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African American Males' Unemployment and Their Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Level: A Correlational Examination of an Exceptional People

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Abstract

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MS, Walden University, 2018

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Abstract

African American males possess the highest unemployment rates compared to all racial and gender demographics in America, which has persisted since the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics began measuring unemployment. Consequently, African American males are more likely to live in poverty and less likely to own businesses. The purpose of this quantitative nonexperimental correlational study was to ascertain relationships and predictions between African American males' unemployment and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. The theoretical frameworks of this study employed the critical race theory, institutional/systemic racism, and the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory. Accordingly, using random, convivence, and snowball sampling, 558 African American males, were recruited via online surveys. The ordinal logistic regression results indicated that African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level statistically significantly predicted the number of times they were unemployed, their age, and their education level. Moreover, African American males' age, education level, occupational industry, and type of unemployment statistically significantly predicted the number of times they were unemployed; additionally, their age and their type of unemployment statistically significantly predicted their duration of unemployment. Positive social change implications include providing a catalyst to recompense African American males with employment-focused government policies and long-term government-sponsored grants, scholarships, and private sponsorships for psychological rehabilitation, entrepreneurial education, and to establish a spectrum of businesses to support their yearning to become economically empowered, independent, resilient, respected, and liberated.

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Dedication

I dedicate this work to my loving parents, Robert L. Smith, Sr., and Helen Smith. Although my parents only had the opportunity to receive limited dimensions of college education, they continually stressed the importance of education and lifelong learning to all of my siblings and me, as they truly understand the value of higher education. Courageously, my parents tenaciously challenged school administrators that frequently attempted to disregard and denigrate the veracious academic abilities of African American students by consistently classifying them as intellectually incompetent. Inevitably, my parents' boundless support enabled my siblings and me to ascertain our academic and intellectual prowess, which ultimately enabled all of us to graduate from high school and continue our journey of life-long learning through higher education.

Moreover, when developing the topic of this work, I was immensely influenced by the resilience, courage, and persistence illustrated by my parents' determination to succeed in a time when their country did not completely permit them to prosper equitably. Explicitly, this work is dedicated further to my dad, Robert L. Smith Sr., that wrote letters to his senator and president requesting an appointment to attend a prestigious military academy based on his academic achievements; however, your letters went unanswered because African Americans endured inequitable challenges attempting to receive nominations to attend prestigious military academies during that era in American history. Nevertheless, you still enlisted in the military and served your country honorably, which inspired all of your sons to serve this country honorably; thus, you influenced respectable generational service to this country that continues to make you

proud. Additionally, this work is also dedicated further to my mom, Helen Smith, that frequently made a myriad of inconceivable sacrifices for the safety and well-being of her children during decades of arduous legal, economic, and disenfranchisement challenges for African Americans. Furthermore, your loving spirit of caring for your children at the expense of invariably placing them before yourself also pertains to your grandchildren and great-grandchildren; encouragingly, you never expected anything in return but our love and gratefulness.

Appropriately, I am deeply moved and honored to dedicate this work to my parents as surviving life's tribulations have given them strength, which has also made me strong. The dedication of this work represents further my appreciation for their immeasurable love for my siblings and me, which is like a beacon of light that will never be diminished. Thus, may this work illustrate the fruits of your labor, and I will continue to persevere and endeavor for excellence by striving to live up to my God-given potential as I was taught by the both of you; through the mercy of God, I will never let your light be no more.

Additionally, this work is dedicated to the exceptionality, perseverance, and commitment of African Americans, which illustrates their purposefulness to achieve comprehensive equity since they first arrived in America in 1619. Furthermore, this work is dedicated to future generations of African Americans; thus, may African American male youths comprehend this work and ascertain their exceptionality, purpose, and prominence to develop respectable communities that are economically sustainable and equitable, which will benefit African Americans and America.

INVICTUS

William Ernest Henley (1849–1903)

OUT of the night that covers me,
Black as the Pit from pole to pole,
I thank whatever gods may be
For my unconquerable soul.

In the fell clutch of circumstance
I have not winced nor cried aloud
Under the bludgeonings of chance
My head is bloody, but unbowed.

Beyond this place of wrath and tears
Looms but the Horror of the shade
And yet the menace of the years
Finds, and shall find, me unafraid.

It matters not how strait the gate,
How charged with punishments the scroll,
I am the master of my fate:
I am the captain of my soul (Burchell, 2016, p. 510).

This dissertation is dedicated to the youths
who march onward and upward
toward the light.

Acknowledgments

"For unto whomsoever much is given, of him shall be much required: and to whom men have committed much, of him they will ask the more" (*King James Bible,* 1769/2017, Luke 12:48). "I can do all things through Christ which strengtheneth me" (*King James Bible,* 1769/2017, Philippians 4:13). Accordingly, first I would like to honor and give thanks to God as my source of life, joy, guidance, and the strength of my salvation. Thus, God is the acumen for my strength and ability to persevere by enabling me to achieve success, experience joy, and strive for excellence. I would also like to honor my mother and my father for their endearing love and support and for raising me in the correct manner to pursue knowledge and love and respect everyone. Next, I would like to thank my beloved daughter, Devinna Smith, who has been and continues to be one of the reasons that I continue to strive to raise the bar to inspire my family and community to reach higher goals. Thank you for lifting me up, and may this accomplishment provide the correct guidance and inspiration for you in all of your future endeavors.

I would like to acknowledge all of my older siblings who fundamentally provided superb examples for me to emulate: Debra, Tommie, Spencer, Darrell, Zena Cherie, Javier, Helen Patrice, and Robert Jr.; thank you for your endearing support and guidance because I owe all of you for shaping and molding me into the scholar that I am today. I would also like to thank my nieces and nephews, all of which I am very proud. Additionally, in my aspirations to thank my family for their support in completing this extraordinary accomplishment; I would like to pay homage to my descendants that paved

the way for me to succeed and exist in peace and love with limitless opportunities to dream and achieve immeasurable prosperity, based upon my God-given ability. Accordingly, I would like to acknowledge and honor my ancestors, of whom I share lineage, both known and unknown to me.

Moreover, in my endeavors of acknowledging my previously mentioned family members, both past and present, I would like to delineate that this accomplishment highlights the combined struggles of us all to achieve comprehensive equity in America. Therefore, I am the first sibling in my immediate family to receive a doctoral degree; however, this accomplishment does not only denote my individual achievement but also symbolizes the optimistic dreams of our ancestors, that with faith in God, hard work, determination, discipline, and focus the hopeful possibilities of equitable progress in every American social and economic facet is achievable for us and future generations of our family and beyond. Sincerely, to my family, with love, this accomplishment collectively belongs to all of us; fittingly, we have all earned another doctoral degree.

Next, I would like to thank my mentor and committee chair, Dr. Barbara Chappell, for chairing my study without having any classroom experiences with me as a student. Hence, your scholastic expertise provided immeasurable support that was instrumental during the initial stages of the development of this study and beyond. Additionally, you consistently reviewed countless revisions of my work in an expeditious manner, which illustrates your devotedness to assisting your students in achieving excellence; thus, I am exceedingly grateful that you encouragingly assured the progress and completion of this momentous life-altering accomplishment. I would also like to

extend gratitude to my committee member, Dr. Rachel Gallardo, for providing your quantitative statistical expertise during the initial development of the study and beyond. Consequently, your steadfast, unwavering strategic guidance and support encouraged me to perceive information divergently, which assisted me with generating a finished product that I could enduringly reflect upon and be proud. I would also like to thank my URR committee member, Dr. Richard Thompson, for your steadfast guidance and support. I would also like to express gratitude to Dr. Kathleen Andrews for galvanizing me to pursue a second doctoral degree. I am not sure if it was less problematic or laborious the second time, as you noted; however, I am overjoyed that I took your advice because the arduous work needed to complete this phenomenal endeavor once again was definitely worth the strenuous persistence exerted.

Furthermost, I would like to offer gratitude to the copious African American men that participated in this study as your participation delineates your compassion regarding this significant social issue. The heartfelt sense of gratitude emphasizes my appreciation for your contributions to the completion of this study because an immeasurable number of African Americans; predominantly African American males, are subjected to government-sanctioned confinement and even their untimely demise based considerably on financial, occupational, educational, and entrepreneurial inequities, which are comprehensively related to the variables examined in this study. Additionally, I would like to offer substantial appreciation to all of my family, friends, colleagues, and mentors, who all provided diverse views and support from all around the United States. I love and respect you all, Godspeed.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

African Americans are people who originated from various sections of Africa and presently reside in America (U.S. Census Bureau, 2020). However, the term African American predominantly characterizes Africans who were pillaged of their indigenous culture and subjected to endure a myriad of hardships since their first recorded arrival to America as indentured servants in 1619 (C. Anderson, 1994; Dickerson, 2004; Shahadah, 2020). Thus, they have endured constructs associated with a plethora of racially influenced systemic and institutionalized barriers that cannot be quantified, which hampered their struggle to achieve the life, liberty, and pursuit of happiness as it is articulated in the United States Constitution (Cullen, 2014; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Kendall, 2006; C. Phillips, 2011; Rogers, 2010; T. M. Shapiro, 2017). Additionally, people of African descent who immigrated to the United States from various locations after slavery ended typically self-identify their ethnicity according to the country that they migrated from; accordingly, they might also be classified as African American and have also endured various forms of institutional racism (N. Foner, 2016; T. G. Hamilton, 2019; Wang, 2018).

African American males are the most unemployed racial and gender demographic in America; thus, they are afflicted with a myriad of issues that accompany unemployed individuals that are economically challenged due to being unemployed for extended durations of time (Hagler, 2015; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics [U.S. BLS], 2015, 2019a; V. Wilson, 2019). One of the most challenging issues regarding

unemployment is associated with economics, which may deprive African American males of access to essential resources such as quality education, savings from tax advantages, homeownership, and health care and subjects them to higher chances of committing crimes because the unemployed still possess essential human necessities that have to be met (Alexander, 2010; Baradaran, 2015/2018, 2017/2019; Boothe, 2007; Hanks et al., 2018; Parker, 2015; T. M. Shapiro, 2017). Additionally, chronic unemployment may also have emotional and psychological ramifications (Pharr et al., 2012), which have the potential to counteract individuals' efforts to achieve integral success in America. Furthermore, research also suggested that the high rates of unemployment among African American males are actually higher, which is due to how unemployment is quantified (Cai & Baker, 2021; Ginsburg et al., 2018; U.S. BLS, 2015, 2019a, 2020b). Therefore, the astronomical level of unemployed African American males is a consequential issue that justifies a comprehensive investigation.

In respect to addressing the astounding rates of unemployment among African American males, it is pertinent to provide context regarding their entrepreneurial efforts and the significance of possessing high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Entrepreneurial self-efficacy, or the belief that one has the confidence and ability to be a successful entrepreneur, is significant to entrepreneurship and individuals' employment status (C. Anderson, 1994; Chen et al., 1998; Rogers, 2010; R. Walker, 2010/2016). The suggestion mentioned is relevant because it refers to the aspect that individuals who know how to create jobs for themselves have a decreased chance of being unemployed. Accordingly, since the end of the Civil War, African Americans have sought to own

businesses in their communities, which have provided economic stability and employment for African Americans in their communities in the past (Rogers, 2010; R. Walker, 2010/2016). Specifically, Black Wall Street in Tulsa, Oklahoma's Greenwood District, was a prime example of how African Americans possessed the ability to own a plethora of businesses, which employed other African Americans in their community (R. Walker, 2010/2016). Yet, presently, African Americans have not been able to establish a business district of that magnitude that has the potential to employ other African Americans in their community, thus exacerbating the need to examine relationships between unemployment among African American males and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level.

Accordingly, the literature regarding unemployed African American males and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level provides comprehensive and concise guidance regarding this significant social issue, which compels me to this synopsis of the introduction. The historic manner in which African Americans arrived in America by way of the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade, also known as the African Holocaust, provided America with over 240 years of free labor (C. Anderson, 1994; Rosenbaum, 2000; Shahadah, 2020; Stannard, 1992), which increases the notion that African Americans have an "exceptional" connection to America that no other racial demographic possesses (C. Anderson, 1994, 2001). In an attempt to address the social issues mentioned, scholars have researched the constructs associated with African American unemployment, discrimination, and obstacles African American men have endured in corporate America (Agbara, 2012; Baccous, 2018; Palmer, 2006); however, there is diminutive information

regarding how possessing or improving entrepreneurial self-efficacy level among African American males may impact their elevated unemployment rates. Consequently, it is significant for me to attempt to seek solutions for the social issues mentioned because they have the potential to contribute to positive far-reaching proactive social change, which is needed in America.

Background of the Study

The current research explicates further the context and background of the problem, which relates to unemployment among African American males and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Empirical research provides evidence that historic legalized racism and discrimination has created an enormous unemployment gap between African American males and other racial and gender demographics' unemployment rates (C. Anderson, 1994; Emeka, 2018; Hanks et al., 2018; Kolchin, 2012; National Public Radio [NPR] et al., 2017; R. Walker, 2010/2016; V. Wilson, 2019). Additionally, the manner in which unemployment is currently measured in America is subject to criticism regarding the inequity, biases, errors, and inconsistencies with reporting correct rates of unemployment (Cai & Baker, 2021; Ginsburg et al., 2018; U.S. BLS, 2020a; V. Wilson, 2019). This is crucial because if the incorrect data is reported, corrective action may not occur based on deflated and incorrectly reported unemployment rates.

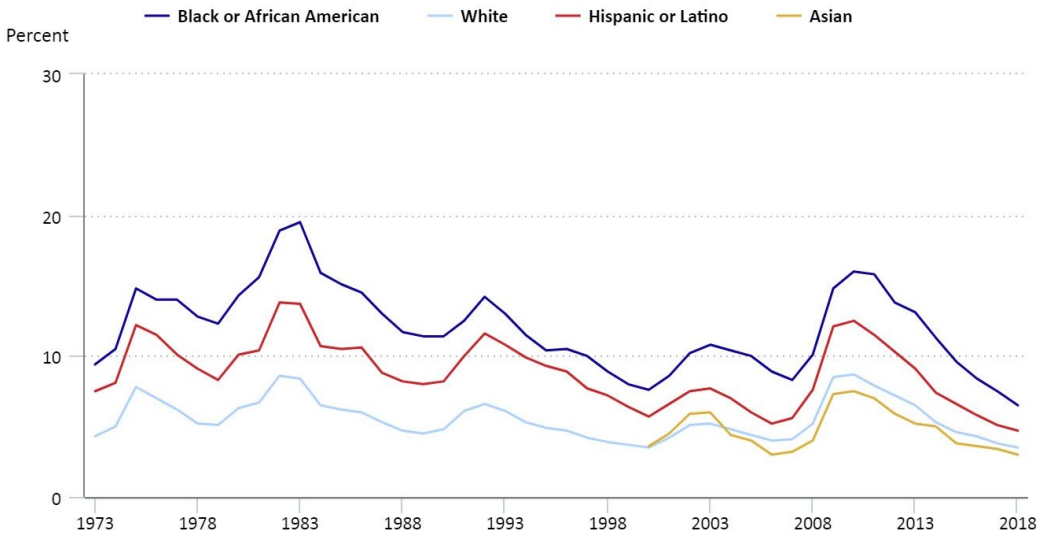
The concept mentioned is crucial because it exacerbates the notion that the unemployment rates among African American males are higher than the unemployment rates that are reported. Accordingly, as of this writing, statistics provide evidence of how all racial and ethnic demographics are unemployed, which suggests that African

American males are the highest unemployed racial and gender demographic in America (U.S. BLS, 2020a). The unemployment statistics below represent the unemployment rates among African American males, which illustrates that they are the most unemployed racial and gender demographic in America. Currently, there are 6.7 million Americans that are unemployed in the United States; thus, nationally for individuals 16 and above, the African American unemployment rate for males is 7.4%, the Caucasian American unemployment rate for males is 4.0%, the Hispanic American unemployment rate for males is 5.1%, and the Asian American unemployment rate for males is 2.9% (U.S. BLS, 2020a). Furthermore, nationally, for adults 16 and above, the African American unemployment rate for females is 5.9%, the Caucasian American unemployment rate for females is 3.3%, the Hispanic American unemployment rate for females is 5.8%, and the Asian American unemployment rate for females is 3.7% (U.S. BLS, 2020a).

Additionally, the statistical calculations mentioned pertain to the analyses that the unemployment rates among African American males are equivocally higher than any other racial or gender demographic in America on the national level and even higher in 12 states and for African American teenagers (A. Austin, 2016; U.S. BLS, 2020a; V. Wilson, 2019). Thus, the data yields sufficient evidence that unemployment among African American males is a significant social and human rights issue, which has persisted over an extended span of years with no adequate solution to this contemplable societal issue. Figure 1 depicts the annual averages of unemployment rates by race from 1973 to 2018. Accordingly, Asian American unemployment data respectfully begins in the year 2000.

Figure 1

Unemployment Rates by Race, 1973–2018 Annual Averages



Note. This is an illustration of the annual averages of unemployment rates by race, from 1973 to 2018, which indicates a significant social issue concerning African Americans possessing the highest unemployment rates compared to all races in America for decades. Copyright 2019a by the U.S. BLS.

The staggering levels of unemployment among African American males may exacerbate a plethora of social problems associated with chronic unemployment, such as poverty, poor health, lack of quality education, and social issues related to increased criminal behaviors, incarceration, and recidivism (Alexander, 2010; Boothe, 2007; Baradaran, 2017/2019; Carson, 2020; Gould et al., 2002; Hanks et al., 2018; Hoggard, 2019; Jacobs, 2013; Lin, 2008; Parker, 2015; Pharr et al., 2012; J. Phillips, 2019; Poverty USA, n.d.; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; Western, 2007). The increased criminal behaviors

mentioned refers to current statistics, which show that 2,272 African American adult men are incarcerated for every 100,000 African American adult men (Gramlich, 2020); thus, this has the potential to exacerbate the levels of unemployment among African American men because individuals with criminal records have a lesser chance of being employed once they are released from prison with a criminal conviction on their record (Pager, 2003; Western, 2007; M. J. Williams et al., 2019).

Furthermore, incarcerated individuals are not counted with the unemployed population even though they are technically unemployed; thus, if the prison population is counted, the unemployment levels for African American males would be substantially higher (Ginsburg et al., 2018). Moreover, the 13th amendment to the constitution, which abolished slavery, also contains a clause that individuals may be subjected to free labor if they are a felon that has been convicted of a crime in a court of law (Alexander, 2010; Vaccari, 2020); thus, African American prisoners are technically employed with no or exiguous pay and not counted as either employed or unemployed. The social issues mentioned are destined to affect America and the African American community in manners that are detrimental to the survival and prosperity that all African American citizens deserve. The problem background associated with the entrepreneur self-efficacy level of African American males is addressed next.

Research suggested that African Americans have always faced tremendous barriers in their efforts of owning businesses, which has the potential of being the cornerstone of improving unemployment rates and financial stability in the African American community (C. Anderson, 1994; Rogers, 2010; R. Walker, 2010/2016). The

assertion mentioned refers to current reports, which suggested that African American entrepreneurs with higher credit scores may face more scrutiny and worse treatment than their Caucasian American counterparts when applying for business loans (Jan, 2019). The suggestion mentioned elucidates the requisite for African American entrepreneurs to possess the entrepreneur self-efficacy level needed for overcoming additional obstacles in establishing businesses in their communities, which may have a positive impact regarding the high rates of unemployment among African American males (C. Anderson, 1994; Henderson & Weiler, 2010; Rogers, 2010; R. Walker, 2010/2016).

Additionally, African Americans make up 13% of the labor market, yet they only own 3.5% of the businesses in America; comparatively, one of the highest employed racial demographics, which are Caucasian Americans, make up 78% of the labor market and own 81% of the businesses (Hawkins, 2020; U.S. BLS, 2019a). The data mentioned suggested that if African Americans owned more businesses in America, they might possess lower unemployment rates, as illustrated with Caucasian Americans' labor market data (A. Austin, 2016; Hawkins, 2020; U.S. BLS, 2019a). Consequently, African American entrepreneurs are a significant asset to their communities as well as themselves because they have the potential to create sustainable businesses to improve the economy and their financial situations, as well as establish jobs for others in their community.

Problem Statement

African American males continue to endure substantial levels of high unemployment, as compared to other racial and gender demographics, which is a significant issue in America that is also conceptualized as this assemblage being the last

hired and the first fired (Couch & Fairlie, 2010). Previous research indicated that high rates of unemployment among African American males continue to be a significant social issue for African Americans and America (A. Austin, 2011; Emeka, 2018; V. Wilson, 2019). Iman (1995) researched the psychological distress of unemployment among African American men, and Ferguson (2012) analyzed the lived experiences of unemployment among African American men; however, there is no recent research that explores their lack of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level as a direct cause for the high rates of unemployment among African American men, which indicates a concise gap in the literature. Moreover, the issue of high unemployment among African American males is not only significant for African Americans, but it is also crucial for America because high rates of unemployment have the possibility to debilitate a country's integral economy (C. Anderson, 1994; A. Austin, 2016; V. Wilson, 2019).

In terms of entrepreneurship, African Americans have attempted to achieve progress; explicitly, African American women recently experienced a 42% growth rate of business ownership and a 99% growth rate in part-time entrepreneurship (American Express [AE], 2019), which was the result of them being exposed to gender and racial wage gaps, long term unemployment, and integral fatigue due to workplace discrimination (Hannon, 2018). Thus, despite the detrimental circumstances, which inspired the positive information regarding the growth in business ownership among African American women, African Americans are still underrepresented regarding their participation in the labor force and their percentage of business ownership (A. Austin, 2016; Brundage, 2020; Hawkins, 2020; Rogers, 2010; U.S. BLS, 2019a). Furthermore,

research conducted regarding African American males' entrepreneurial efforts indicated that studies had not been conducted to determine the relationship between unemployment among African American males and their entrepreneur self-efficacy level (Cross, 2004; Ivy, 2006).

Hence, the notable studies mentioned analyzed the leadership among African American male entrepreneurs (Cross, 2004; Ivy, 2006); however, there are no empirical studies regarding the topic of unemployment among African American males and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level that indicates a gap in the literature, which influenced me to investigate if possible relationships exist between the various unemployment levels of African American males and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. There are a plethora of reasons why African American males may become or stay unemployed (C. Anderson, 1994; A. Austin, 2011; J. Miller & Wicks-Lim, 2011); however, this study examined if African American males' unemployment rates were directly related to their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. The assertion mentioned was accomplished by determining if African American males' high or low unemployment levels are directly related to or predict their high or low levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, which has a direct impact on their levels of integral unemployment.

Moreover, dissimilar to other racial demographics, the rates of unemployment for African American males remain high in good and bad economic times, which exacerbate further the need to investigate possible antipodes to counteract this significant issue (Bonilla-Silva et al., 2004; Couch & Fairlie, 2010; Emeka, 2018; D. Hamilton et al., 2011; V. Wilson, 2019). Therefore, the presentation of the literature stipulated that this

topic should be analyzed further in an attempt to ascertain a better comprehension of the social issues discussed in an effort to influence positive social change and implement meaningful recommendations (C. Anderson, 1994; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; V. Wilson, 2019).

Accordingly, this study endeavors to address potential relationships and predictions between unemployment among African American males and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which is consistent with African Americans' yearning to become economically empowered, independent, resilient, respected, and liberated. Necessarily, this study introduced a variable that has the potential to address the issue of high unemployment among African American males and another variable that has the potential to disquisition the significance of possessing high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, which may have an earnest effect on unemployment among African American males.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative nonexperimental correlational study was to explore relationships and predictions between the various levels of unemployment among African American men and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. The inference for positive social change is consistent with educating America concerning a significant social issue, which may motivate lawmakers to implement policies and social programs to improve unemployment among African American men and to provide them with knowledge regarding the importance of possessing high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Supplementary, I aspired to contribute to the existing literature concerning this

consequential social issue. Moreover, the results of this study provided African American men with a catalyst, consistent with discovering the confidence needed for them to conceive sustainable businesses, which will increase their entrepreneurial endeavors and provide a spectrum of occupations in their communities.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Creswell and Creswell (2018) suggested that research questions should discern the phenomenon that is investigated and should guide the course of the research based on its establishment to the hypotheses. Therefore, the central foci of this study were to discern how the times and the duration of unemployment among African American males are related to and might predict their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level; accordingly, the five research questions included in this study were designed to ascertain any possible relationships and predictions among the variables. Thus, this segment of the study renders five research questions that are employed to guide the research. Additionally, the five research questions used in this study are followed by five separate null and alternative hypotheses that are used to guide the final analyses of the examination.

RQ1: Does African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, as measured by the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, predict the self-reported number of times they were unemployed?

$H_0$1: African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not predict their self-reported number of times they were unemployed.

H_a1: African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level predicts their self-reported number of times they were unemployed.

RQ2: Does African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, as measured by the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, predict their self-reported average duration of unemployment?

$H_0$2: African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not predict their self-reported average duration of unemployment.

H_a2: African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level predicts their self-reported average duration of unemployment.

RQ3: Does age and education level predict African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level as measured by the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale?

$H_0$3: Age and education level do not predict African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level.

H_a3: Age and education level predict African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level.

RQ4: Does age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predict African American males' self-reported number of times they were unemployed?

$H_0$4: Age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment do not predict African American males' self-reported number of times they were unemployed.

H_a4: Age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predicts African American males' self-reported number of times they were unemployed.

RQ5: Does age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predict African American males' self-reported average duration of unemployment?

H_05: Age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment do not predict African American males' self-reported average duration of unemployment.

H_a5: Age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predicts African American males' self-reported average duration of unemployment.

Theoretical Frameworks

The central foci and theoretical framework of the study originate from the research and recognize the principal elements, variables, and components, which aids in assembling the discernment of the investigation (Burkholder et al., 2020; Harkiolakis, 2021). Thus, the crux of this study is consistent with the critical race theory, institutional racism, and the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory that provided the theoretical frameworks for this study. Additionally, the research study is guided by the theoretical framework, which theorizes and predicts the researcher's hypothesized conclusion of the study (Burkholder et al., 2020). The constructs examined in this exploration are

unemployment among African American males and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which are conjectured to have a statistical predictive relationship.

Critical Race Theory

The critical race theory explores race, law, and power as a critical theory to examine cultures in society (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017). The critical race theory is a combination of a myriad of theories as well as a movement, which was initially conceptualized by social justice icons, such as Frederick Douglas, Sojourner Truth, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., Malcolm X., Dr. W. E. B. Dubois, Stokely Carmichael, and Cesar Chavez (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; W. E. B. Dubois, 1903/2017). The critical race theory challenges the status quo of racial oppression and the constructs of race, which are exacerbated by racism, inequity, and miseducation regarding race and a myriad of divergent social facets in America; one of the social aspects mentioned is employment in America. Accordingly, the basis of the critical race theory is significant to this study because it suggested that race is not grounded in the biological composition of human beings; thus, it is a socially constructed fabricated concept designed to conserve benefits designated for Caucasian Americans, which are the architects of this construct (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Haller, 1971/1995; J. Jones, 2013/2015; Leary, 2005; Sussman, 2014; Wise, 2011; Wytsma, 2019).

Consequently, this theory provided guidance that the unemployment gap among African American men is directly related to empirical research that suggested Caucasian American men with no college education and criminal records are more likely to be employed than college-educated African American men and women with more job

qualifications and no criminal record (Baccous, 2018; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Emeka, 2018; Hanks et al., 2018; Pager, 2003; Ross, 2014; Sakamoto et al., 2018; T. M. Shapiro, 2017). Moreover, based on the postulation mentioned regarding the critical race theory, African American males' high rates of unemployment are directly associated with their racial attributes, which are not related to the content of their character or their knowledge, skills, and abilities. Thus, the critical race theory served as a guide to comprehending how the high rates of unemployment among African American males and their deficient entrepreneurial self-efficacy level are rooted within the foundations of the critical race theory, which are race, law, and power.

Institutional/Systemic Racism

Additionally, institutional racism refers to the practice, norms, policies, and structures that may inappropriately prohibit adequate access to opportunities, goods, and services in society by race (C. Phillips, 2011; Sewell, 2020). The construct mentioned has the potential of creating a legal inherited disadvantage to the race or ethnic group, which is affected. The foundation of institutionalized racism originates from American slavery, segregation, Indian reservations, and internment camps. Theoretically, if a country has a history of practicing discriminatory measures against a specific group or groups of people, then it is hypothesized that discriminatory laws, policies, and practices still exist within a myriad of American institutions, which include but are not limited to the criminal justice system, schools, banks, and the labor market. Explicitly, The United States Department of Justice, The Federal Reserve System, The United States Department of Education, and The United States Department of Labor may legally

engage in discriminatory practices towards African American males, such as over-incarceration, preferential issuance of business loans, which are based on the race of the applicant, whether than creditworthiness and other factors associated with business loans approval, education regarding the importance of entrepreneurship, and the manner, in which unemployment is calculated (Alexander, 2010; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Cai & Baker, 2021; Hanks et al., 2018; Jan, 2019; A. Lee et al., n.d.; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2015, 2020b, 2020d; H. Williams, 2018).

Accordingly, institutional racism is significant to this study because the institutions mentioned have the legal authority to over-incarcerate African American males and subject some of them to free labor within the prison-industrial complex, limit or determine African Americans' ability to receive business loans and education regarding the importance of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, and to provide an accurate calculation of their precise unemployment rates, and ultimately legally counteract their efforts of achieving generational wealth (Alexander, 2010; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Asante-Muhammad et al., 2017; Cai & Baker, 2021; Engram, 2019; Ginsburg et al., 2018; Hanks et al., 2018; Jan, 2019; Kendi, 2016/2017; A. Lee et al., n.d.; A. R. Muhammad, 2018; Patton, 2015; Rochester, 2017; Rothstein, 2017; Sewell, 2020; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2015, 2020b, 2020d). Moreover, research suggested that one of the primary disadvantages, which is consistent with the systematic dissemination of resources, opportunity, and power, is strongly associated with the wealth gap and meaningful employment opportunities for African Americans (C. Anderson, 1994; Baradaran, 2015/2018, 2017/2019; Emeka, 2018; Hanks et al., 2018; Joint Economic

Committee [JEC], n.d.; A. Lee et al., n.d.; Patton, 2015; Pedulla, 2018; C. Phillips, 2011; Rawlinson, 2017; Rothstein, 2017; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission [U.S. EEOC], n.d.; V. Wilson, 2019).

Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Theory

Self-efficacy refers to the concept of the personal judgment of how well individuals may perform particular tasks or execute courses of action (Bandura, 1997). Therefore, entrepreneurial self-efficacy refers to individuals' self-perceived entrepreneurial behaviors or notions of their ability to pursue careers that are consistent with seeking lucrative opportunities through risk mitigation, self-motivation, and generating superlative profits (Chen et al., 1998). Moreover, the construct mentioned refers to individuals possessing the courage and confidence to develop jobs for themselves and others, thus elevating the notion of needing to be hired or promoted at someone else's place of employment.

Additionally, the research conducted in the entrepreneurship field credits entrepreneurial self-efficacy as a significant psychological component of comprehending an individual's various levels of entrepreneurial performance, motivations, and behaviors (Chen et al., 1998; McGee et al., 2009). Consequently, the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory is significant to this study because it articulates the notion that African American males with high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy have a greater possibility of engaging in entrepreneurial activities and establishing businesses that have the potential to employ other African Americans in their community.

Nature of the Study

The nature of the study is the quantitative approach, which used quantitative methods to address the research questions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Thus, this study has the potential to supplement current research with results, which are measured via quantitative statistics (Creswell & Planto Clark, 2018; Harkiolakis, 2021). The quantitative analyses were used to determine if relationships and predictions exist among the independent variable of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level and the dependent variables of unemployment among African American men in terms of their number of times unemployed and their average duration of unemployment. Additionally, quantitative analyses were adapted to determine if the dependent variables of age and education level predict the independent variable of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Furthermore, the quantitative analyses were applied to determine if the independent variables of age, education level, marital status, one of three categories of occupational industries, and/or type of unemployment predict the dependent variables of unemployment among African American men in terms of their number of times unemployed and their average duration of unemployment. Accordingly, descriptive statistics and ordinal logistic regression analyses were used to test the hypotheses to determine associations and predictions that exist.

The target population for this study is African American men ages 18 and above that are currently unemployed, work, or have worked in various facets of employment throughout America; the rationale for including individuals that work or have worked is to identify various levels of unemployment if they recently found a job or were

previously employed. Additionally, some of the variables used for this study are consistent with how the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics computes unemployment, which consists of the total number of times African American men have been unemployed since the age of 18, and the average duration of unemployment that denotes the length of unemployment each time they were unemployed, which is measured in weeks and collected via integers (U.S. BLS, 2019a). Additionally, gender is male; ethnicity is African American; age is 18 and older collected via integers; education levels are, less than a high school diploma, high school diploma, some college, bachelor's degree, master's degree, or professional or academic doctoral degree; marital status is married, widowed, divorced, or separated, or never married; occupational industries are condensed to three categories based on some of the highest percentages of employment among African American men, which are business and management (retail, government, and transportation), manufacturing (durable goods, nondurable goods, and construction), or education (healthcare and other services not listed); type of unemployment is voluntary, involuntary, e.g., termination or due to factors that were out of your control, or not applicable; and geographical location within the United States is Northeast, Southeast, Midwest, Southwest, or West, which has the potential to ensure quantitative rigor and produce reliable, focused, refined, and accurate results (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Harkiolakis, 2021; U.S. BLS, 2015, 2019a, 2019b, 2020a, 2020b, 2020c).

The population mentioned is appropriate for this study because the data concisely illustrates that African American males are more unemployed than every other racial and gender demographic, including African American women (U.S. BLS, 2020a).

Furthermore, research suggested that African American women experienced a 42% increase in business ownership (AE, 2019), thus indicating that African American males are presumptively in need of comprehensive research to attenuate the social issues mentioned (A. Austin, 2016; U.S. BLS, 2020a). Accordingly, this population is appropriate for this study because it consisted of a comprehensive but focused range of participants, which captured the voices of a mixture of divergent responses regarding this topic. Therefore, this study was not limited to age group, geographical location, or office space; however, this investigation provided pivotal refined results that are beneficial for momentous social change.

Creswell and Creswell (2018) asserted that the best method for collecting data for a quantitative study in an accurate and timely manner is with the use of a research questionnaire or survey. Therefore, the collection of quantitative data to explore relationships between African American males' unemployment and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level was conducted via a demographic information survey, and a validated research survey questionnaire termed the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale. The demographic information survey was used to collect African American males' demographic information, and the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale is a 19 item self-report validated research survey questionnaire with five dimensions termed innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance (McGee et al., 2009); appropriately, it was used to measure African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level.

Definitions

The following terms mentioned in this study have specific meanings, which are unique to the research in this investigation. Accordingly, the definitions employed in this study are used to explicate the specific comprehension of how they are interpreted in the research.

African American: African American refers to an American ethnic group with total or partial ancestry from any part of Africa (U.S. Census Bureau, 2020); however, African Americans are also known as Afro-Americans and Black Americans, which are predominately the direct descendants of enslaved Africans in America (Dickerson, 2004). Thus, this study will occasionally refer to African Americans as Black, Negro, and Colored as they were historically termed in the past history of America (J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001).

African American male unemployment: African American male unemployment refers to African American males, which have in the past or are currently unemployed and not working in any capacity for any period of time (U.S. BLS, 2019a; V. Wilson, 2019).

American chattel slavery: American chattel slavery refers to a legalized government-sanctioned system of property law in America, which included the buying and selling of human beings for the primary purpose of providing free labor (C. Anderson, 1994; Shahadah, 2020).

Black Wall Street: Black Wall Street refers to one of the most successful and affluent African American business districts located in Tulsa, Oklahoma, which was

massacred and burned during the Tulsa Race Massacre (R. Walker, 2010/2016).

Caucasian American: Caucasian American refers to Americans of European descent, which may also be referred to as White (Haller, 1971/1995).

Critical race theory: Critical race theory refers to the study of race, law, and power as a theoretical framework that highlights the extent to which racism is systemic and White supremacy and privilege is at the crux of racism, marginalization, and the social exclusion of African Americans; accordingly, this term indicates that race is a social construct (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017).

Discrimination: Discrimination refers to the categorization of human begins based on uncontrollable differences, which includes restricting, excluding, and denying different groups of people access to opportunities through the illogical rationalization of self-identified privilege (T. M. Shapiro, 2017; Sussman, 2014).

Entrepreneur: Entrepreneur refers to the innovative creation, designation, and launching of an economically based business entity of any kind and accepting the potential social, psychological, and financial risk associated with starting a business from inception, which has the potential to generate a profit and provide employment and economic independence (Kiremli, 2017; Neck et al., 2020).

Entrepreneurial self-efficacy: Entrepreneurial self-efficacy refers to the self-perceived confidence in individuals' ability to engage in meaningful entrepreneurial activities and duties, which may increase their probability of owning businesses (Chen et al., 1998; McGee et al., 2009).

Exceptional people: Exceptional people refer to Black Americans that are also known as African Americans, who are the direct descendants of Africans that were enslaved during legalized chattel slavery in America (C. Anderson, 1994, 2001). Explicitly, this is a unique term that represents the tenacity, resilience, and exceptionality of African Americans, who are the direct descendants of Africans who endured hundreds of years of dehumanization and legalized chattel slavery, government-sanctioned Jim Crow segregation, the struggle for basic civil rights, and the continued endeavor for integral equity in America (C. Anderson, 1994, 2001).

Institutional racism: Institutional racism, also known as systemic racism, refers to a phrase first used by Stokely Carmichael in 1967 that describes a form of racism conveyed through political and social institutions, which exacerbates inequities in education, wealth, health care, criminal justice, income, homeownership, entrepreneurship, and employment (C. Phillips, 2011).

Race: Race refers to the characterization of human beings in divergent groups based on skin color and physical characteristics (Sussman, 2014).

Racism: Racism refers to the practice of human beings exercising superiority over other groups of human beings based on a myriad of illogical, unjustifiable, and unproven notions that behavioral traits and abilities are associated with individuals' physical appearance (Sussman, 2014).

White supremacy: White supremacy refers to an unscientific ideology that suggests that Caucasian people are superior to other races, resulting in the notion that they should rule, dominate, oppress, intimidate, and control other human beings of

different racial identities, which is characterized as the most pernicious threat to the security of America (Kendall, 2006; Sands, 2020).

Assumptions

The assumptions of a study articulate possible theorized predictions according to how the research is interpreted (Creswell, 2018). Therefore, this investigation consisted of three assumptions. The first assumption is that participants of this study had a heartfelt interest in participating in this study due to a genuine compassion to influence lower rates of unemployment among African American males, which will increase African Americans' integral prosperity. This assumption is prognosticated because all of the participants are African American men; thus, they possessed authentic esteem regarding the research in this study. The second assumption is that the participants answered the research survey questionnaire in an honest manner. The third assumption is that the research survey questionnaire employed in this study accurately measured participants' various levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, which enabled me to quantify relationships of their divergent levels of unemployment in a precise fashion.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope and delimitations of a study articulate what the study intends to achieve as well as what the investigation expects not to accomplish (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Thus, the scope of this research study is to ascertain relationships that exist between unemployment among African American males and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. African American males are currently the highest unemployed racial and gender demographic in America (U.S. BLS, 2020a; V. Wilson, 2019); thus, in an effort to

retrieve a variety of data that represents the integral sample of the larger population, participants are African American men from various age categories, education levels, marital statuses, occupational industries, types of unemployment, and geographical locations within the American workforce. Consequently, a delimitation of this study is that it was not refined or focused on one specific group, as it included participants' varying age categories, education levels, marital statuses, occupational industries, types of unemployment, and geographical locations within the American workforce, which enabled me to provide results from the analyses relative to an array of voices from African American men.

Limitations of the Study

Limitations are circumstances or confounding variables that may limit the efforts of the researcher and may have ramifications on the study's final analyses; validity, reliability, generalizability, and appropriateness of the findings are some of the limitations that are associated with any study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Creswell and Creswell (2018) suggested that discerning limitations in the beginning stages of the study may be an arduous task; nevertheless, I prognosticated data collection methods as potential limitations, weaknesses, and barriers of the investigation. Explicitly, it may be challenging to persuade large sets of African American men to complete a time-consuming online survey; thus, I attempted to use a research survey questionnaire that did not take a lengthy amount of time to complete. I was also challenged with achieving permission to use the research survey questionnaire in a timely manner, which is needed to conduct the quantitative portion of this study.

Additionally, the research survey questionnaire required participants to self-report their responses, thus increasing the chances for participants to report untruthful or exaggerated responses. Explicitly, participants' self-report retrospective responses have the potential to exacerbate memory inaccuracy, response bias, and misattribution, which might generate distorted data. Furthermore, different variables, such as religious beliefs and workplace experiences, have the potential to impact the data of this study (Creswell, 2018). However, the confounding variables mentioned are not associated with the central foundation of this study; thus, even though they may impact the data, this research is limited to the primary foci of the investigation in an effort to provide more focused and refined analyses. Moreover, time constraints associated with completing this research study limited my efforts to be as thorough as possible with the comprehensive components of the study. Furthermore, I had a special interest in researching this topic; thus, this has the potential of creating a bias regarding the constructs discussed in this study. Finally, this study's sample only included African American men; therefore, the results of this study may not be generalizable to African American males under the age of 18, African American women, varying Americans of African descent, and other ethnic and minority groups in America.

Significance of the Study

This study has the capacity to affect social change by providing quantitative results that may assist the African American community and America by improving African American males' rates of unemployment by identifying and enhancing their confidence to create jobs for themselves. The suggestion mentioned is crucial because it

may provide lawmakers, community activists, and community organizers with a roadmap to counteract unemployment among African American men (Edeoga, 2012; L. Harris, 2013; T. M. Shapiro, 2017). Moreover, this research intends to provide awareness to a significant social issue with the hopes of changing the perception of how unemployed African American men are perceived and addressed in this country. Thus, comprehending further empirical reasons for the problem has the ability to produce an adequate range of policies that may benefit the African American community by improving the unemployment levels of African American men through a better interpretation of the relationship of their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level.

Moreover, the results of this research study have the potential to influence social change and the field of leadership in a plethora of manners. The assertion mentioned is consistent with this study providing civil, social, political, and educational leaders with the essential knowledge and guidance needed to address the social issues related to unemployment among African American men and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Additionally, this study may provide leaders with explicit protocols for addressing some of the social issues related to the high rates of unemployment among African American men through identifying how they may increase their efforts of entrepreneurship, which are consistent with how to disseminate and convey information related to the aspect of how unemployment among African American men is related to their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level.

Expressly, political leaders serving in various levels of government may be adequately informed, with analyzed empirical data, when attempting to assess and render

decisions and legislation regarding unemployment among African American men and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. This study provided an opportunity for Americans of all racial distinctions to attain the proper guidance needed to assist in counteracting the adverse effects of the social issues mentioned, as this is genuinely a social issue for America. Therefore, the findings from this study have the potential to galvanize all Americans to assume leadership roles in counteracting unemployment among African American men by analyzing relationships that may exist between unemployment among African American men and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level.

Summary

Chapter 1 presented a compendium of this research investigation that provided a detailed introduction of the background of the study and the statement of the problem and how they are associated with the overwhelming rates of unemployment among African American males and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Accordingly, established on the basis of the literature, I suggested that the high rates of unemployment among African American males are exacerbated by historic systemic racism (C. Anderson, 1994; A. Austin, 2016; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; M. A. Turner, 2008; R. Walker, 2010/2016; V. Wilson, 2019). Consequently, I also postulated that the high rates of unemployment among African American males might be related to their levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy (Chen et al., 1998; McGee et al., 2009; Rogers, 2010). Therefore, a comprehensive interpretation of the introduction, background of the study, and statement of the problem provided evidence that unemployment among African American males is

a severe social issue, and researching relationships between their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level has the potential of alleviating this issue.

Additionally, Chapter 1 identified the purpose of the study, which is to explore relationships between unemployment among African American males and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. The research questions and hypotheses were provided, and the critical race theory, institutional racism, and entrepreneurial self-efficacy were recognized as theoretical frameworks for the study. Furthermore, the nature of the study was identified as quantitative, and the participants are African American men. The goal of this study is to encourage necessary social change and provide a catalyst for improving African American males' rates of unemployment and increasing their awareness and levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy. The study also has the potential of educating political leaders and all Americans regarding a crucial social issue.

Chapter 2 will present the theoretical frameworks of the study, which are the critical race theory, institutional racism, and the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory. Moreover, a thorough review of the existing literature regarding an overview of African Americans from a historic perspective and narration will illustrate the presumption for most of the reasons why unemployment and entrepreneurial gaps exist among them. Additionally, Chapter 2 will meticulously examine African American males' unemployment and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Subsequently, Chapter 3 will explicate the research methodology and design of the study, which stipulates the research questions and hypotheses, population and sample, methods of data collection, validity, a description and validation of the research survey questionnaire used in this study, and

ethical assurances. Chapter 4 provides the results of this quantitative nonexperimental correlational study, which will yield answers to the research questions and reject or accept each null or alternative hypothesis. Chapter 5 imparts a discussion of the findings based on the results; additionally, Chapter 5 will provide an interpretation of the findings, limitations of the study, implications for practice and positive social change, recommendations for future research, and conclusions. Next, this study will present a review of the literature.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Chapter 2 incorporates a review of the literature related to unemployment among African American males and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. The literature review should examine the study's variables and other constructs that are related to them as well as the significance of researching the concepts mentioned in the investigation (Efron & Ravid, 2019). Accordingly, the central focus for examining the significance of unemployment among African American males and their various levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy is to provide comprehensive enlightenment to a pressing social issue regarding America's exceptional people. The term exceptional is used to illustrate the exceptionality of a group of people that are the descendants of enslaved Africans that have been subjected to prolonged intentional legalized systemic strident conditions, which has exacerbated a host of economic, employment, educational, psychological, criminal justice, and entrepreneurial inequities for African Americans that continues to persist as of this writing (Alexander, 2010; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Asante-Muhammad et al., 2017; A. Austin, 2016; Baradaran, 2015/2018, 2017/2019; Cai & Baker, 2021; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Engram, 2019; Ginsburg et al., 2018; Hanks et al., 2018; Hannon, 2018; Jan, 2019; JEC, n.d.; Kendi, 2016/2017; Leary, 2005; A. Lee et al., n.d.; A. R. Muhammad, 2018; Patton, 2015; C. Phillips, 2011; Rochester, 2017; Rothstein, 2017; Sewell, 2020; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2019a; A. N. Wilson, 1993, 2020).

Therefore, this literature review will begin with the theoretical foundations, which examine the critical race theory, institutional racism, and entrepreneurial self-efficacy and

how they pertain to and frame this study. Next, this literature review will provide a historic overview of African Americans to gain an exhaustive perspective of some of the reasons why African American males experience higher unemployment and decreased chances of business ownership, which includes compulsory components of the historical systemic catastrophe of legalized American chattel slavery, the Civil War, the Reconstruction era, Jim Crow segregation laws, and the civil rights and Black Lives Matter movements. Additionally, African American males' unemployment, entrepreneurial self-efficacy, and a historic account of how African American males exhibited characteristics consistent with high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy are addressed. This provides context that with adequate education and equivalent social and civil conditions, contemporary African American men may also exhibit characteristics associated with high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy by engaging in a myriad of entrepreneurial activities.

Explicitly, I will explore the concepts related to historical accounts of the way African Americans have and continue to be marginalized through systemic and discriminatory practices that have exacerbated the current racial unemployment gap among African American males. Therefore, factors related to African American males' unemployment, including age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and type of unemployment, are discussed along with the measurement and duration of unemployment and employment networking. Furthermore, the economic, health, criminal justice, discrimination, and affirmative actions' impact on African American male unemployment are addressed in this literature review. The constructs mentioned are

entrenched in the theoretical frameworks of this study, which are the critical race theory, institutional racism, and the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory, which are all included in the theoretical frameworks section of the study (Better, 2008; Chen et al., 1998; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; McGee et al., 2009; C. Phillips, 2011).

Furthermore, this investigation will explore the concepts related to entrepreneurial self-efficacy level and how African Americans exhibited entrepreneurial activities that were consistent with possessing high levels of this construct. The suggestion mentioned refers to the importance of interpreting the historic exposition of African American entrepreneurial efforts and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Hence, African Americans owned businesses to include one of the most successful business districts in American history, known as Black Wall Street in Tulsa, Oklahoma (Rogers, 2010; R. Walker, 2010/2016). Accordingly, the literature emphasized the way African Americans were massacred for their community's high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy and prosperity (R. Walker, 2010/2016). African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level will also be analyzed in this review of the literature; moreover, this section of the literature review will also attempt to provide a historic perspective of how African American males displayed competencies consistent with high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, which is a crucial ingredient for prospective business owners (Chen et al., 1998; McGee et al., 2009; Mueller & Goic, 2003; Wei et al., 2020).

Objectives and Scope of the Research

Unemployment among African American males is regarded as a significant social issue that has persisted for an extended period of time (U.S. BLS, 2019a, 2020a; V.

Wilson, 2019). Historic and current government policies and other social initiatives have failed to eradicate this problem. Recent literature suggested that the problem may be linked to African Americans' wealth disparities and decreased levels of entrepreneurship (C. Anderson, 2001; A. Austin, 2016; Hawkins, 2020; Howard, 2019; JEC, n.d.; A. Lee et al., n.d.; Rochester, 2017; Rogers, 2010; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; R. Walker, 2010/2016). Thus, the purpose of this quantitative nonexperimental correlational study is to explore possible relationships that exist between African American males' unemployment and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which has the capacity to provide them with a road-map for influencing and discovering their true entrepreneurial potential of becoming self-employed job producers with an independent means of community sustainability.

Consequently, the integral objectives for this literature review are to explicate a historic context of institutional, systemic barriers that are responsible for the employment and entrepreneurial gap that currently exist between African American males compared to other racial and gender demographics. Therefore, the goal of this literature review is to frame the context of the study by providing knowledge and reflection regarding the systemic atrocities that contribute to African American males' unemployment gap and diminutive entrepreneurial confidence to develop businesses. Moreover, an objective of this study is to provide a frame of reference to the many sacrifices and contributions that African Americans have made to America in the name of patriotism, acceptance, and allegiance to America, which illuminates their exceptionality and need for every American to work to counteract these crucial social issues. Accordingly, a noteworthy intent of this literature review is to present empirical research that cannot be

marginalized, discriminated against, ignored, discredited, or forgotten about, which is dissimilar to how African Americans' issues are adjudicated in America (C. Anderson, 1994; Cullen, 2014; DiAngelo, 2018; Jane Elliott, 2016; Kendall, 2006; Kendi, 2016/2017; Leary, 2005; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; Wise, 2011; Wytsma, 2017), thus creating an atmosphere for the introduction of meaningful solutions to these genuine social problems.

Appropriately, Chapter 2 focuses on the background of the problem and the purpose of the study related to the extant research of the investigation (Efron & Ravid, 2019). Explicitly, the review of the literature focuses on the background of African American males and their struggle to achieve quality education, equitable criminal justice, intellectual credibility, income and wealth equity, equal employment, business loans, and entrepreneurship, which all have an immense impact on their unemployment and entrepreneurial self-efficacy level (Alexander, 2010; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Bonilla-Silva et al., 2004; W. E. B DuBois, 1903/1993, 1935/1998, 1903/2017; Hanks et al., 2018; Hartmann et al., 2009; Jan, 2019; JEC, n.d.; Kendi, 2016/2017; A. Lee et al., n.d.; McGee et al., 2009; D. E. Nichols, 2006; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2019a, 2019b; U.S. EEOC, n.d.; Washington, 1907/2017, 1901/2020; Wise, 2011). Moreover, African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level was specially addressed to provide a historic context that African American males once displayed characteristics related to their high entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which may also be duplicated with contemporary African American males. Thus, this recapitulates the importance of their need to become more responsible for their employment and economic future by

adapting to a means of becoming self-sufficient and employing themselves and others in their communities.

Efron and Ravid (2019) suggested that the empirical reviewed articles and studies used for the literature review should summarize, support, and reflect the assertions presented in the investigation. Accordingly, I chose research articles and peer-reviewed studies for this literature review that were closely associated with the importance of African American history, African American unemployment, African American male unemployment, African American entrepreneurship, African American male entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial self-efficacy, and entrepreneurial endeavors. Employment is characterized as the cornerstone of societal prosperity and survival (T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2019a; Wytsma, 2019); thus, America should strive for the lowest unemployment levels possible for all of its citizens. Additionally, possessing high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy is essential to successful African American male entrepreneurship (C. Anderson, 2001; McGee et al., 2009), which has the potential to provide meaningful employment for themselves and others in their community (C. Anderson, 2001). Thus, the information in this literature review is consequential for African Americans' and America's future economic and social prosperity.

Literature Search Strategy

The literature review consisted of a thorough examination of the literature. I conducted a search of all major online academic databases to ascertain relevant information for this investigation. Precisely, an evaluation of over 2,000 academic peer-reviewed documents, articles, writings, journals, and textbooks related to African

American history, African American unemployment, African American male unemployment, African American entrepreneurship, African American male entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial self-efficacy, and entrepreneurial endeavors were reviewed for this study. Information was retrieved from the essential academic databases, including Academic Search Complete, Busines Search Complete, Google Scholar, SAGE, ProQuest Central, ProQuest Ebook Central, ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global, Springer, Emerald, EBSCO, and PsycArticles. Moreover, I incorporated the information in distinction to current news articles from reputable empirical sources, including annual reporting data from the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, the United States Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, and the United States Census Bureau. The information gathered articulated the significance and positive and negative ramifications of unemployment to nations and societies as a whole. There was no quantitative information regarding the impact of unemployment on African American males and how this social problem may be rectified through entrepreneur self-efficacy level.

I employed a search strategy of locating information pertaining to headings and subheadings of the literature review topics dating from 2015 to 2020. Thus, the databases mentioned above were used to gather information related to the main topic, with the subtopic information remaining separated until I needed to synthesize the information. The search strategy ensured that the information remained organized for the purposes of review and cross-checking. The keywords that were put in the EBSCO and Google Scholar databases were *African American, African American male, African American*

male unemployment, African American entrepreneurship, African American male entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory, entrepreneurial self-efficacy, entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, African American entrepreneurial self-efficacy, African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy, critical race theory, institutional racism, systemic racism, discrimination, workplace discrimination, racism, White supremacy, and *the theory of whiteness.*

My exploration of the current literature revealed an abundance of information consistent with African Americans' arduous journey from a historic viewpoint to the present, highlighting their monumental contributions to humanity and America. Furthermore, the research also highlighted characteristics relevant to African Americans, explicitly African American males', entrepreneurial self-efficacy level and entrepreneurial endeavors, which in some circumstances led to them being massacred (C. Anderson, 1994; R. Walker, 2010/2016); yet, through resilience to acquire the American dream of financial independence and prosperity, they continued to strive for excellence. Accordingly, empirical research suggested that this study's social issues receive a diminutive sense of urgency to provide imperative solutions and assistance, which empirical evidence proposes is deserving for an exceptional people (C. Anderson, 1994, 2001). The theoretical frameworks are presented next.

Theoretical Frameworks

The theoretical foundations are provided to illustrate the manner in which the theoretical frameworks relate to the central foci of the study. Consequently, the critical race theory, institutional racism, and the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory are discussed

to provide clarity regarding the impetus for the systemic racial obstacles encountered by African American males that affect their employment and entrepreneurial efforts (C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Better, 2008; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Jane Elliott, 2016; Fairbanks, 2015; Haller, 1971/1995; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; Sussman, 2014). The critical race theory is presented first.

Critical Race Theory

The critical race theory was first developed in the early 1970s and is based on the collective ideas of a plethora of academics and activists, notably Derrick Bell's critique of critical legal studies, that are concerned with power, racism, and race in society (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017). Hence, this movement owes homage to and builds upon the constructs of critical legal research and feminism that are considered radical. Thus, this movement mirrors some of the collective actions of activists of the past that were involved in the civil rights movement; however, this movement differs from the civil rights movement because it explicitly focuses on the essential principles of constitutional law versus gradual steps towards achieving goals (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017). The central foci of the critical race theory hypothesized that unlike the racism of the past, contemporary racism is more indistinct, thus requiring divergent manners of counteracting covert racial and discriminatory injustices that were originally eradicated during the civil rights movement but were stalled or abrogated (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017). Distinctly, a significant component of the critical race theory posited that race is not scientifically or biologically grounded.

Fairbanks (2015) denoted that the word race has two distinct meanings: running in competitive races and categorizing people, animals, and plants with similar or identical genetic traits. However, an abundance of contemporary literature regarding the race of human beings suggested that race as a concept of categorizing human beings into divergent colors and ethnic groups is a fabricated socially constructed concept (Better, 2008; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Jane Elliott, 2016; Fairbanks, 2015; Haller, 1971/1995; Sussman, 2014). Accordingly, much modern scientific literature articulated that there is no biological or scientific composition for characterizing human beings in different races; thus, there is only the human race (Better, 2008; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Jane Elliott, 2016; Fairbanks, 2015; Sussman, 2014). This includes empirical information regarding the inheritance and distribution of human genetics, excavations by anthropologists, and exhaustive testing of DNA that reveals that there is only the human race that exists on planet Earth (Fairbanks, 2015; Sussman, 2014), and this race of human begins originated from the continent of Africa (Fairbanks, 2015).

Accordingly, with an abundance of empirical evidence suggesting that the contemporary use of race to depict divergent colors and characteristics of human beings is fictitious, it is significant to discuss how this socially constructed concept was derived and why it is still among society. Leary (2005) suggested that a prominent 18th scientist of biology termed Carl Von Linnaeus developed the classification concepts used to characterize life, which are kingdom, phylum, class, order, family, genus, and species that assisted individuals in classifying living organisms' association to one another. However, Better (2008), Haller (1971/1995), and Leary (2005) proposed that Carl Von

Linnaeus attempted to use this same system to characterize human beings by using colors to delineate different groups of human beings, which provided the foundation for the use of race and racism in the 18th century. Haller (1971/1995) suggested that Carl Von Linnaeus regarded Homo Americanus people as reddish and described them as a customary people and obstinate, Homo Europaeus was considered to be White and described them as a gentle people governed by laws, Homo Asiaticus was depicted as sallow yellow pale and regarded them as avaricious, and Homo Afer was determined to be Black, and he described these people as lazy, cunning, lustful and careless. Therefore, according to the racial characteristics mentioned, one can assume who Carl Von Linnaeus described as lazy, cunning, and lustful was then and currently is people of African descent.

Thus, this was the origination of characterizing human beings according to colors that were also intended to predict individuals' behavior. Leary (2005) and Haller (1971/1995) suggested that this color-based race classification theory influenced Johann Friedrich Blumenbach to further organize his classification for human beings as Caucasian, Mongolian, Ethiopian, and Malayan. Haller (1971/1995) proposed that Johann Friedrich Blumenbach's depiction of the races intertwined facial characteristics, the shape of the skull, hair, and skin color. Furthermore, Johann Friedrich Blumenbach most notably selected the term Caucasian for the White race; thus, naming them after the Caucus mountain for a beautiful race of men and near Mount Ararat, a biblical location associated with Noah's Ark to characterize the original man (Haller, 1971/1995). Haller (1971/1995) suggested that Johann Friedrich Blumenbach's characterization of the

Caucasian race as the original man was because human beings' skeletons appeared white in color. Leary (2005) implies that the irony of Carl Von Linnaeus and Johann Friedrich Blumenbach it that they were scientists that provided colors and human characteristics to human beings; yet none of their opinionated assumptions regarding color or human characteristics underwent any scientific test or experiences to provide an empirical basis for their relevance.

However, Better (2008), Haller (1971/1995), and Leary (2005) all agreed that the unsubstantiated bias opinions of the scientists mentioned regarding race assisted in launching 18th century and modern-day White supremacy. Scholars continue to contribute divergent postulations regarding race; Better (2008) suggested that the modern term racism was conceived around the Civil War era because of African Americans' potential of becoming citizens; thus, participating in the political process and demanding legitimate employment. C. Anderson (1994) regarded race as a team sport with divergent groups competing in a race for resources, assets, and power. Leary (2005) suggested that individuals used falsehoods of race as instruments to achieve power and control over societies. Hence, Europeans that developed the racial caste system with Africans at the bottom suffered from a psychological condition known as cognitive dissonance (Leary, 2005); which equates to individuals' holding ideals, values, and beliefs that are contradictory and denoting two contradictory psychological inconsistencies and executing everything possible to make these beliefs consistent (Harmon-Jones, 2019). Leary (2005) indicated that Africans were relegated to sub-standard versions of humanity by Europeans by utilizing racial mendacities and misjudgments with no scientific

evidence to support these claims, yet convincing the world that this is accurate to maintain power and control delineates their cognitive dissonance.

