

THE BUSINESS OF DIVERSITY WITHIN CALIFORNIA HIGHER EDUCATION AND PUBLIC POLICY

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ABSTRACT

My research examines the long-term negative impact of dismantling affirmative action in California. In 1995, Republican bill Proposition 209 effectively ended affirmative action in California (Kidder, 2001). Affirmative action programs were subsequently replaced with diversity and inclusion initiatives. Diversity became a new synthesis focused on placing bodies and numbers of bodies in categories to satisfy categories of bodies (Flores, 2013). These categories were designed to generate the most revenue from diversity and inclusion programs funded by state and federal governments. This process resulted in a social phenomenon, which I have identified as the business of diversity.

KEYWORDS: affirmative action, diversity, inclusion, equity, higher education, SAT, mechanisms, public policy, mismatch hypothesis, stereotype threat hypothesis, reverse racism, inequality, stratification, intellectual closure, demography, and g factor.

INTRODUCTION

This study is designed to inform public policy in California higher education. Utilizing a mixed methods approach, I examined the cessation of affirmative action in California higher education, and how it appears to have purposively harmed working class and poor Californians of prejudicial color and gender. To analyze this social phenomenon, I conducted the following research: (1) an aggregate of the pre- and post-affirmative action enrollment rates at a California State University (CSU), Hispanic-Serving Institution (HSI) (1992-2015); (2) a cell by cell racial and gender analysis of two-year Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) retention rates in relation to the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) mean of incoming freshman (2004-2014); (3) a content analysis probing the thematic framing of minorities by the institution as socially inept, impoverished, and ill, via the mechanisms of pragmatic action and associated emotion, and the unanticipated and aggregated consequences of sensible social action and emotion in relation to reason, perception, and functional ignorance (Schneider, 1962); (4) an historical and cultural content analysis of American public policy in relation to higher education, employment, privilege, and no manipulated discrimination; (5) a measurement of the perceived negative impact of affirmative action on Whites, using data from the 2012 General Social Survey (GSS); and (6) ethnographic field work in higher education from 2015 to present, by observing and interacting with senior-level institutional staff and professors at formal and staged diversity events.

To advance this discovery, I pulled from a never-before empirically proven theory immersed in literature on higher education, known as “intellectual closure,” and published in 2014 by Dr.

Mangala Subramaniam, Dr. Robert Perrucci, and David Whitlock (all of Purdue University). This proposed theoretical framework allowed me to measure how and why the unanticipated and aggregated consequences of pragmatic action, agency, and emotion operate symbiotically via the fluid relationship between transmutation mechanisms (Schneider, 1962) and social mechanisms (Gross, 2009), and how these transmuted social mechanisms (Gross, 2009; Schneider, 1962) link together pragmatically and emotionally to negatively affect diversity and inclusion in California higher education and public policy. This unique theoretical approach enabled me to connect the negative effects of macro level social closure to micro level intellectual closure (Gross, 2009; Schneider, 1962; Subramaniam, Perrucci, Whitlock, 2014). Intellectual closure is thoroughly explained in the theory section of this investigation. The purpose of this inquiry is to forward the discussion of diversity and inclusion, public policy, and social stratification to understand how and why higher education reproduces and limits the experience of working class and poor Californians of prejudicial color and gender.

LITERATURE REVIEW

My literature review exposed the pros and cons of “doing diversity” and ending affirmative action in California higher education (A. Hurtado, 2005). Some scholars suggest that national research centered on structured and staged events, such as focus groups, standardized institutional surveys, and student rallies focused on diversity and inclusion are helpful in measuring the campus climate of an institution’s large campus suburb (Chang, 2007). To better probe and scrutinize the purported benefits of diversity and inclusion in higher education, an organic self-assessment centered on the mechanisms of informal student social interaction, and structured around diversity and inclusion, is also needed to better understand how and why diversity and inclusion in higher education may succeed or fail (Chang, 2007). Combining the above methodologies may prove helpful in lighting the way for senior-level institutional officials to better cultivate and harness a more well-defined, inclusive, democratic, robust and diverse large campus suburb (Chang, 2007; Gurin, P., Dey, Hurtado, & Gurin, G., 2002). Other scholars lamented the social consequences of abolishing affirmative action in California higher education; issuing a call for research exploring and analyzing the post-affirmative action climate (A. Hurtado, 2005; Kidder, 2001). My proposal builds on the gaps in this literature, presenting a unique and fresh perspective centered on the post-affirmative action climate in California higher education.

In other domains of higher education literature, scholars reasoned that the University of California Regents who voted to dismantle affirmative action “...violated the spirit, if not the letter, of shared governance” (Scott, Atwell, Gerber, Higginbotham, Kant, Oaxaca, Yee & Adler, 1995, p. 61,66). The following policies dismantled affirmative action: State Proposition 1 (SP-1), State Proposition (SP-2), and Proposition 209 (Kidder, 2001). In 1995, SP-1 and SP-2 dismantled the use of affirmative action in California higher education (Kidder, 2001). Official outlines of SP-1 and SP-2 are as follows:

Section 1. Effective January 1, 1996, the University of California shall not use race, religion, sex, color, ethnicity, or national origin as a criterion in employment and contracting practices.

