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# Relationships Matter: Social Networks Influencing Hispanic American Cadets' Decision to Participate in a University ROTC Program

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Relationships Matter: Social Networks Influencing Hispanic American Cadets' Decision to  
Participate in a University ROTC Program

Marc E. Boberg

A dissertation submitted to the faculty of  
Brigham Young University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of  
Doctor of Education

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## ABSTRACT

### Relationships Matter: Social Networks Influencing Hispanic American Cadets' Decision to Participate in a University ROTC Program

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The Armed Forces of the United States and specifically the U.S. Army seek to have a racial/ethnic mix of officers (leaders) who match the racial/ethnic mix of the soldiers they lead and the country they defend. Currently Hispanic Americans are under-represented in the officer corps especially at senior levels. Social network theory was used to facilitate understanding a potential officer candidate's network of alters (people they interact with) and their relationships when they are seeking to make decisions related to enrolling in college and Army ROTC. When making the decision to enroll in Army ROTC, there is a complex social network of multiple alters who influence those decisions. This study identified those actors and defined the types of relational embeddedness (social relationships which demonstrate dyadic interaction, personal relationships and/or social capital) each role had in their relationship with the ego resulting in influencing their decisions to enroll in college and Army ROTC.

This qualitative research engaged 31 Hispanic American cadets enrolled in Army ROTC at four universities and compared them to a representative group of non-Hispanic American cadets using UCINet and NVIVO software. The findings provide insight about the Hispanic American cadets' social network of influence and the level of relational embeddedness which defined the relationships. The findings indicate the need for those who seek out the best candidates (recruiters) to educate the members of a candidate's social network about the opportunities for future officers and the process to access college education and leader development training through programs like Army ROTC. Some alters have greater relational embeddedness and could provide greater positive influence on identifying the best candidates for officer accessions programs, but few members of the network have actual experience in ROTC, as officers, or in any capacity in the Armed Forces, making it difficult for them to provide informed guidance unless they are educated by people knowledgeable about the military.

The greatest application of this research is that it will assist Professors of Military Science and others tasked to find and recruit Hispanic American cadets as future officers who beyond the actual candidate they should be engaging to influence the best quality and an increase in quality of officer candidates. The research is also potentially powerful for other organizations seeking to better understand decision making by young people and their social networks of influence which impact those decisions.

Keywords: Army ROTC, diversity, racial, ethnic, relational embeddedness, social network

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My chair, Steve Hite, has never failed to guide me through this process, ensuring I maintained a consistent pace and providing regular feedback to keep me on the path. Steve's selfless service, timely reminders and motivation to finish strong kept me plugging along to be a finisher. It has been a privilege and an honor to learn from his example.

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Finally I wish to thank the magnificent Army ROTC Cadets, staff and faculty who participated in this study and endured my many good ideas as we went forward. I have loved the opportunity to serve and work with you in the development of our nation's future leaders.

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## DESCRIPTION OF STRUCTURE AND CONTENT

This manuscript is presented in the format of the hybrid dissertation. The hybrid format focuses on producing a journal-ready manuscript which is considered by the dissertation committee to be ready for submission. Therefore, this dissertation has fewer chapters than the traditional format, and the manuscript focuses on the presentation of the scholarly article. This hybrid dissertation includes appended materials such as an extended review of literature and a methods section with elaborated detail on the research approach used in this dissertation project.

The targeted journal for this dissertation is The United States Army War College Quarterly, *Parameters*. *Parameters* is a refereed journal focused on issues and ideas related to national security matters, the art and science of land warfare, military leadership and management and similar topics of current significant interest to the U.S. Army and the Department of Defense. This periodical is indexed in *Air University Library Index to Military Periodicals*, *U.S. Government Periodicals Index*, *LexisNexis Government Periodicals Index*, *Worldwide Political Science Abstracts*, *Lancaster Index to Defence & International Security Literature*, and *PAIS Bulletin*. Article manuscripts are typically 5,000-5,500 words including endnotes and references.



## TEXT OF ARTICLE

### Background

The history of racial/ethnic minorities serving in the Armed Forces of the United States includes a tradition of honorable and heroic service during periods of peace and conflict, despite incidents and policies that, at times during history, reflected the existence of discrimination and racism among both the enlisted and officer ranks (Webb & Herrmann, 2002). The purpose of this article is to outline the background and challenges regarding increasing the racial/ethnic diversity of the United States Army officer corps to match the diversity of the nation they serve and the soldiers they lead, specifically addressing ways to increase the number of Hispanic American cadets who will become Army officers in the future.

The United States Army seeks a racially/ethnically diverse senior officer corps, which reflects the soldiers they lead as well as the diversity of the population they serve. When senior leaders match the diversity of the soldiers they lead, and the nation they represent, then units are more cohesive, perform at a greater level of effectiveness, and literally save lives through enhanced mission accomplishment (Becton et al., 2003; Military Leadership Diversity Commission, 2011). The purpose of this match of racial/ethnic diversity between senior leaders and the soldiers they lead is increased trust and mutual understanding resulting in enhanced leadership and improved performance while at the same time making it more likely to avoid racial/ethnic polarization and similarly motivated incidents in combat (Becton et al., 2003).

The current officer development programs including Army Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC), United States Military Academy (USMA), and Officer Candidate School (OCS) which are directed to recruit a diverse force are not as successful as they need to be at recruiting the targeted numbers of racial/ethnic minorities, including Hispanic American officer candidates.

With the continued growth of the Hispanic American population, there must be a focus on recruiting, retaining, developing, and commissioning more Hispanic American officers into the United States Army who have the potential to become senior Army leaders over the course of the subsequent 25 to 30 years. Until the Army solves the problem of how to more effectively recruit the best Hispanic American officer candidates into ROTC, USMA, and OCS, they cannot expect to meet the racial/ethnic diversity goals in officer development programs, which naturally will lead to a lack of sufficient numbers of racially/ethnically diverse senior officers 30 years into the future (Becton et al., 2003).

The quality of the officer corps is even more important than factors such as the racial/ethnic mix, so the true challenge is finding the best all-around fully qualified officer candidates who also meet the diversity criteria resulting in the best possible officers who are as racially/ethnically diverse as the soldiers they lead. As a result, ROTC, USMA and OCS leaders and recruiters must seek the highest quality candidates as future officers and not just accept the first fully qualified candidates. Specifically this study seeks to understand how those tasked to recruit cadet candidates find, engage, and commit the best Hispanic American young men and women to become cadets, officers, and eventually become the best senior leaders 25 to 30 years later. This study sought answers to three questions:

1. Who are the individuals who make up the egocentric social network which influenced Hispanic American officer candidates to enroll in college and Army ROTC?
2. What is the nature of the relationship or nature of the ties between the Hispanic American candidates and those who influenced their decisions to pursue college degrees and ultimately seek careers as officers in the United States Army?
3. How can ROTC Professors of Military Science use knowledge about the nature of

these networks of influence to more effectively recruit the best quality Hispanic American officer candidates?

### **History of Racial/Ethnic Diversity in the U.S. Military**

As early as the Colonial period in the Americas, every able bodied man was expected to serve as a soldier regardless of race or ethnicity. Throughout the history of the United States various racial/ethnic minority groups have been allowed, required, or encouraged to participate as soldiers, sailors, or airmen. However, for all but the last 50 or so years they have not had the same opportunities to lead due to various policies of segregation which set the conditions for acts of prejudice (Webb & Herrmann, 2002).

While the Army itself is older than the nation (established in 1775), it was not until 1877 that Henry O. Flipper became the first African American to graduate and commission from West Point (United States Army Center of Military History, 2011). Luis Raul Esteves became the first Puerto Rican and Hispanic USMA graduate in 1915 and he would eventually be the first member of his class to attain the rank of General Officer. His class included future Generals Dwight Eisenhower and Omar Bradley to name a few (United States Military Academy Association of Graduates 1958). While these were landmark accomplishments, they were far from the end of segregation in the Armed Forces.

Through the subsequent years including World War II and into the Korean War, the United States Armed Forces were largely racially/ethnically segregated by virtue of personnel policies which were dominated by prejudices from previous wars and society as a whole (Dansby, Stewart, & Webb, 2001). It would require Presidential influence through executive orders and multiple commissions to study and recommend changes to policies to encourage Army leaders to set the conditions for inclusion (Military Leadership Diversity Commission,

2011). During the past 60 years, the United States Government has established three different commissions (1948, 1962, and 2009) dedicated to reviewing current military policies seeking to meet the vision of increased diversity, including representation regardless of race/ethnicity or gender. This cultural shift has either been embraced by or forced upon the Armed Forces by elected leaders, but regardless of the initial motivation, the Armed Forces have steadily progressed from representative participation, towards inclusion and leadership opportunities regardless of race or ethnicity (Military Leadership Diversity Commission, 2011).

The oath that each soldier takes upon entering the United States Army includes a commitment to "...support and defend the Constitution of the United States against all enemies; foreign and domestic" (Department of the Army, 1959, p. 1). This oath commits each member of the Army to defend the values upon which our nation was built. Abraham Lincoln's Gettysburg Address states "...that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth" (Lincoln, 1863, p. 1). If the nation is to be governed by a government of the people, then the Armed Forces that defend that nation should also be representative of the people. Knowing that the Armed Forces have a goal to be representative of the general population, and a goal of developing leaders who are representative of the soldiers they lead, the central purpose of this study is to investigate how that is to be achieved in the United States Army, especially with regards to increasing the number of Hispanic American officers.

In 2009, Congress established the Military Leadership Diversity Council and asked this committee to "(a) ...systematically develop a demographically diverse leadership that reflects the public it serves and the forces it leads, (b) that the Services pursue a broader approach to diversity that includes the range of backgrounds" (Military Leadership Diversity Commission,

2011). During the last 60 years, significant progress in the racial/ethnic diversity of the Armed Forces of the United States has been made when contrasted with the days of the segregated forces that fought in World War II. At the same time, the United States Army has not succeeded in developing a continuing stream of officers who are as demographically diverse as the nation they serve or the forces they lead. Since 1948, the enlisted force has been nearly representative of the nation's racial/ethnic diversity even though the same level of racial/ethnic diversity has not consistently been seen in the officer ranks, especially in the senior officer ranks of Colonel and above (Becton et al., 2003).

### **Goal of Diverse Officer Corps**

There is extensive research on the power of diversity and specifically racial/ethnic diversity in the workplace and specifically in the military. This article does not intend to repeat all the reasons for seeking a racially/ethnically diverse military or the reasons for seeking a mix of leaders who are as racially/ethnically diverse as the soldiers they lead or the country they represent; that has been done and in many cases is well articulated in the findings of the various committees and commissions. For example, the Military Leadership Commission's Final Report entitled *From Representation to Inclusion: Diversity Leadership for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century Military* concluded that the diversity of our service members is the strength of the military. It further concluded that our nation's future challenges can be better overcome by embracing our understanding of diversity and by effectively leading change in the military in such a way to take advantage of the different characteristics, experiences, and backgrounds a diverse armed force brings (Military Leadership Diversity Commission, 2011). Due to consistently changing demographics across the nation, there is a constant need to assess and evolve the recruitment of officers to ensure the Army's leaders are representative of the nation. Only by increased

recruitment and retention of racially/ethnically diverse officer candidates will the number of senior leaders of diverse racial/ethnic backgrounds be proportional to the diversity of the forces they lead while simultaneously maintaining focus on the quality of the officers recruited and retained in this diverse officer corps (Becton, 2003; Stewart & Firestone, 2001).

Becoming a commissioned officer and rising through the ranks to become a senior leader requires entering the service and progressing through the ranks over the course of time. Armed forces officers cannot laterally enter the service from other career paths as is the case in many non-military occupations. As a result, there are three primary means to receive a commission in the United States Army (a) through Army ROTC offered at more than 270 colleges and universities in the United States; (b) USMA at West Point; or (c) by rising from the enlisted ranks through OCS (Department of the Army, 2006). There are direct commissions offered, but they generally are for specialty branches such as medical professionals and lawyers. Officer candidates must complete at least a bachelor's degree in order to be commissioned (or at a minimum cannot be promoted to Captain). Army senior officers are those who achieve the rank of full Colonel or above leading to Brigade-level command and beyond including the most visible command and staff positions. Since the Army only promotes from within its ranks, the process of developing an Army senior officer requires roughly 25 to 30 years from time of recruitment into an officer development program (like ROTC) until promotion to Colonel and entrance to the senior officer ranks (Becton, 2003; Department of the Army, 2005).

### **Hispanic American Population in the U.S.**

The demographic makeup of the U.S. population is changing and the Hispanic American population is expected to continue to grow rapidly over the next 30 years. Looking back, the 2000 United States Census data indicated that approximately 12.5 percent of the United States

population was of Hispanic American or Latino origin. The 2010 Census indicated that this group constituted 16.3 percent of the population, a growth of nearly four percent in a ten year period. Over the same period, the white majority of 2000 was approximately 75.1% of the population and decreased by 2010 to 72.4% showing a net reduction of nearly three percent. At a constant rate, the Hispanic American or Latino community would be projected to make approximately a seven to eight percent net gain on the White (non-Hispanic) majority every 10 years. However the transition rate is not fixed. It is constantly increasing showing tremendous growth in the Hispanic American community while a decrease in the percentage of White (non-Hispanic) majority. This is due to the significantly higher birth rates among the Hispanic American or Latino community versus Whites, together with continued immigration (Government of the United States of America Census Bureau, 2010). The obvious conclusion is that within the next 30 years or so, the Hispanic American minority will not only grow to become the largest racial/ethnic group, they will soon become the majority (Military Leadership Diversity Commission, 2011).

The United States Army establishes targets or goals for the racial/ethnic composition of newly commissioned officers that is reflective of current national racial/ethnic diversity (Becton, 2003; Stewart & Firestone, 2001; United States Army Cadet Command, 2011). If we take into account the expected racial/ethnic composition of the United States 25 to 30 years down the road when the current crop of cadets become senior officers, it becomes clear that officer development programs must seek to significantly increase their recruiting of Hispanic American candidates now, perhaps even above the currently targeted 10 -12% in consideration of predictable attrition, to meet the goal of representative senior leadership.

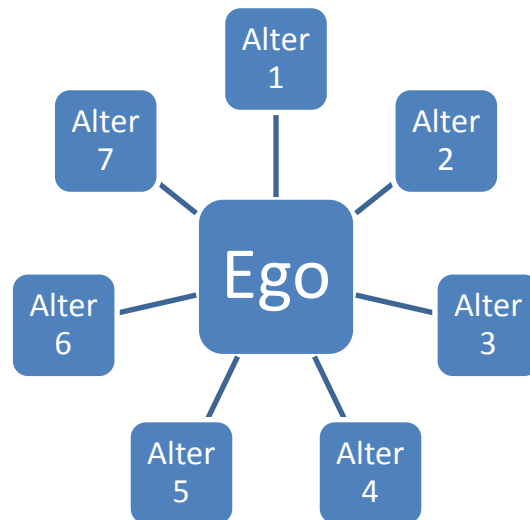
The study of the social network of influence for Hispanic American cadets (officer candidates) will provide insight into how they made decisions related to enrolling in college and specifically into officer development programs including Army ROTC. While OCS, USMA and ROTC all seek to develop and commission new officers, this study focuses on ROTC specifically. Commanders at U.S. Army Cadet Command leading Army ROTC and even more specifically Professors of Military Science are tasked by the Army to recruit, retain, develop, and commission new lieutenants. To fulfill their responsibilities, vital information is needed about who they should be engaging to identify the best candidates, influence their candidate's decisions about future education and careers, and encourage them to enter officer development programs. Specifically this information would assist them in targeting the best qualified future Hispanic American officer candidates. If this process works at ROTC battalions, then potentially it can be applied to the approach used in USMA and OCS recruiting in the future.

### **Methods and Procedures**

The theoretical framework used in this study is the social network theory of egocentric networks. An egocentric social network encompasses the systems of actors or as termed by researchers in this area 'alters' which have interactive relationships with the ego or the individual central to the study (see Figure 1). Egocentric networks refer to the network which interacts with a single person or ego that is centric in the network. The goal is to identify that specific individual's network of influential alters. Each alter can be described by various specific characteristics, also known as attributes. These attributes might include traits such as age, gender, or ethnic/racial background. The actual relationships, known as ties, between the ego and alters can also be described with characteristics. This system or network of alters interacting



through ties to each other and to an ego is what we would define as an egocentric network (Borgatti, Everett, & Johnson, 2013).



*Figure 1.* Example of an egocentric social network structure

This study used social network methods to identify and analyze the egocentric influence networks that influenced Hispanic American cadets' decisions. The researcher asked current cadets to reflect back to the time they were trying to decide about college and Army ROTC enrollment and answer a set of questions to identify the scope and depth of the social network of influence that impacted their decisions. The cadet is the ego of the egocentric network and those people whom the cadet identified as having influenced their decision to enroll in college and ultimately Army ROTC are alters.