Accordingly, the critical race theory delineates the notion that there are incentives for intentionally branding individuals in different groups as either superior or inferior based on color and physical characteristics. Hence, science-based empirical research suggested that higher-order traits consisting of moral behavior, personality, or intellect have nothing to do with skin color or physical characteristics; yet this is typically ignored to focus on the unsubstantiated notions of race to determine character (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017). The suggestion mentioned was used to determine how societies regulate their citizens, including but are not limited to who provides free labor to construct the newly discovered land. Accordingly, the fallacious constructs of race determine who enjoys the fruits of full citizenship, who receives the racial advantage that provides unearned benefits, wealth, land, access to business ownership, equal and fair treatment under the law, the best education, employment, and housing as articulated in the critical race theory and contemporary systemic racism (Alexander, 2010; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Asante-Muhammad et al., 2017; Baradaran, 2015/2018, 2017/2019; Engram, 2019; Ginsburg et al., 2018; Hanks et al., 2018; Jan, 2019; JEC, n.d.; Kendi, 2016/2017; A. Lee et al., n.d.; A. R. Muhammad, 2018; Pager, 2003; Patton, 2015; Rochester, 2017; Rothstein, 2017; Sewell, 2020; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2019a). The critical race theory also has significant constructs that are directly related to this study.

The first facet of the critical race theory suggested that various forms of racism in America are typical or is a business as usual component of this theory that creates an

ambiguity that is difficult to detect and counteract (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017). This portion of the critical race theory is reminiscent of the inclination that African Americans are the most unemployed racial group in America (U.S. BLS, 2019a, 2019b); yet, this is socially perceived as normal or business as usual, thus, not acknowledging the inequities, which deems it difficult to resolve (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017). Comparatively, if Caucasian Americans were as unemployed as African Americans for this protracted amount of time, this would ignite a national emergency (T. M. Shapiro, 2017). Additionally, the diminutive rates of African American entrepreneurship due to discriminatory practices in the issuance of business loans to African Americans (Jan, 2019; A. Lee et al., n.d.); illustrates an ignorance and avoidance regarding the business as usual practices associated with the critical race theory (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017). The whiteness theory explains further the color-blind unacknowledged and typically undiscussed benefits to Caucasian Americans for the business as usual racism in America (DiAngelo, 2018); thus, articulated as a component that is associated with the critical race theory.

Whiteness theories explore the intricate complexities of whiteness in studies and how they may affect an index of divergent identities' in individuals' lives; some of them are political, social, cultural, economic, and racial identity (Hartmann et al., 2009). Thus, whiteness theories are encompassed by the masking or blindness of the privileges that are analogous to the term White privilege, which is strongly associated with White identity (Cullen, 2014; DiAngelo, 2018). Additionally, whiteness theory is related to the critical race theory as it attempts to characterize the invisibility of individuals' whiteness as a

framework of racial advantages that are garnered as a result of White privilege (Bonilla-Silva, 2006; Wise, 2011). Thus, whiteness theory in America equates to the lack of empathy or consciousness of how other racial groups that are not White may be disadvantaged as a result of not being White; which are directly associated with societal constructs; such as employment, entrepreneurship, and other economic advantages that may be achieved from unacknowledged White privilege (C. Anderson, 1994; Cullen, 2014; DiAngelo, 2018; Jane Elliott, 2016; Kendall, 2006; A. Lee et al., n.d.; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; Wise, 2011).

Theoretically, there are beneficiaries to the inequitable economic constructs associated with institutionally ensuring that one racial set of Americans are systematically not equivalent to compete based on their natural-born racial inheritance (Better, 2008; Haller, 1971/1995; Kendi, 2016/2017; Leary, 2005). Thus, whiteness theories amplify the comprehension of the need for the blindness of White advantages based on the interpretation of who benefits from the disadvantages of other racial groups in America (DiAngelo, 2018; Kendi, 2016/2017). Specifically, the constructs mentioned equates to the institutional, political, and economic power that Caucasian Americans; explicitly Caucasian American men, possess overall minorities in America that have the potential to affect African Americans' access to quality education, equitable criminal justice, intellectual credibility, income and wealth equity, equal employment, business loans, and entrepreneurship (Alexander, 2010; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Bonilla-Silva et al., 2004; Hanks et al., 2018; Hartmann et al., 2009; Jan, 2019; JEC, n.d.; Kendi, 2016/2017; A. Lee et al., n.d.; D. E. Nichols, 2006; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS,

2019a, 2019b; U.S. EEOC, n.d.; Wise, 2011). The White supremacy advantage mentioned is rarely acknowledged, and it is amalgamated with other whiteness theories, such as White fragility or Caucasian Americans' avoidance and reluctance to speak about White privilege, societal discrimination, and systemic racism (DiAngelo, 2018).

The second facet of the critical race theory is termed interest convergence that refers to affluent Caucasian Americans conceiving material benefits and working-class Caucasian Americans receiving physical benefits from racism (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017). Thus, if everyone in the dominant society is benefiting, there is no need or interest to eradicate racism.

The third tenant of the critical race theory is that race is a social construct with no biological basis; thus, this fabricated notion of racial superiority creates an advantage to those considered superior (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Sussman, 2014). This is evident in preferential racial hiring that is not grounded in intellect, knowledge, skills, or abilities; thus, as of this writing, the chief executive officer (CEO) of Wells Fargo suggested that the bank is incapable of reaching its diversity hiring goals due to diminished pools of qualified African Americans to fills job positions (Jibilian, 2020). The CEO of Wells Fargo later apologized for the inaccurate comments mentioned; however, they were met with backlash and evidence of African Americans closing their accounts based on the imprecise accusations regarding African Americans' lack of qualifications that were not empirically based on merit (Jibilian, 2020).

The fourth aspect of the critical race theory is differential rationalization that refers to the dominant racial group racializing divergent minority groups regarding

various labor market shifts. Delgado & Stefancic (2017) proposed that preferring Mexican Americans or Japanese Americans over African Americans for algaculture jobs based on the labor market is an example of this phenomenon; however, Japanese Americans were once sent to camps because of the war; thus, other minority groups were sought out (Delgado & Stefancic).

The fifth element of this theory is the voice of color segment that intensifies the notion that different minority groups in American have the competence to speak their unknowing racial experiences to their Caucasian American peers (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017). This is significant because African Americans communicating their racial experiences to Caucasian Americans may have a major impact on counteracting some of the more subtle, sometimes undetectable covert forms of racism in employment and business ownership. Accordingly, the elements of the critical race theory provide the theoretical foundations regarding the belief that modest post-civil rights racism affects African Americans in employment and business ownership. Thus, the study of race, law, and power in the United States that is conceptualized by the critical race theory, provides the framework for providing a diagnosis for the social issues mentioned. Next, this literature review further discusses another aspect of this study's theoretical framework: institutional racism.

Institutional/Systemic Racism

Institutional racism, which is also termed systemic racism, originally received its designation and notoriety from Stokely Carmichael, a prominent Pan African, and Charles V. Hamilton, a preeminent political scientist and civil rights leader (Bhavnani et

al., 2005; C. Phillips, 2011). Explicitly, institutional racism refers to modest forms of racism that are not based on individual oppression but more systemic maltreatment in every major government institution that has the potential to negatively affect African Americans' efforts to achieve comprehensive equality in America (C. Phillips, 2011). Thus, institutional racism exists in a myriad of government institutions, including education, economic equality, entrepreneurship, business loans, housing, employment, and criminal justice, which will all be thoroughly discussed in this literature review (Alexander, 2010; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Baradaran, 2015/2018, 2017/2019; Engram, 2019; Ginsburg et al., 2018; Hanks et al., 2018; Jan, 2019; JEC, n.d.; Kendi, 2016/2017; A. Lee et al., n.d.; A. R. Muhammad, 2018; Patton, 2015; Rochester, 2017; Rothstein, 2017; Sewell, 2020; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2019a).

However, the segments of institutional racism affecting education, employment, and barriers to African Americans' entrepreneurial efforts are discussed to provide the theoretical basis of how this construct is used for this study. Thus, institutional racism is similar to the critical race theory because of the more subtle forms of racism (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017); however, institutional racism is embedded deep within the fibers of America's institutions and is further exacerbated by attitudes of anti-blackness and inferiority that is not contingent on individual oppressive racial encounters (C. Phillips, 2011). Accordingly, this literature review will provide empirical evidence supporting institutional racism as a theoretical framework of this study, beginning with education.

Institutional racism has been embedded within the American educational system since African Americans were enslaved and prohibited from reading books, writing, or

engaging in productive academic activities (Jay, 1835/2016). Moreover, after the Civil War, educational institutions in American remained segregated until the 1954 Brown versus Board of education Supreme Court decision ruled that separate schooling could not provide an adequate or equal education to African Americans (J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001). Better (2008) proposed that the desegregation of schools was somewhat effective; however, it did not integrate the curriculum, effectively subjecting African Americans to glean fallacious and diluted versions of history and other counterproductive subjects' intellectual growth (Woodson, 1933/2018). Woodson (1933/2018) suggested that the American school systems miseducate African Americans and that they are indoctrinated versus taught, which influences dependence and inferiority. Woodson (1933/2018) declared that African Americans are so conditioned by their miseducation that if no back door or inferior place is present, they will attempt to create one to enter in as they are erroneously indoctrinated with a false social worth that motivates them to locate the inferior spaces among society. Thus, if academic subjects, such as how African Americans may increase their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, are not taught in schools, they will be forced to strive towards more inferior places of employment versus business ownership.

Additionally, Smith et al. (2007) stipulated that the integration of college campuses has led to anti-African American male racism and violence; thus, creating an environment that may hinder African American males' initiatives to achieve a college education. Better (2008) proposed that contemporary American schools have de facto segregation, with Caucasian Americans being the most segregated at 80%. Jencks and

Phillips (1998) suggested that labeling and the selective system have produced a racial bias in standardized testing that has exacerbated an African American and Caucasian American test gap where Caucasian Americans score higher on standardized testing than African Americans. Ash (2019) suggested that the United States spends more money on prisons to incarceration people and less on public schools to educate people; this is alarming information because African American men have some of the highest rates of incarceration compared to every racial and gender demographic in America (Alexander, 2010; Carson, 2020; Gramlich, 2020; Western, 2007). The institutional racism discovered in the American education system is alarming as education is viewed as the passport to become qualified for the best jobs, acquire a technical skill, entrepreneurial education, and the multi-facets of business ownership (C. Anderson, 2001; Kiremli, 2017; Rogers, 2010; Washington, 1907/2017, 1901/2020). Next, this literature review will discuss institutional racism in employment.

Institutional racism in employment originally existed during America's original sin of chattel slavery when it was illegal to employ enslaved African Americans to work for money or compensation of any kind (Beckert & Rockman, 2016). Better (2008) proposed that historical roadblocks legally prohibited African Americans from obtaining employment in certain sectors. This was evident in African Americans being barred from certain occupations that were more prominent employment areas during the industrial revolution by way of European immigrant-controlled labor unions (Better, 2008). Better (2008) postulated that if formally enslaved African Americans had access to the industrial

jobs in the northern United States, there might not have been a need for a civil rights movement a century later.

Additionally, large portions of the population are not included in one of the most prevailing measurements of unemployment, which is the U3 measurement of unemployment (U.S. BLS, 2015); thus, if the United States Department of Labor does not accurately measure unemployment, African American males might not receive the assistance needed to eradicate this social issue. Accordingly, employment and the labor market are hallmarks for achieving vertical mobility to acquire a decent occupation with benefits. However, institutional racism within America's employment opportunities signifies that Caucasian American men are three times more likely to be in the upper tier of management, including CEO or high professional status (Better, 2008). Comparatively, African Americans, minorities, and women of all races are more likely to work at unskilled labor or lower-tier jobs that are typically required to support higher-tier jobs (Better, 2008). Hence, in the United States, the vast majority of Americans identify with the meritocracy system or a system of upward mobility based on qualifications, hard work, and merit (Better, 2008). However, James Elliott and Smith (2005) indicated that African American men only possess half of a chance of being elevated from supervisor to manager, which suggested that Caucasian American men still possess an advantage regardless of qualifications. Additionally, the CEO of Wells Fargo, the fourth-largest financial institution in America, proposed that he could not locate qualified African Americans without being privileged to empirical data to substantiate his claim (Jibilian,

2020). The suggestions mentioned refer to the notion that African Americans are the last hired first fired (Couch & Fairlie, 2010).

Maldonado (2004) suggested that some employers are reluctant to consider employees' abilities based on their qualifications but whether their desirability to work around certain individuals; this proclaims that employers are not making hiring decisions based on the merit and qualifications of applicants. This further explicates Becker's taste-based theory of workplace discrimination that suggested individuals are hired based on the desire to be around certain individuals versus the qualifications that they possess (Becker, 1957/1971). Accordingly, hiring discrimination continues to be a primary reason for the high unemployment rates of African Americans (Quillian et al., 2017), with a myriad of workplace discrimination cases being initiated (Better, 2008; U.S. EEOC, n.d.). Additionally, Rochester (2017) proposed that African American males born in 2001 have a 33% chance of being incarcerated during their lifetimes. Accordingly, African American men are faced with additional institutional oppressive obstacles due to the likelihood of them being incarcerated and obtaining felony convictions, which automatically disqualifies them from most occupations (Rochester, 2017). African Americans have also attempted to attain employment in the government sector; however, they are still confronted with institutional racism.

Western (2006) proposed that after graduating high school, a substantial portion of African Americans typically choose to go in the military as a means of employment if they do not attend college. However, historical institutional racism resides in the military as well, with freed enslaved African American male soldiers fighting in the Civil War

and being paid less than Caucasian American male soldiers for serving in the same military and fighting for the same purpose (Beard, 2018; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001). Marks and Cabrera (2019) implied that in 1906 167 African American men known as Buffalo Soldiers was dishonorably discharged from the United States Army by President Theodore Roosevelt for crimes that they did not commit in Brownsville, Texas, making it the largest summary discharge in the history of the United States Army. Hence, President Richard Nixon later pardoned them in 1972 and issued them all honorable discharges without back pay; only one of them was alive to psychically receive the pardon (Marks & Cabrera, 2019). Furthermore, Project 100,000 was a program started in 1966 that professed to counteract poverty by allowing inner-city men of lower standards to join the military and eventually serve in the war in Vietnam (C. Turner, 2014). However, African American men were overrepresented in this program, making up over 40% of the inductees, with 44.5% of that percentage receiving combat roles compared to 38.8% of Caucasian American men in the same program that received combat roles (C. Turner, 2014). Moreover, African American men consumed the preponderance of combat-related deaths in Vietnam among the military personnel recruited under this program (C. Turner, 2014).

Additionally, over a third of military troops surveyed reported having witnessed racism, which climbed from 22% in 2018 to 36% in 2019. Most senior members of the military are predominately Caucasian American men (Thompson, 2020). Moreover, African Americans and Hispanic Americans are more likely to be tried in Special and General courts-martial in the Air Force, Navy, Army, and Marine Corps (Thompson,

2020). Thus, regardless if African Americans are in the public or private sector, they are subjected to occupational, institutional racism that has the possibility to subject them to a permanent underclass with no expectation of income or opportunities to elevate their social or economic status. Therefore, institutional racism has a profound impact on African American males' unemployment; thus, providing a theoretical basis for this study and a concise diagnostic for the astronomical unemployment issue among African American men. Institutional racism has also impeded African Americans' entrepreneurial efforts.

A. Austin (2016), Cummings (2019), and Howard (2019) all agreed that African Americans might face obstacles when attempting to start a business that is consistent with possessing adequate amounts of finances and family wealth. Howard (2019) asserted that entrepreneurs of all races use three essential types of finances to start a business: family and personal savings, bank-sponsored business loans, and personal credit cards. Accordingly, 63% or most new business capital is retrieved from personal savings and family support, 17.9% derive from personal credit cards, and 10.3% use personal credit cards to establish new businesses. Hence, it is overwhelmingly advantageous to receive startup funds from savings and family members because of the debt to income ratio and not having the owner's nonliquid assets tied to the business loans if the business fails (Howard, 2019). Thus, Howard (2019) illustrates how disparities in personal income and wealth are a deterrent for African American businesses, with a significant barrier in starting a new business explicitly relating to diminished quantities of wealth. This is crucial because African Americans possess extensively diminutive wealth in relation to

the total gross domestic product of the United States (Rogers, 2010). Thus, the next option is to apply for a bank loan to start a business; however, the literature suggested that this is also an institutional racial barrier regarding African Americans' entrepreneurial endeavors.

A. Lee et al. (n.d.) conducted a study regarding disenfranchisement in small business lending among minorities in seven cities in the United States, which are Atlanta, Georgia, Houston, Texas, Los Angeles, California, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, New York, New York, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, and Washington, DC. This study analyzed public data from small business lending from 2008 to 2016, and the results were astonishing as they indicated that there was a reduction in small business lending to African Americans that went from 8% to 3% during the Great Recession that still has not recovered (A. Lee et al., n.d.). Additionally, most business loans went to wealthier business owners, and there are overwhelming gaps among African American and Hispanic American business ownership; accordingly, African Americans are 12.6% of the United States' population, yet they only own 2.1% of businesses with employees and Hispanic Americans are 16.9% of the population and only own 5.6% of businesses with employees (A. Lee et al., n.d.). A. Lee et al. (n.d.) also illustrated that in abundantly populated cities, the percentage of residents and business ownership is unsatisfactory; with Washington, DC having 25% African American residents that own 6% of the businesses, Atlanta, Georgia has 33% African American residents that own 6% of the businesses, and New York, New York has 25% African American residents that own 2% of the businesses. Comparatively, Caucasian Americans in Washington, DC have 46% residents that own

65% of the businesses, Atlanta, Georgia has 48% Caucasian American residents that own 70% of the businesses, and New York, New York has 33% Caucasian American residents that own 72% of the businesses (A. Lee et al., n.d.). A. Lee et al. (n.d.) did not provide direct guidance for future research; however, studies of this magnitude would be useful if they were conducted in more locations.

A. Lee et al. (n.d.) conducted another study regarding business loan discrimination, but they used a different methodology this time. This time A. Lee et al. (n.d.) used mystery shoppers in Los Angeles to ascertain various customer service experiences when applying for business loans. Explicitly, teams of African American, Caucasian American, and Hispanic American secret shoppers disguised as potential borrowers at 60 different bank locations in Los Angeles (A. Lee et al., n.d.). The results indicated that in every test, the bank employees introduced themselves and were friendlier to Caucasian American applicants, 18% more than they were to African American applicants (A. Lee et al., n.d.). Additionally, African American and Hispanic American applicants were asked to provide more information than Caucasian American applicants (A. Lee et al., n.d.).

Additionally, Caucasian Americans received 44% better information regarding loan fees than African American applicants, and Hispanic American applicants received 35% better information regarding loan fees than African American applicants (A. Lee et al., n.d.). Moreover, African American loan applicants were the only group questioned about their educational credentials (A. Lee et al., n.d.). Lee et al. (n.d.) did not provide direct guidance for future research; however, studies of this magnitude would be useful if

they were conducted in more locations. A. Lee et al. (n.d.) argued that the analyses of these studies articulated the notion that there are tremendous gaps in entrepreneurship among African Americans and Hispanic Americans compared to Caucasian Americans and Asian Americans, which has exacerbated a racial wealth gap in the United States. The entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory as a theoretical foundation of this study is discussed next.

Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Theory

The literature regarding the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory is first regarded in the notion of comprehending self-efficacy theory. Bandura (1997) is the originator of this concept and argues that it is a personnel assessment of how individuals perform trajectories needed to manage forthcoming circumstances. Bandura (1997) further suggested that one's individual belief that they are competent enough to accomplish a specific goal or complete an explicit task; thus, it has the potential to negatively or positively motivate individuals to accomplish a task. Luszczynska and Schwarzer (2005) proposed that self-efficacy has an astronomical influence regarding the manner in which individuals approach the conception that they are capable of accomplishing a goal, task, or occupation. Baundura (1997) conceptualized the self-efficacy theory with the social cognitive theory that includes the capacity of observational learning and developmental personality; thus, self-efficacy derives from self-perception and external experiences and is paramount for ascertaining the consequence of a plethora of developments.

Accordingly, Baundura (1997) theorizes that individuals with high self-efficacy or the personal confidence in accomplishing a task are more expected to attempt

complicated endeavors because they are complex, whether than uncomplicated. Kiremli (2017) and Neck et al. (2020) proposed that an entrepreneur is an individual that absorbs a variety of financial risks in the pursuit of establishing a business, typically from the beginning through innovation or a societal need with the expectation of garnering a profit and becoming successful. Consequently, entrepreneurial self-efficacy theorizes that individuals that possess high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy have the confidence needed to successfully engage in entrepreneurial activities (Chen et al., 1998; L. Lee et al., 2011; McGee et al., 2009; Shahab et al., 2019; Wei et al., 2020). Theoretically, African American men who exhibit behaviors and activities consistent with possessing high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy as articulated by the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory have the capacity to successfully develop sustainable businesses with the potential to employ other African Americans.

Historic Overview of African Americans

A historic account of Africans in America is a history that is simultaneously profound and complicated based on referencing an ethnic group of Africans by the continent from which they arrived and the country that they currently live in; thus, it begins with how they are presently termed. N. Foner (2016), T. G. Hamilton (2019), and Wang (2018) all agreed that people of the Black ancestry groups from Africa typically identify with the country that they are from. However, the majority of Africans in America that identify as African American represent the descendants of Africans that were forceable taken and enslaved; thus, they do not know their ancestral roots from the continent of Africa and have no precise knowledge of the exact country of their birth or

cultural origins (C. Anderson, 1994; Dickerson, 2004; Shahadah, 2020). The average ancestry makeup for African Americans is West and Central African, American Indian, and European (Gates, 2009). African Americans have also been known as Afro American, Black, Negro, Colored, and a plethora of derogatory epithets throughout American history. The term African American became popular by former presidential candidate and civil rights leader Jesse Jackson in the 1980s based on the ideology that every other race and ethnic group in American had sufficient knowledge of their home country and cultural land base; thus, he introduced this phrase as a need to illustrate a new discussion regarding Africans in America (Schuessler, 2015; F. Shapiro, 2016).

However, Mr. Fred Shapiro located an advertisement with two sermons by a presumptively unknown African American in the Pennsylvania Journal that suggested the first known use of the term African American was May 15, 1782 (Schuessler, 2015; F. Shapiro, 2016). One of the sermons was located in a pamphlet in the Houghton Library at Harvard University, which indicated that the author's identity was unknown; thus, he may have been an enslaved or free African American (Schuessler, 2015; F. Shapiro, 2016). However, the significance of him self-identifying as an African American during an era when he was not even considered to be a human being speaks volumes of African Americans' yearning for cultural identity and championing the American experience as denoted in the sermon (Schuessler, 2015; F. Shapiro, 2016). Thus, this unique information suggested that African Americans always possessed a devotion to their original culture and, to someday be considered equivalent citizens in America (F. Shapiro, 2016). Accordingly, scholars have postulated that America would not be the

country that it is today without African Americans, specifically, the free labor of enslaved Africans (Beckert & Rockman, 2016), which will be discussed next in this review of the literature.

The historic overview of African Americans is not suitable without reference to America's first and most egregious sin, which is chattel slavery. A colonial background of employing African slaves for free labor started in 1441 by the Portuguese due to a shortage of labor; which gave birth to one of the first forms of the enslavement of Africans; the Portuguese referred to the Africans as Negro, thus, coining one of the first known names that were given to African Americans (Saunders, 1982/2010). The initial enslavement of Africans was due to the growing expenses of employing freemen to do work; thus, African slaves were always viewed as a worthy capitalistic investment (Saunders, 1982/2010). Therefore, African slave labor was a well-needed commodity in the Americas.

Africans were transported to the Americas in what is known as the largest movement of human beings across the world; additionally, scholars are conflicted regarding the actual number of Africans that died in the Middle Passage in route to their destinations and while enslaved (C. Anderson, 1994; Manning, 1992; M'bokolo, 1998; Robinson, 2001; Rosenbaum, 2000; Shahadah, 2020; Stannard, 1992; Woodard, 1971). However, the estimates are that over 35 million Africans perished in the middle passage on the way to various ports, and between four to 60 million Africans died while enslaved and or being transported, characterizing chattel slavery as one of the most atrocious crimes against humanity in the history of humankind (C. Anderson, 1994; Manning,

1992; M'bokolo, 1998; Robinson, 2001; Rosenbaum, 2000; Shahadah, 2020; Stannard, 1992; Woodard, 1971; Zinn, 2005/2015). Thus, chattel slavery that is also referred to as traditional slavery, refers to human beings being bought and sold like chattel that becomes the property of their masters or owners that purchased them (Rodriquez, 2011). The discovery of a new world influenced the need for chattel slaves in North America that were already occupied by American Indians, specifically in Virginia; they needed labor to grow food to stay alive (Zinn, 2005/2015). Additionally, the initial form of slave labor was based on the need for free labor versus racial oppression to economically industrialize the newly discovered land (Araujo, 2017; Beckert & Rockman, 2016).

Scholars suggested that Africans were likely held captive in the Americas sometime around 1526 in what is now known as South Carolina and 1565 in what is now St. Augustine, Florida (African American Registry, n.d.; Wright, 1941); however, the first recorded arrival of 20 and odd Africans to the then British American colony of Jamestown, Virginia in North America occurred in late August of 1619 (Baptist, 2014; Ponti, 2019). The American Indians as well as European Americans initially served as indentured servants for 7 years but were not suitable for the growing demand for labor; which eventually transformed from indentured servant labor to the recognition of something more statutory in 1661 when Virginia enacted one of the first laws making it legal for a free person to own slaves (Hening, 1819/2012). Moreover, the slave law of 1662 further exacerbated slavery to a racial caste system that defined the child's race by the condition of the mother (Hening, 1819/2012). Thus, Caucasian American men that procreated with African American women essentially produced more slaves; hence,

exonerating Caucasian American men of any parental or emancipation responsibilities. The assertion mentioned reinforces the need to ensure that African American men never procreated with Caucasian American women to ensure that bi-racial children would not be born as free people. Additionally, Leary (2005) proposed that enslaved Africans' dehumanization was elevated with the Virginia Code of 1705, which stipulated that killing a slave while attempting to correct them was not a crime; thus, alleviating individuals of all criminal responsibility for murdering another human being.

Many scholars are conflicted regarding the impetus to choose Africans for slave labor over other ethnic groups, such as American Indians or Europeans that were present at the time (C. Anderson, 1994). However, Zinn (2005/2015) argued that it was difficult for early European settlers to capture American Indians and hold them as slaves because they were defiant, tough, resourceful, and at home in their native land, and European indentured servants did not come from slavery and were only required to labor for their contracted time. Comparatively, decades earlier, millions of Africans were transported from Africa and enslaved in Spanish Colonies, Portuguese, South America, and the Caribbean; thus, enslaving Africans in America was seen as the natural commodity to acquire (Zinn, 2005/2015). Zinn (2005/2015) suggested that Africans were not chosen to be slaves based on inferiority but the fact that they were torn from their native land and family and forced to speak, dress, and alter their cultural customs, which rendered them helpless and easier to enslave. Blockson (1994) proposed that African Americans regularly resisted slavery and attempted to escape on numerous occasions; thus, the

Underground Railroad, led by abolitionist Harriet Tubman, provided safe havens for runaway slaves.

Additionally, scholars also recognize that deliberate brainwashing tactics were used, precisely the stripping of their native religion and the indoctrination of a fallacious version of the Christian religion (Blum & Harvey, 2012; C. C. Jones, 1842/2018). Blum and Harvey (2012) and C. C. Jones (1842/2018) both agreed that enslaved Africans were brought to America and subjected to mendacious versions of the Christian religion to psychologically guarantee their loyalty and faithfulness to their slaveholders that stripped them of their names and cultures and forced them to abominable living conditions and slave labor. Thus, African slaves were not only psychologically conditioned to stay in their prospective places, but their version of Christianity also justified their experiences during the immoral atrocities of slavery. Accordingly, Africans were the primary people used for American chattel slavery.

Chattel enslavement primarily referred to enslaved Africans prior to the Thirteen Original Colonies' liberation from the British and the United States' birth in 1776 (J. P. Rodriguez, 2011). The United States secured their freedom from British rule after winning the Revolutionary War; an African runaway slave named Crispus Attucks was the first person killed in the Revolutionary War at the Boston Massacre, and a freed African slave named Peter Salem was a hero at the Battle at Bunker Hill (Logan, 1958; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001). Furthermore, the newly founded United States issued a Declaration of Independence declaring that all men were created equal while enslaved Africans were still held in bondage as apparatuses for free labor (Logan, 1958; J. C.

Stewart, 1996/2001). Additionally, the United States produced a legal document known as the Constitution of the United States that referred to African Americans as less than human and termed them as three-fifths of a person for representation purposes, which was established at the 1787 Constitutional Convention (J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001).

The enactment of the system of free labor exacerbated a plethora of psychological and physical horrors for African Americans (Leary, 2005); thus, American chattel slavery is also known as the African Holocaust (Rosenbaum, 2000; Shahadah, 2020; Stannard, 1992). Freed slave and American orator, social reformer, writer, and Abolitionist Frederick Douglas described slavery as being psychologically and physically abusive and that slaves regularly endured cruel, usual, and barbarous treatment that forced most slaves to attempt to escape or die for freedom, which some of them did (Blight, 2018). Some of the treatments mentioned included the rape and murder of African Americans (Leary, 2005). Moreover, the psychological abuse also increased slaves' allegiance to their owners through the Meritorious Manumission Act of 1710, which was the freeing of slaves for saving their slave masters lives, protecting their property, developing a profitable invention for them, or sabotaging slave revolts; consequently, this ensured that slaves remained psychologically loyal and obedient to their slave masters and overseers (C. Anderson, 1994). Appropriately, American chattel slavery was conceptualized as barbaric, inhumane, and uncivilized and gradually ended in the northern United States beginning in 1804 (Logan, 1957; Marable, 1983/2015; Stannard, 1992; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001); additionally, on January 1, 1808, the Act Prohibiting Importation of Slaves made it illegal to import slaves from outside countries (E. Foner, 2007).

However, the institution of legal chattel slavery was still active in the United States because buying and selling slaves internally within the United States persisted due to economic conditions related to the need for free labor. This began a practice known as slave breeding that subjected African American women to forced pregnancies through coerced sexual relations; thus, African American women that could give birth to as many children as possible were preferred because the institution of chattel slavery is what made America the economic opulence that is was then and is today (Baptist, 2014; Beckert & Rockman, 2016; Marable, 1983/2015). Furthermore, a conflict of interest between the northern and southern states became more contentious and eventually caused an internal war within the United States.

The American Civil War was a war that was fought between the northern Union Army and the southern Confederate Army from 1861 to 1865. The Union Army was loyal to the Union, and the Confederate Army were southern states that succeeded from the Union. President Abraham Lincoln was persuaded by Frederick Douglas to emancipate the slaves (Blight, 2018); thus, on September 22, 1862, President Abraham Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation, which is also known as Proclamation 95 that applied to 3.5 million enslaved Africans and became effective January 1, 1863 (Kendi, 2016/2017; Logan, 1957; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001). However, African slaves were still being held in Galveston, Texas, until June 19, 1865. General Gordon Granger transmitted news regarding General Order No. 3 that declared all the slaves in Texas were free; initially, this was a holiday celebrated in some states that is known as

Juneteenth, which is now a federal holiday celebrated in all states (Gates, 2013a; Gurchiek, 2021; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001).

Furthermore, June 19, 1865, is typically celebrated as the official end of chattel slavery in America; however, slavery was still legal in Kentucky and Delaware until the ratification of the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which occurred in December of 1865 (A. M. Taylor, 2017). The newly freed African Americans were in desperate need of basic living essentials; thus, President Abraham Lincoln enacted the Freedmen's Bureau on March 3, 1865, to assist them with expeditious habitation and other essential supplies for the unemployed, impoverished, powerless, and uneducated freedmen and their families (Baptist, 2014; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001). African Americans that were initially freed by the Emancipation Proclamation assisted the Union Army in capturing a Civil War victory and securing their freedom from chattel slavery.

African Americans have served, fought, and died in every war fought by or within the United States (Morris, 2011); thus, at the urging of African Americans to fight for their freedom by Frederick Douglas, African Americans fought along with Caucasian Americans to secure the Union victory on April 9, 1865 (Blight, 2018). President Abraham Lincoln is commonly known for emancipating the slaves; however, he also refused to pay African American men equal wages that were comparative to their Caucasian American male counterparts that they fought beside in the Civil War (Beard, 2018; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001). Inevitably, the inequitable compensation for African American men that fought in the Civil War identified one of the first acts of employment discrimination against the newly freed African Americans through inequivalent wages.

Upon the Union victory in the Civil War, all slaves held in Confederate territories were physically freed but not out of the imminent danger of Caucasian American terrorists that still did not recognize African Americans as free and equal citizens. Furthermore, African Americans were often urged to self-deport back to Africa as a permanent banishment from America (Sherwood, 1916). The assertions mentioned provided the need for an amendment to the Constitution to guarantee the newly freed African slaves' freedom.

The Senate passed the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution that officially abolished legally chattel slavery in the United States on April 8, 1864 (Alexander, 2010; Logan, 1957; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001). However, this same amendment to the constitution that abolished slavery also contains a clause that one may be subjected to penal labor if they are duly convicted of any kind of crime (Alexander, 2010; Blackmon, 2008). Moreover, penal labor is significant to the American economy because, unlike slavery, which provided free labor, it offers cheap labor, in some cases at less than 60 cents a day (Alsever, 2014). Additionally, although the Emancipation Proclamation and the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution legally abolished physical chattel slavery, it did not end the terroristic violence from White supremacists. Consequently, Black Codes that were laws directed at neutralizing the efforts of equality for newly freed African Americans were issued in the southern states and some northern states to discourage African Americans from moving there (C. Anderson, 1994; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001). Specifically, Black Codes were laws that were similar to previously issued Slave Codes that counteracted the freedom and equality for African Americans by subjecting them to lower wages for the identical labor performed by Caucasian

Americans, which ultimately subjected them to a form of economic slavery through legally paying them lower wages for the same work performed (C. Anderson, 1994; Logan, 1957; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001). Wytsma (2019) suggested that Black Codes were also used to arrest and convict African Americans for not having a job, even when jobs during that time were limited and frequently not available to African Americans. Thus, signifying some of the first labor and employment discrimination that African Americans will continue to endure in the future. The employment discrimination mentioned is an insult to the very people who were laborers of the institution of chattel slavery that provided America with paramount economic growth and attributed to its modern economic power (Baptist, 2014).

According to Rosenthal (2018), slave owners were true planter-capitalist that levied their slaves as human capital; thus, they used meticulous modern business accounting methods to account for their capital and slave labor and frequently documented the lowered and depreciated worth of their slaves as a scrupulous manner of monitoring cost. Moreover, chattel slavery was so beneficial to America's integral economy that scholars typically compare it to the oil that made the Middle East so economically powerful because, during that time, cotton was the largest commodity in the world (Beckert & Rockman, 2016). Baradaran (2017/2019) suggested that the economic benefit from American chattel slavery was astronomical, with 3.2 million slaves totaling 1.3 billion in market value, which was almost equivalent to the integral gross national product. The commodity of owning slaves was monumental, with slaves being liquid assets that were easily traded in various markets, unlike other types of

property (Baradaran, 2017/2019). C. Anderson (1994), Baptist (2014), Baradaran (2017/2019), Beckert and Rockman (2016), and Thomas (2019) all agreed that the brutal treatment of slaves on the economically affluent cotton, sugar, and tobacco plantations was instrumental for the accelerated growth of the American economy and America becoming economically powerful and solvent. Baptist (2014) also suggested that Africans that were transported to America provided the commodity of their slave labor to financially advance the modern United States and the entire world.

However, scholars are conflicted regarding the direct link between chattel slavery and America's modern economic success. However, a plethora of present-day organizations, such as Aetna, New York Life, and American International Group, Inc., by way of a subsidiary termed United States Life Insurance Company; all benefited financially from selling insurance policies to slave owners to ensure their slaves in the event of death or them being injured (Beckert & Rockman, 2016; Thomas, 2019). Additionally, the largest bank in the United States, JP Morgan Chase has two subsidiary banks termed Canal Bank of Louisiana and Citizen's Bank that acquired enslaved Africans through collateral on loans if the plantation owners defaulted; moreover, precursors to Bank of America, Wells Fargo, and Citibank all benefited from the enslavement of Africans in America (Beckert & Rockman, 2016; Thomas, 2019). Furthermore, major rail lines were constructed by slave labor, and the present-day Brooks Brothers, which is the oldest men's clothing company in America, produced high-end fashion from cotton that derived from slave plantations and manufactured and sold clothing for slaves to wear (Beckert & Rockman, 2016; Thomas, 2019). Coincidently, the

descendants of the enslaved Africans that provided free labor to benefit the present-day organizations mentioned just happen to currently be the most unemployed people in America (U.S. BLS, 2020a). The moral logic is that these companies would overwhelmingly provide employment opportunities to the descendants of the enslaved Africans that provided financial benefits to their organizations as a sincere apology.

Accordingly, a historic account of African American chattel slavery denotes that it was economically driven at the bequest of human blood and sacrifice that did not benefit African Americans in any manner. C. Anderson (1994) and Araujo (2017) both asserted that some freed Africans petitioned the United States government regarding payments for their free labor; however, as of this writing, the United States government has not expended any substantial federal government-sponsored programs aimed at repairing the damage that may have occurred to the descendants of enslaved Africans in America. However, Holloway (2020) argues that the United States paid the present-day equivalence of 23 million dollars to former Caucasian American slave owners. The total estimated cost of the free labor provided by enslaved Africans in America was estimated in 2009 at up to 14.2 trillion dollars (Craemer, 2015). Thus, newly freed African Americans' economic, educational, or legal needs were not adequately adhered to, which provided a catalyst for attempting to assist them in becoming full citizens.

Coincidently, African Americans were physically freed but not socially, legally, and intellectually equal to their Caucasian American counterparts (C. Anderson, 1994). This was the impetus for a plethora of freed slaves attempting to go back to their slave owners because they did not possess employment or education related to

entrepreneurship or establishing jobs for themselves and their families. This is an issue that the Union was aware of; therefore, shortly after the issuance of the Emancipation Proclamation, Radical Republicans Charles Sumner and Thaddeus Stevens came up with a plan for the redistribution of 400 million acres of land specifically for the possession of former enslaved Africans (Gates, 2013b; Kendi, 2016/2017; McCammon, 2015). Thus, on January 16, 1865, General William Tecumseh Sherman issued Special Field Order Number 15 that offered newly freed African American slaves 40 acres of land to be solely occupied by African American communities (Gates, 2013b; McCammon, 2015). This special order is typically known as 40 acres and a mule; however, the initial order does not mention a mule, but it does guarantee a massive redistribution of land to African Americans that were enslaved for over 240 years, with any land remaining going to the highest bidder in an effort to resolve the national debt (Kendi, 2016/2017).

However, after the assassination of President Abraham Lincoln, his successor President Andrew Johnson reversed Special Field Order Number 15 and returned the land to the Confederates that committed treason by participating and aiding a war against the United States and murdering American soldiers (Gates, 2013b; McCammon, 2015). C. Anderson (1994) and Kendi (2016/2017) both agreed that the only time the United States government required a group of slaveholders to bequeath land to their former enslaved Africans consisted of American Indian Slaveholders that were allied with the Confederacy. Accordingly, this was a devastating disappointment to African Americans and subsequently left them destitute and forced to become sharecroppers, with no legitimate employment, education, business or job creation skills, land, or wealth to

account for the hundreds of years of free labor that contributed to ensuring America's economic growth and strength.

Therefore, within the context of being freed from chattel enslavement meant that African Africans had no employment, education, ability to read, profit-generating businesses, or no job skills because most slave owners did not want their slaves to become uppity by obtaining knowledge to work in skilled professions (C. Anderson, 1994; Logan, 1957; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001). Thus, the newly freed African Americans had no knowledge, skills, and abilities to acquire adequate employment or business ownership that was especially detrimental to African American men because they had no means of supporting their families and being respected as men and the head of their households (C. Anderson, 1994). African Americans were socially denied adequate educational opportunities that debilitated their ability to compete with a fluctuation of European immigrants, which were not subjected to Black Codes and typically favored for employment over African Americans (C. Anderson, 1994; Wytsma, 2019). Moreover, legal segregation and lack of American government protections kept African Americans venerable to violent attacks and massacres whenever they attempted to protest or speak up for themselves (J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001); however, African Americans experienced a new ray of hope during the Reconstruction era after the Civil War.

The former leader of the Union Army, General Ulysses S. Grant, was elected to President of the United States 2 years after the Civil War ended in 1867; additionally, President Ulysses S. Grant is occasionally referred to as the first civil-rights president of the United States during the Reconstruction era, which is also articulated as an attempt to

reconstruct 11 southern former Confederate states (Chernow, 2017/2018). Chernow (2017/2018) argued that President Ulysses S. Grant provided unwavering support for African Americans by enlisting freed African American men to serve in the Army during the Civil War, establishing the United States Department of Justice to ensure further that the basic civil rights of African Americans were protected, and embracing the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution that guaranteed equal protection under the law, which guaranteed African Americans' citizenship rights. C. Anderson (1994) suggested that the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution was used to countermand the 1857 Dread Scott versus Sanford Supreme Court Decision, which stipulated that African Americans would never become citizens and that African Americans possessed no rights that Caucasian Americans were bound to respect. Moreover, President Ulysses S. Grant also supported the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution that provided African American men the right to vote to include his enactment of the Enforcement Acts to guarantee that their right to vote was duly honored, which were also effective in counteracting the Ku Klux Klan that was rendered ineffective until the 1920s (Chernow, 2017/2018; W. E. B. Dubois, 1935/1998; Kendi, 2016/2017).

The American terrorist group mentioned posed a threat to the Reconstruction's progress because they sought to preserve the ideology of White supremacy with the exacerbation of racial segregation and cultural, economic, and pollical dominance through murder, violence, and intimidation (W. E. B. Dubois, 1935/1998; B. Stevenson, 2017). Additionally, President Ulysses S. Grant also signed a significant Civil Rights Act in 1875, which effectively protected all citizens, especially African Americans' civil and

legal rights in public accommodations and provided them with the means of serving on a jury and in a court of law (Chernow, 2017/2018). Chernow (2017/2018) and W. E. B. Dubois (1935/1998) both agreed that African Americans began to exercise political power by electing a plethora of African Americans to public office and were on the verge of overcoming hundreds of years of oppression as emerging equal citizens.

However, toward the end of President Ulysses S. Grant's presidency, the north failed to enforce the social and civil rights strides that were made during the Reconstruction era, and the United States Army withdrew from Florida, South Carolina, and Louisiana, which officially ended the Reconstruction era (Chernow, 2017/2018; Kendi, 2016/2017). A myriad of African American politicians was expelled and restricted from holding political offices, and the derogatory and oppressive economic, social, and civil conditions for African Americans persisted with the enactment of separate but equal Jim Crow laws (Blackmon, 2008; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001; Logan, 1958). The laws mentioned were eventually upheld by the Supreme Court of the United States in the 1896 Plessy versus Ferguson case, deeming it legal to separate African Americans from Caucasian Americans in all public accommodations to include schools, restaurants, public transportation, water fountains, and restrooms; thus, the continuous gestures of racial intimidation and segregation through social control, violence, murder, and mayhem continued through the mid-1900s (W. E. B. Dubois, 1935/1998; Kendi, 2016/2017; B. Stevenson, 2017).

Accordingly, the Negro Travelers' Green Book was published between 1936 and 1963 by an African American termed Victor H. Green as a guide to inform African

Americans of public accommodations that were safe, legal, and welcoming to them during the Jim Crow Era (Green, 1954/2019). This was significant because the enforcement of Jim Crow laws was occasionally the motive to lynch African Americans; hence, in the southern United States between 1877 and 1950, over 4,000 African Americans were lynched, and the majority of them were African American males (Leary, 2005; B. Stevenson, 2017). Moreover, in 1883 the Civil Rights Act of 1875 that provided protections for all citizens and equal accommodations in public domains was overturned by the Supreme Court and deemed unconstitutional (W. E. B. Dubois, 1935/1998; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001). Comparatively, the 20th Century did not provide African Americans with adequate employment or economic relief.

Subsequently, in 1933 the New Deal was a set of programs established to assist Americans during the great depression and instantly employed millions of Americans (P. S. Foner, 1981/2018). However, some of these programs had detrimental effects on African Americans' integral employment progress; specifically, a program termed the National Recovery Administration (NRA) deemed it unlawful for employers to employ unskilled workers because of minimum wage regulations (P. S. Foner, 1981/2018). Consequently, most unskilled workers during this time were African Americans; thus, it is estimated that over 500,000 African Americans lost their jobs and were typically paid less than Caucasian Americans for the same job, most notably unofficially titling the NRA by African Americans as the Negro Removal Act (P. S. Foner, 1981/2018; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001). Thus, the radical changes achieved during the Reconstruction era and beyond were good initiatives; however, they failed to socially and economically

equalize African Americans as full citizens. The social and civil rights initiatives that were made during the Reconstruction era are motivators that later influenced a different generation of African Americans to achieve fundamental human, legal, and civil rights during the civil rights movement.

The civil rights movement was a movement initiated by African Americans to end institutionalized racism, racial disenfranchisement, racial segregation and to provide all citizens, specifically African Americans, with full legal protection under the law (Shird, 2018). The civil rights movement used nonviolent protests and demonstrations to create meaningful dialogs between African American civil rights activists and individuals in power. This movement consisted of a conglomerate of leaders and activists that immensely contributed to its integral successes. However, two of the most prominent leaders during this movement's era was Dr. Martin Luther King Jr., a Baptist minister and social rights activist, and Malcolm X, a former student and follower of the Nation of Islam founder and former leader Elijah Muhammad (King, 1968/2010; King, 2016; Marable, 2011; Shird, 2018). The notable charismatic leaders mentioned possessed two different ideologies, Dr. Martin Luther King Jr.'s approach was legal equality, racial integration, and nonviolence, which influenced generations of social movements and is still prevalent in social change movements around the world (King, 2016; Shird, 2018; Tatchell, 2018).

Conversely, Malcolm X's perspective was Black nationalism and that African Americans had the right to self-defense; this doctrine later influenced the Black Panther Party for Self Defense; which is credited for feeding thousands of children in need by

developing the Free Breakfast for School Children Program that served as a catalyst for contemporary federal free breakfast programs (C. J. Austin, 2006; Blakemore, 2018; Marable, 2011). Consequently, Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. and Malcolm X later attempted to reconcile their differences and unify in 1964 to prospectively develop a human rights declaration to the United Nations to expose the disgraceful and deplorable treatment of Black people in America (King, 2016; Marable, 2011; Shird, 2018). However, Malcolm X was assassinated on February 21, 1965, and Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. was assassinated on April 4, 1968 (King, 2016; Marable, 2011).

The civil rights movement brought about significant legislation that included the Brown versus Board of Education Supreme Court decision deeming the segregation of schools to be unconstitutional, the Civil Rights Act of 1964 outlawing all forms of discrimination, the Voting Rights Act of 1965, and the Civil Rights Act of 1968 for fair housing (Lytle, 2014, Shird, 2018; J. C. Stewart; 1996/2001). The legislation mentioned effectively guaranteed human and civil rights for all Americans, not just African Americans; thus, the civil rights movement was monumental for African Americans and America as well. However, despite all of the landmark legislation mentioned, African Americans are still plagued with a myriad of social, economic, and civil injustices to include being the most unemployed demographic in America, economic inequity, education inequity, entrepreneurial inequity, housing inequity, criminal justice inequity, and mass incarceration (Alexander, 2010; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Brundage, 2020; Engram, 2019; Ginsburg et al., 2018; Hanks et al., 2018; Jan, 2019; JEC, n.d.; A. R. Muhammad, 2018; Patton, 2015; Rothstein, 2017; Sewell, 2020; T. M. Shapiro, 2017;

U.S. BLS, 2020a). Thus, compared to the Reconstruction era, all the beneficial strides that were achieved during this movement have also failed to equalize African Americans to the social, economic, and civil status of equal citizens. Therefore, African Americans are currently involved in another movement for social and legal justice.

As of this writing, African Americans are still the victims of systemic racism in America that has effectively deprived them of the legal, economic, and social freedoms that they have been yearning for since their original arrival to this country as free laborers in 1619 (Kendi, 2016/2017; Old, 2020; Wytsma, 2017). Accordingly, the Black Lives Matter movement is currently one of the largest and most recognized present-day movements, established as more of a human rights versus civil rights movement to counteract racial and gender discrimination, violence against Black people, and divergent forms of Black liberation (Roberts, 2018). This movement has recently gained more notoriety due to the countless number of African Americans that are murdered in the custody of law enforcement, with the police involved typically not being fired and or charged in a reasonable amount of time. The Black Lives Matter movement is currently at the forefront of recent protests involving Americans of all races, genders, and ethnic groups. Thus, the world is presently witnessing statues of Confederate generals that were erected as a form of hate and intimidation collapsing. These statues were constructed to terrorize African Americans further and to serve as a symbol of the war that was fought to preserve the American institution of chattel slavery and other principles associated with racial oppression, White supremacy, and a lost cause (Selvin & Solomon, 2020; Walsh, 2020).

Previously, efforts to remove statues of Confederate generals that committed treason against their country failed; however, out of a need for public safety, a myriad of these symbols of hate and violence have been ordered by elected leaders in various cities and states to be removed from public view (Selvin & Solomon, 2020; Walsh, 2020). Therefore, America's initial reluctance to remove symbols related to a racial bias and an oppressive past elucidates further the historic journey of African Americans; thus, far, appropriately asserting that they have been plagued with consequential systemic racial oppression consistent with prolonged unemployment, economic stagnation, dehumanization, and violence, and have been prohibited from full equity into the legal, social, and economic systems of America, which includes equitable employment and income equity (Alexander, 2010; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Baradaran, 2017/2019; Kendi, 2016/2017; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; Wytsma, 2017).

The historic journey of African Americans suggested that the system of American chattel slavery guaranteed full-time employment for all African Americans with no pay, benefits, or freedom under the guise that they may be raped, murdered, or unjustly prosecuted at any given time. However, now that such a treacherous system of free labor does not exist, African Americans are coincidently the highest unemployed group in America, which implies the notion that if African Americans are required to be hired, employed, promoted, and paid equal wages as other American citizens then the American social and economic systems have no place for the majority of them. Additionally, an overview of the historic account of African Americans illustrated how the effects of chattel slavery and legalized government-sanctioned racial oppression exacerbated

further a systemic unemployment gap and diminutive entrepreneurial endeavors among African Americans (C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Baradaran, 2017/2019; Howard, 2019; Kendi, 2016/2017; Leary, 2005; Rogers, 2010; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001; J. E. K. Walker, 2009; V. Wilson, 2019; Wytsma, 2017); specifically, African American males (C. Anderson, 1994; A. Austin, 2016; Bonilla-Silva et al., 2004; Hawkins, 2020; U.S. BLS, 2019a, 2020a; V. Wilson, 2019).

Consequently, empirical research suggested that African American males are at an impasse with historic systemic racial oppression that does not support equivalent employment (C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Bonilla-Silva et al., 2004; U.S. BLS, 2020a; V. Wilson, 2019); thus, this study examines the characteristics related to their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level as a means of developing businesses and creating jobs for themselves and others in their community (C. Anderson, 2001; McGee et al., 2009; Rogers, 2010; J. E. K. Walker, 2009). Accordingly, this literature review will discuss unemployment among African American males.

African American Male Unemployment

The astronomical levels of unemployment among African American men has become a problematic topic that has recently gained a significant amount of attention, with activist and politicians alike endeavoring to seek solutions to this critical social issue; which would potentially be deemed a national crisis if the unemployment rates among Caucasian Americans were this high (C. Anderson, 1994; Bonilla-Silva et al., 2004; T. M. Shapiro, 2017). The suggestion mentioned is crucial because African American males' achieving equitable employment is a sustainable means of them staying

healthy, supporting family, generating a sustainable income, purchasing homes and land, and developing a consistent sense of self-worth (T. M. Shapiro, 2017). The historic account of employment regarding African American males is characterized as providing hundreds of years of free labor that required them to possess minimal job skills as not to invoke the impetus for them to become uppity (C. Anderson, 1994; Royster, 2003).

This illustrates an exasperating journey that is conceptualized by chattel slavery, racial oppression, legalized segregation in schools, higher-paying employment opportunities that left the lower-income inner city for Caucasian American suburbs, and disenfranchisement of employment and entrepreneurial opportunities that have left African American males stagnated in the labor market (Ajilore, 2020; C. Anderson, 1994; Howard, 2019; Jan, 2019; JEC, n.d.; Kendi, 2016/2017; A. Lee et al., n.d.; Rodgers, 2010; Royster, 2003; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001). Since the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics began tracking labor statistics in 1972, African American males have predominantly been recorded as being the most unemployed racial and gender demographic in America and twice as unemployed as Caucasian Americans; additionally, unemployment rates among African American male veterans are higher and also the highest unemployment rates among all other veterans of America's Armed Forces from divergent racial demographics (Ajilore, 2020; U.S. BLS, 2020a).

Royster (2003) and Solomon et al. (2019) all agreed that the overwhelming majority of African American men are subjected to lower-skilled based jobs that do not pay competitive living wages. Paradoxically, this is similar to the same type of labor that African slaves were subjected to without compensation or benefits. Yet, Cajner et al.

(2017) postulated that workplace discrimination and other common factors associated with unemployment could not primarily explicate the premise for the high unemployment rates among African Americans due to them being used within confounding variables. Neumark (2018) offers conflicting information attributing hiring discrimination as a principal facet for the astronomical unemployment rates among African American men as African Americans are frequently racially profiled more than any other racial demographic in America. This is interesting because job applications consist of self-identifying racial demographic surveys that insist that you do not need to self-identify if you do not desire to; however, if you do not self-identify, this might articulate that you are more likely than not to be African American based on historic racial bias profiling in America (Ajilore, 2020; Neumark, 2018). Conversely, Ajilore (2020) asserts that the elevated rates of unemployment among African American men might mostly be attributed to them exiting the labor force for various reasons. Thus, the research presents a plethora of conflicting thoughts and theories regarding African American male unemployment; therefore, the perceptions of unemployed African American men are crucial to this literature.

Ferguson (2012) conducted a study to ascertain the perceptions of unemployed African American men. This study's methodology is qualitative and sought out the lived experiences of unemployed African American men through ethnographic interviews (Ferguson, 2012). This study’s participants consisted of seven African American men that self-identified as unemployed. Ferguson (2012) suggested that the necessary themes that emerged from this study's results are spirituality to make sense of coping with

unemployment, similarities of upbringing, work socialization, work values, and unemployment experiences. However, I was astonished that entrepreneurship was not a theme that emerged from the findings. Ferguson (2012) articulates that this study's results are crucial to this field of study as it provides unique perspectives and experiences from unemployed American men and assimilates a plethora of factors associated with African American males' occupational behaviors. Consequently, this study is significant because this is currently one of the few studies that provide research on this topic and endeavors to retrieve unemployed African American males' thoughts and feelings. Thus, this study provided distinguished perspectives related to the lived experiences of unemployment among African American men that suggested that different work factors are definitely associated with this important social issue, which persuades further the investigation of unemployment factors among African American men.

African American Male Unemployment Factors

Ajilore (2020) and U.S. BLS (2020a) suggested that unemployment levels among African American men are the highest regardless of social factors associated with unemployment. Thus, based on the literature, I included factors such as age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and type of unemployment. Hence, this review of the literature will also investigate different variables regarding unemployment, which affects the integral labor market, in an effort to provide detailed and concise research regarding this issue.

Age

The age of unemployed African American men is crucial because current statistics suggested that the unemployment levels among different age categories of African American men are sporadic, with African American teenagers recorded as the highest (U.S. BLS, 2020a). Specifically, the unemployment rate for African American male teenagers 16–19 is 31.7%, for African American men aged 20–24, the unemployment rate is 27.5%, for African American men aged 25–34, the unemployment rate is 17.1%, for African American men aged 25–54, the unemployment rate is 14.5%, for African American men aged 55–64, the unemployment rate is 12.9%, and for African American men aged 65 and over, the unemployment rate is 14.5% (U.S. BLS, 2020a). Hence, it is also important to note that African American males' unemployment rates are significantly higher than Caucasian American males' unemployment rates (U.S. BLS, 2020a).

Thus, the statistical data regarding the age of African American males that are unemployed illustrates a consistent trend with the younger population generally being more unemployed than the older population of African American men. This is crucial because L. Harris (2013) stipulated that the negative situation regarding unemployment among African American youth is not a new issue and seems to be an unmanageable situation, which demands immediate and steadfast attention. Borges-Mendez et al. (2013) also asserted that mass unemployment among a young population has the potential for long-lasting systemic issues, such as depression and deteriorating self-esteem, and young people that have been employed for extended periods of time may eventually find

employment; however, they have a higher chance of becoming unemployed again. Accordingly, African American male unemployment is not only a significant social issue for African American men, but it is a crucial social issue for African American youth as well. The trend regarding younger African American Males being the most unemployed only deviates for African American men between the ages of 55 and 64 and 65 years of age or over (U.S. BLS, 2020a). African American males' education level is also an important factor to consider regarding their unemployment levels.

Education Level

A historic account of education and African Americans is reprehensible as enslaved African Americans were not allowed to read or write (Jay, 1835/2016); additionally, a preeminent and principal African American historian Dr. Carter G. Woodson, implied that African Americans are miseducated to an extent, which exacerbates inferiority and dependence (Woodson, 1933/2018). Moreover, just decades after African Americans were emancipated, sociologist, civil rights activist, educator, Pan Africanist, and the first African American to receive a doctoral degree from Harvard University, Dr. W. E. B. Dubois suggested that African Americans should strive for collegial education levels within the spectrum of broad liberal arts studies (W. E. B. Dubois, 1903/1993, 1903/2017). W. E. B. Dubois (1903/2017) also asserted that the equal rights and integral success of African Americans would be achieved through the efforts of the talented tenth or an intellectually elite segment of African Americans. Thus, education attainment has always been a factor regarding the high unemployment among

African Americans; however, it still does not explicate their high levels of unemployment.

Accordingly, Brundage (2020) implied that labor force participation and earnings are increased with educational attainment, and African Americans with less than a high school diploma have been employed at fewer occupations. However, White (2015) suggested that college attendance is rising for African Americans; however, the issue of unemployment begins before African Americans start the process of looking for a job. Batistich and Bond (2018) suggested that African American men between the ages of 25 and 54 are less likely to be employed and more likely to be unemployed compared to Caucasian Americans because of the 1970's and 1980's import competition that shifted from minimally skilled African American employees to highly educated Caucasian American employees. Yet, Ross (2014) and V. Wilson (2015) both agreed that African American males' unemployment levels are higher than their Caucasian American male counterparts regardless of their educational attainment level except for African Americans with less than a high school diploma.

Accordingly, the unemployment rate per college degree attainment for African American men is, for African American men with less than a high school diploma their unemployment rate is 11%, for African American men that are high school graduates with no college degree, their unemployment rate is 7.0%, for African American men with some college and no degree their unemployment rate is 5.3%, for African American men with associate degrees their unemployment rate is 3.9%, for African American men with a bachelor's degree or higher their unemployment rate is 2.8% (U.S. BLS, 2019a).

