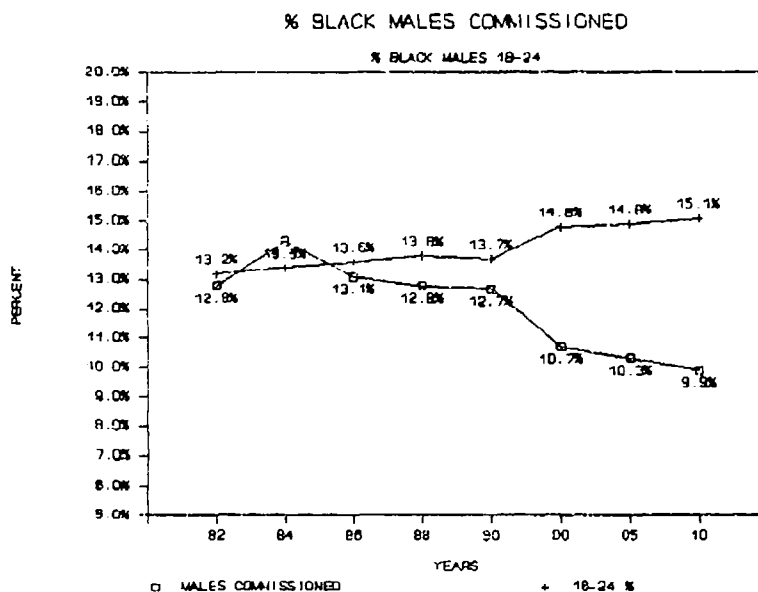
The first four question were demographic questions, the last one a perception question. The Chi square analysis showed that the young, inexperienced, non-commander, who has not had a black officer in his

rating scheme is the most likely to express dissatisfaction with his career than those who don't meet this profile. This profile was consistent among male and female officers as well as among combat arms, combat support, and combat service support branches.

Impact On the U.S. Army Officer Corps

The increase in the qualified pool of 18-24 year old black males will allow the Army to maintain its current level of black male officers. However, the black male percentage of the U.S. Army officer corps will decrease as a result of the impact of the impending force reduction on Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC) programs at Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs). The reduction will cause a 5 percent annual loss of black officers. Table 40 illustrates this trend.

Table 40 BLACK MALE OFFICER PRODUCTION



The cause of this trend is the declining production of black male officers from the HECUs. Their drop in production of 19.5 percent is a result of the loss of The Early Commissioning Program and a decline in overall production. A positive factor in the decline is the consistent seven percent commissioning rate of black males by the United States Military Academy (USMA). The Military Academy graduates 70 percent of its black male cadets. USMA could be a source of additional black male officers if a greater percentage were appointed to each class.

This decline of commissioned black males will cause a ripple effect in the Army for the next twenty years and ensure that the percentage of black male officers on active duty in 2010 is significantly lower than the percentage of black males in the 18-24 age group.

The positive career perception of 78 percent of the black male officers surveyed gives the Army a resource to help encourage young, highly qualified black males to become U.S. Army officers. The results of the survey demonstrate that young black males have a strong need to identify with black male role models and mentors. The use of black male officers to help recruit black males would increase the percentage of black males becoming Army officers.

The population of qualified 18-24 year old black males will increase in 2010. This will give the Army a greater opportunity to recruit, train, and commission a representative percentage of those qualified black males.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are made on the basis of this study:

1. That the U.S. Army conduct a study on the long range demographic patterns of 18-24 year old black males and make an official assessment of the continued accession of young black males as Army officers.

2. That the Army allow a limited reinstatement of the Early Commissioning Program to increase the percentage of black males commissioned annually for the next five years through Fiscal Year 96.

3. That the Army maintain the present level of utilization of the Enhanced Skills Training Program, increase funding to allow an additional 25 scholarships annually for the Green to Gold Quality Enrichment Program, and maintain current levels of funding for the Quality Enrichment Scholarship Program. These measures would help increase overall production.

4. That the Army increase minority recruitment efforts at two-year institutions, and offer additional two-year scholarships for minority students. The two-year institution may be the largest untapped resource for qualified black males and the Army needs to increase its efforts in that area.

5. That the Army develop community-action programs to help encourage minority students to make the Army a career. The high rate of satisfaction among black officers is a resource that can be used to benefit the Army. Encourage black officers to work with high school and college students to help attract high quality black males.

6. That the Army continue to encourage black male attendance at the United States Military Academy through aggressive recruiting aimed at the best of young black males, similar to the Outreach Program now in existence, but with the objective to raise the percentage not just remain at the current level of seven percent.

Recommendations for Further Research

1. The effects of racism in the Army need to be studied. The survey results reveal it is still perceived as a problem by the majority of black officers.