Section 2. Effective January 1, 1997, the University of California shall not use race, religion, sex, color, ethnicity or national origin as a criterion for admission to the University or to any programs of study. (Pusser, 2004,p. 130)

In 1996, Proposition 209 was passed by a fifty-four percent margin of eligible California voters (Kidder, 2001). Unfortunately, Proposition 209, a Republican supported bill, encompassed all the negative mechanisms embedded within the frame works of the CSU's SP-1 and SP-2, and was approved by mostly Republican Regents in 1995 (Kidder, 2001;Pusser, 2004). With the election of Governor Gray Davis in 2001, Regent Bagley and Governor Davis led the charge to rescind SP-1 with SP-2 (Pusser, 2004). Of note, "...Proposition 209 places limitations on financial aid and scholarships, whereas, SP-1 does not" (Kidder, 2001, p. 29).Today, increases in California higher education tuition costs, combined with a lack of state financial aid and decreased state scholarship funding, can be directly linked to the long-term negative effects of policy created by Republicans. Consequently, most Proposition 209 enthusiasts fear this may lead to an eventual attempt to overturn Proposition 209 (Kidder, 2001, p. 30). Historically, Proposition 209, SP-1, and SP-2, dismantled former US President John F. Kennedy's Executive Order 10925 (passed in 1961)and Lyndon B. Johnson's Executive Order 11246 (passed in 1965). Together, these policies sought to correct the historic negative social mechanisms of discrimination, inequality, and social stratification by allowing the use of affirmative action in higher education, contracting, and employment.

Upon conducting further research, I discovered another gap in the literature; specifically, the advancement of a new sociological theory challenging the G-factor (A. Hurtado, 2005; Kidder, 2001). To elaborate, in *Gratz v. Bollinger* (University of Michigan Law School 2001), as well as *Grutter v. Bollinger* (University of Michigan 2001), the G-Factor was a key card played by the opponents of affirmative action (Kidder, 2001).Dr. Aida Hurtado (2005), a highly distinguished academic scholar and pro-affirmative action advocate, elaborates on the G-Factor:

Among certain scholars the thinking is that a single component of all intelligence (commonly referred to as the g factor) is unrealistic and argues for a definition of intelligence that is multiple, context specific, and infinitely creative in problem solving. (Sternberg, 1996; Sternberg & Wagner, 1994) (A. Hurtado, 2005, p. 278)

The G-Factor will be at the heart of the affirmative action debate when the *Grutter* Court reconvenes in 2028 (A. Hurtado, 2005; Kidder, 2001).There is a real possibility that the Court could decide against reinstating the use of affirmative action in higher education. Accordingly, I hypothesize that this action could potentially result in federal and state agencies ceasing to fund public higher education altogether (A. Hurtado, 2005; Pusser, 2004). My proposal is grounded in theoretical knowledge and empirical data that has the scholarly capacity to confront and refute the G-Factor, as

well as the following three arguments leveled by the critics of affirmative action (Fischer & Massey, 2007):(1) affirmative action is “reverse racism”(Fischer & Massey, 2007); (2) affirmative action purposively labels the target group as unqualified; known as the “stereotype threat hypothesis” (Fischer & Massey, 2007); and (3) affirmative action sets up less qualified candidates with lower incoming SAT means to fail in an elite STEM program or at an elite teaching institution, such as the University of California Berkeley; known as the “mismatch hypothesis” (Fischer & Massey, 2007). I found that erudite professors of higher education, such as Dr. Sylvia Hurtado and Dr. Mitchell Chang, had issued calls requesting more research centered on diversity and inclusion in higher education, advancements in hypothetical frameworks, and minority success in STEM (Chang, 2007; S. Hurtado, et al., 2009). My findings detailed here in after have answered their call by detailing the success of Resident and Non-Resident Aliens in elite California State University programs of higher education such as STEM, as well as further exploring and analyzing the pros and cons of diversity and inclusion programs at a purported elite CSU Hispanic-Serving Institution (HSI).

THEORY: INTELLECTUAL CLOSURE

In order to succeed where higher education research failed in the affirmative action debates of the 1990’s, I needed to create or advance a sociological theory that centers on a more action-based explanation of social life. Upon conducting further research, I discovered a never-before quantified sociological theory immersed in literature on modern higher education. A theory that I propose, holds the knowledge needed to intellectually advance my sociological discovery, as well as empirically yield the results needed to validate this inquiry. It is a theory of agency and action that links social action and associated emotion to the unanticipated and aggregated consequences of pragmatic action and emotion (Subramaniam, et al., 2014). The intellectual theorists reasoned how and why the operational mechanisms of intellectual closure are socially posited via an integration of transmutation mechanisms (Schneider, 1962) and social mechanisms (Gross, 2009), and how these transmuted social mechanisms link together to mobilize the negative effects of macro level social closure and micro level intellectual closure(Subramaniam, et al., 2014). This hypothetical belief is found in the following passage:

“... Schneider posits the existence of social mechanisms that have the effect of linking aggregated social action in ways that produce unanticipated outcomes. To quote: ‘Transmutation mechanisms operate in the area ‘between’ individually realized goals and un contemplated outcomes taken or defined as social effects. . . It has been easier for sociologists to note the sheer existence of ‘unanticipated consequences of purposive social action’ than to demonstrate why and how specific purposive actions become transmuted into specific unanticipated consequences, and thereby identify and describe transmutation mechanisms’ (Schneider, 1962: 500). Schneider theorizes further that the individual-level behaviors that lead on to unanticipated outcomes should be considered to be attractive intermediates that motivate individuals to engage in those actions that will produce the larger unforeseen consequences. Although Schneider provides no additional clues or micro-level theory to identify these attractive intermediates, a recent article on social mechanisms (Gross, 2009)