Comparatively, for Caucasian American men with less than a high school diploma, their unemployment rate is 4.6%, for Caucasian American men that are high school graduates with no college degree, their unemployment rate is 3.5%, for Caucasian American men with some college and no degree their unemployment rate is 2.9%, for Caucasian American men with associate degrees their unemployment rate is 2.5%, and for Caucasian American men with a bachelor's degree or higher their unemployment rate is 2.0% (U.S. BLS, 2019a). Thus, African American males' unemployment rates are decreased with college degree attainment (Brundage, 2020); however, this illustrates further that African American men with high school diplomas and some college education are more unemployed than Caucasian American men with less than a high school diploma at 5.3% to 4.6% (U.S. BLS, 2019a).

Hence, V. Wilson (2015) suggested that African Americans are penalized for their race because they have higher rates of unemployment at all education levels compared to Caucasian Americans with lower levels of education. Ross (2014) and V. Wilson (2015) both argued that college education does have value; however, discrimination is definitely a factor regarding African Americans' unemployment. Additionally, White (2015) implied that African Americans are not likely to attend the prestigious Ivy League schools that their Caucasian American counterparts are able to attend and receive an advantage regarding networks and connections in the occupational sphere. Ross (2014) asserted that African American men are definitely at a disadvantage because White men that have recently been convicted of a crime are more likely than African American men with no criminal record to receive calls and communication back from employers

regarding various employment opportunities. The suggestion mentioned illustrates a broader issue that African American men are not judged by their education level but more so by their race; thus, African Americans that possess various levels of collegial achievement through the attainment of college degrees do not emphasize a comprehensive solution to their high levels of unemployment. Unemployment is definitely related to marital status, which is discussed next.

Marital Status

Marital status is a significant social factor in the lives of African American males; however, their current economic and employment status may hinder their self-worth and the integral ability to financially support a family (T. M. Shapiro, 2017). A historic overview of the African American family unit dates back to their earlier years while held in bondage as chattel slaves. Marable (1983/2015) and D. M. Stewart (2020) provided insight regarding the manner in which the African American family unit was nonexistent during chattel slavery as African Americans were considered property; thus, they were sold off and separated at will. The separation of African American family units ensured that slaves would not form personal bonds or emotional ties, and African American women were the explicit property of their slave masters; thus, African American men were powerless and held no patriarchal position regarding their roles in the chattel slave order (Marable, 1983/2015). Moreover, marriages between African American male and female slaves were prohibited on some plantations; however, when slaves were allowed to marry each other, the slave masters would often sell off one of the spouses due to capitalism and economic decline (Marable, 1983/2015; D. M. Stewart, 2020).

Marable (1983/2015) argued that separating families was a common practice with the African American women being sold separately based on competitive pricing, and prime field hands were children over 14 years old, which were randomly sold off from their mothers and fathers. The separation of African American families was so severe that it is known as one of the most sizable forced migrations in history (Marable, 1983/2015). Scholars are conflicted regarding the actual number of African Americans that were forcefully separated from their loved ones; however, it is estimated that over 835,000 African Americans were internally sold from 1790 to 1860 between the Upper and Lower Sothern States (Marable, 1983/2015). Consequently, the historic literature regarding African American marriages and families illustrates a grim reality regarding the nonexistent forced disorganization of the African American family unit that was fueled by capitalism and the involuntary interregional forced separations of families. Additionally, unemployment exacerbated by systemic racism is also suspected as one of the grounds for the current marriage gap that exists between African Americans and Caucasian Americans (Caucutt et al., 2018).

Caucutt et al. (2018) and W. J. Wilson (1987/1990) both agreed that the current marriage gap that exists between African Americans and Caucasian Americans is due to the employment and incarceration rates of African American men. In 2006 a 27 percentage point marriage gap existed as Caucasian American women aged 25–54 were married at 83% versus African American women of the same age married at 56%; thus, exacerbating the notion that marriage might not be for African Americans or there must be some confounding factors related to this issue (Banks, 2012; Caucutt et al., 2018).

U.S. BLS (2020c) provided evidence that there is a relationship between African American males' unemployment rates and their marital situation because the unemployment rate for African American males that are presently married is 10.2%, the unemployment rate for African American males that are widowed, divorced, or separated is 12.9%, and the unemployment rate for African American males that have never been married is 20.7%. W. J. Wilson (1987/1990) suggested that African American men are unmarriageable and conceived the term, Wilson hypothesis because of his thoughts regarding the impetus for the African American marriage gap and links it directly to African American males' astronomical rates of incarceration and unemployment.

Caucutt et al. (2018) analyzed the W. J. Wilson (1987/1990) hypothesis and presented the equilibrium marriage model on a horizontal axis that studied the incarceration and unemployment rates for African American men compared to Caucasian American men in the United States from 1980 to 2006. The findings suggested that African American men were more likely to become unemployed or incarcerated than their Caucasian American counterparts (Caucutt et al., 2018). Comparatively, due to labor market prospects and incarceration policies, African American males are deemed risker spouses; thus, the excessive amount of African American women in this study that have never married provided evidence that African American males' exorbitant rates of unemployment and incarceration delineate the basis for half of the marriage gap between African Americans and Caucasian Americans (Caucutt et al., 2018). Accordingly, Caucutt et al. (2018) suggested that the W. J. Wilson (1987/1990) hypothesis that illustrated the correlation between unemployment and incarceration rates magnifies the

theory that the high unemployment rates among African American males are associated with decreased marriage rates between African American men and women.

The historic account of the discouragement of African American marriages and dysfunctional families at the bequest of American capitalism (Marble, 2015; D. M. Stewart, 2020); has influenced me to postulate that the current decrease and adverse levels of African American marriages are still linked to capitalism and systemic racism. The assertion mentioned is empirically based on African American males' possessing the highest incarceration rates and highest probability of becoming incarcerated compared to all racial demographics in the United States; circumstantially, the American penal institution is an excessively profitable business in America (Alexander, 2010; Gramlich, 2020; D. M. Stewart, 2020; Western, 2007). Additionally, African American males also possess a higher probability of being unemployed (Neumark, 2018; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2020a); which increases their chances of incarceration and ensures that they will not be physically present or able to financially support a family or marry African American women (Alexander, 2010; Caucutt et al., 2018; Lui et al., 2006; D. M. Stewart, 2020; Western, 2007). Next, this literature review will discuss occupational industries.

Occupational Industry

A historic account of occupational-based jobs is traced to Booker T. Washington, an author, orator, and adviser to presidents that were born into slavery (Washington, 1901/2020). Booker T. Washington founded the Tuskegee Institute that is a historically Black college with an emphasis on teaching and enabling African Americans to glean trade based concepts, such as farming, mechanics, and carpentry, in addition to

academics that is dissimilar to Dr. W. E. B. Dubois's suggestions regarding the talented tenth and African Americans obtaining educational excellence in broad liberal arts studies (W. E. B. Dubois, 1903/2017; Washington, 1901/2020). Occupational industries are a crucial element to consider regarding African American male unemployment as it elucidates the knowledge, skills, and abilities of African American men and denotes the segment of unemployment within their occupational specialty.

Current percentages of African American males 16 years or older employed in various occupational industries are as follows: education and health services are 13.9%, retail and trade are 11.5%, leisure and hospitality are 10.3%, professional and business services are 11.2%, transportation and utilities are 13.2%, manufacturing is 12.0%, public administration is 5.9%, financial services is 5.1%, other services is 4.2%, construction is 7.1%, information is 2.2%, wholesale trade is 14.0%, agriculture, forestry, fishing, and hunting are 0.6%, mining, quarrying, and oil and gas extraction are 0.4% (U.S. BLS, 2019a). Moreover, U.S. BLS (2019a) provided evidence that Asian Americans and Caucasian Americans have the highest percentages of employment in the business professional and management occupations, which are the highest paid professions listed. Thus, the literature regarding this topic may be divided; however, the leading job industries for African American men, which are education and health services, imply that they will need an amalgamation of academic and occupational skills. Next, this literature review will discuss types of unemployment.

Type of Unemployment

The major theories regarding the types of unemployment are classical, cyclical, frictional, structural, seasonal, hardcore, and hidden unemployment, which conceptualizes if individuals' unemployment is voluntary or involuntary. Classical unemployment refers to job applicants exceeding the number of job vacancies based on the job's real wage being elevated above the market-clearing rate (Abbott, 2013/2019). Cyclical unemployment refers to when the economy is unable to supply sufficient jobs for every able person that is willing to work; thus, with all job vacancies filled, this type of unemployment means that there will still be unemployed people that will not be able to work because there are no jobs left (Abbott, 2013/2019; Beveridge, 1944/2015). Frictional unemployment refers to the duration of time that job seekers spend between jobs; this type of unemployment is considered voluntary based on individual job applicants' unique situations (Abbott, 2013/2019). Janoski et al. (2014) and Beveridge (1944/2015) all agreed that structural unemployment is when the labor market cannot provide job applicants with jobs that match their individual skillsets; thus, the jobs are available, but they are misaligned with job seekers' knowledge, skills, and abilities.

Seasonal unemployment is when certain industries only provide employment during certain times of the year; thus, employees are only able to work when that industry is in season and hiring; common examples are farming, tourism, construction, and holiday-related industries that only provide services during those times (Janoski et al., 2014). Hardcore unemployment refers to individuals that have been unemployed for an extended duration of time that has no desire to find a job or want to work, and hidden

unemployment represents the uncounted number of unemployed individuals according to how unemployment is calculated (Abbott, 2013/2019; Beveridge, 1944/2015; Brundage, 2020; Emeka, 2018).

The literature regarding the types of unemployment mentioned suggested that they should be categorized as voluntary or involuntary that stipulates if the job applicant is not participating in the labor market because of their personal decision, labor market conditions, or situations that they have no control over. Hence, classical, structural, and cyclical unemployment is involuntary because they are based on divergent situations that are out of job applicants' control. This may equate to labor conditions or termination; conversely, individuals that are unemployed because they are between jobs will not accept low or undesired wages, or just do not want to work is considered frictional or hardcore unemployment, which is voluntary (Abbott, 2013/2019; Janoski et al., 2014). U.S. BLS (2019a) suggested that the highest percentage of African American men, 49.3% reported that they lost their jobs due to the completion of a temporary job assignment; thus, delineating that the majority of them are involuntarily unemployed due to circumstances that are out of their control.

Accordingly, research suggested that a substantial portion of African American males are intentionally excluded from certain occupations because of racial and discriminatory practices, which implies that they are involuntarily unemployed (Bonilla-Silva et al., 2004; Royster, 2003; T. M. Shapiro, 2017). However, some of them do not work based on low wages or other factors that are not equivalent to occupations not being available; hence, they are voluntarily unemployed (Abbott, 2013/2019; Beveridge,

1944/2015; Janoski et al., 2014). Next, this literature review will discuss the measurement of unemployment.

Measurement of Unemployment

The measurement of unemployment is significant because it informs the government and the general public regarding the various amounts of individuals that are currently not working or participating in a consistent job to provide a means of income (U.S. BLS, 2015). There is a plethora of factors to consider when measuring unemployment because if governments do not adequately measure the unemployment of all racial and gender demographics, they risk the feasibility of miscalculating the data, which has the possibility not to include everyone that is unemployed (Emeka, 2018). Thus, not providing clear and concise measurements of unemployment regarding certain demographics has the potential of marginalizing different racial and gender ethnicities by leaving them out of the equation regarding job assistance or other programs because they are not counted as being unemployed (U.S. BLS, 2015). Accordingly, it is important to measure the unemployment rate correctly because countries are not provided with goods and services, families are without a consistent means of income, and unemployed individuals have the potential of losing their sense of self-worth, which may encourage other social issues (T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2015).

A historic account of African Americans following chattel slavery, Jim Crow legalized segregation, and the civil rights movement suggested that they have consistently been systemically marginalized regarding the labor market (Ajilore, 2020). The data provides context that for the last half-century, African Americans' unemployment rates

have always exceeded Caucasian American unemployment levels, frequently doubling them (Ajilore, 2020). Hence, it is essential that the levels of unemployed individuals are properly counted and presented to the country so that there are long-term policy solutions to counteract this issue. However, the manner in which unemployment is calculated in America is not beneficial to African American men because of their massive prison population, and prisoners are not counted as unemployed even though they technically are (Alexander, 2010). Additionally, other factors, such as the length of unemployment and which measurement of unemployment is used, are also relevant.

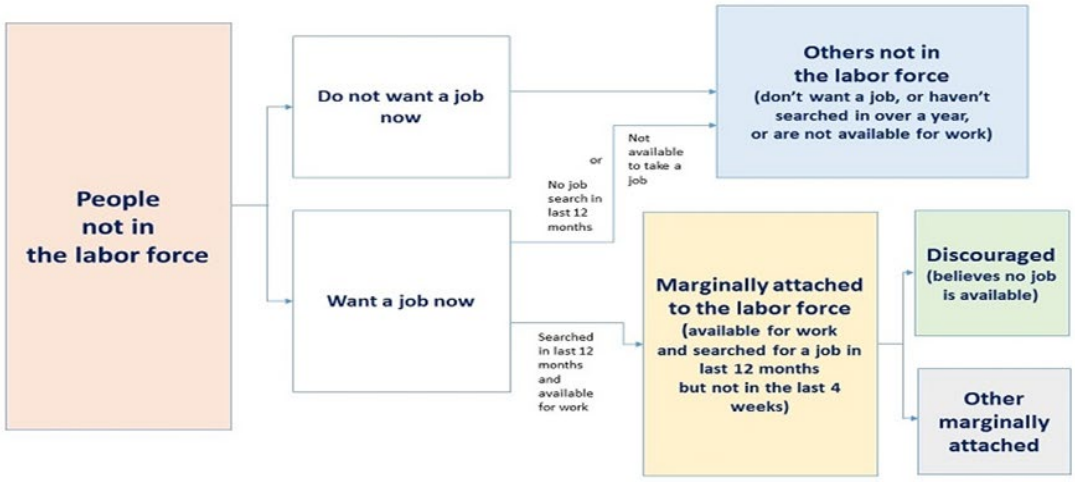
In America, unemployment calculations are based on data collected and retrieved from the Current Population Survey of 60,000 households that are eligible; thus, the sample size is approximately 110,000, which has been collected every month since 1940 (U.S. BLS, 2015). Research data is then extracted from households via interviews, and people that have jobs are employed; people that are looking for jobs and available to work are unemployed. Therefore, the labor force is made up of employed, unemployed, and individuals that do not identify as employed or unemployed are not considered to be in the labor force and are not counted (U.S. BLS, 2015). Individuals that are sick, on vacation, or experiencing stringent conditions are counted as employed, whether they worked or were paid during that time (U.S. BLS, 2015). Conversely, individuals that are not in the labor market but desire work and have perused employment in the last 12 months are considered marginally attached to the labor market (U.S. BLS, 2015).

Comparatively, the criteria that eliminate individuals from the labor market seek to ascertain if the individual desires work and if they have sought out employment within

the last 12 months (U.S. BLS, 2015). This is significant information because Brundage (2020) suggested that African American men have the lowest level of labor force participation compared to all other races of men in the United States. Illustratively, Figure 2 provides the divergent groups that characterize individuals that are not considered to be in the labor force, as previously described. Next, clarifications of the different categories of unemployment measurements, per America's calculations, are discussed.

Figure 2

Categories of Individuals That Are Not in the Labor Force



Note. This is an illustration of how the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics determines if individuals are not in the labor force. Copyright 2020d by the U.S. BLS.

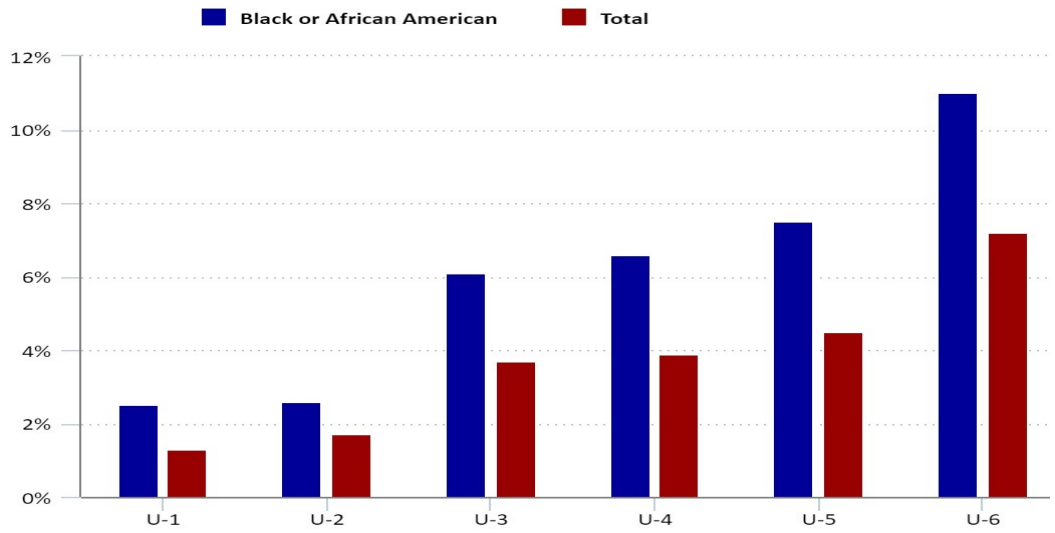
The unemployment rate is established by dividing the number of currently employed individuals by the number of unemployed individuals, which garners a percentage (U.S. BLS, 2015). The calculations mentioned are categorized into six

percentages of unemployment rates; which are U-1, unemployed for 15 weeks or more, U-2, job loss due to the completion of temporary work, U-3, unemployed and actively looking for work within the last 4 weeks, U-4, is U-3 plus discouraged workers who are not actively looking for work, U-5, is U-4 plus individuals who are able to work but has stopped looking and U-6, is U-5 plus individuals that work part-time and would work fulltime but are underemployed (U.S. BLS, 2020b). Accordingly, the official measurement for unemployment is U-3, which measures all individuals that are available to work and have actively searched for employment in the last 4 weeks (U.S. BLS, 2020b).

There is a myriad of issues that are involved in the calculations mentioned, which are associated with who gets counted and when. For example, the official measurement used to measure unemployment, which is the U-3 measurement, does not analyze individuals who are not actively seeking employment (U.S. BLS, 2020b); however, logically, everyone that is unemployed should be counted as they are still unemployed, whether they are actively seeking employment or not. Thus, individuals that are full-time students, incarcerated in prison, retired early, long term unemployed, disabled or currently working part-time seeking a full-time job opportunity are not counted; this is a significant problem for African American males' unemployment rates because African Americans consist of 12% of the adult population and account for 33% of the prison population (Gramlich, 2020). Descriptively, Figure 3 illustrates alternative measures of labor underutilization for African Americans and the integral population, affirming that unemployment is higher than the most often used U-3 measurement of unemployment.

Figure 3

Alternative Measures of Labor Underutilization, 2019 Annual Averages of Unemployment for African Americans Compared to the Overall Population



Note. This is a depiction of the 2019 annual averages of alternative measures of labor underutilization for African Americans and the overall population, illustrating that African Americans have higher levels of unemployment compared to the integral population for every alternative measurement of unemployment, with the regularly used U-3 measurement of unemployment being significantly lower than the broader U-6 measurement of unemployment that quantifies unemployment based on including more of the population. Copyright 2020e by the U.S. BLS.

Moreover, Cai and Baker (2021) asserted that the response rate to the Current Population Survey is lower for African American males versus Caucasian Americans and older Americans of all demographics. Cai and Baker (2021) suggested that because of the missing response rates to the Current Population Survey for African American males, their actual unemployment rate is 3.6% higher for African American males between the

ages of 16 and 24 and 3.0% higher for African American males between the ages of 25 and 34. This implies that African American males' unemployment rate is considerably higher than what is being reported. The unemployment rate is important; however, the labor market's strength is also significant, which is discussed next.

African Americans are 13% of the labor force; yet, they are reported as 23% marginally attached to the labor force, and 27% discouraged employees (U.S. BLS, 2019a). Ajilore (2020) implied that the labor market's strength and integral conditions are not exclusively determined by the unemployment rate. The employment to population ratio indicates the labor market's condition and illustrates the number of employed employees within a population (Alijore, 2020; U.S. BLS, 2015). This measurement is useful because it does not eliminate individuals that are not looking for jobs.

Additionally, the labor force participation rate measures the total amount of the civilian noninstitutional population that is in the labor force; thus, it measures if individuals are in or out of the labor market (Alijore, 2020; U.S. BLS, 2015). Brundage (2020) suggested that African American men have the lowest labor force participation rate than all other races of men in America. Alijore (2020) asserted that 12-month averages between the differences of the employment to population ratio and the labor force participation rate among African Americans and Caucasian Americans are narrowing; thus, it is illogical for African Americans to still be significantly more unemployed than Caucasian Americans. Therefore, structural, systemic discriminatory barriers attribute to the continuous basis for African American males' high levels of unemployment (Alijore, 2020; T. M. Shapiro, 2017); thus, all unemployment

measurement gaps should be closed to effectively assist with this social issue. Next, this study will discuss the duration of unemployment.

Duration of Unemployment

The duration of unemployment among African American men is crucial to the body of knowledge regarding this topic. The assertion mentioned is consistent with individuals' duration of unemployment being short-term or long-term, with the ideal unemployment situation being short-term for a myriad of reasons. A. Nichols et al. (2013) provided an eloquent synopsis of the effects of long-term unemployment, including decreases in income and wages, diminished health and chances of reemployment, permanent detachment from the labor market, and the social impact on families and children. Borie-Holtz et al. (2010) postulated that decreases in income equated to an inefficient means of paying bills on time that has the potential to develop into depleting savings accounts, possessing bad credit ratings, or becoming homeless because individuals are not able to pay their rent or mortgage for long periods of time.

Additionally, individuals that are unemployed for long durations of time become less unemployable due to job skill issues related to being less marketable (T. M. Shapiro, 2017). Furthermore, wages and lifelong earnings are decreased with extended periods of unemployment. Moreover, once individuals are out of the labor market for long periods of time, they have a higher chance of exiting the labor market permanently and attempt to enroll in disability programs; thus, becoming discouraged unemployed workers (Lindner & Nichols, 2012). A. Nichols et al. (2013) implied that the losses mentioned are amplified when individuals exit the job market for health-related problems versus losing

employment based on other factors. Socially, long-term unemployment adversely affects the family; specifically, children as research provided evidence that children suffer more when the father loses their job as it decreases their performance in school (Kalil & DeLeire, 2002; Rege et al., 2011); this is significant to African American families and children because African American males possess the highest rates of unemployment in America (U.S. BLS, 2020a). Thus, long-term unemployment has severe implications, hence, intensifying the need to discuss African American males' average duration of unemployment.

U.S. BLS (2019a) interprets unemployment durations as less than 5 weeks, 5–14 weeks, 15–26 weeks, and 27 weeks and over. The percentage of African American males 16 years and older that are unemployed less than 5 weeks is 30.8%, the percentage of African American males that are unemployed for 5–14 weeks is 28.5%, the percentage of African American males that are unemployed for 15–26 weeks is 14.7%, and the percentage of African American males that are unemployed for 27 weeks or more is 26.1% (U.S. BLS, 2019a). Additionally, African American males possess the highest rate of unemployment for 27 weeks or more that is characterized as long-term unemployment, which is not presented in the U-3 measurement of unemployment (U.S. BLS, 2019a, 2020b). The high rates of extended unemployment among African American males influenced me to research further their duration of unemployment and present a relevant study.

Nord and Ting (2006) conducted a study regarding the duration of unemployment among African American and Caucasian American males. The crux of this study sought

to ascertain the basis for why African American males experience longer durations of unemployment compared to other races of men. Nord and Ting (2006) used Becker's theory of discrimination that suggested some workers do not desire to work next to employees of different races; thus, Caucasian American employees are paid extra to work with African American employees. Informatively, Becker's theory is analyzed in two divergent categories, which are White treatment advantage and Black treatment disadvantage. The nature of this study is quantitative and consisted of 2,236 Caucasian American males and 169 African American males; this data was retrieved from the January 1988 Displaced Workers Survey (Nord & Ting, 2006).

The results of this study stipulated that Caucasian American males experience shorter durations of unemployment because they experienced White treatment advantages associated with being offered higher wages; thus, encountering diminutive discrimination (Nord & Ting, 2006). Conversely, the analyses of this study asserted that African American males experienced longer durations of unemployment because they encountered Black treatment disadvantages related to being offered lower wages and discrimination (Nord & Ting, 2006). Explicitly, the data provided evidence that, on average, African American males experienced a difference of 4.58 weeks longer durations of unemployment compared to Caucasian American males. Moreover, out of the 4.58 weeks, difference discrimination accounted for 3.81 weeks longer spells of unemployment, and 3.11 of longer durations of unemployment was due to White treatment advantage or Caucasian American males receiving better job offers, and 0.7 weeks of longer unemployment was because of Black treatment disadvantage or the lack

of beneficial job offers extended to African American males (Nord & Ting, 2006). Therefore, this research provides guidance that some cases of African American males' extended durations of unemployment are based on discrimination and other external factors that are not associated with their knowledge, skills, and abilities. Next, this literature review discusses employment networking.

Employment Networking

Employment networking is important to all prospective job seekers as it has the potential to provide internal resources that may get job applicants hired. Therefore, scholars suggested that individuals should know the importance of networking because it is one of the best manners of getting to know divergent individuals in your work industry, which will ultimately lead to job applicants getting hired (J. K. Harris et al., 2014; Nikolaou, 2014; Royster, 2003; Vilorio, 2011). Additionally, it is estimated that over 50% of jobs are garnered through some type of networking, which delineates the aspect of networking to be an efficient manner for job seekers to retrieve their desired occupations (Vilorio, 2011). Thus, social circles, such as LinkedIn, Facebook, and Twitter, are essentially social networks that prospective employers can connect with job applicants, with a high average of occupations being linked to social media networks (Nikolaou, 2014).

Accordingly, the literature provided guidance that divergent manners of employment networking are necessary because explicit attention is given to employment seekers with stronger or weaker personal connections to the organization, such as friends and family that can vouch for your character (Wegener, 1991). Additionally, social

capital through strong networking connections are typically attained between individuals with similar information; with weaker connections securing the gap between the stronger connected groups and the weaker connected groups and characteristics and divergent demographic groups lean in favor of increasing their employment chances by developing different personal relationships (McDonald, 2009; Wegener, 1991). However, African American men are at a disadvantage regarding employment networking because even though social networks influence job seekers' chances of getting hired; African American men are not likely to possess direct networking connections with upper management with authority to employ them to work in higher-level occupations (J. K. Harris et al., 2014). Wingfield (2019) suggested that a 2014 survey articulated that 75% of Caucasian Americans among influential social networking groups and schools had no friends outside of their racial demographic. This is significant because this type of self-segregation in social networking influences Caucasian Americans' potential to purposefully reserve employment tips and leads for other Caucasian Americans, thus excluding African Americans (Wingfield, 2019). Hence, I will present a study illustrating how African American males' deficient networking levels have hindered their employment attainment efforts.

Royster (2003) conducted an extensive study regarding the manner in which Caucasian American networks exclude African American men from blue-collar occupations. This study is a qualitative case study consisting of 25 African American men and 25 Caucasian American men educated at the exact vocational school that desired occupations in the same occupational industry. Royster (2003) sought to comprehend the

dissimilarity of a workplace that would whether employ Caucasian American men over African American men by questioning the status quo and investigating whether there was an issue regarding the work ethic or knowledge, skills, and abilities of young African American men. After a thorough analysis of the research, Royster (2003) determined that compared to Caucasian American men, African American men possessed the work ethic and intellectual performance needed to perform their occupations. However, the most obvious difference between the two groups of men was that African American men did not have the strategic social capital networking connections to the correct higher-level management that could assist them in their occupational pursuits and eventually hire them (Royster, 2003). Thus, this study provided overwhelming empirical evidence that educated African American men with superb work ethics will still require equivalent social job-seeking networks to compete in a competitive job market and get hired. The lamentable situation regarding African American males' unemployment has dire economic repercussions, which will be discussed next.

Economic Impact of African American Male Unemployment

The economic status of the economy determines wage rate increases that equivalate to a decrease in the demand for labor that stimulates a labor surplus with an inadequate amount of jobs; conversely, a decrease in wages that proceeds below the equilibrium rate causes a shortage in labor because the demand for labor is beyond the supply (Parkin, 2019). Additionally, Parkin (2019) stipulated that employment is an important construct for an economy's economic growth because economic growth is the prerequisite for an increase in fecund employment; thus, the economic impact of

unemployment has significant effects to countries' and governments' economies. This is due to countries' responsibility to pay out necessary funds for unemployment insurance benefits, which may also include other benefits, such as Medicaid and food (Gleeson, 2019). Hence, according to the government's financial circumstances, the country may have difficulty attempting to produce the funds needed to cover these costs without further damaging their economies (Gleeson, 2019). The suggestion mentioned refers to Okun's empirically observed association that suggested a 1% increase in a country's unemployment rate results in a 2% decrease in a country's gross domestic product (Gil-Alana et al., 2020). Thus, high unemployment rates are not just detrimental to society, but they are also destructive to countries' comprehensive economies as well. African American males' unemployment also has personal and family ramifications.

The prodigious unemployment rates among African American males have a dismal effect on their families and personal economic situations. Therefore, unemployment among African American males signals that they are less than weeks away from serious economic issues consistent with the ability to maintain savings accounts that may assist their long-term financial goals and retirement plans (Baradaran, 2017/2019; Lui et al., 2006; T. M. Shapiro, 2017). This also applies to their credit standing as they will not be able to continue to make regular installment payments without consistent employment; this also refers to the amount of disposable income that they may possess because they do not have a steady stream of income (Baradaran, 2017/2019; Lui et al., 2006). Moreover, the economic effect of unemployment among African American males also has a broader impact on their ability to support their

families, purchase homes, and provide integral better lives for everyone that they are financially responsible for (T. M. Shapiro, 2017; K. Y. Taylor, 2019). The literature provided guidance that unemployment among African American males is detrimental to their survival; however, historic generational income inequality has also exacerbated a wealth gap.

Income Inequality and the Wealth Gap

Notwithstanding African American males' astronomical levels of unemployment, which in comparison are higher than every other racial and gender demographic in America (U.S. BLS, 2020a); historically, African Americans have also struggled to achieve true sustainable economic equality through wealth attainment (C. Anderson, 2001; M. Anderson, 2012/2013; Rochester, 2017; T. M. Shapiro, 2017). A. L. Harris (2010) signifies that 500,000 free African Americans possessed an integral wealth of 50 million dollars on the eve of the Civil War. Rogers (2010) implied that in 2006 African Americans' collective income was 744 billion dollars, which is still a vastly diminutive percentage of the gross domestic product of the United States. The previous assertions denote that African Americans have made some positive strides in their efforts to achieve economic independence; however, it is also paramount to ascertain the difference between income and wealth and how employment may affect these constructs.

C. Anderson (2001) postulates that wealth is individuals', groups', or communities' net value minus their liabilities or debt that they owe at any moment, which is also referred to as stored value. Conversely, income refers to compensation flowing for a steady amount of time (C. Anderson, 2001). Therefore, in terms of survival, providing

African Americans with more jobs will suffice because a job paying minimum or average wages inherently has the potential to provide nothing more than an income to assuage individuals' basic human needs, whether than create generational wealth. NPR et al. (2017), Penner (2016), and T. M. Shapiro (2017) all agreed that African Americans are typically paid lower wages than Caucasian Americans. J. Williams and Wilson (2019) implied that African Americans are 6.4% to 3.1% less likely to be hired than Caucasian Americans, and 3.5% and 2.2% for African Americans and Caucasian Americans with college degrees; moreover, if they are hired, they are underemployed regardless of skillset or college degree attainment, with 40% of African Americans in occupations that do not require college degrees.

Hence, a job providing African Americans with minimum or average wages indicates that a good percentage of them might generate enough income to linger somewhere adjacent to or just slightly above poverty as 20.8% of African Americans live in poverty compared to 10.1% of Caucasian Americans (Poverty USA, n.d.). Therefore, employment alone is not a true means of obtaining wealth because generational wealth allows families to transfer assets and income, which may not be accomplished with a lower or average wage income (C. Anderson, 2001). Accordingly, the literature presented illustrates a grim reality that if all African Americans were employed, their income would be increased; however, their aggregate wealth will still not parity Caucasian Americans. To discuss African Americans' economic inequities, we must also provide an intensive overview of the economic injustices that exacerbated the current inequitable economic wealth gap. The suggestion mentioned refers to African Americans deriving from the

descendants of slaves that were not allowed to own any assets and African Americans that were legally segregated and oppressed for 100 years after slavery ended that owned minimal assets to bequeath to their present-day African American descendants (C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Kendi, 2016/2017; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; Wytsma, 2017).

The victory of the Civil War did not just signify winning a war, but it also the end of plantation economics; thus, the Republicans, led by President Abraham Lincoln, demanded full citizenship and economic inclusion for the newly freed Africans (Baradaran, 2015/2018). Subsequently, President Abraham Lincoln created the Freedman's Savings Bank on March 3, 1865; this bank marked the first effort of financial inclusion for African Americans by the government with the intent of instilling lessons of financial and economic wisdom to African Americans (Baradaran, 2015/2018, 2017/2019). Accordingly, African American veterans, former slaves and their families, charities, churches, and private organizations, including Fredrick Douglas, contributed 75 million in deposits made by over 75,000 depositors, which equals 1.5 billion dollars in today's currency (Baradaran, 2015/2018). At its height, the Freedman's Savings Bank had 37 branches operating in 17 states.

However, Congressional mismanagement and a plethora of suppositious investments and loans led to the bank's ultimate failure and closure on June 29, 1874 (Baradaran, 2015/2018). The closure mentioned left 61,131 depositors with no access or means to withdraw their almost 3 million dollars in currency; thus, it is estimated that most depositors lost all of their money with only a diminutive portion of their savings being recovered (Baradaran, 2015/2018). This loss of finances and savings was

equivalent to almost three million dollars in 1874; as of this writing, that is the equivalence of 68,184,473.68, most of which was never recovered and would be a superb accumulation of wealth for the descendants of the African Americans that lost their savings due to the mismanagement of others (Baradaran, 2015/2018; Webster, n.d.). The Freedman's Savings Bank was a devastating recorded loss of finances by a government entity, leading African Americans to lose trust in the government and financial institutions that lingered on for decades to come.

African American veterans from the World War II era also experienced similar financial disappointment from American government institutions. The Servicemen's Readjustment Act, which is also known as the G.I. Bill, was signed into law by President Franklin Delano Roosevelt on June 22, 1944, for veterans on active duty for 90 days or more and did not receive a dishonorable discharge (Altschuler & Blumin, 2009). The G.I. Bill had intentions of assisting veterans with a range of benefits, including business loans, a year of unemployment payments, educational and vocational benefits, and home loans (Altschuler & Blumin, 2009). This legislation was not initially intended to be discriminatory; however, due to local and state regulations, African American veterans could not use the bulk of the benefits associated with the G.I. Bill (Katznelson, 2005). Specifically, Caucasian American managed banks refused to fund mortgages in African American communities, which left African American veterans with no other options because of Jim Crow segregation laws of that era (Katznelson, 2005). Additionally, redlining or the practice of lenders and insurance companies systemically racially

mapping the risk of lending money and providing insurance made it more difficult for African American veterans to purchase homes (Katznelson, 2005).

Hence, two out of 3,200 home loans in Mississippi went to African American borrowers, this was not relegated to the south as the suburbs of New York and northern New Jersey issued 67,000 in G. I. Bill loans, with less than 100 being issued to veterans that were not Caucasian American (Katznelson, 2005). Moreover, some African Americans were only able to use the education portion of the G.I. Bill's benefits, and the majority of them could only attend over crowed Historically Black Colleges and Universities (Herbold, 1994–1995). Comprehensively, eight million veterans received vocational training, and a value of 33 billion dollars was issued for 4.3 million home loans to mostly Caucasian American veterans, leaving African American veterans behind (Katznelson, 2005). Therefore, the G.I. Bill is accredited for creating an enormous protracted stimulation of wealth for Caucasian Americans while providing little to no educational, financial, or economic benefit to African Americans. Katznelson (2005) asserted that the G.I. Bill was the most devastating instrument for increasing the post-war racial wealth gap. Scholars also have divergent rationales for the African American wealth gap.

C. Anderson (2001) suggested that regardless of the civil rights movement's social and civil achievements, contemporary research regarding the wealth gap among African Americans indicates that they own the same amount of the nation's wealth as they did in the 1860s prior to the beginning of the Civil War. As of this writing, African Americans are physically free from any kind of chattel enslavement, yet they only own the same

one-half of 1% of the nation's total wealth as they did in 1860's chattel enslavement (C. Anderson, 2001). Additionally, newly freed African Americans only owed 1% of the land in the United States, and contemporary African Americans still only own the same 1% of land as their ancestors did in 1870 (Rochester, 2017). The suggestions mentioned are startling because this was an era when the majority of African Americans were either held in bondage as full chattel slaves or some other racially oppressive situation that hindered their ability to achieve various types of employment or business ownership (C. Anderson, 1994, 2001).

Rochester (2017) proposed that institutional racism played a critical factor in African Americans' inability to accumulate sustainable wealth, which refers to the United States government investing 120 billion dollars in homeownership with only 2% of these subsidies going to African Americans between 1935 and 1965. Moreover, 20 million of the homeownership subsidies mentioned went to Caucasian European immigrants, thus, assisting them in building wealth and developing businesses (Rochester, 2017). Furthermore, the Federal Housing Association participated in redlining by only providing housing loans to African Americans who resided in African American neighborhoods to maintain racial separation (Rochester, 2017). Thus, a large majority of Caucasian American financial institutions, Caucasian American real estate agents, Caucasian American home builders, and Caucasian American home associations were all complicit in ensuring that African Americans would only be able to purchase homes in what was known as Negro areas (Better, 2008; Nier, 2008). This type of redlining, racial segregation, and systemic racism attributed to less than 1% of all mortgages in the United

States being issued to African Americans between 1930 and 1960 (Nier, 2008). The empirical literature mentioned is attributed to systemic racism and exacerbated African Americans' lack of inherited wealth that exist among Caucasian Americans that is typically bequeathed to them in the form of land, endowments, trust accounts, stocks, bonds, insurance policies, and other assets that African Americans had diminutive access to (C. Anderson, 2001; Nier, 2008; Rochester, 2017; T. M. Shapiro, 2017). The impact of African American males' unemployment may also influence an already broadening wealth gap since they are the highest unemployed group in America (U.S. BLS, 2020a).

Accordingly, the median wealth accumulated by African American families is 17,000; conversely, the median wealth for Caucasian American families is 171,000, which is equivalent to a 1 to 10 ratio (JEC, n.d.). Additionally, the economic gap between African Americans' and Caucasian Americans' monthly income is 29,000 yearly or 59 cents per every dollar, and less than 42% of African Americans own homes compared to 73% of Caucasian Americans (JEC, n.d.). Brundage (2020) suggested that African Americans are more prone to possess occupational unions memberships, but their membership in these unions are steady declining; this is detrimental for African Americans because of the various employee protections against wage inequality that unions provide to include union jobs paying employees up to 16.4% higher wages (Spievack, 2019). However, the power of unions is continuing to diminish; thus, African Americans' declining union membership is damaging to their prospects of employment and income equality (JEC, n.d.). Harkinson (2015) suggested that the 100 wealthiest people in the United States collectively own more wealth than the total African American

population. A. Moore (2017a) postulated that out of the 1.2 million pinnacle-earning households, 91% of them are Caucasian Americans. A. Moore (2017b) suggested that five of the most substantial Caucasian American landowners own more land than the integral African American population.

This is significant because T. M. Shapiro (2017) suggested that wealth has the potential to provide life-changing opportunities, such as children's college funds and them being six times more likely to be a wealthy adult. Additionally, higher lifetime earnings are also connected to children that are eight times more likely to achieve an education level of a bachelor's degree by age twenty-four; thus, increasing the chances of future education and job success (T. M. Shapiro, 2017). Accordingly, inconsistent income due to unemployment may also cause other financial issues for African American men related to the economic wealth gap that exists between African Americans and Caucasian Americans. Therefore, the future of the economic inequalities associated with African American males' unemployment and the wealth gap between African Americans and Caucasian Americans is further explicated in the study below.

Asante-Muhammad et al. (2017) conducted a study to address the future of the racial wealth gap between African Americans, Caucasian Americans, and Hispanic Americans. The study's methodology is quantitative and used the United States Census Bureau's current survey of income and program participation net worth and income data, excluding customer durable goods (Asante-Muhammad et al., 2017). This study sought to ascertain the racial wealth gap in 4 and 8 years and until 2043, at which time it is predicted that Caucasian Americans will not maintain the racial majority in the United

States (Asante-Muhammad et al., 2017). The results indicated that if left unresolved, it would take the average African American family 228 years and the average Hispanic American family 84 years to reach the current level of wealth of Caucasian American families. Asante-Muhammad et al. (2017) suggested that if nothing is changed by 2024, African American and Hispanic American households are forecasted to own 60-80% less wealth than they did in 1983.

Additionally, Asante-Muhammad et al. (2017) argued that if left unchecked over the next 8 years, African American wealth will be zero by 2053, and Hispanic American wealth will be zero by 2073. Comparatively, Caucasian American families' wealth is projected to grow to 137,000 by 2053 and 147,000 by 2073 (Asante-Muhammad et al., 2017). Accordingly, all indications are that if something does not change regarding African Americans' appalling unemployment and income issues, their wealth situation will become dreadful and unacceptable in the near future. Next, the literature review addresses the health and psychological effects of unemployment among African American males.

Health Impact of African American Male Unemployment

Extensive research provides evidence that unemployment has a myriad of consequences to an individual's comprehensive health (Brenner, 1979; Meade et al., 2013). Thus, regardless of race or gender, the health implications of the unemployed are consistent with higher chances of obesity, poor diets, cardiovascular disease, tobacco and alcohol usage, and drug dependency (Meade et al., 2013). The unhealthy implications mentioned have the capacity to decrease individuals' integral wellness and lead to

immature death as unemployed individuals possess higher mortality rates than individuals that are not unemployed (Meade et al., 2013). Brenner (1979) suggested that if unemployment rates increase by 10%, the mortality rate increases by 1.2%, cardiovascular disease increases by 1.7%, cases of cirrhosis to the liver increases by 1.3%, suicides increases by 1.7%, and arrests are elevated to 4.0%. Additionally, research also suggested that unemployment has the possibility to be just as severe as stroke or diabetes for heart-failure patients (Davis, 2017).

Davis (2017) conducted a study that investigated the consistencies of heart failure among employed and unemployed individuals. This study's methodology is qualitative and employed an observational approach that consisted of 20,000 patients ranging between the ages of 18 and 60 with heart failure (Davis, 2017). The data analysis suggested that the study adjusted for age, gender, education level, and co-morbidities. The results were astounding as they revealed that unemployment presented heart-failure patients with a greater chance of death than patients with a history of stroke and diabetes (Davis, 2017). Moreover, compared to patients that were employed, unemployed patients displayed a 50% increased risk of death and a 12% increased risk of rehospitalization for heart failure (Davis, 2017). Recommendations are to consider patients' employment status and to increase workplace inclusion (Davis, 2017). Ironically, African American men are the most unemployed, and they have a 30% greater chance of dying from heart disease and a 60% greater chance of dying from a stroke than Caucasian American men or Hispanic American men (Graham & Gracia, 2012). Additionally, individuals' overall health is also affected by unemployment.

Hergenrather et al. (2015) conducted a study regarding relationships between social and health detriments, employment status, and physical health. This study used a casual quantitative design, and the data participants consisted of 22 longitudinal studies conducted in various countries, including the United States (Hergenrather et al., 2015). The results identified employment, unemployment, job loss, reemployment, and retirement as usual paths, with job loss and unemployment being associated with decreased health (Hergenrather et al., 2015). Recommendations for future research are to investigate relationships between employment status and physical health. Therefore, this study provides evidence that individuals' physical health is affected by their employment status, which is significant for African American males because their unemployment rates are the highest in the nation, and they possess substandard determinants of health (Treadwell et al., 2013; U.S. BLS, 2020a). African American males' psychological health is also negatively affected by their high rates of unemployment.

Pharr et al. (2012) asserted that individuals' mental health, specifically depression, anxiety, and stress, are severely affected by unemployment. Thus, unemployment has the potential to negatively affect the mental health of all races and genders. However, Diette (2018) conducted a study regarding race, unemployment, and mental health in America. The crux of this study sought to ascertain if race affected individuals' psychological effects during short and extended terms of unemployment (Diette, 2018). This study's methodology was quantitative using data from the 2001 Great Recession, and the sample population identified a set of resilient participants based on their past mental health diagnoses (Diette, 2018). The results revealed that the 2001 Great Recession had a more

adverse psychological effect on African Americans versus Caucasian Americans, with the adverse effects less pronounced with extending periods of unemployment (Diette, 2018). Recommendations are that lawmakers consider that unemployment has psychological as well as monetary costs and that race should be a factor. The increasing mental stress for short-term unemployment was theorized to be associated with not having emergency funds to cover immediate financial burdens due to unemployment and discrimination (Nelson, 2018). Research has also been conducted regarding African American unemployment and depression.

E. Rodriguez et al. (1999) conducted a study regarding unemployment and depression within the African American community. E. Rodriguez et al. (1999) asserted that this research was conducted because of the scarcity of research on this topic. This study's methodology was quantitative and consisted of 1,369 African Americans and 6,660 Caucasian Americans, which are participants from the National Survey of Families and Households 1987–1992 (E. Rodriguez et al., 1999). The results yielded that African Americans had less significance for predicting depression between employed and unemployed sets of data compared to Caucasian Americans (E. Rodriguez et al., 1999). Additionally, education and wealth were more associated with decreased depression for Caucasian Americans versus African Americans (E. Rodriguez et al., 1999). Recommendations for future research are to focus on the unique necessities of African Americans because divergent sets of the population require different protective measures (Rodriquez et al., 1999). Empirical research has also been conducted on unemployed African American men and depression.

Iman (1995) conducted one of the first studies of this kind that investigated the psychological distress of employed versus unemployed African American men. The methodology of this study was quantitative and consisted of 160 participants (Iman, 1995). The results of this study indicated that unemployed African American men experienced more psychological distress across all of the confounding variables, which are middle-aged, married, high school grads, unemployed for 3 to 6 months, and more than 2 years (Iman, 1995). Future research recommended that more studies be conducted regarding mental health and unemployment among African American men (Iman, 1995). Thus, the research regarding this topic provides overwhelming evidence that African American males' unemployment has detrimental effects on their mental health.

Accordingly, research suggested that there is a relationship between African American males' mental and physical health, systemic racism, and their high rates of unemployment (Diette, 2018; Doede, 2016; Iman, 1995; Treadwell et al., 2013). The research has provided guidance that the grim health repercussions of unemployment should characterize the unemployment levels among African American males' as a national crisis because they also possess appalling health statistics. Gilbert et al. (2016) and Treadwell et al. (2013) both agreed that African American males' health is worse than all racial and gender demographics in America; thus, they are more likely to die at a younger age than all racial groups of men and 7 years earlier than women of all racial groups. Furthermore, Treadwell et al. (2013) stipulated that African American males' comprehensive physical and mental health is in a deplorable predicament; hence, the literature presented on this topic suggested that their high rates of unemployment may be

exacerbating this critical health phenomenon. Next, this literature review discusses African American unemployment and mass incarceration.

African American Male Unemployment and Mass Incarceration

African American males' relationship to possessing the highest unemployment levels, their decreased participation in the labor market, and mass incarceration is definitely related (Alexander, 2010; Brundage, 2020; Pager, 2003; U.S. BLS, 2020a; Western, 2007). African Americans consist of 12% of the adult population and account for 33% of the prison population (Gramlich, 2020). As of this writing, 1,501 African American adults are incarcerated for every 100,000 African American adults, and 2,272 African American adult men are incarcerated for every 100,000 African American adult men (Carson, 2020; Gramlich, 2020). Gramlich (2020) also suggested that 5008 African American adult men aged 35–39 are incarcerated per 100,000 African American adult men in the same age category. Comparatively, 392 Caucasian American adult men are incarcerated per 100,000 Caucasian adult men, and 1,018 Hispanic American adult men per 100,000 Hispanic American adult men are incarcerated; hence, African American men have a greater chance of being incarcerated than any other group of men in the country (Gramlich, 2020). The connection to the constructs mentioned are consistent with breaking the law and becoming incarcerated based on community social-economic conditions, not having sufficient employment opportunities to secure sustainable and consistent incomes, possessing a criminal record, and reoffending once released from incarceration (Alexander, 2010; Jacobs, 2013; Pager, 2003; Shannon, 2019; Western, 2007).

In an effort to comprehend the African American male unemployment and incarceration phenomenon, the War on Drugs must be explained. Alexander (2010) explained that in 1982 President Ronald Regan formally declared a War on Drugs; just a few years later, the drug known as a crack had drastically spread throughout inner cities that were heavenly populated with African Americans. African Americans in inner cities did not possess the logistics, specifically, airplanes, ships, or boats that might be used to import drugs from the Nicaraguans. Accordingly, even though there is no direct evidence regarding the manner in which large quantities of crack cocaine arrived in African American communities, the United States Central Intelligence Agency confessed in 1998 that it deliberated supported Nicaraguan guerilla Armies that smuggled illegal drugs into the United States (Alexander, 2010). The illegal drugs mentioned just so happen to turn up in major cities in the United States that are densely populated with African Americans in the form of crack cocaine (Alexander, 2010).

In a span of 3 decades, the War on Drugs exacerbated a penal population in the United States that erupted and went from a population of 300,000 to two million, with African American men accounting for the majority of the convictions, with the generality of the convictions being drug-related (Alexander, 2010). The United States now has the largest prison population in the world; additionally, America imprisons more of its African American population than South Africa did during the Apartheid as 1,501 African American adults are incarcerated for every 100,000 African American adults and 2,272 African American adult men are incarcerated for every 100,000 African American adult men (Alexander, 2010; Carson, 2020; Gramlich, 2020). The research presented

illustrates formidable circumstances regarding African American men recorded as the highest unemployed, their communities being flooded with illegal drugs, which substituted as a means of employment for the unemployed, and the American penal system incarcerating them in gargantuan manners (Alexander, 2010; W. Muhammad, 2017; Pager, 2003; Shannon, 2019; U.S. BLS, 2020a; Western, 2007).

Moreover, President William Jefferson Clinton signed into law the Violent Crime and Law Enforcement Act, which is also known as the 1994 Crime Bill that introduced some of the harshest laws in the history of the United States (Alexander, 2010; Robinson, 2000). Therefore, exacerbating the War on Drugs; thus, further increasing the prison population and intensifying the racial under caste or a set of people permanently locked out of mainstream Caucasian American practices, law, and customs, which includes employment (Alexander, 2010). The suggestion mentioned refers to the 1994 Crime Bill facilitating the death penalty for drug offenses not related to homicides, mandatory life sentences for felons with more than three convictions, and thirteen-year-old children being tried as adults for various crimes, with African American teens making up two-thirds of juveniles serving life in prison (Shannon, 2019). This is astounding, as Tonry (2004) suggested that governments use punishments as an apparatus for social control; thus, the punishment's ferocity is typically not related to crime patterns. Additionally, scholars contend that the War on Drugs and the 1994 Crime Bill are responsible for the incarceration and correction control of more African American men than those that were enslaved in 1850 chattel slavery (W. Muhammad, 2017). Thus, mass incarceration definitely has a consequential effect on African American males' employment prospects

as a felony conviction may indicate that the prospective job applicant is dangerous or presents other types of risks associated with untrustworthiness, as depicted below (Western, 2007).

Pager (2003) conducted a study regarding the employment outcomes of former prisoners with criminal backgrounds. This study sought to ascertain if there are barriers to employment if the job applicant has a criminal record by ascertaining if they would receive callbacks for job opportunities. This quantitative study used an audit methodology, which combines real-life context and experimental methods. The participants consisted of four male auditors, two of them were African American, and two of them were Caucasian American; the African American auditors audited 200 employers, and the Caucasian American auditors audited 150 employers for a total of 350 audits in 2001 in Milwaukee (Pager, 2003). The sample resumes indicated identical education and experience with one of each set of auditors listing a criminal record and referenced a parole officer. The analysis was based on whether job applicants received callbacks for further interviews or job offers. The results yielded that 34% of Caucasian American applicants without a criminal record received callbacks, and 17% of them with a criminal background also received callbacks (Pager, 2003). Comparatively, 14% of African American applicants that did not have a criminal background were contacted, and 5% that had a criminal record were contacted for further job opportunities (Pager, 2003). Pager (2003) did not specifically provide recommendations for future research; however, limitations indicate that this study was limited to one metropolitan area; thus, there is an opportunity for future investigations to examine different populations in different

locations. Accordingly, this study's analysis illustrates that Caucasian Americans with a criminal background received a higher percentage of callbacks for job interviews or offers at 17% compared to African American applicants with no criminal background at 14% (Pager, 2003). Moreover, unemployment may also be a catalyst for recidivism or formerly incarcerated African American males returning to prison after being released.

African American Male Unemployment and Recidivism

The literature provides guidance that there are strict penalties for recidivism or repeat offenders in the American penal system. Western (2007) suggested that there is a strong relationship between African American males' rates of incarceration and their future economic prospects. The suggestion mentioned refers to former African American male prisoners not possessing the highest chances of employment due to having a felony conviction on their record; furthermore, if they are hired, they are subjected to lower wages than men that have never been incarcerated (Western, 2007). Western (2007) also suggested that African American men may result in drug dealing due to the selection effect of unemployment and low wages. Western (2007) illustrated incarceration as a life event that exacerbates a myriad of disadvantages that label African American men as labor market outliers with little economic stability. Western (2007) also asserted that drug dealing and other financial-related crimes typically fill the void of deindustrialized inner-city communities lacking sustainable high wage-paying blue-collar jobs. This is significant because a large majority of African American males are incarcerated for drug offenses (Alexander, 2010). Moreover, the importance of recidivism after incarceration

influenced me to include a study regarding labor market conditions, employment, and recidivism.

Jacobs (2013) conducted a study regarding the context of prisoner reentry, labor market conditions, communities, and employment and recidivism outcomes of prisoners. The crux of this study examined former prisoners' complicities reentering back into their communities and the labor market. This study's methodology was quantitative and consisted of 2,174 prisoners released between 2004 and 2008 to Chicago, Detroit, Milwaukee, Minneapolis-St. Paul, and New York (Jacobs, 2013). The findings indicated that high wage-paying employment is negatively correlated with arrest, and individual employment is negatively associated with unemployment rates (Jacobs, 2013). Jacobs (2013) forecasted that lower odds of arrest are associated with an increasing unemployment rate and increased chances of the revocation of former prisoners' parole, and a period of economic decline decreases their chances of finding employment and staying out of prison. Jacobs (2013) recommends that future research ascertain how employment and other factors affect the process of desistance and the parole process. Thus, this study indicates that employment and community conditions significantly impact former prisoners' chances of not violating parole and staying out of prison once they are released. Hence, if quality, consistent high-wage paying jobs are not available to former prisoners when released from prison, they have a higher chance of violating their terms of parole and eventually returning to prison. Next, this review of the literature will discuss workplace discrimination.

Workplace Discrimination

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 is civil and labor laws that prohibit discrimination in the workplace (Lytle, 2014). Specifically, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act prohibits any kind of discrimination in the workplace based on race, age, sex, religion, color, disability, sexual orientation, or national origin when hiring, firing, promoting, or demoting employees in the workplace (Lytle, 2014). The United States Equal Employment Opportunity Commission is a federal agency that is responsible for enforcing and regulating all civil rights laws, which pertain to workplace discrimination (Lytle, 2014; U.S. EEOC, n.d.). The law mentioned above was specifically created to protect employees in the workplace. However, despite the current labor laws that were created to protect individuals in the workplace, discrimination is still a significant issue; which is often manifested through elusive manners, such as unequal pay and benefits, unjust performance appraisals, and the unfair work assignments that individuals are given (Lytle, 2014; T. M. Shapiro, 2017).

Furthermore, the discriminatory issues mentioned are not regularly acknowledged and disregarded as nonissues (T. S. Moore, 2010); thus, creating another barrier to addressing this significant social issue by not recognizing that this is a genuine problem in American workplaces. A. Austin (2015) asserted that the election of the first African American president falsely signified a post-racial America, with Caucasian Americans not acknowledging that racism is still a cumbersome issue in America. Accordingly, U.S. EEOC (n.d.) suggested that the most frequently alleged facet of discrimination filed under Title VII is charges of race discrimination. African Americans comprise 13% of the

workforce, yet they account for 26% of the racial discrimination claims, which are filed with the United States Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (Jameel & Yerardi, 2019). Additionally, research suggested that the problem is far-reaching because 33% of the individuals that attempt to report accusations of workplace discrimination because of race to the United States Equal Employment Opportunity Commission also reported cases of retaliation from their employers (U.S. EEOC, 2020).

Correspondently, studies reveal that the problem of workplace discrimination also presents itself during the hiring process as well. Quillian et al. (2017) asserted that the dynamics associated with hiring discrimination have not changed for African Americans in 25 years. Moreover, a comprehensive 2003 study provided evidence that suggested employers would often prefer Caucasian American job applicants with criminal records over African American job applicants with no criminal record (Pager, 2003). Nord and Ting (2006) implied that Caucasian American male employees receive the White advantage through preferential workplace treatment associated with higher pay and promotions, and African American men receive lower wages and diminished chances of promotions due to the Black disadvantage.

Some labor market experts also suggested that the huge unemployment gap between African Americans and Caucasian Americans is not solely due to educational disparities, but the genuine cause may be workplace discrimination (Meadows & Metcalf, 2008; T. M. Shapiro, 2017). J. Williams and Wilson (2019) implied that racial discrimination is the primary rationale for African Americans being 6.4% to 3.1% less likely to be hired than Caucasian Americans, and African Americans with a college

degree are 3.5% to 2.2% less likely to be hired compared to Caucasian Americans with a comparable college degree. Furthermore, research suggested that compared to Caucasian Americans, African Americans experience institutional workplace discrimination, such as spending more time looking for jobs, compensated with lower wages, and are not likely to get employed in higher paid jobs (NPR et al., 2017; Penner, 2016; Reid & Rubin, 2016; T. M. Shapiro, 2017). The discrimination mentioned is not only detrimental to African Americans, but it might also be detrimental to employers because it is consistent with Becker's taste-based theory of discrimination, which asserts that some employees do not desire to work with minority or disadvantaged employees regardless of their work ethic or productivity (Becker, 1957/1971). Therefore, qualified African Americans are not desired to work at certain organizations and are discriminated against on the grounds of race and avoidance; hence, organizations are willing to accept a penalty for overlooking qualified workers and, if hired, providing African Americans with lower wages and Caucasian Americans with higher wages to work with African Americans (Becker, 1957/1971). Wingfield (2019) proposed that African American men are occasionally profiled and labeled as not possessing soft skills that are needed for management positions that require individuals to have likable personalities. Thus, the research suggested that this is a significant issue that may have a significant effect on African American males' unemployment, which is illustrated in the study below.

James Elliott and Smith (2005) conducted a study regarding workplace inequality in the United States. Explicitly, the crux of this study sought to ascertain how workplace inequality affects small and large businesses across America. This study's methodology is

quantitative, which compiled data extracted from 2-hour interviews with 3,480 male and female workers from across the country (James Elliott & Smith, 2005). The participants were divided into three categories, which are workers with no power, supervisors with the power only to supervise, and managers with the power to hire, fire, and set wages (James Elliott & Smith, 2005). The data analyses yielded that frequent patterns of discrimination existed within small and large American companies (James Elliott & Smith, 2005).

Furthermore, the findings indicated that African American men with the same skill-sets as Caucasian American men only possessed half a chance of rising from supervisor to manager, with African American women only possessing a third of a chance (James Elliott & Smith, 2005). Additionally, the findings also indicated that superiors are much more likely to promote and fill positions of power with individuals of the same race and gender, with a stronger chance of this phenomenon occurring with higher-level management jobs (James Elliott & Smith, 2005). This study did not mention recommendations for future research. This comprehensive study provided guidance that workplace discrimination is still an issue in America, which influenced me to provide another study regarding discrimination in America.