### **Sampling**

The greater target population of the study is all Army Senior ROTC cadets at four representative universities in the state of Utah in the western United States. The four universities include a large private university with competitive enrollment and a national draw of students and three public universities—one large public university with a less competitive enrollment policy near a large metropolitan area, one small public university with competitive

enrollment in a rural area, and one small public university with a less competitive enrollment policy. The total number of students at the combined four universities is approximately 77,000 students and total enrollment at the combined Army ROTC programs was 322 cadets at the beginning of the study. The 300 Army ROTC cadets represent a wide variety of diverse backgrounds including various racial/ethnic groups, geographical diversity of home of record, gender, enlisted service (Simultaneous Membership Program), and scholarship cadets. The Hispanic American population in Utah is rising annually with a current approximation of 15-18% of the state population, but only approximately 10-11% of the student population at the four universities.

The study was conducted using a census sample of Hispanic American cadets enrolled in Army ROTC across the four programs. Eleven percent of all enrolled cadets were identified as Hispanic American. The number of Hispanic American cadets included in the census sample was small, but this small cohort was an unavoidable structural result of the very problem driving the efforts of the Army to recruit more Hispanic American cadets; there simply aren't many Hispanic American cadets in ROTC programs. A representative comparison group of cadets was drawn from the pool of non-Hispanic American cadets enrolled at the same four universities using a proportional stratified random sampling approach based on institution and gender. Table 2 shows the primary demographic data of the sample including a comparison of the Hispanic American cadet respondents and the Non-Hispanic American cadet respondents.

### **Data Collection**

The study was conducted in two phases. First, an online survey was administered to both groups of cadets using Qualtrics software (Smith, Smith, Smith, & Orgill, 2002), and afterwards the researcher conducted face-to-face or telephonic interviews with 50% of the respondents to

gain greater insight to the responses on the online survey. Through a series of online survey questions regarding the relationships between the cadets and alters, the relationship and influence between the cadet (ego) and his/her alters were defined and better understood. This study compared networks of Hispanic American cadets to a proportional sample of non-Hispanic American cadets to distinguish any unique characteristics in the social networks of Hispanic American candidates.

The study first identified the structure of the cadets' egocentric networks, including the influential alters, the nature (characteristics) of alters, and nature of these egocentric ties between the cadets and their alters. The characteristics of the relationships or network ties are described as being relationally embedded when they demonstrate a combination of personal relationships, dyadic interaction, and social capital. The description of the nature of the ties focused on their level of relational embeddedness, as measured by the Typology of Relational Embeddedness Network Data Survey (TRENDS) instrument providing a validated instrument to understand the relational embeddedness of the ties (relationships) between the ego and the alters (Hite, Hite, Sudweeks, & Walker, 2013; Hite, 2003). The TRENDS survey questions were primary portion of the Qualtrics survey, they were augmented with some demographic questions to better understand the respondents.

### **Data Analysis**

The TRENDS data, attained from the online survey, was used to identify dyadic and egocentric network patterns regarding the distribution of different types of relational embeddedness which are outlined in Figure 2 (Hite et al., 2013). Relational embeddedness was also analyzed by examining associations between the type of relational embeddedness and the various attributes of participants and their alters (Hite,

2003). These association patterns were examined using Excel as well as by graphically representing the ties in UCINET's NetDraw function (Borgatti, Everett, & Freeman, 2002). The NetDraw function displays the actors, alters and ties, indicating actor and alter attributes by size, shape, and color. Data analyses also examined the association between dyadic-level data regarding both influence outcomes and relational embeddedness to assess whether the type of relational embeddedness was associated with the level or type of influence. The TRENDS questions in the online survey facilitate identification of indicators related to the relationship between the ego and the alter. The survey results were used to identify the three social components including dyadic interaction, personal relationship, and social capital. Figure 2 shows the interaction between the social components in a more graphic way and the resulting types of relational embeddedness.

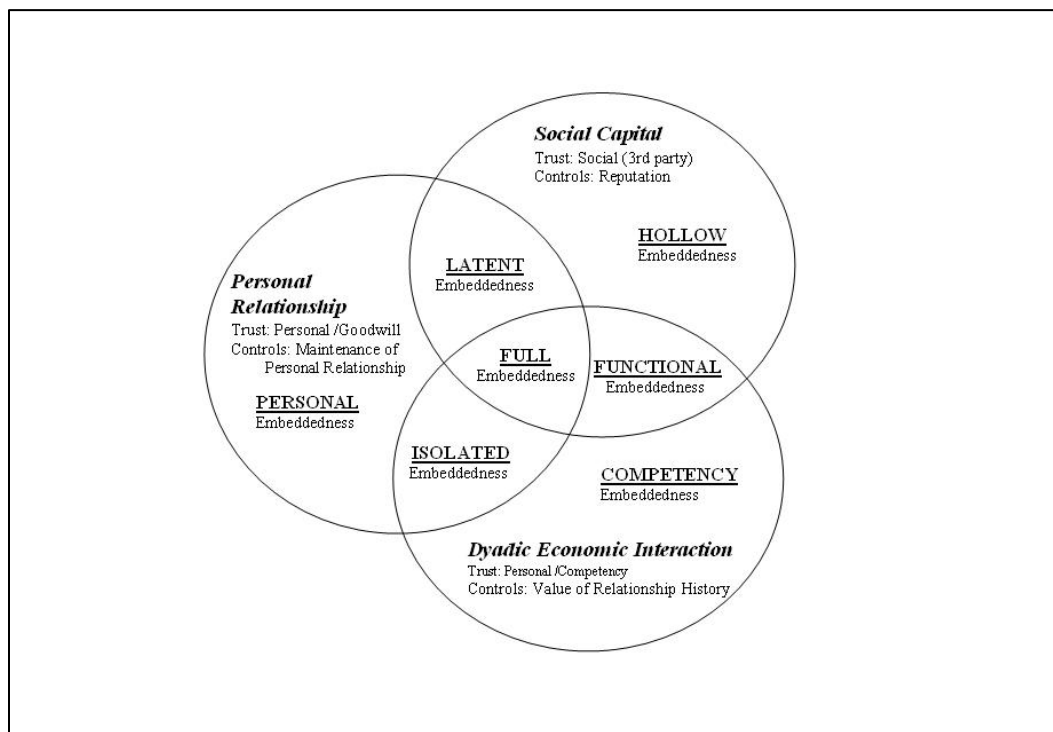


Figure 2. Typology of relational embeddedness.

If there is no indicator of any of the social components, then the relationship is described as being not embedded. Depending on which social components are identified and their combinations, there are seven potential combinations of the social components that make up the type of relational embeddedness as shown in Table 1 (Hite, 2003).

The identification of social component combinations allows greater understanding of the depth of the ties or relationships, which are described as different types of relational embeddedness. The social components inform the exchange of information and resources between the ego (cadets) and alters within the social network. The social components of personal relationship, dyadic interaction, and social capital facilitate understanding the depth of the relationship or strength of the tie. Relationships which are described as not showing a high degree of any of the social components are not embedded. Embeddedness is determined through a series of questions regarding the relationship identifying indicators of which of the social components are present; when none of the components are clearly identified, the relationship is not relationally embedded or has a weak tie. The types of relational embeddedness with only one component identified (competency, personal and hollow) do not have the depth of relational embeddedness as ties with types of relational embeddedness characterized by more than one social component (functional, isolated, latent and full). A tie with full relational embeddedness is characterized by all three social components. In other words this relationship between the cadet or ego and the alter has greater depth as demonstrated by indication of the three social components, a relationship history and level of reputation. The literature suggests that relational embeddedness of ties can influence the outcomes and decisions of the ego. Table 1 identifies how the social components of

network ties—specifically, personal relationship, dyadic interaction, and social capital—combine to create different types of relational embeddedness and thus potentially a differential level and extent of influence (Hite et al., 2013; Hite, 2003).

The data from the online survey was analyzed using Excel and UCINet social network analysis software (Borgatti et al., 2002). The transcripts from the interviews were analyzed using NVIVO software designed for qualitative analysis (QSR International, 2010).

Table 1

*Types of Relational Embeddedness and their Social Component Combinations*

Type of Relational Embeddedness		Social Components		
Number	Name	Dyadic Interaction	Personal Relationship	Social Capital
1*	Not Embedded	0	0	0
2	Competency	1	0	0
3	Personal	0	1	0
4	Hollow	0	0	1
5	Functional	1	0	1
6	Isolated	1	1	0
7	Latent	0	1	1
8	Full	1	1	1

*Note.* \*0 means ‘no tie,’ 1 means that the criteria for that specific social component have been met

### **Findings and Discussion**

The initial analysis was conducted on the egos themselves to better understand the sample responding to the survey. There was an expectation of differences in characteristics between the two samples, Hispanic American cadets and non-Hispanic American cadets. The characteristics or attributes of the respondents or egos, both Hispanic American Cadets as well as those who were non-Hispanic American, are shown in Table 2.

## Nature of the Alters

The first research question was to identify the most influential alters (persons) in the cadet's (ego) social network who specifically impacted their decisions to enroll in college and specifically into Army ROTC. While the cadets identified individuals by name, the names were not as crucial to the study as the role each person played in their lives.

Table 3 shows the percentage of respondents who identified someone in a specific role as having influenced their decision to enroll in Army ROTC. A comparison of the responses allows us to see who each group of cadets identified as influencing their decisions and also facilitates

Table 2

### *Demographics of the Respondents*

	Hispanic American Cadets	Other Than Hispanic American Cadets
Gender	14% female; 86% male	20% female; 80% male
Private vs Public Univ. Enrollment	53% private; 47% public	60% private; 40% public
Advanced Course vs Basic Course	64% advanced; 36% basic	60% advanced; 40% basic
Scholarship vs. SMP	50% scholarship; 50% SMP	33% scholarship; 67% SMP
% Contracted vs non- contracted	93% contracted; 7% non-contracted	87% contracted; 13% non-contracted
Direct from HS to College	79% direct from HS	53% direct from HS
Respondents	15 Hispanic American Cadets	16 Non-Hispanic American Cadets
STEM Majors (undergraduate)	21% are STEM majors	13% are STEM majors
Response Rates	92% contracted; 50% non-contracted	84% contracted; 60% non-contracted

identifying the differences between roles identified by Hispanic American cadets and the roles identified by the non-Hispanic cadets. It is clear that while close family members are important to both groups, they seem to have a greater representation among the Hispanic American cadets. Most of the Hispanic American cadets (80 %) identified their mother as having influenced their decision while only 56% of non-Hispanic cadets identified Mom. Hispanic American cadets named Dad as being influential (73 %) versus only 44% of non-Hispanic American cadets. This indicates that parents must be included in all information and recruiting efforts especially when engaging Hispanic American candidates.

Table 3

*Persons of Influence Identified by Cadets*

Roles in the egocentric social networks	Hispanic American cadets	Non-Hispanic American cadets
Mom	*80%	56%
Dad	*73%	44%
ROTC Faculty / Staff	67%	75%
Close Friends / Peers	*60%	44%
Others with Military Exp.	*60%	44%
Brother / Sister	53%	50%
Military Recruiter	*47%	25%
Grandparents	40%	56%
Teacher/Professor	27%	20%
Spouse	20%	13%
Mentor	20%	31%
Guidance Counselor or College Recruiter	20%	6%
Coach	17%	6%
Religious Leader	7%	12%

*Note.* % of Cadets is highlighted with \* whenever Hispanic American cadets identified greater than 15% more of a specific role in their social network of influence

All Cadets who are married noted 'Spouse' as a member of their social network; however, only 20% of Hispanic American and 14% of Non-Hispanic American cadets were married when they made the decision to enroll in Army ROTC.

Conversely, fewer cadets from both groups identified high school guidance counselors, coaches, and teachers as being influential when compared to Mom, Dad, ROTC faculty, and



close friends. A higher percentage of Hispanic American cadets (20%) compared to non-Hispanic cadets (6%) identified HS guidance counselors and college recruiters as being influential. This finding requires further research through follow up interviews. ROTC faculty members were identified by both Hispanic American cadets (67%) and by non-Hispanic American cadets (75%) as being influential. This finding is positive for the ROTC faculty in their role to identify and recruit the best possible candidates for officer development programs.

The trends seen with the identification of influential alters with military experience or specialized knowledge was particularly important. For Hispanic Americans, these roles are identified as ROTC faculty (67%), military recruiters (47%), and others with military experience (60%), which indicates the influence of those with military experiences and/or possibly resources (to include knowledge) that might not be available otherwise.

Prior to conducting the survey, the researcher believed that spouses would be very influential in the decision to enroll in Army ROTC. Table 3 indicated that only 20% of Hispanic American cadets and 13% of other than Hispanic American cadets named their spouse as being an influential member of their social network. For clarification of this statistic, all of the cadets who are married named their spouses as influential alters in their social networks. The fact is that only 20% of the Hispanic American cadets and 13% of the non-Hispanic American cadets were actually married when they made the decision to enroll in Army ROTC.

### **Nature of the Relationships**

Once these alters were identified, the respondents answered the series of TRENDS questions describing the alters and their relationship. As outlined earlier, these relationships can be described with various types of relational embeddedness depending on indicators of the combination (or lack) of personal relationship, dyadic interaction, and social capital seen on

Table 4. The data indicate that family members had various types of relational embeddedness with multiple components and there is a particularly strong indication of the social component *personal relationships*. Within the group of Hispanic American respondents more than 50% of the embedded network ties or relationships are classified as Full, Latent, or Isolated types of relational embeddedness for Mom, Dad, Spouse, and Brothers/Sisters. This finding indicates that these egos identified ties with these alter roles as having high degrees of personal relationships which can lead to an enhanced ability to influence the ego's decisions (Lin, 2001). Personal relationships indicate that these alters really know the ego, they are friends and have a good understanding of each other's likes/dislikes, strengths/weaknesses – they know each other.

Those ties identified as having high degrees of personal relationships indicate that the ego and alter know each other well. This information is powerful to those seeking to identify high quality candidates who will be the best fit for Army ROTC as a strong personal relationship will in most cases mean that the alters know the ego's strengths and weaknesses including insight into their academic, physical, and experiences. These alters are exactly who professors of Military Science and Army ROTC recruiters should be engaging to identify potential candidates.

Table 4 shows a comparison of the types of relational embeddedness by Hispanic American cadets versus the Non-Hispanic American Cadets. The numbers indicate the percentage of cadets who identified a specific type of relational embeddedness with relation to the alters they identified in the first portion of the survey. Understanding the type of relational embeddedness assists in understanding the strength of the ties and defining the type of relationship between the cadets and the alters they identified as being influential.

Hispanic American respondents described their relationships with Military Recruiters, ROTC faculty, Guidance Counselors, College Recruiters, other acquaintances with military

experience as Not Embedded, Personal, or Competency demonstrating a pattern of a lack of the social component social capital. Within the group of non-Hispanic respondents the trend is similar regarding military recruiters, Army ROTC faculty, Guidance Counselors or College Recruiters—all demonstrating relationships described as Not Embedded, Personal, or Competency. This trend indicates that the relationships with these alters do not enjoy as many social components within the relational embeddedness as the family member ties but the respondents still identified these alter relationships as being influential.

Table 4

*Percentage of Cadet's Relationships by Type of Relational Embeddedness*

Roles	<u>Not embedded</u>		<u>Competency</u>		<u>Personal</u>		<u>Hollow</u>		<u>Functional</u>		<u>Isolated</u>		<u>Latent</u>		<u>Full</u>	
	HA	Non	HA	Non	HA	Non	HA	Non	HA	Non	HA	Non	HA	Non	HA	Non
Mom	18	11	0	0	36	11	0	0	0	0	0	22	36	44	9	11
Dad	27	0	0	0	27	14	0	0	0	0	0	29	36	43	9	14
ROTC Fac/Staff	100	75	0	0	0	13	0	0	0	0	0	12	0	0	0	0
Friends/ Peers	61	40	11	0	11	27	0	13	0	0	0	7	6	13	11	0
Others w/ Military Exp.	100	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Brother/ Sister	33	6	0	0	33	38	0	0	0	0	0	6	20	38	13	13
Military Recruiter	83	75	0	0	17	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Grand parents	83	22	0	0	0	22	0	0	0	0	0	22	17	33	0	0
Teacher/ Professor	100	33	0	0	0	67	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Spouse	0	0	0	0	33	0	0	0	0	0	33	0	0	100	33	0
Mentor	33	60	0	0	67	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	0	0
Guidance Counselor or College Recruiter	100	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Coach	33	100	0	0	67	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Religious Leader	100	50	0	0	0	0	0	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL % All Roles Combined	57	42	2	0	19	20	0	3	0	0	1	11	14	19	7	6

*Note.* Numbers represent the percentage of alters described by each type of relational embeddedness

HA = Hispanic American Cadets

Non = Non- Hispanic American Cadets

## **Relationships Influence Decisions**

How did these network relationships influence Hispanic American officer candidates to enter college and more specifically enroll in Army ROTC? In this study, 60% of the Hispanic American cadets identified family members and others with military experience as influencing their decisions. In follow up interviews, cadets stated that in most cases, their immediate family (mom, dad, brothers, and sisters) did not have military experiences to share and clarify expectations, so they relied on other acquaintances to clear up doubts about military training. They further identified military recruiters (60%) and ROTC faculty and staff (67%) as being crucial in the decision making process, not because they were trusted influencers with social capital, but rather because they held knowledge and understanding about both benefits and expectations that were not readily available to them from their regular social network of influence. There is a trend in both Hispanic American cadets and Non-Hispanic American cadets that their traditional social network oftentimes lacked military and/or ROTC experience, so they sought the valued resource of knowledge about the Armed Forces from other sources, including Army recruiters, ROTC faculty, and other acquaintances with military experience.

