

STUDENTS' EVALUATIONS OF BLACK FACULTY AT HISTORICALLY  
WHITE INSTITUTIONS: A CAUSAL-COMPARATIVE STUDY

by

Kathleen Carter Gentry

Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

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APPROVED BY:

Dr. Sharon Michael-Chadwell, Committee Chair

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## ABSTRACT

With a call for greater accountability, institutions of higher education have focused upon student evaluations to measure teacher effectiveness to ensure that students are learning. Education researchers have revealed that Black faculty reported negative experiences within academe such as microaggressions, insults, and not being regarded as credible scholars by students and other faculty. Very little research examines the role that race plays in students' evaluations of Black faculty from the viewpoints of students. This quantitative, nonexperimental, causal-comparative dissertation investigates 210 students' evaluation scores of actual university faculty as measured by academic competence, sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and their viewpoints on racism as measured by the Social Dominance Orientation 7 Evaluation Form (SDO7) at Historically White Institutions in Southern states. Using a two-way ANOVA with the Bonferroni correction of  $p = .0125$ , there is a statistical significance in sensitivity to students and instructional effectiveness scores between Black and White faculty members while academic competence and viewpoints of racism scores were not significant. Through the lens of critical race theory, student evaluations of Black faculty are explored.

*Keywords:* Black faculty, student evaluations, White universities, competence, racism

## **Dedication**

I would like to thank God for providing the strength, knowledge, and favor in completing this dissertation. He never left me in times of trouble. There are many times where I wanted to give up, but through God's grace, He continues to see me through.

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband of 25 years, David, who offered love, support, computer expertise, printing services, a shoulder to cry upon when I felt discouraged, and an ear to vent. He took over responsibilities at home and created office space to have minimal distractions. I am forever grateful because he also sacrificed.

Last but not least, I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my three sons, Amare, Malik, and Saeed, who did not always understand why I could not participate in family activities. This dissertation demonstrates to my children that hard work prevails. It also demonstrates endurance, perseverance, and incredible faith because I experienced a lot of personal loss throughout this journey. However, if you want to accomplish something in your life, you must keep going no matter what. God is there to guide your every step. Continue to strive to be the best version of yourself. I am paying this forward to my children, my students, and others.

## Acknowledgments

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I would also extend my gratitude to Dr. James Sidanius, author of the SDO7 instrument. Without his permission, this research would not be possible. He has decades of scholarship in the field of psychology and contributed greatly in examining student perceptions of faculty.

Finally, I would like to say thank you to my editor, Colleen Spears, who has been my editor for numerous years. Colleen was also instrumental in helping me create a quality product. Her honesty, hard work, dedication, and sacrifice in dropping things important to her ensured that she dedicated time to editing this dissertation.

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### **List of Abbreviations**

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Assistant Professors of Color (APOC)

Critical Race Theory (CRT)

Faculty of Color (FOC)

Historical Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU)

Historically White Institution (HWI)

Institutional Review Board (IRB)

Predominantly White Institution (PWI)

Predominantly White University (PWU)

Social Dominance Orientation 7 Evaluation Form (SDO7)

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS)

Underrepresented Minority (URM)

## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

### Overview

The purpose of the study is to investigate differences in students' evaluation scores between Black and White faculty as measured by their ratings on faculty academic competence, sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and student viewpoints on racism based upon the race of the student and race of the faculty member at public research Historically White Institutions in Southern states. This chapter provides the study's background, problem statement, purpose, significance, research questions related to students' evaluations of faculty, and a list of definitions applicable to understanding the terminology within the present study.

### Background

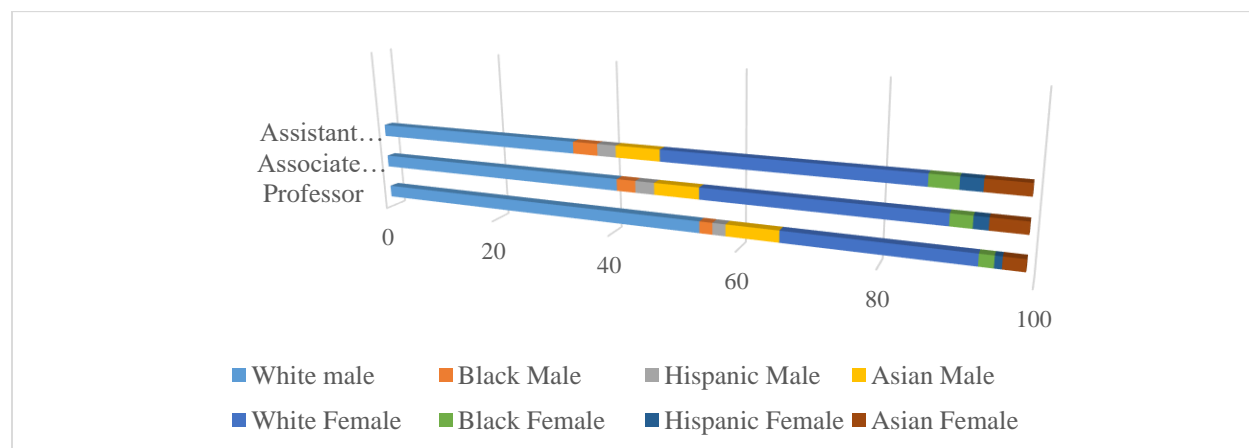
#### Historical Overview

Economic, political, and social issues have shaped higher education and changed the dynamics of the professoriate with more responsibilities and longer work hours to be successful (Bastedo, Altbach, & Gumport, 2016). Faculty are expected to be productive as researchers and teachers, which has led to increased burnout (Padilla & Thompson, 2016). Nonetheless, higher education institutions continue to face competition for students, faculty, and resources (Toutkoushian & Paulsen, 2016).

Blacks are part of the educational landscape, but it was not until the 1830s that Blacks attended college for the first time, and in 1844, Blacks had their first college graduate from Oberlin College (Bastedo et al., 2016). During the 1850s–1890s, additional opportunities were granted to freed Blacks to attend college, including Lincoln University in Pennsylvania, and Wilberforce University in Ohio (Bastedo et al., 2016). Even though the *Brown v. Board of Education* case of 1954, the First Morrill Land-Grant Act of 1862, the Second Morrill Land-

Grant Act of 1890, and the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 increased educational advantages for Blacks, those gains are not materializing in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Mustaffa, 2017).

Institutions of higher education have made diversity a priority and emphasized the importance of recruiting and retaining Black faculty; however, diversity is not reflected equitably (Kelly, Gayles, & Williams, 2017). In fall 2017, of the 1.5 million faculty members in postsecondary institutions, 53% were full-time, 47% part-time, 41% White males, 35% White females, 6% Asian/Pacific Islander males, 5% Asian/Pacific Islander females, 3% Black males, 3% Black females, and 3% Hispanic males, 2% Hispanic females, 1% American Indian/Alaska Native, and 1% for those of two or more races (National Center for Education Statistics, 2019). Figure 1 provides a graph of full-time faculty in postsecondary institutions by academic rank, race/ethnicity, and gender percentages for fall 2017. It reflects that Black faculty and other minorities are underrepresented.



*Figure 1.* Percentage distribution of full-time faculty by rank, race, and gender, fall 2017.

Adapted from *Percentage Distribution of Full-Time Faculty in Degree-Granting Postsecondary Institutions by Academic Rank, Race/Ethnicity, and Gender*, by the National Center for Education Statistics, 2018 ([https://nces.ed.gov.programs/coe/indicator\\_csp.asp](https://nces.ed.gov.programs/coe/indicator_csp.asp)). In the public domain.

Black faculty are underrepresented at Predominantly White Institutions (PWI) (Comer, Medina, Negroni, & Thomas, 2017; Jones, Hwang, & Bustamante, 2015), get paid less than Whites (Levin, Haberier, Walker, & Jackson-Boothby, 2014), and receive lower ranks (Martinez, Chang, & Welton, 2017). Faculty of color in all disciplines face oppression due to race, gender, religion, and sexual orientation (Cooke, 2019). However, such oppression is not limited to classroom experiences (Parsons, Bulls, Freeman, Butler, & Atwater, 2018).

Black faculty reported that they were not valued, overburdened with teaching and service responsibilities that delayed their ability to do research, and treated like tokens (Martinez et al., 2017). Thus, Black faculty reported being stereotyped with inferior intelligence, as an affirmative action hire, and having to speak for their entire race (Dade, Tarkakov, Hargrave, & Leigh, 2015). Moreover, Black women faculty have been characterized as “maids of academe” because they are overworked, undervalued, and marginalized (Johnson, Boss, Mwangi, & Garcia, 2018, p. 633).

Payton, Yarger, and Pinter (2018) asserted that one of the main challenges to Black faculty in higher education is the degree of racial microaggressions that lead to implicit biases through the promotion and tenure process that affected their ability to move up the ranks and attain leadership roles. Black faculty are less likely to teach at prestigious universities and colleges and more likely to be stratified into less prestigious departments that do not demonstrate their scholarship, research, and teaching abilities (Brooms & Brice, 2017). Research has revealed that students have unjustifiably evaluated faculty of color, and these evaluations were accepted by the college or university administration (Smith & Hawkins, 2011).

Nonetheless, student–faculty interactions with Black faculty differ among students. When students interact with different races and cultures, they learn about differences, decrease their

prejudicial attitudes, and have positive outcomes for academic success (Parker & Neville, 2019). Research indicated Black students admired Black faculty because they felt comfortable and trusted them due to their shared understanding of racial and cultural sensitivity (Louis et al., 2016). Thus, Black students reported that Black faculty tended to provide extra tutoring, cared about their well-being, and helped them navigate throughout Predominantly White Institutions (Neville & Parker, 2017). However, it has been reported that White students have denounced Black faculty's credibility, which has led Black faculty to use anticipatory teaching practices to assert their credentials (Murray-Johnson & Ross-Gordon, 2018).

Consequently, Black faculty have reported that overt racism was detrimental to their roles and has led to racial battle fatigue, but White students could benefit from the presence of faculty of color because society is becoming more diverse (Quaye, Shaw, & Hill, 2017). Nevertheless, Fairlee, Hoffman, and Oreopoulous (2014) found that both Black and White students performed better with faculty of the same race/ethnicity. White students were 3.8% more likely to drop a class with a White instructor compared to Black faculty, whereas Black students were 4.6% less likely to drop a course that a Black faculty member was teaching compared to a White instructor (Fairlee et al., 2014).

Diversity increases learning experiences (Williams, 2019). Moreover, if faculty members apply effective educational practices, there are overall educational gains (Roksa & Whitley, 2017, p. 335). Thus, one of the principles of good teaching practices includes encouraging student-faculty contact (Kilgo, Culber, Young, & Paulsen, 2017). Students' sense of belonging within a class would increase with friendly, helpful, and enthusiastic instructors who encourage participation by all students (Kim & Lundberg, 2016).



Due to the underrepresentation of Black faculty at Historically White Institutions, students there have little to no interaction with them within a university setting (Parker & Neville, 2019). Thus, there is very little research to explain how students evaluate Black faculty, and whether race is associated with lower teacher evaluations at Historically White Institutions. Currently, Black faculty constitute only 4% of the professoriate while White faculty constitute 84% (Neville & Parker, 2017; US Department of Education, 2015).

Student evaluations measure teacher effectiveness. They are cheap, convenient, and address public accountability for learning (Uttl, White, & Gonzalez, 2017). However, the role race plays in student evaluations is limited. Littleford and Jones (2017) contended that an instructors' race could influence a student's perceptions of his or her expertise, but student evaluations only measure personal experience, not necessarily effectiveness (Mowatt, 2019). Nevertheless, the clarity and fairness of student evaluations are subjective, which leads to biases in student evaluation scores in which personnel decisions are made (Ray, Babb, & Wooten, 2018).

### **Theoretical Overview**

To examine the role race plays in student evaluations, critical race theory (CRT) was used. Critical race theory was created to address injustices and inequities in society, especially in law (Parsons et al., 2018; Patton, 2016). CRT began in the 1970s and stemmed from Derrick Bell, a legal studies scholar, who challenged why progress stalled for minorities after the Civil Rights Movement. However, since the 1990s, CRT was applied to educational studies by Ladson-Billings and Tate (1995), who challenged educators to unveil inequities. However, Dixson and Rousseau (2005) contended that scholars in CRT had not come together to strategize on ways to address persistent educational inequality.

Even though critical race theory originated from critical legal studies, Dixson and Anderson (2018) imported operational ideas from legal research reflected in the following:

Critical race theory

1. argued that racial inequality is a logical outcome in competition,
2. examined the role of education policy and its practices concerning racial inequality,
3. rejected the inherent inferiority of people of color,
4. engaged in an intersectional analysis that recognized how race was mediated, and
5. agitated and advocated for meaningful outcomes that redress racial inequality.

(Dixson & Anderson, 2018, p. 121).

Critical race theory serves as the catalyst to analyze and interrogate educational systems that are embedded in racism and inequity to liberate people of color and positively impact their educational experiences (Barker, 2016). Through CRT, the role that race plays in students evaluating faculty is explored in this study as measured by faculty academic competence, faculty sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and viewpoints of racism. Thus, CRT asserts that racism is a normalcy of American society but rejects the inherent inferiority of minorities and ahistoricism, acknowledges that racism engages with other social forces, and advocates for meaningful outcomes that address racial inequities (Dixson & Anderson, 2018). Nevertheless, Patton (2016) felt that persistent inequity continues to exist in postsecondary education.

### **Problem Statement**

Student evaluations are commonly used within postsecondary education (Hammer, Peer, & Babad, 2018). Within the era of accountability and improvement in learning, institutions of higher education have focused upon student evaluations of teachers (Chan, Luk, & Zeng, 2014). However, their validity has been questioned (Con, Wilkowski, Barlett, Boyle, & Meier, 2018).

Student evaluations that measure teaching effectiveness could negatively affect minorities who could suffer from harmful career consequences due to the results of these evaluations (Brage, Pacdagnella, & Pellizzari, 2014).

Student evaluations of teachers have grown in importance and led to continuing questions of discriminatory personnel decisions based upon these instruments in higher education and how these instruments consistently disadvantage minority faculty members and create career impediments (Aruguete, Slater, & Mwaikinda, 2017). Others assert that surveys do not measure teaching effectiveness, just the student experience (Fan et al., 2019). Further research has shown the role that race plays throughout student evaluations by using fictitious professors, hypothetical curriculum vitae, and photos, but not with professors within a university setting (Aruguete et al., 2017; Bavishi, Madera, & Hebl, 2010; Chatelain, 2015; Mendez & Mendez, 2018; Smith & Anderson, 2005; Smith & Hawkins, 2011). Thus, the problem is that the literature has not addressed the impact of the professors' race on student evaluations in the university setting. The current study seeks to address this gap by examining student evaluation scores of faculty members within a university setting to explore the role that race plays in assessing faculty academic competence, faculty sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and students' viewpoints of racism.

### **Purpose Statement**

This study employs a quantitative, causal-comparative research design to investigate differences in student evaluation scores between Black and White faculty as measured by their ratings on faculty academic competence, faculty sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and student viewpoints on racism based upon the race of the student and faculty member at public research Historically White Institutions in Southern states.

The dependent variables are faculty academic competence, faculty sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and students' viewpoints on racism. The independent variables are Black and White faculty race and Black and White student race. Faculty and student race refer to how the person self-identifies with one or more racial groups such as Caucasian or White, African American or Black, Asian, Hispanic, American Indian or Alaska Native, Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander (US Census Bureau, 2017). The sensitivity to students' variable refers to faculty's sensitivity to the needs of students (Ho, Thomsen, & Sidanius, 2009). The instructional effectiveness (global evaluation) variable refers to the overall performance evaluation or major dimension of evaluative judgements of college instructors (Ho et al., 2009). The academic competence variable refers to the college instructor's or faculty's intellectual competence or ability (Ho et al., 2009). The racism variable refers to the support for beliefs legitimizing group dominance and oppression (Ho et al., 2015).

A random sample of 210 undergraduate and graduate students taking any course during the spring and summer 2021 semesters within an actual university setting from public, research-oriented Historically White Institutions in Southern states was used. Black and White students from various academic ranks, genders, and ages surveyed Black and White faculty members who were currently teaching those courses. Scores determining academic competence, sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and viewpoints on racism were measured using a valid and reliable standard instructor evaluation form that includes social dominance orientation, SDO7<sup>1</sup> (Ho et al., 2009; Sidanius, 1976, 1989; Sidanius & Crane, 1989).

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<sup>1</sup> According to Ho et al., SDO7 is "A new conceptualization and measurement of social dominance orientation—individual differences in the preference for group based hierarchy and inequality.... In contrast to previous measures of social dominance orientation that were designed to be unidimensional, the new measure (SDO7) embeds theoretically grounded subdimensions of SDO—SDO-Dominance (SDO-D) and SDO-Egalitarianism (SDO-E)" (2015, p. 1003).

### **Significance of the Study**

Much of the literature on Black faculty at Historically White Institutions discusses their experiences and challenges that impede their ability to be successful within academia. Some of the barriers include institutional racism, tokenism, lack of mentoring, colleagues and students devaluing their teaching and scholarship, excessive teaching and service responsibilities, experiencing threats to their credibility and authority, and receiving lower teaching evaluations as compared to their White counterparts (Kelly & McCann, 2014)—all through the viewpoints of Black faculty.

Little is known about the impact of race on students' perceptions (Williams, 2019). Student–faculty interactions are imperative to the success of students, and students' perceptions influence their actions (Neville & Parker, 2017). Furthermore, students' perceptions of Black faculty could affect teacher evaluations as well as question their credibility and competence (Edwards & Ross, 2018).

Moreover, there are potential biases in students' evaluations of teaching (Ray et al., 2018). These biases do not occur in a vacuum because there are external and internal factors such as student participation, instruction, demographics, or course design that influence student evaluations as well (Wood, Kiggins, & Kichham, 2017). Research has questioned the reliability and validity of student evaluations, focusing upon the students' immaturity in completing evaluations and possible abuses when they are upset with faculty whom they are evaluating due to poor grades or conflict in personality styles (Clayton, 2018; Feistauer & Richter, 2017; Hammer et al., 2018).

This significance of this study will provide much-needed knowledge regarding the role race plays within students' evaluations between Black and White faculty in a university setting

rather than students evaluating fictitious professors, hypothetical syllabi, photos, and pseudo names. It will also inform Black faculty who desire to work at Historically White Institutions of possible barriers or discrimination they could experience departmentally and institutionally.

### **Research Questions**

**RQ1:** Is there a difference in evaluations of *academic competence* scores for faculty based on *their race* and *the race of the students* as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions?

**RQ2:** Is there a difference in evaluations of *sensitivity to students'* scores for faculty based on *their race* and *the race of the students* as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions?

**RQ3:** Is there a difference in evaluations of *instructional effectiveness* scores for faculty based on *their race* and *the race of the students* as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions?

**RQ4:** Is there is a difference in students' viewpoints on racism based on *their race* and *the race of the faculty member* as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions?

### **Definitions**

The following terminology is used in this study in specific ways.