NPR et al. (2017) conducted an extensive study regarding discrimination in America. Specifically, this study sought to ascertain a myriad of discriminatory factors from all races and genders between January 26, 2017, and April 9, 2017. This study's methodology was quantitative and consisted of 3,453 adults of all races and genders; however, this probability report concentrated on the 802 African American participants

(NPR et al., 2017). The results of the personal experiences of institutional discrimination section are that 50% of African Americans experienced discrimination when interacting with the police, 56% of African Americans experienced discrimination when applying for a job, and 57% of African Americans experienced discrimination with getting paid equal wages and being promoted at the workplace (NPR et al., 2017). Thus, over half of the African Americans surveyed experienced discrimination with hiring, promotions, wages, and interacting with law enforcement, which is alarming because African American men have prodigious unemployment and incarceration rates compared to all other races in America (Carson, 2020; U.S. BLS, 2020a). Additionally, the previous two studies provided evidence that even if they are hired, African American men have diminished chances of promotion to leadership positions and equitable treatment, which motivated me to include another study regarding African American men and leadership.

Youngblood-Bey (2014) conducted a study regarding African American men and discrimination in leadership positions. This study sought to discover the discrimination and inequities associated with how African American males view their work environment and upward mobility to leadership positions (Youngblood-Bey, 2014). The methodology of this study is qualitative and consisted of 10 African American men between the ages of 30 and 65 who were in or ascending to a leadership position, experienced events in a Caucasian American male-dominated hierarchy, and resided in a leadership position for at least a year or more (Youngblood-Bey, 2014). The results yielded that African American males' experienced eight themes, which are: (a) they felt undervalued; (b) resulting in anger, fear, and anxiety; (c) low self-esteem and depression; (d) loss of pride

in their accomplishments; (e) some felt as though they were engaged in unfair treatments steaming from discrimination; (f) distressful behaviors and frustrations; (g) inferiority and racism; and (h) mental strain and stress (Youngblood-Bey, 2014). The themes mentioned are a result of self-perceived notions of discrimination in the workplace; thus, this study provided guidance that African American men do not only experience discrimination for promotions, but they also have daunting experiences when they are in or ascending to leadership positions (Youngblood-Bey, 2014). The studies mentioned influenced me to research proposed solutions to the discriminatory issues mentioned, which is affirmative action.

Affirmative Action

Aka (2009) proposed that the term affirmative action was first conceptualized by an African American lawyer and appointee under President John F. Kennedy. Research regarding the origins and practices of affirmative action is typically associated with President John F. Kennedy and Executive Order 10925, which was initiated on March 6, 1961, and stipulated that government employers are required to practice fair and just treatment regardless of race, color, creed, or national origin (Urofsky, 2020). Additionally, on September 24, 1965, President Lyndon B. Johnston introduced Executive Order 11246 that replaced Executive Order 10925 and served as a commitment by the Federal Government to promote equal opportunity (Urofsky, 2020). Moreover, President Lyndon B. Johnston also provided Executive Order 11375 that amended Executive Order 11246 on October 13, 1967, which added sex as a protected category (Urofsky, 2020).

However, Urofsky (2020) argued that even though the word affirmative action was never used, the first forms of affirmative action were introduced after the Civil War during the Reconstruction era as a means to offer African Americans fair and equal opportunities. Urofsky (2020) proposed that the Civil Rights Act of 1866 provided newly freed African Americans with equal rights and the same citizenship as enjoyed by Caucasian American citizens and the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which declared that all citizens born in the United States have equal treatment under the law. Aka (2009) asserts that the Freedmen Bureau Act of 1865 was also a form of affirmative action for African Americans, with lasting legacies, such as Howard University. Contrary to the laws mentioned, these laws were not enforced properly; this influenced the need for additional protections for disadvantaged groups, which illustrates the need for the present form of affirmative action. Accordingly, Aka (2009) argued that affirmative action for African Americans is illustrated in two categories: the demand for equal opportunity from 1865 to 1965 and from 1965 to the present demanding that the results of equality are secured by preferential treatment.

Aka (2009), Katznelson (2005), and Urofsky (2020) all agreed that affirmative action was initially introduced as a range of policies used to counteract discrimination on the grounds of race, color, creed, or national origins for African Americans and was later modified to provide protection against discrimination for all disadvantaged groups in the facets of employment, education, and housing. Urofsky (2020) asserted that affirmative action consists of three different components; which are to remedy the past and present forms and practices of discrimination, bring about equality by recognizing race, sex, and

national origins in order to eliminate considerations of race, sex, and national origins that illustrates the significance of discriminatory experiences and offer fair opportunities of employment, and to signify the groups that are in the protected class. Thus, affirmative action attempts to determine who the protected groups are and remedy past racial and discriminatory transgressions by implementing policies to provide equal opportunities to all that have suffered discriminatory practices in the past to the present (Urofsky, 2020).

Accordingly, there are two different types of affirmative action, which are soft and hard affirmative action. Soft affirmative action refers to altering the candidate pool to create qualified options that will diversify a workforce or organization (C. Dubois, 2016). For example, the Rooney Rule in the NFL requires teams to interview at least one minority candidate for head coaching jobs, with no quota preference to hire a specific number of minority coaches; alternatively, hard affirmative action is considering quota goals of minorities during the hiring process (C. Dubois, 2016). Consequently, in respect to rectifying past transgressions of discrimination African Americans are in a different category from Hispanic Americans, Disabled Americans, or women that are not of African American descent because the history of chattel slavery and Jim Crow was African descent specific and exacerbated a legacy of systemic racism that still exists in a myriad of facets throughout America (C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Better, 2008; Kendi, 2016/2017; Rogers, 2010; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; Urofsky, 2020; Wytsma, 2017). Thus, hard affirmative action seems to be the best viable choice to equalize discrimination in employment; however, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 makes it illegal for organizations to implement hard affirmative action policies (C. Dubois, 2016).

There are mixed emotions regarding the need for affirmative action; Chief Court Justice Clarence Thomas, which is an objector to affirmative action, used it to get into Yale Law School and referred to that experience as embarrassing (Urofsky, 2020). Conversely, Chief Court Justice Sonia Sotomayor also used affirmative action to get into Yale Law School and referred to it as giving her an opportunity of a lifetime (Urofsky, 2020). Additionally, from The Reconstruction era to the present, the most resistance to affirmative action permeates from Caucasian Americans in some of the same manners espoused during the Reconstruction era, alleging that it is unfair to them; thus, most of the Caucasian American opponents to affirmative action support a system of colorblindness, which influenced a plethora of lawsuits (Urofsky, 2020). However, Urofsky (2020) proposed that Caucasian American women benefited from affirmative action more than any other racial or gender demographic; thus, affirmative action provided such a benefit to Caucasian American women that they scarcely require it anymore. Wingfield (2019) suggested that the dwindling support for affirmative action has created an inconclusive version of diversity and inclusion through affirmative action, such as diversity of opinion and thoughts; thus, allowing organizations to develop their version of affirmative action that rarely includes African American employees.

Furthermore, Wahba (2020) suggested that African Americans currently make up only 1% of CEOs for Fortune 500 companies, with a total of only 18 African Americans ever serving as CEO of a Fortune 500 company since 1999. S. Jones (2017) proposed that Caucasian American men make up 72% of corporate leadership positions at 16 Fortune 500 companies; thus, if African American men accounted for the majority of the CEO's

and corporate leadership positions at Fortune 500 companies, the Caucasian American opponents of affirmative action might welcome it as a means of achieving better employment opportunities. America (1995) asserted that African Americans make up 12% of the population, and their total income accounts for only 7.2%, which indicates an estimated 105-Billion-dollar gap of earnings that was a direct result of employment discrimination. Thus, regardless of how divergent individuals may feel about affirmative action or the methods in which it is implemented, there is undeniable evidence that there is a need to achieve employment equity by government implemented policies. The research regarding affirmative action influenced me to provide a study consistent with African American men and affirmative action.

M. A. Jones (1997) conducted a study regarding affirmative action and African American males in management positions. The crux of this study sought to ascertain the employment and management progress during the critical years of the implementation of affirmative action, which was from 1972 to 1992 (M. A. Jones, 1997). This study's methodology was quantitative and consisted of 1972 to 1992 United States Equal Employment Opportunity Commission annual reports and the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics data regarding African American male unemployment for the same time frame. The results of this study indicated that management and professional occupations for African Americans increased during the critical years of the implementation of affirmative action (M. A. Jones, 1997). Further research is recommended with the establishment of something similar to the Glass Ceiling Commission to investigate over a period of at least 5 years to analyze and monitor current trends in African American

males' unemployment (M. A. Jones, 1997). Accordingly, regardless of how some may feel about affirmative action, there is empirical evidence that it is effective. The literature regarding African American male unemployment suggested that a tradition of legal chattel slavery, Jim Crow laws, and further practices of systemic racism have had negative effects on their employment and labor force participation. Thus, in an effort to address and counteract the unemployment issues mentioned, this literature review will now discuss entrepreneurial self-efficacy.

Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Level

Elevated levels of individuals' entrepreneurial self-efficacy have the potential to indicate their personal belief that they are capable of starting and sustaining innovative businesses consistent with undertaking financial risk and providing a societal need (Chen et al., 1998; McGee et al., 2009). Hence, high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy have the potential of identifying prospective entrepreneurs that are able to successfully engage in various entrepreneurial activities. Thereupon, entrepreneurial self-efficacy level has been applied and tested in various studies on samples, ranging from management and technology, Urban (2012); health care, Odumosu (2014); diversity, Javadian et al. (2018); and education, Abaho et al. (2015), Chen et al. (1998), and Shahab et al. (2019). Accordingly, the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale has been tested in a myriad of studies to ensure its reliability, accuracy, and effectiveness (McGee et al., 2009; Urban, 2012). However, no studies currently exist that apply entrepreneurial self-efficacy level in relation to unemployment among African American males; thus, this study has the potential to broaden the application of entrepreneurial self-efficacy to a myriad of

empirical disciplines. Hence, a study is presented to illustrate the effectiveness of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level.

Chen et al. (1998) conducted a study to ascertain if possessing high levels of entrepreneur self-efficacy equates to the possibility of individuals becoming entrepreneurs. Hence, this version of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale consisted of five dimensions, which are management, risk-taking, innovation, finance, and marketing. The study's methodology is quantitative and consisted of two groups of an unspecified number of participants that were students and business executives (Chen et al. 1998). The results of the students' analyses indicated that entrepreneur self-efficacy levels differentiated entrepreneurial students from management and organizational psychology students, and entrepreneurial self-efficacy level was positively associated with students from all three disciplines intent to become entrepreneurs (Chen et al., 1998). The second study tested entrepreneurial self-efficacy level and the locus of control among founding and non-founding executives of a business, with the results yielding entrepreneurial self-efficacy levels being significant and the locus of control not significant (Chen et al., 1998). Furthermore, this study illustrated that the founding members of the organization possessed higher levels of the innovation and risk-taking dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale (Chen et al., 1997). Therefore, the research regarding entrepreneurial self-efficacy provides guidance that it has the ability to ascertain and predict individuals' ability to become entrepreneurs; thus, African American males that display behavioral traits consistent with possessing high levels of entrepreneurial self-

efficacy have a greater chance of becoming successful entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurial self-efficacy level and historic African American entrepreneurship are discussed next.

Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Level and Historic African American Entrepreneurship

The term entrepreneur first emerged in a French dictionary in 1723 and derived from the prefix entreprendre, which denotes to undertake (Kiremli, 2017; Makhbul & Hasun, 2011); thus, an entrepreneur undertakes the commencement of organizing, managing, and developing new business ventures with societal needed innovative designs typically beginning with little to nothing (Kiremli, 2017; Rogers, 2010). Historically, African Americans have demonstrated high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, which is the belief that they possess the skills needed to engage in tasks that are explicit to entrepreneurship (McGee et al., 2009). Walker (2009) proposed that West and West Central Africans that were forcibly brought to Colonial America as slaves diligently engaged in elaborate methodical entrepreneurial activities, which included traders, brokers, producers, and merchants. Additionally, powerful African businessmen sold some Africans into slavery to representatives of European cartels (J. E. K. Walker, 2009). Therefore, Africans possessed high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy as they engaged in business ownership prior to the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade and well before their arrival to Colonial America in 1619 as indentured servants and subsequently slaves (Ballout, 2009; Blockston, 1994; Herskovits, 1958/2017). Additionally, after they arrived in 1621, just 2 years after the first Africans arrived in America, the first documented African American entrepreneur termed Anthony Johnson arrived from England with five

servants and used the headright system; which provided fifty acres of land in exchange for individuals that were brought to the British colony of Jamestown Virginia (Bennett, 2018; Rogers, 2010). Bennett (2018) and Rogers (2010) both agreed that Anthony Johnson's entrepreneurial acumen assisted in the development of one of the first African American communities; thus, he displayed characteristics consistent with possessing high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy as he had the confidence that he was able to accomplish such an entrepreneurial achievement in that era (Ballout, 2009).

Additionally, the noted entrepreneurial efforts of free African Americans shortly after the American Revolutionary War illustrated African Americans' high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, which enabled them to engage in activities, such as trading, selling, and building (Chen et al., 1998; McGee et al., 2009); with the purpose of counteracting the harsh conditions inflicted on them during the era of chattel slavery and severe racial oppression (Blockson, 1994; Robinson, 2000; Rogers, 2010; J. E. K. Walker, 1986, 2009). J. E. K. Walker (1983/1995, 2009) proposed that a slave termed Free Frank McWorter earned enough money to purchase his freedom and the freedom of 16 family members and established the town New Philadelphia, Illinois, in 1836, deeming him the first African American to establish a town in the United States. This type of entrepreneurial spirit placing opportunities over risk while being held in bondage during a time of extreme racial oppression exhibits the notion that African Americans possess high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy (Chen et al., 1998; Urban, 2012).

Furthermore, in 1788 African Americans also created opportunities for themselves during a time of scarce employment opportunities by coastal trading, which

allowed them to achieve financial success and purchase land (Bolster, 1997/1998). Thus, the historical overview of African Americans' entrepreneurial efforts empirically delineates that they possessed characteristics consistent with high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy and engaged in entrepreneurial activities prior to their arrival to America and during chattel slavery. Additionally, African Americans also possessed high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy and engaged in meaningful facets of entrepreneurship after slavery.

As suggested above, African Americans possessed high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy as they owned businesses that existed during slavery and following the civil war. The Reconstruction era provided African Americans with the legal foundation to start and build businesses; thus, by the 1890s and early 20th Century, African Americans had successfully developed thousands of businesses, with the most noteworthy of them being barbershops, funeral parlors, beauty salons, restaurants, insurance companies, and record companies (Rogers, 2010; J. E. K. Walker, 2009). This period of entrepreneurial growth for African Americans influenced a myriad of empirical scholarship from Washington (1907/2017) and W. E. B. DuBois (1903/1993) that espoused economic independence through the development of businesses. Washington (1907/2017) urged African Americans to practice self-reliance on economic enterprises, whether than relying on minimum paying wages and the government to implement laws. Accordingly, from 1898 to 1930, African American-owned businesses surged from 1,900 to 70,000, which was largely due to Booker T. Washington starting the National Negro Business

League in 1900 (M. Anderson, 2012/2013; Rogers, 2010). The suggestion mentioned denotes the high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy that African Americans possessed.

Conversely, W. E. B. DuBois (1903/1993) agreed that African American-owned businesses were essential to their economic growth; however, he also proposed that African Americans should influence the changing of the laws in America as well. Thus, Dr. W. E. B. Dubois was one of the founding members of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People in 1909, which is a civil rights organization that was established to aid the integral justice and advancement of African Americans (W. E. B. DuBois, 1903/1993; Rogers, 2010). The suggestion mentioned illustrates that regardless of the levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy that African Americans possessed, they would not be the entrepreneurs that they were prescribed to be unless the discriminatory laws were changed. Rogers (2010) suggested that Booker T. Washington's and Dr. W. E. B. Dubois's ideologies were based on extreme forms of segregation during this era that specifically applied to African Americans and no other racial-ethnic group, thus, limiting their chances of competing in an open market. This illustrates Dr. W. E. B. Dubois's motivation for attempting to change the laws as well; however, both proposals for African Americans had positive and negative effects regarding their efforts of achieving economic independence through entrepreneurship and economic empowerment.

The literature provided additional guidance that other African Americans of this era also displayed attributes associated with high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Rogers (2010) suggested that scholars proscribed alternate solutions for the entrepreneurial economic condition of African Americans, such as Richard Allen, an

African American born into slavery, proposed that Christianity and the church should be used as a catalyst for African Americans to achieve financial prosperity; furthermore, Martin Delany implied that the American government could not assist African Americans and insisted that they relocate to Central America, South America, and Africa. Blight (2018), Rogers (2010), and Walker (2009) all agreed that Frederick Douglas developed the North Star, which was a publication based on anti-slavery and actively sought integral freedom for African Americans and women.

Moreover, Marcus Garvey practiced Pan-Africanism and founded the Universal Negro Improvement Association in 1914, which influenced African American unity and is the largest Pan-African organization to ever exist (M. Anderson, 2012/2013; Rogers, 2020). Comparatively, Marcus Garvey admired Booker T. Washington's entrepreneurial economic strategies for African Americans; one of the African American business strategies was referred to as double duty dollar, which was coined by Gordon Blaine Hancock and referred to African Americans not spending their money with Caucasian American businesses that would not employ them in contrast to those that would (M. Anderson, 2012/2013; Carter, 2002; Gavin, 1974; Washington, 1907/2017). However, Marcus Garvey also proposed more of a group-based entrepreneurial strategy that involved collective profit sharing that was ardently embraced by millions of African Americans (Carter, 2002). Accordingly, the initiatives of Marcus Garvey establishing elaborate businesses and the largest movement of its kind also inspired and encouraged collective entrepreneurial business practices for African Americans to support and patronize African American-owned businesses (M. Anderson, 2012/2013; Carter, 2002;

Garvey, 2020). The assertions mentioned denote that Marcus Garvey had high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy as networking is one of the key components of entrepreneurial self-efficacy (Ballout, 2009; McGee et al., 2009; Urban, 2012). The literature mentioned assisted in producing African American entrepreneurial icons of this era that exhibited factors related to high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy.

Rogers (2010) proposed that the noteworthy achievements of African American entrepreneurs are often overlooked; however, scholars have recognized the preeminent achievements of African American entrepreneurs, most notably during the legalized oppressive era of Jim Crow segregation. Accordingly, inspired by the work of Booker T. Washington, Arthur George Gaston opened a funeral business in 1923 to ensure the proper burial of African Americans and the Booker T. Washington insurance business in 1932, which included communications, real estate, and insurance (Jenkins & Hines, 2004; Rogers, 2010). Furthermore, in 1957 he started the Citizens Federal Savings Bank, and when he died in 1996, he was the richest African American man in America (Jenkins & Hines, 2004; Rogers, 2010). Additionally, Madame C. J. Walker initially developed and sold scalp conditioning to other African American women, which was used to moisturize and nourish hair; later, she also sold cosmetics (Bundles, 2001/2020; Rogers, 2010). Accordingly, she later coined her businesses as Walker Systems of Beauty and Walker Schools, providing thousands of African American women with employment opportunities making her the first American female self-made millionaire of any racial-ethnic group (Bundles, 2001/2020; Rogers, 2010).

Additionally, Maggie Lena Walker, was the first African American and female of any racial ethnicity to charter a financial institution and become a bank president in 1903 (Branch, 1997; Prieto & Phipps, 2019; Rogers, 2010); Alonzo Franklin Herndon was born into slavery and began as a barber and later developed one of the most extravagant African American life insurance businesses, which is the Atlanta Family Life Insurance Company (Merritt, 2002; Prieto & Phipps, 2019); Garret Morgan invented the traffic signal, smoke hood, which later became the gas mask, chemical hair straitening solutions, and started astounding businesses consisting of his hair care products (Cook, 2012); John Merrick was born into slavery and developed the highly successful and the largest of its time North Carolina Mutual Life Insurance Company (Andrews, 2010; Prieto & Phipps, 2019); Abraham Lincoln Lewis founded Afro-American Life Insurance Company and became Florida's first African American millionaire he also founded American Beach in Nassau County Florida, which was a beach specifically for African Americans due to them not being permitted on most beaches during Jim Crow racial segregation (Phelts, 1997); and Charles Clinton Spaulding managed North Carolina Mutual Life Insurance Company and the National Negro Bankers Association and in 1935 he assisted in the development of the Durham Committee on Negro Affairs (Prieto & Phipps, 2019). Thus, the literature provides explicit guidance that African Americans manifested high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy by establishing a multitude of iconic African American organizations in perilous times when America failed to recognize them as full citizens. The indication of African Americans' high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy and their

historic entrepreneurial success was not just subjected to individual achievements but also included community success as well.

The Greenwood District of Tulsa, Oklahoma, which is also termed Black Wallstreet and Little Africa, was located on Archer Street and Greenwood Avenue (R. Walker, 2010/2016). The entrepreneurial and economic success of African Americans in Tulsa, Oklahoma, may also be attributed to strenuous segregation laws; which forced African Americans to only spend their money in their community and the unearthing of oil in Tulsa, Oklahoma that attributed to a surge in their population (Rogers, 2010; R. Walker, 2010/2016). The African American population arrived in Tulsa, Oklahoma, in a myriad of manners that included migrating there to escape the more oppressive southern states, African American veterans migrated there from serving in World War I in 1918, and some African Americans received up to 100 acres of land because some of them arrived as the American Indians' slaves during the trail of tears (Rogers, 2010; R. Walker, 2010/2016) The migration mentioned consisted of America's forced displacement of the American Indians from their native southeastern United States to West of the Mississippi to Oklahoma in 1831 to 1838 (R. Walker, 2010/2016). Accordingly, settlements that were reached between the United States government and Native Americans required them to bequeath land in Oklahoma to their newly freed slaves (Rogers, 2010). Additionally, the racial oppression of this time coincidently promoted the economic success of African American owned businesses due to financial isolation, which garnered African Americans to only buy from each other; however, they

were allowed to sell goods and services to the Caucasian American community (Rogers, 2010; R. Walker, 2010/2016).

Accordingly, at its economic peak, this elaborate business district's population of African Americans' was 11,000 out of the total 98,874 (R. Walker, 2010/2016). The economic entrepreneurial success of this African American business district was extraordinary and included over 300 African American owned businesses consisting of various professional businesses and services that were essential to a striving community to include doctors, lawyers, dentists, real estate agents, chiropractors, blacksmith's, employment agencies, insurance companies, hotels, and opportunities to invest in Tulsa's lucrative oil market (Rogers, 2010; R. Walker, 2010/2016). Specifically, this business district included two movie theaters; one was designed to seat 700 customers, private airplanes, a hospital, two newspapers, which are the Oklahoma Sun and the Tulsa Star, two schools that taught its senior class a variety of subjects to include psychology, geometry, trigonometry, and physics, 41 meat markets, 30 restaurants, 15 surgeons, a public library, three fraternal lodges, which were Masonic, Knights of Pythias, and the Independent Order of the Odd Fellows, and 23 churches, one of which had a congregation of 950 people and cost 135,000 to construct (Rogers, 2010; R. Walker, 2010/2016).

The economic success of Tulsa, Oklahoma's Black Wall Street was so profound that a dollar circulated 36 to 100 times and took an estimated year before leaving the community; this type of economic prowess has not been duplicated by any other community in America (Ireland, 2020). Comparatively, a dollar in current African

American communities remains there for an estimated 15 minutes (Pasha, 2014; R. Walker, 2010/2016). Moreover, the economic success of Tulsa, Oklahoma's Black Wall Street, created six African American millionaires, some of which owned planes (Ireland, 2020; R. Walker, 2010/2016). This is phenomenal as none of these African Americans were the subject of inherited wealth; yet, through illustrating their characteristics related to high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, they created an independent sustainable economic community from inception (Ireland, 2020; McGee et al., 2009; R. Walker, 2010/2016). Additionally, this progressive affluent African American community contained extravagant brick homes with some of the best furniture, linens, and eating utensils of that era (R. Walker, 2010/2016).

Unfortunately, the entrepreneurial and economic success of Tulsa, Oklahoma's Black Wall Street created racial animosity and tension among the Caucasian American Community; which also included African American veterans returning from World War I ignoring Jim Crow laws and equivocating themselves as equal citizens to Caucasian Americans and Caucasian Americans being laid off from working in the oil business (Rogers, 2010). Dejectedly, on May 30, 1921, a Caucasian American woman named Sarah Page was working as an elevator operator and claimed that an African American man termed Dick Rowland had assaulted her in the elevator, with Sarah Page not pressing charges; however, a fabricated story began to circulate around town claiming that an African American man had raped a Caucasian American woman (Ireland, 2020; Rogers, 2010; R. Walker, 2010/2016). Consequently, in just under a day's time, the deadliest race riot in American history occurred with the entire town being burned with

eyewitness reports of airplanes comprising law enforcement personnel aboard dropping bombs on businesses, houses, and African Americans that attempted to escape the massacre in the Greenwood section of Tulsa, Oklahoma (Madigan, 2001/2003). The damage was so significant that 1,256 houses were burned and all of the businesses, schools, and churches were burned and looted, and up to 300 African Americans were killed, some as they attempted to leave the town (Ireland, 2020; Rogers, 2010; R. Walker, 2010/2016). C. Anderson (2001) suggested that the Tulsa, Oklahoma massacre killed roughly 600 African Americans. The massacre mentioned left the entire African American community in Tulsa, Oklahoma, homeless, and the government later declared martial law (Rogers, 2010).

A year later, in 1922, African Americans made an effort to retrieve the lost businesses but were only able to reestablish about 80 of them (Ireland, 2020). In reviewing the literature regarding Tulsa, Oklahoma's Greenwood District, I postulated that there is a relationship between the deadliest race riot in the history of the United States occurring to the most successful African American community in the history of the United States. In 2001 the Tulsa Oklahoma Race Riot Commission determined that Jim Crow laws, acts of racial violence, and instilling the notion that African Americans should stay in their perspective, racial places, which often refers to being second class citizens, were the direct causes for destroying the most economically successful community in the history of the United States (Rogers, 2010). Historically, African American males also displayed high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, which is presented next.

Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Level and Historic African American Male Entrepreneurship

Bennett (2018) and Rogers (2010) both agreed that Anthony Johnson was the first recorded African American entrepreneur in 1621 and is accredited for developing one of the first African American communities; thus, African American men have exhibited characteristics associated with high entrepreneurial self-efficacy levels and have a rich history regarding business ownership and innovation in America. Moreover, McGee et al. (2009) asserted that innovation is one of the key dimensions used to measure individuals' entrepreneurial self-efficacy levels. Lough (2015) also agreed that innovation is a central component of entrepreneurial success. Necessarily, Cross (2004) asserted that the early inventions of African American men had a profound impact on their entrepreneurial efforts and that freedom for African American males exemplified their entrepreneurial quintessence through their many innovative inventions. Dass (2020) articulated that legalized enslavement and other systemic racial oppression sometimes prohibited African Americans from patenting their inventions; thus, occasionally providing the innovative acknowledgment of personal intellectual property to Caucasian Americans.

Accordingly, due to slave laws, all innovative initiatives of African slaves were the property of their slave masters (Manos, 2009). Therefore, if enslaved African Americans invented a new tool or apparatus to assist with their labor, it was patented by Caucasian Americans, and they received the recognition, money, and entrepreneurial success for African Americans' inventions; since enslaved African Americans had no rights of receiving patents, which was also difficult once they were freed (Dass, 2020).

However, some African American men managed to persevere, illustrating their high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy and innovative spirit throughout the late 19th century to the present by patenting a myriad of inventions, some of which were sold for profit (Cross, 2004).

Manos (2009) stipulated that Thomas L. Jennings invented a dry-scouring procedure, which is now known as dry cleaning, and was the first African American male to receive a patent for his work. This was during the time of legalized chattel slavery in America; thus, his patent received criticism (Manos, 2009). However, Thomas L. Jennings was born a free man; therefore, he could legally patent his invention and profit from his dry-cleaning business (Manos, 2009). Dass (2020) asserted that inventor, botanist, scientist, and educator George Washington Carver was an African American male inventor and entrepreneur developing over 300 applications for the peanut; thus, assisting the country with his products, which developed alternative crop farming to counteract soil depletion. Additionally, Garret A. Morgan, an African American male, invented the smoke hood that later became the gas mask, which was not a successful business venture for him in the south because some southern Caucasian Americans refused to buy products from an African American; however, he also invented the automatic traffic light that sold for 40,000 to General Electric Company (Cook, 2012; Dass, 2020).

Furthermore, Elijah McCoy, an African American male, invented over 50 products that were made so well others would fail at attempting to duplicate his inventions; thus, prompting individuals to ask for the now universal term of authentic

merchandise, the real McCoy (Dass, 2020). Moreover, wide-reaching blood banks and blood plasmas were invented by Dr. Charles Drew, and Frederick McKinley Jones invented the refrigerated truck used to transport the blood; thus, two African American males are credited with saving innumerable lives. Accordingly, by way of innovations, African American men exposition high entrepreneurial self-efficacy levels, as further discussed in this literature review.

The information mentioned is superb because it provides the notion that African American men may provide more jobs and increase their income and net worth if they were able to own more businesses (Howard, 2019; A. Lee et al., n.d.). However, A. Austin (2016) proposed that during the Great Recession from 2007 to 2012, all racial and gender demographics displayed progress in their entrepreneurial efforts except for African American men. Additionally, during this same period, African American men had the lowest sales among males' businesses, with Caucasian American men possessing the highest sales (A. Austin, 2016). Comparatively, African American women have experienced a 42% growth in their business ownership and a 99% growth in their side entrepreneurship efforts; thus, identifying them as the only gender group to outpace their male counterparts of the same race with their entrepreneurial efforts (Hannon, 2018). The grim statistics mentioned require that African American males increase their entrepreneurial self-efficacy levels as empirical research suggested that they have the potential to illustrate behaviors consistent with high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy (Chen et al., 1998; Dass, 2020; Manos, 2009; McGee et al., 2009). Contemporary African

Americans' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level and their entrepreneurial efforts are presented next.

Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Level and Contemporary African American Entrepreneurship

As indicated in the previous literature, African Americans have illustrated aspects related to high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy (McGee et al., 2009); and a substantial and resilient history of individual and community efforts of developing organizations and building lucrative and economically sustainable communities (Rogers, 2010; R. Walker, 2010/2016). This is significant because an abundant composite of literature suggested that entrepreneurship is one of the only veracious approaches for African Americans to achieve economic parity with Caucasian Americans (C. Anderson, 2001; Howard, 2019; Rogers, 2010). Rock (2013) suggested that if one out of three lower-level businesses hired one person that the United States would experience a phenomenon of full employment. The suggestion mentioned is profound because an increase in African American entrepreneurship could potentially eradicate African Americans' unemployment issues.

As of 2017, there are over two million African American-owned companies, and 124,000 of them are employer firms, with 32% of them in the health care and social services professions (Thangavelu, 2020). The number of African American-owned businesses mentioned are the comprehensive results of consistent social changes throughout the 20th century to the present. Accordingly, the 20th century brought change and recognition for African American customers and the entrepreneurial market to

include Pepsi Cola presenting African Americans as responsible, confident citizens with the leadership of pioneering marketing executive Edward F. Boyd and a team of other African Americans; which is in stark contrast to organizations resulting to marketing the stereotypical Aunt Jemima and Uncle Bens depictions of African Americans (Capparell, 2007). Additionally, the first African American-owned McDonald's was developed in Chicago in 1968 (Martin, 2020). Furthermore, throughout the 20th century, modern smaller African American-owned businesses somewhat mirrored some of the African American businesses of the past, which are candy stores, barbershops, restaurants, and products arising from innovative ideas (Rogers, 2010).

Consequently, contemporary African Americans continue to demonstrate high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy by establishing record labels or being in the music business, and unlike the African Americans of the past, they were able to capitalize on the emergence of their cultural musical entertainment from the 20th century to the present. Some of the most prominent African American entrepreneurs that owned record labels and were able to economically galvanize the musical, cultural genres and create scores of opportunities for other African Americans are Berry Gordy (Motown), Russell Simons (Def Jam), Sean Combs (Bad Boy), and Percy Miller (No Limit; Harrington, 1997). Additionally, Reginald F. Lewis was the first African American to build a billion-dollar company (Lewis & Walker, 2005); and John H. Johnson developed Johnson Publishing and is regarded as one of the most prominent African American publishers of all time (Rogers, 2010). Moreover, other preeminent African Americans were also able to develop media brands based on name recognition, such as the first African American

female billionaire, Oprah Winfrey, and National Basketball Association legend and entrepreneur Earvin Johnson, Jr. Moreover, Black Entertainment Television founder Robert L. Johnson was the first African American billionaire in the United States, and Robert F. Smith co-founded Vista Equity Partners that employs over 65,000 people and, as of this writing, is the wealthiest African American in the United States with a net worth of 5.5 billion dollars (M. Miller, 2009; Thangavelu, 2020).

Moreover, the literature also indicated that African Americans' calamitous financial and employment situations delineate that entrepreneurship is more of a need than a necessity (Rogers, 2010). However, despite the illustration of some contemporary African Americans displaying high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, Fairlie and Robb (2010) estimated that one in 10 or 13 million Americans own businesses; yet, over the last 100 years, African Americans' entrepreneurship rates have declined. Moreover, African American businesses are not as successful as the businesses of other racial demographics to include diminutive sales, profits, payrolls, and workers, and they possess a higher chance of going out of business (Fairlie & Robb, 2010). Hence, African Americans must increase their entrepreneurial self-efficacy levels to ascertain the constructs of what is needed to sustain successful businesses, which is presented next.

Howard (2019) implies that there has been a slow and gradual resurgence of African American entrepreneurship since 1980. This is formidable because C. Anderson (2001), M. Anderson (2012/2013), Howard (2019), and Rogers (2010) all agreed that entrepreneurship is an essential ingredient for African Americans' economic success, which will also assist with the dismal unemployment situation of African Americans.

Thus, African Americans must attempt to develop businesses regardless of the potential of the business failing because the potential of future innovation, their high rates of unemployment, and their future net wealth depend on it (C. Anderson, 2001; Howard, 2019; Robb et al., 2020; Rogers, 2010).

Accordingly, empirical research indicated that African Americans must obtain high entrepreneurial self-efficacy levels to increase their engagement in business ownership. Kiremli (2017), Fairlie and Robb (2010), Fairlie et al. (2016), and Neck et al. (2020) articulated that there are a plethora of advantages for entrepreneurs to consider when deciding on whether or not they should own businesses; some of which are directly related to the economic ailments that affect the African American community. Some of the advantages of entrepreneurship for African Americans include, but are not limited to, obtaining sustainable and protracted wealth for future generations and family members, which will provide opportunities for equitable investments like houses and college educations (C. Anderson, 2001; Howard, 2019; A. Lee et al., n.d.; Rogers, 2009). Furthermore, entrepreneurship will also provide African Americans with a community platform to educate other African Americans on the importance of possessing high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy and become mentors to future African American entrepreneurs. The suggestion mentioned is crucial because Howard (2019) asserted that over 1 million jobs and 165 billion dollars in revenue could be accredited to the African American businesses that currently exist, with the median net worth of African Americans that own businesses being 12 times higher than African Americans that do not own businesses. However, even though African Americans continue to illustrate slow

progress in terms of their entrepreneurial growth, they still lag behind every other racial demographic in America, with Caucasian Americans owning 81% of all the businesses in America, Asian Americans owning 9.7% of all the businesses in America, Hispanic Americans owning 5.8% of all the businesses in America, and African Americans owning 3.5% of all the businesses in America (Hawkins, 2020).

Accordingly, African Americans high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy and integral entrepreneur efforts are the cornerstone of their labor force and have an influential effect on their employment status and their aggregate wealth (C. Anderson, 2001; Fairlie et al., 2016; Howard, 2019; A. Lee et al., n.d.); thus, business ownership has potential ramifications to increase or decrease the African American labor force participation rate (A. Austin, 2016). However, as demonstrated in the previous literature, African Americans trail every other racial demographic in business ownership. Entrepreneurial self-efficacy level and entrepreneurial education are discussed next.

Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Level and Entrepreneurial Education

Scholars contend that entrepreneurial education is necessary to increase the probability that individuals will engage in entrepreneurial activities (L. Lee et al., 2011; McGee et al., 2009; Shahab et al., 2019). L. Lee et al. (2011) and Liu et al. (2019) both agreed that entrepreneurial training regiments are the cornerstone to increasing individuals' entrepreneurial self-efficacy levels, which relate to developing new business ventures by increasing practical information regarding entrepreneurship. Liu et al. (2019), McGee et al. (2009), and Shahab et al. (2019), all posited that entrepreneurial self-efficacy levels are increased by entrepreneurial training and development. Singer (1997)

suggested that the implementation of entrepreneurial training programs among the unemployed is a superb manner of influencing small business development.

Ivy (2006) researched entrepreneurship and African American males' leadership, and Cross (2004) examined entrepreneurship and African American males' resilience; however, research explicitly exploring African American males' entrepreneur self-efficacy education is practically nonexistent. The lack of research regarding this topic illustrates further the gap in the literature concerning African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level and the notion that African Americans are intentionally miseducated in an effort to ensure that they remain in inferior economic, educational, and entrepreneurial capacities in America (C. Anderson, 2001; Baradaran, 2015/2018, 2017/2019; Burrell, 2010; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; R. Walker, 2010/2016; A. N. Wilson, 2020; Woodson, 1933/2018). Nevertheless, research is presented on how teaching methods also affect the comprehension of entrepreneurial self-efficacy.

Abaho et al. (2015) conducted a study regarding the teaching methods of entrepreneurial self-efficacy. The methodology was quantitative and consisted of 522 students from various universities. The findings indicated that a statistically significant positive relationship existed between entrepreneurial self-efficacy and class presentations, imaginary case studies, interacting with successful people, personal reading, and handout notes (Abaho et al., 2015). Additionally, significant positive correlations existed between the choice of teaching methods and teachers' experience. The researchers recommend further research be conducted on similar research that is applied to divergent areas of entrepreneurship (Abaho et al., 2015). Thus, this research

provides a roadmap to galvanize divergent teaching methods that may activate individuals' various levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Entrepreneurial self-efficacy level and psychological barriers are discussed next.

Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Level and Psychological Barriers

The literature provided guidance regarding the importance of entrepreneurial education and various teaching methods as critical components for individuals' entrepreneurial success. However, notwithstanding African American males' various efforts of acquiring entrepreneurial education to achieve high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, scholars have also articulated the psychology of how African American males are perceived regarding inferiority and other negative psychological barriers (C. Anderson, 2001; A. N. Wilson, 2020); which has the compacity to counteract their high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy regardless of their entrepreneurial education. Additionally, African Americans possess intergenerational psychological inappropriate behaviors consistent with post-traumatic slave syndrome (C. Anderson, 2001; Hicks, 2015; Leary, 2005; Robinson, 2001); which has the potential to neutralize African American males' high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy regardless of their entrepreneurial education considering that one of the key dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale is networking (McGee et al., 2009). Javadian et al. (2018) also suggested that social networks profoundly influence individuals' high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Rochester (2017) asserted that African Americans possess a net spending power of 1.2 trillion dollars, yet they only spend 2% of their money with African American-owned businesses.

Accordingly, the suggestions mentioned refers to African Americans' loss of social cohesiveness due to psychological constructs related to post-traumatic slave syndrome that has the potential to counterbalance their ability to love, respect, network with each other, and function as a cohesive social unit (Akbar, 1996; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; M. Anderson, 2012/2013; Ani, 1994; Burrell, 2010; Blackmon, 2008; Leary, 2005; Marable, 1983/2015; Robinson, 2001; D. M. Stewart, 2020; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001; A. N. Wilson, 1993, 2020; Zinn, 2005/2015); which is one of the central ingredients for successful entrepreneurs (C. Anderson, 2001; Howard, 2019; McGee et al., 2009; Rochester, 2017; Rogers, 2010; J. E. K. Walker, 2009; R. Walker, 2010/2016). Next, the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale is presented.

Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale

The Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale is a research survey questionnaire used to measure various levels of individuals' entrepreneurial self-efficacy, which was in response to a growing need to assess entrepreneurial abilities (McGee et al., 2009). Various versions of this research survey questionnaire have been researched for decades, with the initial version being developed by H. H. Stevenson et al. (1985). The H. H. Stevenson et al. (1985) version of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale included four measurements to assess individuals' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level that included marshaling, planning, searching, and implementing. This research survey questionnaire was later revised by Mueller and Goic (2003) and included the assessment of individuals' entrepreneurial tasks, which are conducted during the business development process.

Additionally, McGee et al. (2009) later revised the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale to the version of the research survey questionnaire that will be used in this study; hence, this refined version of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale was developed in accordance with the conjecture of the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory. The McGee et al. (2009) version of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale is a more refined measurement that consists of 19 items that are quantified via a 5-point Likert scale; ranging from 1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*). Additionally, the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale measures five dimensions that capture the business development process, which are innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance (McGee et al., 2009).

This research survey questionnaire was validated by its creators, and the results indicated that this version of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale is a more reliable measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level (McGee et al., 2009). Thus, this more refined version of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale included the venture creation process, which incorporated components that are divided into individual financial-related risks that identify the five dimensions, which are innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance (McGee et al., 2009). McGee et al. (2009) went from 75, 50, to 26 related entrepreneurial tasks using structural equation modeling; consequently, a unidimensional analysis of 303 feasible surveys produced the 19 items used in this version of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale (McGee et al., 2009; Sequeira, 2004).

Accordingly, McGee et al. (2009) tested all 19 questions via confirmatory factor analysis yielding a statistical significance of $p = .05$. Moreover, the Entrepreneurial Self-

Efficacy Scale indicated high internal consistency across all five of its dimensions that measure entrepreneurial self-efficacy level with Cronbach's alpha calculations of .84 for innovation, which consisted of three questions, .84 for marketing, which consisted of four questions, .80 for networking, which consisted of three questions, .91 for management, which consisted of six questions, and .84 for finance, which consisted of three questions (McGee et al., 2009). Furthermore, the Cronbach's alpha tests for the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale exhibited high internal consistency in several studies (McGee et al., 2009; Urban, 2012).

The Urban (2012) study consisted of an investigation between technology company owners and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. The impetus for this research was to add to the body of knowledge from the McGee et al. (2009) study regarding venture creation procedures. Accordingly, Urban (2012) measured business technology owners' levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy via the five dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale. The results of the multiple regression and correlation analyses yielded that business technology owners' entrepreneurial self-efficacy levels were statistically significantly related to the competitiveness of the organization except for the finance dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale. Furthermore, the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale indicated high internal consistency across all five of its dimensions that measure entrepreneurial self-efficacy level with Cronbach's alpha calculations of .77 for innovation, which consisted of three questions, .71 for marketing, which consisted of four questions, .65 for networking, which consisted of three questions, .81 for management, which consisted of six questions, and .88 for finance, which

consisted of three questions (Urban, 2012). The first dimension of the McGee et al. (2009) Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale is innovation.

Innovation

Neck et al. (2020) suggested that innovation and introducing new ideas to divergent markets is the cornerstone of entrepreneurship. Moreover, literature regarding esteemed African American inventors illustrated how innovation has an immense impact on becoming an entrepreneur by introducing new and innovative ideas by way of various inventions (Dass, 2020). Therefore, innovation is also a significant construct in the venture creation process as it allows new inventions to enter the market through innovation (Kickul et al., 2009; McGee et al., 2009). Thus, individuals are able to recognize an opportunity to discover, design, manufacture, and provide customers with essential products that are needed in various industries (McGee et al., 2009). Wei et al. (2020) suggested that innovation is the driving force for entrepreneurs, with the entrepreneur self-efficacy theory having a profound and positive impact on entrepreneurs' success. This is paramount information because this is one of the dimensions used to measure various levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level in the McGee et al. (2009) Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale. This dimension of the Entrepreneur Self-Efficacy Scale consisted of three questions that were validated as reliable, with Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from .77 to .84 (McGee et al., 2009; Urban, 2012).

Marketing

Neck et al. (2020) suggested that marketing is an essential component for entrepreneurship as it has the capacity to permit entrepreneurs to engage customers in a variety of manners regarding their products and services. Thus, the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory employs the use of marketing to ascertain individuals' entrepreneurial confidence because it is an essential function of conducting various entrepreneurial activities, which permits individuals to transform innovative ideas into an achievable plan (McGee et al., 2009). McGee et al. (2009) proposed that possessing proficiency in marketing is essential for entrepreneurs because it assists in establishing a price point for products and services that are newly introduced to the market. Moreover, marketing also allows entrepreneurs to approximate the effective design, customer demand, and marketing procedures; thus, marketing is essential for entrepreneurs and the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale (McGee et al., 2009). The marketing dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale consisted of four questions that were validated as reliable, with Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from .71 to .84 (McGee et al., 2009; Urban, 2012).

Networking

In respect to networking, it has been characterized as one of the most important aspects of entrepreneurship as it provides business contacts and prospective clients that possess the possibility to expand individuals' businesses (McGee et al., 2009; Neck et al., 2020). Therefore, entrepreneurs will be able to assimilate the necessary components needed to build their organizations, thus, revolutionizing an innovative idea into reality

(McGee et al., 2009). Hence, networking is an essential element for entrepreneurs and the Entrepreneur Self-Efficacy Scale because it allows knowledge regarding individuals' businesses to be reciprocated through various channels to effectively convince others of your business intentions through effective communication (McGee et al., 2009). The networking dimension of the Entrepreneur Self-Efficacy Scale consisted of three questions that were validated as reliable, with Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging between .65 to .80 (McGee et al., 2009; Urban, 2012).

Management

Management is paramount for entrepreneurs as it provides the business acumen needed to ensure that organizations are effective (Hatten, 2020). Thus, effective management has the potential to increase the success rate of the new business venture by ensuring the prominent dynamics of the organization are adhered to (Hatten, 2020). This includes ensuring that every aspect of the new business to include the financial constructs, is properly functioning. Thus, management is an essential element for entrepreneurs and the Entrepreneur Self-Efficacy Scale because it pertains to managing employees, training employees, hiring employees, inspiring employees, delegating culpability, and addressing all issues pertaining to the routine functions of employees within the business (McGee et al., 2009). The management dimension of the Entrepreneur Self-Efficacy Scale consisted of six questions that were validated as reliable, with Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from .81 to .91 (McGee et al., 2009; Urban, 2012).

Finance

Neck et al. (2020) suggested that finances are an essential component for entrepreneurship as a business depends on finances in a plethora of manners. McGee et al. (2009) suggested that finances are needed to start the business, maintain organized records of financial documents, interpret financial statements, and oversee the organization's assets. Thus, entrepreneurs must be confident in their abilities to comprehend a multitude of aspects related to a business's finances. Therefore, finance is an essential element for entrepreneurs and the Entrepreneur Self-Efficacy Scale because entrepreneurs are expected to be proficient in the area of responsibly disbursing, collecting, and accounting for pertinent financial aspects of the organization; thus, this dimension is crucial for the Entrepreneur Self-Efficacy Scale (McGee et al., 2009). This dimension of the Entrepreneur Self-Efficacy Scale consisted of three questions that were validated as reliable, with Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from .84 to .88 (McGee et al., 2009; Urban, 2012).

McGee et al. (2009) and Chen et al. (1998) both agreed that ascertaining entrepreneurial self-efficacy level is a definite measurement to ascertain individuals' endeavors to become entrepreneurs by identifying specific entrepreneurial strengths and weaknesses. Accordingly, the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale is the best measurement for African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy levels. Moreover, entrepreneurial self-efficacy can potentially identify individuals' probability of avoiding entrepreneurship; thus, providing a tool for prospective minorities that are perceived to lack the entrepreneurial self-efficacy level needed to become successful entrepreneurs

(Chen et al., 1997). Therefore, possessing high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy assures that individuals have the confidence to enthusiastically embark upon arduous tasks consistent with developing businesses without the postulation of avoiding developing perplexing business ventures (Chen et al., 1998).

Summary

Chapter 2 focused on the research related to a historic overview of unemployment among African American males and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Initially, the theoretical frameworks presented the critical race theory, institutional racism, and the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory as theoretical foundations to frame the study and support the literature related to unemployment among African American males and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level (Better, 2008; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Jane Elliott, 2016; Fairbanks, 2015; Haller, 1971/1995; McGee et al., 2009; Sussman, 2014). Next, the review of the literature provided extant empirical evidence relating to the historic manner in which African Americans were forcefully brought to America for the purpose of providing free labor to the newly discovered land (C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Araujo, 2017; Baptist, 2014; Kendi, 2016/2017; Wytsma, 2017). Furthermore, the well-chronicled courageous journey of African Americans' attempts at gaining economic prosperity, employment, entrepreneurship, and equal rights under the law was also presented (C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Araujo, 2017; Baptist, 2014; Chernow, 2017/2018; Kendi, 2017; Logan, 1957; Pager, 2003; Rogers, 2010; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001; J. E. K. Walker, 2009; Wytsma, 2017).

However, the existing literature illustrated the problematic resistance of some Caucasian Americans to perceive African Americans as full citizens that deserved the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness as articulated in the Declaration of Independence (C. Anderson, 1994; Kendi, 2016/2017; Logan, 1957; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001; Wytsma, 2017). Thus, African Americans were forced to fight for the rights to equitable education, equitable employment, equitable economic prosperity, and fair and equitable treatment under the law, which are significant social issues that they continue to fight for as of this writing (Alexander, 2010; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Asante-Muhammad et al., 2017; Baradaran, 2015/2018, 2017/2019; Engram, 2019; Ginsburg et al., 2018; Hanks et al., 2018; Jan, 2019; JEC, n.d.; Kendi, 2016/2017; A. Lee et al., n.d.; A. R. Muhammad, 2018; Pager, 2003; Patton, 2015; Rochester, 2017; Rothstein, 2017; Sewell, 2020; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2019a).

Moreover, this literature review addressed unemployment among African American males as they are the most unemployed racial and gender demographic in America (U.S. BLS, 2020a). Additionally, the factors associated with African American males' unemployment that included their age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, type of unemployment, and the measurement and the duration of unemployment, was researched in an attempt to ascertain why so many African American males are unemployed (Borie-Holtz et al., 2010; A. Nichols et al., 2013; U.S. BLS, 2015, 2020a, 2020c). Moreover, the research associated with African American male unemployment and income inequality, health impacts, the criminal justice system, and mass incarceration provided empirical evidence regarding the consequential

repercussions regarding the soaring rates of unemployment among African American males (Alexander, 2010; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Asante-Muhammad et al., 2017; Baradaran, 2015/2018, 2017/2019; Diette, 2018; Pharr et al., 2012; U.S. BLS, 2019a; Western, 2007). Furthermore, research regarding workplace discrimination and affirmative action provided empirical evidence to support the notion that African American males are still subjugated to inequitable working conditions with dismal government antidotes to counteract these critical social issues (A. Austin, 2015; Becker, 1957/1971; C. Dubois, 2016; M. A. Jones, 1997; Katznelson, 2005; Royster, 2003; T. M. Shapiro, 2017). Thus, empirical evidence suggested that elevated levels of unemployment among African American males is a crucial extensive social issue that must be addressed.

Additionally, a historic overview of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, African American entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which included their entrepreneurial endeavors, affluent African American business districts, and contemporary African American entrepreneurship, provided evidence that African Americans engaged in activities consistent with possessing high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy (Chen et al., 1997; McGee et al., 2009); as they were able to develop and sustain a myriad of lucrative businesses (Rogers, 2010; J. E. K. Walker, 1986, 2009; R. Walker, 2010/2016). However, the research provided guidance that regardless of African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy levels, they must continue to persevere to overcome racial, economic systemic oppression, miseducation, and psychological obstacles related to their entrepreneurial endeavors (C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Burrell, 2010; Hicks, 2015; Jan, 2019; Leary, 2005; A. Lee et al., n.d.;

Robinson, 2001; Rogers, 2010; A. N. Wilson, 1993, 2020; Woodson, 1933/2018). Additionally, the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale was presented to illustrate how entrepreneurial self-efficacy level is measured per its five dimensions termed innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance; thus, it is a reliable and validated research survey questionnaire (Chen et al., 1998; McGee et al., 2009; Urban, 2012; Wei et al., 2020).

Accordingly, the literature provided evidence that the history of institutional racial oppression and persistent contemporary systemic racism has exacerbated prodigious gaps in unemployment and entrepreneurship among African American males; thus, exhaustive investigations regarding unemployment among African American males and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level are warranted to counteract this significant social issue. Next, Chapter 3 will present the research method and design, instrumentation, data collection, validity, data analysis, and the protection and ethical assurances for human subjects. Subsequently, Chapter 4 will provide the results of the data analyses, and Chapter 5 will provide an interpretation of the findings, limitations of the study, implications for practice and positive social change, recommendations for future research, and conclusions.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

African Americans have consistently strived to eradicate the inequitable racial atrocities of the past in an effort to achieve civil, economic, and social justice advancements. However, empirical literature regarding African Americans' progress suggested that these efforts were inadequate in accomplishing economic, educational, employment, entrepreneurial, and criminal justice equity (Alexander, 2010; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Asante-Muhammad et al., 2017; Baradaran, 2015/2018, 2017/2019; Engram, 2019; Ginsburg et al., 2018; Hanks et al., 2018; Jan, 2019; JEC, n.d.; Kendi, 2016/2017; A. Lee et al., n.d.; A. R. Muhammad, 2018; Pager, 2003; Patton, 2015; Rochester, 2017; Rothstein, 2017; Sewell, 2020; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2019a). Consequently, a review of the literature provided evidence that previous stringent policies have exacerbated an immense unemployment gap among African American men that exceeds every other racial and gender demographic in America (C. Anderson, 1994; Bonilla-Silva et al., 2004; Couch & Fairlie, 2010; Hagler, 2015; JEC, n.d.; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2015, 2019a; V. Wilson, 2019).

Therefore, there is a need for research to determine the root of this significant social issue. Additionally, entrepreneurship is considered to be the cornerstone of economic growth and wealth-building prosperity (C. Anderson, 2001; M. Anderson, 2012/2013; Fairlie & Robb, 2016; A. Lee et al., n.d.; E. Turner, 2016); yet, African American men are lagging behind in respect to experiencing expedient growth in business ownership (A. Austin, 2016). Necessarily, research has attempted to study the

variables mentioned; however, none has sought to examine relationships and predictions between unemployment among African American males and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level (Cross, 2004; Cummings, 2019; Ferguson, 2012; Iman, 1995; Ivy, 2006).

The purpose of this quantitative nonexperimental correlational study was to ascertain any possible relationships and predictions that exist among African American males' unemployment and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Explicitly, this study has the ability to educate America regarding this significant social issue, which may motivate lawmakers to implement policies and social programs to improve unemployment among African American men and to provide them with knowledge regarding the importance of possessing high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Moreover, I desired to determine the basis of African American males' disproportionate times and duration of unemployment through gauging relationships that exist among their various levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Supplementary, I aspired to contribute to the existing literature concerning this consequential social issue. Moreover, the findings of this investigation have the capacity to assist African American males with the knowledge and confidence needed to counteract their formidable unemployment rates and encourage superlative levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, which will increase their entrepreneurial endeavors. Next, the research design and rationale are discussed.

Research Method and Design

Creswell and Creswell (2018) suggested that the research method articulates the procedure that is used to achieve the planned research strategy and the research design provides a method to dispense answers to the study's research questions. Accordingly,

the research questions and hypotheses, research method and rationale, design of the study, and the study's population and sample are presented in the research method and design.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

RQ1: Does African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, as measured by the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, predict the self-reported number of times they were unemployed?

$H_0$1: African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not predict their self-reported number of times they were unemployed.

H_a1: African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level predicts their self-reported number of times they were unemployed.

RQ2: Does African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, as measured by the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, predict their self-reported average duration of unemployment?

$H_0$2: African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not predict their self-reported average duration of unemployment.

H_a2: African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level predicts their self-reported average duration of unemployment.

RQ3: Does age and education level predict African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level as measured by the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale?

$H_0$3: Age and education level do not predict African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level.

H_a3: Age and education level predict African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level.

RQ4: Does age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predict African American males' self-reported number of times they were unemployed?

$H_0$4: Age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment do not predict African American males' self-reported number of times they were unemployed.

H_a4: Age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predicts African American males' self-reported number of times they were unemployed.

RQ5: Does age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predict African American males' self-reported average duration of unemployment?

$H_0$5: Age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment do not predict African American males' self-reported average duration of unemployment.

H_a5: Age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predicts African American males' self-reported average duration of unemployment.

Research Method and Rationale

Creswell and Creswell (2018) and Harkiolakis (2021) both agreed that the quantitative research method consists of analyses containing numerical calculations and figures regarding the study's central variables, which might derive from counts, ratings, scales, scores, and durations. Accordingly, this study's research method is the quantitative research method, which permitted me to use analyses consistent with a variety of numerical calculations, measurements, and calculations. Supplementary, this study employed the quantitative research method to numerically quantify mathematical measurements from the study's dependent and independent variables. Consequently, the quantitative method is the only method that could satiate this study's structure to ascertain the results of the analyses.

Comparatively, the qualitative method consists of unstructured data that are not numerical (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Furthermore, the qualitative method is used to ascertain the lived experiences of empathic persuasive comprehension that does not objectively analyze data with dependent and independent variables (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Thus, qualitative research effectively garners a deeper apprehension of participants' understanding and opinions regarding the problem being investigated. Hence, the qualitative research method was not appropriate for this study as it would not facilitate interpreting the configuration of the dependent and independent variables via numerical analyses. Additionally, the multi-method approach, which includes both quantitative and qualitative research methods, was not appropriate for this investigation (Creswell & Planto Clark, 2018). This is because this study employed a research survey

questionnaire that is capable of capturing sufficient analyses between unemployment among African American males and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level without the need to ascertain participants' perspectives and sediments.

The quantitative research method was the most appropriate method for this study because it can provide substantial analyses of quantitatively measured data consisting of how African American males' unemployment is related to their entrepreneur self-efficacy level. Additionally, the quantitative method enabled me to analyze my data by assisting me with establishing relationships between the variables that are investigated in this study. Justly, discerning predictive relationships between African American males' unemployment and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level can encourage genuine social change. Accordingly, this study's results contributed to the body of literature regarding unemployment among African American men and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, thus providing them with the education and confidence needed to counteract the consequential social issues investigated in this study. The design of the study is presented next.

Design of the Study

The research design is used to capture a range of procedures and methods that are employed in the assembling of specific variables that are measured in accordance with the research problem (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Harkiolakis, 2021). Therefore, the design of the study should indicate the classification of the study that is appropriate for the methods of data collection and statistical analysis procedures (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Necessarily, the design of the study is developed to establish a foundation that is

employed to determine elucidations to the research questions. Thus, I will explicitly articulate the intricate processes enacted to produce this study's design.

This quantitative nonexperimental correlational investigation was developed to ascertain the relationship between unemployment among African American males and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Hence, African American males self-reported their demographic information and their distinctive times and duration of unemployment (see Appendix A). Additionally, one research survey questionnaire was used in this study to establish the various levels of African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy (see Appendix B). Creswell and Creswell (2018) and Harkiolakis (2021) both suggested that using research survey questionnaires provides a unique opportunity for investigators to collect data in a timely and accurate manner. Moreover, this study was designed to determine diversified predictions of the data; thus, research survey questionnaires were adequate for this study as they are the most traditionally adopted (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Specifically, I engaged in a multi-step approach for achieving the objectives consistent with the design of this study. The procedural process consisted of ensuring that the study was feasible by actively participating in strenuous preparations that included interpreting the study's instrumentation and population (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Accordingly, I ensured that the research survey questionnaire was appropriate and available before gathering the sample from the population; next, I confirmed the process of managing the research survey questionnaires and analyzing the data (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The data analyzed in this study were retrieved from Amazon

Mechanical Turk, Survey Monkey Audience, LinkedIn via a link from SurveyMonkey®, and my professional network of African American men via email. The initial three data collection apparatuses mentioned are social media and cloud-based online data collection tools that assisted me with collecting and uploading the data to the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 27 (SPSS v27). Participants were initially presented with a letter inviting them to participate in the study (see Appendix C). Requisitely, participants that chose to participate in the study were presented with a consent form prior to being allowed to engage in this examination, which indicated that they agreed to the regulations prescribed in this study. A copy of the consent form is not included in this study to conceal identifying information; however, a copy of the consent form can be obtained by contacting Walden University's Internal Review Board (IRB). Moreover, participants' personal identifying information was not required; thus, all participants remained unidentified.