provides some direction. Gross (2009: 358) argues that ‘a major aim of sociological inquiry is to identify the social mechanisms by which cause and effect relationships in the social world come about. Finding existing accounts to be deficient, he offers a ‘pragmatist theory of social mechanisms’ and the following general definition: ‘A social mechanism is a more or less general sequence or set of social events or processes analyzed at a lower order of complexity or aggregation by which-in certain circumstances- some cause X tends to bring about some effect Y in the realm of human social relations. This sequence or set may or may not be analytically reducible to the actions of individuals who enact it, may underwrite formal or substantive causal processes, and may be observed, unobserved, or in principle unobservable’ (Gross, 2009: 364). Although the terminology differs, Schneider and Gross both posit the existence of purposive social action that produces unintended outcomes. Gross’s sequence of social events that are not reducible to the actions of individuals who enact it is similar to Schneider’s discussion of un contemplated outcomes. Other parallels can be found in Schneider’s positing of the existence of attractive intermediates and Gross’s ‘pragmatist theory of action.’ Schneider does not say much about the intermediates, but Gross’s comes closer to a micro level theory of action and the link between action and social mechanisms. ‘...humans are problem solvers and the function of thought is to guide action in the service of solving practical problems that arise in the course of life...the main ways humans solve problems, the pragmatists held, is by enacting habits- those learned through social experience or from previous individual efforts at problem solving. By habits, the pragmatists meant not rote behavior, but ‘acquired predisposition[s] to ways or modes of response,’ (Dewey, 1922: 42, emphasis in original) of which actors are typically not conscious in the moment (Gross,2009: 366). Based on this foundation for social action, Gross (2009) elaborates further on the connection between action and mechanisms. On action: ‘This requires that we grasp how the relevant individuals understand the situations before them and act on those understandings, helping thereby to enact the mechanism’ (Gross, 2009: 368). On Mechanism: ‘Pragmatists would view social mechanisms as composed of chains or aggregations of actors confronting problem situations and mobilizing more or less habitual responses’(Gross, 2009: 368). We use these ideas concerning Schneider’s transmutation mechanisms and Gross’ social mechanisms to present a number of testable propositions linking social closure to intellectual closure that we anticipate will be empirically examined in future research. (Subramaniam, et al., 2014, pgs.419, 420)”

Drawing on the collective theories of Gross (2009), Subramanian et al. (2014), and Schneider (1962), the hypothetical frameworks of this inquiry link both transmutation mechanisms (Schneider, 1962) and social mechanisms (Gross, 2009) to the reciprocal relationship of macro level social closure and micro level intellectual closure, as it relates to sensible reason, perception, and eufunctional ignorance (Gross, 2009; Schneider, 1962;Subramaniam, et al., 2014).

The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), provides a good example of how transmuted mechanisms (Schneider, 1962) and social mechanisms (Gross, 2009) operate through public policy, global trade, competition, and power. Former U.S. President Bill Clinton signed off

on NAFTA in 1993; however, NAFTA was not Clinton's original idea. NAFTA was inspired by former U.S. President Ronald Reagan's 1979 North American Accord (Faux, 2013). Consequently, Ronald Reagan is the first actor responsible for mobilizing the negative transmuted social mechanisms of NAFTA (Gross, 2009; Schneider, 1962). Thirteen years later, in 1992, President George H.W. Bush, transmuted Reagan's policy and renamed it NAFTA (Faux, 2013). In 1993, Bush's Presidential term expired before NAFTA could be completed (Faux, 2013). The following year, newly elected democratic President Bill Clinton, further mutated the negative mechanisms created by Republican Presidents Ronald Reagan and George H.W. Bush (Faux, 2013). The negative effects produced by NAFTA were not possible without direct contributions from the upper meso level, second link, Y-input, or in this case, the U.S. Congress. The actors operating within the domain of the upper meso level include all members of Congress who voted "yes" on NAFTA; thereby ensuring further transmutation of its negative mechanisms (Faux, 2013). Finally, the micro level, last link, Z-input, or in this case, the more than 682,900 Americans (Strachan, 2011) who lost their jobs because of NAFTA (see table A, pg. 26). NAFTA demonstrates how and why actors operate fluidly within the macro- and upper meso-levels, alternating "...between habit and creativity" (Gross, 2009, p. 369), while trying to solve "...everyday life problems faced and choices made" (Subramaniam, et al., 2014, p.413); effectively triggering in aggregate $X + Y + Z$, the unanticipated and aggregated consequences of sensible social action and associated emotion, as it relates to reason, perception, and eufunctional ignorance (Gross, 2009; Schneider, 1962; Subramaniam, et al., 2014). The result: $X + Y + Z =$ intellectual closure, as confirmed above in Exhibit A, by way of macro level social closure and micro level intellectual closure (Gross, 2009; Schneider, 1962; Subramaniam et al., 2014).

I posit that the collectively proposed theories of Gross (2009), Schneider (1962), and Subramaniam, Perrucci, and Whitlock (2014), contain the following qualities: (1) they bridge the theoretical and scholarly gaps left in the Grutter Court's ruling (A. Hurtado, 2005), as relative to the negated scholarly research presented by the supporters of affirmative action: Dr. Walter Allen, Dr. Daniel Solórzano, Dr. Frank Wu, and Dr. John Hope Franklin (Kidder, 2001); (2) they offer an action-based explanation of how and why material intermediates attach and stimulate the mechanisms of social life to converge and interact at the intersections of daily social life (see Intersectionality by Patricia Hill Collins); and (3) "...taking a different tack from the symbolic interactionists" (Gross, 2009, p. 360), they attempt to marry a new string theory of knowledge into the mainstream enterprise of sociological knowledge (Gross, 2009). As Gross (2009) previously mentioned, "...scholars also note that in more than a century of sociological research, few universal laws have been discovered" (Gross, 2009, p. 359).

I realize that some sociological theorists, such as Dr. Michel Foucault, believed their moral responsibility was to observe and research society, and not disturb it in any way, shape, or form. Others, such as Dr. W.E.B. Du Bois, believed that scholarly research grounded in social justice and activism should be pursued. Considering these perspectives and emotions, I hypothesize that the

unique theoretical tools and skill sets entrenched in intellectual closure permit sociologists from both factions to conduct and advance their scholarly research, while allowing them to promote their own moral perspectives of activism or non-activism in the social world.