To better understand not only the type of relational embeddedness, but clarify the amount of influence each alter had specifically regarding the decision to enroll in Army ROTC, one of the TRENDS survey questions included defining on a scale of 1 to 5 how much influence each alter had on the decision to enroll in Army ROTC. Table 5 illustrates the amount of influence between the alters and ego using the mean tie value for Hispanic American cadets and comparing it to the group of Non-Hispanic American cadets.

The data indicates that mom, close friends/peers, military recruiters, teachers/professors, and coaches are more influential than the same alters are with other Hispanic American cadets.

It is critical for Professors of Military Science and cadet recruiters to understand how much influence each alter has coupled with the previous table's data of understanding how many Hispanic American cadets identified these alters as being in their social network. For example, while teachers/professors have a strong 4.25 mean influence (5 being highest), only 20% of Hispanic American cadets identified the same alter as even being a member of their social network. It should also be noted that while the majority of potential cadets are young people and not many were married when they decided to enroll in Army ROTC, those 20% of Hispanic American cadets and 13% of non-Hispanic American cadets who did have spouses, stated the spouse also had the maximum influence level of 5. There should be no doubt that if a candidate has a spouse, or gets married while still a cadet, Professors of Military Science and recruiters must provide necessary information to that spouse and he or she has tremendous influence over the future decisions of the cadet.

Through the follow up interviews, it also became clearer that the influence of ROTC recruiters, military recruiters, guidance counselors, and other acquaintances with prior military experience were valuable resources for the cadets to gain the understanding of Army ROTC opportunities and expectations. It became clear that when the general social network of influence has certain alters, the social network actually changes somewhat when given a critical

Table 5

*Mean Tie Influence by Roles and Type of Relational Embeddedness*

Roles	Type of Relational Embeddedness																	
	Overall Role		Not Embedded		Competency		Personal		Hollow		Functional		Isolated		Latent		Full	
	HA	Non	HA	Non	HA	Non	HA	Non	HA	Non	HA	Non	HA	Non	HA	Non	HA	Non
Mom	3.66	3.22	2.5	1	0	0	3.25	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	4.4	2.5	4	5
Dad	3.75	4.43	3	0	0	0	3.3	4	0	0	0	0	0	4.5	4.5	4.7	5	4
ROTC Faculty / Staff	3.55	3.92	3.55	4	0	0	0	3.5	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0
Close Friends / Peers	4.25	3.53	4	3.5	5	0	4.7	4	0	2.5	0	0	0	5	4	3	4.3	0
Others with Military Experience	3.5	3.64	3.5	3.7	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Brother / Sister	2.6	3	2.2	3	0	0	3.2	3.8	0	0	0	0	0	5	2	1.7	3	4
Military Recruiter	3.8	3.5	3.67	3.33	0	0	5	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Grandparents	2.5	3.1	2	1.5	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	5	5	2.33	0	0
Teacher / Professor	4.25	3.67	4.25	3	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Spouse	5	5	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	5	5	0
Mentor	3.6	3.4	5	3	0	0	3	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0
Guidance Cslr / College Recruiter	4.33	5	4.33	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Coach	3.3	2	3	2	0	0	3.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Religious Leader	3	3.5	3	4	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Overall Type of Relational Embeddedness			3.4	3.4	5	0	3.63	3.76	0	2.67	0	0	5	4.67	3.93	2.9	4.13	4.2

*Note.* Numbers reflect the mean measure of “influence” for each category on a scale of 1-5 with 5 being very influential and 1 being not very influential

HA = Hispanic American Cadets

Non = Non- Hispanic American Cadets

decision and there is a lack of information. Many of these alters with military experience held the necessary knowledge, and while they may not influence every decision a candidate makes, they have a critical resource that cadets sought out in order to make an informed decision and hence included them in their social network even though they did not demonstrate relational embeddedness. Cadets specifically sought alters who held critical information and experiences to make this specific decision regarding Army service and specifically enrollment into Army ROTC.

Interviews indicate the majority of Hispanic American cadets (67%) were introduced to the idea of enrolling in Army ROTC by someone who was currently serving in the Armed Forces or had previously served. While the network ties of immediate family members may have greater relational embeddedness, these ties don't always positively impact the decision to enroll in Army ROTC unless the family members have served or are serving the Armed Forces. Only 10% of Hispanic American cadets had parents who served in the Armed Forces and 33% had brothers/sisters who were serving or had served in the Armed Forces.

Those alters with relationally embedded relationships are influential, and in fact those with strong personal relationships (personal, latent, fully embedded) who know more about the ego than others are some of the most influential. These relationships are generally known as having strong ties. At the same time, the relationships with alters that are not relationally embedded oftentimes are still influential as indicated in Table 5 by examples such as ROTC faculty staff with mean influence of 3.55, military recruiters with mean influence of 3.67, teachers/professors with mean influence of 4.25 and guidance counselor/college recruiters with mean influence of 4.33. The non-relationally embedded relationships have weak ties, however



when the alter has information or other resources that might be important in making the decision, the ego still described them as being influential.

In follow up interviews, the majority of Hispanic American cadets (60%) indicated that they spoke with someone who had served in the Armed Forces that had similar demographics (race and/or gender) as themselves. The TRENDS results indicate alters who had previous military experience (55%), other Army recruiters (47%), and ROTC faculty (67%) were identified as being members of cadet's social networks. Similarly they all showed high levels of influence, with overall role influence means greater than 3.5. Regardless of the type of relational embeddedness, 40% Hispanic American cadets indicated in follow up interviews that these roles were influential in their decision given that the cadets needed to eliminate as much of the unknown as possible before making a commitment to enroll in ROTC and these engagements were necessary to making that decision. As an example, in a follow up interview with a Hispanic American female cadet, she identified strongly with the fact she sought knowledge and eliminated doubts through speaking with a current female cadet who was enrolled in the same ROTC program that she was interested in joining.

### **Conclusion**

The Military Leadership Diversity Commission recommended that Congress require the Secretary of Defense to report annually on the status and progress of the Department of Defense's diversity efforts in part because low racial/ethnic minority representation in officer accessions results in lower representation at senior levels. The near term goal is to increase the quantity and quality of officer candidates from a diverse population including a specified, significant increase in Hispanic American officer candidates. The long term goal is to have a

diverse group of senior leaders who reflect the diversity of the soldiers they lead and the nation they serve (Military Leadership Diversity Commission, 2011).

Decisions are made by individuals, but with the influence of a social network that have various resources which impact those decisions. This study identified the alters, by role, who are members of Hispanic American candidate's social network and defined the types of relational embeddedness each role had in their relationship with the cadet (ego). What is clear is the need for those who are tasked to identify and recruit future officers to educate more than just the candidate about opportunities in the Army and the role of Army officers. Some alters demonstrate different types of relational embeddedness which classifies these relationships as having combinations of the social components of dyadic interaction, personal relationships, and social capital. The TRENDS survey results presented here identify who are the members of cadet's social networks, the type of relational embeddedness or characteristics of the relationship, and how much influence these members have on the decision to enroll in Army ROTC.

The tables presented in this study must be used in combination for officer recruiters and commanders of ROTC programs to maximize effectiveness. Table 3 outlined the alters cadets identified as having influenced their decision to enroll in Army ROTC. Among Hispanic American cadets, 80% identified Mom, 73% identified Dad, 67% identified ROTC faculty and staff, 60% identified close friends and peers. While this helps see who are the members of the network, for this data to be most useful it must be cross referenced with Table 4 which identified the types of relational embeddedness between the alters and the ego and Table 5 which identifies the mean tie influence by role and type of relational embeddedness. For example, 80% of Hispanic American cadets identified mom as an influential member of their network. When the

type of relational embeddedness is assessed, 18% did not have embedded relationships, 36% demonstrated personal relational embeddedness, and 45% latent relational embeddedness indicating the social component of strong personal relationships but not dyadic interaction (see Table 4). Assessing the mean tie influence by role and type of relational embeddedness among the Hispanic American cadets who identified mom, those who have personal relational embeddedness stated mom had an average of 3.35 out of 5 influence, while those who indicated a latent relational embeddedness stated mom had an average 4.4 out of 5 influence. For recruiters and Professors of Military Science to maximize effectiveness, it is necessary to understand the frequency Hispanic American cadets identify alters with specific roles and also understand the type of relational embeddedness as well as the amount of influence that role has on average with Hispanic American candidates.

Who should those tasked to recruit the best quality Hispanic American cadets engage beyond the candidates? Table 6 focuses on the responses from Hispanic American cadets only, identifying by role the alters cadets named most often and their mean influence. It also outlines the nature of the ties (relationships) by identifying the percentage of alters in each role by their type of relational embeddedness. Using this table, those who are seeking to recruit Hispanic American cadets can see which alters have the strongest relationships and simultaneously the mean influence they have on the cadet's decision to enroll in Army ROTC. Those alters which are relationally embedded, including mom, dad, spouse, brothers/sisters, close friends should be invited included in the search and recruitment of the candidate because they wield a combination of dyadic interaction, personal relationships and/or social capital with the candidates.

Those roles with high percentages of not relationally embedded relationships are still influential because they have valuable resources such as military experiences and knowledge of

opportunities in Army ROTC or the military in general. They too must be included in the recruiting process but realizing they do not know the candidate as well as those who are relationally embedded. Examples from the table include ROTC Faculty / Staff and others with military experience were named as influential by more than half of the Hispanic American cadets while none of them were relationally embedded but they had greater than 3.5/5 influence. At the same time Teachers/Professors are not relationally embedded, have a high influence at 4.25/5 but only 27% of Hispanic American cadets identified them in their network.

Table 6

*Critical Alters Identified by Hispanic American Cadets*

Roles	% of alters (by Role)	Mean Overall Influence	Type of Relational Embeddedness											
			<u>Not</u> <u>Embedded</u>		<u>Compe-</u> <u>tency</u>		<u>Personal</u>		<u>Isolated</u>		<u>Latent</u>		<u>Full</u>	
			<u>Inf</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Inf</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Inf</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Inf</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Inf</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Inf</u>	<u>%</u>
Mom	80%	3.66	2.5	18			3.25	36			4.4	36	4	9
Dad	73%	3.75	3	27			3.3	27			4.5	36	5	9
ROTC Faculty / Staff	67%	3.55	3.55	100										
Close Friends / Peers	60%	4.25	4	61	5	11	4.7	11			4	6	4.3	11
Others with Military Experience	60%	3.5	3.5	100										
Brother / Sister	53%	2.6	2.2	33			3.2	33			2	20	3	13
Military Recruiter	47%	3.8	3.67	83			5	17						
Grandparents	40%	2.5	2	83							5	17		
Teacher / Professor	27%	4.25	4.25	100										
Spouse	20%	5					5	33	5	33			5	33
Mentor	20%	3.6	5	33			3	67						
Guidance Cslr / College Recruiter	20%	4.33	4.33	100										
Coach	17%	3.3	3	100			3.7	67						
Religious Leader	7%	3	3	50										

*Note.* This table refers ONLY to Hispanic American cadets.

Mean Influence is on a scale of 1-5 with 5 being strong influence and 1 being weak influence.

Inf = Mean Influence of those alters identified by type of relational embeddedness.

% = Percentage of alters identified by type of relational embeddedness.

No Hispanic American cadets identified alters as being Hollow or Functional relationally embedded so those columns were removed.

100% of Hispanic American cadets who were married identified their spouse as being influential in their social network; only 20% were married.

The research also indicated that once a Hispanic American candidate was interested in college and Army ROTC enrollment, they didn't only rely on their traditional social network, but rather were generally seeking to engage with others who had made similar decisions or at least had military experiences. The most influential of these groups of alters were current or recently graduated cadets who were similar to the ego in gender, racial/ethnic diversity and academic program or at least the same ROTC program. These engagements allowed the future cadet to eliminate some of the unknown, myths, and fears about future ROTC education and training programs. The data also imply that veterans, alumni, and other alters who have experienced similar experiences in the past could also be powerful influences on cadets' decisions especially when the cadet does not have other members of his or her social network with military experience. These alters have the potential to facilitate identifying and educating the best future candidates, especially if these alters also match the ego in gender and racial/ethnic diversity of the candidate.

In simplistic terms, a former officer who graduated (alumni) from a specific ROTC program who is also Hispanic American would be a tremendous asset to recruit Hispanic American cadets for future service. This trend indicates that there will be a snowball effect as more Hispanic American cadets are recruited and commit to Army ROTC, as members of their own friends, peers, and family member's social networks of influence, they will continue to identify and influence additional Hispanic American cadets which will, over time, lead to greater racial/ethnic diversity in the U.S. Army.

Many times recruiters tend to want to engage only the candidate, but this study demonstrates that they must also educate and recruit parents, spouses, friends, family, and other members of the Hispanic American candidates' social network to encourage their positive

support towards the recruited candidate's decision to enroll in college and Army ROTC. While the majority of potential cadets are not married, for those who are, spouses wield the greatest influence. These influential members of the candidate's egocentric social network have increased impact when the ties with the candidate have relational embeddedness; however, these influential alters are often undereducated on what Army ROTC can offer so they are not always able to be as supportive as they might be. Recruiters themselves, while they do not demonstrate relational embeddedness, also have influence primarily because they have the information of the opportunities the Army can provide. Army ROTC Professors of Military Science and cadet recruiters must expand their efforts to engage a candidate's entire social network of influence. Access to parents and spouses for married cadets is absolutely critical to the success of increased Hispanic American cadets. Most importantly is understanding the need to go beyond engaging only the candidate, but rather reach out to educate the cadets' entire social network about the benefits and challenges of becoming an Army officer is the only way to increase the racial/ethnic diversity of the officer corps.

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## APPENDIX A: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The history of racial/ethnic minorities serving in the Armed Forces of the United States includes a tradition of honorable and even heroic service during periods of conflict, despite historical incidents and policies that reflected the existence of discrimination and racism among both the enlisted and officer ranks. As early as the pre-Revolutionary War Colonial period, every able bodied man was expected to serve as a soldier regardless of race or ethnicity. Throughout the history of the United States various racial/ethnic minority groups have been allowed, required, or encouraged to participate as soldiers, sailors, or airmen. However, for all but the last 50 or so years, they have not always had opportunities to lead due to various policies of segregation and acts of prejudice (Webb & Herrmann, 2002).

As recently as the end of World War II, the United States Armed Forces were still largely racially/ethnically segregated by virtue of personnel policies which were dominated by prejudices from previous wars and society at large (Dansby, Stewart & Webb, 2001). Since 1948, when President Truman ordered the desegregation of the armed forces following the Second World War, the Army has generally been a leader in the American culture in providing opportunity and equality for citizens of all racial/ethnic groups who serve their country. It would require Presidential influence through executive orders and multiple commissions to study and recommend changes to policies to encourage Army leaders to set the conditions for inclusion. This cultural shift has been either been embraced by or forced upon the Armed Forces by elected leaders, but regardless of the initial motivation, the armed forces and specifically the Army has slowly progressed from representative participation in the defense of the nation towards equal inclusion and leadership opportunities (Maze & Walton, 2014; Military Leadership Diversity Commission, 2011). The oath that each Soldier takes upon entering the United States Army

includes a commitment to “...support and defend the Constitution of the United States against all enemies; foreign and domestic” (Department of the Army, 1959). This oath commits each member of the Army to defend the values upon which our nation was built.