2. The continued impact of the Army's reduction in forces on the percentage of black male officers.

3. The development of senior black officers within the Army at the battalion commander level and above.

4. A replicate study on the increased accession of hispanic officers.

5. The perceptions of white officers through the administration of the "Army Officers, All Grades" survey, and a comparison of perceptions of the racial environment in the Army.

6. The benefit of establishing additional Junior Reserve Officer Training Corps (JROTC) programs in inner-city, predominantly black high schools with the objective to teach fundamental Army values, to encourage young black males to excel academically, and to encourage them to become Army officers. This could be enhanced by additional ROTC scholarships that would have JROTC participants as their first consideration.

These recommendations reflect subjects that were ancillary to this study and outside of the research, but seemed to be important and of value to the Army.

The significance of this study was to determine if the U.S. Army had a pool of qualified black males to choose from in the U.S. population in the year 2010. The increase in the pool of qualified black males in the 18-24 age group ensures the Army will continue to have a steady influx of black male officers and has a representative number of black males to lead its troops at all levels.

The United States Army needs to continue research into the effects of socioeconomic factors on black males to ensure that it will not find itself devoid of black male leadership in the year 2010.

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APPENDIX A

SUBJECT: Survey of Army Officers, All Grades

PURPOSE: This survey will provide statistical information for a research project being conducted by MAJ Pittard, CGSC. This research project will provide the foundation for a masters thesis focusing on the future of the African-American Officer in the U.S. Army in the 21st Century. In addition to the information gathered through the survey the paper will include a historical perspective of African-American Officers, DA statistics on the status of African-American Officers today, and explore the socio-economic trends in today's society as well as other factors that may have an impact on the future of African-American Officers in the U.S. Army.

SCOPE: Army Officers on active duty during statistical data time frame Jan 90 - Dec 90.

SURVEY QUESTIONS

Please circle one answer per question. The first 14 questions will establish a demographic statistical base, the following 13 questions will provide information on your perceptions of your experiences in the Army. The results of the survey are anonymous and will be kept confidential as part of the research project.

1. Number of years of active commissioned service.
A. 0-3 B. 4-6 C. 7-10 D. 11-14 E. over 14
2. Rank at this time.
A. 2LT/1LT B. CPT C. MAJ D. LTC E. COL or above
3. Branch of service.
A. Combat Arms B. Combat Support C. Combat Service Support
4. Highest completed level of education.
A. AA Degree C. Masters Degree
B. Bachelors Degree D. Doctorate or Professional Degree
5. Source of Commission.
A. USMA B. ROTC C. OCS D. Direct
6. Have you commanded?
A. Yes B. No

SURVEY OF ARMY OFFICERS, ALL GRADES (cont'd)

7. If so, what is the level of your most recent command?

- A. Company-level C. Brigade-level
- B. Battalion-level D. Division-level or higher

8. Have you ever been rated or senior rated by an African-American?

- A. Yes B. No

9. Have you ever rated or senior rated an African-American Officer?

- A. Yes B. No

10. Your gender.

- A. Male B. Female

11. Your racial/ethnic group.

- A. African-American C. Hispanic
- B. White American D. Other

12. Your age.

- A. 25 and below B. 26-30 C. 31-34 D. 35-40 E. over 40

13. What area of the country do you call home?

- A. Northeast C. Southwest E. Northwest
- B. South/Southeast D. Midwest F. West

14. Racial makeup of the college or university you attended.

- A. Predominantly African-American
- B. Predominantly White
- C. Balanced mixture

SURVEY OF ARMY OFFICERS, ALL GRADES (cont'd)

The next 13 questions will help characterize your perceptions of your experiences in the Army. Answer each question using the scale provided.

| | | | | |
|----------------------|----------|---------------|-------|-------------------|
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | No Opinion | Agree | Strongly Agree |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

1. African-American officers are as well prepared as white officers for commissioned service upon entry into the U.S. Army.

A. 1 B. 2 C. 3 D. 4 E. 5

2. It is the responsibility of senior African-American officers to help train junior African-American officers.

A. 1 B. 2 C. 3 D. 4 E. 5

3. It is the responsibility of junior African-American officers to seek out the advice and counsel of senior African-American officers.

A. 1 B. 2 C. 3 D. 4 E. 5

4. African-American officers are judged by the same standards as white officers.

A. 1 B. 2 C. 3 D. 4 E. 5

5. African-American officers from Historical Black Colleges (HBC) are perceived to have poorly developed communication and comprehension skills.

A. 1 B. 2 C. 3 D. 4 E. 5

6. The Officer Evaluation Report (OER) is used as a tool to covertly implement racially biased attitudes of individual raters and senior raters.