1. *Academic Competence* – intellectual competence or the ability of college instructors (Ho et al., 2009).
2. *Ahistoricism* – ignoring the socio-historical, legal context, and inequities of minority groups (Crenshaw, 1991; Harris, 2016; Howard, 2018).
3. *Black* – people of African, African-Caribbean, or South Asian descent who have experienced instructional discrimination (Maylor, 2009); can be referred to as African Americans, Afro-American, faculty of color, and underrepresented minority.

4. *Colorblindness* – not seeing race as a factor and assuming society treats everyone fairly and equally (Nakumara, 2019).
5. *Counter-storytelling* – a qualitative method for people to speak their truth (Solórzano & Yosso, 2002b).
6. *Critical Race Theory* – challenging, exposing, disrupting, and changing discriminatory policies that continue to disenfranchise minorities (Milner & Howard, 2013).
7. *Cultural Taxation* – being suited for specific tasks based upon race (Turner & Grauerholz, 2017).
8. *Historically White Institution* – education institution originally created for the advancement of only White students (Givens, 2016).
9. *Interest Convergence* – suggests that Whites only tolerate minority advances for their own benefit (Bell, 1980).
10. *Institutional Isolation* – being excluded from the inner circle of an institution, department, or organization with which one is associated (Ross & Edwards, 2016).
11. *Institutional Racism* – differential access to society's commodities based upon race (Parsons et al., 2018).
12. *Instructional Effectiveness* – the overall performance evaluation or the major dimension of evaluative judgements of college instructors (Ho et al., 2009).
13. *Maids of Academe* – African American women overworked in service and teaching assignments (Johnson et al., 2018).
14. *Marginalization* – being put into a position occupied by a minority group in relation to the dominant or majority group (Jones et al., 2015).

15. *Microaggressions* – daily, commonplace indignities, both intentional, and unintentional, toward minorities (Suarez-Orozco et al., 2015).
16. *Predominantly White Institution* – an educational institution with a historical pattern of enrollment of mostly White students (Bourke, 2016).
17. *Race/Ethnicity* – the racial or ethnic category in which one identifies (US Census Bureau, 2020a).
18. *Racial Battle Fatigue* – the physical, psychological, and behavioral toll due to constant discrimination (Combs, 2017).
19. *Racism* – the support for beliefs legitimizing group dominance and oppression (Ho et al., 2015).
20. *Rural* – any area, population, housing, or territory that is not considered urban (US Census Bureau, 2016).
21. *Safe Spaces* – any environment where minorities feel secure and empowered to discuss sensitive topics (Delano-Oriaran & Parks, 2015).
22. *Sensitivity to Students* – faculty sensitivity to the needs of their students (Ho et al., 2009).
23. *Tokenism* – being identified by the color of one’s skin for the benefit of the institution (Kelly & McCann, 2014).
24. *Urban* – areas with 50,000 or more people; not rural (US Census Bureau, 2016).
25. *White Spaces* – places never intended for minorities (Howard-Baptiste & Harris, 2014).



## **CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **Overview**

This literature review provides a theoretical understanding of the challenges Black faculty face at Historically White Institutions, examines student interactions with Black faculty, and explores factors that contribute to an unwelcoming and toxic working environment as well as barriers in attaining tenure and promotion opportunities. The literature reveals a gap in student evaluations of Black faculty at Historically White Institutions. Through the lens of critical race theory, educational inequities for Black faculty in higher education institutions are explored.

### **Theoretical Framework**

Critical race theory (CRT) serves as the theoretical framework for this study. CRT contends that Whiteness is the dominant paradigm for the benefits of Whites, not people of color (Durodoye, Gumpertz, Wilson, Griffith, & Ahmad, 2020). It derived from Derrick Bell and Alan Freeman, scholars from Harvard University in the 1970s who were concerned about the slow progress from the Civil Rights Movement (Bell, 1987; Grey & Williams-Ferrier, 2017; Taylor, 1998). Moreover, gains through litigation, exhortation, and marching during this period stalled (Delgado, 2009; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017).

CRT originated from critical legal studies and asserted that racism was a regular part of society interwoven throughout the American landscape (Johnson & Bryan, 2017). Furthermore, Whites addressed racism when it served their best interests, referred to by Derrick Bell as interest convergence (1980). Derrick Bell and Alan Freeman encouraged other scholars to combat intense racial atmospheres. Consequently, CRT stated that people and organizational interactions situated in power relationships were rooted in White supremacy (Patton & Bondi, 2015).

When Derrick Bell resigned from Harvard University, students were outraged and wanted another Black professor to teach the Race, Racism, and American Law course. Because Harvard did not comply with their wishes, legal scholars and activists called upon lecturers across the country who conceptualized race and law (Tate, 1997). Henceforth, these scholars and activists traveled throughout the country, which served as the impetus of critical race theory (Matsuda, Lawrence, Delgado, & Crenshaw, 1993; Tate, 1997).

In the 1980s, there was an annual critical race meeting in Los Angeles, California, that addressed racial undercurrents politically and legally, contributing to the early tenets of critical race theory (Munoz, 2009). As the movement grew among legal scholars and activists, critical legal studies branched out into other fields (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017).

In the 1990s, Ladson-Billings and Tate (1995) introduced critical race theory in education to expose racial inequities within the educational system. CRT argued against racial inequality and rejected the inherent inferiorities of marginalized people; also, it engaged in intersectionality and advocated for meaningful outcomes for marginalized people who discussed their grievances or found their voices (Dixson & Anderson, 2018). Critical race theory in education borrowed its five tenets from critical legal studies (Figure 2).

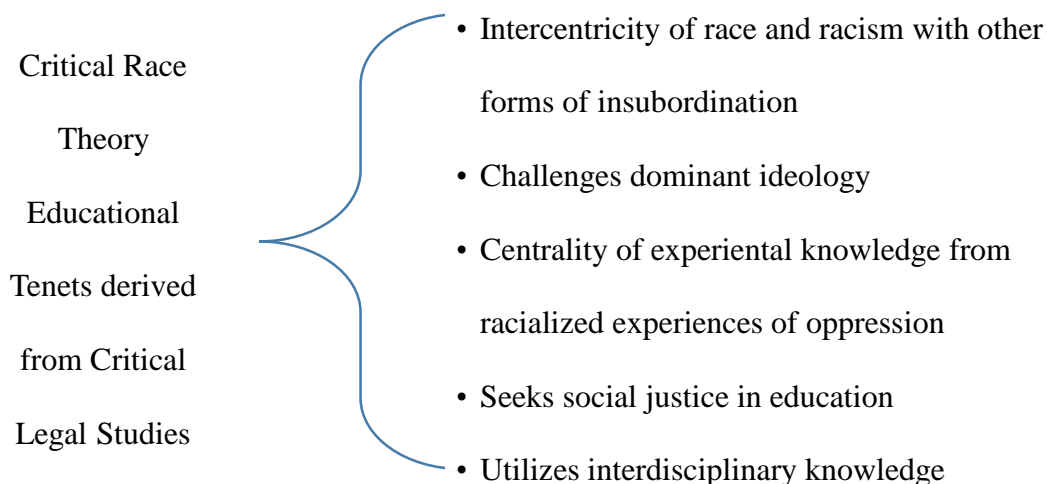


Figure 2. Five tenets in critical race theory derived from critical legal studies.

Adapted from “Examining Transformational Resistance Through a Critical Race and LatCrit Theory Framework: Chicana and Chicano Students in an Urban Context,” by D. G. Solórzano and D. D. Bernal, 2001, *Urban Education*, 36(3), pp. 312-314. Copyright 2001 by Sage Publications.

Critical race theory contends that educational institutions oppress and marginalize, but operate to emancipate and empower (Solórzano & Yosso, 2002a). Ladson-Billings and Tate (1995) implied that race was undertheorized in critical race theory, but still systematically employed. However, Ledesma and Calderon (2015) contended that it is overtheorized because it does not link theory to practice. The framework of critical race theory in education highlights what racial inequality, is but limits how the phenomenon is structured (Cabrera, 2018). Nonetheless, Ladson-Billings and Tate based social inequity in education on three central propositions:

- One’s race was an important factor in determining inequity in the United States;
- Property rights were the basis of society in the United States; and

- The intersection of race and property created an analytic tool to understand social inequity (1995).

Ladson-Billings and Tate (1995) stated that educators help those marginalized by allowing them to tell their stories through counter-storytelling. In addressing educational inequities in higher education pertaining to Black faculty, critical race theory serves as the theoretical framework for this study. It is necessary to examine and expose racial inequities (Dixson, 2017); understanding the role of race and racism in higher education is vital to alleviate those inequities.

Patton stated that in higher education, Black faculty often challenge persistent injustices within their classrooms, departments, and institutionally and offered three propositions:

- The establishment of the United States higher education is rooted in racism;
- The function of the United States higher education is linked to capitalism that fueled oppression, property, and race; and
- United States higher educational institutions serve as venues in which knowledge production is rooted in racism (2016).

Most higher educational institutions in the United States started with a Eurocentric epistemological ideology based on White privilege, an apartheid of knowledge which marginalized, discredited, and devalued the scholarship of minority faculty (Bernal & Villalpando, 2002). Even though there has been growth and change in demographics within the United States, the academy is still overwhelmingly White in terms of the curriculum, campus policies, and spaces (Patton, 2016).

According to Derrick Bell, Whites assist Blacks for their own self-interests. Thus, the interest of minorities would only be advanced if it served White interests (Cabrera, 2018). CRT

exposed the prevalence of the Whiteness and White supremacy that shape many institutions of higher education (Ledesma & Calderon, 2015). However, Combs (2017) contended that Black faculty are not successful in academe because they do not take advantage of available opportunities. Within Historically White Institutions, Black faculty reported feeling out of place, questioning their own racial identities, experiencing racial microaggressions, and working within a toxic, unwelcoming environment (DeCuir-Gunby & Gunby, 2016; Jones et al., 2015).

Critical race theory in education tries to liberate minorities to positively impact their educational experiences (Munoz, 2009). Therefore, this literature review examines the status of Black faculty at Historically White Institutions, evaluates how students interact with Black faculty, and, most importantly, discusses barriers to tenure and promotions through the lens of critical race theory.

## **Related Literature**

### **Black Faculty in Higher Education**

Even though the ethnic composition of minorities in higher education has increased, this growth has not materialized for Black faculty (Bastedo et al., 2016), so many higher education institutions continue to actively recruit Black faculty (Dade et al., 2015). Nevertheless, in the history of the American professoriate, Blacks were excluded; it was not until the 1835 at Oberlin that Blacks could attend college (n.d.)—separate colleges with White professors. Blacks were often seen as a source of entertainment, rooted within an institution of suffering on college campuses during the Colonial era, being humiliated, forced to drink into intoxication, terrorized, raped, and shot, which resulted in emotional trauma and an increased number of suicides (Dancy, Edwards, & Davis, 2018).

Consequently, Blacks were viewed as property. The founding fathers who participated in the 1787 Constitutional Convention owned Black slaves that erected buildings, cooked food, cleaned dorms, and were viewed as property, not considered as laborers or peers (Dancy et al., 2018; Patton, 2016). Moreover, the 1857 *Dred Scott v. Sanford* decision established the premise that Blacks were property even though the owner had relinquished their property rights (Dancy et al., 2018).

Most Blacks lived in the South during the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> centuries; however, the Southern states did not support higher education for them (Anderson, 2002). In the mid-1900s, Blacks enrolled in private liberal arts colleges instead public higher education institutions (Anderson, 2002). Moreover, Blacks still were not treated fairly even through the enactment of the 1954 *Brown vs. the Board of Education*, which was seen as a gesture to Blacks because the world was watching from the standpoint of human rights (Bell, 1987; Khalifa, Dunbar, & Douglasb, 2013).

By the 1960s, the federal government stepped in to demand equality, which opened a lot of doors with the *Brown* case (Anderson, 2002). Consequently, higher education was supposed to be an institution that provided opportunities for people who work hard, but working hard did not necessarily equate to education or success for people of color (Patton, 2016). Furthermore, Nicol and Yee (2017) asserted that Predominantly White Institutions often adopt oppressive policies that racially profile minorities, question their scholarship, and exclude them within White spaces.

**Underrepresented.** Black faculty are underrepresented and often scarce on predominately White college campuses (Comer et al., 2017; Jayakumar, Howard, Allen, & Han, 2016; Jones et al., 2015; Martinez et al., 2017; Parsons et al., 2018). Jayakumar et al. (2016) studied racial privilege in academia. They focused on satisfaction, retention, and the campus climate using a 2001 national survey from a Cooperative Institutional Research program with

4,131 minority and 33,451 White faculty members. Using cross tabulations and a hierarchical blocked regression, they examined reasons for faculty underrepresentation and found that those with higher rank remained in the academy, but the racial climate was highly significant to retention (Jayakumar et al., 2016). Furthermore, faculty anxiety and occupational stress made it difficult to remain in academe (Jayakumar et al., 2016). There is a persistent problem of underrepresentation and low academic status, especially for women and faculty of color, and faculty of color are more likely to graduate from institutions with weak research traditions and limited resources, and be employed at similar institutions (Anderson, 2002). As a result, faculty of color are at a disadvantage compared to graduates from higher ranked and more prestigious colleges and universities.

Moshiri and Cardon (2016) contended that there is an underrepresentation of Black faculty due to the lack of qualified applicants. They studied racial diversity within 280 business schools in the United States and attributed competition in market forces to the decreasing number of faculty of color within an inhospitable environment (Moshiri & Cardon, 2016). They emphasized the importance of having underrepresented faculty due to students needing role models and leadership. Furthermore, they acknowledged schools were not gaining more diversified candidates despite what they indicate. Thus, they asserted that having more diverse students does not lead to more Ph.Ds., and the size of the Ph.D. pool does not account fully for the underrepresentation. Furthermore, they do not attribute the lack of underrepresented faculty to campus climate or the reward system (Moshiri & Cardon, 2016).

Similarly, Li and Koedel (2017) did a qualitative study that acknowledged the underrepresentation of Black, Hispanic, and female faculty. They used data from 2015-2016 public universities that examined representation and salary gaps in Science, Technology,

Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) versus non-STEM fields that measured experience, faculty rank, research productivity, gender, race, wage, and Ph.D. rank (Li & Koedel, 2017). They found that Asian, Hispanic, and female faculty were represented more often as assistant professors, especially in STEM fields. In contrast, those universities did not show any representation of Black faculty in the STEM field. Thus, Black faculty were less represented among assistant professors within selective public universities relative to their Ph.D. production and age, even though younger cohorts represented more within the STEM field. In regards to wages, Li and Koedel found Black and Hispanic faculty had lower salaries, roughly \$10,000-\$15,000 less a year than their White counterparts, accounting for 8% to 12% of the average wage of \$120,195 (2017). In contrast, female faculty made \$25,000 less than males based upon academic field, experience, and research productivity (Li & Koedel, 2017).

Whitfield-Harris, Lockhart, and Zoucha (2017) studied the underrepresentation of Black nursing faculty. Within their hermeneutic phenomenological study, they analyzed 15 nursing faculty from predominantly White schools of nursing (PWSN). They revealed four themes: cultural norms, coping with improper assets, surviving at PWSN, and being a long ranger. They reported discrimination, disrespect, and devaluation within workload inequity compared to their White colleagues who had more support, assistance, and flexibility. Their cultural norms encompassed disrespect from students, having their credentials questioned by colleagues and students, lacking mentoring, feeling the tenure process was too complicated, and that the workplace had ineffective communication for faculty of color (Whitfield-Harris et al., 2017).

Moreover, Black faculty reported that they felt like tokens who needed to answer for all Black students, colleagues, and the community; felt isolated and invisible; were overburdened with teaching and service activities; overcome with feelings of isolation; and needed to



assimilate for survival within the majority's culture (Whitfield-Harris et al., 2017).

Consequently, all participants reported concern about future Black faculty working at predominantly White schools of nursing and offered advice to network, gain insight, balance work and life, embrace challenges and opportunities, and encourage strategic decision-making.

**Lower rank.** Faculty of color are not only underrepresented (Martinez et al., 2017), but they also receive lower professional rank or academic status than White faculty (Cobham & Patton, 2015; Louis et al., 2016). Only 3% of full-time faculty members are Black within the United States (National Center for Education Statistics, 2018). Thus, Black and Hispanic faculty are mostly employed as nontenured faculty members within the associate's, bachelor's, and master's programs (Russell, Hodge, Frank, & Vaughn, 2019).

Bernal and Villalpando (2002) studied the segregation of faculty of color in different institutions, academic departments, and ranks. In the first part of their study, they drew data from national trends representing minorities across various institutions, educational levels, and academic departments. In the second phase of their study, they interviewed a tenured professor of color from an urban, public, four-year teaching college within a curriculum studies department.

The purpose of their study was to reveal structural segregation and double standards in higher education that created this apartheid of knowledge (Bernal & Villalpando, 2002). They found that the representation of faculty of color remained unchanged across institutions, academic ranks, and within various departments for the last 25 years. Furthermore, they contended that faculty of color had consistently been in lower and less prestigious ranks and heavily concentrated in the humanities, social sciences, and education fields. At the same time,

society valued more hard sciences. Bernal and Villalpando (2002) asserted that the underrepresentation of minorities led to a lack of contributions in scholarship.

Gumpertz, Durodoye, Griffith, and Wilson (2017) did a study in which they examined personnel records of assistant and associate professors during 1992-2015 to examine tenure attainment, retention, and length of time to the promotion of full professorship for women and underrepresented minorities at four-year land grant institutions. Between the years of 2005-2015, Black faculty only constituted 2% of tenure track professors in STEM fields of the institutions studied, and the authors found that women and Hispanic faculty had significant gains in attaining tenure, but Black and American Indian faculty lagged nonetheless (Gumpertz et al., 2017).

The researchers reported that underrepresented minorities were less likely to leave without tenure at three of the four institutions even though they had very few promotions from the rank of associate professor in all four institutions (Gumpertz et al., 2017). However, there was no difference in retention between underrepresented minorities and other faculty. Consequently, two institutions had underrepresented faculty with a lower probability of leaving within 10 years. Thus, there was no difference among the underrepresented faculty promotions from associate professor to a full professorship (Gumpertz et al., 2017).

**Occupational stress, social isolation, and invisibility.** Louis et al. (2016) stated that Black faculty struggle with professional anxiety, social isolation, and obscurity. Using a personal scholarly narrative, Louis et al. examined the nature of microaggressions and resilience in higher education. They studied four Black faculty members (two males and two females) in social sciences with different professional ranks at a large Predominantly White Institution. They revealed four emergent themes: common occurrences, futile to approach aggressors, stress, and resiliency in the White-dominant field. They contended that racism was prevalent in higher

education and that Black faculty reported being discouraged, isolated, and diminished by their White colleagues (Louis et al., 2016).