Mixed Methods

I used the following terms to refer to the California State University (CSU) studied in this inquiry: (1) corporate university, (2) institution, and (3) university. For the past twenty-six months, I have conducted semi-formal interviews with senior-level staff and administrators at the corporate university, including the Vice President, Dean of Graduate Studies, Dean of Students, Dean of Academic Affairs, and Assistant Deans. To gain a different perspective of shared governance in higher education, I performed ethnographic observations of shared interaction and non-interaction between senior-level institutional staff, core faculty, and adjunct faculty while attending structured and staged diversity events held by the institution. Combining these methodologies helped me to better elucidate the pros and cons of the formal methodologies currently used by institutional agents of California higher education.

In order to gain a deeper perspective of the power relationships between higher education senior-level staff, core faculty, tenured professors, and lecturers, I traveled to Portland, Oregon in April 2017, for the 88th Annual Pacific Sociological Association (PSA) National Conference. Here, I observed and interacted with tenured professors who shared their stories of institutional betrayal, surveillance, and discrimination, as well as the consequences for whistle blowing against the university. This experience provided a much-needed perspective regarding the perils faced by professors of higher education in relation to the dynamic reciprocal relationships between macro level institutional staff, meso level core faculty, lower-meso level tenured professors, and micro level lecturers, via an analysis of staged and structured diversity events coordinated by the institution, as well as nonfiction narratives shared by professors at PSA 2017. These stories were centered on personal experiences of institutional retaliation, such as whistle blowing, reporting sexual harassment and campus rape, defending Title IX rights, and the pressure to acquire private funding due to a lack of institutional funding. PSA 2017 presented me with a unique field to observe and interact with erudite professors of modern higher education who shared their experiences of institutional surveillance, discrimination, and betrayal. I used this raw data to advance the following methods: (1) ethnographic observations of senior-level staff members and professors interacting with students at staged and structured diversity events; (2) ethnographic observations of senior-level institutional staff, tenured professors, and lecturers, via an integration of structured and semi-structured interviews, informal interaction, and lived experiences; and (3) ethnographic observations of elected student leaders, student leaders, and non-student leaders, via an integration of semi-structured interviews and lived experiences, centered on the mechanisms of formal and informal social interaction and non-interaction.

To study the arguments leveled by the critics of affirmative action (Fischer & Massey, 2007), I conducted the following investigations: (1) analyzed 2012 General Social Survey (GSS) National data to measure the perceived negative impact of affirmative action on Whites, and thereby quantify the input-outcome transmuted negative mechanisms of reverse racism in relation to age and income (Fischer & Massey, 2007); (2) aggregated the incoming SAT mean and two-year retention rates of first time freshman success in a CSU elite STEM program, which allowed me to probe and negate the mismatch hypothesis (Fischer & Massey, 2007); and (3) empirically explored whether or not the stereotype threat hypothesis (Fischer & Massey, 2007) (defined as the purposive labeling of minorities as unqualified) is a viable hypothesis.

Regionally, to better scrutinize if affirmative action is reverse racism (Fischer & Massey, 2007), I combined Schneider's transmutation mechanisms (1962) and Gross's social mechanisms (2009) with a content analysis approach. This methodology enabled me to pragmatically (Gross, 2009) reason how and why the corporate university uses forms of media, such as marketing advertisements, to thematically frame and rationally portray minority groups as: (1) socially ill; (2) socially inept; (3) impoverished; (4) from the ghetto; and (5) in perpetual need of "free money" from the state and federal governments. I found that this rational action and associated emotion triggered by the university purposively labels minorities as "obviously underqualified" and "benefactors of affirmative action." To study the mismatch hypothesis (Fischer & Massey, 2007), I aggregated the incoming SAT mean and two-year retention rates of first time freshman success in a CSU elite STEM program, which allowed me to probe, accept, or negate the mismatch hypothesis (Fischer & Massey, 2007). To scrutinize the stereotype threat hypothesis, I combined media, incoming SAT mean, and two-year retention rates to explore whether the stereotype threat hypothesis (Fischer & Massey, 2007) (defined as the purposive labeling of minorities as unqualified) is a viable hypothesis or not.

To obtain a national perspective, I pulled data from the 2012 GSS to measure the perceived negative impact of affirmative action on Whites. I cleansed the 2012 GSS data of questions that were superfluous to my research, and recoded AGE (age of the respondents) from a cohort of 79 groups, to AGEII, or a sample of six groups. I ran descriptive frequencies to determine the mean of the GSS (2012) code DISCAFF, as DISCAFF asked respondents if they felt Whites were harmed by affirmative action policies. I probed INCOME06, as INCOME06 aggregated the total annual income of each respondent: the mean for INCOME06 was less than \$35,000; the sampled population was N = 1,758 respondents; and 55 percent of the sample size had an annual income of less than \$50,000. I discovered that 43 percent of DISCAFF respondents felt that Whites were "somewhat likely" to be harmed by affirmative action policies. Altogether, over 59 percent of the entire sampled population felt Whites "were very likely" or "somewhat likely" to be harmed by affirmative action policies. I ran frequencies and cross-tabulation analysis using DISCAFF as my dependent variable; for my independent variables, I used AGE, or the age of the respondent, and INCOME06, or the total yearly income of each respondent. I recoded AGE from a cohort of 79 groups to five groups and labeled it

“age new.” Cross-tabulation analysis of AGE revealed a 9.4 epsilon point difference, reasoning that adults 50 years or older were more likely to believe that Whites were harmed by affirmative action. The Gamma test of association recorded a .10, which per Healey’s table is moderate/worth noting. Also, the Pearson Chi-Square equated $\chi^2 = 8$, ($N = 1,237$) = 17.36, $P = .03$; therefore, I can reasonably conclude that the result is statistically significant.