Population and Sample

Creswell and Creswell (2018) identified the population as the comprehensive characteristics of the populace that is examined; comparatively, the sample is the subset or a representative from the statistical population that is chosen to necessitate or represent the total population. Hence, African American men and women would represent the total population, and research studies should not intentionally leave a viable sample out of an investigation (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). However, research suggested that African American women are not as unemployed as African American men, and they have experienced a 42% increase in their entrepreneurial endeavors (AE, 2019; U.S. BLS,

2020a). Thus, the exclusion of African American women from this study was derived from the research, which depicts African American men as in more need of an investigation regarding their unemployment and entrepreneurial self-efficacy level (AE, 2019; U.S. BLS, 2020a).

Therefore, random, convenience, and snowball sampling techniques were used to achieve a sample consisting of African American males that are 18 and older. Potential participants were contacted via an invitation letter to participate in the study that was specifically tailored to address participants on various platforms, which included a link from SurveyMonkey® that was entered into Amazon Mechanical Turk, SurveyMonkey® Audience, published on LinkedIn, and emailed to my professional network of African American men inviting them to participate in the study (see Appendix C).

Amazon Mechanical Turk and SurveyMonkey® Audience randomly selected qualified applicants to participate in the study within a 10-day timeframe, at which time the survey expired. Hence, thousands of qualified participants were given an equal probability of randomly participating in the study. Amazon Mechanical Turk and SurveyMonkey® Audience are online data collection instruments used to administer research survey questionnaires to specific populations from multiple locations. Moreover, LinkedIn is a professional employment-orientated social media platform that the participation letter with the SurveyMonkey® research survey questionnaire link was published for prospective participants to complete and repost to other African American males, African American groups, and African American male groups. Correspondently, emails were sent to African American males in my professional network, and they were

then encouraged to send this research survey questionnaire to other African American men aged 18 and over that reside in the United States, with no specific affiliations or organizational qualifiers needed. Creswell and Creswell (2018) suggested that a research survey questionnaire's typical response rate is 5% to 30%; strategically, I chose these methods of gathering data to ensure that I amassed enough participants to participate in this study.

Additionally, I used G*Power 3.1 software to calculate the sample size needed for statistical power and sample size for an ordinal logistic regression statistical test with input and output parameters (Faul et al., 2009). Accordingly, the G*Power analysis was set to the z-test family, logistic regression, and the priori option were set to compute required sample size given α, power, and effect size (Faul et al., 2009). Furthermore, the prospective odds ratio was determined based on the most empirically conservative setting for the outcome proportions, which is 50%, because the greatest chance for error occurs at 50% (Faul et al., 2009). Therefore, tails were set to two, and the odds ratio was set to 1.4938272, the proportion of successful outcomes was set to .45, the alpha level was set to a significance of .05, which is the traditional level of significance used for social science research (Faul et al., 2009; Harkiolakis, 2021). Additionally, the power level was adjusted to .95 in an effort to minimize the possibility of Type II error (Faul et al., 2009); and R^2 was set to 0, the X distribution was set to normal, and the presumptive sample's characteristics was set to 0 and 1.

Consequently, the G*Power analyses indicated the need for a sample size of 347 participants. However, Abaho et al. (2015) conducted a quantitative study that consisted

of 522 participants and investigated relationships between entrepreneurial self-efficacy and over five categorical variables, which produced significant and reliable results. Accordingly, my quantitative nonexperimental correlational study investigates relationships between entrepreneurial self-efficacy and over five categorical variables; thus, my objective was to oversample in an effort to ensure that I achieve the number of participants needed to participate in this study and to guarantee that validity qualifications are adhered to. Therefore, a homogenous sample size of over 500 participants is appropriate for this study, which also accounts for a prospective percentage of missing data.

Furthermore, the statistical dynamics of this study were consistent with measuring the divergent number of times and duration of African American males' unemployment as well as their various levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy and how these constructs relate to their age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and type of unemployment. Thus, there were no specific criteria needed for African American males to participate in this study because my goal was to quantify various demographic characteristics related to their times and duration of unemployment and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Moreover, applicants that were qualified to participate in this study did not provide names or self-identifying criteria other than the number of times they were unemployed, their duration of unemployment, their age, their gender, their ethnicity, their education level, their marital status, their occupational industry, their type of unemployment, and their geographical location within the United States, which are all factors associated with African American males' unemployment (U.S. BLS, 2015,

2019a, 2019b, 2020a, 2020b, 2020c). Next, the instrumentation used to measure African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level and their demographic information is presented.

Instrumentation

Creswell and Creswell (2018) asserted that instrumentation is the procedure of establishing research instruments that are used to satisfactorily collect data via validated research survey questionnaires, demographic information surveys, observations, and interviews to address the topic of the investigation accurately. Consequently, this quantitative nonexperimental correlational study will present the validated research survey questionnaire termed the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale followed by a demographic information survey.

Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale

Instrumentation that is reliable and validated is commonly used in studies that require various methods of prediction in quantitative research (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Accordingly, entrepreneurial self-efficacy level was measured via the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, which is a research survey questionnaire (McGee et al., 2009; see Appendix B). Moreover, the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale was assessable to me at no charge, and Dr. McGee honored my request to use this research survey questionnaire (see Appendix D). Various versions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale were developed to assess and predict the likelihood that individuals will engage in entrepreneurial activities (Mueller & Goic, 2003; H. H. Stevenson et al., 1985). However, McGee et al. (2009) later developed a more refined instrument to measure

individuals' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which includes five dimensions that are consistent with entrepreneurial skills, termed innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance. Thus, this more refined version of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale offers a distinct and accurate measurement, which has a high probability of predicting entrepreneurial self-efficacy level (McGee et al., 2009).

The Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale is a 19-item research survey questionnaire that measures individuals' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level based on their responses to a 5-point Likert scale that ranges from 1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*). This research survey questionnaire is reliable as all 19 questions were tested via confirmatory factor analysis, which indicated a statistical significance of $p = .05$ (McGee et al., 2009). Correspondently, the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale is comprised of five dimensions that have been validated per Cronbach's alpha reliability statistics in multiple studies and are prime indicators of entrepreneurial success, which are: (a) opportunity orientated to develop new products or innovation, which consisted of three questions .77 to .84; (b) advertising campaigns that convert ideas into business plans or marketing, which consisted of four questions .71 to .84; (c) exchanging viable information and communicating business strategies to influence the vision of a business plan or networking, which consisted of three questions .65 to .80; (d) motivating employees, hiring, firing, and delegating tasks in the best interest of the organization or management, which consisted of six questions .81 to .91; and (e) organizing, interpreting, and maintaining financial assets or finance, which consisted of three questions .84 to .88 (McGee et al., 2009; Urban, 2012). Thus, the Entrepreneurial

Self-Efficacy Scale provided the best measurement of African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level.

Additionally, the demographic information that was collected is the times and duration that African American men were unemployed since the age of 18; the duration of unemployment denotes the average length of unemployment each time they were unemployed, which is measured in weeks via integers. Moreover, the demographic information survey also consisted of participants' age, which is measured from 18 and older via integers; gender is male; education levels are, less than a high school diploma, high school diploma, some college, bachelor's degree, master's degree, or professional or academic doctoral degree; marital status is married, widowed, divorced, or separated, or never married; occupational industries are condensed into three categories based on some of the highest percentages of employment among African American men, which are business and management (retail, government, and transportation), manufacturing (durable goods, nondurable goods, and construction), or education (healthcare and other services not listed); type of unemployment is voluntary, involuntary, e.g., termination or due to factors that were out of your control, or not applicable; and geographical location within the United States is Northeast, Southeast, Midwest, Southwest, or West, which has the potential to ensure quantitative rigor and produce reliable, focused, refined, and accurate results (see Appendix A; Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Harkiolakis, 2021; U.S. BLS, 2015, 2019a, 2019b, 2020a, 2020b, 2020c).

Accordingly, the computation of the analyses was conducted via SPSS v27 to initially ascertain descriptive statistics from the demographic data. Next, ordinal logistic

regression analyses were performed to ascertain relationships and predictions among African American males' times and duration of unemployment, age, education level, and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Furthermore, ordinal logistic regression analyses were also performed to ascertain relationships and predictions among African American males' times and duration of unemployment and their age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and type of unemployment.

Data Collection

Creswell and Creswell (2018) asserted that data collection procedures should involve a laborious process of detailing the organization of the data collection strategy. Therefore, I engaged in a multi-step process to ensure that the data collection plan was feasible and complied with all applicable ethical regulations. First, before I could proceed with any kind of data collection activities of any nature, I was required to receive permission to collect data from Walden University's IRB. Next, I ensured that all pertinent information from the research survey questionnaire termed the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale and my demographic information survey questions were accurate (see Appendices A and B), and then I proceeded to upload them to SurveyMonkey® to create a link to include in my participation letter, which was entered into Amazon Mechanical Turk and SurveyMonkey® Audience. The two data collection tools mentioned are remarkable because they refresh their participant panels on a regular basis to ensure accurately balanced responses, which provide superb quality control and prevent fraudulent and duplicate responses. Additionally, the participation letter inviting individuals to participate in the study, with the SurveyMonkey® link to access the

surveys, was also published on LinkedIn and emailed to prospective participants via my professional network of African American men (see Appendix C). Appropriately, qualified participants were greeted on Amazon Mechanical Turk, SurveyMonkey® Audience, LinkedIn, and via email with an invitation letter to participate in the study with the prospective SurveyMonkey® link to access the demographic information survey questions and the research survey questionnaire termed the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale (see Appendix C).

The participation letters were specifically tailored to address the data collection platform used to collect data; therefore, the participation letters inviting individuals to participate in the study for Amazon Mechanical Turk and SurveyMonkey® Audience were the same (see Appendix C). However, the participation letter inviting individuals to participate in the study for LinkedIn encouraged participants to repost the invitation letter and link to other African American males, African American groups, and African American male groups. Furthermore, the participation letter inviting individuals to participate in the study that was emailed to my professional network of African American men urged prospective participants to send the participation letter and link, via email, to other African American men that are over 18 years of age and resides in the United States, with no specific affiliations or organizational qualifiers needed. The demographic information contained in the survey is consistent with the factors related to African American males' unemployment, which are the number of times they were unemployed, their duration of unemployment, their age, their gender, their ethnicity, their education level, their marital status, their occupational industry, their type of unemployment, and

their geographical location within the United States (see Appendix A; U.S. BLS, 2015, 2019a, 2019b, 2020a, 2020b, 2020c).

Necessarily, before participants that chose to engage in the study were able to assess the surveys, they were presented with a consent form to participate in the study. Explicitly, data that was collected from Amazon Mechanical Turk and SurveyMonkey® Audience required distinctive assertions, which uniquely addressed their platforms' manner of compensating participants. However, the consent forms for LinkedIn and the emails that were sent to my professional network of African American men did not require specific compensation declarations; hence, the consent forms used for these platforms are the same. Appositely, participants were required to agree to the terms on their respective consent forms before they could access any of the questions on the demographic information survey or the research survey questionnaire termed the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale. Thus, if they did not agree to the terms listed on their consent form to participate in the study, SurveyMonkey® immediately exited them out of the survey and directed them to a thank you page. Additionally, as detailed in the consent forms to participate in the study, individuals' participation in the study is voluntary, and they could either complete the demographic information survey and the research survey questionnaire or stop at any time for any reason.

I continued to monitor the number of participants that completed the research survey questionnaires every seven days until over 500 surveys was completed. Furthermost, once the desired number of participants were obtained, I ended the survey

and uploaded my data from SurveyMonkey® to SPSS v27, and analyzed my data via the necessary quantitative statistical analyses.

Validity

Creswell & Creswell (2018) suggested that internal, external, construct, and statistical conclusion validity must be acknowledged to develop a durably designed study. Accordingly, threats to construct validity were minimized because of the reliability and validity of the published research survey questionnaire used in this study. However, attempts to minimize internal validity are recognized with the use of a self-report research survey questionnaire, which has the possibility for participants to answer survey questions in divergent manners that are not truthful. Thus, participants might have responded to certain research survey questions in a biased manner that presents themselves as something other than what is truthful and should be reported on the questionnaire.

Additionally, an essential threat to external validity was the use of multiple online data collection methods that restricted my ability to verify participants' identity; hence, not achieving a sample that is a true representation of the population (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). However, Amazon Mechanical Turk and SurveyMonkey® Audience provided me with internal controls to ensure participants' qualifications were met prior to being able to access the survey, such as individuals that reside in the United States, are African American, male, and are 18 years of age or older. Moreover, the identity of most LinkedIn professional profile pages can be verified via photographs and organizational associations, and I could verify the identity of individuals that were sent emails to

participate in the study. Furthermore, one of the data collection methods used in the study was the snowball approach; therefore, I could not verify the identities of individuals that received a forwarded invitation to participate in the examination.

However, my survey contained additional demographic information to disqualify individuals that could not participate in the study, such as “Female,” “African,” “Afro-Latino,” “Caucasian/White,” “Asian,” “Hispanic,” or “Other.” Hence, it is common for individuals to not pay close attention to the consent form to ascertain what the study is about and who can participate; thus, individuals who did not meet the qualifications to participate in the study may have attempted to participate and just skipped certain questions because there were no disqualifiers. Appropriately, SurveyMonkey® and Amazon Mechanical Turk have superb protocols in place to ensure the validity of their panel participants; however, the additional disqualifiers increased validity and ensured that only the intended participants completed the surveys. Thus, when an individual clicked on one of the disqualifiers and attempted to proceed to the next page, the survey abruptly ended, and they received a message thanking them for their interest in participating in the study. If any data of any kind was unintentionally collected from disqualified individuals, all of it was deleted upon locating them in SurveyMonkey® and filtering them through the disqualified surveys, and permanently deleting them.

Therefore, there is no reason to postulate that the sample received from the data collection does not represent the comprehensive population that was sought for this study. Additionally, the need to recruit data from a copious amount of African American men via the G*Power analyses justifies employing the sampling strategies mentioned.

Supplementary, the use of a larger than needed population via the G*Power calculations and the guidance of prior quantitative research that examined relationships between similar topics and the number of categorical variables has the possibility to provide a smaller margin of error, make the representatives of the sample more assessable, and produce results that are more generalizable (Abaho et al., 2015; Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Faul et al., 2009; Harkiolakis, 2021). Furthermore, internal validity was maximized by clear and concise alignment among all of the study's components to include the research problem, purpose of the study, and research questions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Data Analysis

Creswell and Creswell (2018) postulated that data analyses in quantitative research should organize, explain, describe, and justify the data that has been collected for the study. Therefore, after the data was collected, it was uploaded from SurveyMonkey® to SPSS v27 to begin the analyses of the data. Initially, the data was thoroughly screened to ensure that there were no missing values within all of the variables. Next, I computed the demographic information (see Appendix A) by utilizing descriptive analyses and contrasting the data with descriptive statistics, which provided me with the mean, median, mode, standard deviation, frequency, and crosstabs of the demographic characteristics. The descriptive analyses were recorded and illustrated via tables and figures. The next step is to analyze the data pertained in this study's five research questions.

RQ1**:** Does African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, as measured by the entrepreneurial self-efficacy scale, predict the self-reported number of times they were unemployed? To analyze Research Question 1, an ordinal logistic regression analysis was used. Therefore, a full likelihood ratio test to determine if the proportional odds assumption is met was performed (Hosmer et al., 2013). Additionally, ordinal logistic regression also requires a test for multicollinearity; thus, a linear regression of collinearity diagnostic statistics was performed (Hosmer et al., 2013). Following all tests of assumptions, the ordinal logistic regression analysis to determine if the independent variable, which is African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, predicted the dependent variable, which is the number of times that African American males were unemployed, was computed.

RQ2**:** Does African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, as measured by the entrepreneurial self-efficacy scale, predict their self-reported average duration of unemployment? To analyze Research Question 2, an ordinal logistic regression analysis was used. Therefore, a full likelihood ratio test to determine if the proportional odds assumption is met was performed (Hosmer et al., 2013). Moreover, ordinal logistic regression also requires a test for multicollinearity; thus, a linear regression of collinearity diagnostic statistics was performed (Hosmer et al., 2013). Following all tests of assumptions, the ordinal logistic regression analysis to determine if the independent variable, which is African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, predicted the dependent variable, which is the duration of unemployment among African American males, was computed.

RQ3**:** Does age and education level predict African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level as measured by the entrepreneurial self-efficacy scale? Research Question 3 contains two dependent variables; thus, to analyze Research Question 3, two separate ordinal logistic regression analyses were used. Therefore, a full likelihood ratio test to determine if the proportional odds assumption is met was performed for both analyses (Hosmer et al., 2013). Moreover, ordinal logistic regression also requires a test for multicollinearity; thus, a linear regression of collinearity diagnostic statistics was performed for both analyses (Hosmer et al., 2013). Following all tests of assumptions, the ordinal logistic regression analyses to determine if the dependent variables, which are African American males' age and education level, predicted the independent variable, which is African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, were computed.

RQ4**:** Does age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predict African American males' self-reported number of times they were unemployed? To analyze Research Question 4, an ordinal logistic regression analysis was used. Therefore, a full likelihood ratio test to determine if the proportional odds assumption is met was performed. However, this assumption was not met; thus, separate binominal logistic regressions were performed on separated cumulative dichotomous variables and the independent variables to overcome the violations of assumptions mentioned (Hosmer et al., 2013; Laerd Statistics [LS], 2015). Additionally, ordinal logistic regression also requires a test for multicollinearity (Hosmer et al., 2013); thus, a linear regression of collinearity diagnostic statistics was performed. Subsequently,

following all tests of assumptions, the ordinal logistic regression analysis to determine if the independent variables, which are African American males' age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and type of unemployment, predicted the dependent variable, which is the number of times that African American males were unemployed, was computed.

RQ5**:** Does age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predict African American males' self-reported average duration of unemployment? To analyze Research Question 5, an ordinal logistic regression analysis was used. Therefore, a full likelihood ratio test to determine if the proportional odds assumption is met was performed. However, this assumption was not met; thus, separate binominal logistic regressions were performed on separated cumulative dichotomous variables and the independent variables to overcome the violations of assumptions mentioned (Hosmer et al., 2013; LS, 2015). Furthermore, ordinal logistic regression also requires a test for multicollinearity (Hosmer et al., 2013); thus, a linear regression of collinearity diagnostic statistics was performed. Subsequently, following all tests of assumptions, the ordinal logistic regression analysis to determine if the independent variables, which are African American males' age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and type of unemployment, predicted the dependent variable, which is the duration of unemployment among African American males, was computed. Next, this study presents the manner in which human subjects were protected.

Protection of Human Subjects

The protection of human subjects per strict ethical conduct and assurances is a crucial aspect of any study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Therefore, no data collection activities occurred until IRB approval was obtained from Walden University's IRB department (IRB # 02–12–21–0742607). Additionally, I ensured that the invitation letter greeting participants and inviting them to participate in the study explicitly suggested that their prospective participation in this study is appreciated, and this research has the potential to assist with their comprehension of unemployment among African American men and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level (see Appendix C).

Moreover, all participants received a consent form to participate in the study. Furthermore, the consent forms used to collect data from all data collection platforms specifically stipulated that participation in this study is voluntary and that they can cancel their participation in the study at any time for any reason. Correspondently, the consent forms used to collect data from all data collection mediums specified that participants' identities are anonymous, thus, limiting any kind of liability to them, and upon publication of the study, all data will be stored via a password-protected device, and all data will be destroyed after 5 years. Accordingly, the risk to participants was minimum because of the anonymous nature of their participation and the extra strategies used for the protection of human subjects.

Summary

The information presented in Chapter 3 provided a clear and concise analysis regarding the research method beginning with the introduction that reiterated the purpose

of the study. The research method and design were established by first providing the research questions and hypotheses that were used to guide the research, which focuses on relationships and predictions between the times and duration of unemployment among African American men and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Additionally, the rationale for the utilization of the quantitative research method, as well as the quantitative nonexperimental correlational design, was also addressed. The population and sample were clearly defined and presented to include the reason for their inclusion and exclusion in this study. The five dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale used in this study to measure African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level included a thorough description of reliability and validity to articulate further its appropriateness for the use of this research survey questionnaire in this study. Furthermore, various threats to validity were addressed as well as assertions regarding the data analyses for all of this study's research questions via SPSS v27 software. Furthermost, the protection of human subjects was addressed per strict adherence to ensuring ethical compliance and assurance.

Next, Chapter 4 will provide comprehensive analyses of the data collected regarding relationships and predictions between unemployment among African American males and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Subsequently, Chapter 5 will provide an interpretation of the findings, limitations of the study, implications for practice and positive social change, recommendations for future research, and conclusions.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The contemporary situation regarding African Americans' opportunities for wealth procurement and economic equity is dismal, primarily for comprehensive disproportionate determinants that are specific to African Americans. Accordingly, this assertion is based on empirical research that suggested that African Americans are burdened with historic and extant systemic inequitable factors relating to economics, education, employment, entrepreneurship, and criminal justice (Alexander, 2010; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Asante-Muhammad et al., 2017; Baradaran, 2015/2018, 2017/2019; Engram, 2019; Ginsburg et al., 2018; Hanks et al., 2018; Jan, 2019; JEC, n.d.; Kendi, 2016/2017; A. Lee et al., n.d.; A. R. Muhammad, 2018; Pager, 2003; Patton, 2015; Rochester, 2017; Rothstein, 2017; Sewell, 2020; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2019a; U.S. EEOC, n.d.). Inevitably, the deplorable social issues mentioned have contributed to African American males possessing the highest levels of unemployment compared to all racial and gender demographics in America, which has exacerbated a vast unemployment gap (C. Anderson, 1994; Bonilla-Silva et al., 2004; Couch & Fairlie, 2010; Hagler, 2015; JEC, n.d.; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2015, 2019a; V. Wilson, 2019).

Consequently, the affirmations mentioned intensified the need to ascertain prospective solvents to the consequential social issues discussed in this study. Moreover, in regards to African American male unemployment and wealth inequality, entrepreneurship is the ideal catalyst to increase economic prosperity and wealth

attainment (C. Anderson, 2001; Fairlie & Robb, 2016; A. Lee et al., n.d.); however, A. Austin (2016) postulated that entrepreneurship among African American men is lagging behind. Previous research has examined similar variables, but none has succeeded in investigating relationships between unemployment among African American men and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level (Cross, 2004; Cummings, 2019; Ferguson, 2012; Iman, 1995; Ivy, 2006).

The purpose of this quantitative nonexperimental correlational study was to ascertain any possible relationships and predictions that exist among African American males' times and duration of unemployment and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Explicitly, this study has the capacity to educate America regarding this significant social issue, which may motivate lawmakers to implement policies and social programs to improve unemployment among African American men and to provide them with knowledge regarding the importance of possessing high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Moreover, I desired to determine the basis of African American males' disproportionate levels of unemployment through gauging relationships and predictions among various levels of their entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Supplementary, I aspired to contribute to the existing literature concerning this significant social issue. Moreover, the findings of this investigation have the ability to assist African American males with the knowledge and confidence needed to counteract their formidable levels of unemployment and encourage superlative proportions of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which will, hopefully, increase their entrepreneurial endeavors. Next, the organization of Chapter 4 is presented.

Chapter Organization

Creswell and Creswell (2018) suggested that the results section of the study should be well organized to provide clear and concise categories of analyses and computations of the data. Hence, this chapter began with the introduction and the purpose of the study. This chapter continues with the organization of Chapter 4, research questions and hypotheses, and data collection strategies to include the timeframe for the actual recruitment process and the response rate. Next, baseline demographics of the characteristics of this study's participants are included, followed by a description of any adverse events that might have occurred during the data collection. Subsequently, Chapter 4 presents descriptive statistics for all of the study's participants, Cronbach's alpha reliability statistics, an evaluation of all statistical assumptions, and analyses that provide in-depth answers to the examination's five research questions and five null and alternative hypotheses, which are followed by summaries for each research question. Last, any additional statistical test that I postulated was necessary for this study in accordance with the examination's hypotheses is presented, followed by a summary of Chapter 4. Next, the research questions and hypotheses are presented.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Creswell and Creswell (2018) implied that the results section of the study should provide comprehensive analyses of a study's findings according to the research questions and hypotheses. Therefore, for the objectives of this quantitative nonexperimental correlational investigation, five research questions, and five separate null and alternative hypotheses were employed to guide the research, which is provided next.

RQ1: Does African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, as measured by the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, predict the self-reported number of times they were unemployed?

$H_0$1: African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not predict their self-reported number of times they were unemployed.

H_a1: African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level predicts their self-reported number of times they were unemployed.

RQ2: Does African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, as measured by the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, predict their self-reported average duration of unemployment?

$H_0$2: African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not predict their self-reported average duration of unemployment.

H_a2: African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level predicts their self-reported average duration of unemployment.

RQ3: Does age and education level predict African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level as measured by the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale?

$H_0$3: Age and education level do not predict African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level.

H_a3: Age and education level predict African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level.

RQ4: Does age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predict African American males' self-reported number of times they were unemployed?

$H_0$4: Age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment do not predict African American males' self-reported number of times they were unemployed.

H_a4: Age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predicts African American males' self-reported number of times they were unemployed.

RQ5: Does age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predict African American males' self-reported average duration of unemployment?

$H_0$5: Age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment do not predict African American males' self-reported average duration of unemployment.

H_a5: Age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predicts African American males' self-reported average duration of unemployment.

Data Collection

Creswell and Creswell (2018) stipulated that the data collection process should consist of multiple approaches that are meticulous, exhaustive, and accurate to achieve a superlative sample population. Thus, in this construct of Chapter 4, I will delineate the

timeframe that I collected data along with any possible deviations from the data collection methods mentioned in Chapter 3. Next, participants' demographic information is provided, followed by the details for any adverse events that may have occurred during the data collection process. Subsequently, the results section will provide descriptive statistics and ordinal logistic regression analyses to report the findings via SPSS v27.

Timeframe and Actual Recruitment

I conducted data collection from February 15, 2021, to April 5, 2021. According to the G*Power analyses conducted in Chapter 3, a total of 347 participants were needed to conduct the ordinal logistic regression analyses to ascertain accurate and reliable results for this study (Faul et al., 2009). However, similar research regarding the same topic indicated that over 500 participants were successfully used to ascertain quantitative relationships with up to five categorical variables (Abaho et al., 2015). Therefore, to achieve this sample size quota, I employed SurveyMonkey® Audience to collect data from random African American males that were 18 years of age and over and currently resided in the United States. This data collection method enabled me to specifically target African American men aged 18 and older that currently reside in the United States to ensure region and age balancing; thus, I ensured that a balanced amount of data was collected. I also used Amazon Mechanical Turk, which also allowed me to target African American males that resided in the United States. Moreover, I employed LinkedIn and targeted African American male professional profiles, African American groups, and African American male groups with the participation letter and survey link, which encouraged potential participants to forward the study's participation letter and survey

link to other African American male professional profiles, African American groups, and African American male groups.

Subsequently, I sent emails containing the participation letter with the survey link to African American males that were 18 and over and currently resided in the United States. Specifically, the email invitation letters to participate in the study, which included the survey link, were sent randomly to my professional network of African American male colleagues. Furthermore, these prospective participants were encouraged to forward the participation letter to other African American males that are 18 years of age and over that reside in the United States; therefore, this data collection technique was effective in achieving a more diverse group of participants from all around the United States. Hence, I employed the random, convenience, and snowball sampling techniques, which are consistent with the data collection strategies previously articulated in Chapter 3.

Response Rate

Additionally, because of the sampling techniques used for data collection, it was difficult to ascertain the actual response rate since the multiple data collection methods mentioned did not allow me to ascertain exactly how many people received the invitation to participate in the study. Nevertheless, based on the number of people that were disqualified via SurveyMonkey Audience®, Amazon Mechanical Turk, LinkedIn, and the individuals that I emailed from my professional network of African American men, I estimate that a total of up to 3,000 individuals received the participation letter and survey link to participate in the study. I applied screening techniques to ensure that applicants met all of the qualifications and fully completed the survey by disqualifying and

excluding them if they did not explicitly self-identify as African American males and complete the survey in full. Subsequently, with up to 3,000 possible participants and the elimination of incomplete data and unusable surveys, the overall response rate was 19% (N = 558). Consequently, notwithstanding non-African American male respondents that were disqualified from taking the survey, the response rate mentioned is still consistent with empirical data, which suggested that African American males are less likely to complete surveys regarding unemployment compared to Caucasian Americans and older Americans of all demographics (Cai & Baker, 2021).

The first portion of data collection was initiated by participants completing the demographic questionnaire to discern participants' precise demographic information. Moreover, data were collected from participants via the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, which consisted of 19 items measured on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (very little), 2 (little), 3 (average), 4 (much), and 5 (very much), and five dimensions termed innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance that accurately measured African American males' various levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy. The initial information collected from participants was demographic data, which will be presented next.

Participant Demographics

The data collected from participants that chose to participate in this study were African American men aged 18 and older that resided in the United States. Additionally, participants' data were collected to ascertain their education level, marital status, which occupational industry they are presently or were employed in, type of unemployment, and

the region in the United States that they currently reside in. Appropriately, the participants of this investigation are a direct representative of the larger population that was needed for this study. Additionally, the demographic information is illustrated via tables and charts to provide a numerical and visual display of the data presented in this section, except for gender and ethnicity, which only has one category.

Gender

Table 1 displays participants' gender. Therefore, all individuals who were qualified to participate in this study were required to indicate that they were male; thus, 100% of the participants or $N = 558$ were males.

Table 1

Frequency Table for Participants' Gender

		F	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Male	558	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Total	558	100.0	100.0	

Age Category

Participants' age was collected separately as individual integers. However, Table 2 and Figure 4 articulate the frequency of how participants self-reported their age as age categories, which is indicative regarding some of the methods of how the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics categorizes individuals' age (U.S. BLS, 2020a). Accordingly, 121 (27.1%) indicated that they were 18–24, 130 (23.3%) indicated that they were 25–34, 96 (17.2%) indicated that they were 35–44, 102 (18.3%) indicated that they were 45–54, 68 (12.2%) indicated that they were 55–64, and 41 (7.3%) indicated that they were 65 and over. Thus, the age categories of African American male participants suggested that

the largest group of them self-reported to be between the ages of 25 and 34, which was 130 (23.3%).

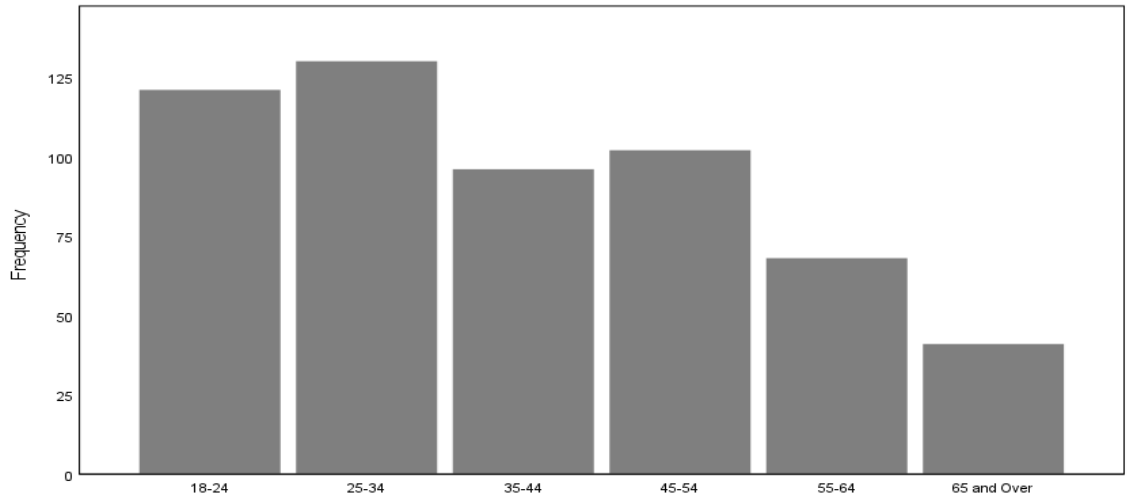
Table 2

Frequency Table for Participants' Age Category

		F	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	18–24	121	21.7	21.7	21.7
	25–34	130	23.3	23.3	45.0
	35–44	96	17.2	17.2	62.2
	45–54	102	18.3	18.3	80.5
	55–64	68	12.2	12.2	92.7
	65–Over	41	7.3	7.3	100.0
	Total	558	100.0	100.0	

Figure 4

Frequency Bar Chart for Participants' Age Category



Racial Ethnicity

Table 3 illustrates participants' racial ethnicity. Therefore, all individuals who were qualified to participate in this study were required to indicate that they were African American; thus, 100% of the participants or $N = 558$ were African Americans.

Table 3

Frequency Table for Participants' Racial Ethnicity

		F	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	African American	558	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Total	558	100.0	100.0	

Education Level

Table 4 and Figure 5 illustrates participants' education levels. Hence, 28 (5%) indicated that they had less than a high school diploma, 123 (22%) indicated that they possessed a high school diploma, 156 (28%) asserted that they had some college, 170 (30.5%) indicated that they possessed a bachelor's degree, 65 (11.6%) indicated that they possessed a master's degree, and 16 (2.9%) indicated that they held an academic or professional doctoral degree. Thus, demographic information provided regarding the educational level of African American males suggested that the largest percentage of them have at least a bachelor's degree, 170 (30.5%).

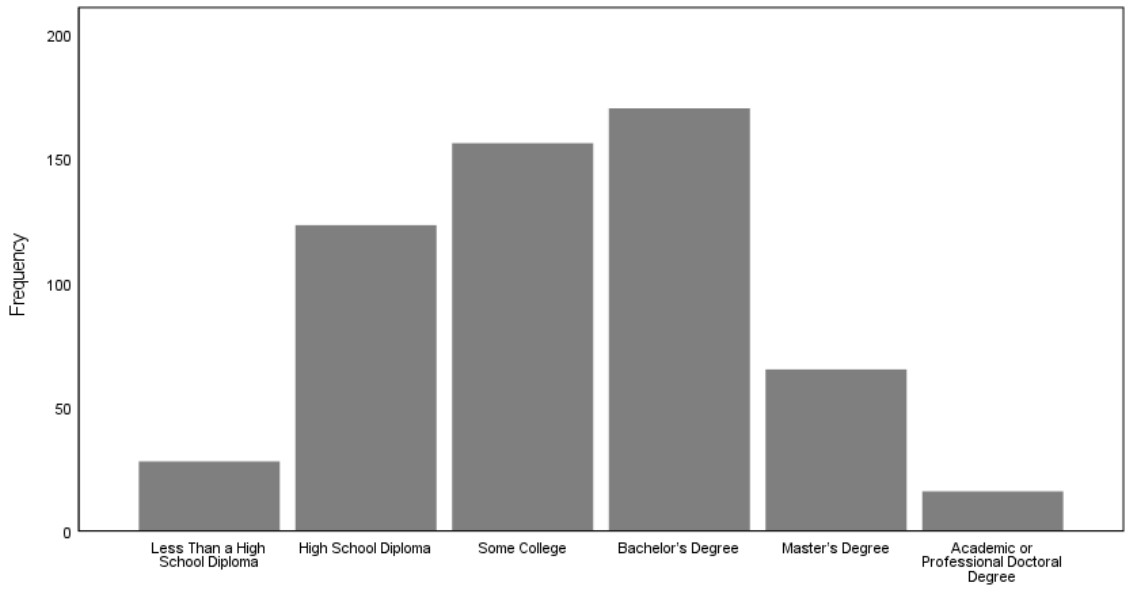
Table 4

Frequency Table for Participants' Education Level

		F	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Less than a high school diploma	28	5.0	5.0	5.0
	High school diploma	123	22.0	22.0	27.1
	Some college	156	28.0	28.0	55.0
	Bachelor's degree	170	30.5	30.5	85.5
	Master's degree	65	11.6	11.6	97.1
	Doctoral degree	16	2.9	2.9	100.0
Total		558	100.0	100.0	

Figure 5

Frequency Bar Chart for Participants' Education Level



Marital Status

Table 5 and Figure 6 represents participants' marital status. Thereby, 224 (40.1%) indicated that they were married, 93 (16.7%) indicated that they were widowed, divorced, or separated, and 241 (43.2%) indicated that they were never married; the highest percentage of African American males self-reported to have never been married. This sample population's demographics are accurate regarding the combined number of widowed, divorced, or separated and never married equating to over half of them not being married 334 (59.9%); which is indicative of the marriage rates for African American women with more than 70% of them unmarried (D. M. Stewart, 2020).

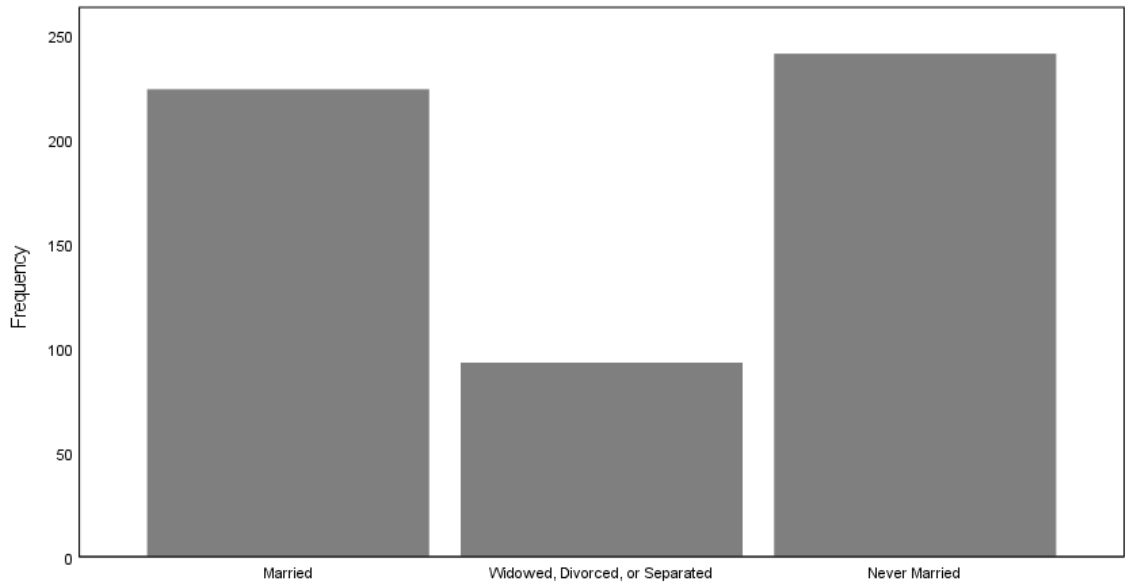
Table 5

Frequency Table for Participants' Marital Status

		F	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Married	224	40.1	40.1	40.1
	Widowed, divorced, or separated	93	16.7	16.7	56.8
	Never married	241	43.2	43.2	100.0
	Total	558	100.0	100.0	

Figure 6

Frequency Bar Chart for Participants' Marital Status



Occupational Industry

Table 6 and Figure 7 illustrates participants' past and or present occupational industries. The occupational industries were condensed according to African American males' highest reported level of employment as reported by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics (U.S. BLS, 2019a). Accordingly, 274 (49.1%) indicated that they worked

in business and management, which includes retail, government, and transportation, 147 (26.3%) indicated that they worked in manufacturing, which includes durable goods, nondurable goods, and construction, and 127 (24.6%) indicated to work in education, which includes health care and other services not listed. The demographic information provided regarding African American males' occupational industries suggested that most of them are or were in the past employed in business and management, retail, government, and transportation, which is consistent with some of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistic's highest reported employment statistics for African American males (U.S. BLS, 2019a).

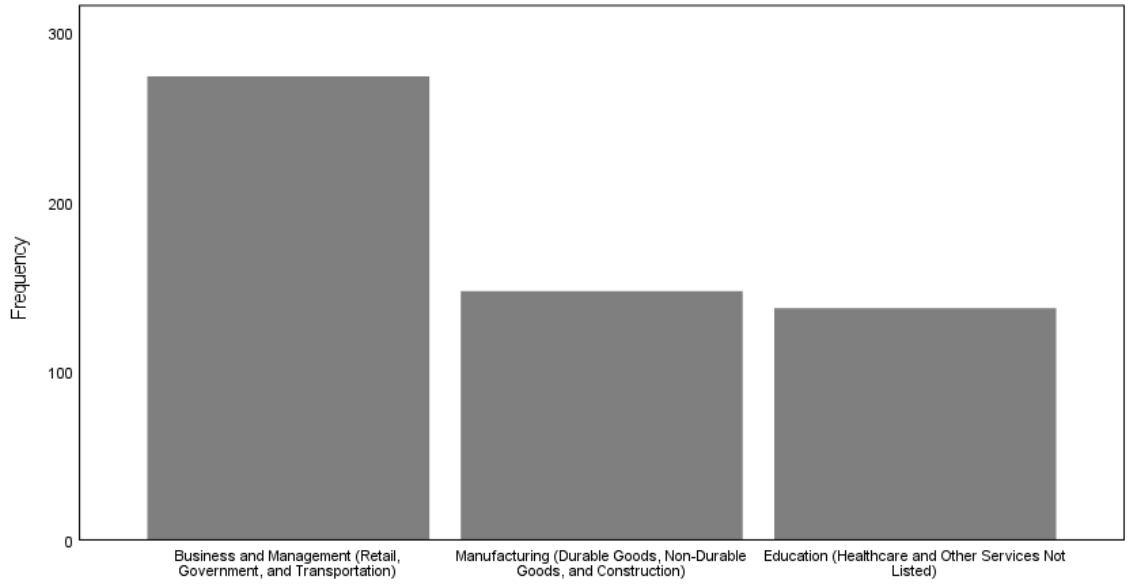
Table 6

Frequency Table for Participants' Occupational Industry

		F	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Business and management (retail, government, and transportation)	274	49.1	49.1	49.1
	Manufacturing (durable goods, nondurable goods, and construction)	147	26.3	26.3	75.4
	Education (healthcare and other services not listed)	137	24.6	24.6	100.0
Total		558	100.0	100.0	

Figure 7

Frequency Bar Chart of Participants' Occupational Industry



Type of Unemployment

Table 7 and Figure 8 illustrates participants' type of unemployment that was characterized as the most consistent type of unemployment each time they became unemployed, which is voluntary, involuntary, e.g., termination due to factors that were out of your control, or not applicable. Thus, 164 (29.4%) indicated that their most consistent type of unemployment was voluntary, 268 (48%) indicated that their most consistent type of unemployment was involuntary, and 126 (22.6%) indicated that this question was not applicable to them. This portion of the sample populations' data is also relevant to the larger population, with the majority of the sample 268 (48%) indicating that they were involuntarily unemployed. Accordingly, individuals that are involuntarily unemployed have a higher chance of not returning to the labor force for extended periods

of time due to job skill issues related to being less marketable; thus, increasing their chances of possessing a lower labor force participation rate (Brundage, 2020; T. M. Shapiro, 2017). Brundage (2020) suggested that African American men have the lowest labor force participation rate than all other races of men in America.

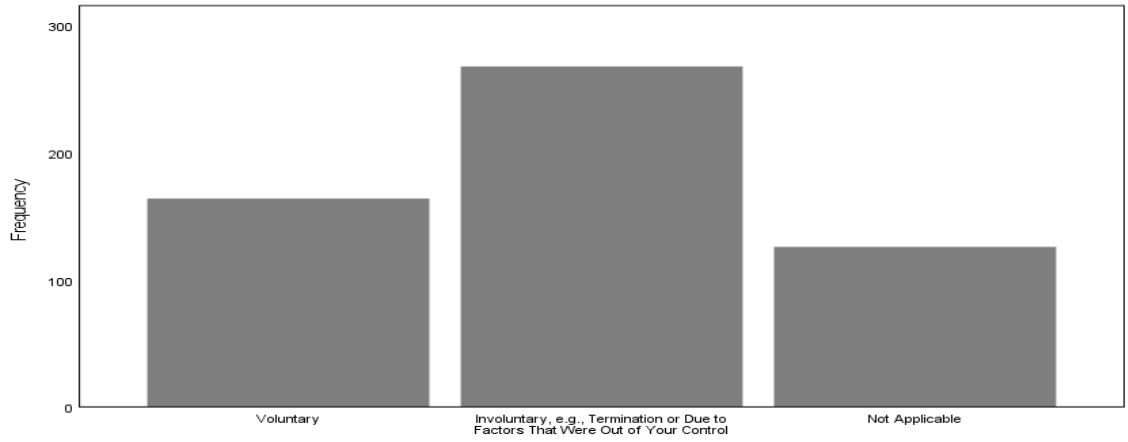
Table 7

Frequency Table for Participants' Type of Unemployment

		F	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Voluntary	164	29.4	29.4	29.4
	Involuntary, e.g., termination or due to factors out of your control	268	48.0	48.0	77.4
	Not applicable	126	22.6	22.6	100.0
	Total	558	100.0	100.0	

Figure 8

Frequency Bar Chart for Participants' Type of Unemployment



Regional Location in the United States

Table 8 and Figure 9 illustrates participants' geographical location within the United States. Accordingly, 139 (24.9%) indicated that they reside in the Northeast, 165

(29.6%) indicated that they reside in the Southeast, 110 (19.7%) indicated that they resided in the Midwest, 73 (13.1%) indicated that they live in the Southwest, and 71 (12.7%) indicated that they reside in the West.

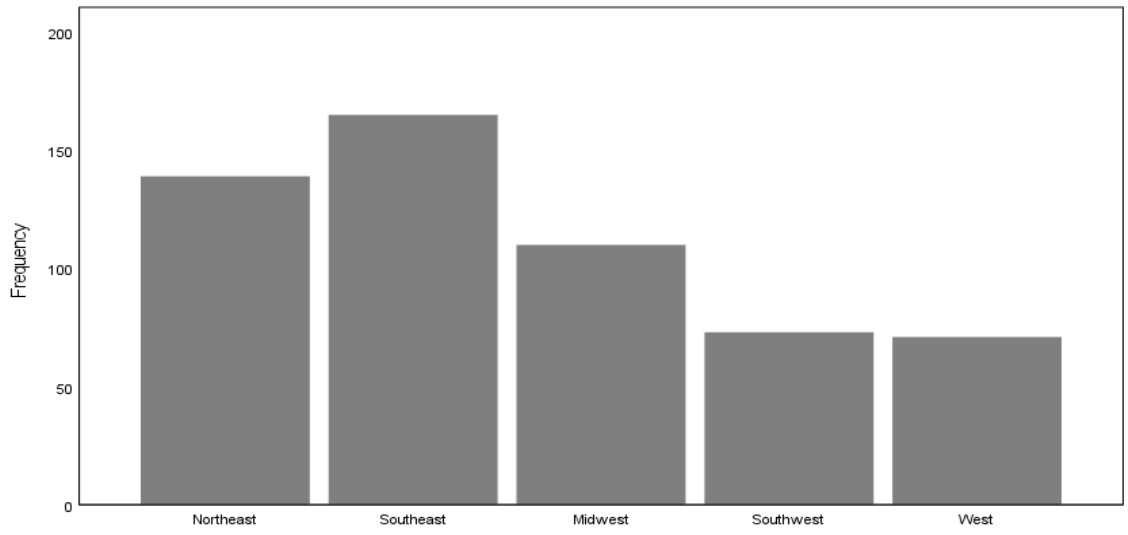
Table 8

Frequency Table for Participants' Regional Location Within the United States

		F	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Northeast	139	24.9	24.9	24.9
	Southeast	165	29.6	29.6	54.5
	Midwest	110	19.7	19.7	74.2
	Southwest	73	13.1	13.1	87.3
	West	71	12.7	12.7	100.0
	Total	558	100.0	100.0	

Figure 9

Frequency Bar Chart for Participants' Geographical Location Within the United States



Adverse Events

Adverse events are characterized as anything that may cause participants' to be placed at risk of physical or psychological harm (Creswell & Creswell, 2018); thus,

during data collection, none of my participants reported any cases of physical or psychological harm or distress. However, some participants commented on the last open-ended question on my survey regarding their appreciation for the study, their hope for meaningful change, and that they enjoyed taking the survey. Moreover, various participants thanked me for not making the survey too long, and several participants denoted their interest in receiving more information about entrepreneurship, opening businesses, and entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Subsequently, several participants wished me the best of luck regarding my research during my doctoral journey and beyond.

Descriptive Statistics

This portion of the data analyses section contains descriptive statistics for the dependent and independent variables for the research questions employed in this study, which explicitly pertains to the number of times unemployed, duration of unemployment, and the five dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale. Hence, descriptive statistics are provided to illustrate how $N = 558$ participants responded to the demographic information survey presented to them to ascertain the number of times they were unemployed since the age of 18 and their duration of unemployment, which also included a crosstabulation of their age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, type of unemployment, and geographical location. Furthermore, descriptive statistics are provided to denote how $N = 558$ participants responded to the research survey questionnaire termed the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale to discover their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which consisted of five dimensions termed innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance.

Number of Times Unemployed

The total number of times African American males indicated to be unemployed since the age of 18 was collected via separate integers and then categorized based on the lowest to highest times that they were unemployed, which is similar to how the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics computes unemployment rates in weeks from lowest to highest (U.S. BLS, 2019a). Therefore, 77 (13.8%) indicated that they were never unemployed, 236 (42.3%) indicated that they had been unemployed 1–2 times, 154 (27.6%) indicated that they were unemployed 3–5 times, 45 (8.1%) indicated that they were unemployed 6–9 times, 31 (5.6%) indicated that they were unemployed 10–19 times, and 15 (2.7%) indicated that they were unemployed over 20 times. This sample is denotative of the dejected and appalling condition of African American male unemployment, with only 77 (13.8%) reporting to have never been unemployed, 236 (42.3%) reporting to have been unemployment at some point, and 245 (44%), which is almost half of them indicating that they have been unemployed over 3–5 times thus far. The number of times unemployed is illustrated further in Table 9 and Figure 10.

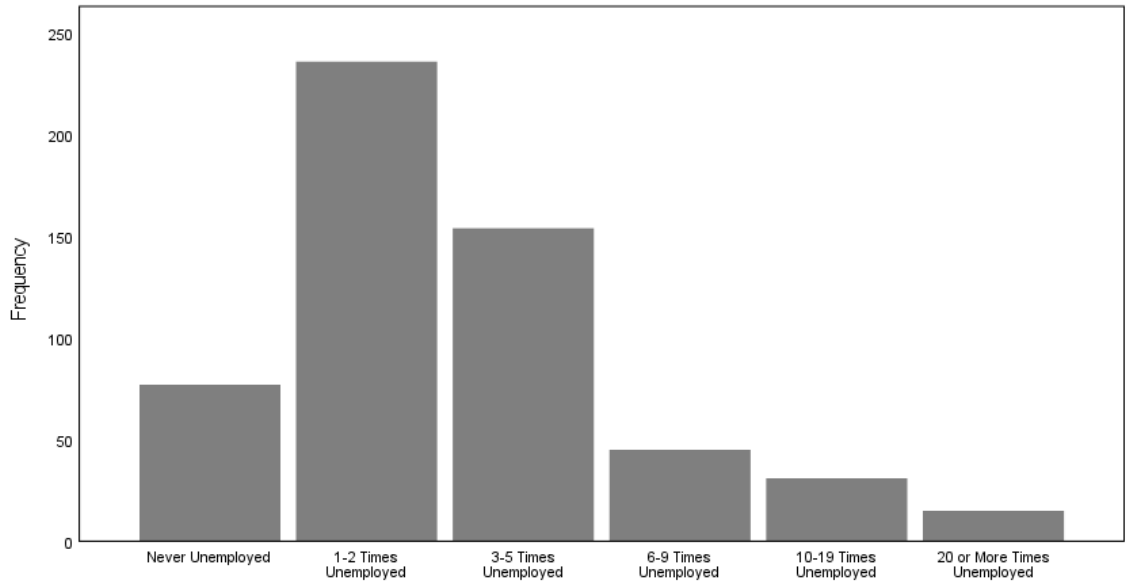
Table 9

Frequency Table for the Number of Times Participants Was Unemployed

		F	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Never unemployed	77	13.8	13.8	13.8
	1–2 times unemployed	236	42.3	42.3	56.1
	3–5 times unemployed	154	27.6	27.6	83.7
	6–9 times unemployed	45	8.1	8.1	91.8
	10–19 times unemployed	31	5.6	5.6	97.3
	20 or more times unemployed	15	2.7	2.7	100.0
Total		558	100.0	100.0	

Figure 10

Frequency Bar Chart for the Number of Times Participants Was Unemployed



Moreover, SPSS v27 was used to determine the mean value for the total number of times participants were unemployed since the age of 18. The mean value was (M = 1.6; SD = 1.2). Next, descriptive statistics are provided for the number of times unemployed and participants' age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, type of

unemployment, and geographical location following an illustration of Table 10 that displays the descriptive statistics for the number of times African American males were unemployed.

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics for the Number of Times Participants Were Unemployed

	N	*M*	*SD*
Number of times unemployed	558	1.6	1.2

Number of Times Unemployed and Age Category

African American males' ages were placed into categories via one of the manners that the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics categorizes them, which ranges from 18 to 24, 25 to 34, 35 to 44, 45 to 54, 55 to 64, or 65 and over. Moreover, the total number of times African American males indicated to be unemployed are categorized as 1–2 times, 3–5 times, 6–9 times, 10–19 times, and 20 times or more. Therefore, for African American men aged 18–24, 23 (29.9%) were never unemployed, 66 (28.0%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 22 (14.3%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 7 (15.6%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 3 (9.7%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 0 (0%) were unemployed 20 times or more. Furthermore, for African American men aged 25–34, 18 (23.4%) were never unemployed, 58 (24.6%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 33 (21.4%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 11 (24.4%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 8 (25.8%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 2 (13.3%) were unemployed 20 times or more. Correspondently, for African American men aged 35–44, 11 (14.3%) were never unemployed, 42 (17.8%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 25 (16.2%) were unemployed 3–5

times, 11 (24.4%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 4 (12.9%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 3 (20.0%) were unemployed 20 times or more. Moreover, for African American men aged 45–54, 10 (13%) were never unemployed, 41 (17.4%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 29 (18.8%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 10 (22.2%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 8 (25.8%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 4 (26.7%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Additionally, for African American men aged 55–64, 7 (9.1%) were never unemployed, 21 (8.9%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 27 (17.5%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 5 (11.1%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 5 (16.1%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 3 (20%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Subsequently, for African American men aged 65 and over, 8 (10.4%) were never unemployed, 8 (3.4%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 18 (11.7%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 1 (2.2%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 3 (9.7%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 3 (20.0%) were unemployed 20 times or more. Table 11 and Figure 11 illustrate further African American males' age category and the times they were unemployed.

Table 11

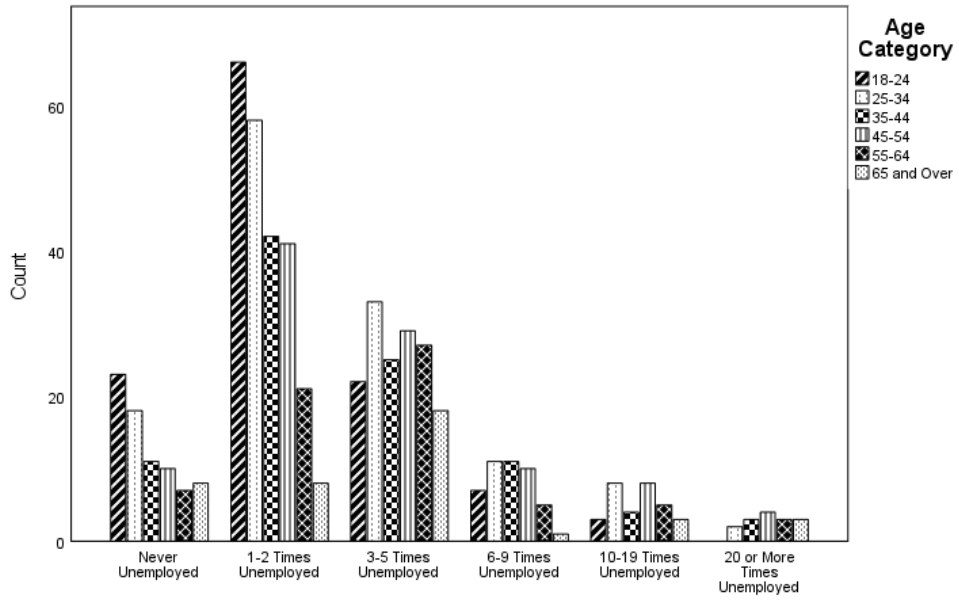
Descriptive Statistics Table for the Number of Times Participants Were Unemployed and Their Age Category

Number of times unemployed	18–24 %	25–34 %	35–44 %	45–54 %	55–64 %	65–Over %	Total %
Never unemployed	29.9	23.4	14.3	13.0	9.1	10.4	100
1–2 times unemployed	28.0	24.6	17.8	17.4	8.9	3.4	100
3–5 times unemployed	14.3	21.4	16.2	18.8	17.5	11.7	100
6–9 times unemployed	5.6	24.4	24.4	22.2	11.1	2.2	100
10–19 times unemployed	9.7	25.8	12.9	25.8	16.1	9.7	100
20 or more times unemployed	0.0	13.3	20.0	26.7	20.0	20.0	100
Total	21.7	23.3	17.2	18.3	12.2	7.3	100

Note. In an effort to increase generalizability, only the percentages that occur between participants' age category and their number of times unemployed are illustrated.

Figure 11

Descriptive Statistics Clustered Bar Chart for the Number of Times Participants Were Unemployed and Their Age Category



Number of Times Unemployed and Education Level

African American males' education levels range from less than a high school diploma, high school diploma, some college, bachelor's degree, master's degree, or academic or professional doctoral degree. Moreover, the total number of times African American males indicated to be unemployed was categorized as 1–2 times, 3–5 times, 6–9 times, 10–19 times, and 20 times or more. Accordingly, for African American males with less than a high school diploma, 4 (5.2%) were never unemployed, 11 (4.7%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 3 (1.9%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 6 (13.3%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 2 (6.5%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 2 (13.3%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Additionally, for African American males with a high

school diploma, 18 (23.4%) were never unemployed, 55 (23.3%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 31 (20.1%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 12 (26.7%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 3 (9.7%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 4 (26.7%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Moreover, for African American males with some college, 18 (23.4%) were never unemployed, 60 (25.4%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 53 (34.4%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 10 (22.2%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 13 (41.9%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 2 (13.3%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Correspondently, for African American males with a bachelor's degree, 24 (31.2%) were never unemployed, 71 (30.1%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 52 (33.8%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 9 (20.0%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 10 (32.3%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 4 (26.7%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Moreover, for African American males with a master's degree, 11 (14.3%) were never unemployed, 33 (14.0%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 11 (7.1%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 5 (11.1%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 3 (9.7%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 2 (13.3%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Subsequently, for African American males with an academic or professional doctoral degree, 2 (2.6%) were never unemployed, 6 (2.5%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 4 (2.6%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 3 (6.7%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 0 (0.0%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 1 (6.7%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Table 12 and Figure 12 illustrate further African American males' education level and the times they were unemployed.