Similarly, Kelly et al. (2017) used qualitative research to explore campus climate and culture by studying 19 Black faculty experiences at Predominantly White Institutions as well. Their critical case study included Black faculty from different academic disciplines with 2-25 years of teaching experience, 10 cisgender men, 9 cisgender women, 10 tenured, 8 tenure-track, and 1 nontenured. They revealed three themes: the hard sell, the process of proving oneself, and the bait and switch. Moreover, they reported that Predominantly White Institutions heavily recruited Black faculty when they were doctoral students at national conferences, referred to as the hard sell. However, when hired, they had to prove their worth for retention, referred as the process of proving oneself. Sought-after participants had no direct line to university leadership, known as the bait and switch. Participants reported being deceived and manipulated in working for White institutions and spent a lot of time defending their positions (Kelly et al., 2017).

Anthym and Tuitt (2019) did a qualitative study that examined two faculty members' emotional trauma and daily microaggressions at Predominantly White Institutions, using counter-narratives. They revealed three themes: his missives, her methods; invoking Hurricane Katrina: memory and metaphor; and vicarious trauma: weary years, silent tears. His missives, her methods highlighted staying in one's place with narrative vignettes of professional homelessness, isolation, and race-based constraints; invoking Hurricane Katrina, a metaphor, reflected the Black struggle in institutions of higher education (Anthym & Tuitt, 2019). Vicarious trauma: weary years, silent tears pertained to the transmission of generational trauma. Faculty of color experienced many forms of racism that affected their overall well-being, sense of belonging at their respective institutions, effectiveness, and safety (Anthym & Tuitt, 2019).

Black women scholars are often misunderstood, are not seen or feel invisible, and deemed inconsequential; however, when successful within White spaces, Black faculty reported challenges by other Black scholars (Williams & Packer-Williams, 2019). Williams and Packer-Williams (2019) did a qualitative study of two African American women faculty who were pre-tenured and shared reflective journals of their experiences. They revealed four themes: coping with threat and target perceptions from others; dealing with the contradictions and pitfalls in a White, male-dominated culture; dealing with the negative impact of gender-role socialization; and coping with perceptions of inferiority. The study revealed the complexities of Black women scholars in dealing with race, gender, and class within the academy and the relational aggression experienced not from White faculty, but other Black women faculty. Participants stated the need to be competitive in order to be successful, experiencing culture clashes related to values and the expectation of sisterhood, being different, being unacceptable, using relational aggression to stand up for oneself, and challenging the projections of inferiority. Hence, Black women scholars reported becoming a target of other people's views (Williams & Packer-Williams, 2019).

Similarly, Follins, Paler, and Nanin (2015) reported that faculty of color had negative experiences with other faculty too. These experiences consisted of: being ignored, being talked over, proving one's competence, being underrepresented in leadership positions, and questioning their credentials publicly. They have also reported being isolated, with people moving away from them in elevators; being challenged by White students regarding their qualifications and credentials; and feeling unsafe on White campuses (Follins et al., 2015). Shealey, McHatton, McCray, and Thomas (2014) stated that Black faculty doubted if they belonged or were valued at their perspective PWI. Furthermore, their invisibility led to social isolation and created resentment from colleagues.

**Lower salaries and token assignments.** Black faculty have lower wages than their White colleagues (Levin et al., 2014; Mendez & Mendez, 2018). They often feel invisible and ignored (Mena, 2016; Mena & Vaccaro, 2017). They receive token assignments and serve on token diversity committees (Martinez et al., 2017). They question their own racial identity (DeCuir-Gunby & Gunby, 2016; Jones et al., 2015). Levin et al. (2014) interviewed 31 full-time Black faculty members from 113 California community colleges with more than 30% Black faculty as well as those with less than 20% Black faculty from various geographical areas. They revealed two emergent themes: different understanding and a separate world, as well as the subordination of racial and ethnic identities (Levin et al., 2014). They found that minority faculty had a different understanding of institutional life and placed themselves in separate social spheres to survive.

Martinez et al. (2017) interviewed 12 pre-tenured faculty of color at different four-year public universities: 1 Asian male, 1 Asian female, 3 Black females, 2 Black males, 3 Latina females, and 2 Latino males. Their findings revealed marginalization toward minority faculty and challenges in navigating around racism. The authors stated that 10 out of the 12 participants acknowledged a sense of double consciousness (being aware of their Black identity as they navigate with the dominant White culture) which made them feel out of place although they tried to maintain their own cultural identities (Martinez et al., 2017). Nonetheless, in a separate study, at Predominately White Institutions, women of color were viewed as tokens, were under pressure to conform, and faced misconceptions about their personalities (Sotello, Turner, Gonzalez, & Wong, 2011).

As faculty face more responsibilities, they experience more pressure and stress (Eagan & Garvey, 2015). Eagan and Garvey (2015) examined the effects of productivity, stress, gender,

and race among 21,840 full-time undergraduate faculty members from 411 four-year colleges and universities. They reported differences in research productivity, especially between Black and Indian faculty, which constituted one-third standard deviation below their White counterparts, and faculty of color produced less research with higher levels of stress due to subtle racism. Eagan and Garvey stated that all faculty experienced stress related to institutional budget cuts and family obligations; however, Black faculty experienced more due to engagement in student-centered pedagogy and evidence-based teaching practices (2015).

Furthermore, Webber (2019) noted African American faculty reported dissatisfaction and lower salaries than their peers at research institutions of higher education, with African American men faculty and White women faculty positively correlated in community engagement. Webber (2019) examined full-time faculty satisfaction by size, discipline, and research focus within four-year institutions of higher education from survey data from the Collaborative for Academic Careers in Higher Education, including 30,975 faculty members for the years of 2011-2012, 2012-2013, and 2013-2014. Webber explored various themes: mentoring, overall satisfaction, work and personal life balance, collaborating, tenure and promotion opportunities, resources and support, nature of their job, and culture and collegiality (2019, p. 329). Moreover, minority faculty employed at baccalaureate schools were more likely to be dissatisfied and those at doctoral institutions who earned less than \$90,000 a year reported being more dissatisfied as well. Male respondents were less satisfied overall, while women faculty were more dissatisfied at research universities. Thus, minority faculty reported that department chair effectiveness and dean support were essential to their overall satisfaction at research institutions even though contributions in advising and administrative tasks led to total satisfaction (Webber, 2019).

Minority faculty have been evaluated under different and more stringent criteria, leading to findings of overall dissatisfaction compared to their White counterparts (Niemann, 2015). Neimann (2015) asserted that faculty of color enter their profession as scholars. Still, their racial identity is what they become regarded as and becomes the lens through which they are perceived (Niemann, 2015).

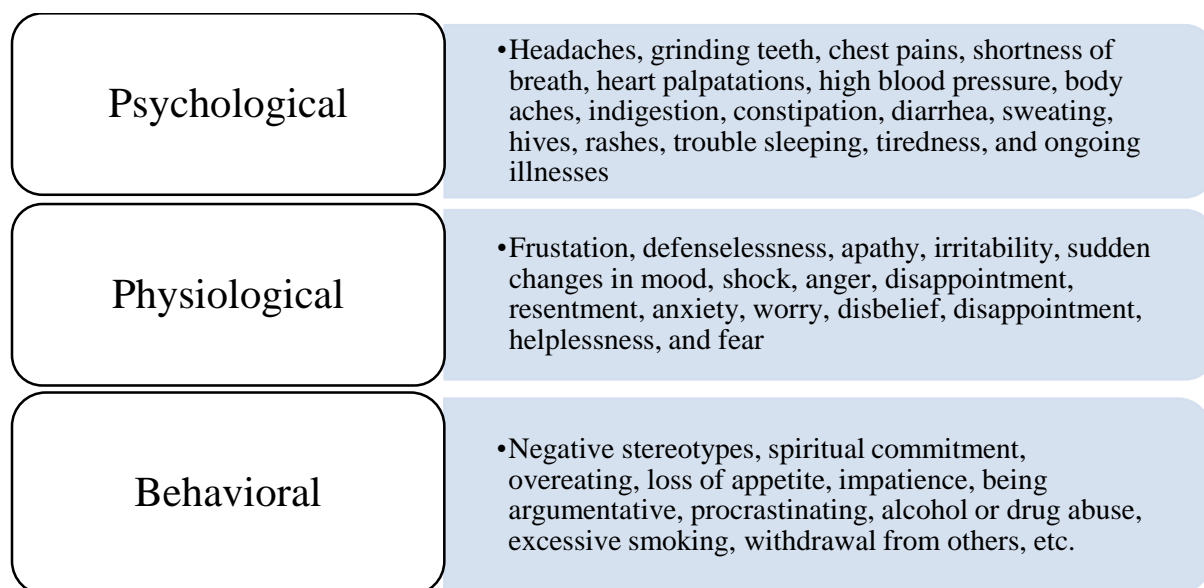
Furthermore, Black faculty have reported that they felt like imposters when asked to serve as experts on diversity topics because they were not qualified nor had received prior training before being asked to serve on these committees (Miller et al., 2018). Miller et al. (2018) did a qualitative study of 7 student affairs professionals with teaching experience at a large, public research-oriented university in the South. The respondents reported challenges in proving their legitimacy. Moreover, they reflected on how their marginalized identities affected their interaction with other participants and had an emotional toll on their well-being that led to burnout, fatigue, and disengagement (Miller et al., 2018).

**Racial battle fatigue.** Black faculty are under a tremendous amount of stress and face daily microaggressions and discrimination, known as racial battle fatigue (Combs, 2017). Utilizing counter-storytelling, Combs (2017) explored the lived experiences of an African American woman who taught at a Predominantly White Institution in the deep South during the Obama era. Through the bodies out of place theory, Combs reported that the participant faced racist acts but stood her ground nonetheless. Thus, the participant reported that she felt uncomfortable walking across campus, received hostile emails and inadequate evaluations, was called names, and felt battered and bruised. Furthermore, the researcher illustrated how repeated acts of racism led to racial battle fatigue.

In another study, Arnold, Crawford, and Khalifa (2016) used historical research to study the life stories of 10 Black faculty members at a Predominantly White Institution. Ultimately, they studied 2 participants, 1 Black female, and 1 Black male, because they were the only participants who reported negative experiences in their respective departments. However, speaking out affected their promotion and tenure process. Arnold et al. found three themes: entrapment, feeling out of place, and pseudo-policy directives. One of the respondents, the Black male faculty member, reported that he had to wait an additional year before applying for tenure even though he had positive evaluations. The other respondent, the Black female faculty member, reported being denied a salary increase after she had attained tenure, unlike her White counterparts. They reported feeling entrapped, out of place, and often told to be flexible (Arnold et al., 2016). However, the Black male respondent experienced negative stereotypes and felt that he was being viewed as aggressive. At the same time, both participants were frustrated and experienced racial battle fatigue that affected their ability to be successful.

Many Black faculty members were found to have experienced racism daily as well as psychological, physiological, and behavioral stressors (Chancellor, 2019; Smith, 2004). Figure 3 illustrates some of these stressors Black faculty reported, particularly at Predominantly White Institutions.





*Figure 3.* Racial battle fatigue’s psychological, physiological, and behavioral responses among Black faculty. Adapted from “Racial Battle Fatigue: The Unspoken Burden of Black Women Faculty in LIS” by R. L. Chancellor, 2019, *Journal of Education for Library and Information Science*, 60(3), p. 185. Copyright 2019 by the University of Toronto Press.

Acuff (2018) contended that Black faculty have emotional and psychological baggage due to the requirements of performing, functioning, and thriving within a country designed for their failure. Thus, Black faculty work within the imposed narrative that was developed by European society, not created for them, and thereby experiencing emotional and psychological trauma trying to achieve success (Acuff, 2018).

Gorski (2019) studied 10 Black faculty and staff who stood up against their grievances at Predominantly White Institutions. This phenomenological study found that Black faculty who engaged in social activism experienced several degrees of racial battle fatigue; however, despite institutional resistance and their degree of burnout, they held an unwavering commitment to racial justice. Yet they were punished by the institutions for demanding social change, were misunderstood by colleagues, experienced anxiety, and recommended by White colleagues to

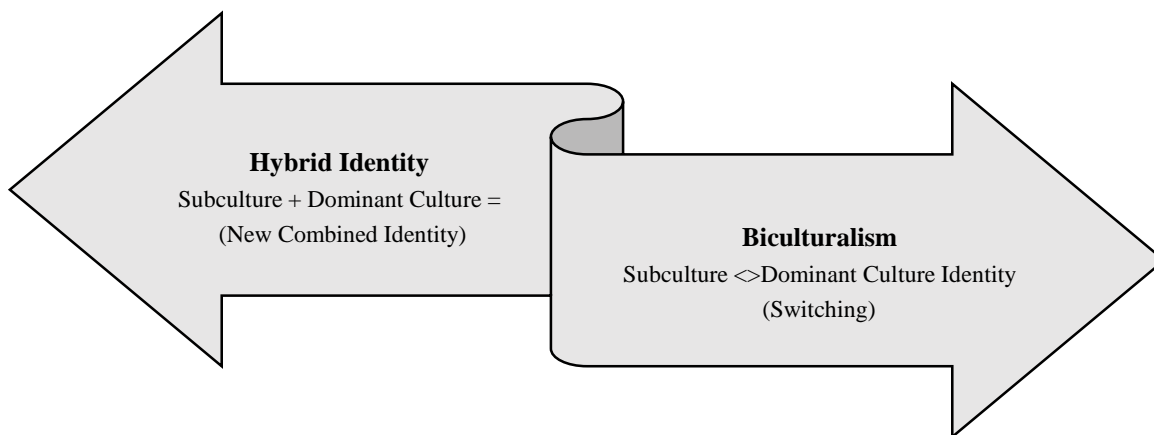
soften their stance against racial justice. Participants acknowledged that racial battle fatigue exacerbated their problems, but so did the institution's response to racism (Gorski, 2019). Nevertheless, racism has powerful effects on its targets, and Black males receive more hostile and unwelcoming experiences than any other group due to criminal/predator, ghetto-specific, and unintelligent stereotypes (Smith, Mustaffa, Jones, Curry, & Allen, 2016).

**Racial identity.** Crichlow (2017) examined how the alienation of Black faculty affects their Black identity by interviewing 4 Black criminologists, 1 female and 3 males, at various stages of their careers. She reported that participants did not have a sense of belonging, felt socially responsible for Black students, and felt obligated to study racial issues. They also were asked to serve disproportionately on diversity committees, required to mentor an overwhelming number of minority students, and questioned their own identities while working at Predominantly White Institutions (Crichlow, 2017).

Research reveals that Black faculty often shift their identities to alleviate negative consequences associated with racism or discrimination (Dickens & Chavez, 2018). Dickens and Chavez (2018) did a phenomenological study of 10 Black college-educated women between the ages of 22-28 who lived in Black communities but worked within White environments in the early stages of their careers from 6 states. The researchers stated that these Black women had become adaptive to explore their self-concepts and communicate with others. Moreover, Black faculty shifted their identities and language.

Dickens and Chavez revealed 7 themes related to shifting identities: identity shifting benefits, cost associated with the benefits, interpersonal rejection management, assimilating to the dominant culture, both confronting and dismantling stereotypes, being the model Black citizen, and mixing their feeling toward identity shifting (2018, p. 760). The researchers reported

7 of the 10 participants shifted their identities to maintain personal and professional relationships, and several participants altered their behaviors and speech to enhance their careers. Four participants stated that they remained silent in White social settings, whereas 4 participants discussed assimilating to the dominant culture to make life easier. Figure 4 shows the identities of Black faculty at Historically White Institutions.



*Figure 4.* Biculturalism and hybridity comparison of Black faculty at Historically White Institutions. Adapted from “Straddling Cultures, Identities, and Inconsistencies: Voices of Pre-Tenure Faculty of Color in Educational Leadership” by M. A. Martinez and A. D. Welton, 2017, *Race, Ethnicity, and Education*, 20(5), p. 121. Copyright 2015 by the University Council for Education Administration.

Some Black faculty experience imposter syndrome at Predominantly White Institutions (Dancy & Jean-Marie, 2014). Due to shifting identities, Black faculty report feeling like imposters or fake, often attributing their success to luck instead of abilities, and discounting their success for the benefit of others (Dancy & Jean-Marie, 2014; Martinez et al., 2017).

Motha and Varghese (2018) studied the narratives of women of color who reported multiple identities working within academe using counter-storytelling, community cultural wealth, and borderland discourses. Participants said that they were encouraged to assimilate into

the dominant academic culture even though it conflicted with their own identities. Women faculty of color contended that they needed to assimilate if they were going to be successful but recommended challenging static representations within the academic culture.

Consequently, the participants acknowledged challenges in teaching, service, and research as well as publishing. One participant stated that she made attempts to hide her shortcomings, although tenure made it easier to show borderland identities. The participant reported that academic success was fictional for women of color because they were less likely to be assigned to higher level classes aligned with research interests. Moreover, the authors reported that participants felt liked domestic laborers and were asked to serve on diversity committees in an attempt to show that their respective higher education institutions were diversified (Motha & Varghese, 2018).

### **Students Interactions with Black Faculty**

There is a gap in the literature on students' evaluations of Black faculty at Historically White Institutions. Studies of student–faculty interactions have identified multiple positive outcomes (Cody, 2017; Grey & Williams-Farrier, 2017; Kim & Lundberg, 2016; Suarez-Orozco et al., 2015).

Kim and Lundberg (2016) did a quantitative study utilizing structural equation modeling to explore indirect and direct relationships between faculty and students. Using the 2010 University of California's Undergraduate Experience Survey for students under the age of 18 from 10 campuses who were enrolled in winter or spring semesters, they examined student–faculty interactions, precollege characteristics, their sense of belonging, academic challenges, classroom management, and cognitive skills. They reported that student–faculty interactions had direct and indirect positive relationships with students' cognitive skills in their senior year and

that students who interacted more with faculty members had significant gains in those abilities. All structural paths and correlations were statistically significant regarding their sense of belonging, student–faculty interactions, classroom engagement, and academic challenges (Kim & Lundberg, 2016).

Initially, student interaction research focused on understanding college student persistence within institutions of higher education which was associated positively with satisfaction, achievement, and student persistence (Cody, 2017). Cody examined whether there was a level of cultural mistrust that affects student–faculty interactions at a Predominantly White Institution. One hundred and thirty-two students enrolled in a Southwestern university participated and were asked to complete a 48-item Cultural Mistrust Inventory with a Social Desirability Scale and a Racial Discrimination Index with Cronbach alpha scores of .89 and .94 respectively. Also, student–professor interactions were assessed by using approachability, caring attitude, and connectedness on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Students were asked about their interactions with Black professors, and 68% reported positive relationships with Black faculty.

Consequently, Cody (2017) found that there was no significant difference in levels of cultural mistrust for those who experienced racism and discrimination. Students who had positive relationships with one or more Black professors felt more connected. However, student–faculty interactions and cultural mistrust negatively correlated, while education and training significantly correlated with approachability and caring attitude. Perceptions of student–faculty interactions, gender connectedness, caring attitude, approachability showed no significant difference. Furthermore, the Cody’s study demonstrates that student–faculty interactions are essential and mostly positive. However, women of color faculty have complicated interactions

with students, especially with White males whom they reported were threatening and intimidating even though students of color were more welcoming and actively participated (Pittman, 2010).