Interestingly, I ran an ANNOVA analysis between AGE and DISCAFF; discovering that people 48 years or older felt Whites were “somewhat likely” to be affected by affirmative action, while people 51 years or older felt Whites were “very likely hurt” by affirmative action. The ANNOVA equated $F(2, 2) = 5.016$ $P = .05$, and my Levene’s test was on the bubble. Further exploring these findings, I conducted an ANNOVA analysis between INCOME06 and DISCAFF, and found that respondents earning less than \$56,000 per year were “somewhat likely” to feel Whites were affected by affirmative action, whereas respondents earning less than \$50,000 per year believed that Whites were “very likely” hurt by affirmative action policies. The ANNOVA equated $F(2, 2) = 7.133$ $P < .05$, although Levene’s is not significant as $P = .007$ and $.052$, which I believe is likely due to recoding the data at midpoint. Drawing on my ANNOVA findings, I theorize that on a national basis: (1) admission policies struggle to create diverse student populations in higher education without being accused of reverse racism by Americans 48 years or older and who earn less than \$56,000 per year; (2) the older the person and less money earned, the more likely they were to perceive Whites as being harmed by affirmative action; and (3) the issue of affirmative action remains a polarizing topic among Americans, regardless of color or gender.

FINDINGS

As previously discussed, the most prevalent arguments leveled by the critics of affirmative action are: (1) affirmative action is “reverse racism” (Fischer & Massey, 2007); (2) affirmative action purposively labels the target group as unqualified; known as the “stereotype threat hypothesis” (Fischer & Massey, 2007); and (3) affirmative action sets up less qualified candidates with lower incoming SAT means to fail in an elite STEM program or at an elite teaching institution, such as the University of California Berkeley; known as the “mismatch hypothesis” (Fischer & Massey, 2007). In order to explore and analyze these hypotheses, I investigated the post-affirmative action climate in California higher education by conducting a regional analysis. Specifically, I examined the 2004 to 2014 incoming SAT mean, as well as the two-year retention rates thereafter of $N = 2,188$ STEM discipline first-time freshman at the corporate university. First, I divided the sampled cohort by gender, and found 52.47 percent were male and 47.53 percent female. Initially, there were 4.94 percent more incoming freshman males than females; however, after the first two years in college the gap dropped to 2.94 percent. This decrease in percentage does not mean the students dropped out of college; rather, they were no longer enrolled in STEM, as they changed to different majors.

My findings reason that if more females were admitted than males, they could succeed at a faster rate in STEM. To elaborate, it appears that more scientists could be cultivated or graduate faster with a

bachelor's degree, if the corporate university admitted 15 percent more females in STEM as opposed to admitting 4.94 percent more males in the beginning. Unfortunately, Proposition 209 calls for the SAT mean as the determining factor in the student enrollment process (A. Hurtado, 2005; Kidder, 2001), and the incoming SAT mean for males was 1037.73 and 977.09 for females. Based on these findings, I theorize that females at the corporate university show the determination and cognitive capacity to be more successful, creative, and adaptive to the rigors of STEM than males. Regardless, the transmuted social mechanisms entrenched in Proposition 209 or the X-input, and university admissions staff or the Y-input, further transmit the negative mechanics of Proposition 209 down to the Z-input and continue to enroll more males than females. The result: $X + Y + Z =$ intellectual closure, as confirmed above in Exhibit 1-A (Gross, 2009; Schneider, 1962; Subramaniam et al., 2014). Stepping away from gender, I examined the same cohort in relation to the dynamics of race, incoming SAT mean, and two-year retention rates thereafter. This study revealed that Whites had the highest incoming SAT mean of 1067.36, with 73.25 percent exiting the STEM disciplines after two years, and made up 31.35 percent of the entire sampled population. Hispanics had a substantially lower incoming SAT mean of 954.81, with 66.72 percent exiting after two years, and made up 37.48 percent of the entire sampled population. Asians had an incoming SAT mean of 996.18, with 60.88 percent leaving after two years. Of all sampled races, Asians succeeded at the highest rate; yet only made up 16.59 percent of the entire sampled population. Of all races analyzed, Resident and Non-Resident Aliens had the best two-year retention rates; meaning that they can graduate the fastest and secure employment in science-related fields, thereby furthering scientific discovery, and contributing to the success of the California economy (see table B, pg. 26).

My findings reason that California, and indeed, the U.S. as a whole, would benefit from admitting more Resident and Non-Resident Aliens into college. Resident and Non-Resident Aliens had one of the lowest incoming SAT means, but the best two-year retention rate of the entire STEM cohort, despite an incoming SAT mean of just 968.63. These findings confront and negate the assumption that Resident and Non-Resident Aliens are only migrant workers, not capable of academic achievement. This assumption not only weakens, but breaks the link between premise and conclusion, which assumes that Resident and Non-Resident Aliens are not up and coming new millennial scientists, who inherently possess the requisite knowledge to excel in STEM. It further assumes that these individuals would not benefit the economy in terms of expediently securing well-paying jobs in science-related fields, or subsequently paying taxes on the income generated as tax-paying members of the scientific community and society as a whole.