This chapter reviews the landmarks in military desegregation history, leading towards the current composition of the Armed Forces as well as objectives for the future force. It also addresses many of the definitions and reasons why ethnic/racial diversity is important in the Armed Forces, in the general workplace, in leadership positions both in public as well as private organizations, and specifically among Army leaders. The chapter reviews the process for becoming an Army leader and finally addresses briefly the proposed methods for seeking to increase racial/ethnic diversity specifically among Hispanic American officer candidates.

### **Chronological Landmarks in Military Desegregation**

Throughout American history there have been leaders who have stepped forth to address the issue of desegregation and more equal representation of various races/ethnicities in military leadership. Among those were Presidents Abraham Lincoln, Harry S. Truman, Lyndon B. Johnson, John F. Kennedy, and other politicians working at various times in federal government service.

**Events during the tenure of President Lincoln.** President Abraham Lincoln was a leader in seeking equality for all. There are three key indicators of his leadership role: (a) the Emancipation Proclamation issued January 1<sup>st</sup>, 1863; (b) the Gettysburg Address given November 19<sup>th</sup>, 1863; and largely due to his efforts, (c) the 13<sup>th</sup> Amendment of the Constitution of the United States adopted on December 6<sup>th</sup>, 1865 and (d) the 14<sup>th</sup> Amendment of the Constitution of the United States.

***The Emancipation Proclamation.*** In September of 1862, President Lincoln leveraged his war powers to declare the Emancipation Proclamation (formalized on January 1, 1863). In part, Lincoln's 1863 Proclamation states

...And by virtue of the power, and for the purpose aforesaid, I do order and declare that all persons held as slaves within said designated States, and parts of States, are, and henceforward shall be free; and that the Executive government of the United States, including the military and naval authorities thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of said persons. And I hereby enjoin upon the people so declared to be free to abstain from all violence, unless in necessary self-defence; and I recommend to them that, in all cases when allowed, they labor faithfully for reasonable wages. And I further declare and make known, that such persons of suitable condition, will be received into the armed service of the United States to garrison forts, positions, stations, and other places, and to man vessels of all sorts in said service. And upon this act, sincerely believed to be an act of justice, warranted by the Constitution, upon military necessity, I invoke the considerate judgment of mankind, and the gracious favor of Almighty God. (Lincoln, 1863a)

The purpose of the Proclamation was to destabilize those states that were rebelling against the Union. The President used war powers provided by the Constitution to the President under special circumstances as it only freed slaves in states that were rebelling and not throughout all of the United States. The Emancipation Proclamation technically freed the slaves and at the same time required the armed forces to recognize their freedom. This proclamation provided the opportunity for the freed slaves to serve in the armed services. History tells us that

those former slaves who chose to serve were not allowed to lead, but they did serve in significant numbers during the American Civil War under white officers (Guelzo, 2006).

*The Gettysburg Address.* In July of 1863, President Lincoln presented the Gettysburg Address in a little more than two minutes that asserted that the nation itself was established under the proposition that all men are created equal with the following well-known words: “Four score and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent, a new nation, conceived in Liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal” (Lincoln, 1863b). President Lincoln believed in establishing racial equality to the point that this caused the secession of some states. Lincoln’s drive to maintain the Union resulted in America’s bloodiest war. Lincoln believed that the sacrifices were worth the cost of maintaining the Union that had been established by the American forefathers with the foresight that a core value of equality was part of the breastwork of the political and philosophical establishment of the nation.

In the Gettysburg Address, President Lincoln continued to highlight that it was not just the actions of the past, but there was a need to continue action in the future to maintain and enhance the vision of equality asserted by the nation’s forefathers.

The world will little note, nor long remember what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us the living, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us—that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion—that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain—that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom—and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth (Lincoln, 1863b).

Lincoln sought not only equality but recognized that the government itself was intended to be representative of the people it served. The Constitution of the United States established the Army to defend the nation. The tie was that the Army and the government in general continued to serve the people and was also reflective of the people. Obviously racial/ethnic makeup of the government of 1863 did not reflect the racial/ethnic diversity of the population of the United States, but it seemed President Lincoln understood it should be a reflection of the people as he defended democracy and self-determination itself and challenged each of us to devote ourselves to the values of democracy (Guelzo, 2013).

***The Thirteenth Amendment.*** President Lincoln's long term legislation that facilitated racial/ethnic minorities' progress towards equality came through the Thirteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution. Lincoln recognized that the Emancipation Proclamation was created as a wartime necessity, but it did not guarantee long term freedom or even continued movement towards equality for all persons (Guelzo, 2006). Passed by Congress on January 31, 1865, and ratified on December 6, 1865, the 13th amendment abolished slavery in the United States and provides that "Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction" (United States Congress, 1865). Racial/ethnic minorities had served in the Armed Forces in various capacities other than leadership roles before Abraham Lincoln's presidency. President Lincoln's leadership guided the nation towards additional representation of racial/ethnic minorities in the Armed Forces, but leadership of later presidents was required to complete the long road towards racial/ethnic minority group inclusion as leaders in the Armed Forces.

***The Fourteenth Amendment.*** Passed by the United States Congress on June 13, 1866 at the conclusion of the Civil War and ratified July 9, 1868, the Fourteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution extended the rights granted by the Bill of Rights to former slaves. Congress submitted the Fourteenth Amendment as part of the Reconstruction program which guaranteed civil and legal rights to black citizens. The major provision of the amendment granted citizenship to “all persons born or naturalized in the United States” (United States Congress, 1868). The other key statement from the document was “nor shall any state deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws” (United States Congress, 1868). The amendment created the conditions for equality regardless of race or ethnicity; however it would be many years before the Armed Forces really would see anything resembling desegregation, let alone equality between the races/ethnicities (Armor & Gilroy, 2010).

**Commission of early minority leaders in the Armed Forces.** In 1877, shortly after the American Civil War and the Fourteenth Amendment, Henry O. Flipper became the first African American graduate of West Point and was commissioned a Second Lieutenant and assigned to the 10<sup>th</sup> United States Cavalry (United States Army Center of Military History, 2011). Lieutenant Flipper served in the 10<sup>th</sup> Cavalry, leading the Buffalo Soldiers, an all-African American regiment originally formed September 21<sup>st</sup>, 1866 at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. The Buffalo Soldiers’ regiments would be expanded during the Indian Wars and many African Americans served with distinction, with 13 enlisted men and six officers from what would become four regiments earned the Medal of Honor for actions during the Indian Wars (United States Army Center of Military History, 2011). While Lieutenant Flipper may have led the way

as a racial/ethnic minority Army leader, he did not mark the complete inclusion of racial/ethnic minorities.

**Effect of President Truman's Committee of Treatment and Opportunity.** Since 1948, the Armed Forces, and specifically the Army, transformed to be more representative of the general population. The Armed Forces purposely established systems to create a culture where service members are rewarded and promoted based on the ideals of performance, dedication, and potential no matter their racial/ethnic background (Department of Defense, 2009).

The first steps were taken by President Truman. During World War II, racism and prejudice especially against racial/ethnic minorities, was a cultural norm, even in the Armed Forces. At the end of the war, President Truman declared that racial/ethnic segregation in the Armed Forces would be eliminated and he established a commission with the desired output of implementing a policy of desegregation (The White House, 1948). Through Executive Order, he established the *President's Committee of Equality of Treatment and Opportunity* oftentimes known as the Fahy Committee named for the leader of the group. In part, the Executive Order states

It is hereby declared to be the policy of the President 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. This policy shall be put into effect as rapidly as possible, having due regard to the time required to effectuate any necessary changes without impairing efficiency or morale. (The White House, 1948)

While this committee had no true power or authority in and of itself, since President Truman clearly and unequivocally backed the establishment and actions of the committee they had the ability to get things done using his influence to recommend and enforce changes.

Mershon and Schlossman's 1998 book stated that the President personally met with the committee and told them directly that he wanted the Armed Forces desegregated, ideally without upsetting too many people (Mershon & Schlossman, 1998). This verbal guidance and the Executive Order provided enough authority for the committee to conduct their analysis of the situation. Consequently, they arrived at two critical conclusions. First, they found that it would be possible to create a policy designed to create additional opportunities for inclusiveness for racial/ethnic minorities. This could be implemented without expense of the general welfare of the force. Second, they concluded that a more inclusive military would actually be a more effective fighting force (Military Leadership Diversity Commission, 2011).

When the Korean War started in 1950, desegregation or integration was the published policy across the Armed Forces, but it was not nearly universal in action (Dansby et al., 2001). Desegregation in the military was not an easy process nor was it easily accepted at all levels (Maze & Walton, 2014). Officially, segregation of the Armed Forces was not fully eliminated until 1954. For context outside of the Armed Forces, 1954 is the same year the Supreme Court ruled on *Brown vs. The Board of Education* (*Brown vs. The Board of Education*, 1954). The stresses and demands of combat appeared to facilitate desegregation during the Korean War as senior military leaders overseas could use the needs of the Armed Forces to maintain momentum on this goal due to military necessity.

The Korean War made it possible to force desegregation in the Army. However, after the war, momentum slowed towards achieving President Truman's full intent in part because in many aspects Army policies were more progressive than desegregation in mainstream America (Mershon & Schlossman, 1998). This cultural shift has been either embraced by or forced upon the Armed Forces by elected leaders, in this case President Truman forced the changes



which created friction in embracing the cultural shift. Regardless of the initial motivation, the Army slowly made the necessary changes and progressed from representative participation in segregated units towards integration and inclusion (Maze & Walton, 2014).

One important report came forth in the following years. Created by the Operations Research Office of Johns Hopkins University, the group studied the performance of segregated and integrated units during the war. In 1954, the research team reported that Hispanic, African, and Asian Americans as well as other racial/ethnic minority groups performed better when not in segregated units and that unit readiness and effectiveness was significantly enhanced by racial/ethnic integration. The study further concluded that full integration throughout the Armed Forces was possible and feasible (Hanneman & Riddle, 2005). These conclusions clearly set the conditions for further integration and racial/ethnic diversification of the Armed Forces; however, the road towards total inclusion continued to be bumpy over the coming years (Ansel, 1990).

#### **President Kennedy's Committee on Equality of Opportunity in the Armed Forces.**

President John F. Kennedy sought to rejuvenate the efforts to establish equality and expand opportunities for racial/ethnic minorities following the loss of momentum at the conclusion of active combat operations in the Korean War. He sought to establish effective policies of greater racial/ethnic inclusiveness in the Armed Forces coupled with reducing racial/ethnic tension throughout the country. To meet these ends on June 22, 1962, the Kennedy Administration established the *President's Committee on Equality of Opportunity in the Armed Forces* (Mershon & Schlossman, 1998). This Committee, commonly known as the Gesell Committee (named after the chair), went even further in its efforts to create equity in the Armed Forces from the recommendations than the Truman Administration's Fahy Committee. They sought to investigate not only discrimination within the Armed Forces, but also sought to improve equality

of opportunity in the communities near bases and posts. Unfortunately, as the Vietnam War got underway the Kennedy Administration and later the Johnson Administration did not choose to implement all of their recommendations (MacGregor, 1981). In some ways, the situation during the Vietnam War had the opposite impact the Korean War had on facilitating implementation of the Fahy Committee recommendations, slowing the implementation of Gesell Committee recommendations by distracting those who were intended to implement them fully. The fact that there was a major war going on allowed the Department of Defense to focus efforts on the priority of fighting the war instead of implementing the recommendations from the Gesell Committee (Mershon & Schlossman, 1998).

The Gesell Committee assessed and proposed policies primarily targeted at enhancing equality of treatment in the Armed Forces, but more importantly they also studied and made recommendations regarding the treatment of service members and their families with respect to the local community, including housing, education, transportation, recreation, and programs. The report recommended the institutionalization of the military's commitment to equality of treatment and opportunity and centered its recommendations on empowering military commanders. It also recommended holding leaders accountable through evaluations (Mershon & Schlossman, 1998).

The Gesell Committee provided their report and recommendations to the Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara. Secretary McNamara directed the implementation of recommendations focused on equality of opportunity in the community and similar external institutions, issuing a Department of Defense Directive entitled *Equal Opportunity in the Armed Forces* (Department of Defense, 1963). The apparent lack of decisive action and support of the Gesell Committee recommendations were apparent during the Vietnam War where race related

issues caused significant challenges both inside and outside the combat zone (Mershon & Schlossman, 1998).

**Identification of racial tensions during the Vietnam War.** The Vietnam War highlighted the great disparities between the percentage of racial/ethnic minority officers and racial/ethnic minority enlisted personnel that resulted in racial polarization and harassment (Department of Defense, 2009; Karabel, 2003). Inequalities continued at all levels of the Armed Forces and particularly in the clear distinction between the enlisted and senior officer ranks. The lack of racial/ethnic diversity in military leadership led to issues and challenges that threatened the performance of the Armed Forces. There was increased racial polarization resulting in more racially motivated incidents in Vietnam and within the military domestically. The 2003 legal brief presented by Lieutenant General Julius Becton, Jr. as *Amici Curiae* in support of the Army leadership outlines that during the Vietnam War, significant disciplinary problems within the Armed Forces were driven primarily by the fact that the racial/ethnic diversity of the enlisted force was not represented in their officer leadership. While desegregation following World War II increased the representation of African Americans in the enlisted ranks, throughout the 1960s and 1970s the percentage of racial/ethnic minority officers continued to be extremely low and disproportionate to the enlisted force's makeup (Becton et al., 2003). "In Vietnam, racial tensions reached a point where there was an inability to fight" (Maraniss, 1990, p. 1).

There was a great lack of racial/ethnic diversity in the racial/ethnic mix with officer candidates. The diversity among officers did not come close to matching the ethnicities of the soldiers they led. In 1968, the African-American population of officer candidates at West Point was less than 1%, and as late as 1973 only 2.8% of Army officers were African American. During the same time frame, African Americans made up 17% of the enlisted force. In Vietnam,

the impact of this de facto segregation was clearly demonstrated by race-related tension and ineffective leadership (Karabel, 2003). By the early 1970s, General Creighton Abrams, the Commander of Forces in Vietnam, reported race relations were having a significant negative impact on combat effectiveness (Dansby et al., 2001).

Since the Vietnam War, the Armed Forces have continued to seek improvements in the racial/ethnic diversity of their leadership. Equal Opportunity programs, as well as increased applications and acceptance of racial/ethnic minority officer candidates have increased and the makeup of the enlisted force has moved closer to being representative of the United States. However, the reality is that the racial/ethnic makeup of the United States population is continuously changing, meaning that the racial/ethnic mix of soldiers, sailors, and airmen coupled with their officer leadership also needed to evolve with the changing face of Americans.

**Establishment of the Military Leadership Diversity Commission (2009).** Changing demographics across the nation created the need for the Armed Forces to continue to evolve to be representative of the nation it serves. The National Defense Authorization Act for 2009 established another Commission, known as the Military Leadership Diversity Commission, who made multiple recommendations in 2011 which are currently being evaluated for potential inclusion as future policies throughout the Armed Forces. The Commission's report states that they were asked to "conduct a comprehensive evaluation and assessment of policies that provide opportunities for the promotion and advancement of minority members of the Armed Forces, including minority members who are senior officers" (Military Leadership Diversity Commission, 2011, p. vii). This Commission's Final Report entitled *From Representation to Inclusion: Diversity Leadership for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century Military*, concluded that the diversity of our service members is the strength of the military. It further concluded that our nation's future

challenges can be better overcome by embracing our understanding of diversity and effectively leading the force in such a way to take advantage of the different characteristics, experiences and backgrounds a diverse force brings. The commission provided 20 recommendations ranging from a new definition for diversity, to recommended ways to eliminate barriers that are impacting the racial/ethnic makeup of military leadership (Military Leadership Diversity Commission, 2011). The entire basis of Lieutenant General Becton's case, representing Military leaders in *Gatz vs. Bollinger* (2003), is "the government's compelling national security interest in a diverse officer corps requires race conscious admissions policies for officer training programs" (Becton, 2003. p. 18).

### **Nature of Diversity in the United States Military**

There are many factors to consider in the discussion of diversity. These include establishing what the Department of Defense sees as the definitions for race/ethnicity and minority status, what the current United States Census data indicates is the racial/ethnic diversity of the nation, and what the statistics show for the diversity of the Armed Forces. In order to achieve a racial/ethnic diversity of the officers in the Armed Forces comparable to the racial/ethnic diversity of the nation as well as the soldiers who serve, it is also important to identify challenges and issues specific to the military with regards to racial/ethnic diversity and compare them to the issues and purposes for increased racial/ethnic diversity in the general workforce.