**Negative stereotypes, insults, resistance, and hostility.** Black faculty frequently face negative stereotypes (Aruguete et al., 2017; Combs, 2017; Griffin, 2016; Neville & Parker, 2017; Steele, 2018). They have been regarded as unintelligent (Aruguete et al., 2017). They also experienced daily insults, resistance, and hostility from students and colleagues (Martinez et al., 2017; Neville & Parker, 2017). Black faculty reported that White students were discourteous and extremely disrespectful in class during instruction and harshly judged African American faculty (Neville & Parker, 2017). However, minority students were also disrespectful and disruptive toward Black faculty (Neville & Parker, 2017).

Neville and Parker (2017) interviewed 22 African American faculty members in a phenomenological study that explored students' perceptions of African American faculty. Using a university in the Northeast with 6,000 undergraduates enrolled, 20% minority population, and 90% full-time tenured or tenure-track White faculty, the researchers revealed that respondents had positive interactions with Black faculty. They also showed that students felt that Black faculty were extremely open, down to earth, passionate, and caring as compared to their White colleagues (Neville & Parker, 2017).

Nevertheless, Black women faculty are often perceived negatively in higher education, are disrespected, not acknowledged, and have their intellectual ability questioned while depicted as unintelligent, self-sacrificing, and invisible (Howard-Baptiste, 2014). Howard-Baptiste (2014) did a qualitative study of a Black female scholar with over 20 years of teaching experience in linguistics. She was a full professor at a PWI in the Midwest. The researcher stated that Black

female faculty experiences are rooted in history, slavery, and imagery and are viewed as mummies or have mammy moments. Moreover, Black faculty were considered as lacking intelligence, expressed difficulty in being acknowledged for their contributions to the profession, and sacrificed their well-being. Furthermore, Black faculty sacrifice their own identities and worth for an opportunity that they may never see (Howard-Baptiste, 2014).

Black faculty have also reported being institutionally betrayed and experienced racism, classism, and sexism (Buchanan, 2020). Buchanan stated that Black faculty are under extreme stress because their research is scrutinized and criticized. Using her own experience at a Big 10 university as the basis for this research, she described numerous overt and implicit biases from unexpected sources and informal epistemic exclusions from colleagues dismissing scholarly contributions. Buchanan discussed being disrespected by Black students who openly expressed contempt because she fired one student assistant who refused to comply with her requests and tried to sabotage the research lab. She stated the chair of the department did not support the faculty member and used the students' information as ammunition against her. Furthermore, Buchanan reported that she was physically attacked by a White female student without departmental support, then revealed that her mentors sabotaged her internal grant applications, stating that she will never be a superstar anyway (2020).

**Classroom teaching styles questioned.** Black faculty's classroom teaching styles have been criticized (Neville & Parker, 2017; Ross & Edwards, 2016). Researchers revealed that Black faculty who appeared more physically attractive were perceived by students as better teachers, were recommended by other students, and were not blamed as the reason for students' failing grades (Tindall & Waters, 2017). However, White and Black students perceive Black faculty differently (Neville & Parker, 2017). Black faculty receive many complaints when they

teach diversity or race-related courses because they challenge students' deeply held beliefs about race, gender, and culture (Ahluwalia, Ayala, Locke, & Nadrich, 2019). Ahluwalia et al. (2019) used a phenomenological study with 12 participants from private and public institutions of higher learning in rural, suburban, and urban areas within the United States: 8 females, 4 males, 5 Blacks, 2 Asian Americans, 4 Latinos, and 1 Native American; of these, there were 1 full-time professor, 6 associate professors, and 5 assistant professors.

Ahluwalia et al.'s study examined the importance of teaching multicultural competence to students and the challenges faculty experience. The authors revealed four themes: a dual thread of multicultural competence, those who teach diversity are marginalized, faculty of color go beyond content instruction, and the benefits and challenges in teaching diversity courses. They reported that some students found the teaching styles of Black faculty threatening, especially when teaching courses in diversity or race. Participants reported being exhausted in teaching these courses due to the amount of time it took to prepare. They overprepared to appear credible, nonbiased, and less threatening. They felt that these courses took an emotional and psychological toll (Ahluwalia et al., 2019). Consequently, Black faculty continue to question their ability to engage and teach students critically; one professor reported that a White colleague told students not to take her specific course because they would not become critical thinkers (Howard-Baptiste, 2014).

Moreover, Weinzimmer and Bergdahl (2018) asserted that instructors have difficulty in getting students to openly discuss race. In an attempt to teach about race by using alternative pedagogical approaches, Weinzimmer and Bergdahl used six team-facilitated dialogue sessions, lectures, and discussions. They collected pre- and post-survey data over three semesters from multiple class sections on race and ethnicity within the Sociology department at their university.



Using paired sample *t*-tests by comparing pre- and post-test scores between the control and dialogue groups, they found that instructors were successful in helping students address the concept of race (Weinzimmer & Bergdahl, 2018). Thus, White students from both groups using dialogs showed post-test growth compared to those who did not. Students of color improved in both categories, whereas only White students showed a significant increase in bridging racial and ethnic divides. This study highlighted the importance of dialoguing in small groups about sensitive topics, and expanded scholarship on embodied resistance text that created pedagogical situations that invalidated Black faculty (Weinzimmer & Bergdahl, 2018).

Black faculty are also writing about their own pedagogical experiences (Haynes, Taylor, Mobley, & Haywood, 2018). Haynes et al. (2018) did an auto-ethnographic study that examined embodied texts of four Black nontenured research participants who taught higher education courses through group processing and written reflections from Predominantly White Institutions in the South, Southwest, and Midwest, using course syllabi and student end-of-course evaluations. One participant reported that he spent his life worrying about his presentations and perceptions from others while not conforming to make others feel more comfortable. Two participants said that during their doctoral training, they became aware that they were performing in ways to help White people feel more comfortable around them. The participants realized that their attempts to resist racism and sexism were due to how they defined themselves. Thus, they used different pedagogical decisions to ensure that White students were comfortable with their teaching methods and styles (Haynes et al., 2018).

One participant attributed her identity to how students responded to her, questioned her decisions about grading assignments, submitted late work, criticized her course design and classroom etiquette, undermined her authority, and fact-checked her work. The controlling image

of Black womanhood invalidated their humanity (Haynes et al., 2018). The researchers acknowledged that students were not aware that their expectations of Black faculty shaped gendered and racialized views, as well as how that affected the way Black faculty performed within their classrooms (Haynes et al., 2018).

Haynes et al. further found that Black faculty were viewed differently depending on the geographical region (2018). Moreover, participants reported feeling hyper-visible and anxious in White spaces due to #BlackLivesMatter, #MeToo, events of the Pulse Nightclub, and the Charlottesville attacks that targeted Black women, men, and gender in nonconforming Whites spaces. Participants also reported that Black students expected a break from them due to their shared racial identity and could not believe that students would feel so comfortable treating them in such a matter. Black faculty were prejudged before courses started, and participants revealed that they experienced hostile campus conditions as well as racial trauma (Haynes et al., 2018).

**Authority, expertise, and competence challenged.** Research has demonstrated that White male students often challenge the authority, expertise, and competence of Black faculty members (Croom, 2017; Denson, Szelenyi, & Bresonis, 2018); however, research has shown that Black students perform better with Black faculty because they feel more comfortable, seek their guidance, and have similar experiences (Johnson et al., 2018). Nonetheless, Black students have challenged Black faculty too.

For centuries, Blacks were portrayed negatively and as lazy and dimwitted through caricatures in Blackface who perpetuated negative stereotypes (McGee & Kazembe, 2016). Consequently, how Black faculty were portrayed contributed to the devaluation of their professional expertise (Edwards & Ross, 2018). Edwards and Ross (2018) used a Delphi panel to approach 142 institutions with 64 Black faculty members who identified problems at

Predominantly White Institutions. Black faculty revealed that they lacked mentors, had difficulties in attaining tenure and promotions, felt socially isolated, were not accepted by colleagues, were given excessive token assignments, and had their research regarded as trivial (Edwards & Ross, 2018).

Perry, Moore, Edwards, Acosta, and Frey (2009) studied 20 faculty of color: 10 adjuncts, 6 nontenured assistant professors, and 4 tenured associate or full professors, of which there were 6 Hispanics, 11 African Americans, 2 American Indians, and 1 African. Participants were 13 males and 7 females, at Predominantly White Colleges and Universities in the Midwestern area. Perry et al. studied the faculty's professional credibility and authority in teaching diversity-education classes at these Predominantly White Institutions and found that each participant experienced credibility and authority challenges. Some reported that students contested their presence, refused to accept their credibility and authority, and had little contact with or exposure to minorities in positions of power (Perry et al., 2009).

Furthermore, faculty of color were overpreparing for diversity courses due to being questioned about their ability to teach objectively, regarded as biased, suffered internally from verbal insults, and changed their method of teaching to be less threatening (Perry et al., 2009). Nonetheless, the researchers reported that Black faculty used anticipatory teaching methods and created neutral spaces for all students to feel comfortable in discussing race (Perry et al., 2009).

Griffin, Bennett, and Harris (2013) did an interpretive multicase study of 28 Black faculty members from 2 research-oriented universities: 1 in an urban area with a 4% minority faculty out of its 1,900 overall faculty, with 10 males and 7 females, the other with a 5% minority faculty out of its 1,500 faculty within a mid-Atlantic region, with 6 males and 5 females. They studied how Black faculty explored broader discourses in racialized experiences

as they sought professional advancement within the academy. Griffin et al. found that Black male faculty emphasized more value on teaching but did not think that teaching was relevant to the tenure and promotion process. In contrast, Black women faculty highlighted research as applicable.

Moreover, one participant stated her teaching methods were not valued and that she was scrutinized at research-oriented universities, whereas Black men faculty seemed to be able to deprioritize without penalty (Griffin et al., 2013). Thus, Black women faculty indicated that it was challenging to say no. Overall Black faculty discussed their type of scholarship was at times suspect, primarily if they studied marginalized communities. One participant revealed that she did numerous publications despite the devaluation of scholarship. Black faculty discussed how there was a cost associated with providing service that impacted their tenure and promotion process.

### **Toxic Work Environment**

Higher education institutions have not supported people of color. As universities continue to pursue diversity initiatives, they have done poorly in making minorities feel inclusive and welcomed (Zambrana et al., 2017). Minority faculty face systematic inequities, institutional racism, and lack of cultural awareness in higher education institutions (Dade et al., 2015). Dade et al. (2015) used a case study of 5 African American women faculty to examine racist experiences. The researchers revealed that African American women faculty endured more discrimination than any other racialized or genderized groups, such as classism, racism, and sexism. Although the researchers looked at the critical mass of Black faculty as a way of alleviating discrimination, it did not reduce institutional and structural racism (Dade et al., 2015).

**Daily microaggressions and unwelcoming environment.** Black faculty experience daily microaggressions, disrespect, insults, and racist comments (Denson et al., 2018; Edwards & Ross, 2018; McGee & Kazembe, 2016; Mendez & Mendez, 2018; Turner & Grauerholz, 2017). Mena (2016) used a critical ethnographical study to examine the experiences of minority women at Predominantly White Institutions in the Northeast. The study consisted of 10 Blacks, 2 Asians, 1 Latina; of these, there were 9 heterosexuals, 2 lesbians, and 2 who did not participate and revealed that Black females experienced covert microaggressions, felt marginalized regularly, had broken promises, were disrespected and stripped of authority, as well as did not receive information valuable to career enhancement (Mena, 2016; Mena & Vaccaro, 2017). DeCuir-Gunby and Gunby (2016) examined the experiences of African American educators and found that marital status affected job satisfaction. They studied 75 African American educators in primary/secondary education with 22 participants: 4 men, 18 women, and 53 higher education participants that included 9 men and 44 women. Participants were an average age of 39.4 years old, 56% married, with 10.8 average years of education, and 25.9% people of color.

DeCuir-Gunby and Gunby (2016) used various questionnaires such the Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale, the Coping with Discrimination Scale, the Multi Group Ethnic Identity Measurement, the Overall Job Satisfaction Scale, and demographics within their quantitative research design to measure five hypotheses:

- H1a: Racial micro-invalidations affect job satisfaction negatively;
- H1b: Perceptions of inferiority affect job satisfaction negatively;
- H2a: Drug and alcohol abuse and job satisfaction have a negative relationship;
- H2b: Internalization and job satisfaction have a negative relationship;
- H2c: Detachment and job satisfaction have a negative relationship;

- H3: Job satisfaction affects education and advocacy positively;
- H4: Job satisfaction is positively affected by racial identity in the presence of racial microaggressions; and
- H5: Job satisfaction is predicted by coping, racial identity, and racial microaggressions (2016, p. 397).

Higher education data was used within this study because the primary and secondary samples size were too small. Thus, the one-way ANOVA was not significant due to sample size. Therefore, the full model was reduced to three hypotheses, 1, 2, and 3, because the variance model showed that the entire model was overfitting (DeCuir-Gunby & Gunby, 2016). Nonetheless, they reported for hypothesis 1b, that the perceptions of inferiority and job satisfaction had a negative relationship, whereas in hypothesis 2, job satisfaction and detachment had a negative relationship, with marital status positively affecting job satisfaction. The study demonstrated that a positive home life could relieve workplace stress, and that African American experiences in discrimination could affect workplace satisfaction (DeCuir-Gunby & Gunby, 2016).

Patton stated that having more faculty of color at certain institutions of higher education does not eradicate claims of racial and sexual discrimination, especially if the university is not challenging marginalized issues surrounding hegemony despite their rhetoric (2004). Patton (2004) studied three women scholars of color working in academe who faced marginalization. One participant reported being the invisible-visible and the outsider-within: She attended a meeting, realizing that everyone was looking at her as the token in discussing Black-related issues. Moreover, she regarded herself as the essential being and contended that the university created a hegemonic order that contributed to the disenfranchisement of marginalized faculty due

to its hostile climate. Another participant reported that colleagues stated that her research did not contribute to anything because no one cared about race or racism. Hence, the environment was hostile and supported the concept of White supremacy, and the researcher acknowledged that modern racism was invisible (Patton, 2004).

**Credibility and worth challenged.** Johnson and Bryan (2017) contended that Black male faculty were “metaphorically murdered” (p. 165). Croom revealed that minority faculty members face poor student evaluations, marginalization of their scholarship, and experience heavy service-related responsibilities (Croom, 2017). Black women also experience overt forms of discrimination (Mena & Vaccaro, 2017). They are often viewed as less-than-capable scholars, which leads to fewer full-time, tenured positions (Walkington, 2017), even though Black men were granted access to marginalized faculty positions in higher education (Johnson & Bryan, 2017). Universally, Black faculty competencies are not limited to the classroom itself (Parsons et al., 2018). They often have to prove their worth, and complain about their ongoing negative experiences at Predominantly White Institutions (Kelly et al., 2017).

Moreover, some Black students at Historical Black Colleges and Universities also view White professors as more credible. Wei and Hendrix (2016) did a qualitative study of Black and White faculty at a Historical Black College/University, examining professor credibility and classroom management. They interviewed 12 professors: 6 males, 6 females, of which there were 6 White, 6 Black; 7 had PhDs with several years of experience teaching at a Historically White Institution as well as a Historically Black Institution. Wei and Hendrix studied classroom management, attendance, classroom policy, and faculty credibility and found that Black faculty experienced students questioning their credibility. Thus, White faculty participants were confident and viewed as credible; however, both Black and White students associated White

faculty as being more credible. Black male faculty felt that credentials were essential to their students and used real-world examples to demonstrate their credibility throughout lectures.

White faculty viewed their professional image as intelligent, well-learned, and credible, whereas Black faculty based their professional image on their work experience (Wei & Hendrix, 2016).

Whitfield-Harris et al. (2017) studied 15 participants in a hermeneutic phenomenological study. They examined Black faculty experiences at a predominantly White school of nursing with 13 females and 2 males; 10 were between ages 30-39, 4 between ages 50-64, and 1 over 65; there were 4 with a master's degree, 11 with doctoral degrees; 11 were full-time, 4 part-time. There were 3 adjuncts, 4 assistant professors, 5 associate professors, and 3 professors; 8 were from the Northeast/mid-Atlantic areas and 7 from South/Midwest/West regions; and years of experience ranged from 3-35 years. Results revealed four themes: workplace cultural norms, coping with improper seating, operating as a long ranger, and surviving in the PWI workplace (Whitfield-Harris et al., 2017).

In examining the workplace cultural norms, 14 of the 15 respondents shared their challenges with students, colleagues, and administrators and were affected by those challenges. They felt disrespected by and uncomfortable with White students, had students questioning their lifestyle, and felt unsupported, discouraged, as well as undervalued by colleagues (Whitfield-Harris et al., 2017).

Furthermore, Black faculty reported that they had limited mentoring experiences due to a lack of access to internal mentoring; however, they received mentoring from outside sources, with two participants choosing not to seek tenure. They reported that communication was weak, and 8 of 15 participants stated that policies kept changing without clear expectations, which posed a disadvantage and hindered progress (Whitfield-Harris et al., 2017).



Black faculty also reported that they felt like long rangers and were obligated to speak for the entire Black community, with 10 of the 15 participants avoiding colleagues, social events with colleagues, as well as lunch-time. Moreover, the participants contended that it was paramount for Black faculty to present new voices, question cultural norms, and discuss diversity-related topics even if the topics are uncomfortable (Whitfield-Harris et al., 2017).

All of the participants were concerned about new Black faculty being employed at predominantly White schools of nursing. They offered advice for future faculty to network, gain insight, strengthen values, find a work–family balance, embrace challenges as well as opportunities, and to be more strategic. Nine participants highlighted the importance of making connections within the workplace to overcome challenges. In comparison, all participants reported being strategic, and acknowledged that finding support was instrumental in balancing work and life (Whitfield-Harris et al., 2017).

**Unsupportive work-life culture.** Black female faculty discussed the lack of mentoring and mentoring opportunities, racism, sexism, and unrealistic role expectations as contributors to an unsupportive work-life culture (Cobham & Patton, 2015). Steele (2018) did a phenomenological study to measure minority faculty retention. Through counter-storytelling, 18 minority faculty were interviewed with 15 females and 3 males; there were 16 Blacks and 2 Latinas at a Predominantly White Institution in the Midwest. Four themes emerged: negative environment influence, the invisible employee, no support, and institutional navigation. These faculty of color felt isolated, hidden, not supported by their departments, and experienced daily racial microaggressions (Steele, 2018). In another study, Black faculty noted they experienced adverse effects from academic workplace bullying (Jones et al., 2015).

Through counter-story telling, Griffin (2016) discussed the life experience of Dr. Eva Grave, who experienced systematic oppression in her everyday life at work and felt like a houseguest. Similarly, Griffin, Ward, and Phillips (2014) interviewed 11 Black male faculty members to examine if their daily experiences informed Black misandric ideology and how they navigated through White spaces. They found that Black faculty experienced racism daily and that most Whites were not concerned about how Blacks were doing, but were concerned only if there was something in return. The ongoing prospect of Black misandric ideology influenced their thoughts, opportunities, and experiences (Griffin et al., 2014).