Comparatively, in 2014, one Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander had an incoming SAT mean of just 760; yet succeeded in the first year of the elite STEM program. Also, in 2014, I found that Black incoming freshman scored exceptionally high on the SAT; and in response, the corporate university acknowledged their scholarly effort with seven fewer admissions as opposed to 2013 (see table C, blue arrow, pg. 27). Similarly, Asians made up 18 percent of the STEM population, and despite succeeding at the highest rate of all races, the corporate university decreased the Asian

student population in STEM to 16.59 percent. These examples demonstrate how and why admissions staff, while pragmatically and emotionally alternating "...between habit and creativity" (Gross, 2009, p. 369), in attempting to solve "...everyday life problems faced and choices made" (Subramaniam, et al., 2014, p. 413), mobilize in aggregate $X + Y + Z$; the operational mechanisms of macro level social closure and micro level intellectual closure, as it relates to public policy, higher education, diversity and inclusion (Gross, 2009; Schneider, 1962; Subramaniam et al., 2014). My results prove that the SAT has failed as an accurate and intelligent predictor of scholarly success in an elite California higher education STEM program. My results have also successfully confronted and negated the mismatch hypothesis (Fischer & Massey, 2007). To correct this problem, due process in California higher education is necessary to efficiently harness and produce the next generation of new millennial scientists, as well as democratically ensure higher student enrollments from previously excluded working class and poor minority groups of prejudicial color and gender. Without some form of due process of law or "policy barrier," the institution will continue to imprudently use the SAT as the standard of merit for college admissions.

California higher education admissions are not solely based on incoming SAT mean (Pusser, 2004), as other factors considered are family legacy and the regional demographics of the population surrounding the institution (Pusser, 2004). These demographics are further atomized by proportions of race, ethnicity, class, and income. Pusser (2004), noted that in 1994 only 15 percent of incoming freshman at the University of California Berkeley "came from families whose father had not attended college" (Pusser, 2004, p. 32), while over 60 percent of freshman enrolled at UC Berkeley came from families where the father was a "four-year college graduate or possesses a postgraduate degree" (Pusser, 2004, p. 32). Thus, the mechanisms of macro level social closure and micro level intellectual closure can be further linked via an integration of policy, family legacy, male privilege, and regional demographics.

To further understand the importance of demographic population in relation to policy, social stratification, and higher education student enrollment rates, I analyzed the 2013 San Diego County, California North Inland and North Coastal Regional Population. Regionally, in 2013, Whites made up 53.34 percent of the North Inland San Diego Region and 57.79 percent of the North Coastal San Diego Region. Blacks made up 1.65 percent of the North Inland Region and 2.55 percent of the North Coastal region, while Asian/Pacific Islanders made up 10.86 percent of the North Inland Region and 6.21 percent of the North Coastal Region. The corporate university is located within the heart of these two demographic regions, which positions the university to draw its student population from these demographics within the frameworks of Proposition 209. The protocol for enrollment revolves around many intermediates, but there are three at its core: (1) an analysis of a prospective student's incoming SAT mean; (2) an exploration of a student's worth to the economy by measuring their parent's gross value to the economy; this usually encompasses a question on the enrollment application where the institution asks if the student's parents attended or graduated from college; and

(3) creating a student body that “mirrors” the demographics of the regional population surrounding the institution.

Drawing upon the above population data, the institution is only obligated to recruit a Black student body that ranges from one to three percent of the surrounding demographic region. This can prove problematic because although Black, Asian, Hawaiian, Filipino, and Other Pacific Islanders have a better two-year retention rate in STEM than Whites, due to the mutated negative mechanisms entrenched in Proposition 209, which calls for the SAT score as the determinant factor in the California higher education enrollment process (Kidder, 2001), minorities hailing from the smallest populations are drafted into elite programs of higher education such as STE Mat a number comparable or below the region’s demographics. Consequently, I theorize that these races and cultures of prejudicial color and gender remain socioeconomically stratified within the legal frameworks of public policy and the purported benefits of diversity, inclusion and equity. This is where a policy barrier in the higher education enrollment process would increase the enrollment rates of minorities who hail from the smallest proportions of race in California.

To find out how many working class and poor Californians have been turned away from higher education since the dismantling of affirmative action in 1995, Chantung (2016) interviewed the Chancellor of the CSU system, Timothy P White: “...White noted that 29,700 fully qualified California residents were turned away from the CSU last fall” (Chantung, 2016). As the Chancellor of the CSU system noted, 29,700 California residents or Q were turned away in Fall 2015 alone (Chantung, 2016). Dividing Q by S, or 23 CSU’s in the state of California, the result is $Q/S = P$, or roughly 1,291 fully qualified California applicants who were denied entrance to each of the 23 CSU’s in Fall 2015. Multiplying 1,291 applicants or P, by 18 years of the post-affirmative action era (1998-2015) or R, the final result is $P \times R = M$, or 23,238 fully qualified California applicants who, on average, have been turned away from each of the 23 CSU’s between 1998 and 2015. The final calculation is $M \times S = L$, or 534,474 fully qualified Californian applicants have been denied higher education between 1998 and 2015.

My results also postulate that the recent push of smaller CSU colleges to achieve Hispanic-Servicing Institution (HSI) status is most likely driven by the Great Recession of 2008 (Treas, 2010), and further compounded by the limitations on state financial aid and scholarships imposed by Proposition 209 (Kidder, 2001), rather than a sincere and frank effort to recognize the Hispanic community. To elaborate, I found that between 1992 and 2015, the corporate university reported to the CSU Analytic Studies Department in Long Beach, California, a total of $N = 177,242$ lifetime students enrolled. Mexican Americans made up $N = 35,326$ or 19.93 percent of the entire lifetime population, while other Latino Americans made up $N = 8,945$ or 5.05 percent, and Resident/Non- Resident Aliens made up $N = 3,662$ or 2.07 percent of the entire population. Altogether, between 1992 and 2015, the total combined Mexican/Latino American population was $N = 44,271$ or 24.98 percent of the total N

= 177,242 students enrolled, while Resident/Non-Resident Aliens made up N = 3,662 or 2.07 percent of the entire population.