**Military definitions of diversity.** In the wider scope, diversity includes multiple possibilities including all types of demographics including gender, age, race, ethnicity, disabilities, religion, and sexual orientation to name a few, but it can also mean all differences in groups of people (Lim, Cho, & Curry, 2008). Former Chief of Staff of the Army General

(retired) Eric K. Shinseki stated during remarks in April 2003 that the Army draws strength from its cultural and [racial/]ethnic diversity (Reyes, 2006). While the term “diversity” can be defined in many ways, this research focuses on racial/ethnic diversity because of the historically significant role that race and ethnicity plays in the American culture and the Army specifically (Lim et al., 2008). Diversity is more than mere representation, the key is how diversity can lead towards greater organizational effectiveness through the maximization of the capabilities of a diverse workforce and its leaders (Reyes, 2006).

Prior to the 2011 Military Leadership Diversity Commission, each service within the Armed Services maintained its own definition(s) of diversity. The Department of Defense definition addresses a broad range of personal attributes beyond just race and ethnicity instead focusing how the different characteristics and attributes of individuals can create performance advantages through the synergy of diverse ideas and people. The Army’s definition expanded that to include the different attributes, experiences, and backgrounds of soldiers, Department of the Army civilians and family members and how they can enhance the global capabilities and contributions of the Army. The Air Force, Navy, Marine Corps and Coast Guard each had similar, but different definitions which while sharing many common themes, are each also distinct (Military Leadership Diversity Commission, 2009a). As a result of these different definitions, the committee started the process by recommending a single definition for the entire Department of Defense. The commission identified common themes in the various definitions including that diversity included recognizing, respecting and utilizing a variety of attributes, not just race and ethnicity. Diversity provides advantages through the integration of diverse ideas and people. Finally, the commission asserted that a diverse military reflected the diversity of the nation they defend (Military Leadership Diversity Commission, 2009a).

The Military Leadership Diversity Commission's Final Report recommends a new definition for all of the Department of Defense consistent with these themes. The commission asserted that "Diversity is all the different characteristics and attributes of individuals that are consistent with Department of Defense core values, integral to overall readiness and mission accomplishment, and reflective of the nation we serve" (Military Leadership Diversity Commission, 2011, p. 12).

***Race/ethnicity.*** When researchers use and/or produce demographic data in terms of race and ethnicity, the definitions and use of these terms either alone or together has been significantly inconsistent at different times in history and in different social, scientific, and political contexts. These inconsistencies can make comparisons over time challenging – or they can even make a reasonable understanding in one time and place very difficult, or perhaps impossible. For example, during the age of segregation within the Armed Forces (pre-1951), Hispanic Americans were grouped based on the darkness of their skin instead of their genealogical background. Light-skinned soldiers of Hispanic American heritage served and were grouped as white soldiers, while darker skinned soldiers of Hispanic American origin were grouped in black (or colored) units. The Army actually classified military members only as White, Black, or Other from 1914 until 1972 (Webb & Herrmann, 2002).

It must also be noted that these racial/ethnic categories are generalities themselves. Since this research focuses on Hispanic Americans, it must be noted that even this term is a generalization not unlike "North Americans" is a generalization which doesn't fully describe the members of the group. Other common generalizations for Hispanic Americans are Latinos or Latinas which generally refer to all ethnicity members who are of either Spanish ancestry or the ancestry of other countries generally referred to as Latin America. The members of this ethnic

group truly prefer to be called by the country they originated from such as Chileans, Peruvians, Mexicans, Spaniards, and Guatemalans, etc. For the purpose of this paper, we will use the same categories that the United States Government uses, meaning in this case Hispanic Americans or Latino(a)s – but we must acknowledge that these terms are truly generalizations.

The United States Office of Management and Budget (OMB) was directed to establish the minimum standards for federal agencies to observe in collecting and reporting racial/ethnic data. The purpose was to try and create consistency in an area that traditionally has lacked consistency regarding race and ethnicity data. In 1997, the standards were revised after a significant review, establishing five categories for data on race and two categories for data on ethnicity. The standards have five categories for data on race: American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, black or African-American, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, and white. There are also two categories for data on ethnicity: Hispanic or Latino and Not Hispanic or Latino (Office of Management and Budget, October 30, 1997).

The Military Leadership Diversity Commission uses the following categories for data related to race/ethnicity

- White non-Hispanic
- Black non-Hispanic
- Asian non-Hispanic
- Other non-Hispanic (includes American Indians, Pacific Islanders, Alaska Natives, and those who declare more than one race)
- Hispanic or Latino

For the purpose of this study we will specifically use ethnicity to address and research the recruiting and accessions of Hispanic or Latino officer candidates into the Armed Forces



(Military Leadership Diversity Commission, 2009b). The purpose for this clarification in both this review and research is to make comparisons between officer candidates possible, since the OMB categories differentiate Hispanic or Latino as ethnic categories outside the list of racial categories. Since this study is focused on military leadership diversity, we will use the Military Leadership Diversity Commission definitions, which facilitate highlighting the Hispanic or Latino community who is the focus racial/ethnic minority group of this study while ensuring Hispanics are not counted twice (Military Leadership Diversity Commission, 2009b).

***Minority status.*** John Ogbu's 1998 article describes several classifications of minorities. Ogbu defines minority status more on the basis of power relations between groups instead of numerical in superiority or representation. His definition identified a group as a minority if the identification referred to some sort of subordinate power position in relationship to another population (the majority or those holding super ordinate power) within the same society. Ogbu classified minority groups into three categories identified as autonomous, voluntary or immigrant or involuntary or nonimmigrant. Autonomous, voluntary or immigrant groups are those whose members made deliberate decisions to immigrate or join a society where they are a numerical minority or lack the level of influence of another group who is the majority. Involuntary or nonimmigrant minority groups are those who due to changes in the social power have a lower level of influence and power or potentially were forced into that society through slavery or other means. These minority groups may be different in race, ethnicity, religion, or language from the dominant (or majority/power) group, but they are not defined as minorities by these types of differences (Ogbu, 1998).

Most other researchers utilize basic numeric reasoning to identify/classify minority groups. Literally any race, ethnicity, religious or other group that has smaller numeric representation is a minority group.

**Changes in United States Census data on race and ethnicity over time.** The 2010 United States Census provided insight to the current racial/ethnic makeup of the United States population. Whites were 72.4% of the United States population and continue to be the numerical majority, but that position of numerical majority is quickly diminishing. Blacks or African-Americans were 12.6% of the population. American Indians and/or Alaska Natives were .9%, Asians or Asian-Americans were 4.8% of the population, Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islanders were .2% of the population, while all other racial/ethnic groups combined consisted of 6.2% of the population. Those self-identifying as belonging to two or more racial/ethnic groups made up 2.6% of the population. Perhaps the most telling statistic is that 16.3% of the U.S. population was Hispanic or Latino (of any race), meaning the Latin American community was the largest racial/ethnic minority group, and they constituted the fastest growing minority group in the U.S. (Government of the United States of America Census Bureau, 2010).

The makeup of U.S. population is changing and the Hispanic American or Latino population is expected to continue to grow rapidly over the next 30 years. In fact, most projections indicate highly accelerated rates of growth of the Hispanic American or Latino community, while at the same time the white minority is actually showing a negative growth rate, projecting the current Hispanic American minority to become the majority population in the U.S. within the next three decades (Military Leadership Diversity Commission, 2011).

Looking back, the 2000 United States Census data indicated that approximately 12.5% of the United States population was of Hispanic American or Latino origin. The 2010 Census

indicated that this group constituted 16.3 percent of the population, a growth of nearly 4% in a 10-year period. Over the same period, the white majority of 2000 was approximately 75.1% of the population and decreased by 2010 to 72.4%, a net reduction of nearly 3%.

At a constant rate the Hispanic American or Latino community would be projected to make approximately a seven to eight percent net gain on the white majority every 10 years. However, the transition rate isn't a constant, rather it is constantly increasing. This fact is due to the significantly higher birth rates among the Hispanic American community versus whites, together with continued legal and illegal immigration.

*Armed Forces ethnicity in 1998.* The Department of Defense report on social representation in the Military Services covering Fiscal Year 1998 (1 October 1997 – 30 September 1998) provides some insight to racial/ethnic representation trends within the Armed Forces in 1998. At that time, African Americans made up 14% of the U.S. 18-24 year old population, but were overrepresented in active duty accessions at 20% of the force. At the same time, Hispanic Americans only made up 10% of active duty accessions while they comprised 15% of the 18-24 year old population in the United States. Other ethnic/racial minority groups including Native Americans, Asians, and Pacific Islanders represented approximately 5% of the total United States population, but were slightly overrepresented in the enlisted force at 6%. African Americans enlisted into the Armed Forces in higher numbers than their representative national population and also accounted for higher retention rates, causing active duty enlisted members to 22 percent total representation, compared to only 12 percent of African Americans among 18-24 year-olds in the civilian workforce. At the same time only 8 percent of active duty enlisted members reported themselves as Hispanic, resulting in underrepresentation compared to the 12 percent reported nationally (Adamshick, 2005).

During the 1990s, the percent of Hispanic enlistees ranged from seven to nine percent, compared to an 18-24 year old youth population (which was increasing) ranging from 13 to 15 percent. The Hispanic officer representation was even lower, with only between four to six percent reported. Statistically Hispanics have been underrepresented in the military by roughly the same degree that blacks are overrepresented during the 1980s through 1990s (Armor, 1996).

*Armed Forces ethnicity in 2008 and 2010.* The Military Leadership Diversity Commission used similar data from 2008 to describe the current racial/ethnic diversity of the Armed Forces of the United States, including data on both enlisted personnel and officers. In 2008, non-Hispanic whites made up roughly 66% of the total United States workforce, but only 60% of the enlisted force and nearly 75% of the officer corps. Non-Hispanic blacks consist of roughly 12% of the U.S. workforce, but were overrepresented at 19% of the enlisted force while being slightly underrepresented among officers at 11%. Hispanic Americans were the most uniformly underrepresented group, in 2008 having grown to 15% of the United States workforce (making them the largest racial/ethnic minority group), yet only 13% of enlisted personnel and an extremely low 6% of the officer force come from this racial/ethnic minority group. Hispanics were clearly disproportionately underrepresented overall and well behind in officer accessions relative to the size of the group in the general United States population (Military Leadership Diversity Commission, 2011).

In 2010 the number of Armed Forces members, both enlisted and officer, who reported some Hispanic or Latino ethnicity in the Active Duty Force was 10.8%. For 1995 through 2008, Hispanic was included as a minority designation in Armed Forces reporting documents. In 2009, in order to conform to the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) directives, Hispanic was no longer considered a minority race, but rather Hispanic was re-designated as an ethnicity. As a

result, the best comparison data for Armed Forces personnel is that provided in 2008 as noted above (Department of Defense, 2010).

Hispanic Americans are the largest and youngest ethnic/racial minority group in the United States. In 2010, roughly 20% of all school children in the United States were Hispanics and nearly 25% of all new born babies are of Hispanic ethnic background. By force of numbers alone the Hispanic American minority is easily the fastest growing minority group in the history of the United States (Association of Naval Services Officers, 2010).

### **Factors Influencing the Acceptance of Diversity**

Multiple arguments exist for organizations to embrace a diverse workforce. In some cases the concepts of diversity are tied to equal employment opportunity (EEO) which has a legal connotation related to fairness in hiring and personnel practices. While it is true that embracing diversity in the workplace may assist organizations in avoiding legal issues related to EEO regulations, ensuring that policies are not discriminatory, this is not the primary reason to embrace diversity. The mixing of racial/ethnic backgrounds is only the beginning. The ability to increase effectiveness and open new and additional advantages by striving to recruit, develop, promote, and capitalize on the different talents, skills, and perspectives of a racially/ethnically diverse workforce are the real goals for embracing diversity (Marquis, Lim, Scott, Harrell, & Kavanagh, 2008).

**Cultural context for diversity in the workforce.** By studying business research regarding the advantages of racial/ethnic diversity in the workplace, we can gain insight that might facilitate understanding the importance of representative racial/ethnic diversity in the armed forces. The importance of racial/ethnic diversity today stems in large part from the current and predicted demographic shifts in the United States workforce. These shifts create a

military, public, and private sector workforce which is significantly more racially/ethnically diverse than any time in the past. Organizations that are able to effectively manage their diversity are commonly known as multicultural and when effectively managed the racial/ethnic differences are embraced. Competitive advantage can be gained through maximizing the benefits of this diverse workforce (Dansby et al., 2001).

Businesses are able to improve their bottom line in several ways through a more racially/ethnically diverse workforce. First, they have the opportunity to increase their workforce talent pool simply by opening or removing any barriers to hiring practices thereby creating a greater pool of candidates (Davis, 2000). A second argument is that a more racially/ethnically diverse workforce is more likely to provide insight into new or under tapped markets and provide additional opportunities that might have not even been recognized earlier. Organizations can literally boost market share by having a workforce which looks similar to the racial/ethnic diversity of the market they serve or even provide opportunities in new or untapped markets that would not have been discovered without a racially/ethnically diverse workforce to identify them (Clever, 2003). There are multiple studies available which indicate more racially/ethnically diverse working groups are naturally more innovative, flexible, and/or productive due in part to the variety of experiences during their developmental years (Marquis et al., 2008). Workgroups composed of racially/ethnically diverse personnel are noted to do a better job of analyzing and solving complex problems due to the variety of backgrounds and experiences in problem solving (Cox, 2001). The two most common reasons for the business community to diversify its workforce are to improve the company's bottom line and to enhance the work environment in general (Marquis et al., 2008).

A 2002 study shows the increased multi-ethnic buying power between 1990 and 2001. New customers and increased market share are available and increased racial/ethnic diversity in the workforce can facilitate these companies to tap into those markets. The combined buying power of racially/ethnically diverse communities in the United States grew from a base of roughly \$600,000 billion in 1990 to \$1.4 trillion in 2001 (Robinson, Pfeiffer & Buccigrossi 2003).

Cox (2001) concludes that racially/ethnically diverse organizations are also the most flexible ones. This conclusion comes from an ability to not only have a racially/ethnically diverse workforce, but to effectively manage that workforce to maximize the talents, backgrounds, and capabilities of its members, actively integrating minorities into the organization's structure and operations and establishing a mutual appreciation among the members of the organization for their differences (Cox, 2001).

**Leadership mandates for increasing diversity in the Army.** Both civilian and military leaders of the Armed Forces are seeking increased racial/ethnic diversity in the military. In 2010, the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, Admiral Mike Mullen, told senior military leaders specifically that they couldn't go fast enough to increase racial/ethnic diversity in the Armed Forces (Parrish, 2010). That same year Secretary of Defense Robert Gates made a similar declaration during a speech presented at Duke University. He stated that the Armed Forces are at risk of developing an entire group of military leaders who are isolated from the population they are sworn to protect because the vast majority of mainstream Americans are generally not impacted in any way by the wars that have recently been fought. When less than one percent of US citizens serve or have served in the Armed Forces since the attacks on 9/11, the other 99% do not have shared experiences or any personal life impacts from service in the

conflicts. At the same time Admiral Mullen also indicated that current senior military leaders are not racially/ethnically diverse enough to realistically be representative of the population they are sworn to protect (Bumiller, 2010).

During the Korean War, the military facilitated a study conducted by the Operations Research Office of Johns Hopkins University, commonly called Project Clear, more formally entitled the Utilization of Negro Manpower in the Army. The primary purpose of the study was to identify the effects of segregation versus integration in the United States Army. The Project Clear results were released in 1954 and it concluded that integration throughout the Armed Forces was not only feasible, but those units that were integrated were clearly more effective than segregated units (Hausrath, 1954). The Project Clear study conclusions and similar studies set the stage for full desegregation of the Armed Forces and in 1954 the Department of Defense announced that the Army had in fact eliminated both any policy requiring segregation and discontinued all specifically segregated units (Webb & Herrmann, 2002).

**Calls for equality from within the ranks.** During the turmoil of the racially motivated tensions in the United States of the 1950s, 60s, and 70s the fight for civil rights not only impacted the civilian community. There were nearly as many racially motivated riots in the military as there were outside it. Most within the military hierarchy believed that simply by desegregating the Armed Forces the problems would go away, but they were mistaken. President Truman's Executive Order 9981, issued July 26, 1948, required desegregation of the Armed Forces but it didn't guarantee equal treatment. Several military installations reported racially triggered riots, protests, and confrontations both in the United States and abroad including events at Fort Knox, Kentucky, Fort Dix, New Jersey, Travis Air Force Base in California, Sheppard Air Force Base, Texas; Osan Air Force Base, Korea; aboard the Navy ships USS Kitty Hawk and



USS Constellation; and at European Army installations in Bamberg and Mannheim, Germany. The Department of Defense initiated investigations as to the cause of the problems and tensions which reported the situation as serious. The investigation reported civilian groups interacted with the post and base populations who were further influenced by the off-base racial/ethnic climate. The interaction of military and non-military groups coupled with the hostile conditions that existed both on and off post escalated into a riot conditions. The investigating team identified significant frustration and outright anger among African American soldiers who believed that a major cause for this tension was the failure of commanders to exercise their authority to eliminate many of the conditions leading to the contentious environment (Becton et al., 2003; Webb & Herrmann, 2002).