Table 12

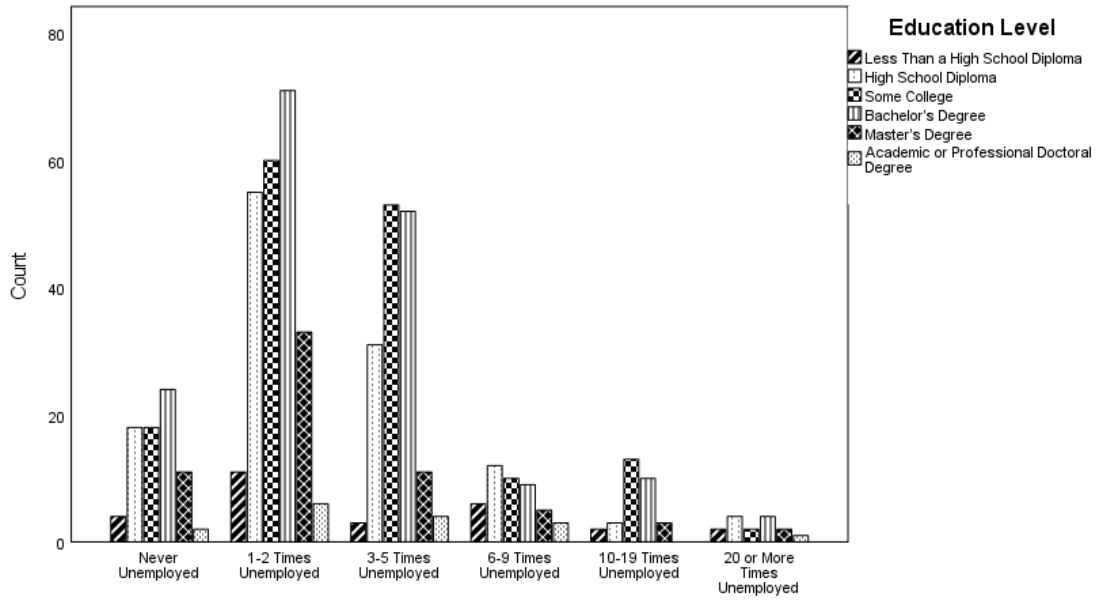
Descriptive Statistics Table for the Number of Times Participants Were Unemployed and Their Education Level

Number of times unemployed	No diploma %	High school diploma %	Some college %	Bachelor degree %	Master degree %	Doctor degree %	Total %
Never unemployed	5.2	23.4	23.4	31.2	14.3	2.6	100
1–2 times unemployed	4.7	23.3	25.4	30.1	14.0	2.5	100
3–5 times unemployed	1.9	20.1	34.4	33.8	7.1	2.6	100
6–9 times unemployed	13.3	26.7	22.2	20.0	11.1	6.7	100
10–19 times unemployed	6.5	9.7	41.9	32.3	9.7	0.0	100
20 or more times unemployed	13.3	26.7	13.3	26.7	13.3	6.7	100
Total	5.0	22.0	28.0	30.5	11.6	2.9	100

Note. In an effort to increase generalizability, only the percentages that occur between participants' education level and their number of times unemployed are illustrated. Additionally, in the interest of structure and clarity, Bachelor's degree, Master's degree, and Doctoral degree were shortened to abbreviations termed Bachelor degree, Master degree, and Doctor degree.

Figure 12

Descriptive Statistics Clustered Bar Chart for the Number of Times Participants Were Unemployed and Their Education Level



Number of Times Unemployed and Marital Status

African American males' marital status is categorized as married, widowed, divorced, or separated, or never married. Moreover, the total number of times African American males indicated to be unemployed was categorized as 1–2 times, 3–5 times, 6–9 times, 10–19 times, and 20 times or more. Accordingly, for African American males that were married, 28 (36.4%) were never unemployed, 91 (38.6%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 63 (40.9%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 16 (35.6%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 17 (54.8%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 9 (60.0%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Furthermore, for African American males that were widowed, divorced, or separated, 10 (13.0%) were never unemployed, 32 (13.6%) were unemployed 1–2 times,

34 (22.1%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 7 (15.6%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 7 (22.6%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 3 (20.0%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Subsequently, for African American males that were never married, 39 (50.6%) were never unemployed, 113 (47.9%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 57 (37.0%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 22 (48.9%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 7 (22.6%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 3 (20.0%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Table 13 and Figure 13 illustrate further African American males' marital status and the number of times they were unemployed.

Table 13

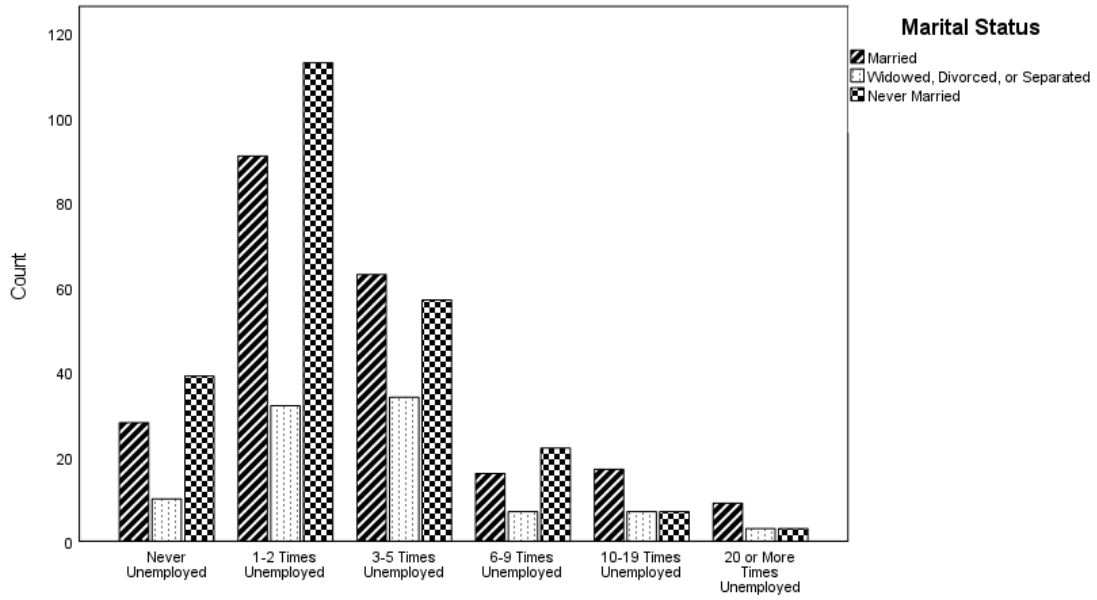
Descriptive Statistics Table for the Number of Times Participants Were Unemployed and Their Marital Status

Number of times unemployed	Married %	Widowed, divorced, or separated %	Never married %	Total %
Never unemployed	36.4	13.0	50.6	100
1–2 times unemployed	38.6	13.6	47.9	100
3–5 times unemployed	40.9	22.1	37.0	100
6–9 times unemployed	35.6	15.6	48.9	100
10–19 times unemployed	54.8	22.6	22.6	100
20 or more times unemployed	60.0	20.0	20.0	100
Total	40.1	16.7	43.2	100

Note. In an effort to increase generalizability, only the percentages that occur between participants' marital status and their number of times unemployed are illustrated

Figure 13

Descriptive Statistics Clustered Bar Chart for the Number of Times Participants Were Unemployed and Their Marital Status



Number of Times Unemployed and Occupational Industry

African American males' occupational industries are categorized as: (a) business and management, retail, government, and transportation; (b) manufacturing, durable goods, nondurable goods, and construction; or (c) education, health care, and other services not listed. Moreover, the total number of times African American males indicated to be unemployed was categorized as 1–2 times, 3–5 times, 6–9 times, 10–19 times, and 20 times or more. Accordingly, for African American males that were previously or presently employed in business and management, retail, government, and transportation, 42 (54.5%) were never unemployed, 120 (50.8%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 75 (48.7%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 19 (42.2%) were unemployed 6–9 times,

14 (45.2%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 4 (26.7%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Moreover, for African American males that were previously or presently employed in manufacturing durable goods, nondurable goods, and construction, 17 (22.1%) were never unemployed, 59 (25.0%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 41 (26.6%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 15 (33.3%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 8 (25.8%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 7 (46.7%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Additionally, for African American males that were previously or presently employed in education, health care, and other services not listed, 18 (23.4%) were never unemployed, 57 (24.2%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 38 (24.7%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 11 (24.4%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 9 (29.0%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 4 (26.7%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Table 14 and Figure 14 illustrate further African American males' occupational industry and the times they were unemployed.

Table 14

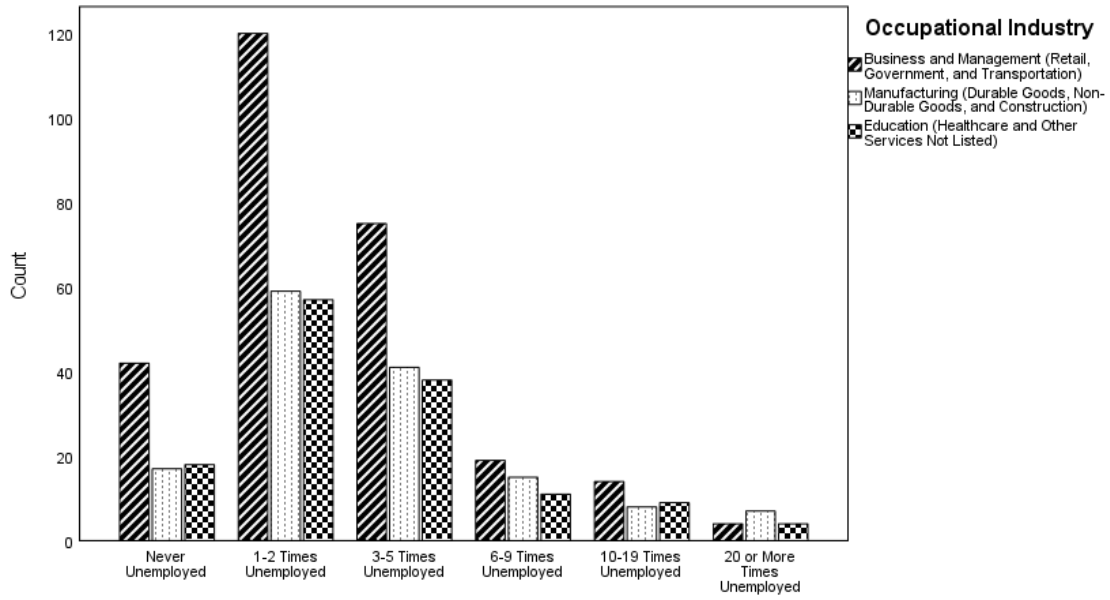
Descriptive Statistics Table for the Number of Times Participants Were Unemployed and Their Occupational Industry

Number of times unemployed	Business and management, retail, government, and transportation %	Manufacturing, durable goods, nondurable goods, and construction %	Education, healthcare, and other services not listed %	Total %
Never unemployed	54.5	22.1	23.4	100
1–2 times unemployed	50.8	25.0	24.2	100
3–5 times unemployed	48.7	26.6	24.7	100
6–9 times unemployed	42.2	33.3	24.4	100
10–19 times unemployed	45.2	25.8	29.0	100
20 or more times unemployed	26.7	46.7	26.7	100
Total	49.1	26.3	24.6	100

Note. In an effort to increase generalizability, only the percentages that occur between participants' occupational industry and their number of times unemployed are illustrated.

Figure 14

Descriptive Statistics Clustered Bar Chart for the Number of Times Participants Were Unemployed and Their Occupational Industry



Number of Times Unemployed and Type of Unemployment

African American males' types of unemployment are categorized as voluntary, involuntary, e.g., termination due to factors out of your control, or not applicable. Moreover, the total number of times African American males indicated to be unemployed was categorized as 1–2 times, 3–5 times, 6–9 times, 10–19 times, and 20 times or more. Accordingly, for African American males with voluntary unemployment status, 12 (15.6%) were never unemployed, 88 (37.3%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 41 (26.6%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 8 (17.8%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 8 (25.8%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 7 (46.7%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Additionally, for African American males with involuntary, e.g., termination or due to

factors out of their control unemployment status, 8 (10.4%) was never unemployed, 110 (46.6%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 99 (64.3%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 31 (68.9%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 16 (51.6%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 4 (26.7%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Moreover, for African American males with not applicable unemployment status, 57 (74.0%) were never unemployed, 38 (16.1%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 14 (9.1%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 6 (13.3%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 7 (22.6%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 4 (26.7%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Table 15 and Figure 15 illustrate further African American males' type of unemployment and the times they were unemployed.

Table 15

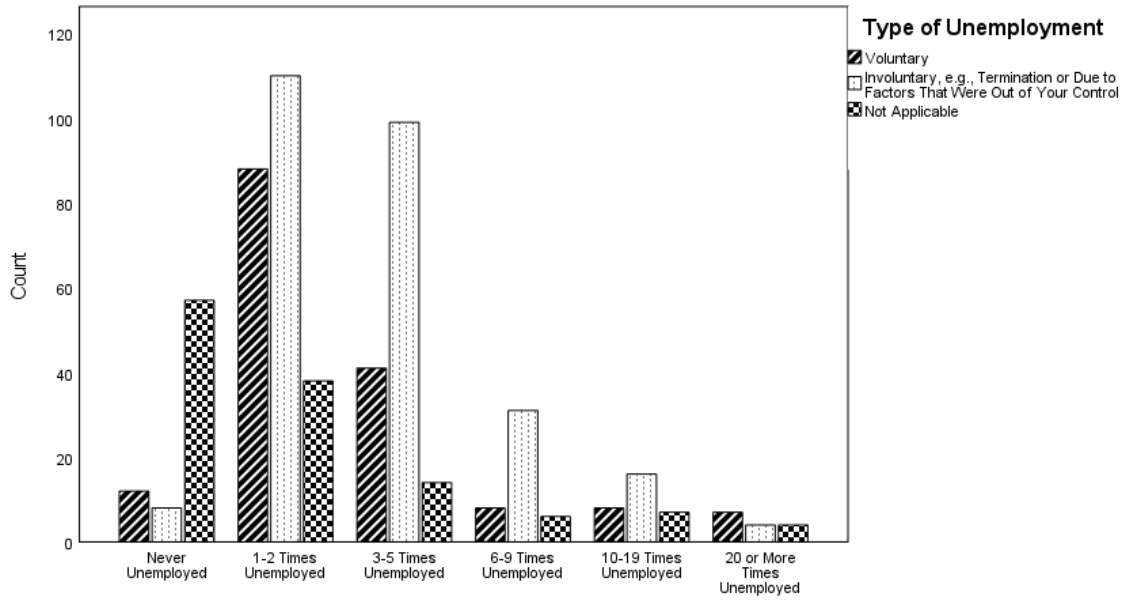
Descriptive Statistics Table for the Number of Times Participants Were Unemployed and Their Type of Unemployment

Number of times unemployed	Voluntary %	Involuntary, e.g., termination or due to factors that were out of your control %	Not applicable %	Total %
Never unemployed	15.6	10.4	74.0	100
1–2 times unemployed	37.3	46.6	16.1	100
3–5 times unemployed	26.6	64.3	9.1	100
6–9 times unemployed	17.8	68.9	13.3	100
10–19 times unemployed	25.8	51.6	22.6	100
20 or more times unemployed	46.7	26.7	26.7	100
Total	29.4	48.0	22.6	100

Note. In an effort to increase generalizability, only the percentages that occur between participants' type of unemployment and their number of times unemployed are illustrated.

Figure 15

Descriptive Statistics Clustered Bar Chart for the Number of Times Participants Were Unemployed and Their Type of Unemployment



Number of Times Unemployed and Geographical Region within the United States

African American males' geographical region within the United States was characterized as Northeast, Southeast, Midwest, Southwest, or West. Moreover, the total number of times African American males indicated to be unemployed was categorized as 1–2 times, 3–5 times, 6–9 times, 10–19 times, and 20 times or more. Accordingly, for African American males in the Northeast region of the United States, 15 (19.5%) were never unemployed, 71 (30.1%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 37 (24.0%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 7 (15.6%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 4 (12.9%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 5 (33.3%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Additionally, for African American males in the Southeast region of the United States, 27

(35.1%) were never unemployed, 66 (28.0%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 49 (31.8%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 12 (26.7%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 8 (25.8%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 3 (20.0%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Correspondently, for African American males in the Midwest region of the United States, 14 (18.2%) were never unemployed, 37 (15.7%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 38 (24.7%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 14 (31.1%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 3 (9.7%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 4 (26.7%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Furthermore, for African American males in the Southwest region of the United States, 11 (14.3%) were never unemployed, 29 (12.3%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 22 (14.3%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 4 (8.9%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 6 (19.4%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 1 (6.7%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Subsequently, for African American males in the West region of the United States, 10 (13.0%) were never unemployed, 33 (14.0%) were unemployed 1–2 times, 8 (5.2%) were unemployed 3–5 times, 8 (17.8%) were unemployed 6–9 times, 10 (32.3%) were unemployed 10–19 times, and 2 (13.3%) were unemployed 20 or more times. Table 16 and Figure 16 illustrate further African American males' geographical location and the times they were unemployed.

Table 16

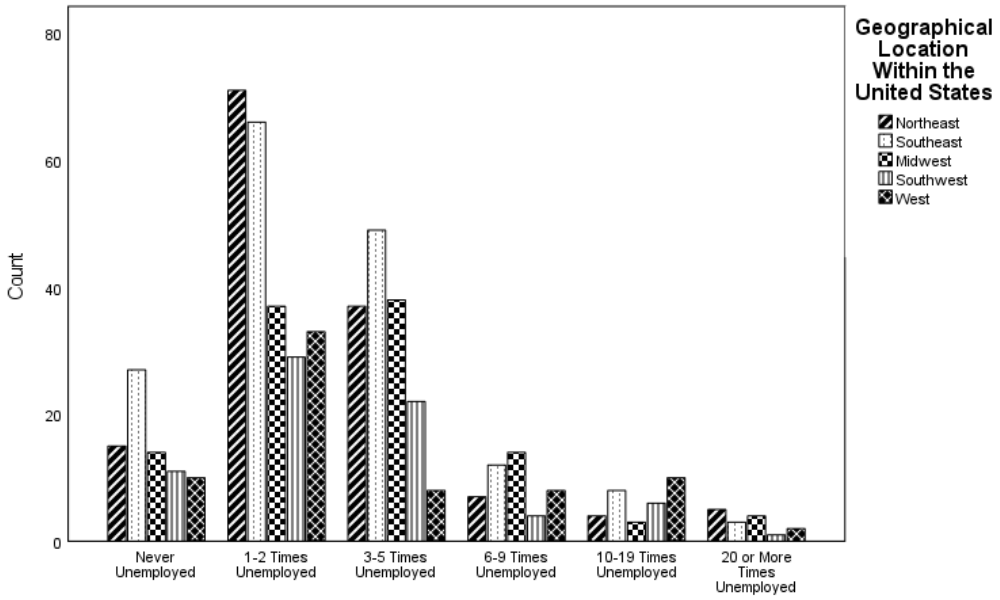
Descriptive Statistics Table for the Number of Times Participants Were Unemployed and Their Geographical Location Within the United States

Number of times unemployed	Northeast %	Southeast %	Midwest %	Southwest %	West %	Total %
Never unemployed	19.5	35.1	18.2	14.3	13.0	100
1–2 times unemployed	30.1	28.0	15.7	12.3	14.0	100
3–5 times unemployed	24.0	31.8	24.7	14.3	5.2	100
6–9 times unemployed	15.6	26.7	31.1	8.9	17.8	100
10–19 times unemployed	12.9	25.8	9.7	19.4	32.3	100
20 or more times unemployed	33.3	20.0	26.7	6.7	13.3	100
Total	24.9	29.6	19.7	13.1	12.7	100

Note. In an effort to increase generalizability, only the percentages that occur between participants' geographical location and their number of times unemployed are illustrated.

Figure 16

Descriptive Statistics Clustered Bar Chart for the Number of Times Participants Were Unemployed and Their Geographical Location Within the United States



Duration of Unemployment

This data represents participants' highest average duration of unemployment that they were unemployed. This data was collected via separate integers and were later categorized in weeks from lowest to highest in a similar manner that the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics measures various durations of unemployment; which is never unemployed, unemployed for less than 4 weeks, unemployed for 5–14 weeks, unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and unemployed for 27 weeks or more (U.S. BLS, 2019a). Hence, 75 (13.4%) indicated that they were never unemployed for over a week, 243 (43.5%) indicated that they were unemployed for 4 weeks or less, 145 (26%) indicated that they were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 42 (7.5%) indicated that they were

unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 53 (9.5%) indicated that they were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Table 17 and Figure 17 illustrate further participants' duration of unemployment

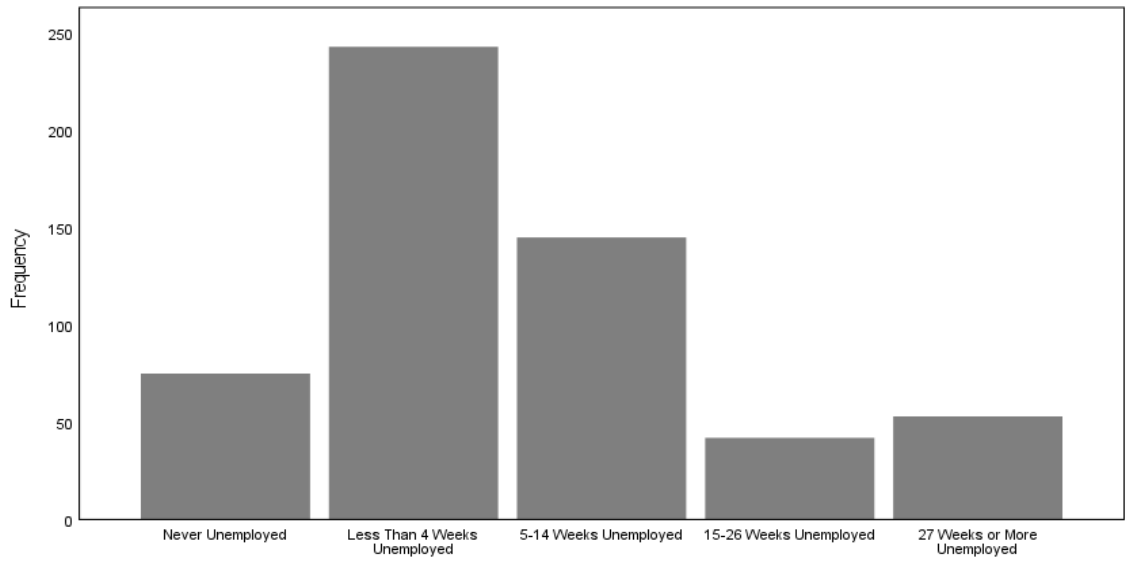
Table 17

Frequency Table for Participants' Duration of Unemployment

		F	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Never unemployed	75	13.4	13.4	13.4
	Less than 4 weeks unemployed	243	43.5	43.5	57.0
	5–14 weeks unemployed	145	26.0	26.0	83.0
	5–26 weeks unemployed	42	7.5	7.5	90.5
	27 weeks or more unemployed	53	9.5	9.5	100.0
	Total	558	100.0	100.0	

Figure 17

Frequency Bar Chart for Participants' Duration of Unemployment



SPSS v27 was used to compute the mean value of participants' duration of unemployment. The mean value was (M = 1.6; SD = 1.1). This indicated that participants' average duration of unemployment was 5–14 weeks, which exceeds the 4-week threshold of unemployment and actively seeking work to be calculated in the U-3 measurement of unemployment. Therefore, on average, if this sample was not actively seeking employment within the 4 weeks they were unemployed, they would not be reported in the U-3 measurement of unemployment (U.S. BLS, 2015); however, they would be reported in the lesser-used and more accurate U-6 measurement of unemployment that is exceedingly higher (U.S. BLS, 2020b, 2020d, 2020e). Next, descriptive statistics are provided for participants' duration of unemployment and their age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, type of unemployment, and geographical region within the United States following an illustration of Table 18 that displays descriptive statistics for participants' duration of unemployment.

Table 18

Descriptive Statistics for Participants' Duration of Unemployment

	N	*M*	*SD*
Duration of unemployment	558	1.6	1.1

Duration of Unemployment and Age Category

African American males' ages were placed into categories via one of the manners that the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics categorizes them, which ranges from 18 to 24, 25 to 34, 35 to 44, 45 to 54, 55 to 64, or 65 and over. Moreover, the duration of African American male unemployment is categorized in weeks as never unemployed, less

than 4 weeks unemployed, unemployed for 5–14 weeks, unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Therefore, for African American men aged 18–24, 19 (25.3%) were never unemployed, 61 (25.1%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 27 (18.6%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 8 (19.0%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 6 (11.3%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Moreover, for African American men aged 25–34, 14 (18.7%) were never unemployed, 64 (26.3%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 30 (20.7%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 11 (26.2%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 11 (20.8%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Additionally, for African American men aged 35–44, 13 (17.3%) were never unemployed, 43 (17.7%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 32 (22.1%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 3 (7.1%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 5 (9.4%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Correspondently, for African American men aged 45–54, 15 (20.0%) were never unemployed, 39 (16.0%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 28 (19.3%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 8 (19.0%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, 12 (22.6%), and were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Furthermore, for African American men aged 55–64, 8 (10.7%) were never unemployed, 23 (9.5%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 15 (10.3%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 10 (23.8%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, 12 (22.6%), and were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Subsequently, for African American men aged 65 and over 6 (8.0%) were never unemployed, 13 (5.3%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 13 (9.0%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 2 (4.8%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 7 (13.2%)

were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Table 19 and Figure 18 illustrate further African American males' age category and their duration of unemployment.

Table 19

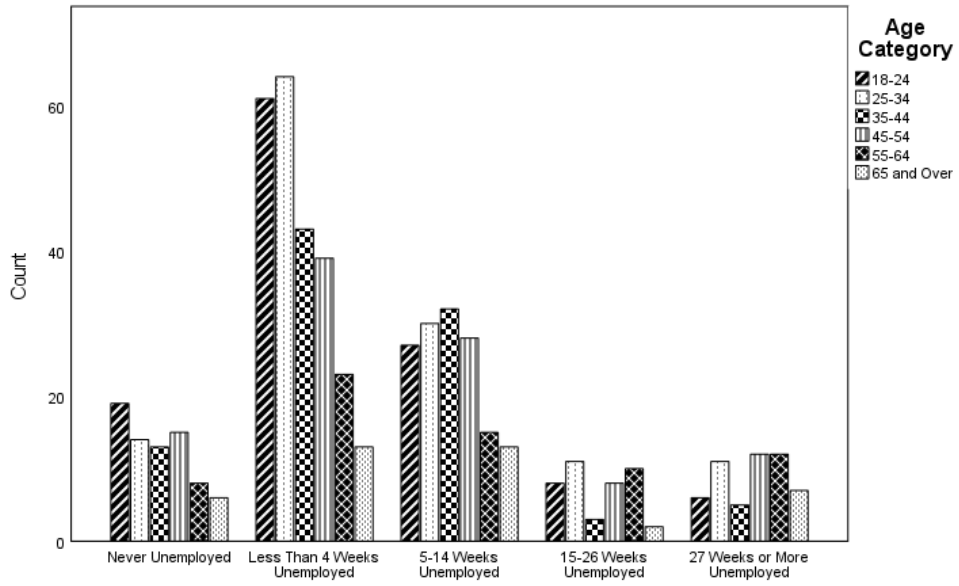
Descriptive Statistics Table for Participants' Duration of Unemployment and Their Age Category

Duration of unemployment	18–24 %	25–34 %	35–44 %	45–54 %	55–64 %	65–Over %	Total %
Never unemployed	25.3	18.7	17.3	20.0	10.7	8.0	100
< 4 weeks unemployed	25.1	26.3	17.7	16.0	9.5	5.3	100
5–14 weeks unemployed	18.6	20.7	22.1	19.3	10.3	9.0	100
15–26 weeks unemployed	19.0	26.2	7.1	19.0	23.8	4.8	100
>27 weeks unemployed	11.3	20.8	9.4	22.6	22.6	13.2	100
Total	21.7	23.3	17.2	18.3	12.2	7.3	100

Note. In an effort to increase generalizability, only the percentages that occur between participants' age category and their duration of unemployment are illustrated.

Figure 18

Descriptive Statistics Clustered Bar Chart for Participants' Duration of Unemployment and Their Age Category



Duration of Unemployment and Education Level

African American males' education levels range from less than a high school diploma, high school diploma, some college, bachelor's degree, master's degree, or academic or professional doctoral degree. Moreover, the duration of African American male unemployment was categorized as never unemployed, less than 4 weeks unemployed, unemployed for 5–14 weeks, unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Therefore, for African American males with less than a high school diploma, 6 (8.0%) were never unemployed, 9 (3.7%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 6 (4.1%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 2(4.8%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 5 (9.4%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Additionally, for

African American males with a high school diploma, 14 (18.7%) were never unemployed, 64 (26.3%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 30 (20.7%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 5 (11.9%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 10 (18.9%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Correspondently, for African American males with some college, 20 (26.7%) were never unemployed, 71 (29.2%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 34 (23.4%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 14 (33.3%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 17 (32.1%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Furthermore, for African American males with a bachelor's degree, 23 (30.7%) were never unemployed, 68 (28.0%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 53 (36.6%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 12 (28.6%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 14 (26.4%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Moreover, for African American males with a master's degree, 9 (12.0%) were never unemployed, 27 (11.1%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 15 (10.3%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 9 (21.4%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 5 (9.4%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Subsequently, for African American males with an academic or professional doctoral degree, 3 (4.0%) were never unemployed, 4 (1.6%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 7 (4.8%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 0 (0.0%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 2 (3.8%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Table 20 and Figure 19 illustrate further African American males' education level and their duration of unemployment.

Table 20

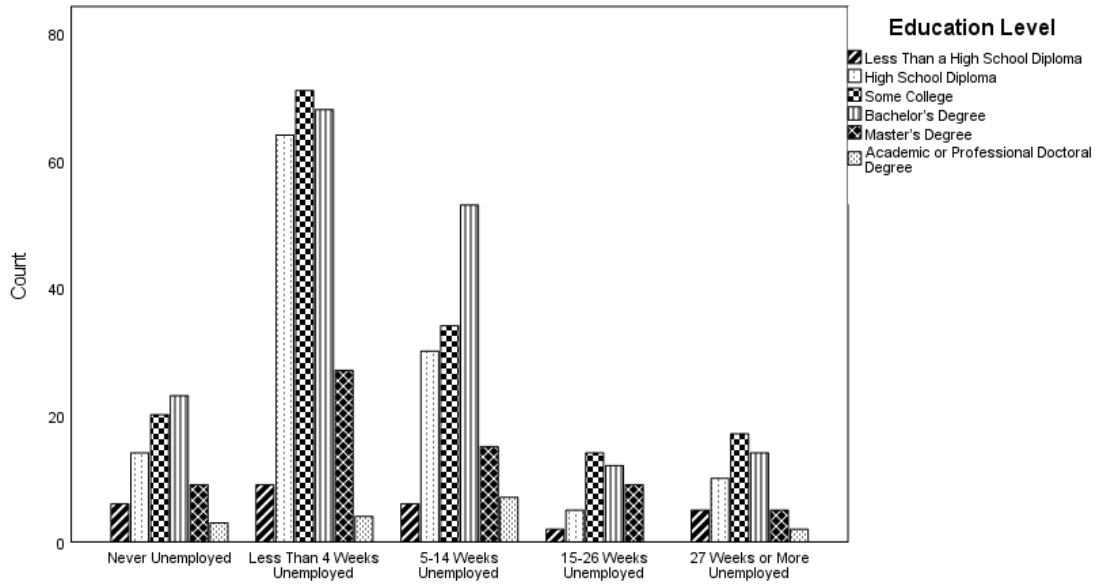
Descriptive Statistics Table for Participants' Duration of Unemployment and Their Education Level

Duration of unemployment	No diploma %	High school diploma %	Some college %	Bachelor degree %	Master degree %	Doctor degree %	Total %
Never unemployed	8.0	18.7	26.7	30.7	12.0	4.0	100
< 4 weeks unemployed	3.7	26.3	29.2	28.0	11.1	1.6	100
5–14 times unemployed	4.1	20.7	23.4	36.6	10.3	4.8	100
15–26 times unemployed	4.8	11.9	33.3	28.6	21.4	0.0	100
> 27 weeks unemployed	9.4	18.9	32.1	26.4	9.4	3.8	100
Total	5.0	22.0	28.0	30.5	11.6	2.9	100

Note. In an effort to increase generalizability, only the percentages that occur between participants' education level and their duration of unemployment are illustrated. Additionally, in the interest of structure and clarity, Bachelor's degree, Master's degree, and Doctoral degree were shortened to abbreviations termed Bachelor degree, Master degree, and Doctor degree.

Figure 19

Descriptive Statistics Clustered Bar Chart for Participants' Duration of Unemployment and Their Education Level



Duration of Unemployment and Marital Status

African American males' marital status is categorized as married, widowed, divorced, or separated, or never married. Moreover, the duration of African American male unemployment was categorized as never unemployed, less than 4 weeks unemployed, unemployed for 5–14 weeks, unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Therefore, for African American males that were married, 31 (41.3%) were never unemployed, 90 (37.0%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 63 (43.4%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 21 (50.0%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 19 (35.8%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Additionally, for African American males that were widowed, divorced, or separated, 9 (12.0%) were

never unemployed, 42 (17.3%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 27 (18.6%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 3 (7.1%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 12 (22.6%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Subsequently, for African American males that were never married, 35 (46.7%) were never unemployed, 111 (45.7%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 55 (37.9%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 18 (42.9%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 22 (41.5%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Table 21 and Figure 20 illustrate further African American males' marital status and their duration of unemployment.

Table 21

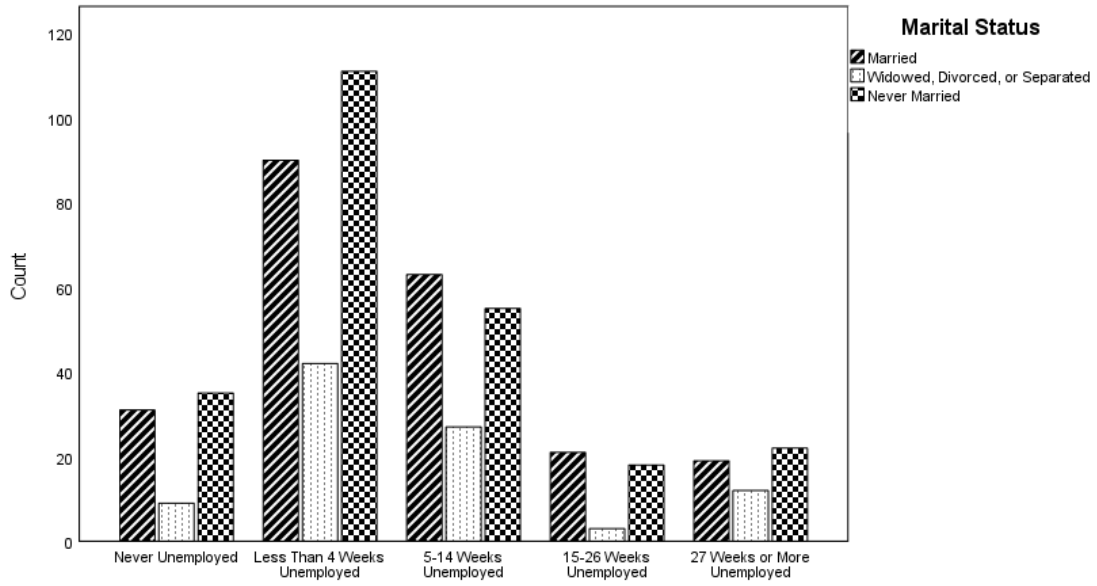
Descriptive Statistics Table for Participants' Duration of Unemployment and Their Marital Status

Duration of unemployment	Married %	Widowed, divorced, or separated %	Never married %	Total %
Never unemployed	41.3	12.0	46.7	100
< 4 weeks unemployed	37.0	17.3	45.7	100
10–14 weeks unemployed	43.4	18.6	37.9	100
15–26 weeks unemployed	50.0	7.1	42.9	100
> 27 weeks unemployed	35.8	22.6	41.5	100
Total	40.1	16.7	43.2	100

Note. In an effort to increase generalizability, only the percentages that occur between participants' marital status and their duration of unemployment are illustrated.

Figure 20

Descriptive Statistics Clustered Bar Chart for Participants' Duration of Unemployment and Their Marital Status



Duration of Unemployment and Occupational Industries

African American males' occupational industries are categorized as: (a) business and management, retail, government, and transportation; (b) manufacturing, durable goods, nondurable goods, and construction; or (c) education, health care, and other services not listed. Moreover, the duration of African American male unemployment was categorized as never unemployed, less than 4 weeks unemployed, unemployed for 5–14 weeks, unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Therefore, for African American males that were employed in business and management, retail, government, and transportation, 39 (52.0%) were never unemployed, 119 (49.0%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 69 (47.6%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 19

(45.2%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 28 (52.8%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Additionally, for African American males that were employed in manufacturing, durable goods, nondurable goods, and construction, 18 (24.0%) were never unemployed, 59 (24.3%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 42 (29.0%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 12 (28.6%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 16 (30.2%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Subsequently, for African American males that were employed in education, health care, and other services not listed, 18 (24.0%) were never unemployed, 65 (26.7%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 34 (23.4%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 11 (26.2%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 9 (17.0%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Table 22 and Figure 21 illustrate further African American males' occupational industry and their duration of unemployment.

Table 22

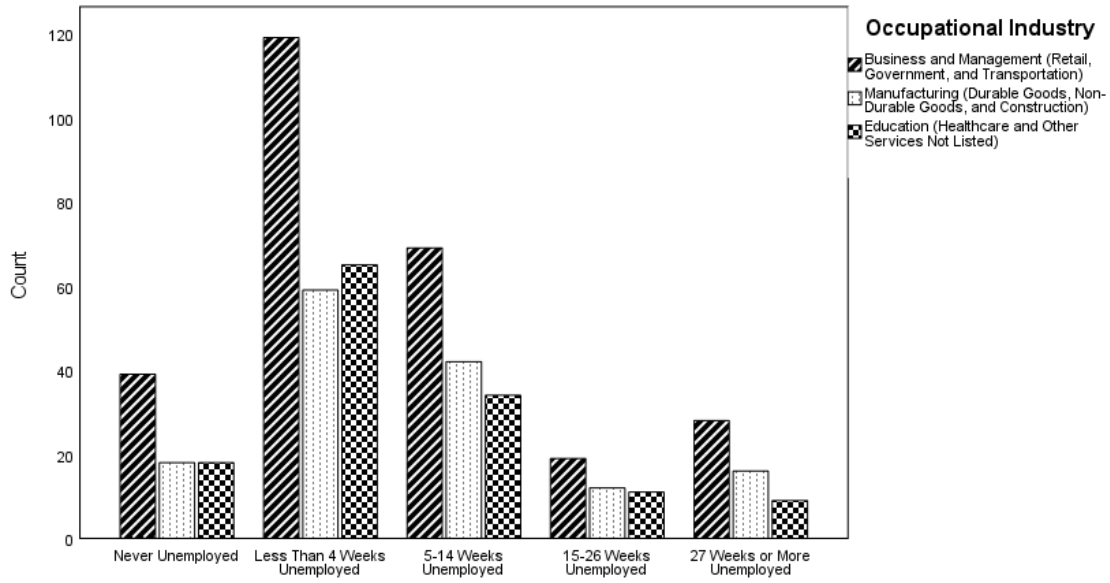
Descriptive Statistics Table for Participants' Duration of Unemployment and Their Occupational Industry

Duration of unemployment	Business and management, retail, government, and transportation %	Manufacturing, durable goods, nondurable goods, and construction %	Education, healthcare, and other services not listed %	Total %
Never unemployed	52.0	24.0	24.0	100
< 4 weeks unemployed	49.0	24.3	26.7	100
5–14 weeks unemployed	47.6	29.0	23.4	100
15–26 weeks unemployed	45.2	28.6	26.2	100
> 27 weeks unemployed	52.8	30.2	17.0	100
Total	49.1	26.3	24.6	100

Note. In an effort to increase generalizability, only the percentages that occur between participants' occupational industry and their duration of unemployment are illustrated.

Figure 21

Descriptive Statistics Clustered Bar Chart for Participants' Duration of Unemployment and Their Occupational Industry



Duration of Unemployment and Type of Unemployment

African American males' types of unemployment are categorized as voluntary, involuntary, e.g., termination due to factors out of your control, or not applicable. Moreover, the duration of African American male unemployment was categorized as never unemployed, less than 4 weeks unemployed, unemployed for 5–14 weeks, unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Therefore, for African American males with voluntary unemployment status, 14 (18.7%) were never unemployed, 89 (36.6%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 39 (26.9%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 10 (23.8%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 12 (22.6%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Additionally, for African American

males with involuntary, e.g., termination due to factors out of their control unemployment status, 3 (4.0%) were never unemployed, 116 (47.7%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 93 (64.1%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 23 (54.8%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 33 (62.3%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Subsequently, for African American males with not applicable unemployment status 58 (77.3%) were never unemployed, 38 (15.6%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 13 (9.0%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 9 (21.4%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 8 (15.1%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Table 23 and Figure 22 illustrate further African American males' type of unemployment and their duration of unemployment.

Table 23

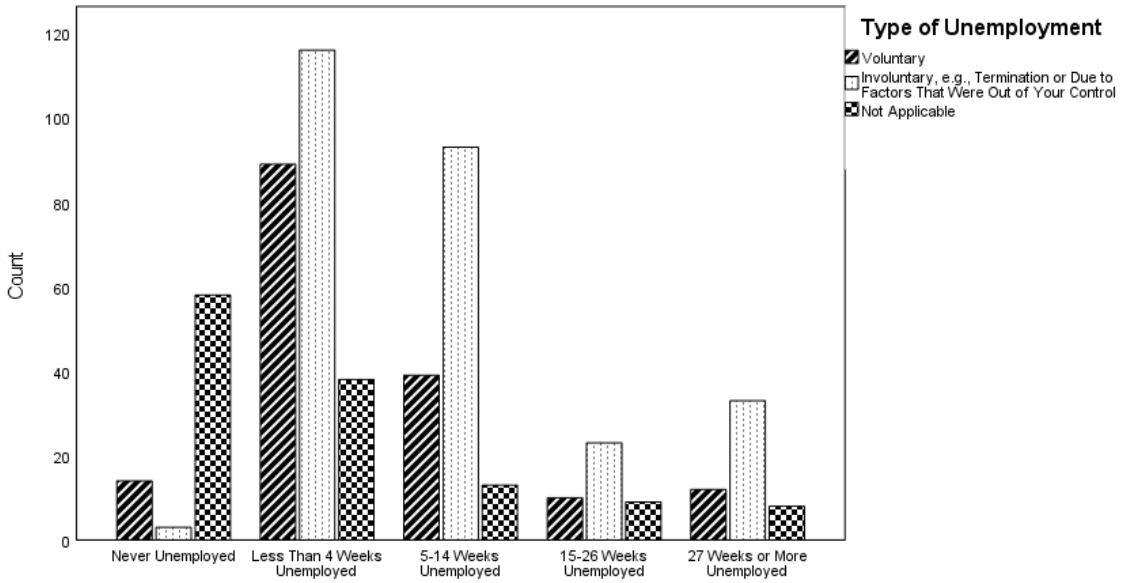
Descriptive Statistics Table for Participants' Duration of Unemployment and Their Type of Unemployment

Duration of unemployment	Voluntary %	Involuntary, e.g., termination or due to factors that were out of your control %	Not applicable %	Total %
Never unemployed	18.7	4.0	77.3	100
< 4 weeks unemployed	36.6	47.7	15.6	100
5–14 weeks unemployed	29.9	64.1	9.0	100
15–26 weeks unemployed	23.8	54.8	21.4	100
> 27 weeks unemployed	22.6	62.3	15.1	100
Total	29.4	48.0	22.6	100

Note. In an effort to increase generalizability, only the percentages that occur between participants' type of unemployment and their duration of unemployment are illustrated.

Figure 22

Descriptive Statistics Clustered Bar Chart for Participants' Duration of Unemployment and Their Type of Unemployment



Duration of Unemployment and Geographical Locations within the United States

African American males' geographical locations are characterized as Northeast, Southeast, Midwest, Southwest, or West. Moreover, the duration of African American male unemployment was categorized as never unemployed, less than 4 weeks unemployed, unemployed for 5–14 weeks, unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Accordingly, for African American males in the Northeast region of the United States, 16 (21.3%) were never unemployed, 64 (26.3%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 38 (26.2%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 9 (21.4%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 12 (22.6%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Additionally, for African American males in the Southeast region of the

United States, 23 (30.7%) were never unemployed, 76 (31.3%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 34 (23.4%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 15 (35.7%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 17 (32.1%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Furthermore, for African American males in the Midwest region of the United States, 13 (17.3%) were never unemployed, 42 (17.3%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 38 (26.2%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 7 (16.7%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 10 (18.9%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Moreover, for African American males in the Southwest region of the United States, 11 (14.7%) were never unemployed, 34 (14.0%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 16 (11.0%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 8 (19.0%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 4 (7.5%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Subsequently, for African American males in the West region of the United States, 12 (16.0%) were never unemployed, 27 (11.1%) were unemployed for less than 4 weeks, 19 (13.1%) were unemployed for 5–14 weeks, 3 (7.1%) were unemployed for 15–26 weeks, and 10 (18.9%) were unemployed for 27 weeks or more. Table 24 and Figure 23 illustrate further African American males' geographical location within the United States and their duration of unemployment.

Table 24

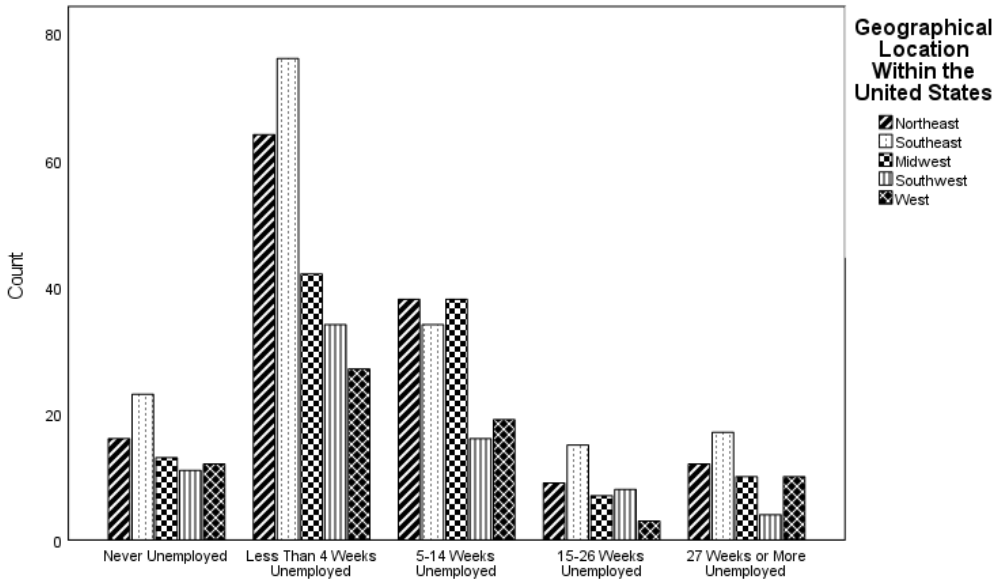
Descriptive Statistics Table for Participants' Duration of Unemployment and Their Geographical Location Within the United States

Duration of unemployment	Northeast %	Southeast %	Midwest %	Southwest %	West %	Total %
Never unemployed	21.3	30.7	17.3	14.7	16.0	100
< 4 weeks unemployed	26.3	31.3	17.3	14.0	11.1	100
5–14 weeks unemployed	26.2	23.4	26.2	11.0	13.1	100
15–26 weeks unemployed	21.4	35.7	16.7	19.0	7.1	100
> 27 weeks unemployed	22.6	32.1	18.9	7.5	18.9	100
Total	24.9	29.6	19.7	13.1	12.7	100

Note. In an effort to increase generalizability, only the percentages that occur between participants' geographical location and their duration of unemployment are illustrated.

Figure 23

Descriptive Statistics Clustered Bar Chart for Participants' Duration of Unemployment and Their Geographical Location Within the United States



The sample collected for this research study reflected the integral population of African American males in the United States as depicted in the analyses and illustration of the participants' demographics and descriptive statistics. Explicitly, this random sample of participants was anonymous, yet their demographic characteristics; such as their number of times unemployed, their duration of unemployment, age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, type of unemployment, and regional location within the United States, contained a plethora of characteristics that are unique to this population. Thus, I postulate that the sample represented in this examination accurately depicted the larger population of African American men. Next, descriptive statistics are provided for how participants responded to the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale.

Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale

The Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale consists of 19 items to measure participants' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. The measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level is measured via five dimensions; innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance. A total of $N = 558$ participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale that included the following responses: 1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*). The questions regarding each dimension asked participants to rate themselves based upon a self-evaluation of how their behavior was tailored to the following question.

Accordingly, for the research survey questions associated with the innovation dimension, 31 (5.6%) answered very little, 103 (18.5%) answered little, 213 (38.2%) answered average, 137 (24.6%) answered much, and 74 (13.3%) answered very much. Pertaining to the research survey questions related to the marketing dimension, 35 (6.3%) answered very little, 73 (13.1%) answered little, 233 (41.8%) answered average, 147 (26.3%) answered much, and 70 (12.5%) answered very much. With respect to the research survey questions pertaining to the networking dimension, 35 (6.3%) answered very little, 76 (13.6%) answered little, 212 (38%) answered average, 175 (31.4%) answered much, and 60 (10.8%) answered very much. Moreover, for the research survey questions associated with the management dimension, 27 (4.8%) answered very little, 50 (9.0%) answered little, 206 (36.9%) answered average, 178 (31.9%) answered much, and 97 (17.4%) answered very much. Additionally, for the research survey questions related to the finance dimension, 48 (8.6%) answered very little, 82 (14.7%) answered little, 189

(33.9%) answered average, 142 (25.4%) answered much, and 97 (17.4%) answered very much. Tables 25, 26, 27, 28, and 29 and Figures 24, 25, 26, 27, and 28 depict further how participants responded to the innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale.

Table 25

Frequency Table for How Participants Responded to the Innovation Dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale

		F	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Very little	31	5.6	5.6	5.6
	Little	103	18.5	18.5	24.0
	Average	213	38.2	38.2	62.2
	Much	137	24.6	24.6	86.7
	Very much	74	13.3	13.3	100.0
	Total	558	100.0	100.0	

Figure 24

Frequency Bar Chart for How Participants Responded to the Innovation Dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale

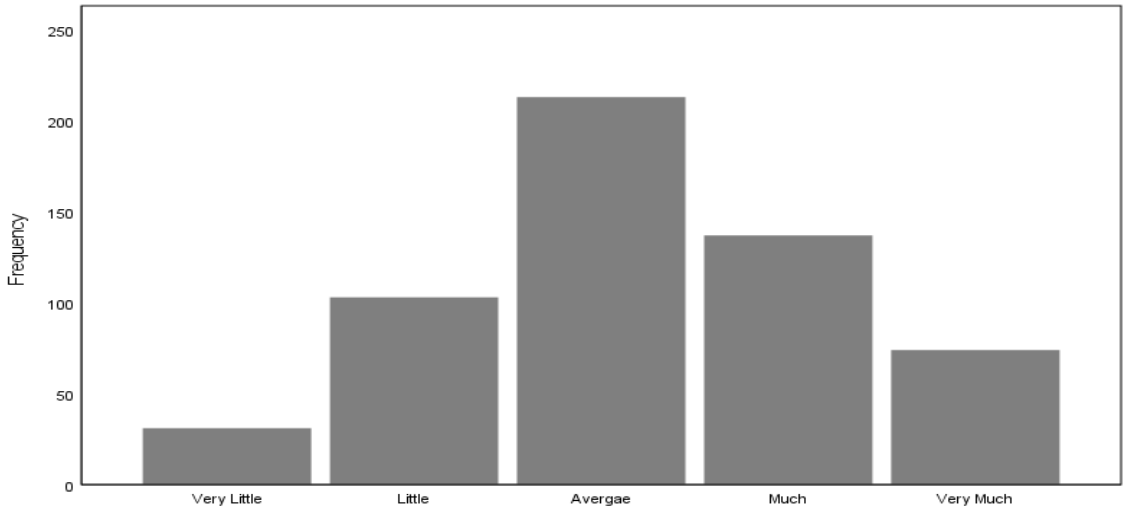


Table 26

Frequency Table for How Participants Responded to the Marketing Dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale

		F	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Very little	35	6.3	6.3	6.3
	Little	73	13.1	13.1	19.4
	Average	233	41.8	41.8	61.1
	Much	147	26.3	26.3	87.5
	Very much	70	12.5	12.5	100.0
	Total	558	100.0	100.0	

Figure 25

Frequency Bar Chart for How Participants Responded to the Marketing Dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale

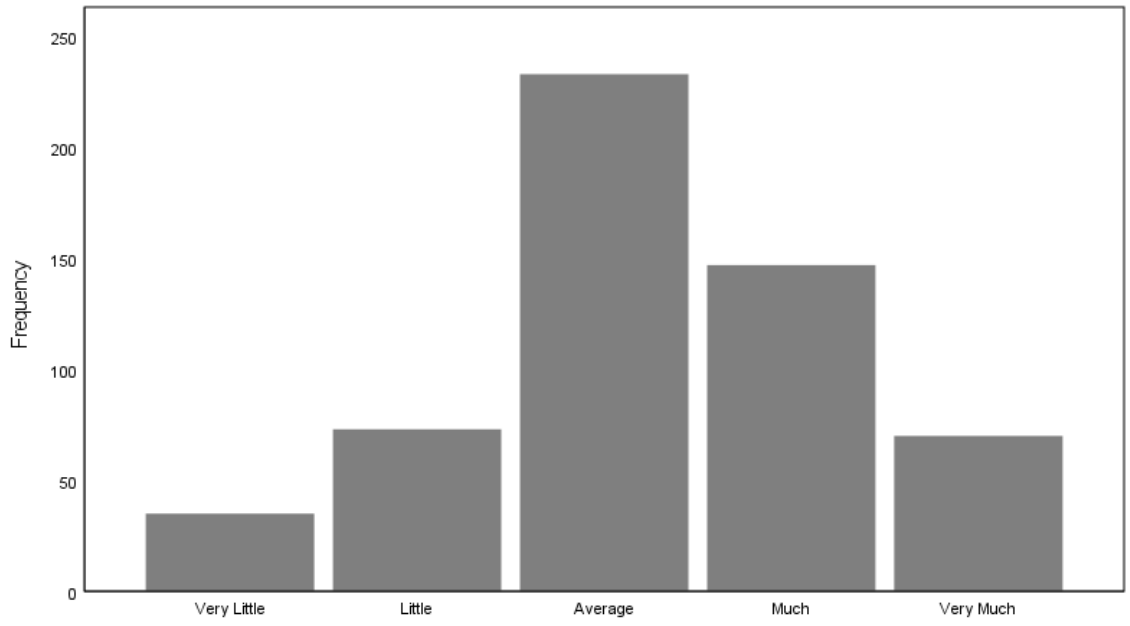


Table 27

Frequency Table for How Participants Responded to the Networking Dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale

		F	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Very little	35	6.3	6.3	6.3
	Little	76	13.6	13.6	19.9
	Average	212	38.0	38.0	57.9
	Much	175	31.4	31.4	89.2
	Very much	60	10.8	10.8	100.0
	Total	558	100.0	100.0	

Figure 26

Frequency Bar Chart for How Participants Responded to the Networking Dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale

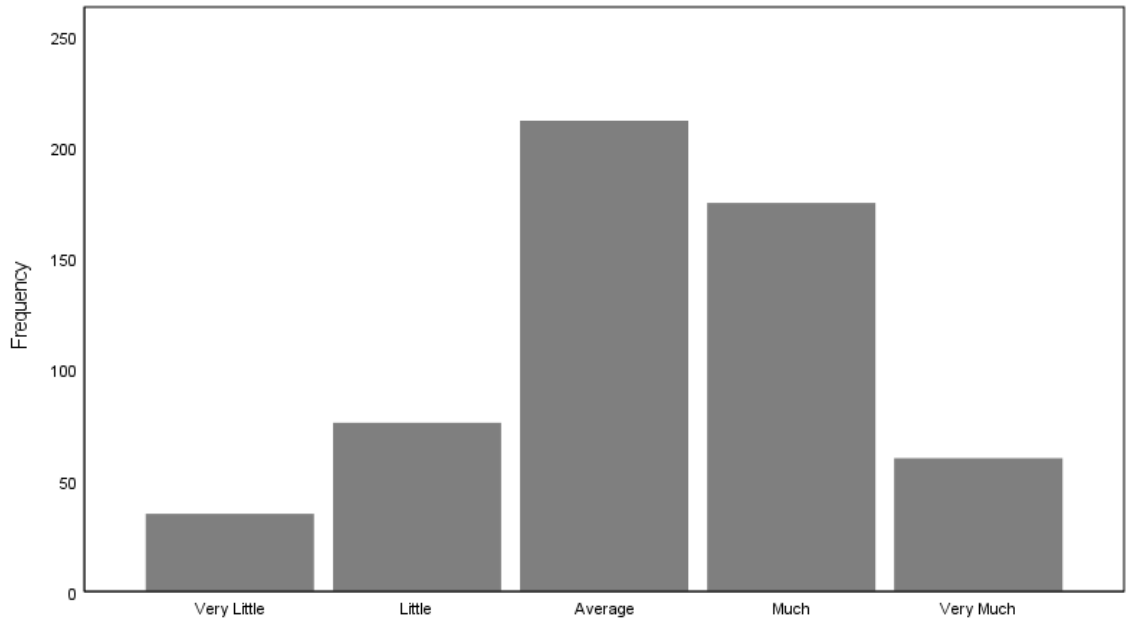


Table 28

Frequency Table for How Participants Responded to the Management Dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale

		F	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Very little	27	4.8	4.8	4.8
	Little	50	9.0	9.0	13.8
	Average	206	36.9	36.9	50.7
	Much	178	31.9	31.9	82.6
	Very much	97	17.4	17.4	100.0
	Total	558	100.0	100.0	

Figure 27

Frequency Bar Chart for How Participants Responded to the Management Dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale

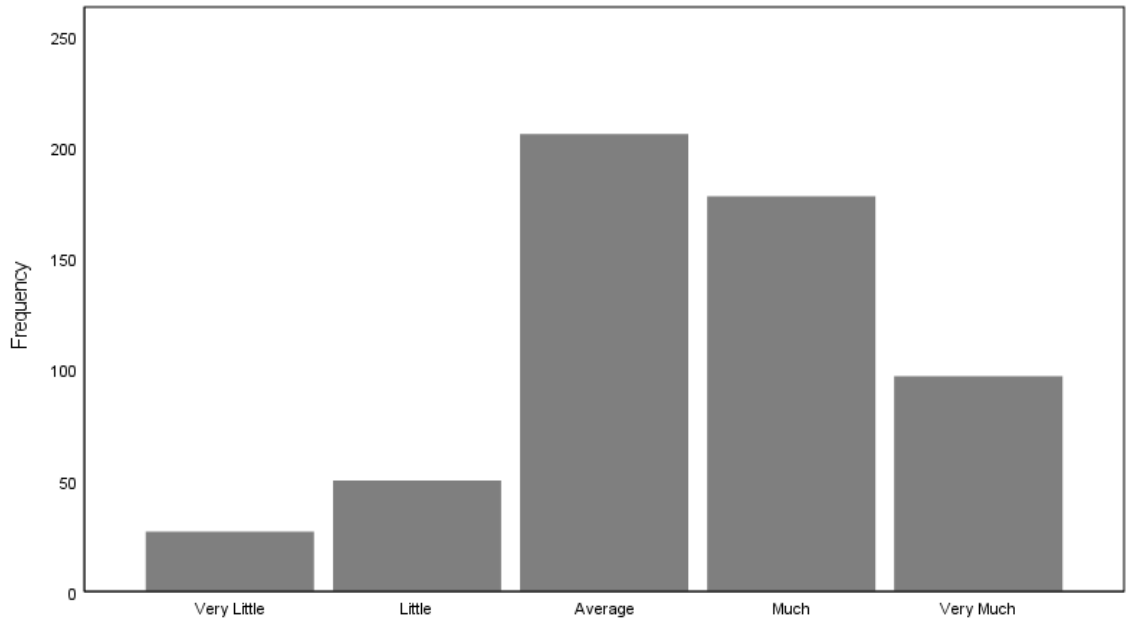


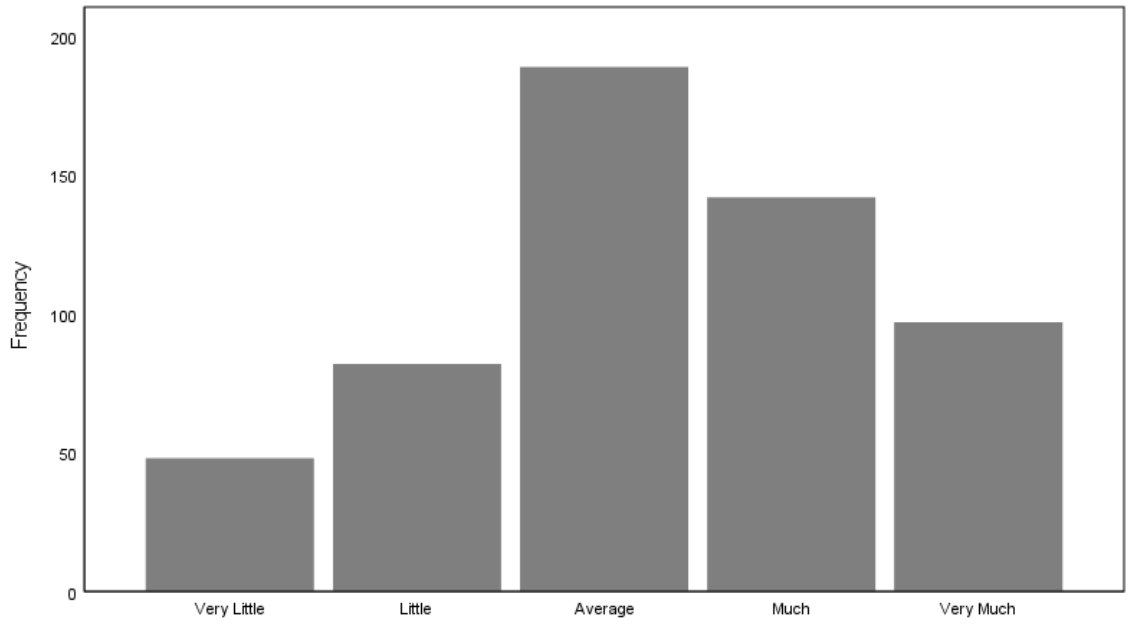
Table 29

Frequency Table for How Participants Responded to the Finance Dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale

		F	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Very little	48	8.6	8.6	8.6
	Little	82	14.7	14.7	23.3
	Average	189	33.9	33.9	57.2
	Much	142	25.4	25.4	82.6
	Very much	97	17.4	17.4	100.0
	Total	558	100.0	100.0	

Figure 28

Frequency Bar Chart for How Participants Responded to the Finance Dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale



Furthermore, descriptive statistics were used to compute the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale's measurement dimensions via SPSS v27. Accordingly, the innovation dimension that depicts individuals' ability to recognize an opportunity, discover, design,

manufacture, and provide customers with essential products, which are needed in various industries, was valued at (M = 3.2; SD = 1.0). The marketing dimension that denotes individuals' ability to approximate the effective design, customer demand, and marketing procedures, was valued at (M = 3.1; SD = 1.0). Additionally, the networking dimension that is viewed as one of the most critical aspects of entrepreneurship identifies individuals' ability to provide business contacts and prospective clients that possess the potential to expand their organizations, was valued at (M = 3.3; SD = 1.0). Moreover, the management dimension that denotes individuals' ability to manage, train, hire, and inspire employees while delegating culpability and addressing all issues pertaining to the routine functions of employees within the organization, yielded the highest mean value (M = 3.4; SD = 1.0). Furthermore, the finance dimension that delineates individuals' ability to assess funds to start a business, maintain organized records of financial documents, interpret financial statements, and oversee the organization's assets, was valued at (M = 3.3; SD = 1.1).