Casteneda et al. (2015) contended that higher education institutions face a challenge in becoming more diverse and inclusive. They studied 54 underrepresented minority faculty who discussed institutional, economic, and social factors related to work–family university policies. They revealed five themes: faculty perceptions, social networks, red flagger fear, informal procedures, and inadequate compensation matters (2015, p. 711). Moreover, respondents contended that institutional policies created barriers due to the climate, and one respondent stated that one’s racial identity influenced how someone perceives them within their work environment. Thus, they reported that the work culture was influenced by department chairs, and if underrepresented faculty did not adhere to the institutional climate, it would further marginalize them. Furthermore, faculty of color experienced inadequate compensation which put them at a disadvantage (Casteneda et al., 2015).

The issues of social justice and inequitable treatment remain issues of concern within the United States, with Black faculty feeling invisible, disenfranchised, and experiencing different degrees of violence (Robinson, 2014). Robinson (2014) did a mixed study of female Black nurses ages 35-65, of which there were 44.4% assistant professors, 11.1% associate professors,

22.2% professors, 11.1% nurse practitioners, and 11.1% nurse researchers. The participants identified characteristics of racism and used strategies to cope with racist acts within the California State University system. Black nurses felt angry 100% of the time regarding those acts of racism, with 55.6% of the respondents reporting that communication from White nurses was racist (Robinson, 2014).

Furthermore, 33.3% of the respondents stated they were not recognized for their degree accomplishments, not included in the decision-making process, experienced racism monthly, and weekly within five years by peers (Robinson, 2014). Thus, 66.7% reported nonverbal behaviors that reflected indifferences, with 44.4% of respondents reporting interaction patterns with a condescending tone. Moreover, 11.1% experienced racism weekly, while 22.2% used aggressive actions. Interestingly, 50% of Black faculty experienced racism from White as well as Black colleagues. Black faculty revealed corresponding increases in blood pressure and heart rate. Participants noted that the nonsupport of Black nurses needed to change because it impacted the health status of minority nurses and the profession as a whole (Robinson, 2014).

### **Barriers to Tenure and Promotion**

The responsibilities of faculty have changed, with more demands for research as technological forces change as well (Padilla & Thompson, 2016). Black faculty have difficulties in attaining tenure and receiving promotions (Johnson et al., 2018; Kelly et al., 2017; Zambrana et al., 2017). Attaining tenure has become difficult for Black faculty because they have been unable to conduct research and produce publications to the same degree as their White counterparts due to overwhelming teaching and service assignments (Edwards & Ross, 2018; Ross & Edwards, 2016).

There has been a revolving door for underrepresented minority faculty (Gumpertz et al., 2017). Thus, Black women faculty face marginalization of their scholarship, increased service demands, and negative student evaluations (Croom, 2017). Meanwhile, both Black men and women faculty have experienced inequities in academe that have negatively impacted tenure and promotions (Denson et al., 2018). Black women report being viewed as less capable, leading to fewer full-time tenured positions (Walkington, 2017), and there have been many barriers, including environmental, social, and cultural (Jones, Warnick, & Palmer, 2016).

**Overburdened with teaching and service responsibilities.** Many Black faculty members are overloaded with service and teaching assignments (Martinez et al., 2017). Those assignments have influenced their ability to attain tenure, receive promotions, and earn increased salaries (Levin et al., 2014). Denson et al. (2018) did a quantitative study that utilized Collaborative on Academic Careers in Higher Education data from a 2011 survey that consisted of 2,953 faculty members from 60 higher education institutions; of these, there were 60% men, 40% women; 36% Asian, 35% White, 17% African American, and 12% Latina/o. Using block entry regression analyses, they explored faculty characteristics, department and institutional characteristics and support, and faculty satisfaction related to work–life balance (Denson et al., 2018).

Asian faculty reported the highest work–life balance while White or Caucasian, Black or African American, and Latina/o faculty had the lowest work–life balance; however, work–life balance was positively associated with rank. This study demonstrated that work–life balance is pertinent, and that faculty of color experience more inequities compared to their colleagues, especially at a lower rank (Denson et al., 2018).

Reddick (2020) asserted that Black scholars are exploited, and work assignments are disproportionate to their White counterparts, especially Black women who act as nurturers where others could opt out of various tasks. Furthermore, the type of work they engaged in lacks recognition and rewards (Reddick, 2020). Although all faculty experience challenges, Black faculty experiences are especially influenced by their racial identities (Eagan & Garvey, 2015).

Siegal, Barrett, and Smith (2015) used personal narratives of 18 full-time, tenured, tenure-track, or non-tenure-track African American faculty members from 11 elite private research universities and 7 elite public research-oriented universities from the Southeastern United States. They examined why faculty remained or left institutions of higher learning. Both public and private institutions had approximately 3,000 faculty members. The study revealed six internal work-related intangible variables, two internal work-related tangible variables, and three external non-work-related variables. Internal work-related intangible factors included variables to remain at their universities such as reputation of the institution, influence of the institution, research opportunities, influence of the department, teaching opportunities, and congeniality of associates. Tangible internal work-related factors included the workload and funding for research, whereas the external non-work-related factors included the costs of housing, considerations for geographic areas, and numerous opportunities such as social, cultural, and recreational. Differences in teaching opportunities, workloads, and geographic location determined if Black faculty remained or left their perspective university (Siegal et al., 2015). Thus, respondents rarely spoke about race as a factor in determining to stay at or leave their perspective universities.

**Poor student evaluations.** Black faculty report receiving inadequate student evaluations (Howard-Baptiste & Harris, 2014; Parsons et al., 2018). Although Black students tend to seek

guidance from Black faculty (Louis et al., 2016), teaching evaluations have been affected by faculty attractiveness, age, race, gender, and academic discipline (Aruguete et al., 2017).

Aruguete et al. (2017) studied 91 students in entry-level classes at a small Midwestern Historical Black College and University (HBCU), with 56% females, 44% males; of these, there were 60% African American, 31% White, and 9% other. They explored the effects of a professor's race and clothing style (casual, business, and formal dress) on students' teaching evaluations using an experimental design.

Aruguete et al. (2017) revealed that course satisfaction was related to race, and students reported that they were less satisfied with courses taught by Black faculty. Black faculty were not respected; however, students trusted Black faculty more when they dressed professionally (Aruguete et al., 2017). In other studies, women faculty of color received less favorable student evaluations than White women faculty and men faculty of color (Croom, 2017), while students maintained positive relationships with White male faculty (Mendez & Mendez, 2018).

Basow, Codos, and Martin (2013) examined the effects of the professor's gender and race in student evaluations. They studied 325 undergraduate students between the ages of 18-22; 80.5% were White, 8.5% Pacific Islander and Asian, 6% Middle Eastern/Arabic, 4.6% Hispanic, 3.6% Black, and 2.1% other, with most majoring in social sciences or natural sciences, and with 2.0-4.0 grade point averages from a small liberal arts college in the Northeastern part of the United States. Participants answered 26 questions that measured 5 factors: scholarship, instructor-group interaction, instructor-individual interaction, dynamism/enthusiasm, and an additional question that measured the professor on the global level, using a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 being well below average and 5 being well above average.

Faculty distributed a 10-question quiz to students that measured their knowledge after watching a 10-minute engineering lecture from *Crazy Talk 6*, a facial animation program that created an animated professor (Basow et al., 2013). The researchers used four different conditions: White male, White female, Black male, and Black female, using block randomization to ensure an equal number of men and women. They revealed that there was a significant effect for faculty gender on physical attractiveness; however, there was no significance in interactions between student's gender and professor's gender. Nonetheless, the MANCOVA's main effect on gender was significant, and males rated professors higher than females in instructor–group interactions, instructor–individual student interaction, dynamism/enthusiasm, and overall. Professor's race was significant as well: The MANCOVA effect was in the opposite direction; Black faculty rated higher on instructor–group interaction. Moreover, there was a main effect on the professor's gender and race on quiz scores (Basow et al., 2013). Virtual male professors scored higher. Students who viewed the lecture from virtual White male professors scored higher on the quiz as well.

Similarly, Montiero, Wilson, and Beyer (2013) contended that males receive higher evaluations based on competence. Murray et al. (2020) did a quantitative study of 165,666 tenured and tenure-track faculty at 399 public and research universities in the United States based upon RateMyProfessor.com and the AA2017 datasets to explore factors associated with student evaluations of teachers. They found that faculty with White surnames received higher points overall for teaching quality and professional rank, as well as faculty with commonly White family names. Even faculty with names absent from the US census scored higher than non-White faculty. Faculty in humanities scored higher than faculty in engineering, medical, natural science, and social science. Faculty in humanities and natural science scored higher than

those in engineering. However, they reported a trivially associated rating pertaining to overall research quality, and faculty with moderate publications were associated with top rankings (Murray et al., 2020).

Every point increased in difficulty was associated with a half-point in overall quality, which questioned the validity of RateMyProfessor.com (Murray et al., 2020). Results indicated that faculty teaching general education courses were rated lower, especially if students did not have an interest in the class itself; there was no statistical significance between research performance and overall teaching quality. Murray et al. (2020) asserted that faculty associated with public universities scored lower than those in private universities.

**Research regarded as trivial and discounted.** Women of color scholars often challenged the limitations of presence, space, and place (Howard-Baptiste & Harris, 2014). There are many distractions within the academy that make finding a place for scholarly research problematic, especially for Black faculty (Edwards & Ross, 2018; Ross & Edwards, 2016). Croom (2017) interviewed 7 Black faculty members at a Predominantly White Institution and found three emergent themes: the meaning of being a professor, the professor and tenure expectations, and career microaggressions. Thus, Croom contended that Black faculty had negative experiences throughout their careers in which race and gender played a factor.

McGee and Kazembe (2016) felt that faculty of color were not respected due to publicly portrayed negative images. They did a phenomenological study between January 2013 and March 2014 that interviewed 33 Black faculty members (14 females and 19 males) who held positions within the education departments at 13 institutions. McGee and Kazembe did their research at a local coffee shop in Chicago and Nashville to explore Black faculty experiences in presenting research at educational conferences, symposiums, and job talks in front of White



audiences. Black faculty reported being told to alter or modify their presentation styles, that their presentations were too racial, and asked if their experiences influenced willingness to present in the future (McGee & Kazembe, 2016).

The authors found that the participants were very vocal about their difficulties in presenting. There were two groups that discussed how they were perceived during educational conferences. The first group stated that when they were critiqued after these conferences, the overall consensus was that their methodology was not rigorous, and their tone was perceived as being too emotional and angry (McGee & Kazembe, 2016). The second group reported that people criticized their physical appearance, mannerisms, and demeanor. Personalities were mainly compared to their actual research. Even though the analysis revealed that their critiques were more racial in nature, the faculty indicated that they did not care about what others thought about their presentations and acknowledged that they felt like pawns in the academy (McGee & Kazembe, 2016).

**No guidance or mentor.** In institutions of higher education, faculty of color often do not receive adequate guidance or mentoring opportunities, especially during the tenure and promotion process (Edwards & Ross, 2018; Louis et al., 2016; Ross & Edwards, 2016). Cobham and Patton (2015) used qualitative research to study 27 tenured Black women faculty at 2 research universities in the Midwest, with the first institution consisting of 27,000 students, and 1,954 full-time faculty members, of whom 51 were Black. There were 26 Black women, and 13 tenured. In contrast, the second institution had 37,000 students, and 1,643 full-time faculty members, 61 of whom were Black. There were 24 Black women, 14 tenured, and respondents between the ages of 39-57. Black faculty revealed that their families were significant and critically influenced them in overcoming adversity. Thus, tenured faculty discussed that their

successes were attributed to having mentors as junior faculty members; moreover, Black faculty indicated that they needed mentors to navigate in White spaces and used recommendations from influential colleagues (Cobham & Patton, 2015).

Zambrana et al. (2015) did a qualitative study of 58 faculty of color from 22 research-oriented universities and noted the importance of mentoring minority faculty. Sixty-seven percent of their participants were assistant professors, 32.8% associate professors, 56.9% women, 43.1% men; 39.7% African American, 36.2% Mexican-American, 24.1% Puerto Rican, 20.8% in social sciences, 37.7% in STEM/health/medicine, and 9.4% in education. They found that majority of the participants were not mentored, which negatively affected their academic growth. They also found that mentorships led to 74.5% collaborative opportunities; however, the effects of mentorship were the same for race, ethnicity, gender, and discipline (Zambrana et al., 2015).

Even though participants revealed the importance of mentoring, they reported barriers to effective mentorships such as benign neglect from novice faculty assigned as part of routine department policy, feeling unsupported, having patchwork mentors, and mentors having a limited understanding of their research agenda (Zambrana et al., 2015). Moreover, the participants connected with mentors who did not care about or understand their research interests, and who were too afraid to ask questions due to perceptions of Black faculty (Zambrana et al., 2015).

Mallery, Mittman, Castillo-Page, Eliason, and Navarro (2019) asserted that faculty members of color do not meet the benchmark in academic promotions. They stated that faculty of color spent a lot of time serving on diversity committees and paying a cultural tax by investing more time with marginalized individuals (Mallery et al., 2019). Furthermore, most higher

education institutions have shifted priorities to inclusiveness (Durodoye et al., 2020). Durodoye et al. (2020) examined differences in faculty career outcomes by race and gender to determine if tenure and promotion disparities exist for female and faculty of color assistant and associate professors. They analyzed personnel data from 4 large research universities from 1992-2015 with 4,352 assistant professors and 3,375 associate professors within various fields of study (Durodoye et al., 2020).

They found that assistant professors were the first to leave their institutions. There was no significant difference in the cumulative incidence of leaving without tenure regarding faculty of color: 38% to 34%, respectively. However, underrepresented faculty were less likely to leave without tenure within the physical, mathematical, and biological science fields (Durodoye et al., 2020).

In the associate professor analysis, Durodoye et al. reported a significant difference in the promotion to full professorship for underrepresented minorities in business, education, health, and veterinary science fields, except humanities. Furthermore, men were promoted more quickly than women, especially to the rank of a full professorship, which was consistent in all four institutions (Durodoye et al., 2020).

### **Summary**

As society changes, higher education institutions have been forced to change as well. The racial and ethnic composition of minority students has increased, but corresponding gains have not materialized for Black faculty despite diversity initiatives or rhetoric from Historically White Institutions.

Black faculty are overwhelmed with mentoring, teaching, and service responsibilities that limit research and publishing opportunities. Thus, they have reported feeling invisible, socially

isolated, ignored, being stressed, enduring daily microaggressions, receiving insults, and having to deny their own racial identity to be successful or accepted by the dominate culture within White-dominant spaces.

There is very little research about the role that race plays in students' evaluations within a university setting. Nevertheless, there are criticisms of the validity of students' evaluations and what they truly measure. In this study, through the lens of critical race theory, students' evaluations of Black faculty at Historically White Institutions will be explored. Critical race theory adopts the premise that racism is everywhere and that policies adhere to colorblind ideologies that affect Black faculty abilities to be successful in the academy.

Moreover, this study is also essential because very few studies evaluate actual professors in a university setting from the standpoint of students. In the research, students have evaluated fictitious professors, hypothetical syllabi, photos, and pseudo-names, but not actual professors within a university setting. This study evaluates actual faculty members at Historically White Institutions and will increase the body of knowledge regarding how students interact with Black faculty, as well as reveal the challenges they face within the academy from students, colleagues, and the university itself.

The educational culture needs to support Black faculty by eliminating negative stereotypes, token work assignments, and discrimination in higher education. Instead, this culture needs to provide faculty of color with mentoring and guidance throughout the tenure process; reduce barriers in tenure and promotions for Black faculty; value and give professional credence to their scholarship, credentials, and expertise; and demonstrate a true commitment to diversity initiatives—not just popular rhetoric—especially in Historically White Institutions.

## **CHAPTER THREE: METHODS**

### **Overview**

This quantitative, nonexperimental, causal-comparative research design was used to determine differences in students' evaluation scores between Black and White faculty as measured by faculty academic competence, sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and students' viewpoints on racism at public research-oriented 4-year Historically White Institutions in Southern states. This chapter presents the research design, research questions, hypotheses, participants and settings, instrumentation and its justification, procedures, and data analysis.

### **Design**

This nonexperimental, causal-comparative design investigated differences in how Black and White students evaluated Black and White faculty as measured by academic competence, sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and viewpoints on racism at Historically White Institutions in Southern states. This causal-comparative design was utilized to find relationships between independent and dependent variables (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). Prior to the study, the traits of the independent variable were either visible or invisible in the participants. Thus, the researcher did not manipulate the independent variables. However, by comparing two or more groups, the researcher determined if the independent variable affected the dependent variable.

This design was useful because it was less costly to identify the possible cause and effect of a phenomenon; if cause and effect were present, they could be tested through experimentation rather than using expensive and more technical experiments (Gall et al., 2007). However, causal comparative research lacks random assignment since it is not experimental. The independent

variables were Black and White faculty race and Black and White student race. The dependent variables were academic competence, sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness (overall global evaluation), and viewpoints on racism. Academic competence referred to the intellectual competence or the ability of college instructors (Ho et al., 2009). Sensitivity to students referred to the sensitivity to student needs (Ho et al., 2009). Instructional effectiveness referred to the overall performance evaluation of college instructors (Ho et al., 2009). The racism variable referred to the support for beliefs, legitimizing group dominance, and oppression (Ho et al., 2015). Race is a category with which one self-identifies (US Census Bureau, 2020a). A Historically White Institution (HWI) is an institution of higher education originally created for the advancement of only White students (Givens, 2016).

### **Research Questions**

The research questions for this study are:

**RQ1:** Is there a difference in evaluations of academic competence scores for faculty based on their race and the race of the students as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions?

**RQ2:** Is there a difference in evaluations of sensitivity to students' scores for faculty based on their race and the race of the students as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions?

**RQ3:** Is there a difference in evaluations of instructional effectiveness scores for faculty based on their race and the race of the students as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions?

**RQ4:** Is there is a difference in students' viewpoints on racism based on their race and race of the faculty member as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions?

### Null Hypotheses

The null hypotheses for this study are:

**H<sub>0</sub>1:** There is no difference in *evaluations of academic competence scores* for faculty based on *their race* and the *race of the students* as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions.

**H<sub>0</sub>2:** There is no difference in *evaluations of sensitivity to students' scores* for faculty based on *their race* and the *race of the students* as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions.

**H<sub>0</sub>3:** There is no difference in *evaluations of instructional effectiveness scores* for faculty based on *their race* and the *race of the students* as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions.

**H<sub>0</sub>4:** There is no difference in *students' viewpoints on racism* based on *their race* and the *race of the faculty member* as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions.

### Participants and Setting

The participants for this nonexperimental, causal-comparative design consisted of undergraduate and graduate students from Historically White Institutions in Southern states. The participants were drawn from a randomly selected population of students in any major from University X with permission from the department chairs as well as their Institutional Review Board to participate within the study (see Appendices A and B). However, due to low survey participation, Liberty's Institutional Review Board made a recommendation to use Prolific, an online survey advertisement website, to recruit enrolled undergraduate and graduate students enrolled in either a spring or summer course from various Historical White Institutions in Southern states; therefore, no IRB approval was needed for Universities Y and Z. All three

universities, Universities X, Y, and Z (pseudonyms), are 4-year public research-oriented institutions in a large suburban area that offer certificates, bachelor's, post-baccalaureate, master's, and doctoral degrees in research and scholarship, and doctorates in professional practice (US Census Bureau, 2020b).