These investigations led directly towards changes in training and education as well as expectations of commanders in exercising their influence and authority. Commanders were expected to eliminate as many of the tensions as possible by setting a command climate that facilitated teamwork instead of contention (Webb & Herrmann, 2002).

**Racial/ethnic diversity issues.** Historically the Armed Forces play a unique role in society and they have a capability that isn't and cannot be mirrored in the civilian populous. As a result there are legitimate concerns among the general population regarding the allegiances and motivations of the Armed Forces. All too often in history, primarily in other countries, there have been military coups and military governments that harnessed human rights in states of martial law, making the general population skeptical. In a representative democracy, like the United States, it is generally expected that a representative military force is much more likely to support and defend the Constitution according to the oath taken by members of the Armed

Forces, including the beliefs and values of the nation resulting in a force loyal to the government the people they defend (Armor, 1996).

Experience from the past and present operations indicates that racial/ethnic diversity issues are not taken into sufficient consideration when international operations are planned. Examples from Afghanistan and Iraq show that alliances including NATO or other coalitions are not able to reach out to the whole society to fulfill their mandates because they do not address and provide for the needs of the whole society where they are operating. During the last 100 years, the Armed Forces of the United States inevitably performed their primary role outside the Continental United States, in foreign lands most often in conjunction with coalition partners. The ability to integrate with an allied or coalition force that is very distinct from our own culture as well as racial/ethnic mix to conduct operations in foreign lands is the essence of the Armed Forces of the United States (Lund, 2007).

Organizations are tools that mobilize resources that can then be used for a variety of outcomes. Criteria for hiring and promotion practices are likely to have a negative impact on performance if they eliminate differing viewpoints and backgrounds. Organizations may end up with only one way of viewing or approaching a problem while the use of universalistic hiring criteria increase the probability of different perspectives while creativity in ideas increases (Perrow, 1986).

The Chief of Staff of the Army, General George Casey stated the United States Army operates in diverse cultures, and having a diverse organization provides different views to deal with the diverse culture and the complexities that they are going to be confronting. It is absolutely a combat multiplier, especially in the environments we see coming at us and that we are dealing with today (Casey, 2010). The Chief of Naval Operations similarly stated “diversity

gives us better solutions... it makes us more effective because we are able to draw from many different perspectives..." (Roughhead, 2010, p. 2)

The business case for diversity outlined previously concludes that increased racial/ethnic diversity leads to greater effectiveness. The military argument makes similar conclusions, but with more emphasis on innovation and integration into diverse cultures outside the United States. Dr. John Nagel and his team from the Center for New American Security in their assessment and recommendations for future development of the officer corps state that war is essentially a human endeavor. Success in war is through effective implementation of human capital as the key resource for effectiveness. They conclude that a racially/ethnically diverse leadership leads officers towards having a greater understanding on how to maximize that effectiveness, how to understand differing points of view and cultures, and ultimately how to work together in a multinational stage to achieve the desired outcomes (Nagl et al., 2010) .

The ethnic makeup of the enlisted force of the US Army is roughly representative of the nation it serves with some minor variations. African Americans are slightly overrepresented in the enlisted force while Hispanics are underrepresented (Becton et al., 2003). Since the Vietnam era, the Department of Defense has actively sought a racially/ethnically representative enlisted force, and while recognizing a goal of a racially/ethnically representative officer corps, they have oftentimes not been able to achieve it. In a democratic society, the Armed Forces should be racially/ethnically representative of the nation it defends. As the Vietnam War ended, the decision was made to transition the Armed Forces to an All-Volunteer Force which was predicted to maintain a similar racial/ethnic representation to the nation's workforce. African Americans were overrepresented during the first years of the All-Volunteer Force, while Hispanics were underrepresented when compared to the national racial/ethnic makeup. During

the subsequent decade there was a change in the racial/ethnic makeup of the Armed Forces when the percentage of Hispanics began to increase, especially among enlisted soldiers and sailors and black representation stabilized. After these years of strong representation of both African and Hispanic Americans, the late 1990s started a slow reduction in African American representation across the force followed by a reduction in Hispanic Americans in the subsequent years both in retention as well as accession into the Armed Forces. The Army also seeks senior leaders who match the racial/ethnic diversity of the forces they lead and the nation they support to enhance leader-subordinate trust resulting in fewer casualties and greater capability to accomplish the mission (Armor & Gilroy, 2010; Becton et al., 2003).

### **Race/Ethnicity and Education impact on the Armed Forces**

Directly related to the changing state of racial/ethnic diversity in the Armed forces are the race/ethnicity issues related to education in the United States. As the Armed Forces progressed to an all-volunteer force in the late 1970s, entrance requirements were tied directly to the education levels of potential candidates. Generally speaking in order to enlist in the United States Armed Forces, a candidate must be a high school graduate. There have been some exceptions to this rule including allowing those who achieved GEDs to enter, but generally speaking the entry level education to enlist has been a high school education. At the same time, the entry level requirements for commissioned officers from both the United States Military Academy and the Reserve Officer Training Corps are a minimum of a bachelor's degree (Department of the Army, 2006). Since there are credentials from educational institutions required for entry, there is a direct relationship between the racial/ethnic diversity of American education institutions and the racial/ethnic diversity of the Armed Forces of the United States.

**Rationale for increasing diversity in the Army.** Lunenburg and Ornstein (2004)

describe a democratic community in American education similar to the one described by John Dewey (1916) in *Education and Democracy*. The concepts they recommend be taught include democracy, language, history, economics, science and mathematics, commitment to community and a desire to participate (Dewey, 1916). These communities begin not with the normal cultural assumption of shared norms, beliefs, and values, but with the need for respect, dialogue, and understanding. Some of the primary principles surrounding the concept of democratic schools include a consistent open communication and idea sharing that empowers people with the necessary information to evaluate ideas and continue through decision making processes to be able to participate equally. It also depends on this information flow to lead towards decisions and collective actions, acting for others as well as with others to achieve the greatest benefit for the community at large (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2004).

Lunenburg and Ornstein (2004) as well as Dewey (1916) indicate that a community of democracy requires acceptance and celebration of difference and it focuses on the integral linkages between the school, the surrounding community, and the larger global community. The authors go on to discuss social justice as the underpinning of American democracy including the importance of fairness and equal opportunities for all. At the same time they quote statistics which indicate there is still systematic racism in schools as demonstrated through disproportionate academic underachievement by children of color (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2004).

The United States government is a representative republic, built on democratic ideals. The teaching and growth of those ideals in our educational institutions is fundamental to the continuation of the development of the American society and continuation of American culture.

The country needs young Americans who are willing to serve their community, who understand the ideals, values, and beliefs that have built and maintained our form of democracy. At the same time, commentary about the future demographic trends are exactly why it is so important for those who recruit and encourage future leaders of the United States Army to better understand the social support networks of racial/ethnic minorities and the amount of influence they wield on the decisions of potential cadet candidates. If the Army is to represent and defend American society, it should do so with roughly the same racial/ethnic diversity that is found in our society (Lim, Marquis, Hall, Schulker & Xiaohui 2009; Military Leadership Diversity Commission, 2011). Furthermore the soldiers who enlist should be led by officers, and especially senior officers, who reflect that same racial/ethnic diversity (Lim et al., 2009). Arguments for fair and equitable teaching for all students, overcoming the current systematic racism in schools, are critical to meeting these goals of a racially/ethnically diverse officer corps in the Army that matches the Soldiers they lead and the society they defend.

One of the great challenges is the ever shrinking number of American's youth aged 17 to 25 who are eligible to enlist, let alone seek an officer commission due to failure to meet entry requirements in citizenship, number of dependents, financial status, education level, aptitude, substance abuse, language skills, moral conduct, height and weight, physical fitness, and medical qualifications or poor education (unable to graduate from high school, let alone enter college) (Asch, Heaton, & Bogdan, 2009; Mission Readiness Organization, 2009). The Armed Forces need to increase the pool of racially/ethnically diverse candidates through improved education programs leading towards meeting the minimum entry requirements while at the same time reaching out to those who influence those 25% of candidates who are eligible (Nagl et al., 2010).

**Military Officer Development Programs.** Educational institutions set the conditions for all members of society to have the tools necessary to serve the nation. At the same time Professors of Military Science must seek to recruit and retain a more racially/ethnically diverse officer corps which matches the racial/ethnic mix not of the current country, but of our future racially/ethnically diverse population.

***Training of Military Officers.*** The Armed Forces and especially the Army has a closed personnel system which does not allow for lateral entry and it takes 25-30 years to develop and promote an officer to senior rank (Department of the Army, 2005). This means that any Army officer (leader) will need to start from the entry level as a Second Lieutenant and move up through the ranks. With rare exceptions for technical specialties in fields like medicine, there is no means to directly enter from the business world or other professions into middle or senior management in the Armed Forces. From commissioning as an officer in the United States Army, it takes at least twenty years (meaning the best officers) to achieve the rank of Colonel and at least twenty three years to achieve general officer ranks (Armor & Gilroy, 2010; Department of the Army, 2005).

Officer candidates are developed through one of only a few methods. Most (85+ %) enter through either the Military Academies or the Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC). Both of these programs require cadets to complete at least bachelor's degrees academically coupled with two to four year military and physical development programs. In a few cases, enlisted personnel who already have bachelor's degrees or have nearly completed them and are recommended by their chain of command can be enrolled in Officer Candidate School (OCS) to achieve a federal commission. Since these candidates already have academic degrees, this program is significantly quicker, taking only a few months to complete the OCS course and earn

a commission as a 2<sup>nd</sup> Lieutenant. USMA and ROTC require more time and require that candidates be accepted to advanced education programs and stay with them long enough to graduate while also completing the military and physical programs resulting in commissioning (Department of the Army, 2006; Meese, 2002).

*Scarcity of minorities in senior levels.* DoD officials including the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, Admiral Mullen, expressed great concern about the scarcity of racial/ethnic minorities in senior leadership positions within the military (Parrish, 2010). Traditionally most officers in the senior ranks have come from combat arms career fields which are occupied by a disproportional number of white officers from the time of commissioning, eventually leading to a lack of racially/ethnically diverse senior leaders 25 years later. It is critical since the Army has a closed personnel system that there is racial/ethnic diversity not just into the Army, but in specific combat arms related fields to provide maximum opportunity to potentially become senior officers and this must be done during the accessions process while they are still cadets prior to commissioning (Becton et al., 2003).

ROTC is tasked to recruit and develop officer candidates who fill the ranks of the officer corps. The result is in order to achieve greater racial/ethnic minority representation not only in the lower but in senior ranks including Hispanic Americans, requires a college degree and access to higher education as well as greater representation in the selection of combat arms branches (Lim et al., 2009).

Professors of Military Science at ROTC Battalions and USMA Admissions personnel are asked to seek out and recruit candidates into officer development programs. Current target rates for officer accessions are 12% Hispanic American cadets as stated in Cadet Command training guidance (United States Army Cadet Command, 2011). These percentages are representative of



a current perceived Hispanic American population, but in order to maintain a force which is representative of the nation these goals need to increase in the immediate future. 2010 Census data indicates that 16.8% of the population is Hispanic American now (United States Census Bureau, 2010). Projections for the next 30 years indicate that the Hispanic population in the United States will continue to increase to the point that the Hispanic American minority will eventually become the majority. In order to have a representative number of Hispanic senior officers as the racial/ethnic diversity of the United States population changes in the future to lead an enlisted force which is representative of the nation they serve, means the United States Army should have closer to 30% of all current officer candidates (cadets) entering officer development programs now.

**Recruiting.** Army ROTC is expected to commission over 5,500 new officers across 275 senior ROTC programs in universities throughout the United States. Currently ROTC provides minimal training to assigned recruiters, consisting primarily of a three week course along with some online training. The result is that ROTC possesses no professionally trained or highly experienced recruiters on par with civilian talent managers or even the United States Army Recruiting Command who is tasked to fill the enlisted ranks of the Army (United States Army Cadet Command, 2013). ROTC recruiters learn primarily while on the job which can result in their experience being one of receiving qualified candidates instead of recruiting them. There is ultimately limited, active capability to target, compete for, and win talent, especially racially/ethnically diverse talent, who are willing to serve as future officers (United States Army Cadet Command, 2013).

One of the methods ROTC uses to ensure racial/ethnic diversity is by maintaining programs at Historically Hispanic and Black Colleges where the majority of students are of

certain racial/ethnic categories. Other methods also include seeking assistance from professional recruiters at college campuses who are already seeking racially/ethnically diverse students to attend their colleges and universities. ROTC recruiters could be able to actively influence initial decisions by candidates to enroll in ROTC programs as cadets if they had the ability to identify the best candidates and understand how they are influenced in their decision making processes, they are better able to influence the subsequent decisions to remain at school after the candidate is already a student through incentives such as scholarships and career placement in the Army after graduation (United States Army Cadet Command, 2013). Ultimately the purpose of this study is to enhance the capability of ROTC recruiters by identifying the right influencers in the lives of Hispanic American cadet candidates who can influence not just one candidate, but many candidates to seek college degrees and officer development programs ultimately resulting in commissioning as an officer in the United States Army.

### **Hispanic Minorities in the Military**

The United States Army seeks a racially/ethnically diverse senior officer corps which reflects the soldiers they lead as well as the diversity of the population they serve (Military Leadership Diversity Commission, 2011). Of all the potential racial/ethnic groups, United States Army Cadet Command has placed special emphasis on recruiting, retaining, developing, and commissioning more Hispanic American officers into the United States Army who have the potential to become senior Army leaders over the course of the subsequent 25 to 30 years (United States Army Cadet Command, 2011). The purpose of this match of racial/ethnic diversity between senior leaders and the soldiers they lead is increased trust and mutual understanding resulting in enhanced leadership and improved performance avoiding racial/ethnic polarization and similarly motivated incidents in combat (Lim et al., 2009).

Currently the racial/ethnic diversity of the senior officer corps does not match the diversity of the Soldiers they lead (Nagl et al., 2010). At the same time the current ranks of officer development programs including ROTC who are directed to recruit a diverse force are not as successful as they need to be at recruiting the targeted numbers of racial/ethnic minorities, especially Hispanic American officer candidates (United States Army Cadet Command, 2013). When senior leaders match the diversity of the soldiers they lead, and the nation they represent, then units are more cohesive, perform at a greater level of effectiveness, and literally save lives through enhanced mission accomplishment (Department of Defense, 2009). Until the Army solves the problem of how to more effectively recruit Hispanic American officer candidates into ROTC, USMA, and OCS, they cannot expect to meet the racial/ethnic diversity goals in officer development programs, which naturally will lead to a lack of sufficient numbers of racially/ethnically diverse senior officers 30 years into the future.

There has been significant discussion about the relatively few fully qualified candidates among United States youth 18-24 years old. Officer candidates (cadets) must be accepted into institutions of higher learning to earn academic degrees as part of the process to commission as an Army officer. The Army must demonstrate that becoming an officer is an attractive option for those candidates who are qualified academically and physically to enter service and college or university programs. One of the great challenges for Professors of Military Science and USMA Admissions personnel is to know whom they should be engaging to effectively influence the decisions of young Hispanic American youth to pursue higher education degrees as well as commissions as officers in the United States Army. This study focuses on Hispanic American candidates because they are currently underrepresented in the officer force while simultaneously they are the fastest growing group of United States citizens.

While the candidate is critical in this decision making process, there are many other members of the community who influence the development of Hispanic youth, including parents, athletic team coaches, educational leaders, teachers, counselors, ecclesiastical leaders, business leaders, and numerous other influencers. It is invaluable for the recruiters of future Army officers to know who they should be engaging to influence the decisions of eligible young people as well as understanding just how much influence they have.

### **Networks Theory and Influence on Decisions**

A good way to approach research seeking to understand the processes of how young eligible Hispanic youth contemplate a military career is to use networks theory. This section examines the important factors in this theory. Networks are the systems of actors or nodes which have interactive relationships with one another. Each network system consists of various members who can be called actors or nodes. When we discuss egocentric networks we are referring to the network which interacts with a single person or ego that is centric in the network because we are identifying that specific individual's network of actors or nodes that influence the ego. In an egocentric network, the actors and nodes are also called alters. So an egocentric network consists of an ego and the various alters which interact with that ego. Each alter has various specific characteristics, also known as attributes, that can be used to describe it. These attributes might include traits such as age, gender, or ethnic/racial background. The actual relationships, known as ties, between the ego and alters can also be described with characteristics. This system or network of alters interacting through ties to each other and to an ego is what we would define as an egocentric network (Borgatti, Everett & Freeman, 2013).