A. 1 B. 2 C. 3 D. 4 E. 5

7. African-American officers have the same opportunity to succeed as white officers.

A. 1 B. 2 C. 3 D. 4 E. 5

SURVEY OF ARMY OFFICERS, ALL GRADES

8. African-American officers perform as well as white officers but do not receive the same recognition.

A. 1 B. 2 C. 3 D. 4 E. 5

9. African-American female officers have the same opportunity for advancement as their white counterparts.

A. 1 B. 2 C. 3 D. 4 E. 5

10. There is a disproportionally high number of African-American officers in the CS/CSS branches compared to the combat arms branches.

A. 1 B. 2 C. 3 D. 4 E. 5

11. African-American officers tend to be given HHCs to command rather than line units.

A. 1 B. 2 C. 3 D. 4 E. 5

12. General Colin Powell's appointment as CJCS will have a positive impact on the opportunities of African-American officers for future advancement.

A. 1 B. 2 C. 3 D. 4 E. 5

13. I have enjoyed my service in the Army and plan on making it a career.

A. 1 B. 2 C. 3 D. 4 E. 5

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

Summary of Combined Black Officer Responses

1. Number of years active commissioned service.

| | |
|------------|----|
| A. 0-3 | 3% |
| B. 4-6 | 32 |
| C. 7-10 | 23 |
| D. 11-14 | 24 |
| E. over 14 | 18 |

2. Rank at this time.

| | |
|-----------------|-----|
| A. 2LT/1LT | 13% |
| B. CPT | 54 |
| C. MAJ | 26 |
| D. LTC | 6 |
| E. COL or above | 1 |

3. Branch of service.

| | |
|---------------------------|-----|
| A. Combat Arms | 34% |
| B. Combat Support | 30 |
| C. Combat Service Support | 36 |

4. Highest completed level of education.

| | |
|-------------------------------------|----|
| A. AA Degree | 1% |
| B. Bachelors Degree | 68 |
| C. Masters Degree | 30 |
| D. Doctorate of Professional Degree | 1 |

5. Source of Commission.

| | |
|-----------|----|
| A. USMA | 7% |
| B. ROTC | 76 |
| C. OCS | 11 |
| D. Direct | 6 |

6. Have you commanded?

| | |
|--------|-----|
| A. Yes | 62% |
| B. No | 38 |

7. If so, what is the level of your most recent command?

| | |
|-----------------------------|-----|
| A. Company-level | 94% |
| B. Battalion-level | 5 |
| C. Brigade-level | 1 |
| D. Division-level or higher | 0 |

8. Have you ever been rated or senior rated by an African-American?

| | |
|--------|-----|
| A. Yes | 50% |
| B. No | 50 |

9. Have you ever rated or senior rated an African-American Officer?

| | |
|--------|-----|
| A. Yes | 42% |
| B. No | 58 |

10. Your gender.

| | |
|-----------|-----|
| A. Male | 82% |
| B. Female | 18 |

11. Your racial/ethnic group.

| | |
|---------------------|------|
| A. African-American | 100% |
| B. White American | |
| C. Hispanic | |
| D. Other | |

12. Your age.

| | |
|-----------------|----|
| A. 25 and below | 2% |
| B. 26-30 | 32 |
| C. 31-34 | 35 |
| D. 35-40 | 23 |
| E. over 40 | 10 |

13. What area of the country do you call home?

| | |
|--------------------|-----|
| A. Northeast | 21% |
| B. South/Southeast | 63 |
| C. Southwest | 5 |
| D. Midwest | 8 |
| E. Northwest | 1 |
| F. West | 1 |

14. Racial makeup of the college or university you attended.

| | |
|-----------------------------------|-----|
| A. Predominantly African-American | 50% |
| B. Predominantly White | 45 |
| C. Balanced Mixture | 5 |

Total number of respondents was 345

To help characterize your perceptions of your experiences in the Army answer each question below using the following scale:

- A. 1 Strongly Disagree
- B. 2 Disagree
- C. 3 No Opinion
- D. 4 Agree
- E. 5 Strongly Agree