In 2012, the corporate university received an honorary Hispanic-Serving Institution (HSI) status from the CSU. In order for an institution to be nationally accredited as an HSI, at least 25 percent of the institution's enrolled student population must be of Hispanic descent (S. Hurtado, et al., 2009). Between 2009 and 2015, there was a 15 percent increase in the Mexican American population at the corporate university. Notably, 2009 was the first year that the Hispanic, Latino, and Resident/Non-Resident Alien population reached the 25 percent threshold required for accreditation as an HSI. The institution maintained this population for four years, and in 2012, the corporate university received its HSI status. In 2015, the Latino population of the large campus suburb surpassed 41 percent and was reported to be over 50 percent by Fall 2016. However, as demonstrated hereinabove, the 2013 regional combined Hispanic population surrounding the corporate university was only 30 percent. Similarly, in 2016, the combined Hispanic population in the State of California was only 37 percent (see Suburban Stats Current California 2016 Population by Race in California). I theorize that the reason the reported Hispanic student population was 20 percent over the regional population, and 14 percent over the state population was due to the Great Recession of 2008 (Treas, 2010), and further compounded by the negative mechanisms implanted within the policy frameworks of Proposition 209. As previously mentioned, Proposition 209 places limitations on financial aid and scholarships, whereas, SP-1 does not (Kidder, 2001). This stratified form of public policy negatively impacted California institutions of higher education by diverting state funding away from the schools; an action further intensified by the Great Recession of 2008. In reaction to this stratified form of policy and Great Recession of 2008, I hypothesize that in order to produce the state and federal funds needed to sustain economic growth in 2009, the corporate university tapped into the business of diversity by bumping up their Hispanic enrollment population to 25 percent.

I discovered that hyper inflating the Hispanic student population had a direct effect on smaller minority populations such as Blacks, Asians, Hawaiians, Other Pacific Islanders, and American Indians. As previously mentioned, in 2014, prospective Black STEM students did everything right and scored well on the SAT; yet since the institution had set its economic sights on maintaining and increasing its HSI status, it imprudently canceled out the scholarly achievements of other minority groups from some of the state's smallest populations. This exemplar demonstrates how and why rational action and associated emotion in relation to one's life choices are heavily dictated by public policy. It also confronts and refutes the assumption that affirmative action is reverse racism (Fisher & Massey, 2007), by showing how and why diversity and inclusion in the higher education student enrollment process lacks integrity without the use of affirmative action or a similar policy barrier.

I recently came across the above media advertisement, run by the corporate university's Office of Communications, entitled: "Coaching Students Through to the Academic Finish Line" (see table D, pg. 27). Below the titled headline, is a picture of a young Black male student speaking with a female employee (Chappell, 2016). I theorize that this promotion "indirectly and intermediately"

(Schneider, 1962) gives the sensible and emotional impression that Black males require more assistance in higher education and may drop out at the highest rate; yet, my research showed quite the opposite: White students are dropping out of STEM at the highest rate. I hypothesize that this advertisement further demonstrates the effects of the business of diversity and highlights how the corporate university uses various forms of media to psychologically mutate the social identity of Black males as obviously underqualified, into the pragmatic minds of most people; thereby “transmutating” (Schneider, 1962) the negative “mechanisms” (Gross, 2009) of the stereotype threat hypothesis (Massey & Fischer, 2007). Thus, I have proven that the institution and their praxis of diversity and inclusion psychosocially stereotypes minorities - not affirmative action; and in doing so, negates the stereotype threat hypothesis. Overall, I have effectively disproven the three stances leveled by the critics of affirmative action (Fischer & Massey, 2007).

Drawing on the above exemplar, I hypothesize that a new policy barrier is needed to protect minorities from being exploited and preyed upon by institutions of higher education. I propose the name of this policy to be “The Diversity Protection Act” (DPA). The DPA would require institutions of higher education to frame, as necessary, both White and colored minorities as poor, from the ghetto, and in need of financial help from state and federal governments – not just minorities of color. The DPA would also require universities to properly link media, high drop-out rates, and poor retention rates to all races and genders - not just proportionately, but in accordance with the evidence.

I found that the business of diversity works fluidly within the frameworks of Proposition 209, SP-2, and the autonomous corporate university, by recruiting minorities into the institution that draw the most money from federal and state funded programs centered on diversity and inclusion. I theorize that this reasonable action and associated emotion is mobilized not because the institution wants to alleviate racial intergroup tension, indifference, and distaste, but because its main objective is to run an efficient and profitable business. In addition, the business of diversity permits senior-level staff to use forms of media as an emotional tool to market minorities of prejudicial color and gender as poor, helpless, impoverished, and from the ghetto; thereby creating a need to lobby state and federal agencies for more grant money. This in turn generates more money for those who control, work for, and privately invest in the institution, but may not necessarily benefit those who pay to attend or live near the institution; nevertheless, these people enrich the institution by way of federal, state, and private tax dollars. I theorize that this legal but deceptive action obscures the essence of shared governance, and while under the guise of community, is actually a step further away from the community rather than closer.

The business of diversity is structured to: (1) keep working class and poor Californians of all colors and genders perpetually angry and fearful of one another for all the wrong reasons; (2) provide indirect and intermediate cover for politicians and political groups who use institutions of higher education as a platform to advance their own political campaigns, agendas, philanthropic ventures,

and public policy proposals; (3) thematically frame the institution as charitable, honorable, and reputable in the mindset of the community encircling the ivory walls of the institution; and (4) reduce state and federal government intervention while liberating and enriching the local government or institution by way of state, federal, and private tax payer dollars.