Each of us has a social network of friends, family, teachers, acquaintances and others who influence our behaviors, beliefs and decisions. Each of these influencers are alters who can be identified by their attributes as well as their social relationships. These

network studies can assist in assisting researchers to understand the relationships and interactions between alters and the individual being influenced. Social networks affect perceptions, beliefs, and actions through a variety of structural mechanisms that are socially constructed through interactions between alters (Knoke & Yang, 2008). Direct interaction or contacts between players provide information to the players, greater awareness and increased influence towards decisions (Knoke & Yang, 2008). “Part of the power of the network concept is that it provides a mechanism, indirect connection, by which disparate parts of a system may affect each other” (Borgatti et al., 2013, p. 2).

The basic concepts of network theory conclude that actors actions and motivation are shifted by embedded alters, meaning that alters can influence the decisions and motivations of an ego. Embeddedness is related to how much influence the network of actors (alters) has on the ego based on how much the ego trusts the input from the alters. Hite (2013) describes embeddedness. This refers to the ties in a social relationship between two actors, or dyadic relationship, that affects the actors’ decisions and actions. These relationships and the impact or effect on an actor’s decisions and actions is what we would call influence. A social network of alters (nodes or actors) has the ability to impact the decisions and actions of others or in other words influence their behaviors.

The study will use social network methods to identify the egocentric influence networks (including size, scope and nature of the ties) that influenced Hispanic American officer candidates’ decisions. This network study of cadet candidates will assess, from an egocentric perspective, the nature of the relational embeddedness in their ties with those who influenced them (alters), the strength of these influence ties, and the types of influence the network alters had in their decisions to participate. Social network methods

identify the members of the social network and that network's structure, while network theory seeks to explain the influence and the outcomes (Hite, Reynolds, & Hite, 2010).

Knoke and Yang (2008) identifies that a relation is a specific contact, connection, or tie between alters, also known as a dyad. These relations can be nondirective like a general conversation between alters or it can be directed as when one alter provides direct information to the receiver as in mentoring or advising someone (Knoke & Yang, 2008). Influence is when these relations are exchanged and the beliefs or better the actions of a dyad are impacted. Ultimately this study is seeking to identify the dyads with the most influence on Hispanic American cadet candidates so that recruiters know who they should be interacting with to best influence the decisions of these same candidates.

The key to analyzing egocentric network data ultimately is identifying the network coupled with investigating how the ties enable access to support and resources including information. In other words, this study is about how the various actors influence the ego. In more simplistic terms how the cadet candidate (ego) is influenced to make a decision regarding college and Army ROTC by his or her social network of actors. Borgatti, Everett, and Johnson's book (2013) outlines that social capital plays a role in identifying how achievement and success are related to an ego's social network ties and specifically how those actors and relationships facilitate access to support and resources. One would also expect through social network analysis how social homogeneity plays a factor in explaining how an ego's ties explain that ego's behavior and attitudes while simultaneously understanding better how the attributes of the alters and ego impact which actors interact and how much influence they wield through that interaction (Borgatti et al., 2013).

Using social network methods, analysis, and theory this study will identify the members of cadets' egocentric influence networks and the ties between them, indicate the nature of those ties in terms of their relational embeddedness, assess the level of influence within the tie, and identify the association between the ties' relational embeddedness and influence. This is a reflective study asking current cadets who have already made the decision to attend college and enter into Army ROTC to identify and discuss the members of their social network who influenced them to make the decisions leading to the decision to enter Army ROTC.

This study will then compare those networks to those of a proportional sample of non-Hispanic American officer candidates. The study will identify the egocentric networks ties, the structure of the egocentric networks, the nature of alters in the network, and the nature of these ties, including their level of relational embeddedness.

### **Summary**

This study will identify those individuals who make up the social network of Hispanic American officer candidates and determine the nature of the ties between the candidate and those who influenced their decisions to pursue college degrees and ultimately seek careers as officers in the United States Army. If ROTC Professors of Military Science, who are asked to recruit, retain, develop, and commission future officers, know who to engage in the social networks of potential Hispanic American cadets, and the nature of the influence these ties have on these potential cadets, they will be able to more effectively recruit them into ROTC. This will start the process towards meeting the racial/ethnic diversity goals of the senior officer ranks. The guiding questions for this study include identifying who are the members of the egocentric social networks which influenced Hispanic American officer candidates to enter college and more

specifically ROTC? What was the nature of the relationship between Hispanic American officer candidates and their social network of influence? How did these network relationships influence Hispanic American officer candidates to enter college and more specifically ROTC? The answers to these questions will lead towards a discussion of how can Professors of Military Science use knowledge about the nature of these networks of influence to more effectively recruit the best quality Hispanic American officer candidates?



## **APPENDIX B: METHODS AND PROCEDURES**

This study applied social network methods, analysis, and theory to facilitate an exploration of the nature of the social network which influences Hispanic American cadet candidates' decision to participate in a university ROTC program. This network study of cadet candidates assessed, from an egocentric perspective, the nature of the relational embeddedness in their ties with those who influenced them (alters), the strength of these influence ties, and the types of influence the network alters had in their decisions to participate. This study identified the members of the social network and that network's structure, while network theory was used to explain the influence and the outcomes (Hite et al., 2010). Using social network methods, analysis, and theory this study identified the members of cadets' egocentric influence network and the ties between them, indicating the nature of those ties in terms of their relational embeddedness, assessing the level of influence within the tie, and identifying the association between the ties' relational embeddedness and influence. This is a reflective study that asked current cadets who have already made the decision to attend college and enter into Army ROTC to identify and discuss the members of their social network who influenced them to make the decisions leading to the decision to enter Army ROTC.

### **Sampling**

The target population for this study is all United States Army Senior Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC) cadets at four representative universities in the State of Utah: Brigham Young University, Utah Valley University, Southern Utah University, and Dixie State University. This target population is comprised of approximately 300 total members distributed between the four universities and colleges. This target population

represents a wide variety of current cadets who have come from diverse backgrounds including racial/ethnic groups, geographical location of homes of record, gender, enlisted service in the Army (Simultaneous Membership Program), and scholarship cadets. At the same time, these cadets are those who have made the series of decisions in their lives to be enrolled as full-time university students and simultaneously enroll in Army ROTC as cadets.

It was assumed that cadets in the target population have distinct social networks which influenced their decisions to enroll in higher education and simultaneously or subsequently enroll in Army ROTC. Since the study seeks to explore the nature of the cadets' egocentric social networks and the nature of the influence they had on cadet candidates resulting in these decisions, this study is a valuable and practical source of data for use by ROTC recruiters and Professors of Military Science regarding the identification of who were the members of their social network and how much and what type of influence each member of the social network exerted.

The target population and sample were easily identified and then accessed since all of the members of the target population are both currently enrolled in accredited universities and colleges in Utah, while at the same time they are also enrolled in the Army ROTC programs physically located or associated with those same universities. The United States Army Cadet Command (USACC) requires each enrolled cadet in Army ROTC to provide a wide variety of demographic and other data in order to become cadets. The data includes a list of names, addresses, email addresses, gender, race, ethnicity, and university currently attended, majors, location of homes of record, scholarship or simultaneous membership program and enrollment status, which was

accessed by the author of this study, who is a faculty member with full access to the Cadet Command Information Management System (CCIMS).

The sample was drawn from the target population enrolled at the four university programs specified. This study includes a comparison of Hispanic American cadet's egocentric social networks and those of non-Hispanic cadets. The reason for this comparison is to identify and compare influencers in both networks as the researcher suspects that the Hispanic American networks are different than the other networks. Thus, two groups were included in the sample. The first group is a census of all Hispanic American cadets currently enrolled in four Army ROTC programs. Since there are currently less than twenty Hispanic American Army ROTC cadets in the target population, the numerical difference between any type of reasonable sample and a census would be negligible. A significant benefit of conducting a census sample of all Hispanic American cadets is avoiding the serious concern of minority undersampling, which is a consistent challenge in research involving members of minority groups. It is clear that undersampling is eliminated if research is conducted with an entire population of individuals (Armor, Massey, & Sackett, 2008), such as will be the case in this study. On the other hand, the number of Hispanic American cadets included by the census sample will still be small. But this small cohort is an unavoidable, structural result of the very problem driving the efforts of the Army to recruit more Hispanic American cadets, there simply aren't many Hispanic American cadets in ROTC programs. Although the specific problem of undersampling will technically be avoided, the challenge of a small cohort size will still exist.

A representative comparison group of cadets was drawn from the pool of non-Hispanic cadets enrolled at the same four universities using a proportional stratified random sampling approach, based on institution and gender, allowing for replacement if necessary. The egocentric network data received from this group was used for comparison with the egocentric networks of Hispanic American cadets. By utilizing a proportional stratified random sample, we have a very similar comparison group with the necessary exception of the racial/ethnicity of the members. Replacement of cadets sampled who declined participation facilitated ensuring the size of the comparison group is similar to that of the census group, enabling a rational comparison between the groups. Two replacement cadets were identified for each cluster in the stratification. If only one replacement is available, then a second was identified on the basis of gender from the geographically nearest ROTC program in the state. If no comparable cadets were available for sampling from one university (a Hispanic American female cadet, for example) then a female will be identified from the geographically nearest ROTC program in the state. Table 1 illustrates the final sampling. Three steps were taken for sampling for the comparison group.

1. Identify all Hispanic American cadets at the four universities using CCIMS.
2. The proportions of Hispanic American cadets from each university who are male and female were determined.
3. Using the proportion of Hispanic American male and female cadets from each university a matching random sample of non-Hispanic American cadets was drawn.

Table 1

*Final Sampling*

University:	Cadet Census (Hispanic Am.)		Cadet Comparison Sample		Comparison Replacements	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
BYU	8	2	8	2	2	2
DSU	2	0	2	0	2	2
SUU	2	1	2	1	2	1
UVU	3	1	3	1	2	2
Total	15	4	15	4	2	2

Since the census of Hispanic American cadets is small, the university class (freshman, sophomore, etc.) was not used as a stratum in creating the comparison group. All cadets in the sample were undergraduate students, while graduate students may participate in Army ROTC, they were not included in this sample. The randomized selection of comparison sample cadets took place using three steps:

1. A numbered list of non-Hispanic American cadets was created by university and gender with data provided from CCIMS.
2. Based on the number of cadets in the Hispanic American census at each school, the same number of cadets were selected from the list of non-Hispanic American cadets by university, divided by gender proportional to the Hispanic American census. Randomness was established by using the random number generator on Excel to determine which listed cadet will be added to the representative sample.
3. Once there was a matching list of representative cadets, two additional replacement cadets from each gender and from each university was selected as replacements for any non-respondents.

Since the research is being conducted by a senior faculty member of the Army ROTC program at a Utah university, accessibility to the sample was relatively straightforward. Army ROTC programs at the four Utah universities are all led by senior Army active duty officers who consistently communicate and cooperate to achieve the eventual output of commissioned officers for the United States Army. While each program is tasked to commission different numbers of new commissioned officers annually, all programs have the same challenge of recruiting, developing, retaining, and commissioning regardless of the racial/ethnic mix of the student body at a particular university.

### **Instrumentation**

Data from each identified member of the sample was primarily collected via an online Qualtrics survey. The survey collected demographic information and also included the Typology of Relational Embeddedness Network Data Survey (TRENDS) instrument (Hite, 2003). The informed consent included permission from each participant to use information they have provided to the Cadet Command Information Management System (CCIMS), which also included the participant's contact information, proclaimed race and ethnicity, gender, university attended, years in the ROTC program, and cadet status in terms of contracted, non-contracted, prior enlisted personnel, scholarship or simultaneous membership program data, all of which is important to understanding the background of the cadet. The self-identified race and ethnicity of the participants was confirmed in the Qualtrics survey.

While the Cadet Command Information Management System (CCIMS) provided much of the demographic data on each member of the sample, for the actual study we

used the responses on the Qualtrics Survey. It is possible to have input error when the cadet initially enrolled in Army ROTC and the recruiter or human resource technician input the data into CCIMS. To enhance the validity of the demographic data, we will use the inputs into the Qualtrics survey since they were original inputs from the actual cadet directly into the survey.

The TRENDS instrument used for this study measured multiple relations for network ties based on the typology's theoretical components. Hite's (2003) study developed the initial typology and theoretical constructs. Survey items for these constructs were subsequently assessed, reviewed, and revised during several iterations in multiple languages (Dutch and English). A group of academic peers familiar with network theory further reviewed and provided feedback on the development of TRENDS increasing the consistency and validity of the instrument. Following multiple pilot studies, a TRENDS validation study assessed and further modified this network survey as a valid and reliable instrument for measuring relational embeddedness (Hite et al., 2013). Table 2 from Hite et al. (2013) shows the TRENDS elements.

### **Data Collection**

The primary method of data collection was through the use of the online Qualtrics survey. The use of Qualtrics allows for consistency in the sharing of the survey and input of results by each respondent at a time and place convenient for them. The researcher met with the Officers in Charge / Assistant Professors of Military Science from each of the Utah Army ROTC programs in person to explain the purpose, extent and requirements of the research to obtain their formal support for the research. Another purpose for these meetings was to excite the leaders about the potential outcomes that

could also be useful to them in achieving the maximum effectiveness in their efforts to increase the number of Hispanic American cadets and eventually officers in the United States Army.



Table 2

*TRENDS Instrument Items*

Social Component Factors	Attribute	Element	TRENDS Instrument Items
Personal relationship	Personal knowledge	Knows personally	I know this person very well.
	Affect	Friendship	This person is a good friend.
	Sociality	Knows tie's life and family	We talk about our lives and our families.
	Value of personal relationship	Value of personal relationship	Maintaining our personal relationship is important to me.
Dyadic interaction	Extent	Frequency	I interact with this person frequently.
		Duration	I have interacted for a long time with this person for work purposes.
	Effort	Problem solving	This person tries to help me when I have a work-related problem.
	Education	Learning	I learn from my interactions with this person.
	Ease	Goal congruence	This person and I have similar work-related goals.
		Communication quality	Our interaction is characterized by high quality communication.
	Value of dyadic interaction	Working well together	This person works well with me.
Valuable interaction		Maintaining our work-related relationship is important to me.	
Dyadic social capital	Obligations	Norms of reciprocity	I expect that this person will return my favors.
	Value of social capital	Value of reciprocity	Our willingness to do favors for each other is an important aspect of our relationship for me.
	Resource accessibility	Resource accessibility	I can access resources from this person if he or she has something I need.
	Brokering	Introductions to third party	I can ask this person to introduce me to someone he or she knows.
Network social capital	Structural Embeddedness	Structural Embeddedness	Our connections to the same people represent an important aspect of our relationship. We know many of the same people.

(Hite et al., 2013)

In the first half of the Winter Term, following approval of the Institutional Review Board (IRB), participants were contacted via email with an introductory letter explaining the purpose of the research, ensuring they know that their participation will be voluntary, requesting their time and effort to complete the survey, and reinforcing the importance of taking their time to respond to the best of their ability. The reason for targeting four weeks into the term was to allow students to establish a routine while at the same time it is early enough that the challenges of significant graded requirements had not hit the students, increasing the probability of responding to the survey. The actual survey, was sent in a follow-up email, including the informed consent. Upon providing their consent, participants were able to complete the survey.

The survey used a menu system to help participants identify the range of various alters with whom the respondent interacted prior to joining Army ROTC. The respondent was able to use a drop down menu to identify the categorical roles of their named alters, including the roles of mother, father, siblings, teachers, counselors, coaches, religious leaders, employers, college recruiters, Army recruiters, community leaders, other college students (peers), and current Army ROTC cadets. This menu list also included the category of 'Other' to provide the option of a write in response of an alter category that is not available on the drop down menu. This list of categories was also viewable when the respondent identified alters to facilitate the easy visualization of a comprehensive list of categories of the people who influenced his or her decisions to enter college and specifically to join Army ROTC as a future officer. Once a category was selected for an alter using the drop down box, the participant then identified this alter.

Respondents who did not return the completed survey within one week were contacted via email with a reminder to encourage responding. Respondents who did not reply to the survey within one week of the reminder were contacted either in person or via telephone to encourage responding. If the researcher was unable to contact the respondent or they did not complete the survey after three attempts to contact them, they were replaced with the next randomly selected cadet as long as they were a member of the comparison group. Every attempt to gain participation from the census sample was made due to the relatively few number of possible respondents. This process continued until the minimum number of respondents was met or exceeded. The minimum number of respondents was determined to be at least 90% of contracted Hispanic American cadets within the census and then a representative number of Non-Hispanic American cadets in the comparison group. 90% of contracted Hispanic American cadets were used as the threshold because these are the primary members of those cadets who not only enrolled, but have made a commitment to complete Army ROTC and commission.