Additionally, descriptive statistics are not provided for participants' demographic information included in Research Question 3, which is their age and their education level, because descriptive statistics revealed that the mean values for all dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale contain average values; thus, it would be redundant. Table 30 illustrates further the mean scores for participants' behaviors consistent with their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level.

Table 30

Descriptive Statistics for the Dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale

	N	*M*	*SD*
Innovation	558	3.2	1.0
Marketing	558	3.1	1.0
Networking	558	3.3	1.0
Management	558	3.4	1.0
Finance	558	3.3	1.1

Note. The dimensions illustrated were measured on a scale of 1 through 5.

Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's alpha statistical analyses were computed for each of the five dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale. Accordingly, innovation was the first dimension, which consisted of three questions; the dimension had a high level of internal consistency, as determined by a Cronbach's alpha of .84. The second dimension was marketing, which consisted of four questions; the dimension had a high level of internal consistency, as determined by a Cronbach's alpha of .84. The third dimension was networking, which consisted of three questions; the dimension had a high level of internal consistency, as determined by a Cronbach's alpha of .80. The fourth dimension was management, which consisted of six questions; the dimension had a high level of internal consistency, as determined by a Cronbach's alpha of .89. The fifth dimension was finance, which consisted of three questions; the dimension had a high level of internal consistency, as determined by a Cronbach's alpha of .86. The Cronbach's alpha statistical analyses for the five dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale are displayed in Table 31.

Table 31

Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Statistics for the Five Dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale

	Cronbach's alpha	N of items
Innovation	.835	558
Marketing	.840	558
Networking	.802	558
Management	.889	558
Finance	.856	558

Accordingly, the results of the Cronbach's alpha statistical test of reliability indicated that the innovation, marketing, and networking dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale were all the same as McGee et al., 2009. However, the estimated reliability for the management and finance dimensions was lower than what was computed by McGee et al., 2009; which was .91 for management and .88 for finance. Nevertheless, all of the dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale exceeded the .70 minimum requirements for internal reliability; thus, the five dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale termed innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance were verified in this study as reliable and provided consistent and sustainable research survey questionnaire responses.

Statistical Tests of Assumptions

The statistical procedure used to provide answers for all of the research questions employed in this study was ordinal logistic regression, which requires that certain assumptions are met to ensure this is the correct method for analyzing the data (Hosmer et al., 2013). Therefore, the first assumption requires that the study design has an ordinal dependent variable; the second assumption is that there are one or more ordinal or

nominal continuous independent variables (Hosmer et al., 2013). Accordingly, for Research Questions 1, 2, and 3, the first assumption is met via the ordinal dependent variables termed the number of times unemployed, durations of unemployment, age, and education level, and the second assumption is met with the five dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale termed innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance, which are continuous independent variables. Moreover, for Research Questions 4 and 5, the first assumption is met with the ordinal dependent variables termed the number of times unemployed and duration of unemployment and the ordinal independent variables termed age and education level, and the categorical independent variables termed marital status, occupational industry, and type of unemployment.

Moreover, ordinal logistic regression analysis requires that there is no multicollinearity or independent variables that are highly correlated with each other, which is ascertained by analyzing tolerance and VIF values (Hosmer et al., 2013). Therefore, for Research Questions 1, 2, and 3, the independent variables are continuous; hence, collinearity diagnostic statistics to ascertain if multicollinearity existed was conducted between the dependent and independent variables. However, for Research Questions 4 and 5, the independent variables are ordinal and categorical; thus, collinearity diagnostic statistics to ascertain if multicollinearity existed was conducted between the dependent variables, the ordinal independent variables, and the coded dummy categorical independent variables (Agresti, 2010; Hardy, 1993).

Additionally, ordinal logistic regression analysis requires that the proportionate odds assumption is met, which refers to each independent variable having the same outcome at every cumulative split of the ordinal dependent variable (Hosmer et al., 2013; LS, 2015). This was adhered to with a full likelihood ratio test; however, if any of these tests failed, separate binominal logistic regressions were performed on separated cumulative dichotomous variables and the independent variables to overcome the violations of assumptions mentioned (Hosmer et al., 2013; LS, 2015). Accordingly, all statistical tests of assumptions for the ordinal logistic regression analyses were adhered to for Research Questions 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, as mentioned below.

Research Question 1

Research Question 1 sought to determine if African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level predicts the number of times they were unemployed. Accordingly, ordinal logistic regression analysis requires that none of the independent variables contain multicollinearity. Hence, multicollinearity occurs when two or more continuous independent variables are highly correlated, this may create issues determining which independent variable is contributing to the justification of the dependent variable (Hosmer et al., 2013). Therefore, a linear regression that generated collinearity diagnostic statistics were performed to test for the assumption of multicollinearity with the dependent variable, which is the number of times unemployed among African American males on the continuous independent variables, which are the five dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, none of the variables

contained a tolerance value of less than 0.1; thus, there is no multicollinearity within the independent variables for Research Question 1, which is illustrated in Table 32.

Table 32

Collinearity Diagnostic Statistics to Test for the Assumption of Multicollinearity for Research Questions 1, 2, and 3

Model	Collinearity diagnostic statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
Innovation	.386	2.590
Marketing	.335	2.987
Networking	.281	3.553
Management	.370	2.704
Finance	.392	2.548

Note. The dependent variable for Research Question 1 is the number of times unemployed. Furthermore, the dependent variables for Research Questions 2 and 3 are the duration of unemployment, age category, and education level; however, the collinearity diagnostic statistics are the same.

Additionally, ordinal logistic regression analysis requires that the assumption of proportionate odds is met, which refers to each independent variable having the same outcome at every cumulative split of the ordinal dependent variable (Hosmer et al., 2013; LS, 2015). This assumption was tested via a full likelihood ratio test that compares varying location parameters via a fit of proportionate odds model; a nonsignificant *p*-value indicates that the assumption of proportionate odds is met (Hosmer et al., 2013). The assumption of proportional odds was met, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test comparing the fit of the proportional odds model to a model with varying location

parameters, $\chi^2(20) = 11.552$, $p = .931$. The full likelihood ratio test is illustrated further in Table 33.

Table 33

Test of Parallel Lines for the Assumption of Proportionate Odds for Research Question 1

Model	-2 log-likelihood	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Null hypothesis	1513.918			
General	1502.366[b]	11.552[c]	20	.931

Research Question 2

Research Question 2 sought to determine if African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level predicts their duration of unemployment. Accordingly, ordinal logistic regression analysis requires that none of the continuous independent variables contain multicollinearity (Hosmer et al., 2013). Therefore, a linear regression that generated collinearity diagnostic statistics were performed to test for the assumption of multicollinearity with the dependent variable, which is the duration of unemployment among African American males on the continuous independent variables, which are the five dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, none of the variables contained a tolerance value of less than 0.1; thus, there is no multicollinearity within the independent variables for Research Question 2, which is illustrated in Table 32.

Moreover, ordinal logistic regression analysis requires that the assumption of proportionate odds is met, which refers to each independent variable having the same outcome at every cumulative split of the ordinal dependent variable (Hosmer et al., 2013; LS, 2015). This assumption was tested via a full likelihood ratio test that compares varying location parameters via a fit of proportionate odds model; a nonsignificant *p*-

value indicates that the assumption of proportionate odds is met (Hosmer et al., 2013). The assumption of proportional odds was met, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test comparing the fit of the proportional odds model to a model with varying location parameters, $\chi^2(15) = 21.645$, $p = .117$. The full likelihood ratio test is illustrated further in Table 34.

Table 34

Test of Parallel Lines for the Assumption of Proportionate Odds for Research Question 2

Model	-2 log-likelihood	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Null hypothesis	1448.010			
General	1426.365[b]	21.645[c]	15	.117

Research Question 3

Research Question 3 sought to determine if African American males' age and education level predict their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Accordingly, ordinal logistic regression analysis requires that none of the continuous independent variables contain multicollinearity (Hosmer et al., 2013). Therefore, a linear regression that generated collinearity diagnostic statistics were performed to test for the assumption of multicollinearity with the dependent variable African American males' age category (expressed in years) on the continuous independent variables, which are the five dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, none of the variables contained a tolerance value of less than 0.1; thus, there is no multicollinearity within the independent variables for Research Question 3, with African American males' age category as the dependent variable, which is illustrated in Table 32. Additionally, a linear regression that generated collinearity diagnostic statistics were performed to test for the assumption of

multicollinearity with the dependent variable African American males' education level on the continuous independent variables, which are the five dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, none of the variables contained a tolerance value of less than 0.1; thus, there is no multicollinearity within the independent variables for Research Question 3, with African American males' education level as the dependent variable, which is illustrated in Table 32.

Moreover, ordinal logistic regression analysis requires that the assumption of proportionate odds is met, which refers to each independent variable having the same outcome at every cumulative split of the ordinal dependent variable (Hosmer et al., 2013; LS, 2015). This assumption was tested via a full likelihood ratio test that compares varying location parameters via a fit of proportionate odds model; a nonsignificant *p*-value indicates that the assumption of proportionate odds is met (Hosmer et al., 2013). The assumption of proportional odds was met for the dependent variable African American males' age category (expressed in years) on the continuous independent variables, which are the dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test comparing the fit of the proportional odds model to a model with varying location parameters, $\chi^2(20) = 26.751$, $p = .142$. Additionally, the assumption of proportional odds was met for the dependent variable African American males' education level on the continuous independent variables, which are the five dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test comparing the fit of the proportional odds model to a model with varying location parameters, $\chi^2(20) = 25.260$, $p = .192$. The full likelihood ratio tests for African

American males' age category and educational level as the dependent variables are illustrated separately in Tables 35 and 36.

Table 35

Test of Parallel Lines for the Assumption of Proportionate Odds for Research Question 3 With Age Category as the Dependent Variable

Model	-2 log-likelihood	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Null hypothesis	1762.923			
General	1736.172	26.751	20	.142

Table 36

Test of Parallel Lines for the Assumption of Proportionate Odds for Research Question 3 With Education Level as the Dependent Variable

Model	-2 log-likelihood	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Null hypothesis	1583.613			
General	1558.353	25.260	20	.192

Research Question 4

Research Question 4 sought to determine if African American males' age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predict the number of times they were unemployed. Accordingly, ordinal logistic regression analysis requires that none of the continuous independent variables contain multicollinearity, which occurs when two or more continuous independent variables are highly correlated (Hosmer et al., 2013). Therefore, the ordinal independent variables remained the same, and the categorical independent variables termed marital status, occupational industry, and type of unemployment were split into separate categories within the variable to create coded dummy variables (Agresti, 2010; Hardy, 1993). Next,

a linear regression to ascertain collinearity diagnostic statistics was performed between the dependent variable, the ordinal independent variables, and the coded dummy variables; the tolerance values must be greater than 0.1 to ensure that there is no multicollinearity (LS, 2015). The test for multicollinearity for Research Questions 4 indicated that all tolerance values were above 0.1, which is displayed further in Table 37.

Table 37

Collinearity Diagnostic Statistics to Test for the Assumption of Multicollinearity for Research Questions 4 and 5.

Model	Collinearity diagnostic statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
Age category	.881	1.135
Marital status 1	.761	1.315
Marital status 2	.784	1.276
Occupational industry 1	.640	1.562
Occupational industry 2	.636	1.572
Type of unemployment 1	.600	1.668
Type of unemployment 2	.603	1.658
Education level	.947	1.055

Note. The dependent variable for Research Question 4 is the number of times unemployed. Furthermore, the dependent variable for Research Question 5 is the duration of unemployment; however, the collinearity diagnostic statistics are the same.

Moreover, ordinal logistic regression analysis requires that the assumption of proportionate odds is met, which refers to each independent variable having the same outcome at every cumulative split of the ordinal dependent variable (Hosmer et al., 2013; LS, 2015). This assumption was tested via a full likelihood ratio test that compares varying location parameters via a fit of proportionate odds model; a nonsignificant *p*-

value indicates that the assumption of proportionate odds is met (Hosmer et al., 2013). The assumption of proportional odds was not met, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test comparing the fit of the proportional odds model to a model with varying location parameters, $\chi^2(64) = 120.117$, $p = .000$. Table 38 illustrates further the test of parallel lines for the assumption of proportionate odds.

Table 38

Test of Parallel Lines for the Assumption of Proportionate Odds for Research Question 4

Model	-2 log-likelihood	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Null hypothesis	1237.041			
General	1116.924[b]	120.117[c]	64	.000

Nonetheless, a violation of this assumption required me to overcome this violation by running separate binomial logistic regressions with the cumulative dichotomous dependent variable broken down into five categories that depicted the total number of times African American males were unemployed on a scale of lowest to highest, and the independent variables, which are African American males' age category, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and type of unemployment (LS, 2015). Accordingly, in order for the assumption of proportionate odds to be met, each dichotomous cumulative category must be somewhat similar, and the coefficients for the B parameter estimates and the Exp B odds ratio determines which variables need to be treated with more caution (LS, 2015). Hence, the B parameter and Exp B odds ratio were similar for all of the independent variables except for Categories 1 and 2 for the B parameter estimates, and Categories 4 and 5 for the Exp B odds ratio for the type of unemployment variable, and Category 5 for the Exp B odds ratio for the occupational

industry variable. Consequently, these variables were treated with more caution during the final ordinal logistic regression analyses. The binary logistic regression is illustrated further in Table 39.

Table 39

Binomial Logistic Regression to Test for the Assumption of Proportionate Odds for Research Question 4.

	B (parameter estimates)					Exp B (odds ratio)				
	Cat1	Cat2	Cat3	Cat4	Cat5	Cat1	Cat2	Cat3	Cat4	Cat5
Age	.144	.277	.126	.226	.475	.866	.758	.881	.798	.622
Education	.142	.093	.140	.096	.113	1.152	1.098	1.150	1.100	1.120
Industry	.734	.302	.349	.423	.631	2.082	1.353	1.418	1.526	1.880
Industry	.027	.259	.082	.016	.682	1.027	1.008	.921	.984	.206
Marital	.319	.231	.363	.995	.844	.727	.793	.695	.370	.430
Marital	.179	.338	.189	.810	.529	.836	.713	.828	.445	.589
Type	2.640	.921	.199	.269	.715	.071	.398	.820	.764	.489
Type	3.478	1.477	.461	.150	.775	.031	.228	.631	1.162	2.171

Note. In the interest of structure and clarity, the names of the column headings and the independent variables were shortened to abbreviations; thus, Category is termed (Cat), Age category is termed (Age), Education level is termed (Education), Occupational industry is termed (Industry), Marital status is termed (Marital), and Type of unemployment is termed (Type).

Research Question 5

Research Question 5 sought to determine if African American males' age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predict their duration of unemployment. Accordingly, ordinal logistic regression analysis requires that none of the continuous independent variables contain multicollinearity,

which occurs when two or more continuous independent variables are highly correlated (Hosmer et al., 2013). Therefore, the ordinal independent variables remained the same, and the categorical independent variables termed marital status, occupational industry, and type of unemployment were split into separate categories within the variable to create coded dummy variables (Agresti, 2010; Hardy, 1993). Next, a linear regression and collinearity diagnostic statistics were performed; the tolerance values must be greater than 0.1 to ensure that there is no multicollinearity (LS, 2015). The test for multicollinearity for Research Questions 5 indicated that all tolerance values were above 0.1. The test for multicollinearity is displayed in Table 37.

Moreover, ordinal logistic regression analysis requires that the assumption of proportionate odds is met, which refers to each independent variable having the same outcome at every cumulative split of the ordinal dependent variable (Hosmer et al., 2013; LS, 2015). This assumption was tested via a full likelihood ratio test that compares varying location parameters via a fit of proportionate odds model; a nonsignificant *p*-value indicates that the assumption of proportionate odds is met (Hosmer et al., 2013). The assumption of proportional odds was not met, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test comparing the fit of the proportional odds model to a model with varying location parameters, $\chi^2(48) = 67.486$, $p = .033$. Table 40 illustrates further the test of parallel lines for the assumption of proportionate odds.

Table 40

Test of Parallel Lines for the Assumption of Proportionate Odds for Research Question 5

Model	-2 log-likelihood	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Null hypothesis	1172.307			
General	1104.821[b]	67.486[c]	48	.033

Nonetheless, a violation of this assumption required me to overcome this violation by running separate binomial logistic regressions with the cumulative dichotomous dependent variable broken down into four categories that depicted the duration of unemployment among African American males on a scale of lowest to highest and the independent variables, which are African American males' age category, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and type of unemployment (LS, 2015). In order for the assumption of proportionate odds to be met, each dichotomous cumulative category must be somewhat similar, and the coefficients for the B parameter estimates and the Exp B odds ratio determines which variables need to be treated with more caution (LS, 2015). Hence, the B parameter and Exp B odds ratio were similar for all of the independent variables except for Category 1 and 2 of the B parameters estimates, and Category 1 of the Exp B odds ratio for the type of unemployment variable, and Category 2 for the B parameter estimates for the occupational industry variable. Consequently, these variables were treated with more caution during the final ordinal logistic regression analyses. The binary logistic regression is illustrated further in Table 41.

Table 41

Binomial Logistic Regression to Test for the Assumption of Proportionate Odds for Research Question 5.

	B (parameter estimates)				Exp B (odds ratio)			
	Cat1	Cat2	Cat3	Cat4	Cat1	Cat2	Cat3	Cat4
Age	.042	.193	.246	.316	.959	.824	.782	.729
Education	.094	.105	.037	.076	1.098	.900	.964	1.079
Industry	.649	.038	.204	.539	1.933	.963	.816	.583
Industry	.166	.271	.312	.567	1.180	.763	.732	.567
Marital	.043	.014	.185	.377	.958	.986	1.203	1.457
Marital	.216	.181	.449	.069	.806	1.198	1.566	1.072
Type	2.381	.747	.094	.289	.092	.474	.910	.749
Type	4.435	1.428	.553	.706	.012	.240	.575	.494

Note. In the interest of structure and clarity, the names of the column headings and the independent variables were shortened to abbreviations; thus, Category is termed (Cat), Age category is termed (Age), Education level is termed (Education), Occupational industry is termed (Industry), Marital status is termed (Marital), and Type of unemployment is termed (Type).

Hypotheses Testing Results

The hypotheses testing results consisted of providing statistical analyses for the five research questions and five null and alternative hypotheses. Moreover, these results were presented following a detailed explanation of which variables were measured in each research question and how they were represented in the demographic information survey, and the research survey questionnaire termed the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, which includes five dimensions termed innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance.

Accordingly, the five research questions, variables, and how they were represented on the survey were: (a) Research Question 1 was based on determining if all or any of the five dimensions used to measure entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which was innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance (Questions 12–30 on the survey) predicted the total number of times African American males were unemployed (Question 7 on the survey); (b) Research Question 2 was based on determining if all or any of the five dimensions used to measure entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which was innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance (Questions 12–30 on the survey) predicted African American males' duration of unemployment (Question 8 on the survey); (c) Research Question 3 was based on determining if African American males' age and education level (Questions 2 and 4 on the survey) predicted all or any of the five dimensions used to measure entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which were innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance (Questions 12–30 on the survey); (d) Research Question 4 was based on determining if African American males' age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and type of unemployment (Questions 2, 4, 6, and 9 on the survey) predicted the total number of times they were unemployed (Question 7 on the survey); and (e) Research Question 5 was based on determining if African American males' age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and type of unemployment (Questions 2, 4, 6, and 9 on the survey) predicted their duration of unemployment (Question 8 on the survey).

Additionally, a depiction of how the five dimensions used to measure entrepreneurial self-efficacy level were provided with the exact survey question numbers as they appeared on the survey, which is innovation was identified by Questions 12–14; marketing was characterized by Questions 15–18; networking was represented by Questions 19–21; management was delineated by Questions 22–27; and finance was represented by Questions 28–30. The questions of the dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale were originally measured via a 5-point Likert scale and subsequently matriculated together to create the composite variable dimensions, innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance (McGee et al., 2009). Therefore, since the dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale were treated as continuous independent variables for Research Questions 1, 2, and 3, they were entered into the covariates section of the ordinal logistic regression models. Appropriately, for Research Questions 4 and 5, the independent variables are ordinal and categorical; thus, they were entered in the factors section of the ordinal logistic regression models. Additionally, Research Question 3 contained two ordinal dependent variables; thus, two separate statistical analyses were performed.

Moreover, when performing an ordinal logistic regression, SPSS v27 uses the last category of a categorical or ordinal variable as a comparison reference to the other variables in the analysis (LS, 2015). Therefore, for Research Questions 4 and 5, the independent ordinal and categorical variables were entered in SPSS v27 as factors; thus, SPSS v27 used the last category of the variables for each analysis as a comparison reference. Appropriately, for Research Questions 4 and 5, the age category variable was

recoded to place the age category of 35 to 44 last for variable comparison reference purposes that are indicative of African American males' age categories and unemployment (U.S. BLS, 2020a); in an effort to obtain a superb midpoint age category reference to produce accurate and reliable results. Furthermore, the results of the ordinal logistic regression began with the statistically significant effects of the test of model effects, whether it is statistically significant or not, which provided the Wald test statistic to show the overall statistically significant effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable, this statistic is followed by the parameter estimates.

Research Question 1

RQ1**:** Does African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, as measured by the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, predict the self-reported number of times they were unemployed?

$H_0$1: African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not predict their self-reported number of times they were unemployed.

H_a1: African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level predicts their self-reported number of times they were unemployed.

A cumulative odds ordinal logistic regression with proportional odds was run to determine the effect of the dimensions that measure entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which are innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance, on the times of unemployment among African American males. There were proportional odds, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test comparing the fitted model to a model with varying location parameters, $\chi^2(20) = 11.552$, $p = .931$. The deviance goodness-of-fit test

indicated that the model was a good fit to the observed data, $\chi^2(2510) = 1487.334$, $p = 1.000$, but most cells were sparse with zero frequencies in 82.9% of the cells. Additionally, the final model did not statistically significantly predict the dependent variable over and above the intercept-only model, $\chi^2(5) = 10.408$, $p = .064$. Furthermore, the innovation dimension of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not have a significant effect on the prediction of times unemployed among African American males, with an odds ratio of 1.024, 95% CI, [.808 to 1.299], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .039$, $p = .843$. Additionally, the marketing dimension for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not have a significant effect on the prediction of times unemployed among African American males, with an odds ratio of 1.125, 95% CI, [.863 to 1.466], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .762$, $p = .383$. Moreover, the networking dimension for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not have a significant effect on the prediction of times unemployed among African American males, with an odds ratio of .883, 95% CI, [.665 to 1.173], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .734$, $p = .392$. Furthermore, the management dimension for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not have a significant effect on the prediction of times unemployed among African American males, with an odds ratio of 1.157, 95% CI, [.896 to 1.495], Wald $\chi^2(1) = 1.255$, $p = .263$. However, an increase in the finance dimension for the measurement of the entrepreneurial self-efficacy level is associated with a decrease in the odds of times unemployed among African American males, with an odds ratio of .754, 95% CI, [.607 to .936], a significantly significant effect, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 6.548$, $p = .010$. The results for the ordinal logistic regression analyses for Research Question 1 are illustrated further in Tables 33, 42, 43, 44, and 45.

Table 42

Deviance Goodness-of-Fit-Test for Research Question 1

	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Pearson	2543.893	2510	.314
Deviance	1487.334	2510	1.000

Table 43

Model Fitting Information for Research Question 1

Model	-2 log-likelihood	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Intercept only	1524.326			
Final	1513.918	10.408	5	.064

Table 44

Test of Model Effects for Research Question 1

		Type III	
Source	Wald chi-square	df	Sig.
Innovation	.039	1	.843
Marketing	.762	1	.383
Innovation	.734	1	.392
Management	1.255	1	.263
Finance	6.548	1	.010

Table 45

Parameter Estimates for Research Question 1 Regarding the Number of Times African American Males Were Unemployed and Their Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Level

	Hypotheses test			Odds ratio	95% Wald CI for exp (B)	
	Wald chi-square	df	Sig.	Exp (B)	Lower	Upper
NOTU 0	49.252	1	.000	.106	.057	.199
NOTU 1	.201	1	.654	.873	.483	1.578
NOTU 2	16.980	1	.000	3.568	1.948	6.533
NOTU 3	39.856	1	.000	7.760	4.108	14.659
NOTU 4	69.688	1	.000	25.274	11.840	53.950
Innovation	.039	1	.843	1.024	.808	1.299
Marketing	.762	1	.383	1.125	.863	1.466
Networking	.734	1	.392	.883	.665	1.173
Management	1.255	1	.263	1.157	.896	1.495
Finance	6.548	1	.010	.754	.607	.936

Note. In the interest of structure and clarity, the name of the dependent variable that represents the parameter threshold was shortened to an abbreviation; thus, the Number of times unemployed is termed (NOTU), and the confidence interval is termed (CI).

Research Question 2

RQ2**:** Does African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, as measured by the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, predict their self-reported average duration of unemployment?

$H_0$2: African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not predict their self-reported average duration of unemployment.

H_a2: African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level predicts their self-reported average duration of unemployment.

A cumulative odds ordinal logistic regression with proportional odds was run to determine the effect of the dimensions that measure entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which is innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance, on the duration of unemployment among African American males. There were proportional odds, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test comparing the fitted model to a model with varying location parameters, $\chi^2(15) = 21.645$, $p = .117$. The deviance goodness-of-fit test indicated that the model was a good fit to the observed data, $\chi^2(2007) = 1414.336$, $p = 1.000$, but most cells were sparse with zero frequencies in 79.4% of the cells. Additionally, the final model did not statistically significantly predict the dependent variable over and above the intercept-only model, $\chi^2(5) = 2.979$, $p = .703$. Accordingly, the innovation dimension for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not have a significant effect on the prediction of the duration of unemployment among African American males, with an odds ratio of .940, 95% CI, [.741 to 1.192], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .262$, $p = .609$. Furthermore, the marketing dimension for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not have a significant effect on the prediction of the duration of unemployment among African American males, with an odds ratio of .947, 95% CI, [.727 to 1.234], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .165$, $p = .685$. Additionally, the networking dimension for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not have a significant effect on the prediction of the duration of unemployment among African American males, with an odds ratio of 1.065, 95% CI, [.802 to 1.414], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .189$, $p = .663$. Moreover, the management dimension for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not have a significant effect on the prediction of the duration of

unemployment among African American males, with an odds ratio of 1.223, 95% CI, [.946 to 1.580], Wald $\chi^2(1) = 2.362$, $p = .124$. Equitably, the finance dimension for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not have a significant effect on the prediction of the duration of unemployment among African American males. with an odds ratio of .909, 95% CI, [.733 to 1.128], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .746$, $p = .388$. The results for the ordinal logistic regression analyses for Research Question 2 are illustrated further in Tables 34, 46, 47, 48, and 49.

Table 46

Deviance Goodness-of-Fit-Test for Research Question 2

	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Pearson	2010.644	2007	.473
Deviance	1414.336	2007	1.000

Table 47

Model Fitting Information for Research Question 2

Model	-2 log-likelihood	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Intercept only	1450.989			
Final	1448.010	2.979	5	.703

Table 48

Test of Model Effects for Research Question 2

		Type III	
Source	Wald chi-square	df	Sig.
Innovation	.262	1	.609
Marketing	.165	1	.685
Innovation	.189	1	.663
Management	2.362	1	.124
Finance	.746	1	.388

Table 49

Parameter Estimates for Research Question 2 Regarding the Duration of Unemployment Among African American Males and Their Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Level

	Hypotheses test			Odds ratio	95% Wald CI for exp (B)	
	Wald chi-square	df	Sig.	Exp (B)	Lower	Upper
DOU 0	28.026	1	.000	.189	.102	.351
DOU 1	2.569	1	.109	1.627	.897	2.951
DOU 2	32.736	1	.000	6.024	3.256	11.144
DOU 3	57.012	1	.000	11.809	6.222	22.415
Innovation	.262	1	.609	.940	.741	1.192
Marketing	.165	1	.685	.947	.727	1.234
Networking	.189	1	.663	1.065	.802	1.414
Management	2.362	1	.124	1.223	.946	1.580
Finance	.746	1	.388	.909	.733	1.128

Note. In the interest of structure and clarity, the name of the dependent variable that represents the parameter threshold was shortened to an abbreviation; thus, the Duration of unemployment is termed (DOU), and the confidence interval is termed (CI).

Research Question 3

RQ3**:** Does age and education level predict African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level as measured by the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale?

$H_0$3: Age and education level do not predict African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level.

H_a3: Age and education level predict African American male entrepreneurial self-efficacy level.

A cumulative odds ordinal logistic regression with proportional odds was run to determine the effect of the dimensions that measure entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which are innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance, on African American males' age (expressed in years). There were proportional odds, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test comparing the fitted model to a model with varying location parameters, $\chi^2(20) = 26.751$, $p = .142$. The deviance goodness-of-fit test indicated that the model was a good fit to the observed data, $\chi^2(2510) = 1724.787$, $p = 1.000$, but most cells were sparse with zero frequencies in 82.8% of the cells. Accordingly, the final model statistically significantly predicted the dependent variable over and above the intercept-only model, $\chi^2(5) = 39.254$, $p = .000$. However, the innovation dimension for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not have a significant effect on African American males' age (expressed in years), with an odds ratio of 1.161, 95% CI, [.922 to 1.463], Wald $\chi^2(1) = 1.617$, $p = .204$. Additionally, the marketing dimension for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level had a statistically significant effect

on the prediction of African American males' age (expressed in years), Wald $\chi^2(1) = 6.077$, $p = .014$. Equivalently, an increase in the marketing dimension for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level is associated with a decrease in the odds of older age categories (expressed in years) among African American males, with an odds ratio of .723, 95% CI, [.559 to .936]. Furthermore, the networking dimension for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not have a significant effect on African American males' age (expressed in years), with an odds ratio of .911, 95% CI, [.692 to 1.199], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .439$, $p = .507$. Furthermore, the management dimension for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of African American males' age (expressed in years), Wald $\chi^2(1) = 29.527$, $p = .000$. Equivalently, an increase in the management dimension for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level is associated with an increase in the odds of older age categories (expressed in years) among African American males, with an odds ratio of 2.032, 95% CI, [1.573 to 2.624]. Moreover, the finance dimension for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of African American males' age (expressed in years), Wald $\chi^2(1) = 6.759$, $p = .009$. Equivalently, an increase in the finance dimension for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level is associated with a decrease in the odds of older age categories (expressed in years) among African American males, with an odds ratio of .757, 95% CI, [.613 to .934]. The results for the ordinal logistic regression analyses for Research Question 3 with age as the dependent variable are illustrated further in Tables 35, 50, 51, 52, and 53.

Table 50

Deviance Goodness-of-Fit-Test for Research Question 3 With Age Category as the Dependent Variable

	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Pearson	2499.248	2510	.557
Deviance	1724.787	2510	1.000

Table 51

Model Fitting Information for Research Question 3 With Age Category as the Dependent Variable

Model	-2 log-likelihood	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Intercept only	1802.177			
Final	1762.923	39.254	5	.000

Table 52

Test of Model Effects for Research Question 3 With Age Category as the Dependent Variable

		Type III	
Source	Wald chi-square	df	Sig.
Innovation	1.617	1	.204
Marketing	6.077	1	.014
Innovation	.439	1	.507
Management	29.527	1	.000
Finance	6.759	1	.009

Table 53

Parameter Estimates for Research Question 3 Regarding African American Males' Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Level With Age Category as the Dependent Variable

	Hypotheses test			Odds ratio	95% Wald CI for exp (B)	
	Wald chi-square	df	Sig.	Exp (B)	Lower	Upper
Age 1	5.232	1	.022	.508	.284	.908
Age 2	2.353	1	.125	1.572	.882	2.801
Age 3	15.861	1	.000	3.282	1.829	5.891
Age 4	48.828	1	.000	8.602	4.704	15.731
Age 5	98.287	1	.000	27.334	14.213	52.570
Innovation	1.617	1	.204	1.161	.922	1.463
Marketing	6.077	1	.014	.723	.559	.936
Networking	.489	1	.507	.911	.692	1.199
Management	29.527	1	.000	2.032	1.573	2.624
Finance	6.759	1	.009	.757	.613	.934

Note. In the interest of structure and clarity, the name of the dependent variable that represents the parameter threshold was shortened to an abbreviation; thus, the dependent variable, Age category, is termed (Age), and the confidence interval is termed (CI).

A cumulative odds ordinal logistic regression with proportional odds was run to determine the effect of the dimensions for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which are innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance, on African American males' education level. There were proportional odds, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test comparing the fitted model to a model with varying location parameters, $\chi^2(20) = 25.260$, $p = .192$. The deviance goodness-of-fit test indicated that the model was a good fit to the observed data, $\chi^2(2510) = 1548.282$, $p = 1.000$, but most cells were sparse with zero frequencies in 82.8% of the cells. Additionally, the final model statistically significantly predicted the dependent variable over and above the intercept-

only model, $\chi^2(5) = 26.657$, $p = .000$. Moreover, the innovation dimension for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of African American males' education level, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 4.633$, $p = .031$. Equivalently, an increase in the innovation dimension for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level is associated with an increase in the odds of a higher education level among African American males, with an odds ratio of 1.293, 95% CI, [1.023 to 1.634]. Moreover, the marketing dimension for the measurement of the entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not have a significant effect on African American males' education level, with an odds ratio of .795, 95% CI, [.613 to 1.031], Wald $\chi^2(1) = 2.987$, $p = .084$. Additionally, the networking dimension for the measurement of the entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not have a significant effect on African American males' education level, with an odds ratio of 1.170, 95% CI, [.886 1.545], Wald $\chi^2(1) = 1.219$, $p = .270$. Additionally, the management dimension for the measurement of the entrepreneurial self-efficacy level had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of African American males' education level, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 4.433$, $p = .035$. Equitably, an increase in the management dimension for the measurement of the entrepreneurial self-efficacy level is associated with an increase in African American males' education level, with an odds ratio of 1.310, 95% CI, [1.019 to 1.685]. Additionally, the finance dimension for the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does not have a significant effect on African American males' education level, with an odds ratio of .922, 95% CI, [.747 to 1.140], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .561$, $p = .454$. The results for the ordinal logistic

regression analyses for Research Question 3 with education level as the dependent variable are illustrated further in Tables 36, 54, 55, 56, and 57.

Table 54

Deviance Goodness-of-Fit-Test for Research Question 3 With Education Level as the Dependent Variable

	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Pearson	2457.528	2510	.769
Deviance	1548.282	2510	1.000

Table 55

Model Fitting Information for Research Question 3 With Education Level as the Dependent Variable

Model	-2 log-likelihood	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Intercept only	1610.270			
Final	1583.613	26.657	5	.000

Table 56

Test of Model Effects for Research Question 3 With Education Level as the Dependent Variable

		Type III	
Source	Wald chi-square	df	Sig.
Innovation	4.633	1	.031
Marketing	2.987	1	.084
Innovation	1.219	1	.270
Management	4.433	1	.035
Finance	.561	1	.454

Table 57

Parameter Estimates for Research Question 3 Regarding African American Males' Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Level With Education Level as the Dependent Variable

	Hypotheses test			Odds ratio	95% Wald CI for exp (B)	
	Wald chi-square	df	Sig.	Exp (B)	Lower	Upper
Education 1	26.880	1	.000	.176	.092	.340
Education 2	.827	1	.363	1.311	.732	2.348
Education 3	24.757	1	.000	4.541	2.502	8.242
Education 4	91.517	1	.000	22.557	11.913	42.710
Education 5	150.040	1	.000	130.334	59.790	284.110
Innovation	4.633	1	.031	1.293	1.023	1.634
Marketing	2.987	1	.084	.795	.613	1.031
Networking	1.219	1	.270	1.170	.886	1.545
Management	4.433	1	.035	1.310	1.019	1.685
Finance	.561	1	.454	.922	.747	1.140

Note. In the interest of structure and clarity, the name of the dependent variable that represents the parameter threshold was shortened to an abbreviation; thus, the dependent variable, Education level, is termed (Education), and the confidence interval is termed (CI).

Research Question 4

RQ4: Does age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predict African American males' self-reported number of times they were unemployed?

$H_0$4: Age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment do not predict African American males' self-reported number of times they were unemployed.

H_a4: Age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predicts African American males' self-reported number of times they were unemployed.

A cumulative odds ordinal logistic regression with proportional odds was run to determine the effect of African American males' age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and type of unemployment on the number of times of unemployment among African American males. There were no proportional odds, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test comparing the fitted model to a model with varying location parameters, $\chi^2(64) = 120.117$, $p = .000$; thus, separate binomial logistic regressions were performed on the dichotomous dependent variables. The deviance goodness-of-fit test indicated that the model was a good fit to the observed data, $\chi^2(1579) = 1055.028$, $p = 1.000$, but most cells were sparse with zero frequencies in 77.3% of the cells. Additionally, the final model statistically significantly predicted the dependent variable over and above the intercept-only model, $\chi^2(16) = 123.280$, $p = .000$.

Moreover, African American males' age (expressed in years) had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of times of unemployment among African American males, Wald $\chi^2(5) = 15.765$, $p = .008$. Hence, an increase in African American males' age (expressed in years) 18–24 was statistically significantly different for their number of times unemployed compared to African American males age (expressed in years) 35–44, Wald $\chi2(1) = 10.342$, $p = .001$. Equitably, the odds for the number of times unemployed for African American males age 18–24 is less than for African American males age (expressed in years) 35–44, with an odds ratio of .387, 95% CI [.217, .690]. Furthermore,

an increase in African American males' age (expressed in years) 25–34 was not statistically significantly different for their number of times unemployed compared to African American males age (expressed in years) 35–44, with an odds ratio of .739, 95% CI [.420, 1.301], Wald $\chi 2(1) = 1.097$, $p = .295$. Correspondently, an increase in African American males' age (expressed in years) 45–54 was not statistically significantly different for their number of times unemployed compared to African American males age (expressed in years) 35–44, with an odds ratio of .914, 95% CI [.444, 1.882]. Wald $\chi 2(1) = .059$, $p = .808$. Moreover, an increase in African American males' age (expressed in years) 55–64 was not statistically significantly different for their number of times unemployed compared to African American males age (expressed in years) 35–44, with an odds ratio of .763, 95% CI [.424, 1.374], Wald $\chi 2(1) = .813$, p = .367. Subsequently, an increase in African American males' age (expressed in years) 65 and over was not statistically significantly different for their number of times unemployed compared to African American males age (expressed in years) 35–44, with an odds ratio of .948, 95% CI [.534, 1.684], Wald $\chi 2(1) = .033$, p = .857.

Furthermore, African American males' education level had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of times of unemployment among African American males, Wald $\chi^2(5) = 12.896$, $p = .024$. However, African American males with an education level of less than a high school diploma were not statistically significantly different for their number of times unemployed compared to the African American males with an education level of an academic or professional doctoral degree, with an odds ratio of 1.464, 95% CI [.468, 4.579], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .430$, $p = .512$. Additionally, African

American males with an education level of a high school diploma were not statistically significantly different for their number of times unemployed compared to the African American males with an academic or professional doctoral degree, with an odds ratio of .660, 95% CI [.249, 1.746], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .702$, $p = .402$. Furthermore, African American males with an education level of some college were not statistically significantly different for their number of times unemployed compared to the African American males with an education level of an academic or professional doctoral degree, with an odds ratio of .841, 95% CI [.321, 2.199], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .125$, $p = .723$. Correspondently, African American males with an education level of bachelor's degree were not statistically significantly different for their number of times unemployed compared to the African American males with an education level of an academic or professional doctoral degree, with an odds ratio of .566, 95% CI [.216, 1.482], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .1.342$, $p = .247$. Subsequently, African American males with an education level of master's degree were not statistically significantly different for their number of times unemployed compared to the African American males with an education level of an academic or professional doctoral degree, with an odds ratio of .408, 95% CI [.146, 1.136], Wald $\chi^2(1) = 2.947$, $p = .086$.

Correspondently, African American males' marital status did not have a statistically significant effect on the prediction of times of unemployment among African American males, Wald $\chi^2(5) = 2.808$, $p = .246$. Moreover, African American males with a marital status of married were not statistically significantly different for their number of times unemployed compared to the African American males with a marital status of

never married, with an odds ratio of 1.327, 95% CI [.917, 1.920], Wald $\chi^2(1) = 2.255$, $p = .133$. Subsequently, African American males with a marital status of divorced, widowed, or separated were not statistically significantly different for their number of times unemployed compared to the African American males with a marital status of never married, with an odds ratio of 1.369, 95% CI [.854, 2.194], Wald $\chi^2(1) = 1.702$, $p = .192$.

Moreover, African American males' occupational industry did not have a statistically significant effect on the prediction of times of unemployment among African American males, Wald $\chi^2(5) = 5.286$, $p = .071$. Additionally, an increase in African American males affiliated with the occupational industries of business and management, retail, government, or transportation was statistically significantly different for their number of times unemployed compared to African American males affiliated with the occupational industries of education, health care, or other services not listed Wald $\chi^2(1) = 3.901$, $p = .048$. Equitably, the odds for the number of times unemployed for African American males affiliated with the occupational industries of business and management, retail, government, or transportation is less than for African American males affiliated with the occupational industries of education, health care, or other services not listed, with an odds ratio of .675, 95% CI [.457, .997]. Subsequently, African American males affiliated with the occupational industries of manufacturing (durable goods, nondurable goods, and construction) was not statistically significantly different for their number of times unemployed compared to African American males affiliated with the occupational industries of education, health care, or other services not listed, with an odds ratio of .956, 95% CI [.613, 1.490], Wald χ^2 (1) = .040, $p = .842$.

Additionally, African American males' type of unemployment had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of times of unemployment among African American males, Wald $\chi^2(5) = 90.008$, $p = .000$. Moreover, an increase in African American males with a voluntary type of unemployment was statistically significantly different for their number of times unemployed compared to African American males with a not applicable type of unemployment, Wald χ^2 (5) = 52.340, $p = .000$. Equitably, the odds for the number of times unemployed for African American males with a voluntary type of unemployment is increased compared to African American males with a not applicable type of unemployment, with an odds ratio of 5.795, 95% CI [3.600, 9.328]. Subsequently, an increase in African American males with an involuntary, e.g., termination due to factors out of your control type of unemployment was statistically significantly different for their number of times unemployed compared to African American males with a not applicable type of unemployment, Wald χ^2 (5) = 88.894, $p = .000$. Equitably, the odds for the number of times unemployed for African American males with an involuntary, e.g., termination due to factors out of your control type of unemployment is increased compared to African American males with a not applicable type of unemployment, with an odds ratio of 8.703, 95% CI [5.551, 13.647]. The results for the ordinal logistic regression analyses for Research Question 4 are illustrated further in Tables 38, 39, 58, 59, 60, and 61.

Table 58

Deviance Goodness-of-Fit-Test for Research Question 4

	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Pearson	2272.970	1579	.000
Deviance	1055.028	1579	1.000

Table 59

Model Fitting Information for Research Question 4

Model	-2 log-likelihood	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Intercept only	1360.320			
Final	1237.041	123.280	16	.000

Table 60

Test of Model Effects for Research Question 4

		Type III	
Source	Wald chi-square	df	Sig.
Age category	15.765	5	.008
Education level	12.896	5	.024
Marital status	2.808	2	.246
Occupational industry	5.286	2	.071
Type of unemployment	90.008	2	.000

Table 61

Parameter Estimates for Research Question 4 Regarding the Number of Times African American Males Were Unemployed and Their Age, Education Level, Marital Status, Occupational Industry, and Type of Unemployment

	Hypotheses test			Odds ratio	95% Wald CI for exp (B)	
	Wald chi-square	df	Sig.	Exp (B)	Lower	Upper
NOTU 0	5.559	1	.018	.267	.089	.800
NOTU 1	4.564	1	.033	3.324	1.104	10.007
NOTU 2	23.110	1	.000	15.430	5.057	47.084
NOTU 3	37.347	1	.000	34.346	11.048	106.772
NOTU 4	58.921	1	.000	113.246	33.850	378.868
Age 1	10.342	1	.001	.387	.217	.690
Age 2	1.097	1	.295	.739	.420	1.301
Age 3	.059	1	.808	.914	.444	1.882
Age 4	.813	1	.367	.763	.424	1.374
Age 5	.033	1	.857	.948	.534	1.684
Education 1	.430	1	.512	1.464	.468	4.579
Education 2	.702	1	.402	.660	.249	1.746
Education 3	.125	1	.723	.841	.321	2.199
Education 4	1.342	1	.247	.566	.216	1.482
Education 5	2.947	1	.086	.408	.146	1.136
Marital 1	2.255	1	.133	1.327	.917	1.920
Marital 2	1.702	1	.192	1.369	.854	2.194
Industry 1	3.901	1	.048	.675	.457	.997
Industry 2	.040	1	.842	.956	.613	1.490
Type 1	52.340	1	.000	5.795	3.600	9.328
Type 2	88.894	1	.000	8.703	5.551	13.647

Note. In the interest of structure and clarity, the name of the dependent variable that represents the parameter threshold was shortened to an abbreviation; thus, the Number of times unemployed is (NOTU). Moreover, the independent variables were also shortened to abbreviations; hence, Age category is (Age), Education level is (Education), Occupational industry is (Industry), Marital status is (Marital), and Type of unemployment is (Type); additionally, the confidence interval is (CI).

Research Question 5

RQ5: Does age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predict African American males' self-reported average duration of unemployment?

$H_0$5: Age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment do not predict African American males' self-reported average duration of unemployment.

H_a5: Age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predicts African American males' self-reported average duration of unemployment.

A cumulative odds ordinal logistic regression with proportional odds was run to determine the effect of African American males' age, education level, marital status, occupational industries, and type of unemployment on the duration of unemployment among African American males. There were no proportional odds, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test comparing the fitted model to a model with varying location parameters, $\chi^2(48) = 67.486$, $p = .033$; thus, separate binomial logistic regressions were performed on the dichotomous dependent variables. The deviance goodness-of-fit test indicated that the model was a good fit to the observed data, $\chi^2(1260) = 982.038$, $p = 1.000$, but most cells were sparse with zero frequencies in 72.6% of the cells. Additionally, the final model statistically significantly predicted the dependent variable over and above the intercept-only model, $\chi^2(16) = 110.391$, $p = .000$.

Moreover, African American males' age (expressed in years) had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of the duration of unemployment among African American males, Wald $\chi^2(5) = 12.229$, $p = .032$. Additionally, an increase in African American males' age (expressed in years) 18–24 was statistically significantly different for their duration of unemployment compared to African American males age (expressed in years) 35–44, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 9.671$, $p = .002$. Equitably, the odds for the duration of unemployment for African American males age 18–24 is less than for African American males age (expressed in years) 35–44, with an odds ratio of .402, 95% CI [.226, .714]. Additionally, an increase in African American males' age (expressed in years) 25–34 was statistically significantly different for their duration of unemployment compared to African American males age (expressed in years) 35–44, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 4.845$, $p = .028$. Correspondently, the odds for the duration of unemployment for African American males age 25–34 is less than for African American males age (expressed in years) 35–44, with an odds ratio of .530, 95% CI [.301, .933]. However, an increase in African American males' age (expressed in years) 45–54 was not statistically significantly different for their duration of unemployment compared to African American males age (expressed in years) 35–44, with an odds ratio of .802, 95% CI [.390, 1.649], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .361$, $p = .548$. Additionally, an increase in African American males' age (expressed in years) 55–64 was statistically significantly different for their duration of unemployment compared to African American males age (expressed in years) 35–44, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 6.907$, $p = .009$. Equitably, the odds for the duration of unemployment for African American males age 55–64 is less than for African American males age (expressed in years) 35–44, with an

odds ratio of .453, 95% CI [.251, .818]. Subsequently, an increase in African American males' age (expressed in years) 65 and over was not statistically significantly different for their duration of unemployment compared to African American males age (expressed in years) 35–44, with an odds ratio of 1.627, 95% CI [.353, 1.115], Wald $\chi^2(1) = 2.524$, $p = .112$.

Furthermore, African American males' education level did not have a statistically significant effect on the prediction of the duration of unemployment among African American males, Wald $\chi^2(5) = 3.403$, $p = .638$. Moreover, African American males with an education level of less than a high school diploma were not statistically significantly different for their duration of unemployment compared to African American males with an education level of an academic or professional doctoral degree, with an odds ratio of .921, 95% CI [.294, 2.886], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .020$, $p = .887$. Furthermore, African American males with an education level of a high school diploma were not statistically significantly different for their duration of unemployment compared to African American males with an education level of an academic or professional doctoral degree, with an odds ratio of .523, 95% CI [.197, 1.385], Wald $\chi^2(1) = 1.703$, $p = .192$. Moreover, African American males with an education level of some college were not statistically significantly different for their duration of unemployment compared to African American males with an education level of an academic or professional doctoral degree, with an odds ratio of .648, 95% CI [.248, 1.695], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .783$, $p = .376$. Correspondently, African American males with an education level of a bachelor's degree were not statistically significantly different for their duration of unemployment compared to African American

males with an education level of an academic or professional doctoral degree, with an odds ratio of .625, 95% CI [.239, 1.633], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .920$, $p = .338$. Subsequently, African American males with an education level of a master's degree were not statistically significantly different for their duration of unemployment compared to African American males with an education level of an academic or professional doctoral degree, with an odds ratio of .676, 95% CI [.244, 1.872], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .568$, $p = .451$.

Correspondently, African American males' marital status did not have a statistically significant effect on the prediction of the duration of unemployment among African American males, Wald $\chi^2(2) = .667$, $p = .716$. Moreover, African American males with a marital status of married were not statistically significantly different for their duration of unemployment compared to African American males with a marital status of never married, with an odds ratio of .944, 95% CI [.653, 1.363], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .095$, $p = .758$. Subsequently, African American males with a marital status of divorced, widowed, or separated were not statistically significantly different for their duration of unemployment compared to African American males with a marital status of never married, with an odds ratio of .822, 95% CI [.512, 1.317], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .666$, $p = .415$.

Moreover, African American males' occupational industry did not have a statistically significant effect on the prediction of the duration of unemployment among African American males, Wald $\chi^2(2) = 1.189$, $p = .552$. Additionally, African American males affiliated with the occupational industries of business and management, retail, government, or transportation was not statistically significantly different for their duration of unemployment compared to African American males affiliated with the

occupational industries of education, health care, or other services not listed, with an odds ratio of .956, 95% CI [.648, 1.410], Wald $\chi^2(1) = .052$, $p = .819$. Subsequently, African American males affiliated with the occupational industries of manufacturing (durable goods, nondurable goods, and construction) was not statistically significantly different for their duration of unemployment compared to African American males affiliated with occupational industries of education, health care, or other services not listed, with an odds ratio of 1.180, 95% CI [.756, 1.842], Wald χ^2 (1) = .531, $p = .466$.

Additionally, African American males' type of unemployment had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of the duration of unemployment among African American males, Wald $\chi^2(2) = 95.020$, $p = .000$. Moreover, an increase in African American males with a voluntary type of unemployment was statistically significantly different for their duration of unemployment compared to African American males with a not applicable type of unemployment, Wald χ^2 (1) = 45.038, $p = .000$. Equitably, the odds for the duration of unemployment for African American males with a voluntary type of unemployment is increased compared to African American males with a not applicable type of unemployment, with an odds ratio of 5.124, 95% CI [3.178, 8.252]. Subsequently, an increase in African American males with an involuntary, e.g., termination due to factors out of your control type of unemployment was statistically significantly different for their duration of unemployment compared to African American males with a not applicable type of unemployment, Wald χ^2 (1) = 95.019, $p = .000$. Equitably, the odds for the duration of unemployment for African American males with an involuntary, e.g., termination due to factors out of your control type of unemployment is increased

compared to African American males with a not applicable type of unemployment, with an odds ratio of 9.669, 95% CI [6.127, 15.259]. The results for the ordinal logistic regression analyses for Research Question 5 are illustrated further in Tables 40, 41, 62, 63, 64, and 65.

Table 62

Deviance Goodness-of-Fit-Test for Research Question 5

	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Pearson	1668.701	1260	.000
Deviance	982.038	1260	1.000

Table 63

Model Fitting Information for Research Question 5

Model	-2 log-likelihood	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Intercept only	1282.698			
Final	1172.307	110.391	16	.000

Table 64

Test of Model Effects for Research Question 5

		Type III	
Source	Wald chi-square	df	Sig.
Age category	12.229	5	.032
Education level	3.403	5	.638
Marital status	.667	2	.716
Occupational industry	1.189	2	.552
Type of unemployment	95.020	2	.000

Table 65

Parameter Estimates for Research Question 5 Regarding the Duration of Unemployment Among African American Males and Their Age, Education Level, Marital Status, Occupational Industry, and Type of Unemployment

	Hypotheses test			Odds ratio	95% Wald CI for exp (B)	
	Wald chi-square	df	Sig.	Exp (B)	Lower	Upper
DOU 0	8.242	1	.004	.200	.067	.600
DOU 1	2.851	1	.091	2.582	.859	7.767
DOU 2	17.287	1	.000	10.534	3.472	31.962
DOU 3	28.292	1	.000	21.067	6.853	64.762
Age 1	9.671	1	.002	.402	.226	.714
Age 2	4.845	1	.028	.530	.301	.933
Age 3	.361	1	.548	.802	.390	1.649
Age 4	6.907	1	.009	.453	.251	.818
Age 5	2.524	1	.112	.627	.353	1.115
Education 1	.020	1	.887	.921	.294	2.886
Education 2	1.703	1	.192	.523	.197	1.385
Education 3	.783	1	.376	.648	.248	1.695
Education 4	.920	1	.338	.625	.239	1.633
Education 5	.568	1	.451	.676	.244	1.872
Marital 1	.095	1	.758	.944	.653	1.363
Marital 2	.666	1	.415	.822	.512	1.317
Industry 1	.052	1	.819	.956	.648	1.410
Industry 2	.531	1	.466	1.180	.756	1.842
Type 1	45.038	1	.000	5.121	3.178	8.252
Type 2	95.019	1	.000	9.669	6.127	15.259

Note. In the interest of structure and clarity, the name of the dependent variable that represents the parameter threshold was shortened to an abbreviation; thus, the Duration of unemployment is (DOU). Moreover, the independent variables were also shortened to abbreviations; hence, Age category is (Age), Education level is (Education), Occupational industry is (Industry), Marital status is (Marital), and Type of unemployment is (Type); additionally, the confidence interval is (CI).

Additional Statistical Tests

The statistical analyses employed in this study provided in-depth computations, which ascertained approximate relationships and predictions among the variables; therefore, there was no need for additional statistical analyses. However, the last question at the end of my survey was an open-ended question that asked participants if they would like to add anything regarding the topic of the examination. Accordingly, common themes associated with a myriad of the responses included: (a) the appreciation for someone finally trying to address this significant social issue; (b) others commented that they hoped for meaningful change to derive from this study as society seems not to care; (c) some expressed their interest in entrepreneurship and opening businesses but claimed that they had no knowledge of doing so; and (d) some articulated an interest in wanting to glean more information regarding what entrepreneurial self-efficacy was and how it could assist the African American community. Next, the hypotheses testing is articulated further with a summary of the research questions.

Summary of the Research Questions

I used SPSS v27 to report statistical analyses for all of the research questions employed in this quantitative nonexperimental correlational examination. Subsequently, a summary of the hypotheses testing for Research Questions 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 is provided next.

Research Question 1

Research Question 1 investigated whether the five dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale predicted the number of times that African American

males were unemployed. Accordingly, an ordinal logistic regression analysis was performed on the five dimensions used to measure African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which consisted of innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance and the number of times that African American males were unemployed. The results indicated that the finance dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of the number of times that African American males were unemployed, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 6.548$, $p = .010$. Furthermore, the other dimensions used to measure entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which was innovation, marketing, networking, and management, were not statistically significant for the prediction of the number of times that African American males were unemployed. However, the statistically significant results of the finance dimension suggested that entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does predict the number of times that African American males were unemployed; thus, the null hypothesis was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis was retained.

Research Question 2

Research Question 2 investigated whether the five dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale predicted the duration of unemployment among African American males. Accordingly, an ordinal logistic regression analysis was performed on the five dimensions used to measure African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which consisted of innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance and African American males' duration of unemployment. The results indicated that entrepreneurial self-efficacy level did not statistically significantly

predict African American males' duration of unemployment. Accordingly, since there were no significant findings, the null hypothesis was retained, and the alternative hypothesis was rejected.

Research Question 3

Research Question 3 investigated whether African American males' age predicted their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Accordingly, an ordinal logistic regression analysis was performed on African American males' age and the five dimensions used to measure their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which consisted of innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance. The results indicated that the final model statistically significantly predicted the dependent variable over and above the intercept-only model, $\chi^2(5) = 39.254$, $p = .000$. Additionally, the marketing dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of African American males' age (expressed in years), Wald $\chi^2(1) = 6.077$, $p = .014$. Furthermore, the management dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of African American males' age (expressed in years), Wald $\chi^2(1) = 29.527$, $p = .000$. Moreover, the finance dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of African American males' age (expressed in years), Wald $\chi^2(1) = 6.759$, $p = .009$. However, the innovation and networking dimensions used to measure entrepreneurial self-efficacy level were not statistically significant; nonetheless, the statistically significant *p* values for the marketing, management, and finance dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale suggested that African American males' age

predicts their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis was retained.