Lambert (2014) links rising institutional autonomy to decreased state and federal spending. These new social and economic convergences have created an economic crisis in public higher education (Lambert, 2014). In response, public universities have turned the crisis into an economic opportunity to expand their business model by maximizing institutional revenue and economic growth, regardless of low graduation and retention rates produced by the institution for the state (Lambert, 2014). This common good approach contradicts the schools mission or mission statement (Lambert, 2014), which is fulfilling the needs of the state and local community by producing higher retention and graduation rates for the state and local community, as opposed to fulfilling the needs of the local government or public institution (Lambert, 2014). The unanticipated consequences of these actions and associated emotions in relation to California higher education, policy, and diversity, exemplify “the business of diversity” as a social phenomenon. Shadowing Lambert (2014), I theorize that higher education is becoming a private benefit rather than a public good; this is now the current and correct inquiry to further examine the future of higher education (Lambert, 2014).

I submit that I have thoroughly demonstrated how and why public policy, diversity and inclusion, social stratification, and higher education reproduces and limits the experiences of working class and poor Californians of prejudicial color and gender. As John F. Kennedy once said: “The greater our knowledge increases the more our ignorance unfolds.” In this situation, ignorance is certainly not bliss, harmless, or dysfunctional; rather, it is functional, destructive, and active (Schneider, 1962), which results in intellectual closure (Gross, 2009; Schneider, 1962; Subramanian, Perrucci, & Whitlock, 2014).

TABLES

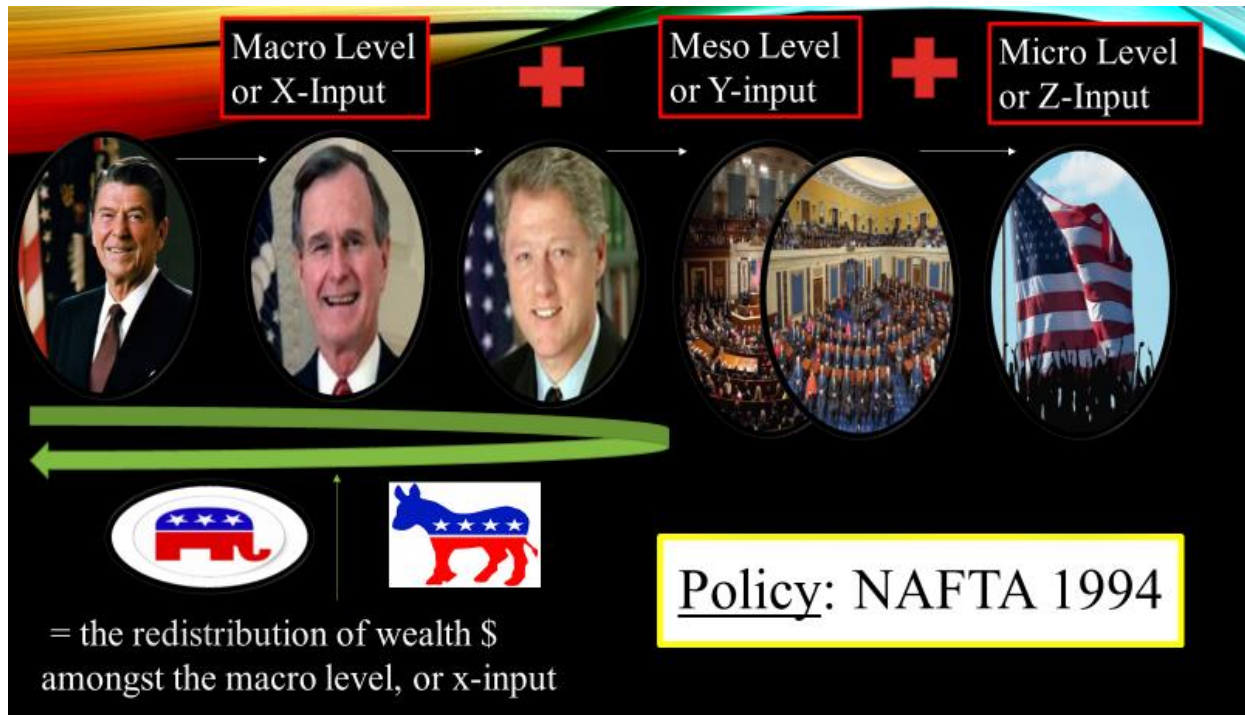


Table A. Macro Level Social Closure and Micro Level Intellectual Closure

<u>STEM Discipline (2004-2014):</u>			
N = 2,188 students			
<u>RACE</u>	<u>%1y/d.o</u>	<u>%2Y/d.o</u>	<u>S.A.T. Avg.</u>
<u>WHITE</u>	36.58%	73.25%	1067.36
<u>HISPANIC</u>	30.24%	66.72%	954.81
<u>ASIAN</u>	29.47%	60.88%	996.18
<u>BLACK</u>	37.50%	67.28%	987.18
<u>R/N.R.A</u>	36.59%	51.85%	968.63
<i>*resident/non-resident aliens</i>			

Table B. Regional STEM Analysis 2004-2014: Race Cohort

Subgroup : Black (CSRDE)

FALL	HEAD-COUNT	AVERAGE SAT
2005	1	1,030
2006	9	996
2007	8	1,006
2008	5	983
2009	5	1,024
2010	5	912
2011	2	1,020
2012	14	950
2013	17	939
2014	10	1,026

Table C. Prop 209, Blacks, and Reverse Racism Nullified



Table C. Prop 209, Blacks, and the Stereotype Threat Hypothesis Negated

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