Following the collection of data by survey, telephone-based as well as face-to-face follow up interviews were conducted with respondents to clarify answers and facilitate better understanding of the concepts. The researcher will follow up with 50% of the respondents in each stratification category to reinforce the clarity of the responses. The respondents in each category were listed and given a number and then a random number was selected using Excel software random number generator to determine which respondents were interviewed. The researcher then transcribed interview text into NVivo software to facilitate its analysis.

## Data Management

Survey datum were automatically warehoused in Qualtrics and then exported from Qualtrics to an Excel spreadsheet to facilitate the organization, analysis, and graphing of the results. In Excel, the researcher checked for data consistency in all four data areas by running a series of very basic descriptive statistics to check for outlying and/or incorrect numerical entries. The four survey data areas include: demographics, TRENDS, fixed response survey items, and open-ended survey responses. The raw Excel survey data was then converted into the required formats for further analysis.

For demographics, an Excel worksheet showing the relationship between actors and demographics was created entitled *Attributes*. In addition, the attribute worksheet includes demographic information collected from the network survey about each of the alters. This data was imported into UCINet for use in the egocentric network analyses and imported into NVivo for use as classification data in the qualitative analysis of the follow up interview data. This demographic data was also used to examine and facilitate explanations of the association between relational embeddedness and influence within the participants' egocentric network ties.

Using Excel software, the researcher used the TRENDS data to identify the nature of the participants' egocentric influence ties in terms of relational embeddedness. The TRENDS data was exported into Excel in rows for each participant. This data was then re-organized in a new worksheet called *Tie List* to create rows for each tie between the participant and a named alter. The *Tie List* displays the responses to each TRENDS item for each tie. For each component, an aggregate value will be created by averaging the relevant TRENDS item responses. These new columns in the *Tie List* enable the

generation of a range (1-4), mean and standard deviation for each TRENDS component of personal relationships, dyadic interaction, and social capital.

The type of relational embeddedness for each tie was then be derived and entered into the *Tie List*. First, three additional columns were created, one for each social component, to identify whether ties have an aggregate score above the standard deviation in each component. For each social component, ties were given a “1” indicating responses above one standard deviation (having a high extent of that component, e.g. high personal relationship) or a “0” indicating ties below this standard deviation threshold. Second, the type of relational embeddedness was entered into a new column in the *Tie List*. Table X provides the eight potential component combinations and their associated different types of relational embeddedness (Hite, 2003). The *Tie List* was also be used to store dyadic-level data from the fixed response survey items, such as the extent and type of influence within each tie. Lastly, the *Tie List* of each tie’s type of relational embeddedness, and extent and type of influence was imported into UCINet for further graphical network analyses and display.

Table 3

*Relational Embeddedness and its Social Component Combinations*

Type of Relational Embeddedness		<u>Social Components</u>		
Number	Name	Personal Relationship	Dyadic Interaction	Social Capital
1	None	0	0	0
2	Personal	1	0	0
3	Hollow	0	0	1
4	Dyadic	0	1	0
5	Isolated	1	1	0
6	Functional	0	1	1
7	Latent	1	0	1
8	Full	1	1	1

The fixed response survey items included actor level data and dyadic tie level data. The actor level data was imported into the actor by variable *Attributes* table. The dyadic tie level data, such as extent and type of influence, was imported into the *Tie List* worksheet along with the dyadic-level TRENDS data.

The open-ended survey items were prepared for qualitative analyses in NVivo. First, an MS Word document template was created in which labels will be made for each open-ended item. These labels were highlighted and labeled using a “Heading 1” style, leaving 3 hard returns of “Normal” style in between each item. Second, a copy of this template was saved for each respondent. Third, the open-ended responses for each respondent were taken from the survey data and placed into the appropriate location in the individual’s document. Labeling the survey items with a “Heading 1” style enabled auto-coding of the survey responses in NVivo. Fourth, a codebook was created designating the pseudonyms that replace all actual personal and place names in the data. Fifth, each document was saved in a standardized method to facilitate identification of each respondent by pseudonym in NVivo, for example: Hispanic Male #1 (HM1), Non-Hispanic Male #1 (NHM1), Hispanic Female #1 (HF1) etc. Sixth, the fully populated Word documents were imported into NVivo which made each respondent document an individual source. Each document was then auto-coded to code the responses to each survey item.

In addition to the open-ended survey data, the data from the follow-up interviews will be transcribed directly into NVivo for analyses. All names and places in the interview data were replaced with pseudonyms and added to the code book.

## Data Analysis

Data analysis focused on the demographic, TRENDS, fixed response and open-ended response data. The demographic data from the *Attributes* Excel spreadsheet facilitated the creation of a summary of demographics. Excel was then used to analyze basic descriptive statistics regarding the respondents and their alters. This data was also used to create attributes for network analyses and classifications for qualitative analyses.

TRENDS data was used to identify dyadic and egocentric network patterns regarding the distribution of the types of relational embeddedness. Relational embeddedness was also analyzed by examining associations between the type of relational embeddedness and the various participant and alter attributes. These association patterns were examined using Excel as well as by graphically representing the ties in UCINet's NetDraw function. The NetDraw function displays the actors, alters and ties, indicating actor and alter attributes by size, shape and color.

Data analyses also examined the association between fixed response survey items that provided dyadic-level data, such as outcome variables, and relational embeddedness, meaning observing whether a specific type of relational embeddedness is associated with level or type of influence. This analysis used the "Dyadic Data Worksheet" in Excel, as needed. Analyses include descriptive t-tests and/or ANOVA analyses as the TRENDS data produces categorical types of relational embeddedness. Fixed response items also were used to generate network matrices illustrating network content and flow, e.g. flow of influence.

Network and attribute data then were imported into UCINet software to create a graphical representation of both actor's egocentric networks and the entire network to

demonstrate the relational embeddedness of the ties visually. The drawing and manipulation of the graphic representations is a reciprocal process with the Excel analyses and facilitated both discovery and exploration of the structural patterns in the data. The analysis of the graphical network facilitated evaluating the size, clustering, and overall structure of the social network as well as the content of the network at multiple levels (Borgatti & Ofem, 2010).

Finally, using NVivo the qualitative patterns from open ended survey questions and follow-up interviews were analyzed using open, axial and selective coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Specifically, the qualitative analysis focused on describing and explaining how, why, when various types of relational embeddedness relate to the outcome variables of influence.

Throughout the data analyses, the data was compared between the two groups of Hispanic American cadet candidates and the non-Hispanic-American cadet candidates. The purpose of data analysis is to directly address the research questions by identifying patterns in the data that describe and explain the associations between relational embeddedness and network influence among the egocentric networks of the cadet candidates. The data analyses specifically focused on these patterns in the networks of Hispanic American cadet candidates.



## APPENDIX C: SURVEY AND INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

### Qualtrics Survey

#### **Introduction**

This research study is being conducted by LTC Marc (Dewey) Boberg under the direction of Steven Hite, Ph.D., at Brigham Young University to learn about the social network relationships that influence Cadets to make the decision to enroll in Army ROTC. You were invited to participate because you are a current Army ROTC Cadet who has already made the decision to enroll.

#### **Procedures:**

If you agree to participate in this research study, the following will occur:

- You will be asked to reflect back and remember who influenced you in making the decision to enroll in Army ROTC.
- The following data that you provided to the Cadet Command Information Management System (CCIMS) database will be made available for this research study: name, email address, race/ethnicity, gender, and Army ROTC enrollment status.
- You will be asked to take an online Qualtrics survey which will take approximately 20-30 minutes to complete about your background and the people who influenced you to enroll in Army ROTC.
- You may be selected for a follow-up interview lasting less than an hour to discuss your survey responses and your experience in making the decision to enroll in Army ROTC. This interview will be audio recorded to ensure accuracy in reporting your statements. This interview will take place at the Army ROTC offices at a time convenient for you on the campus where you are enrolled or other location convenient for you.

#### **Risks/Discomforts**

There are minimal risks from this research to yourself. You will be asked to reflect back to the sequence of events and the people who influenced you to make the decision to enroll in Army ROTC. You can rest assured that NONE of the people you identify as having influenced your decision will be contacted and nobody will know who you listed. You will not be asked to provide any names for people you identify.

You should not miss any significant classroom time while completing this requirement as it will be an online survey that can be completed in the Army ROTC, at home or at a time of your convenience. The follow up interviews, should you be selected, will also be conducted at a time convenient to you to ensure no lost classroom time.

The other area of concern is that the researcher is also the Professor of Military Science and you might be concerned that your responses will be held against you in some way. Nobody in Army ROTC outside the researcher will see your responses. There is no extra credit, and there is no penalty for not participating in this research project – it is completely voluntary.

**Benefits**

There are no expected direct benefits to you for participating in this research. However, while there is no guarantee of benefits to all of society, there are expected future benefits to those who follow your example and enter into Army ROTC in the future. It is hoped that through your participation researchers may learn about the network of people who influence Cadet's decisions to enroll in Army ROTC and that future members of the Army ROTC Staff and Faculty will be able to better educate others about the opportunities of enrolling in Army ROTC and eventually serving the nation as an officer in the United States Army.

**Confidentiality**

The research data will be kept in a secure location on a password-protected computer. Only the researcher will have access to the data, and the data will be kept in the researcher's locked cabinet inside his office. All identifying information will be removed before the findings are shared, presented or published. At the conclusion of the study, all the data that you provide will be destroyed.

**Compensation**

Participants will not receive any compensation for participating in this research in order to ensure the voluntary nature of the responses.

**Participation**

Participation in this research study is voluntary. You have the right to withdraw at any time or refuse to participate entirely without jeopardy to your class status, grade, or standing with the university or with Army ROTC.

**Questions about the Research**

If you have questions regarding this study, you may contact LTC Boberg at [dewey.boberg@byu.edu](mailto:dewey.boberg@byu.edu) or (801)422-3601 for further information.

**Questions about Your Rights as Research Participants**

If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant contact IRB Administrator at (801) 422-1461; A-285 ASB, Brigham Young University, Provo, UT 84602; [irb@byu.edu](mailto:irb@byu.edu).

## **DEMOGRAPHICS**

D1 Please indicate the university you currently attend / where you are enrolled in Army ROTC:

- Utah Valley University (UVU) (1)
- Southern Utah University (SUU) (2)
- Dixie State University (DSU) (3)
- Brigham Young University (BYU) (4)

D2 Please indicate your gender.

- Female (1)
- Male (2)

D3 Which of the following racial/ethnic groups best describes you?

- White, non-Hispanic (1)
- Black, non-Hispanic (2)
- Asian, non-Hispanic (3)
- Other, non-Hispanic (includes American Indian, Pacific Islander and Alaska Natives) (4)
- Hispanic or Latino(a) (5)

D4 What is your current Military Science Class

- MS I (1)
- MS II (2)
- MS III (3)
- MS IV (4)
- MS V or Completion Cadet (5)

D5 Are you a currently contracted Cadet?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If Yes Is Selected, Then Skip To Are you a Simultaneous Membership Pro...

D6 Are you a Simultaneous Membership Program (SMP) Cadet or a Scholarship Cadet

- SMP Cadet (1)
- SMP with a GRFD Scholarship Cadet (2)
- Scholarship Cadet (3)

D7 What is your Academic Major?

D8 Did you enter college directly from High School?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To Did you enter into the workforce, enl...

D9 Did you enter into the workforce, enlist in the Armed Forces or volunteer for a mission prior to entering college?

- I went to work before entering college (1)
- I enlisted in the Armed Forces before entering college (2)
- I served a mission for my Church before entering college (3)

### **NETWORK NAME LIST**

Name List While thinking back to your decision to enroll in college and ultimately in Army ROTC, please list the first names of the top 10 people who influenced your decision to enroll in college and Army ROTC (examples MIGHT include your mother, father, brother, sister, other relatives, teacher, counselor, coach, religious leader, employer, college recruiter, Army ROTC recruiter, peers, current Cadets, and others)

- Person 1 (1)
- Person 2 (2)
- Person 3 (3)
- Person 4 (4)
- Person 5 (5)
- Person 6 (6)
- Person 7 (7)
- Person 8 (8)
- Person 9 (9)
- Person 10 (10)

### **ALTER DEMOGRAPHICS**

AD1 Given the list of people you named in the previous question, do you think that any of these people might be taking this same survey?

	Yes (1)	I don't know (2)	No (3)
Person 1 (x1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 2 (x2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 3 (x3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 4 (x4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 5 (x5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 6 (x6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 7 (x7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 8 (x8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 9 (x9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 10 (x10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

AD2 Please describe the following people based on the question below: Is the person listed male or female?

	Male (1)	Female (2)
Person 1 (x1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 2 (x2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 3 (x3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 4 (x4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 5 (x5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 6 (x6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 7 (x7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 8 (x8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 9 (x9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 10 (x10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

AD3 Please describe the following people based on the question below: To the best of your knowledge, which racial/ethnic category best describes the person you listed?

	White, non-Hispanic (1)	Black, non-Hispanic (2)	Asian, non-Hispanic (3)	Other, non-Hispanic (4)	Hispanic or Latino (5)
Person 1 (x1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 2 (x2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 3 (x3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 4 (x4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 5 (x5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 6 (x6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 7 (x7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 8 (x8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 9 (x9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 10 (x10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

### **ITEMS for “INFLUENCE” CONSTRUCT**

N1 Please describe the following people based on the question below: What role best describes the person you listed? (possible roles include mother, father, brother, sister, other relatives, teacher, counselor, coach, religious leader, employer, college recruiter, Army ROTC recruiter, peers, current Cadets, and other)

- Person 1 (1)
- Person 2 (2)
- Person 3 (3)
- Person 4 (4)
- Person 5 (5)
- Person 6 (6)
- Person 7 (7)
- Person 8 (8)
- Person 9 (9)
- Person 10 (10)

N2 Please indicate the how influential the people listed below have been in your decision to enroll in college and Army ROTC

	Not Influential (1)	Somewhat Influential (2)	Influential (3)	Quite Influential (4)	Very Highly Influential (5)
Person 1 (x1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 2 (x2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 3 (x3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 4 (x4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 5 (x5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 6 (x6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 7 (x7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 8 (x8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 9 (x9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 10 (x10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

## TRENDS ITEMS

The TRENDS items are all presented on the survey in the format shown in the Item DI1 (the first item). Here, after the first item, the items are listed without this formatting.

Instruct Specific Instructions: In the survey questions that follow, please interpret the term "work-related" as referring to the interaction with the listed person who influenced your decision to enroll in college and Army ROTC.

DI1 Please consider how well the following statement describes your relationship with each individual listed below:

I learn from my interaction with this person.

	Not Descriptive (1)	Somewhat Descriptive (2)	Moderately Descriptive (3)	Very Descriptive (4)
Person 1 (x1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 2 (x2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 3 (x3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 4 (x4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 5 (x5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 6 (x6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 7 (x7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 8 (x8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 9 (x9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 10 (x10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

- SC3 I can ask this person to introduce me to someone he or she knows.  
 PR3 We talk about our lives and our families.  
 DI3 I interact with this person frequently.  
 PR2 I know this person very well.  
 SC4 Our willingness to do favors for each other is an important aspect of our relationship.  
 I8 Maintaining our work-related relationship is important to me.  
 DI5 This person and I have similar work-related goals.  
 I7 This person works very well with me.  
 PR1 This person is a good friend.  
 DI6 Our interaction is characterized by high-quality communication.  
 PR4 Maintaining our personal relationship is important to me.  
 SC2 I can access resources from this person if he or she has something I need.  
 DI4 I have interacted for a long time with this person for work-related purposes.  
 SC1 I expect this person will return my favors.  
 DI2 This person tries to help me when I have a work-related problem.  
 TT1 We belong to a similar group, association or organization (social or professional).  
 TT2 Our connections to the same people represent an important aspect of our relationship.  
 TT3 We know many of the same people.

**CLOSING PAGE**

End Thank you very much for participating in this survey regarding the people who previously influenced your decision to enroll in college and Army ROTC - GO ARMY!

**Follow Up Interview Questions**

1. Tell me about your decision to go to college.
2. Why did you select the college or university you are attending?
3. Tell me about your decision to enroll in Army ROTC.
4. Why did you decide to enroll in Army ROTC instead of Navy, Air Force ROTC?
5. Tell me about the people who influenced you to enroll in Army ROTC.
6. What did they do or say to influence you to enroll in Army ROTC?
7. Are there any recommendations to how to provide greater influence on the decision of future candidates to enroll in Army ROTC?



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