### **University X**

The geographical area from which the respondents from University X are drawn has a population of over 1,150,000 people with 64.7% White or Caucasian, 10.6% Black or African American, 0.5% American Indian or Alaska Native, 20.1% Asian, 0.1% Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, 16.5% Hispanic, and 3.9% two or more races (US Census Bureau, 2020b). The area has 92.1% high school graduates or higher, 61.1% with a bachelor's degree or higher, 6.3% ages under 5 years, 23.3% ages under 18 years, 14% ages 65 years and over, and 50.4% are females (US Census Bureau, 2020b). The median household income is \$121,133, with 6.1% of the population living in poverty, 97% of households with a computer, and 93% with broadband internet subscription (US Census Bureau, 2020b).

The student population from University X consists of over 30,000 students, with 38.2% White, 20.9% Asian, 14.4% Hispanics, 11.1% Black, 7% International, 5.2% two or more races, 2.9% unknown, 49.9% men, 50.1% women undergraduates compared to graduate students who consist of 43.5% White, 29% International, 8.2% Black, 7.7% Asian, 6.6% Hispanic, 3.3% unknown, 2% two or more races, 0.2% American Indian, 0.1% Pacific Islander, 44.3% men, and 55.7% women (College Factual, 2021). The retention rate for undergraduates is 86% with a 72.1% 6-year graduation rate, 74.4% 8-year graduation rate, and 46% on time graduation rate (College Factual, 2021). Moreover, University X has 669 full-time tenured faculty and 5 tenured part-time faculty with only 228 of the full-time on tenure track; 448 full-time faculty and 1,287



part-time faculty are not on tenure track (College Factual, 2021). There are 67.9% of the faculty White, 10% Asian, 8.4% Black, 2.1% two or more races, 0.1% Pacific Islander, 52.5% women, and 47.5% men (College Factual, 2021).

### **University Y**

The geographical area from which the respondents from University Y are drawn has a population of over 30,000 people with 54.9% White or Caucasian, 19.3% Black or African American, 0.1% American Indian or Alaska Native, 14.4% Asian, 0.1% Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, 15.5% Hispanic, and 4.8% two or more races (US Census Bureau, 2020b). The area has 85.9% high school graduates or higher, 49.3% with a bachelor's degree or higher, 3.9% ages under 5 years, 10.1% ages under 18 years, 6.7% ages 65 years and over; 48.9% are females (US Census Bureau, 2020b). The median household income is \$66,679, with 26.7% of the population living in poverty, 96.3% of households with a computer, and 82.5% with a broadband internet subscription (US Census Bureau, 2020b).

The student population from University Y consists of over 30,000 students, with 48.9% White, 18.2% Asian, 11.2% Black, 9.2% Hispanic, 4.2% two or more races, 5% international, 2.9% unknown, 48.3% women, 51.7% men undergraduates compared to the graduate students who consist of 41.8% International, 33.8% White, 6.6% Black, 6.3% Asian, 5.8% unknown, 3.6% Hispanic, 2.0% two or more races, 51.3% men, and 48.7% women (College Factual, 2021). The retention rate for undergraduates is 95% with a 79% 6-year graduation rate, 83% 8-year graduation rate, and 69% on time graduation rate (College Factual, 2021). Moreover, University Y has 1,843 full-time tenured faculty with 1,043 full-time and 49 part-time faculty on tenure track while there are 285 full-time faculty and 1 part-time faculty not on tenure track (College Factual, 2021). There are 55% of the faculty White, 16.4% Black, 10.2% Asian, 1.3%

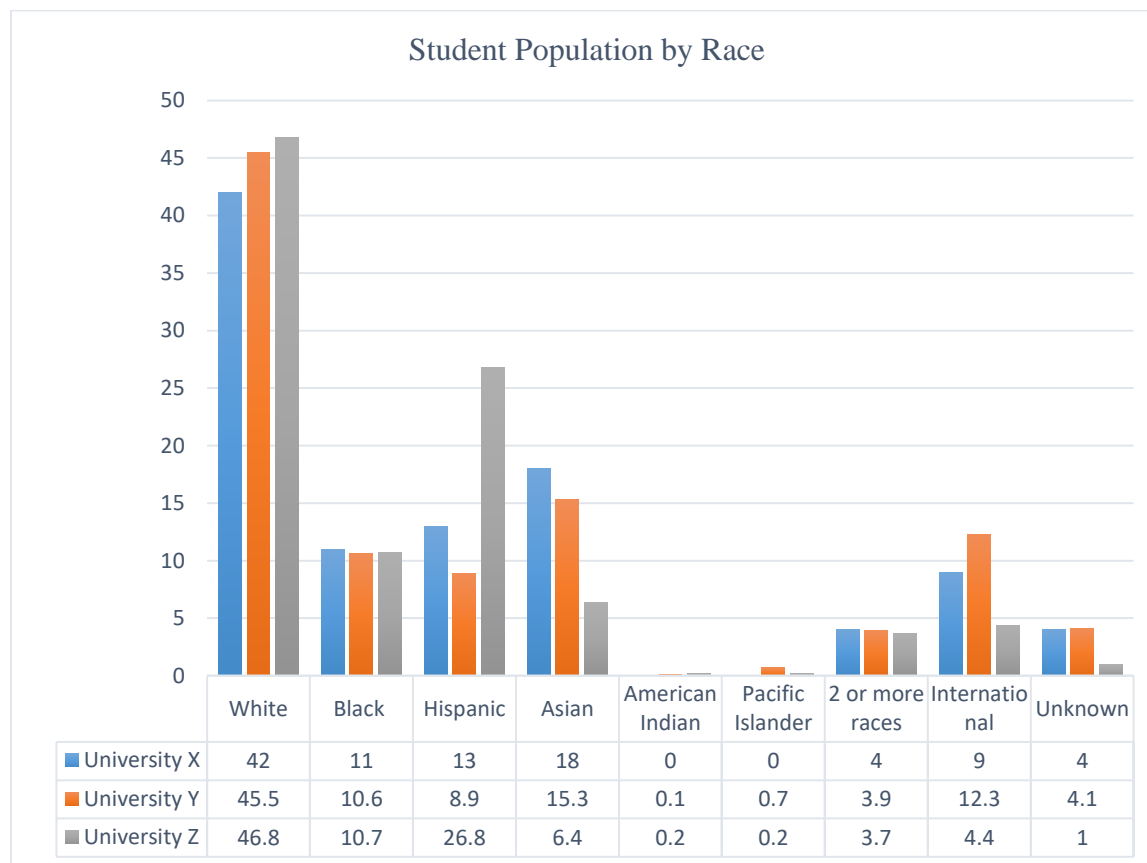
two or more races, 0.1% Pacific Islander, 48.8% women, and 51.2% men (College Factual, 2021).

### **University Z**

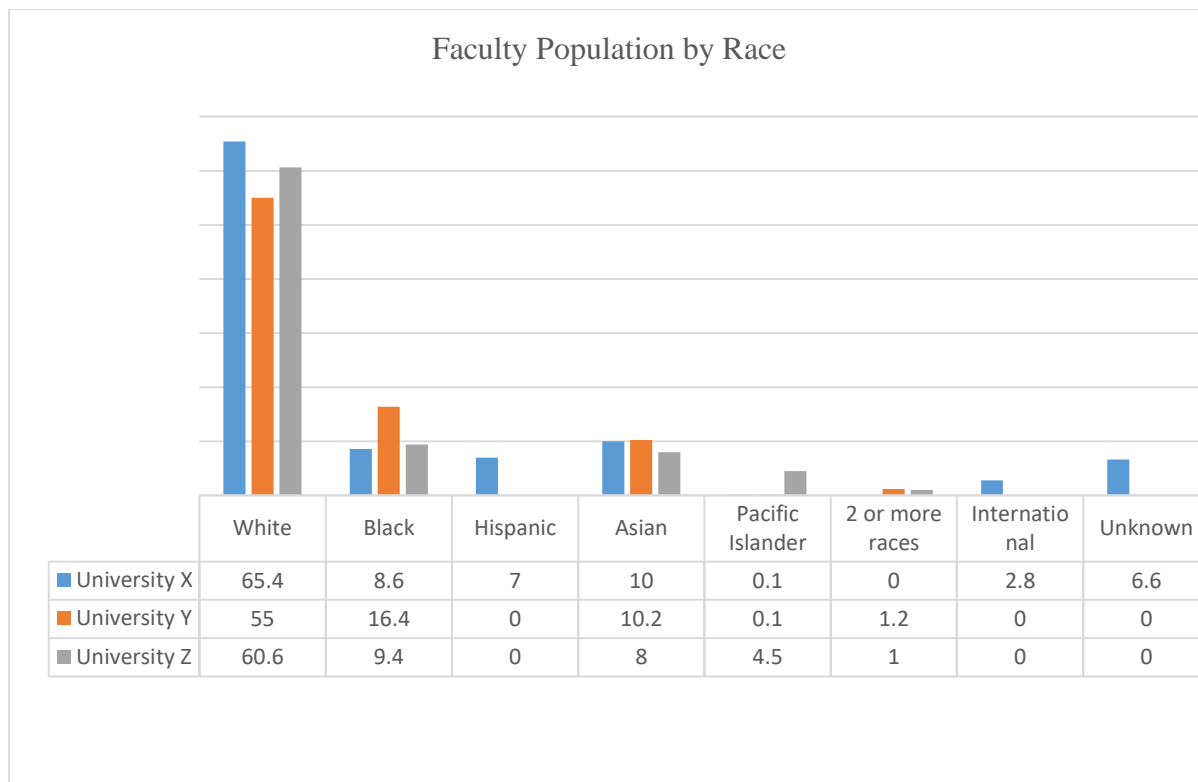
The geographical area from which the respondents from University Z are drawn has a population of over 280,000 people with 61.3% White or Caucasian, 24.5% Black or African American, 0.2% American Indian or Alaska Native, 4.2% Asian, 0.0% Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, 32.6% Hispanic, and 3.5% two or more races (US Census Bureau, 2020b). The area has 90.4% high school graduates or higher, 38.1% with a bachelor's degree or higher, 6.7% ages under 5 years, 21.1% ages under 18 years, 10.2% ages 65 years and over; 52% are females. The median household income is \$51,757 with 17.2% of the population living in poverty. There are 94.2% of households with a computer, and 86.8% with broadband internet subscription (US Census Bureau, 2020b).

The student population from University Z consists of over 60,000 students, with 47.1% of the population White, 27.0% Hispanic, 10.2% Black, 6.5% Asian, 3.9% two or more races, 3.8% International, 0.7% unknown, 54.4% women, 45.6% men undergraduate students compared to the graduate students who consist of 43.6% White, 22.6% International, 14.3% Hispanic, 8% Black, 6.9% Asian, 2.6% two or more races, 2% unknown, 0.01% American Indian, 0.2% Pacific Islander, 46.3% men, and 53.7% women (College Factual, 2021). The retention rate for undergraduates is 90% with a 74.4% 6-year graduation rate, 75.5% 8-year graduation rate, and 40% on time graduation rate (College Factual, 2021). Moreover, University Z has 673 full-time tenured faculty and 2 tenured part-time faculty with only 313 full-time on tenure track faculty while 516 full-time faculty and 7 part-time faculty were not on tenure track (College Factual, 2021). There are 46.7% White, 26.7% Hispanic, 10.7% Black, 6.4% Asian, 4.4% International,

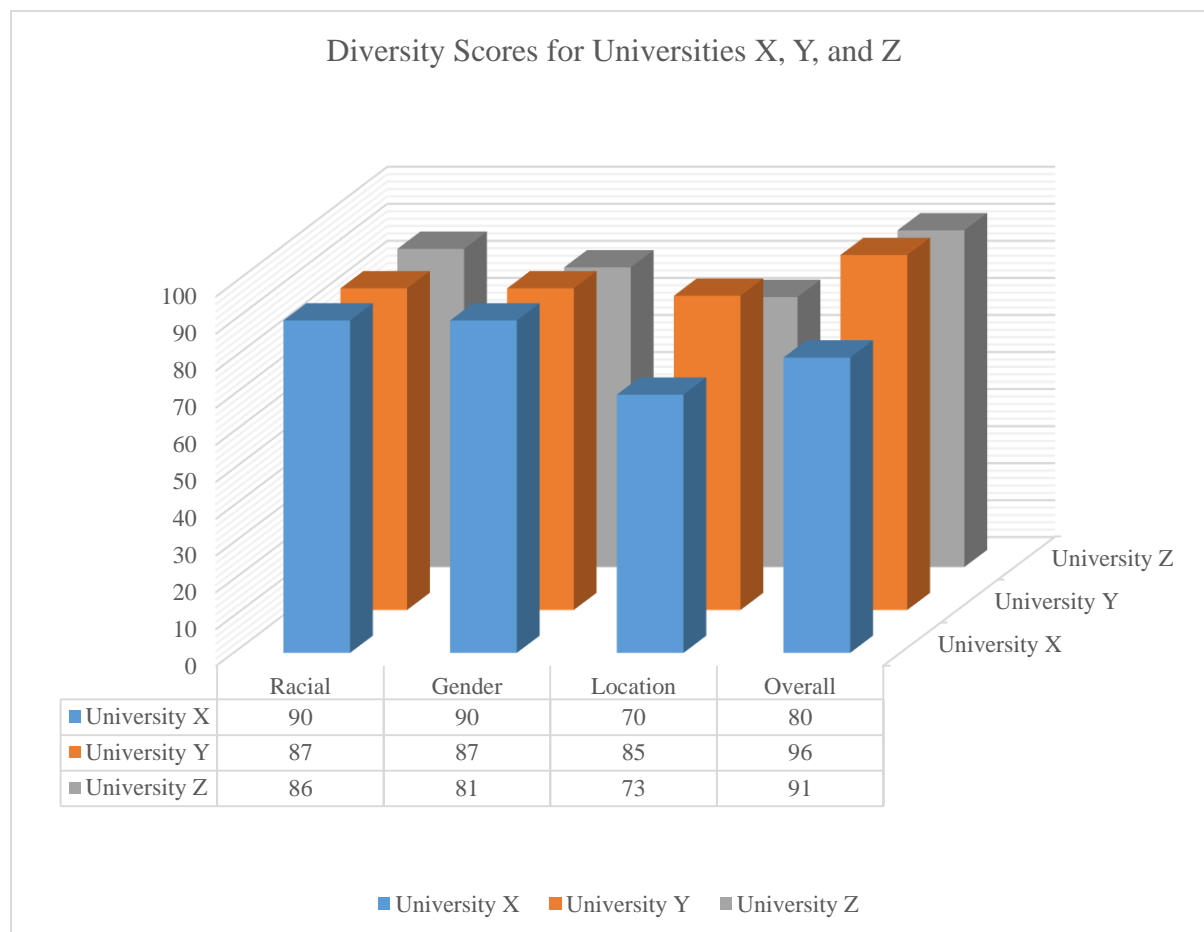
3.7% two or more races, 1% unknown, 0.2% Pacific Islander, 54.5% women, and 45.3% men (College Factual, 2021). Figure 5 shows the student populations for Universities X, Y, and Z. Figure 6 shows faculty members' race for Universities X, Y, and Z. Figure 7 shows diversity scores for Universities X, Y, and Z.



*Figure 5.* Percentage of student population at Universities X, Y, and Z. Adapted from *Racial/Ethnic Diversity* by College Factual, 2021 ([https://www.collegefactual.com/student-life/diversity/#ethnic\\_diversity](https://www.collegefactual.com/student-life/diversity/#ethnic_diversity)). In the public domain.



*Figure 6.* Percentages for faculty race at Historically White Institutions. Adapted from Racial/Ethnic Diversity Among Faculty, by College Factual, 2021 ([https://www.collegefactual.com/student-life/diversity/#faculty\\_ethnic\\_diversity](https://www.collegefactual.com/student-life/diversity/#faculty_ethnic_diversity)). In the public domain.



*Figure 7.* Diversity scores for Universities X, Y, and Z. Adapted from *Diversity Ranking*, by College Factual, 2021 (<https://www.collegefactual.com/colleges/student-life/diversity/chart-overall-diversity.html>). In the public domain.

A random sample of 210 students was used for this study until 35 Black students evaluated Black faculty members, 35 Black students evaluated White faculty members, 35 White students evaluated Black faculty members, and 35 White students evaluated White faculty members. The sample was initially identified and introduced to the students within their online classes, before they could participate, through faculty members who were teaching semester-long social science courses in Sociology and Psychology. However, due to low survey responses at University X of only 75 Black and White students in a semester-long social science class in

Sociology and Psychology being taught by a Black or White faculty member, the survey was extended to Black and White students currently enrolled in any course being taught by a Black or White faculty member at any Historical White Institution in Southern states, by using the Prolific platform, which paid participants to complete surveys and reached more respondents using a nationally representative sample. Prolific also allowed respondents the ability to use the same Survey Monkey link and criteria (SDO7) as respondents from University X. Thus, the researcher closely monitored the demographic portion of the screening survey to ensure that there were at least 70 Black and 70 White students participating in the study. Students who were not Black or White were excluded from the study (see Appendix C).

Nevertheless, Prolific randomly selected 189 Black students out of 140,000 who were currently taking any course from a Black or White faculty member at Historically White Institutions in Southern states. There were 1,185 White students of 140,000 who met the criteria. Consequently, the Prolific platform added 135 more survey respondents. However, due the researcher paying each respondent from originally \$5.00 to \$10.00 per survey completion, the survey was closed once the necessary number of respondents for statistically significant results, 126, was satisfied. Participation was voluntary. Black and White students were asked to complete the SDO7 evaluation survey any time in the semester to evaluate Black and White faculty members.

Using a random sample provided several benefits to the study. First, it provided an equal probability of the population being selected (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Gall et al., 2007). Second, in using a random sample, the results could be generalizable to the general population (Gall et al., 2007). Third, a random sample is not as costly or time consuming as collecting data from an actual population (Warner, 2013). However, using a random sample poses limitations as

well. First, it is difficult to obtain a random sample of participants (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Second, there are resource limitations in drawing a random sample from a small accessible population (Gall et al., 2007).

The researcher originally chose University X due to its diversity scores compared to the national average, as well as the percentage of minority faculty and students compared to the state's average. Once the Institutional Review Board reviewed and approved the proposed methods for this study (Warner, 2013), the researcher contacted the Departments of Sociology and Psychology for approval at University X. Traditional social science courses from University X were chosen for the survey because they were most likely to garner a more diverse group of students and faculty to participate in the study. Furthermore, the researcher examined individual social science courses within various departments to determine which courses had the most students enrolled to recruit survey participants.