| | A | B | C | D | E |
|---|----|-----|----|-----|-----|
| 1. African-American officers are as well prepared as white officers for commissioned service upon entry into the U.S. Army. | 1% | 22% | 5% | 45% | 27% |
| 2. It is the responsibility of senior African-American officers to help train junior African-American officers. | 5 | 11 | 11 | 35 | 38 |
| 3. It is the responsibility of junior African-American officers to seek out the advice and counsel of senior African-American officers. | 3 | 6 | 9 | 43 | 39 |
| 4. African-American officers are judged by the same standards as white officers. | 27 | 40 | 13 | 16 | 4 |
| 5. African-American officers from Historically Black Colleges (HBC) are <u>perceived</u> to have poorly developed communication and comprehension skills. | 6 | 17 | 21 | 40 | 16 |
| 6. The Officer Evaluation Report (OER) is used as a tool to covertly implement racially biased attitudes of individual raters and senior raters. | 6 | 23 | 31 | 30 | 11 |
| 7. African-American officers have the same opportunity to succeed as white officers. | 13 | 44 | 10 | 28 | 6 |
| 8. African-American officers perform as well as white officers but do not receive the same recognition. | 2 | 11 | 13 | 43 | 31 |
| 9. African-American female officers have the same opportunity for advancement as their white counterparts. | 17 | 37 | 22 | 20 | 4 |

| | | | | | |
|--|---|----|----|----|----|
| 10. There is a disproportionally high number of African-American officers in the CS/CSS branches compared to the combat arms branches. | 3 | 12 | 46 | 26 | 13 |
| 11. African-American officers tend to be given MHCs to command rather than line units. | 3 | 19 | 41 | 23 | 14 |
| 12. General Colin Powell's appointment as CJCS will have a positive impact on the opportunities of African-American officers for future advancement. | 7 | 15 | 20 | 32 | 26 |
| 13. I have enjoyed my service in the Army and plan on making it a career. | 3 | 5 | 17 | 37 | 38 |

Total number of respondents was 345

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

Summary of Black Male Officer Responses

1. Number of years active commissioned service.

| | |
|------------|----|
| A. 0-3 | 3% |
| B. 4-6 | 31 |
| C. 7-10 | 23 |
| D. 11-14 | 23 |
| E. over 14 | 20 |

2. Rank at this time.

| | |
|-----------------|-----|
| A. 2LT/1LT | 11% |
| B. CPT | 54 |
| C. MAJ | 27 |
| D. LTC | 6 |
| E. COL or above | 2 |

3. Branch of service.

| | |
|---------------------------|-----|
| A. Combat Arms | 41% |
| B. Combat Support | 32 |
| C. Combat Service Support | 27 |

4. Highest completed level of education.

| | |
|-------------------------------------|----|
| A. AA Degree | 1% |
| B. Bachelors Degree | 70 |
| C. Masters Degree | 28 |
| D. Doctorate of Professional Degree | 1 |

5. Source of Commission.

| | |
|-----------|----|
| A. USMA | 8% |
| B. ROTC | 77 |
| C. OCS | 12 |
| D. Direct | 2 |

6. Have you commanded?

| | |
|--------|-----|
| A. Yes | 65% |
| B. No | 35 |

7. If so, what is the level of your most recent command?

| | |
|-----------------------------|-----|
| A. Company-level | 93% |
| B. Battalion-level | 6 |
| C. Brigade-level | 1 |
| D. Division-level or higher | 0 |

8. Have you ever been rated or senior rated by an African-American?

| | |
|--------|-----|
| A. Yes | 49% |
| B. No | 51 |

9. Have you ever rated or senior rated an African-American Officer?

| | |
|--------|-----|
| A. Yes | 45% |
| B. No | 55 |

10. Your gender.

| | |
|-----------|------|
| A. Male | 100% |
| B. Female | |

11. Your racial/ethnic group.

| | |
|---------------------|------|
| A. African-American | 100% |
| B. White American | |
| C. Hispanic | |
| D. Other | |

12. Your age.

| | |
|-----------------|----|
| A. 25 and below | 2% |
| B. 26-30 | 30 |
| C. 31-34 | 32 |
| D. 35-40 | 25 |
| E. over 40 | 11 |

13. What area of the country do you call home?

| | |
|--------------------|-----|
| A. Northeast | 20% |
| B. South/Southeast | 63 |
| C. Southwest | 6 |
| D. Midwest | 9 |
| E. Northwest | 1 |
| F. West | 1 |

14. Racial makeup of the college or university you attended.

| | |
|-----------------------------------|-----|
| A. Predominantly African-American | 50% |
| B. Predominantly White | 46 |
| C. Balanced Mixture | 4 |

Total number of respondents was 283

To help characterize your perceptions of your experiences in the Army answer each question below using the following scale:

- A. 1 Strongly Disagree
- B. 2 Disagree
- C. 3 No Opinion
- D. 4 Agree
- E. 5 Strongly Agree

| | A | B | C | D | E |
|---|----|-----|----|-----|-----|
| 1. African-American officers are as well prepared as white officers for commissioned service upon entry into the U.S. Army. | 1% | 22% | 5% | 46% | 27% |
| 2. It is the responsibility of senior African-American officers to help train junior African-American officers. | 5 | 11 | 11 | 37 | 35 |
| 3. It is the responsibility of junior African-American officers to seek out the advice and counsel of senior African-American officers. | 3 | 5 | 9 | 45 | 35 |
| 4. African-American officers are judged by the same standards as white officers. | 27 | 38 | 15 | 17 | 4 |
| 5. African-American officers from Historically Black Colleges (HBC) are <u>perceived</u> to have poorly developed communication and comprehension skills. | 6 | 16 | 22 | 40 | 16 |
| 6. The Officer Evaluation Report (OER) is used as a tool to covertly implement racially biased attitudes of individual raters and senior raters. | 5 | 20 | 33 | 31 | 11 |
| 7. African-American officers have the same opportunity to succeed as white officers. | 14 | 43 | 11 | 28 | 5 |
| 8. African-American officers perform as well as white officers but do not receive the same recognition. | 2 | 12 | 13 | 44 | 29 |
| 9. African-American female officers have the same opportunity for advancement as their white counterparts. | 16 | 37 | 25 | 19 | 4 |

| | | | | | |
|--|---|----|----|----|----|
| 10. There is a disproportionately high number of African-American officers in the C3/CSS branches compared to the combat arms branches. | 3 | 12 | 46 | 26 | 13 |
| 11. African-American officers tend to be given HHCs to command rather than line units. | 2 | 19 | 39 | 23 | 17 |
| 12. General Colin Powell's appointment as CJCS will have a positive impact on the opportunities of African-American officers for future advancement. | 7 | 14 | 21 | 32 | 25 |
| 13. I have enjoyed my service in the Army and plan on making it a career. | 2 | 4 | 16 | 36 | 42 |

Total number of respondents was 283

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D

Summary of Black Female Officer Responses

1. Number of years active commissioned service.

| | |
|------------|----|
| A. 0-3 | 3% |
| B. 4-6 | 35 |
| C. 7-10 | 24 |
| D. 11-14 | 29 |
| E. over 14 | 8 |

2. Rank at this time.

| | |
|-----------------|-----|
| A. 2LT/1LT | 19% |
| B. CPT | 52 |
| C. MAJ | 23 |
| D. LTC | 6 |
| E. COL or above | 0 |

3. Branch of service.

| | |
|---------------------------|----|
| A. Combat Arms | 2% |
| B. Combat Support | 21 |
| C. Combat Service Support | 77 |

4. Highest completed level of education.

| | |
|-------------------------------------|----|
| A. AA Degree | 0% |
| B. Bachelors Degree | 58 |
| C. Masters Degree | 39 |
| D. Doctorate of Professional Degree | 3 |

5. Source of Commission.

| | |
|-----------|----|
| A. USMA | 1% |
| B. ROTC | 71 |
| C. OCS | 10 |
| D. Direct | 18 |

6. Have you commanded?

| | |
|--------|-----|
| A. Yes | 48% |
| B. No | 52 |

7. If so, what is the level of your most recent command?

| | |
|-----------------------------|------|
| A. Company-level | 100% |
| B. Battalion-level | |
| C. Brigade-level | |
| D. Division-level or higher | |

8. Have you ever been rated or senior rated by an African-American?

| | |
|--------|-----|
| A. Yes | 53% |
| B. No | 47 |

9. Have you ever rated or senior rated an African-American Officer?

| | |
|--------|-----|
| A. Yes | 32% |
| B. No | 68 |

10. Your gender.

| | |
|-----------|------|
| A. Male | |
| B. Female | 100% |

11. Your racial/ethnic group.

| | |
|---------------------|------|
| A. African-American | 100% |
| B. White American | |
| C. Hispanic | |
| D. Other | |

12. Your age.

| | |
|-----------------|----|
| A. 25 and below | 0% |
| B. 26-30 | 44 |
| C. 31-34 | 31 |
| D. 35-40 | 18 |
| E. over 40 | 7 |

13. What area of the country do you call home?

| | |
|--------------------|-----|
| A. Northeast | 26% |
| B. South/Southeast | 66 |
| C. Southwest | 0 |
| D. Midwest | 6 |
| E. Northwest | 2 |
| F. West | 0 |

14. Racial makeup of the college or university you attended.

| | |
|-----------------------------------|-----|
| A. Predominantly African-American | 53% |
| B. Predominantly White | 42 |
| C. Balanced Mixture | 5 |

Total number of respondents was 62

To help characterize your perceptions of your experiences in the Army answer each question below using the following scale:

- A. 1 Strongly Disagree
- B. 2 Disagree
- C. 3 No Opinion
- D. 4 Agree
- E. 5 Strongly Agree

| | A | B | C | D | E |
|---|----|-----|----|-----|-----|
| 1. African-American officers are as well prepared as white officers for commissioned service upon entry into the U.S. Army. | 1% | 24% | 6% | 40% | 27% |
| 2. It is the responsibility of senior African-American officers to help train junior African-American officers. | 5 | 10 | 8 | 29 | 48 |
| 3. It is the responsibility of junior African-American officers to seek out the advice and counsel of senior African-American officers. | 5 | 11 | 11 | 32 | 40 |
| 4. African-American officers are judged by the same standards as white officers. | 29 | 50 | 6 | 11 | 3 |
| 5. African-American officers from Historically Black Colleges (HBC) are <u>perceived</u> to have poorly developed communication and comprehension skills. | 5 | 18 | 21 | 40 | 16 |
| 6. The Officer Evaluation Report (OER) is used as a tool to covertly implement racially biased attitudes of individual raters and senior raters. | 8 | 34 | 26 | 24 | 8 |
| 7. African-American officers have the same opportunity to succeed as white officers. | 11 | 48 | 5 | 24 | 11 |
| 8. African-American officers perform as well as white officers but do not receive the same recognition. | 2 | 10 | 13 | 37 | 39 |
| 9. African-American female officers have the same opportunity for advancement as their white counterparts. | 18 | 40 | 8 | 27 | 6 |

| | | | | | |
|--|---|----|----|----|----|
| 10. There is a disproportionately high number of African-American officers in the CS/CSS branches compared to the combat arms branches. | 5 | 15 | 45 | 26 | 10 |
| 11. African-American officers tend to be given HHCs to command rather than line units. | 8 | 16 | 48 | 23 | 5 |
| 12. General Colin Powell's appointment as CJCS will have a positive impact on the opportunities of African-American officers for future advancement. | 6 | 16 | 16 | 35 | 26 |
| 13. I have enjoyed my service in the Army and plan on making it a career. | 8 | 10 | 21 | 40 | 21 |

Total number of respondents was 62

APPENDIX E

INTERVIEW INSTRUMENT

Colonel Harris
Director of Training
U.S. Army R.O.T.C. Cadet Command
Fort Monroe, VA

February 14, 1991

Dear Sir:

My name is Major Robert C. Pittard and I am currently attending the Command and General Staff Officers Course (CGSOC) at Fort Leavenworth. In addition to the normal CGSOC curriculum I am enrolled in the Master of Military Art and Science (MMAS) program which requires a thesis on any subject that has some significance or relevance to the Army. My thesis subject is the status of African-American males as U.S. Army officers in the year 2010.

My research methodology includes an analysis of current socioeconomic trends and how they will effect African-American males as Army officers in 2010, and a comparative analysis of the status of African-American males in the U.S. Army from 1960 to the present.

I attended the reception held in MG Arnold's honor at the Ft. Leavenworth Officers Club on 14 Feb 91, and spoke to you about my thesis. This is the follow-up letter I promised to give to you. It would help me in my research if you could answer the following questions:

- your opinion on the impact of the anticipated Army drawdown on HBCU production;
- how Cadet Command plans to increase minority participation in ROTC on predominantly white campuses;
- how Cadet Command plans to increase black male participation on both HECU and predominantly white campuses;
- will the Enhanced Skills Training (EST) program continue, and if so how can it be improved and how will it be funded;
- in your opinion, is the issue of a representative black male officer in the Army an important one, if so why?

Colonel Harris, I appreciate any information that you can provide me. I will need to have the information by 8 Mar 91. My address is 2531 22nd Terrace, Leavenworth, KS 66048. My home phone number is (913) 651-2642. Messages during the day can be left at (913) 684-3803. Thank you.

Robert C. Pittard
MAJ, IN
CGSOC, 15B



DEPARTMENT OF THE ARMY
HEADQUARTERS, UNITED STATES ARMY ROTC CADET COMMAND
FORT MONROE, VIRGINIA 23651-5000

25 February 1991

REPLY TO
ATTENTION OF

Major Robert C. Pittard
2531 22d Terrace
Leavenworth, Kansas 66048

Dear Major Pittard:

Received your letter and passed along General Arnold's to him. He read it and indicated he would respond. That means he will and, probably, by the 8th of March; but, he is also being pulled 100 different directions seven long days per week. If it slips a little, please understand.

My view of the questions you asked:

- I do not see the Army's drawdown as having an impact on HBCU production. I worry that other factors, like the market, may affect it, but I know that we in Cadet Command are committed to retaining the HBCU as a viable commissioning source. I honestly believe the Army Leadership recognizes and supports this and I cannot imagine that will change even in the post-Arnold era. Ergo, I see all 20 schools retaining their ROTC programs and the Command has to juggle manpower and other resources to keep them functional.