Research Question 3 investigated whether African American males' education level predicted their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Accordingly, an ordinal logistic regression analysis was performed on African American males' education level and the five dimensions used to measure their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which consisted of innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance. The results indicated that the final model statistically significantly predicted the dependent variable over and above the intercept-only model, $\chi^2(5) = 26.657$, $p = .000$. Moreover, the innovation dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of African American males' education level, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 4.633$, $p = .031$. Additionally, the management dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of African American males' education level, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 4.433$, $p = .035$. Furthermore, the marketing, networking, and finance dimensions used to measure entrepreneurial self-efficacy level were not significant; however, the significant *p* values for the innovation and management dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale indicated that African American males' education level predicts their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Accordingly, the null hypothesis was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis was retained.

Research Question 4

Research Question 4 investigated whether African American males' age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment

predict the number of times they were unemployed. Accordingly, an ordinal logistic regression analysis was performed on African American males' age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and type of unemployment, and the number of times African American males were unemployed. The results indicated that the final model statistically significantly predicted the dependent variable over and above the intercept-only model, $\chi^2(16) = 123.280$, $p = .000$. Moreover, African American males' age (expressed in years) had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of the number of times that African American males were unemployed, Wald $\chi^2(5) = 15.765$, $p = .008$. Furthermore, African American males' education level had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of the number of times that African American males were unemployed, Wald $\chi^2(5) = 12.896$, $p = .024$. Additionally, African American males' type of unemployment had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of the number of times that African American males were unemployed, Wald $\chi^2(2) = 90.008$, $p = .000$. Correspondently, African American males affiliated with the occupational industries of business and management, retail, government, and transportation had decreased odds for their number of times unemployed compared to African American males affiliated with the occupational industries of health care, education, and other services not listed. Moreover, African American males' marital status did not have a statistically significant effect on the number of times they were unemployed. However, African American males' age, education level, and type of unemployment did have a statistically significant effect on the prediction of the number of times they were unemployed. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis was retained.

Research Question 5

Research Question 5 investigated whether African American males' age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and/or type of unemployment predict their duration of unemployment. Accordingly, an ordinal logistic regression analysis was performed on African American males' age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and type of unemployment, and African American males' duration of unemployment. The results indicated that the final model statistically significantly predicted the dependent variable over and above the intercept-only model, $\chi^2(16) = 110.391$, $p = .000$. Moreover, African American males' age (expressed in years) had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of African American males' duration of unemployment, Wald $\chi^2(5) = 12.229$, $p = .032$. Additionally, African American males' type of unemployment had a statistically significant effect on the prediction of African American males' duration of unemployment, Wald $\chi^2(2) = 95.020$, $p = .000$. Correspondently, African American males in the age categories of 18–24, 25–34, and 55–64 had a decreased odds for their duration of unemployment compared to African American males that were 35–44. Furthermore, African American males' education level, marital status, and occupational industry did not statistically significantly predict their duration of unemployment. However, African American males' age and type of unemployment did have a statistically significant effect on the prediction of their duration of unemployment; thus, the null hypothesis was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis was retained.

Summary

In Chapter 4, I articulated a diligent process of elucidating the analyses of this study. Essentially, I provided the research questions and hypotheses, the structure of Chapter 4, and the data collection procedures, which included recruitment, timeframe, and response rates. Moreover, I provided participants' demographics and descriptive statistics, which delineated that the sample of $N = 558$ African American males that participated in this study was a superb representation of the larger population of African American males. Furthermore, I provided Cronbach's alpha reliability statistics and statistical assumptions in Chapter 4. Additionally, I presented the analyses of this quantitative nonexperimental correlational study in Chapter 4, which consisted of utilizing an online survey to collect data from the study's participants to ascertain computations regarding the research questions and hypotheses employed in this investigation.

Correspondently, I used SPSS v27 to perform ordinal logistic regression analyses for Research Questions 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 to ascertain relationships and predictions among the dependent and independent variables. Accordingly, based on the results of the data analyses, the alternative hypotheses for Research Questions 1, 3, 4, and 5 contained significant *p* values; thus, they were accepted, and the alternative hypothesis for Research Question 2 was rejected per the results of the statistical tests, which contained nonsignificant *p* values. Therefore, the purpose of this study was satisfied per the results of the quantitative analyses performed to discover relationships and predictions that exist

between unemployment among African American males and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Therefore, the presentation of results for Chapter 4 is concluded.

Next, Chapter 5 presents a thorough and deeper explanation for the findings of Chapter 4. Additionally, Chapter 5 reiterates the purpose of the study, summarizes key findings, provides the study's limitations, employs recommendations based on the examination's findings and empirical data from the literature review, dispenses implications for positive social change, and imparts a conclusion to summarize the study.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

Systemic government-sanctioned institutional policies have created enormous obstacles for African Americans' initiatives of achieving economic freedom and empowerment through wealth attainment. The systemic institutional barriers mentioned has exacerbated a host of economic, educational, employment, entrepreneurial, and criminal justice inequities for African Americans (Alexander, 2010; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Asante-Muhammad et al., 2017; Baradaran, 2015/2018, 2017/2019; Engram, 2019; Ginsburg et al., 2018; Hanks et al., 2018; Jan, 2019; JEC, n.d.; Kendi, 2016/2017; A. Lee et al., n.d.; A. R. Muhammad, 2018; Pager, 2003; Patton, 2015; Rochester, 2017; Rothstein, 2017; Sewell, 2020; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2019a; U.S. EEOC, n.d.). Accordingly, while this body of research has mainly focused on the abundance of systemic inequitable deterrents that African American males must endure and overcome to procure equitable employment and economic affluence, I identified the gap in the literature regarding entrepreneurial self-efficacy level as a catalyst to escalate African American males' entrepreneurial endeavors and success for the attainment of economic empowerment through financial independence and self-employment (C. Anderson, 2001; Fairlie & Robb, 2016; A. Lee et al., n.d.; McGee et al., 2009).

Purpose of the Study

As of this writing, unemployment and economic prosperity among African American males continue to be pernicious to their basic survival and very existence (Asante-Muhammad et al., 2017; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2020a; V. Wilson,

2019). Consequently, the purpose of this quantitative nonexperimental correlational study was to explore relationships and predictions between the various levels of unemployment among African American men and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. The inference for positive social change is consistent with educating America concerning a significant social issue, which may motivate lawmakers to implement policies and social programs to improve unemployment among African American men and to provide them with knowledge regarding the importance of possessing high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Supplementary, I aspired to contribute to the existing literature concerning this consequential social issue. Moreover, the results of this study provided African American men with a catalyst, consistent with discovering the confidence needed for them to conceive sustainable businesses that will increase their entrepreneurial endeavors and provide a spectrum of occupations in their communities.

Key Findings

The ordinal logistic regression results indicated that entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which was measured with the innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, statistically significantly predicted the number of times African American males were unemployed. Explicitly, the finance dimension that measures entrepreneurial self-efficacy level statistically significantly predicted the number of times African American males were unemployed. Additionally, entrepreneurial self-efficacy level did not statistically significantly predict the duration of unemployment among African American males. Furthermore, African American males' age and education level does statistically significantly predict

entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Specifically, African American males' age statistically significantly predicted the marketing, management, and finance dimensions that measure entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, and African American males' education level statistically significantly predicted the innovation and management dimensions that measure entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Correspondently, African American males' age, education level, type of unemployment, and occupational industry statistically significantly predicted the number of times they were unemployed, but their marital status did not. Subsequently, African American males' age and type of unemployment predicted their duration of unemployment; however, their education level, their marital status, and their occupational industry did not. Additionally, descriptive statistics via crosstabulations of African American males' geographical locations within the United States indicated that higher percentages of unemployment for their number of times unemployed and their duration of unemployment were more prevalent in the Northeast, Southeast, and Midwest regions of the United States. Next, the architecture of Chapter 5 is provided, followed by an interpretation of the findings.

In Chapter 5, I explicate the key findings of this examination. Furthermore, I provided detailed interpretations of the findings for all of the research questions employed in this study. Additionally, I present the limitations of this investigation and recommendations for future research. Thereupon, positive social change implications are provided according to the theoretical and practical inferences derived from this research, followed by a conclusion to recapitulate the study.

Interpretation of the Findings

I interpreted the findings of this study based on the theoretical foundations of the study, which are the critical race theory, institutional racism, and the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory, as well as the variables that were employed to perform the data analyses. Accordingly, to conduct the ordinal regression analyses for Research Questions 1, 2, and 3, the dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, which are innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance, are continuous variables that were entered into SPSS v27 as covariates that did not include different categories for their parameter threshold. However, they are provided with the theoretical foundations and the results of the study to interpret the analyses of Research Questions 1, 2, and 3. Hence, since this is one of the first studies of its kind that investigates African American males' unemployment and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, the majority of the results for Research Questions 1, 2, and 3 extended the body of knowledge regarding this research.

Research Questions 1, 2, and 3

Participants' average number of times unemployed was 3–5 times unemployed, which is consistent with the empirical data regarding African American males' appalling percentages of unemployment (U.S. BLS, 2019a, 2019b). Additionally, 243 (43.5%) indicated that they were unemployed for 4 weeks or less; if they were actively seeking employment, they would be counted with the U-3 measurement of unemployment, which is the most common measurement for unemployment in the United States (U.S. BLS, 2015). However, a large percentage of this sample would be eligible to be counted in the U-6 measurement of unemployment because it includes discouraged workers that have

been unemployed over 4 weeks and have not sought out employment within that time frame, have not considered to be part of the labor force, and have attempted to search for employment in the past 12 months (U.S. BLS, 2015); according to their personal situations 240 (43%), almost half of this sample would qualify for the U-6 measurement of unemployment that is not the predominately used measurement for unemployment in the United States.

Moreover, Chen et al. (1998) and McGee et al. (2009) both agreed that elevated levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy are a key component for ascertaining if individuals are able to successfully engage in various entrepreneurial activities. However, the mean scores for the behaviors that are consistent with entrepreneurial self-efficacy level indicated that participants had an average level of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, with management being the highest, which is a significant aspect of entrepreneurship (McGee et al., 2009). Accordingly, in my results for the number of times African American males were unemployed and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level was deemed to predict the number of times they were unemployed. Thus, I concluded that African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level has a positive prediction among the number of times they were unemployed. However, entrepreneurial self-efficacy level did not predict the duration of unemployment among African American males.

Nonetheless, the dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, which are innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance, are still relevant to African American males' duration of unemployment based on the entrepreneurial self-efficacy

theory, which suggested that individuals who possess lower levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy are less likely to engage in entrepreneurial activities (Chen et al., 1998). This suggestion refers to African American males having high levels of unemployment because they do not possess high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy to create employment for themselves or other African American males in their community; as descriptive statistics illustrated that African American males have average levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, per all of the dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale.

Additionally, my findings indicated that entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does predict certain age categories for African American males. Appropriately, since African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level predicted increases and decreases in their younger and older age categories, African American males in all age categories must be educated regarding entrepreneurship and the significance of possessing high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Moreover, my results indicated that entrepreneurial self-efficacy level does predict higher education levels for African American males. Thus, I concluded that African American males with lower education levels have lesser chances of possessing high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy; suitably, African American males with lower education levels must be educated regarding possessing high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy to increase their entrepreneurial knowledge and endeavors. Furthermore, my results for Research Questions 1, 2, and 3 for the number of times unemployed and the duration of unemployment among African American males and their age and their education level

and the dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale, which are innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance are provided next for a more detailed theoretical and empirical interpretation of the findings of this study.

Innovation

The innovation dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale measures individuals' ability to introduce new ideas to divergent markets (McGee et al., 2009); it was not statistically significant in the number of times unemployed or the duration of unemployment models. However, it statistically significantly predicted African American males' education level; thus, the results stipulated that an increase in this dimension of the measurement of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level denoted an increase in their education level. Hence, African American males with higher education levels have a higher chance of becoming innovative enough to develop businesses for themselves versus attempting to work for someone else or remaining unemployed. Correspondently, every attempt must be made to ensure that African American males receive as much education as possible to ensure that they are as creative as their capabilities permits.

Marketing

The marketing dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale measures individuals' ability to approximate the effective design, customer demand, and marketing procedures and establish a price point for products and services that are newly introduced to the market (McGee et al., 2009); it was not statistically significant in the number of times unemployed or the duration of unemployment models. However, it did statistically significantly predict African American males' age; thus, an increase in the marketing

dimension denoted a decrease in African American males' age. Hence, marketing or the notion of approximating customer demand and design is a stronger entrepreneurial attribute among younger African American males. This indicates a need to educate further older age categories of African American males to ensure that they glean the importance of marketing concepts for developing new businesses.

Networking

The networking dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale measures individuals' ability to provide business contacts and prospective clients that possess the potential to expand their business and is regarded as one of the most essential components for entrepreneurship (McGee et al., 2009). This dimension that measures entrepreneurial self-efficacy level was not statistically significant in any of the models, which requires communication and engagement among divergent individuals in the community. This is indicative of a current issue regarding networking and African American males' employment and entrepreneurial endeavors because empirical evidence articulated that African American men are not likely to possess direct networking connections among each other or with upper management with the authority to employ them to work in higher-level occupations (C. Anderson, 1994; J. K. Harris et al., 2014; Leary, 2005; Royster, 2003; A. N. Wilson, 2020). Additionally, Wingfield (2019) suggested in a 2014 survey that 75% of Caucasian Americans among influential social networking groups and schools had no friends outside of their racial demographic. Moreover, social capital through strong networking connections is typically attained between individuals with similar societal information and characteristics, which increases

their employment chances and entrepreneurial endeavors by developing significant personal relationships (C. Anderson, 1994; McDonald, 2009; McGee et al., 2009; Wegener, 1991).

Consequently, I concluded that the networking dimension did not have any type of predictions in none of the models because of African American males' inability to socially merge into Caucasian Americans' influential inner circles (J. K. Harris et al., 2014; Royster, 2003). Thus, African American males are subjected to rely on social networks within their ethnic group. However, the literature provides guidance that African Americans possess intergenerational psychological inappropriate behaviors consistent with post-traumatic slave syndrome that prohibits their social cohesiveness and integral ability to function as a productive social unit among each other (Akbar, 1996; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; M. Anderson, 2012/2013; Ani, 1994; Burrell, 2010; Blackmon, 2008; Leary, 2005; Marable, 1983/2015; Robinson, 2001; D. M. Stewart, 2020; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001; A. N. Wilson, 1993, 2020; Zinn, 2005/2015); which has the potential to hinder their employment and entrepreneurial endeavors because building strong social networks is needed to secure adequate employment and to develop new businesses (C. Anderson, 2001; Howard, 2019; McGee et al., 2009; Rochester, 2017; Rogers, 2010; J. E. K. Walker, 2009; R. Walker, 2010/2016).

Management

The management dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale measures individuals' ability to manage employees, train employees, hire employees, inspire employees, delegate culpability, and address all issues pertaining to the routine functions

of employees within the business (McGee et al., 2009). This dimension was not statistically significant in the number of times unemployed or the duration of unemployment models. However, it was statistically significant for African American males' age; thus, when this dimension is increased, the age category of African American males is increased. I articulated these results as older African American males having more management skills than younger African American males; therefore, this denoted that the younger African American males require more management training to increase their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Additionally, this dimension was statistically significant for the education levels of African American males; hence, an increase in the management dimension equated to an increase in African American males' education level. I concluded that since higher levels of the management dimension denoted high levels of education levels, African American males must be as educated as possible, and more entrepreneurial education is needed for African American males with lower levels of education.

Finance

The finance dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale refers to individuals that are efficient with finances that are needed to start the business, maintain organized records of financial documents, interpret financial statements, and oversee the organization's assets (McGee et al., 2009). Hence, the finance dimension was not statistically significant in the duration of unemployment model. However, the finance dimension that measures entrepreneurial self-efficacy level statistically significantly predicted the number of times that African American males were unemployed; thus, these

findings articulated the notion that African American males with financial proficiency possessed a decreased chance for the number of times they were unemployed. Correspondently, I concluded that African American males that are more financially responsible and knowledgeable are more likely to own businesses and less likely to be unemployed. The finance dimension was also statistically significant for African American males' age; thus, an increase in this dimension delineated a decrease in African American males' older age categories. Therefore, I concluded that younger African American males were more financially educated and proficient compared to older African American males; thus, African American males in older age categories are in more need of education regarding the finance dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale.

The literature and results of this study pertaining to improving African American males' times and duration of unemployment and increasing their entrepreneurial success through increased entrepreneurial self-efficacy level are based on receiving the proper education and training regarding entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial self-efficacy (L. Lee et al., 2011; McGee et al., 2009; Shahab et al., 2019). Accordingly, in respect to the theoretical frameworks of this study, which are the critical race theory, institutional racism, and the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory, the literature suggested that African American males of the past displayed high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy by developing a myriad of businesses and extravagant affluent communities that were capable of employing themselves and other African Americans (C. Anderson, 1994; Chen et al., 1998; Rogers, 2010; R. Walker, 2010/2016). Thus, the findings of this study

indicated that consequential positive social change implications that are explicitly designed for African American males are required to ensure that they possess the entrepreneurial self-efficacy level needed to establish businesses in their community, employ themselves and other African Americans, and encourage economic affluence within their community. The results of the analyses for this study, which include an in-depth interpretation of the findings for Research Questions 4 and 5, are provided next.

Research Questions 4 and 5

According to U.S. BLS (2020a) and V. Wilson (2019), high levels of unemployment among African American males for prolonged periods of time continue to be a detrimental societal issue. Hence, the sample's average number of times unemployed was 3–5 times unemployed, which is consistent with the empirical data regarding African American males' appalling percentages of unemployment (U.S. BLS, 2019a, 2019b). Correspondently, 243 (43.5%) indicated that they were unemployed for 4 weeks or less; if they were actively seeking employment, they would be counted with the U-3 measurement of unemployment, which is the most common measurement for unemployment in the United States (U.S. BLS, 2015). However, a large percentage of this sample would be eligible to be counted in the U-6 measurement of unemployment because it includes discouraged workers that have been unemployed over 4 weeks and have not sought out employment within that time frame, not considered to be part of the labor force, and have attempted to search for employment in the past 12 months (U.S. BLS, 2015); according to their personal situations 240 (43%), almost half of this sample

would qualify for the U-6 measurement of unemployment that is not the predominately used measurement for unemployment in the United States.

Appropriately, the analyses for Research Questions 4 and 5 consisted of the ordinal dependent variables termed the number of times unemployed and the duration of unemployment among African American males. Explicitly, Research Questions 4 and 5 incorporated the guidance of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics and empirical literature that included African American males' unemployment factors consisting of their age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and type of unemployment (Abbott, 2013/2019; Ajilore, 2020; C. Anderson, 1994; Beveridge, 1944/2015; Brundage, 2020; Caucutt et al., 2018; W. E. B. Dubois, 1903/2017; L. Harris, 2013; Marable, 1983/2015; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; D. M. Stewart, 2020; U.S. BLS, 2020a; Washington, 1901/2020; White, 2015; V. Wilson, 2019). Informatively, African American males' age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and type of unemployment are ordinal and categorical independent variables that were entered in SPSS v27 as factors; thus, categories of their parameter threshold were provided with the interpretation of the findings.

Accordingly, African American males' age, education level, type of unemployment, and occupational industry statistically significantly predicted the number of times they were unemployed; additionally, African American males' age and type of unemployment statistically significantly predicted their duration of unemployment. Thus, I concluded that these results are paramount regarding this topic and provided the impetus to implement pivotal social change initiatives, which are consistent with the

literature regarding the variables mentioned (Abbott, 2013/2019; Ajilore, 2020; C. Anderson, 1994; Beveridge, 1944/2015; Brundage, 2020; Caucutt et al., 2018; W. E. B. Dubois, 1903/2017; L. Harris, 2013; Marable, 1983/2015; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; D. M. Stewart, 2020; U.S. BLS, 2020a; Washington, 1901/2020; White, 2015; V. Wilson, 2019). Moreover, the results for Research Questions 4 and 5 are provided next for the number of times unemployed and the duration of unemployment among African American males and their age, their education level, their marital status, their occupational industry, and their type of unemployment to provide a more detailed theoretical and empirical interpretation of the findings of this study.

Age

The integral models illustrated that African American males' age statistically significantly predicted both the number of times they were unemployed and their duration of unemployment. Explicitly, African American males from the ages of 18 to 24 statistically significantly predicted the number of times they were unemployed; additionally, African American males from the ages of 18 to 24, 25 to 34, and 55 to 64 statistically significantly predicted their duration of unemployment. Moreover, African American males from the ages of 18 to 24 had a lesser chance for the number of times they were unemployed compared to African American males from the ages of 35 to 44. Furthermore, African American males from the ages of 18 to 24, 25 to 34, and 55 to 64 had a less chance of being unemployed for a longer duration compared to African American males that were 35 to 44, which is consistent with the literature regarding African American males of divergent ages being unemployed more or fewer times than

others (U.S. BLS, 2020a). However, U.S. BLS (2020a) suggested that younger African American males are typically unemployed at higher percentages.

Consequently, I concluded that the results mentioned are consistent with African American males between the ages of 35 and 44 having a greater chance of being unemployed at this age based on the U-6 measurement of unemployment, which includes individuals that are discouraged from the labor market (U.S BLS, 2020b). The 35 to 44 age category represents the midpoint of African American males' age categories, and based on the literature and the results of this study, younger African American males have not been in the labor force long enough to experience constructs, such as workplace and hiring discrimination for prolonged periods of time to become discouraged enough to drop out of the labor force (Ajilore, 2020; Jameel & Yerardi, 2019; Lytle, 2014; Quillian et al., 2017; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2020b); which is depicted with them possessing a lesser chance for the number of times unemployed compared to middle age (35 to 44) African American men. Additionally, African American men from the ages of 55 to 64 had a less chance of being unemployed longer compared to African American men that were 35 to 44, which is not consistent with the literature that depicts a deviation of African American males in the age categories of 55 to 64 and 65 and over being more unemployed than younger African American males (U.S. BLS, 2020a). Thus, these findings both disconfirm and extend the body of knowledge regarding this topic as this is the first study of its kind. Descriptive statistics that delineate African American males' age category and the number of times they were unemployed and their duration of unemployment are illustrated in Tables 11 and 19 and Figures 11 and 18.

Education Level

The integral model for African American males' education level statistically significantly predicted the number of times they were unemployed; however, their education level did not statically significantly predict their duration of unemployment. Furthermore, for African American males, education levels denoted as less than a high school diploma, a high school diploma, some college, bachelor's degree, or master's degree; there was no increase or decrease in the odds for being unemployed more times or being unemployed longer than African American males with an academic or professional doctoral degree. According to the results for Research Questions 4 and 5 that attempted to predict the number of times and duration of unemployment among African American males based on their education level; I concluded that the number of times and duration of unemployment among African American males has very little to do with their education level or credentials but more to do with hiring discrimination as depicted in the literature (Quillian et al., 2017; J. Williams & Wilson, 2019; V. Wilson, 2015).

Accordingly, Caucasian American men with no college education have a greater chance of getting a job than African Americans with college educations (Baccous, 2018; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Emeka, 2018; Hanks et al., 2018; Pager, 2003; Ross, 2014; Sakamoto et al., 2018; T. M. Shapiro, 2017). Thus, these findings extended the body of knowledge regarding this topic as this is the first study of its kind. Descriptive statistics that display African American males' education levels of some college and above compared to an education level of no college and equal or similar amounts of their

number of times unemployed and their duration of unemployment are illustrated in Tables 12 and 20 and Figures 12 and 19.

Marital Status

The integral models for African American males' marital status did not statistically significantly predict their number of times unemployed or their duration of unemployment. Explicitly, African American males that were married or widowed, divorced, or separated did not have an increase or decrease in their odds for the number of times they were unemployed or their duration of unemployment. However, the literature suggested that African American males' marital status is linked to their disparaging economic and unemployment status (Caucutt et al., 2018; W. J. Wilson, 1987/1990); thus, the results of the descriptive statistics of this study illustrated that a higher percentage of African American men indicated that they were never married, divorced widowed, or separated compared to African American men that were married, 59.9% to 40.1%. Thus, these findings extended the body of knowledge regarding this topic as this is the first study of its kind. Descriptive statistics that delineate African American males' that were never married possessing more times unemployed and longer durations of unemployment are illustrated in Tables 13 and 21 and Figures 13 and 20.

Occupational Industry

The integral models for African American males' occupational industry did not statistically significantly predict their number of times unemployed or their duration of unemployment. However, African American males that were presently or previously employed in business and management (retail, government, or transportation) had a

statistically significant lesser chance of being unemployed more times than African American males that were presently or previously employed in manufacturing (durable goods, nondurable goods, and construction) or education (health care and other services not listed). This is consistent with the literature's guidance regarding some of the occupational industries that employ African American males the most (U.S. BLS, 2019a). Thus, these findings extended the body of knowledge regarding this topic as this is the first study of its kind. Descriptive statistics that depict African American males' number of times unemployed, their duration of unemployment, and their present or previous occupational industry are illustrated in Tables 14 and 22 and Figures 14 and 21.

Type of Unemployment

The integral models for African American males' type of unemployment statistically significantly predicted their number of times unemployed and their duration of unemployment. Specifically, African American males with a voluntary type of unemployment status and an involuntary type of unemployment status, e.g., termination or due to factors out of their control, had a greater chance of being unemployed more times and for longer durations of time compared to African American males with a not applicable type of employment status. I concluded that these results are accurate based on African American males with a type of unemployment of voluntary or a type of unemployment of involuntary, e.g., termination or due to factors out of their control having a greater chance for their number of times unemployed and their duration of unemployment compared to African American males with a not applicable type of unemployment.

However, African American males with a type of unemployment of involuntary, e.g., termination or due to factors out of their control, had a greater chance of being unemployed more times and for longer durations of time compared to African American males with a voluntary type of unemployment. These results are consistent with the theoretical frameworks of this study and the literature's guidance regarding the assumption that some of the involuntary types of unemployment, e.g., termination or due to factors that were out of their control, endured by African American males might be because of comprehensive institutional racism and workplace and hiring discrimination that is existent in America's labor force and beyond (C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; A. Austin, 2011; Better, 2008; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Jameel & Yerardi, 2019; Meadows & Metcalf, 2008; T. S. Moore, 2010; NPR et al., 2017; Pager, 2003; Penner, 2016; C. Phillips, 2011; Quillian et al. 2017; Royster, 2003; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. EEOC, n.d.; J. Williams & Wilson, 2019; V. Wilson, 2019). Thus, these findings extended the body of knowledge regarding this topic as this is the first study of its kind.

Moreover, African American males' most consistent type of unemployment is reflective of the historic and contemporary accounts of immense systemic racism and workplace discrimination endured by African American males in America's labor force and beyond (C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; A. Austin, 2011; Better, 2008; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Jameel & Yerardi, 2019; Meadows & Metcalf, 2008; T. S. Moore, 2010; NPR et al., 2017; Pager, 2003; Penner, 2016; C. Phillips, 2011; Quillian et al. 2017; Royster, 2003; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. EEOC, n.d.; J. Williams & Wilson, 2019; V. Wilson, 2019); with 268 (48%) of the sample indicating that their most consistent type of

unemployment was involuntary, which is the result of termination and similar factors that are out of their control. Descriptive statistics that delineate the highest unemployment for African American males for their number of times unemployed and their duration of unemployment and their type of unemployment as involuntary, e.g., termination or due to factors out of their control, are illustrated in Tables 15 and 23 and Figures 15 and 22.

The literature pertaining to the interpretation of the results for this study provided distinct insight regarding the manner in which they extended, coincided, or disconfirmed the literature and theoretical frameworks of the examination, which are the critical race theory, institutional racism, and the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory. Accordingly, in respect to the critical race theory and institutional racism, the literature and results of this study suggested that African American males are plagued with immense hiring and workplace discrimination, that exacerbates further White supremacy and advantage at the cost of African American males' inequitable unemployment and economic despair (C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; A. Austin, 2011; Better, 2008; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; JEC, n.d.; Kendall, 2006; Kendi, 2016/2017; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. EEOC, n.d.; J. Williams & Wilson, 2019; V. Wilson, 2019). Additionally, the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory suggested that individuals with high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy have an increased chance of engaging in entrepreneurial activities (Chen et al., 1998; L. Lee et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2019; McGee et al., 2009; Singer, 1997). Thus, the African American male participants of this investigation possessed average levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, which is indicative of the integral population of them being the least likely to own businesses (A. Austin, 2016; Hannon, 2018; Hawkins, 2020).

The interpretation of the findings was based on descriptive statistics, significant results, empirical research, and the theoretical foundations of the examination. However, even though the United States Equal Employment Opportunity Commission reports that the majority of workplace discrimination cases are based on race (U.S. EEOC, n.d.), and African Americans comprise 13% of the workforce, yet they account for 26% of the racial discrimination claims, which are filed with the United States Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (Jameel & Yerardi, 2019); the specific outcomes of the rulings of these complaints might yield something different based on the burden of proof. Thus, to ensure a balanced interpretation of the findings, I also recognize that African American males with a type of unemployment of involuntary, e.g., termination or due to factors out of their control, might also attribute to the confounding variable of workplace performance, some of which is subjective and might include arriving to work late, too many call-offs from the scheduled time to work, poor performance, and organizational downsizing.

Limitations of the Study

Creswell and Creswell (2018) asserted that all studies contain limitations that are consistent with their validity, reliability, and generalizability, which have the potential to affect the integral results of the investigation. Thus, the purpose of delineating the limitations of the study is to articulate the weaknesses that are present within the design of the study, which may indicate the impetus for some of the findings. Consequently, no study is perfect or flawless; therefore, in Chapter 5, I articulated the validity, reliability, and generalizability of the study's findings.

Validity

The study's internal validity was limited to the manner in which I collected data, as articulated in Chapter 1. Moreover, the random and convivence data collection methods are the most appropriate approaches for data collection based on the research questions of the study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018); nevertheless, they still posed a threat to the study's internal validity due to the nature of participants' potential bias towards the topic or refusing to answer specific questions that were pertinent to the data analyses. Hence, I used the online survey platform SurveyMonkey® to collect data, which permitted me to ensure that all survey questions were answered prior to fully completing the survey, or participants would have to abort the entire survey rendering it an incomplete survey that was not used for the study's data analyses.

Additionally, for the random data collection method, I used Survey Monkey Audience and Amazon Mechanical Turk, which allowed me to ensure that the sample's demographic information was accurate as some participants attempted to take the survey even though they were not invited. Furthermore, the convivence data collection method was used to collect data via LinkedIn, and the snowball data collection approach was employed to collect data via email. The snowball method allowed me to send email invitations to my professional network of African American men that were advised to email the study's invitation and link to other African American men, which did not allow me to properly screen the identity of participants beyond the research survey questionnaire. Therefore, I do have some doubts that participants' might not have been

honest about their demographic information; thus, this is a threat to the study's internal validity, per ensuring the accuracy of the sample.

Reliability

The study's internal reliability was deemed a limitation of the study in Chapter 1 due to only using one validated research survey questionnaire to collect data; thus, the demographic information survey that ascertained participants' demographic information to include participants' number of times unemployed and their duration of unemployment was not a validated instrument. Therefore, some of the study's reliability might have been diminished by not ascertaining validated responses that pertain to the crux of the investigation. However, I conducted Cronbach's alpha reliability statistics on the validated research survey questionnaire used in this study, which is the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale that indicated strong internal reliability for all five of its dimensions termed innovation, marketing, networking, management, and finance.

Generalizability

The examination's generalizability was determined to be a possible limitation of the study in Chapter 1 because it only applied to African American men and not African American women, other Americans of African descent, and other ethnic minority groups in America. Accordingly, African American men were deemed the priority because their unemployment rates are the highest among all of the gender and ethnic minority groups mentioned (U.S. BLS, 2020a). However, unemployment rates among African American women are not as high as African American men, but they are the next highest unemployment rates as measured among all of the other racial and gender demographics

(U.S. BLS, 2020a). Therefore, even though African American women are subjected to some of the same institutional racism regarding unemployment and economic inequity (Baccous, 2018), they were not included in this investigation, and this study is not generalizable to them.

Additionally, Africans in America that do not identify as African American and other ethnic minority groups with darker complexions may also experience institutional racism via unemployment and economic disparities based on the psychology of race (Sussman, 2014); hence, this study did not include them and would not be generalizable to them either. Subsequently, I attempted to collect data from an even number of African American men based on demographic information. However, a larger population of African American men is more densely populated in the Northeast, Southern, and Midwestern regions of the United States (U.S. Census Bureau, 2020). Thus, due to certain age and geographical location differences, some demographic constructs such as younger African American men and African American men that reside on the East Coast of the United States was represented more; thus, this study is generalizable to all African American men but less generalizable to older African American men and African American men that reside on the West Coast or the Central United States.

Recommendations for Future Research

Creswell and Creswell (2018) suggested that recommendations for future research should be based on the boundaries of the study and empirical research. Consistently, a quantitative study similar to my study should be conducted with the addition of entrepreneurial education as a variable; this potential study would introduce a new

variable that is an empirical catalyst to increase entrepreneurial self-efficacy level and extend the body of literature regarding this topic (L. Lee et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2019). Moreover, a multimethod study, which consists of both quantitative and qualitative methods, should be conducted on the same topic and population to include entrepreneurial education and a second validated research survey questionnaire to measure entrepreneurial education. The goal would be to increase reliability and provide lived experiences of how African American men are surviving as the highest unemployed racial and gender demographic in America (U.S. BLS, 2020a); and ascertain their knowledge and lived experiences regarding entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial self-efficacy as some participants of this study commented that they did not know much about it.

Additionally, U.S. BLS (2020a) asserted that African American women are the second most unemployed racial and gender demographic in America; thus, an identical quantitative nonexperimental correlational study should be conducted with African American women to ascertain if the results would confirm, disconfirm, or extend the body of knowledge regarding this racial and gender demographic, which has the potential to make this topic generalizable to them. Next, a multimethod study consisting of quantitative and qualitative methods should be conducted on the same topic with African American men and African American women because African American women entrepreneurial efforts are improving (AE, 2019); thus, this study will provide integral quantitative data and lived experiences regarding the two most unemployed racial and gender demographics in America, and it may discern why the entrepreneurial efforts of

African American women are improving but not for African American men (A. Austin, 2016; Hannon, 2018).

Furthermore, a similar quantitative study that examines the same topic should be conducted among male and female individuals of African descent living in America but do not claim to be African American to ascertain if the results would indicate that there are relationships or differences among unemployment and entrepreneurial self-efficacy level within divergent African ethnic groups in America, which has the potential to increase generalizability. Correspondently, a similar quantitative study should be conducted between African American men and African American women and Caucasian American men and Caucasian American women to compare and contrast relationships among some of the highest and lowest unemployed racial and gender demographics in America (U.S. BLS, 2020a); in an effort to extend the body of literature regarding this topic and discover why African Americans are twice as unemployed as Caucasian Americans and why Caucasian Americans own 81% of the businesses in America compared to African Americans owning 3.5% of the businesses in America (Hawkins, 2020; U.S. BLS, 2020a).

Hence, a multimethod study should investigate a similar topic between African American men but narrow the focus down to certain age categories, geographical locations, and states, or cities since unemployment rates in America are also measured via age categories, geographical locations, states, and cities (U.S. BLS, 2015); this will provide focused and refined quantitative results reducing the confounding variables that are impacting the current study. Subsequently, a multimethod study could investigate a

similar topic between African American men and Caucasian American men but narrow the focus down to explicit age categories, geographical locations, and states, or cities since unemployment in America is also measured via age categories, geographical locations, states, and cities (U.S. BLS, 2015); this will provide focused and refined quantitative results, and the lived experiences for specific age categories, geographical locations, and states, or cities among one racial and gender demographic that is twice as unemployed as the other racial and gender demographic (U.S. BLS, 2020a).

Implications

I sought to develop this study to investigate possible remedies for the arduous predicament of unemployment among African American males through examining their deficient amounts of entrepreneurial self-efficacy level, which has exacerbated their insufficient entrepreneurial efforts. The scope and nature of this study were limited to African American males as they are the most likely to be unemployed and not own businesses compared to every other racial and gender demographic in America (A. Austin, 2016; Hawkins, 2020; U.S. BLS, 2020a). Hence, the implications for positive social change, theoretical implications, and implications for practice are based on empirical research, the study's theoretical frameworks, and the independent predictor variables from the ordinal logistic regression models.

Positive Social Change Implications

Adequately, I ensured that all positive social change implications remained within the scope and boundaries of the study; this was adhered to by providing positive social change implications that were statistically significant or that remained in the ordinal

logistic regression models based on empirical research and the theoretical frameworks of the study (Hosmer et al., 2013; LS, 2015). Accordingly, statistically significant results suggested that entrepreneurial self-efficacy level predicts the number of times African American males were unemployed, their age, and their education level. However, all of the dimensions of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale were not statistically significant for the number of times African American males were unemployed, their duration of unemployment, age, or education level. Nevertheless, based on empirical research and the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory, individuals with higher levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy have increased chances of engaging in entrepreneurial activities (Chen et al., 1998; L. Lee et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2019; McGee et al., 2009; Singer, 1997); thus, possessing the potential to employ themselves and others and decreasing their chances of being unemployed.

Moreover, statistically significant results indicated that African American males' age, education level, occupational industry, and type of unemployment predicts their number of times unemployed, and their age and their type of unemployment predicts their duration of unemployment; thus, all of the independent predictor variables in the ordinal logistic regression model did not statistically significantly predict the number of times unemployed and the duration of unemployment among African American males. However, based on empirical research, African American males' age, education level, marital status, occupational industry, and type of unemployment are crucial factors related to their unacceptable rates of unemployment (Abbott, 2013/2019; Ajilore, 2020; C. Anderson, 1994; Better, 2008; Beveridge, 1944/2015; Brundage, 2020; Caucutt et al.,

2018; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; W. E. B. Dubois, 1903/2017; L. Harris, 2013; Marable, 1983/2015; C. Phillips, 2011; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; D. M. Stewart, 2020; U.S. BLS, 2020a; Washington, 1901/2020; White, 2015; V. Wilson, 2019). Exigently, positive social change implications are provided next with all of the study's independent predictor variables from each ordinal logistic regression model.

Innovation

The innovation dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale was not statistically significant for predicting the ordinal logistic regression models for the number of times unemployed and the duration of unemployment among African American males. However, the innovation dimension statistically significantly predicted African American males' education level. Therefore, positive social change implications are long-term government-sponsored grants, scholarships, and private sponsorships targeted towards African American males' education level attainment with an emphasis on entrepreneurial education and training, which will increase their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level and their likelihood of owning businesses that employs themselves and others (Chen et al., 1998; L. Lee et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2019; McGee et al., 2009; Shahab et al., 2019).

Marketing

The marketing dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale was not statistically significant for predicting the ordinal logistic regression models for the number of times unemployed and the duration of unemployment among African American males. However, the marketing dimension statistically significantly predicted

African American males' age; thus, an increase in the marketing dimension denoted a decrease in African American males' age. Therefore, positive social change implications are long-term government-sponsored grants, scholarships, and private sponsorships targeted towards education regarding marketing for all African American males but more especially for African American males from the age of 25 and older.

Networking

The networking dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale was not statistically significant for predicting the ordinal logistic regression models for the number of times unemployed, the duration of unemployment, age, or education level among African American males; which requires and involves communication, trust, loyalty, and social cohesiveness among groups or teams within the community and beyond to provide the support of establishing business contacts and prospective clients (C. Anderson, 2001; McGee et al., 2009). However, African American men are not likely to possess direct networking connections among each other or with upper management with the authority to employ them to work in higher-level occupations (C. Anderson, 1994; J. K. Harris et al., 2014; Leary, 2005; Royster, 2003; A. N. Wilson, 2020). Additionally, Wingfield (2019) suggested in a 2014 survey that 75% of Caucasian Americans among influential social networking groups and schools had no friends outside of their racial demographic.

Therefore, based on strong empirical research, the networking dimension is included in the ordinal logistic regression models and is related to African Americans' inability to socially merge into influential Caucasian American inner circles. Moreover,

African Americans possess intergenerational psychological inappropriate behaviors consistent with post-traumatic slave syndrome that prohibits their social cohesiveness and integral ability to function as a productive social unit among each other (Akbar, 1996; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; M. Anderson, 2012/2013; Ani, 1994; Burrell, 2010; Blackmon, 2008; Leary, 2005; Marable, 1983/2015; Robinson, 2001; D. M. Stewart, 2020; J. C. Stewart, 1996/2001; A. N. Wilson, 1993, 2020; Zinn, 2005/2015); which is needed to network and secure adequate employment and develop new businesses (C. Anderson, 2001; Howard, 2019; McGee et al., 2009; Rochester, 2017; Rogers, 2010; J. E. K. Walker, 2009; R. Walker, 2010/2016). Necessarily, positive social change implications are long-term government-sponsored grants, scholarships, and private sponsorships targeted towards psychological rehabilitation for African American males to improve their social cohesiveness and increase their networking skills. The positive social change implications mentioned are significant as the networking dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale is articulated as the most important of them all (McGee et al., 2009).

Management

The management dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale was not statistically significant for predicting the ordinal logistic regression models for the number of times unemployed or the duration of unemployment among African American males. However, it was statistically significant for predicting that an increase in management skills equated to an increase in African American males' age, and an increase in management skills equated to an increase in education level. Appropriately,

positive social change implications are to provide long-term government-sponsored grants, scholarships, and private sponsorships targeted towards management skills training for all African American men but especially for younger African American males with lower education levels.

Finance

The finance dimension of the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale statistically significantly predicted the ordinal logistic regression model for the number of times unemployed but not for the duration of unemployment or education level among African American males. Thus, an increase in the proficiency of the finance dimension equated to a decrease in the number of times African American males were unemployed; additionally, increased literacy of the finance dimension equated to a decrease in African American males' older age categories. Therefore, positive social change implications are to provide long-term government-sponsored grants, scholarships, and private sponsorships targeted towards business finance training for all African American males but especially for older African American men.

Age

The integral ordinal logistic regression models indicated that African American males' age statistically significantly predicted both the number of times they were unemployed and their duration of unemployment. U.S. BLS (2020a) suggested that unemployment is more prevalent among younger African American males. However, the results of this study provided statistically significant predictions that African American males from the ages of 18 to 24 had a lesser chance for the number of times they were

unemployed compared to African American males that were 35 to 44 and African American males from the ages of 18 to 24, 25 to 34, and 55 to 64 had a lesser chance of being unemployed for longer durations of time compared to African American males that were 35 to 44. The contradiction between the empirical research and this study's results reaffirms that positive social change implications are required for African American males of all ages. Properly, positive social change implications are that African American males of all ages receive long-term government-sponsored grants, scholarships, and private sponsorships targeted towards entrepreneurial education and training to increase their entrepreneurial self-efficacy levels, which will increase their knowledge and skills regarding creating jobs for themselves and others in their community (Chen et al., 1998; L. Lee et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2019; McGee et al., 2009; Shahab et al., 2019).

Education Level

The integral ordinal logistic regression model for African American males' education level statistically significantly predicted the number of times they were unemployed; however, the integral ordinal logistic regression model for their education level did not statically significantly predict their duration of unemployment. Furthermore, the statistically significant ordinal logistic regression model predicted that African American males with no high school diploma had the same chance for the number of times they were unemployed as African American males with an academic or professional doctoral degree. Accordingly, the findings of this study are consistent with empirical research, which suggested that African Americans have increased chances for

unemployment compared to Caucasian Americans at every education level (J. Williams & Wilson, 2019).

Therefore, based on the results of this study and empirical research regarding hiring discrimination and African American males possessing an integral inequitable employment and societal disadvantage compared to Caucasian American males' advantage (Becker, 1957/1971; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Emeka, 2018; Hanks et al., 2018; Pager, 2003; Quillian et al., 2017; Ross, 2014; Sakamoto et al., 2018; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; J. Williams & Wilson, 2019); positive social change implications are guaranteed government jobs through point preference hiring specifically for African American males due to their exceptionality in regards to their treacherous and resilient history in America (Alexander, 2020; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Kendi, 2016/2017; Robinson, 2001; Wytsma, 2017). Furthermore, some states have effectively banned affirmative action (Katznelson, 2005). Therefore, other positive social change implications are that employment affirmative action should be federally enforced in all states that is specifically modified for African American males; which is based on the literature's guidance that when employment affirmative action was enforced in most states, it was the least effective for African American men and the most effective for Caucasian American women (Katznelson, 2005).

Marital Status

The integral ordinal logistic regression models for African American males' marital status did not statistically significantly predict their number of times unemployed or their duration of unemployment in this research with the sample of participants used

for data analysis. However, empirical research suggested that their marital status is related to their inequitable economic and unemployment status (Caucutt et al., 2018; U.S. BLS, 2020c; W. J. Wilson, 1987/1990). Furthermore, existing research on African American males' marital status suggested the opposite is true given the body of work available and the generalizability of the data provided within that body of work. Nevertheless, I recommend long-term government-sponsored grants, scholarships, and private sponsorships; this opportunity for learning and growth should be presented specifically to African American males, regardless of marital status, as the implications for positive social change will help increase targeted entrepreneurial education and training. In theory, this will lead to an increase in their entrepreneurial self-efficacy levels, which will increase their knowledge and skills regarding creating jobs for themselves and others in their community (Chen et al., 1998; L. Lee et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2019; McGee et al., 2009; Shahab et al., 2019).

Occupational Industry

The integral ordinal logistic regression models for African American males' occupational industries did not statistically significantly predict their number of times unemployed or their duration of unemployment. Nonetheless, African American males that were presently or previously employed in business and management, retail, government, or transportation had a statistically significantly decreased chance of being unemployed compared to African American males that were presently or previously employed in education, healthcare, and other services not listed. Therefore, positive social change implications are that African American males that are presently or were

previously employed in all occupational industries are provided with long-term government-sponsored grants, scholarships, and private sponsorships targeted towards entrepreneurial education and training, with an increased emphasis and special awareness regarding the occupational industries of education, healthcare, and other services that are not listed. This may increase their entrepreneurial self-efficacy levels, which will extend their knowledge and skills regarding creating jobs for themselves and others in their community (Chen et al., 1998; L. Lee et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2019; McGee et al., 2009; Shahab et al., 2019).

Type of Unemployment

The integral ordinal logistic regression models for African American males' type of unemployment statistically significantly predicted their number of times unemployed and their duration of unemployment. Explicitly, African American males with voluntary and involuntary, e.g., termination or due to factors out of their control types of unemployment, had a greater chance of being unemployed compared to African American males with a not applicable type of unemployment. However, African American males with an involuntary, e.g., termination or due to factors out of their control type of unemployment, had a considerably greater chance of being unemployed compared to African American males with a voluntary type of unemployment. Inevitably, this study's results relatively supports the assumption that some of the involuntary types of unemployment, e.g., termination or due to factors that were out of their control, endured by African American males are consistent with strong empirical research regarding comprehensive institutional racism and workplace discrimination endured by

African American males in America's labor force and beyond (C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; A. Austin, 2011; Better, 2008; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Jameel & Yerardi, 2019; Meadows & Metcalf, 2008; T. S. Moore, 2010; NPR et al., 2017; Pager, 2003; Penner, 2016; C. Phillips, 2011; Quillian et al., 2017; Royster, 2003; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. EEOC, n.d.; J. Williams & Wilson, 2019; V. Wilson, 2019).

Accordingly, the results of this study and substantial empirical research suggested that regardless if African American men are hired or not, they are still subjected to becoming unemployed due to factors that are out of their control, which might include workplace discrimination. Imperatively, positive social change implications are that African American males are provided with long-term government-sponsored grants, scholarships, and private sponsorships to supply the financial funding needed to establish businesses to employ themselves and others in their community. Moreover, other positive social change implications are that African American males are provided with long-term government-sponsored grants, scholarships, and private sponsorships targeted towards entrepreneurial education and training to increase their entrepreneurial self-efficacy levels, which will extend their knowledge and skills regarding creating jobs for themselves and others in their community (Chen et al., 1998; L. Lee et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2019; McGee et al., 2009; Shahab et al., 2019).

Theoretical Implications

The theoretical frameworks of this study were the critical race theory, institutional racism, and the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory. Thus, the critical race theory incorporates the White advantage and the Black disadvantage that are related to racism,

inequity, and miseducation regarding race and a myriad of divergent social facets in America including employment, along with institutional racism, or the notion that racism and discrimination in America are not necessarily relegated to individuals, but is embedded within virtually every pertinent system and institution in America that exacerbates psychological harm, economic, employment, entrepreneurial, and educational inequities (Alexander, 2010; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Asante-Muhammad et al., 2017; A. Austin, 2016; Baradaran, 2015/2018, 2017/2019; Cai & Baker, 2021; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Engram, 2019; Ginsburg et al., 2018; Hanks et al., 2018; Hannon, 2018; Jan, 2019; JEC, n.d.; Kendi, 2016/2017; Leary, 2005; A. Lee et al., n.d.; A. R. Muhammad, 2018; Patton, 2015; C. Phillips, 2011; Rochester, 2017; Rothstein, 2017; Sewell, 2020; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2019a; U.S. EEOC, n.d.; A. N. Wilson, 1993, 2020); was illustrated with the statistically significant findings of this study that predicted factors related to African American males' times and duration of unemployment, which empirically escalated the belief that inequitable education, prejudicial hiring, workplace discrimination, and psychological harm that influences economic inequities are still prevalent among them in America.

Additionally, the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory suggested that individuals with high levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy possess higher chances of establishing businesses (Chen et al., 1998; McGee et al., 2009). Consequently, this study's descriptive statistics provided guidance that African American men possess average levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy and, ironically, they are the least likely to own businesses (A. Austin, 2016; Hannon, 2018; Hawkins, 2020). Resultantly, the theoretical

implications complimented the integrity of this study's results and provided theoretical justifications of consistency regarding the theoretical frameworks that were employed in this study.

Implications for Practice

This study has the potential to inform elected officials serving on all levels of the government, individuals on all levels of leadership and management positions in organizations, and human resources professionals regarding how they may assist with counteracting this significant social issue. Notably, government officials sometimes speak about African American unemployment and the social ramifications that it has for the integral country but rarely is any actual policy introduced to alleviate this serious societal issue. However, the government now has a blueprint of how they may use their political prowess to provide practical and well-needed social change. Furthermore, empirical research indicated that the United States government bears responsibility for the inequitable economic, employment, educational, psychological, criminal justice, and entrepreneurial predicament that African American males are presently enduring (Alexander, 2010; C. Anderson, 1994, 2001; Asante-Muhammad et al., 2017; A. Austin, 2016; Baradaran, 2015/2018, 2017/2019; Cai & Baker, 2021; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Engram, 2019; Ginsburg et al., 2018; Hanks et al., 2018; Hannon, 2018; Jan, 2019; JEC, n.d.; Kendi, 2016/2017; Leary, 2005; A. Lee et al., n.d.; A. R. Muhammad, 2018; Patton, 2015; C. Phillips, 2011; Rochester, 2017; Rothstein, 2017; Sewell, 2020; T. M. Shapiro, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2019a; U.S. EEOC, n.d.; A. N. Wilson, 1993, 2020). Objectively, the government does not have a legitimate empirical or theoretical excuse of why they are

not providing a certain set of its citizens with well-needed social and economic assistance.

Additionally, from an organizational and human resources standpoint, they could use the results of this study to provide their managers and supervisors with diversity, inclusion, and equity training targeted towards African American male workplace equality through increasing equitable strategies. The training mentioned would assist them in recognizing that regardless of African American males' education level, they are still subjected to hiring and workplace discrimination that hinders their efforts of obtaining adequate employment opportunities, which are commiserate with their education level and skill-set. Thus, organizations could do their part to ensure that all of their employees are treated equitably and that they are hired, promoted, and praised with respect to their education level, their skill-set, and their work ethic and not their race, their ethnicity, or because they did not personally know the right people in the organization. Equitably, educational institutions and organizations alike could also contribute to African American males' efforts of achieving economic empowerment through business ownership by providing the proper educational and economic vessels needed.

Conclusion

The purpose of this quantitative nonexperimental correlational study was to analyze relationships and predictions among African American males' unemployment and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Therefore, my ardent desire to develop this study was to influence positive social change by educating America regarding this

significant social issue, which may motivate lawmakers to implement policies and social programs to improve unemployment among African American men and to increase their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. Moreover, I desired to determine the basis of African American males' disproportionate levels of unemployment through gauging relationships that exist among various levels of their entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Supplementary, I aspired to contribute to the existing literature concerning this consequential social issue. The findings of this investigation provided a catalyst to assist African American males with the knowledge and confidence needed to counteract their formidable levels of unemployment and to encourage superlative entrepreneurial self-efficacy levels, which will increase their entrepreneurial endeavors.

Additionally, this study employed the central theoretical frameworks that included the critical race theory, institutional racism, and the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory as empirical foundations for the unemployment and entrepreneurial gaps that exist among African American males. Correspondently, the results indicated that African American males' entrepreneurial self-efficacy level statistically significantly predicted the number of times they were unemployed, their age, and their education level. Moreover, African American males' age, education level, occupational industry, and type of unemployment statistically significantly predicted the number of times they were unemployed; additionally, their age and their type of unemployment statistically significantly predicted their duration of unemployment.

Consequently, the results of this study compelled me to recommend the following positive social change initiatives: (a) long-term government-sponsored grants,

scholarships, and private sponsorships that are specifically targeted towards entrepreneurial education and psychological rehabilitation for African American males; (b) guaranteed government jobs through point preference hiring specifically for African American males due to their exceptionality in regards to their place in American history; (c) the federal enforcement of employment affirmative action for all states, specifically modified for African American males; and (d) long-term government-sponsored grants, scholarships, and private sponsorships to supply the financial funding needed for African American males to establish businesses to employ themselves and others in their community.

Benevolently, as of this writing, America is experiencing a racial reckoning. This ethnic grievance is consistent with attempting to indemnify African Americans in what appears to be the third attempt at a promise of renewal for successful integral societal and economic equity or another proposed Reconstruction for them. Adequately, the meticulously accurate results of this research study provided theoretical and empirical foundations, which influenced imperative positive social change implications that attempted to ratify some of the over 400 years of psychological harm, economic, employment, entrepreneurial, and educational inequities, and inhuman depredation inflicted upon African American males.

Therefore, this examination queried a rhetorical question to America. Equitably, the question is if this is really going to be a multi-racial, multi-ethnic, and multi-cultural democracy that protects all of its citizens and provides them with the opportunity to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness by enabling them to live the American dream

through economic prosperity and comprehensive freedom. Hopefully, America is willing to bestow gestures of healing to its exceptional people by aiding and honoring their yearning for economic empowerment to create generational opulence, which equates to true liberation.

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Appendix A: Demographic Information Survey

1. What is your gender?

a. Male

b. Female

2. What is your age in years?

a. 18–older (drop-down integers)

3. What is your ethnicity?

a. African American

b. African

c. Afro-Latino

d. Caucasian/White

e. Asian

f. Hispanic

g. Other

4. What is your highest completed education level?

a. Less than high school diploma

b. High School Diploma

c. Some College

d. Bachler's Degree

e. Master's Degree

f. Academic or Professional Doctoral Degree

5. What occupation or industry in the past or are you presently employed in?

a. Business and Management (Retail, Government, Transportation)

b. Manufacturing (Durable Goods, Nondurable Goods, and Construction)

c. Education (Healthcare and Other Services not listed)

6. What is your marital status?

a. Married

b. Widowed, Divorced, or Separated

c. Never Married

7. What is the total number of times you have been unemployed since the age of 18?

a. Integers (drop-down box)

8. On average, how long were you unemployed? Please estimate an average duration across all the times unemployed in weeks.

a. Average in weeks via integers (drop-down box)

9. What was the most consistent type of unemployment each time you became unemployed?

a. Voluntary

b. Voluntary, e.g., termination or due to factors that were out of your control

c. Not Applicable

10. What region in the United States do you live in?

a. Northeast

b. Southeast

c. Midwest

d. Southwest

e. West

11. The last question of this survey questionnaire asserted: Thank you for taking the time to complete my research survey questionnaire. Your participation is greatly appreciated. Please use this space for any additional comments regarding this topic.

Textbox space

Appendix B: Research Survey Questionnaire Termed the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale

Innovation

How much confidence do you have in your ability to ...?

1. Brainstorm (come up with) a new idea for a product or service

1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*)

2. Identify the need for a new product or service

1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*)

3. Design a product or service that will satisfy customer needs and wants

1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*)

Marketing

How much confidence do you have in your ability to ...?

4. Estimate the amount of startup funds and working capital necessary to start your business

1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*)

5. Estimate customer demand for a new product or service

1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*)

6. Determine a competitive price for a new product or service

1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*)

7. Design an effective marketing/advertising campaign for a new product or service

1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*)

Networking

How much confidence do you have in your ability to ...?

8. Get others to identify with and believe in your vision and plans for a new business

1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*)

9. Network e.g., make contact with and exchange information with others

1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*)

10. Clearly and concisely explain verbally/in writing your business idea in everyday terms

1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*)

Management

How much confidence do you have in your ability to ...?

11. Supervise employees

1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*)

12. Recruit and hire employees

1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*)

13. Delegate tasks and responsibilities to employees in my business

1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*)

14. Deal effectively with day-to-day problems and crises

1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*)

15. Inspire, encourage, and motivate my employees

1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*)

16. Train employees

1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*)

Finance

How much confidence do you have in your ability to ...?

17. Organize and maintain the financial records of your business

1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*)

18. Manage the financial assets of your business

1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*)

19. Read and interpret financial statements

1 (*very little*), 2 (*little*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*much*), and 5 (*very much*)

Appendix C: Invitation Letter to Participate in the Study

Hello, my name is Devin J. Smith and I am a doctoral candidate in the School of Psychology at Walden University. I am writing to invite you to participate in a research project. Currently, I am preparing to conduct a study to examine the relationships between unemployment among African American males' and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. This study involves two short surveys, which inquiries about your demographic information and entrepreneurial self-efficacy.

A range of responses to the survey items is expected with no right or wrong responses. Completion of the surveys will take approximately 5 to 10 minutes. Thank you very much for considering participation in this study. Your efforts are greatly appreciated and will help to interpret further the comprehension of unemployment among African American males' and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy level. If you wish, you may copy and paste the link onto a different Internet browser and complete the survey on a secure website.

(URL link)

Sincerely,

Devin J. Smith

Doctoral Candidate, Walden University

Appendix D: Permission to Use the Research Survey Questionnaire Termed the Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy Scale

from: Devin J. Smith [redacted]
to: [redacted]
date: Oct 25, 2020, 7:31 PM
subject: Request Permission for Research Survey Questionnaire

Dear Dr. McGee,
I am a doctoral student at the Walden University, presently working on my dissertation. My proposed research consists of exploring relationships between African American males' unemployment and their entrepreneurial self-efficacy. The entrepreneurial self-efficacy scale is adequate for my research because it is consistent with the entrepreneurial self-efficacy theory, which has the potential to predict entrepreneurial intentions. Accordingly, I will require the refined research survey questionnaire termed the entrepreneurial self-efficacy scale that you and your colleagues developed (citation below) to conduct my study.

McGee, J. E., Peterson, M., Mueller, S., & Sequeira, J. (2009). Entrepreneurial self-efficacy: Refining the measure. *Entrepreneurship: Theory & Practice*, 33 (4), 965–988. https://doi.org/10.1111%2Fj.1540-6520.2009.00304.x

Correspondingly, I humbly request your permission to use the entrepreneurial self-efficacy scale in my dissertation research. Your permission to use this phenomenal research survey questionnaire would be appreciated.

Sincerely,
Devin J. Smith

from: Mcgee, Jeffrey [redacted]
to: "Devin J. Smith" [redacted]
date: Oct 30, 2020, 9:07 AM
subject: Re: Request Permission for Research Survey Questionnaire

Devin,

I am terribly sorry for not getting back to you sooner. Thank you for expressing an interest in our research. You may certainly use our ESE instrument. A copy is attached.

Jeffrey E. McGee
Department of Management
University of Texas at Arlington
[redacted]