Once approval was granted from the university's leadership, the study was introduced to faculty within the Sociology and Psychology departments teaching social science courses. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, 14 faculty members presented the study's information recruitment flyer to their students within their online classrooms at University X (see Appendix D). The student consent form (Appendix E), evaluation instructions (Appendix F), and IRB approval information from University X and Liberty University (see Appendices B and G) were provided as well.

There were no restrictions on students' age, gender, or academic rank; however, there were restrictions on race. Black and White students were the focus of this study, so all other responses were omitted. In testing the hypotheses, only Black and White students currently taking courses being taught by a Black or White faculty member at Historically White

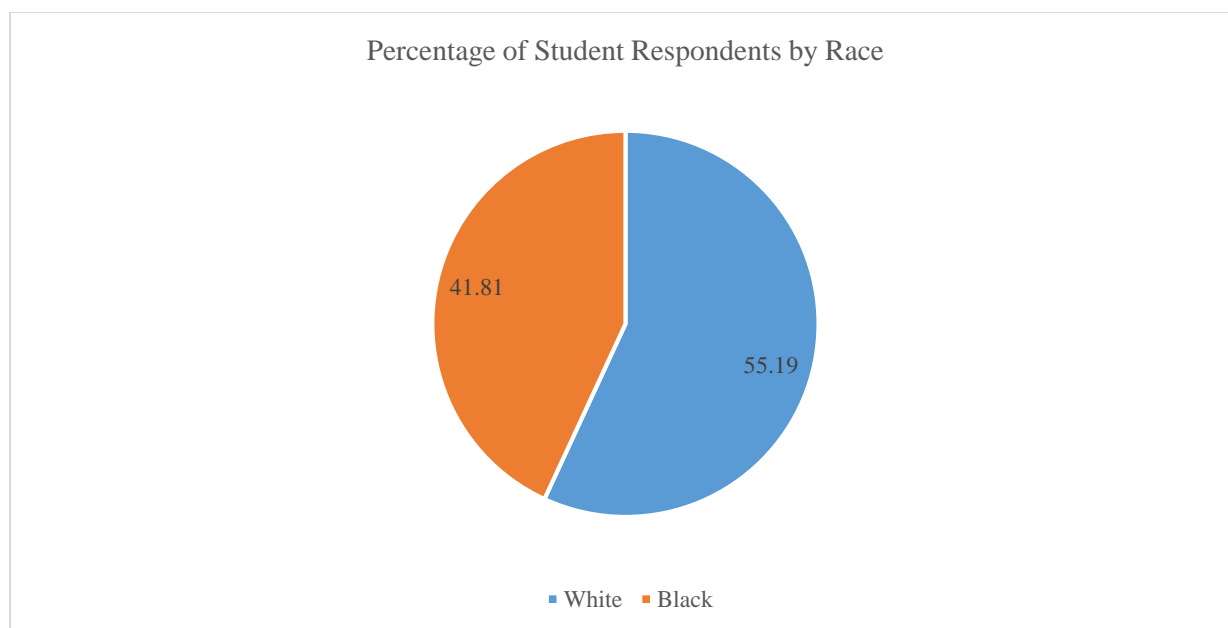
Institutions in Southern states were surveyed. The number of students participating in the study at University X was determined by the number of students enrolled in Sociology and Psychology courses. Participation was voluntary. Black and White students who were enrolled in any course taught by a Black or White faculty member were asked to complete the SDO7 evaluation survey any time in the 2021 spring and summer semesters. Furthermore, only Black and White students at Universities Y and Z recruited through the Prolific platform currently enrolled with only Black or White faculty members in any academic major at Historically White Institutions in Southern states could participate in the study as well. Students from Universities Y and Z used the same Survey Monkey link and were asked to report the university with which they were associated through email, not associated with their survey responses.

By broadening the scope to Black and White students who were currently taking any course from a Black or White faculty member at Historically White Institutions in Southern states instead of using only social science courses from University X, the researcher ultimately surveyed 210 of 2,004 undergraduate and graduate students enrolled in any course at three Historically White Institutions in Southern states during the spring and summer 2021 semesters. Gall et al. (2007) stated that the appropriate participant population for a two-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is 126 for a medium effect size, .7 power, and an alpha level of .05 to increase the probability of achieving statistical significance results and reducing a Type 1 error.

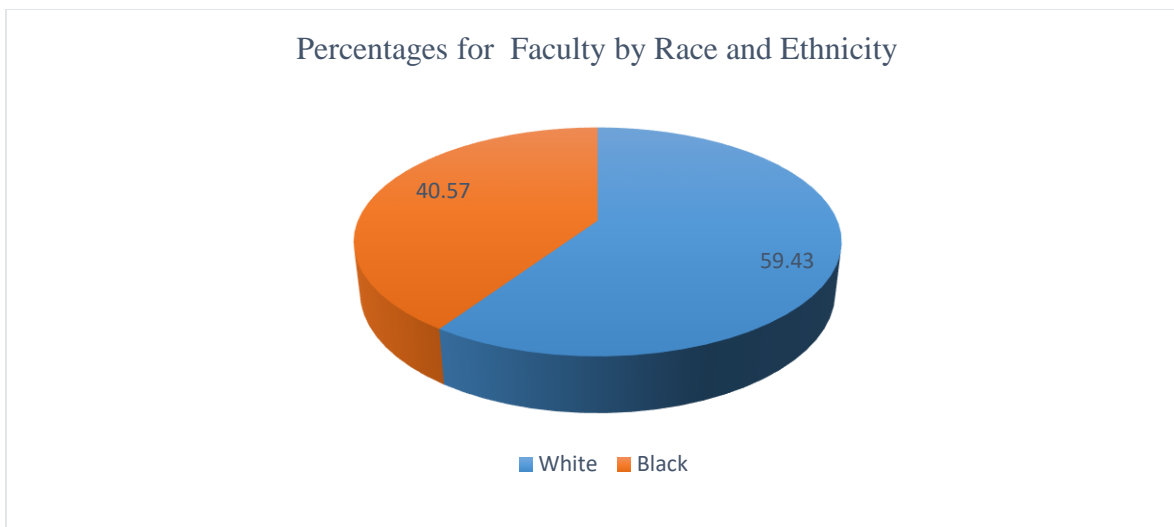
The participant demographics consisted of 129 females, 75 males, 6 transgender, and 0 in the “other” category; 129 between the ages of 18-24 years, 63 between the ages of 25-34 years, 15 between the ages of 35-45 years, 3 between the ages of 45-54 years, and 0 reported as 55 years of age and older. There were 92 Black or African American students, 117 White or Caucasian students; 17 Freshmen, 32 Sophomores, 43 Juniors, 65 Seniors, and 53 Graduate



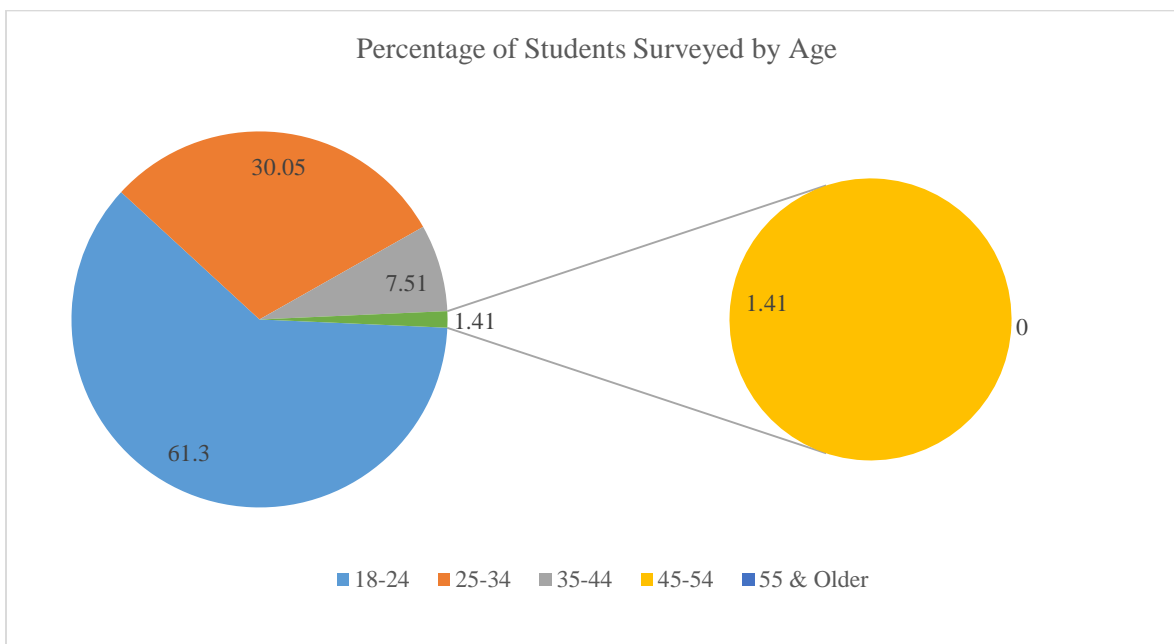
students. Of the sample, 148 took the course online, 32 took the course in person, and 30 had a combination of in-person as well as virtual learning. There were 124 White/Caucasian faculty, 85 Black/African American faculty, 114 male faculty, 93 female faculty, 1 transgender faculty, and 0 other faculty gender. Figure 8 shows the race of students who participated in the study. Figure 9 shows the race of the faculty member teaching a course in the spring or summer 2021 semesters. Figure 10 shows the age of students participating in the study. Figure 11 shows students' academic rank. Figure 12 shows student respondents' class format percentages.



*Figure 8.* Student percentages by race and ethnicity.



*Figure 9.* Faculty race percentages.



*Figure 10.* Percentages of student respondents by age.

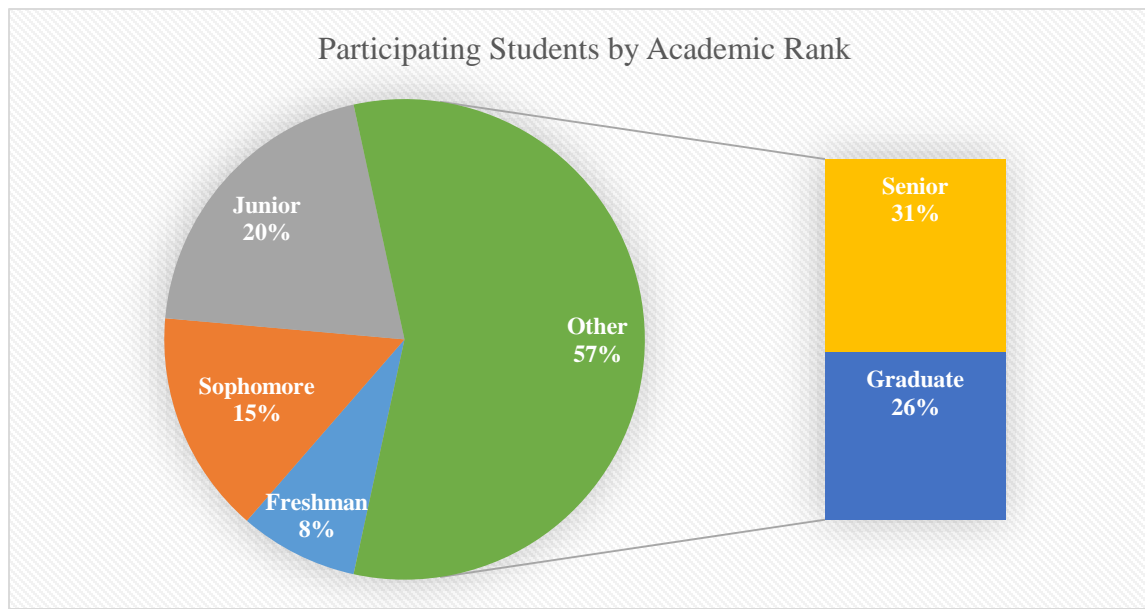


Figure 11. Percentage of student respondents by academic rank.

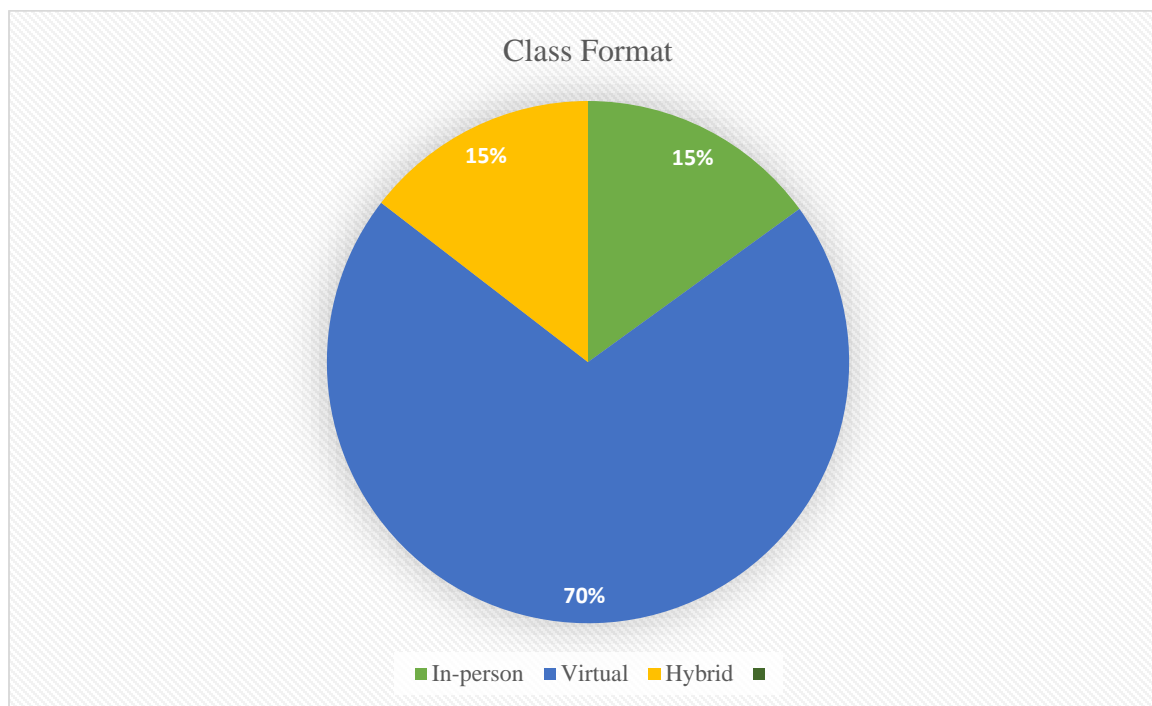


Figure 12. Students' class format percentages.

### **Instrumentation**

The SDO7 form was used for this study (Ho et al., 2009; Sidanius, 1976). The purpose of this instrument was to measure students' viewpoints on racism and evaluate academic competence, sensitivity to students, and instructional effectiveness between Black and White faculty. This evaluation form, SDO7, was developed by James Sidanius (1976). It was used initially to understand the structure of the labor market related to minorities in positions dominated by White males to evaluate racial discrimination in job performance (Sidanius, 1989).

This instrument has been used in multiple studies (Ho et al., 2009; Sidanius, 1989; Sidanius & Crane, 1989). Notably, Ho et al.'s (2009) study "Perceived Academic Competence and Overall Job Evaluations: Students' Evaluations of African American and European American Professors," from Harvard University, used this instrument to survey 3,123 White and 201 Black students who evaluated 120 White and 12 Black faculty members at the University of Texas at Austin. It was designed to examine student ratings of African American professors (Ho et al., 2009). This instrument focused on four significant subdimensions: (a) academic competence, (b) fairness in grades and assignments, (c) expectations in the course, and (d) sensitivity to students (Frey, 1978; Ho et al., 2009; Marsh & Overall, 1980). Research indicated that academic competence and sensitivity to students were the subdimensions mostly used and strongly correlated (Anderson, Alpert, & Golden, 1977; Ho et al., 2009; Sidanius, 1989; Sidanius & Crane, 1989).

Ho et al. found that Black faculty did not receive lower evaluations (2009). Furthermore, they asserted that possible stereotypes might have led students to evaluate Black faculty differently. The findings showed that White students emphasized academic competence more for Black faculty but felt that White faculty were more sensitive to the needs of students. However,

Black students emphasized academic competence for Black faculty as well and felt that White faculty were more sensitive to the needs of students (Ho et al., 2009).

When Ho et al. examined faculty's race, perceived academic competence, and student's implicit racism, they found that faculty race and perceived academic competence were the same across the dimensions of explicit racism for White students (2009). They also found that perceived academic competence had a strong positive effect on the global evaluation of teacher effectiveness on low-level anti-Black racism (Ho et al., 2009). Meanwhile, the degree of racism played a different role in evaluating White and Black faculty.

Ho et al.'s (2009) study was consistent with the findings of Sidanius's prior studies in 1989. Across the three evaluation dimensions of academic competence, sensitivity to students, and instructional effectiveness, Black faculty members scored higher. Thus, White and Black students placed more value on academic competence for Black faculty members (Ho et al., 2009). Both White and Black students felt that White faculty members were more sensitive to the needs of students (Ho et al., 2009).

The instrument was used in another study, "Racial Discrimination and Job Evaluation: The Case of University Faculty" (1989) by James Sidanius to examine institutional discrimination and in-group biases at the University of Texas at Austin. Sidanius distributed the SDO7 form to 5,665 randomly selected students who evaluated 163 faculty members in the spring of 1986 (Sidanius, 1989). It addressed academic competence, sensitivity to students, and the overall global evaluation of teaching effectiveness. Questions regarding academic competence asked if the instructor seemed well prepared for lectures or discussions, showed a scholarly grasp of the course material, demonstrated confidence before the class, maintained a focus on the subjects of the course, and used clear and relevant examples.

Sidanius (1989) asked questions related to sensitivity to students, who addressed whether the instructor seemed sensitive to their feelings and needs; made students feel comfortable about asking questions, disagreeing with them, and expressing their ideas; was accessible to students outside of class; seemed aware of students' understanding; and whether the students were satisfied in how they were evaluated in the course on a 5-point Likert scale similar to the competence scale.

Two additional statements addressed the overall global evaluation of teaching effectiveness. The survey asked the students to compare both high school and college courses to rate their course and instructor (Sidanius, 1989). Also, students' viewpoints on the racism scale were derived from the S6 Conservatism Scale used with Cronbach alpha score of .0.89. On a 5-point Likert scale, using (1) very positive, (2) positive, (3) uncertain or neutral, (4) negative, and (5) very negative, students were asked about their views on racial equality; a Black president of the US; Black neighbors; interracial dating; whether ethnic groups should stay in their place; if there are too many Blacks at the university; views on White superiority, a Black supervisor, and Mexican immigrants; and interracial marriage (Ho et al., 2009; Sidanius, 1976; Sidanius, 1989; Sidanius & Crane 1989).

Sidanius (1989) found that there were significant differences in teaching evaluations among the three subscales, but Black faculty did not receive the lowest evaluations. Faculty ethnicity was significantly related to their overall performances: Black faculty were found to receive the highest total for performance evaluations, especially from Black and European students. Hispanic faculty received the lowest global evaluations by Black students. However, there was no interaction effect on student ethnicity, faculty race, and racism (Sidanius, 1989).