- After you wrote your letter, you heard General Arnold respond on blacks at predominately-white colleges: "I am turning up the heat on PMS", etc." He is. But, as you probably know, the problem is bigger than Cadet Command. The competition for blacks on these campuses is tremendous. Many are athletes and ROTC becomes "too much." Beyond those, however, everyone wants/needs black representation: the debate club needs blacks; each fraternity needs blacks; the English department needs blacks, etc., etc. The problem is that many of these organizations can and do offer better enticements than we can afford or are allowed. Finally, in my view, most (not all) blacks in predominantly-white colleges come from solid, dual-parent families. You heard the CG talk about parental influence. My hunch is that many of these parents want something "better" for their children than what you and I do for a living. Hopefully, Desert Storm and the omnipresent, effective General Powell is turning that around. (Long answer).

- Black male production is also a problem, both at ABCU and others. Part of it is demographics and go-to-school rates, about which you know as much or more than I. Our approach is generally two-fold: first, apply pressure on our PMS', as the CG mentioned; and, secondly, to continue to tell the story everywhere we can -- like the CG's pitch to

your class and last night he fired up the ROCKS group to work harder. We also 'fence' as many quality enrichment and green-to-gold scholarships as we can afford. But, as you know, we have to be careful in this area so as not to sound like sexists. (Bad answer. Tough problem. We're working it but need to do more).

- EST is alive and well. At this writing, we have re-let 12 of the 20 new 5-year contracts which will carry the program through 1996. The other 8 will be finalized after some i-dotting and t-crossing in the next 3 weeks. The program, so far, is fully funded in the POM at \$3+ million/year with some minor inflationary growth each year. I think it will remain a protected program. We always need to look for improvements, but right now EST is a proven winner. As an example, slightly over 1% of all of our new lieutenants fail OBC every year for a variety of reasons (probably not a bad stat, purely from a management point of view). EST grads, on the other hand, fail only at 1/10 of 1% and in 5 years only 2 have failed for academics. That is an unbelievable stat! I'm reluctant to try and tweak it much, therefore, for the 'baby-bathwater' reason. Nevertheless, all schools with EST continue to initiate good ideas and I think that this decentralized approach is best. (My challenge is to maximize seat fill).

- Finally, I do believe that the black male officer population is an important issue. I believe that our Army has to mirror our society in all races and ethnicities and that we should strive to achieve 'more-or-less' proportioned ratios in both the enlisted and officer forces. I also believe that to the extent possible we should seek to balance this representation among all grades and branches/MOSs. Right now, as you know, we are skewed with our black male officer-to-enlisted representation. So, yes, I think what you are doing is important. I also think that is today's problem and a near-term problem that ought not to wait until 2010; but I am glad someone is at least thinking about the long range.

Rereading this, I am reminded of Abe Lincoln who once wrote: "If I'd had more time, I'd have written a shorter letter."

Best of luck to you on your MMAS thesis and the remainder of your "best year."

Sincerely,



176

KENNETH A. HARRIS
Colonel, GS
Director of Training

APPENDIX F

SAMPLE REQUEST FOR INFORMATION LETTER

Colonel Patrick Toeffler
Director, Office of Institutional Research
U.S. Military Academy
West Point, NY 10996

October 25, 1990

Dear Sir:

My name is Major Robert C. Pittard and I am currently attending the Command and General Staff Officers Course (CGSOC) at Fort Leavenworth. In addition to the normal CGSOC curriculum I am enrolled in the Master of Military Art and Science (MMAS) program which requires a thesis on any subject that has some significance or relevance to the Army. My thesis subject is the status of African-American males as U.S. Army officers in the year 2010.

My research methodology includes an analysis of current socioeconomic trends and how they will effect African-American males as Army officers in 2010, and a comparative analysis of the status of African-American males in the U.S. Army from 1960 to the present.

It would help me in my research if your agency could provide data in the following areas:

- the number and percentage of blacks entering USMA from the 1960 class through 1994 or as far back as you have data;
- the number and percentage of blacks graduating from USMA from 1960 through 1990 or as far back as you have data;
- when possible please break the numbers down by gender with a total number and a percentage for each gender;

Colonel Toeffler, I appreciate any information that you can provide me. I will need to have the information by 15 Dec 90. My address is 2531 22nd Terrace, Leavenworth, KS 66048. My home phone number is (913) 651-2642. Messages during the day can be left at (913) 684-3803. Thank you.

Robert C. Pittard
MAJ, IN
CGSOC, 15B

SAMPLE SURVEY COVER LETTER

To: Students Attending OGSOC

SUBJECT: MMAS Thesis Survey

Dear Fellow Student:

My name is Major Robert C. Pittard and I am currently enrolled in the Master of Military Art and Science (MMAS) Program in the Command and General Staff Officers Course. My thesis subject is the future of the African-American Army officer in the 21st Century.

The attached survey is designed to provide statistical information based on demographic data and responses to questions dealing with perceptions of service in the U.S. Army. The information is non-attributional and will only be used in summary form. This is a voluntary survey. Your participation will help me determine how African-Americans perceive their experiences in the Army and how that affects their future.

There is no "mark-sense" form so you will have to circle your responses on the survey itself. If you decide to complete the survey please return it to my box located in Section 15, on the second floor of Bell Hall NLT 28 Jan 91. If you have any questions my staff group is 15B, and my home phone number is 651-2642.

Without sounding trite or like a Bartyle and James commercial, I thank you for your support.

Robert C. Pittard
MAJ, IN
OGSOC, 15B

SAMPLE COVER LETTER SENT TO TRADOC SCHOOLS BY THE CGSC OES

ATZL-SWO-E

MEMORANDUM FOR DOES, _____

SUBJECT: SURVEY DISTRIBUTION

1. PER FONECON WITH DR. LOWDEN AT CGSC, WE ARE ENCLOSING TWO SURVEYS FOR YOU TO DISTRIBUTE TO SELECTED STUDENTS.
2. THE "MQS I" SURVEY IS FOR OBC STUDENTS.
3. THE "ALL GRADES" SURVEY IS FOR BLACK OFFICERS ONLY, IN OAC.
4. IF EITHER GROUP OF STUDENTS EXCEEDS THE NUMBER OF SURVEYS, REQUEST YOU RANDOMLY DISTRIBUTE THE SURVEYS.
5. PLEASE RETURN COMPLETED SURVEYS NLT 30 JAN 91 TO:

COMMANDANT

USACGSC

ATTN: ATZL-SWO-E

FT. LEAVENWORTH, KS 66027-6900

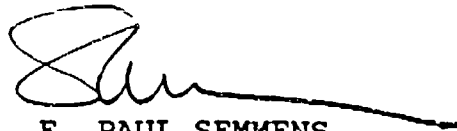
ATSA-TAC (ATSA-ADA-ES/7 Jan 91) (340) 1st End MAJ Boney/nd/
568-2178

SUBJECT: Master Degree Thesis Data Collection Questionnaire

Director, Combined Arms and Tactics Department, ATTN: ATSA-TAC,
Fort Bliss, Texas 79916 25 January 1991

FOR Director, Office, Chief of Air Defense Artillery, ATTN:
ATSA-ADA-ES, Fort Bliss, Texas 79916

1. We administered the "MQS-I" Survey to our Officer Advance Course (OBC) students and returned the results as requested.
2. The "All Grades" Survey is being returned without action. Questions contained do not appear to support the thesis. The survey was reviewed by the black officers on our staff, as well as the Fort Bliss EEO and they all agree the survey was not appropriate to administer to our students.
3. Point of contact for this action is Major Boney, Executive Officer, CATD, 568-2178.



Encls
nc

E. PAUL SEMMENS
Colonel, AD
Director, Combined Arms and
Tactics Department

APPENDIX G

INITIAL DISTRIBUTION LIST

1. Colonel Kenneth Harris
HQ. U.S. Army ROTC Cadet Command
Directorate of Training
ATTN: ATCC-T
Fort Monroe, Virginia 23651-5000
2. Colonel Patrick Toeffler
Director, Office of Institutional Research
United States Military Academy, Bldg 681
West Point, NY 10996
3. Combined Arms Research Library
U.S. Army Command and General Staff College
Fort Leavenworth, Kansas 66027-6900
4. Defense Technical Information Center
Cameron Station
Alexandria, Virginia 22314
5. Dr. Robert Baumann
Combat Studies Institute
USACGSC
Fort Leavenworth, Kansas 66027-6900
6. Dr. Tanya Guthrie
U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences
ATTN: PERI-RP
5001 Eisenhower Avenue
Alexandria, Virginia 22333-5600
7. Dr. Ernest G. Lowden
Directorate of Academic Operations
Office of Evaluation and Standardization
ATTN: ATZL-SWO-E
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8. Lieutenant Colonel Alphonso Hunley
Directorate of Academic Operations
Office of Evaluation and Standardization
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Combined Arms Services Staff School
Fort Leavenworth, Kansas 66027-6900

10. Lieutenant Colonel Linton P. Lavergne
USACGSC
Combined Arms Services Staff School
Fort Leavenworth, Kansas 66027-6900