The third study that used the same evaluation instrument was “Job Evaluation and Gender: The Case of University Faculty” by James Sidanius and Margaret Crane (1989) at a university in the Southwest. Sidanius and Crane (1989) explored if student evaluations were impacted by the faculty member’s gender. Over 9,000 students evaluated over 400 faculty members, focusing upon academic competence, sensitivity to students, and overall global evaluation of teaching effectiveness by gender. The authors asserted that academic competence and sensitivity to students’ needs were closely related to sex-role stereotypes and found that the faculty members’ gender and evaluation scores were related as well. Furthermore, female faculty members received lower global evaluations of teacher effectiveness and academic competence, while male faculty received lower ratings on sensitivity to students. The results showed that students’ expected grades, grade point average, faculty’s rank, number of students in the class, and the percentage of women faculty in the department had a significant impact on the global evaluation of teacher effectiveness (Sidanius & Crane, 1989).

According to Sidanius (1989), the construct validity of the latent dimensions showed that the two latent dimensions of sensitivity to students and competence were highly correlated,  $r = .76$ , and both were found to be strongly related to global evaluation. Academic competence had a gamma of  $.50$ . The data also disclosed that a good deal of the variance of the global evaluation of teacher effectiveness was explained in terms of the two exogenous factors: sensitivity to students and competence,  $r = .71$ . Altogether, the model showed high goodness of fit (Goodness of Fit Index =  $0.95$ ; RMS =  $0.039$ ) (Sidanius, 1989, pp. 227-228).

Moreover, the construct validity for the racism scale was assessed using seven different criteria: an index of political ideology, the student’s college of study, student’s sex, student’s ethnic group membership, student’s grade point average, student’s expected grade with the

course, and student's academic rank (Sidanius, 1989). The following were reported within the study: Political ideology self-description ( $F = -332.16, p < .001, \text{Eta} = .45$ ); college of study ( $F = 21.90, p < .01, \text{Eta} = .23$ ), student's sex ( $F = 96.08, p < .001, \text{Eta} = .13$ ), student's ethnic group ( $F = 52.75, p < .001, \text{Eta} = .24$ ), grade point average ( $F = 23.85, p < .01, \text{Eta} = .13$ ), expected grade ( $F = 12.66, p < .05, \text{Eta} = .10$ ), and student's rank ( $F = 23.46, p < .001, \text{Eta} = .15$ ). These findings were important because they assured construct validity (Sidanius & Crane, 1989). Thus, reliability and construct validity of all evaluative subdimensions were submitted to LISREL IV analysis and investigated for measurement and structural equation analyses, which resulted in the overall goodness of fit of .94 and adjusted goodness of fit of .90 (Sidanius & Crane, 1989).

The SDO7 instrument used in this current study consisted of 18 items and demographic questions related to student gender, student age, student race/ethnicity, student academic rank, faculty race, faculty gender, and course format or how the course was offered for the spring and summer 2021 semesters. The first portion of the evaluation form was the overall global evaluation of teacher effectiveness, known as instructional effectiveness. Participants were asked to rate their faculty and course as compared to high school and other college courses.

The second portion of the evaluation form was academic competence. It consisted of five questions in which participants were asked questions about their faculty members being well-prepared for class, showing a scholarly grasp of the material, showing confidence in front of the class, using relevant and clear examples, and keeping students focused on the subject matter (Ho et al., 2009).

The third portion of the evaluation form was sensitivity to students. It consisted of five questions. Participants were asked if their faculty members had been sensitive to the feelings and needs of their students; made students feel free to ask questions, disagree, and express ideas



freely; were accessible outside of class; seemed aware of students' understanding of the material; and were satisfied with how they were evaluated within the course (Ho et al., 2009).

The fourth portion pertained to the students' viewpoints on racism. It consisted of six questions. Students were asked about their feelings on racial statements: racial equality, Black neighbors, interracial dating as well as marriage, whether ethnic groups should stay in their place, and feelings regarding White superiority (Ho et al., 2009). Although used in previous studies, the racism scale was adopted from the S6 Conservatism Scale, a 36-item scale used to survey 783 Swedish high school students about their social status and political party preferences (Sidanius, Ekehammar, & Lukowsky, 1983).

#### **Four Subscales**

The three subscales'—academic competence and sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and racism—scores ranged on a 5-point Likert scales from 1 to 5.

**Academic competence and sensitivity to students.** The subscale for academic competence and sensitivity to students ranged from Definitely Yes to Definitely No. Responses are as follows: Definitely Yes = 1, Yes = 2, Uncertain or Neutral = 3, No = 4, and Definitely No = 5 (Ho et al., 2009). A 5-point Likert scale was also used for the global evaluation of teacher effectiveness (instructional effectiveness), ranging from One of the Best to Far Below Average. Responses are as follows: One on the Best = 1, Above Average = 2, Average = 3, Below Average = 4, and Far Below Average = 5 (Ho et al., 2009). Lastly, the racism scale used a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from Very Positive to Very Negative. Responses are as follows: Very Positive = 1, Positive = 2, Uncertain or Neutral = 3, Negative = 4, and Very Negative = 5 (Ho et al., 2009).

**Instructional effectiveness subscale.** A score of 1 for both questions on instructional effectiveness indicated the very best that the instructor and the course could score, while a score of 5 meant the worst instructor and course offered as compared to high school and college. The individual subscale scores that ranged from 2 to 4 indicated positive responses for the course and instructor compared to high school and college, while 8 to 10 indicated the opposite effect. In addition, students who indicated that they were uncertain were asked to explain why they were uncertain. Due to the coronavirus pandemic, students were offered courses in different formats: in person, online, or using a hybrid model (synchronous and asynchronous). Thus, some students were meeting during regular scheduled times online, using Zoom, in lieu of in-person instruction.

**Academic competence and sensitivity subscale.** In terms of the academic competence and sensitivity to students' subscale, responses of 1 indicated the instructor was academically competent and sensitive to the needs of their students; scores of 5 indicated the instructor was not academically competent and responsive to the needs of the students. Thus, the individual subscale scores ranging from 5 to 10 indicated more academic competence and sensitivity to students, whereas 20 to 25 indicated less academic ability and sensitivity to students. Scores of 15 were neutral or average for academic proficiency and responsiveness to students. An uncertain category was also added to this section for students who were unsure how to answer the question; however, it only applied to those with scheduled class meeting times.

**Racism subscale.** Viewpoints of racism scores varied on a scale from 1 to 5. A score of 1 or 2 indicated that those views were racist, whereas scores of 4 or 5 meant the respondent had a positive attitude and nonracist views. Students with a score of 3 indicated that they were indifferent or did not have an opinion. Higher scores on the racism scale meant that students were less likely to have racist viewpoints whereas those with lower scores on the racism scale

meant that students had negative feelings about having Blacks in the neighborhood, racial equality, interracial dating as well as marriage, about each racial or ethnic group staying in its own place, and having positive feelings about White superiority (Ho et al., 2009). Therefore, individual scores of 10 to 20 indicated students had more racist viewpoints, whereas scores of 40-50 indicated students with less racist views. Students within the 30 range were neutral.

### **Survey Administration**

The survey instrument, SDO7, was administered online in the Sociology and Psychology courses during the spring and summer semesters at University X either in person, virtually or using a hybrid format, using the Survey Monkey link (see Appendices H and I) that took no longer than 10 minutes to complete. In addition, it was administered on Prolific, an online advertisement survey site, using the same Survey Monkey link for Black and White students currently taking any course with a Black or White faculty member at Historically White Institutions in Southern states for Universities Y and Z. Online surveys protect the anonymity of participants. Additionally, the researcher scheduled Zoom meetings with faculty members who agreed to meet in order to discuss the details of the study and consent forms for University X prior to providing it to their students (see Appendices J and E).

To measure the reliability and validity of all the instruments, the author of the study ascertained and submitted to LISREL measurements and structural equation analysis (Sidanius, 1989). Using the latent dimensions of teaching evaluations yielded the following: item 1 = .80; item 2 = .77; item 3 = .78; item 4 = .67; item 5 = .76; item 6 = .82; item 7 = .71; item 8 = .61; item 9 = .77; item 10 = .66; item 11 = .88, and item 12 = .77 (Sidanius, 1989). Academic competence and sensitivity to students were .76, whereas academic competence to the global evaluations of teacher effectiveness was .50 (Sidanius, 1989). Sensitivity to students with global

evaluation of teacher effectiveness was .40 with a Goodness of Fit Index of .95 (Sidanius, 1989). The survey instrument, SDO7, has Cronbach alpha scores of .84 for global evaluation of teaching effectiveness referred to as instructional effectiveness, .84 for sensitivity to students, .87 for academic competence, and .85 for the racism scale (Ho et al., 2009).

The researcher emailed the creator of the SDO7 instrument, James Sidanius at Harvard University, asking for permission to use the SDO7 for this particular study. Dr. Sidanius granted permission to use it (see Appendix K). The researcher scored the SDO7 instrument and the demographic responses. Data was exported from Survey Monkey into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

### **Procedures**

Before starting this study, permission was granted by the SDO7 instrument's developer, James Sidanius (Appendix K). Approval was issued from Liberty's University Institutional Review Board to conduct the study for spring and summer 2021 semesters (see Appendix G). Three months before the study began, the researcher scheduled a Zoom meeting with the Department of Sociology at University X to discuss the purpose of the study, review the procedures, discuss the distribution of informational recruitment flyer and consent forms, provide a training date via Zoom, provide the survey link, reassure security of collected data and information in a locked and secure file cabinet and location, and distribute the researcher's contact information. Thus, participants were reminded that the survey data was confidential, and their anonymity was protected. Each participant was given a consent form before he or she participated in the study (see Appendix E) on the second page of the survey, and a screening survey (see Appendix C) was posted on the first page of the survey that listed the criteria for participating in the study:

- a) You must be a student who is 18 years of age or older.
- b) You must be a student enrolled in a semester-long, entry-level Sociology course.
- c) You must be a White or Black student.
- d) You must be taking that course with a Black or White faculty member.

However, within two months after gaining permission, there were low faculty member responses in distributing surveys to their students, so faculty members in Psychology; Criminology, Law, and Society; History and Art History; and African and African American Studies were invited to include their students in the study after reviewing the number of students enrolled within their classes. The criteria set for students participating in the study changed to:

- a) You must be a student who is 18 years of age or older.
- b) You must be enrolled in any course.
- c) You must be a White or Black student.
- d) You must be taking that course with a Black or White faculty member.

However, only Psychology faculty members responded. The researcher scheduled a Zoom meeting with these social science faculty members to discuss the components of the proposed study (see Appendices J), reviewed procedures, presented the distribution of recruitment flyer and consent forms information, provided the Institutional Review Boards' approval for University X and Liberty University to the participating departments, provided a different training date for faculty members, discussed the survey link as well as how the survey results would be secured in a locked file cabinet and location. Social science faculty members were also asked to talk with their students about the specifics of the study, distribute the informational recruitment flyers via email and the Survey Monkey link, and discuss the possibility of offering extra credit for students to complete the survey. The researcher also asked

faculty members to inform their students that the researcher would pay students \$5 for completing the survey, and one lucky student could win a \$100 Amazon Gift Card in the raffle drawing.

One month before the study, email reminders were sent to Sociology and Psychology faculty members regarding the purpose of the study, the recruitment flyer, the survey link, the timeline, and the possible training date depending on COVID-19 restrictions. The researcher continued to monitor the number of students enrolled within various Sociology and Psychology courses to possibly increase the survey response rate.

Two weeks before the study, the researcher communicated extensively with University X's faculty members in Sociology and Psychology and had 30-minute virtual Zoom trainings (see Appendix J) with faculty members who accepted the Google invite and were available to do those trainings amidst their time constraints. There was communication with others through emails for those who refused to participate in the 30-minute virtual Zoom training. The purpose of the study, informational recruitment flyer, researcher's contact information, collection dates, evaluation form, consent forms for all participants in the study, and link to Survey Monkey were addressed. Due to the coronavirus pandemic, no hard copies were mailed. Social science faculty members were reminded that all information was confidential and that there were no identifiers to their courses. Thus, their participation was voluntary, and anonymity was protected.

Sociology and Psychology faculty members at University X were required to provide the survey link in Survey Monkey, or the recruitment flyer that had the Survey Monkey link, within a university setting any time during the semester for spring and summer 2021 since there were limited in-person classes due to the pandemic. Students were instructed not to discuss the survey with other students. The researcher set dates for the survey. The online surveys entailed

participant demographic information, discussed the purpose the study, and provided instructions on how to complete the evaluation survey, SDO7, which rated instructors on a 5-point Likert scale for academic competence, sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and viewpoints on racism.

The online surveys had no identifiers to eliminate researcher bias and protect student anonymity. Sociology and psychology courses had no identifiers. Reminders were emailed before the study began with anticipated completion dates. Written directions were provided to instructors two weeks before the study (Appendix F) with attached recruitment flyer (Appendix D), consent forms (Appendix E), demographics questionnaire (Appendix H), surveys (Appendix I), IRB approvals (Appendices G and B) and researcher contact information. If there were any issues related to the study, follow-up sessions were scheduled.

Nine months into the study, data halted with only 75 respondents at University X even though the researcher paid for survey completion and offered a \$100 Amazon Gift Card to one lucky winner, as well as constantly emailing additional departments to participate within the study—to no avail. In response, Liberty's IRB recommended Prolific, an online advertisement survey platform, that offered a larger pool of possible participants. Therefore, the researcher contacted Prolific, created an account with the same criteria (using only Black and White students who were 18 years of age and older, currently enrolled in any course at Historically White Institutions in Southern states, and taught by a Black or White faculty member), using the same Survey Monkey link. Thus, payment for survey completion increased to \$10.00. When students used the Prolific site, they were directed to click the same Survey Monkey link in order to complete the survey. After receiving emails from students who had participated with the study who wanted an opportunity to win the Amazon Gift Card and collect their \$10.00 for completing

the survey, some students indicated which HWI they attended referred within the study as University Y and Z. Students' emails were separate from their responses.

### **Data Analysis**

Only Black and White students currently enrolled in any course that was taught by a Black or White faculty member for the spring and summer semesters at Historically White Institutions in Southern states completed the survey. Descriptive statistics, mean, and standard deviation were calculated for each subscale of the instrument. Students who participated in the study used the Survey Monkey link directly from Survey Monkey or from the Prolific website. Data was downloaded from the online survey tool, Survey Monkey, and entered into and analyzed in SPSS.

A two-way ANOVA was used to test the following null hypotheses that: (a) there is no significant difference in evaluations of academic competence scores for faculty based on their race and the race of the students as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions; (b) there is no significant difference in evaluations of sensitivity to students' scores for faculty based on their race and the race of the students as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions; (c) there is no significant difference in evaluations of instructional effectiveness scores for faculty based on their race and the race of the students as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions; and (d) there is no significant difference in students' viewpoints on racism based on their race and race of the faculty members as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions, assuming a medium effect size, .07 power, and an alpha level of .05 (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

A two-way ANOVA "compares the amount of between-groups variance in individuals' scores with the amount of within-group variance" (Gall et al., 2007, p. 318). Thus, the two-way



ANOVA was used to examine the interactions between the independent variables, faculty race and student race, and the dependent variables: academic competence, sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and viewpoints of racism. The researcher examined if the interaction effect determined whether the population means on the dependent variables among the levels of the first factor were the same across the second factor (Green & Salkind, 2017).

Moreover, the ANOVA compares subgroups that differ on multiple factors (Gall et al., 2007). When there is one dependent variable that is measured on a continuous level as well as two independent variables in which each independent variable consists of at least two categorical independent groups, then the ANOVA is appropriate to use (Gall et al., 2007). There was no relationship between the groups themselves. No participant was a member of both groups. Incomplete surveys and surveys by non-White or non-Black students and on non-White or non-Black faculty members were excluded from the analysis.

The two-way ANOVA has three assumption tests. Data obtained for the dependent variables—faculty academic competence, faculty sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and student viewpoints on racism—were screened for each group's dependent variable to determine if there were any data inconsistencies or extreme outliers present. Box and Whisker plots were used to observe any extreme outliers for each group (Gall et al., 2007; Green & Salkind, 2017).

The second assumption tested for normality. Since the sample population of 210 students was higher than 50, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov was used. The third assumption tested for equal variances, using Levene's test of equality of error variance to check for homogeneity of variance (Green & Salkind, 2017; Warner, 2013).

Once the three assumptions for a two-way ANOVA were deemed tenable, the researcher proceeded with the two-way ANOVA analysis with alpha set at  $p = .0125$  instead of the usual  $p = .05$  due to the need for a Bonferroni correction to guard against a Type 1 error. The Bonferroni procedure has advantages: It is less complicated and can be used in different situations, but runs a risk of having a small alpha level that could be statistically insignificant (Warner, 2013). Thus, the effect sizes were determined by eta squared.

## CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

### Overview

The purpose of this quantitative, non-experimental, causal-comparative research design was used to determine differences in students' evaluation scores between Black and White faculty as measured by faculty academic competence, sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and students' viewpoints on racism at public 4-year Historically White Institutions in Southern states. This chapter includes the results of the tests of assumptions. The results of the statistical analyses are shared with regard to a two-way ANOVA to examine the interactions between the independent variables, Black and White faculty race and Black and White student race, on the dependent variables: academic competence, sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness (overall global evaluation), and viewpoints of racism.

### Research Questions

The research questions for this study are:

**RQ1:** Is there a difference in evaluations of academic competence scores for faculty based on their race and the race of the students as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions?

**RQ2:** Is there a difference in evaluations of sensitivity to students' scores for faculty based on their race and the race of the students as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions?

**RQ3:** Is there a difference in evaluations of instructional effectiveness scores for faculty based on their race and the race of the students as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions?

**RQ4:** Is there is a difference in students' viewpoints on racism based on their race and race of the faculty member as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions?

### **Null Hypotheses**

The null hypotheses for this study are:

**H<sub>0</sub>1:** There is no difference in evaluations of academic competence scores for faculty based on their race and the race of the students as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions.

**H<sub>0</sub>2:** There is no difference in evaluations of sensitivity to students' scores for faculty based on their race and the race of the students as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions.

**H<sub>0</sub>3:** There is no difference in evaluations of instructional effectiveness scores for faculty based on their race and the race of the students as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions.

**H<sub>0</sub>4:** There is no difference in students' viewpoints on racism based on their race and race of the faculty member as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions.

### **Descriptive Statistics**

The descriptive statistics for the sample as a whole appear in Table 1. Instructional Effectiveness had a mean of 4.41 ( $SD = 1.52$ ), and scores ranged from 2.00 to 10.00 which indicated that students felt that the faculty and the college course as compared to high school instructors and other college courses were positive with a mean score of 4.41. Scores were based on the summation of responses for questions 1-2:

**Question 1:** Compared with all the instructors I have had, both in high school and in college, this instructor is\_\_\_\_\_.

**Question 2:** Compared with all the courses I have had, both in high school and in college, this course is\_\_\_\_\_.

Combined scores between 2-4 indicate positive responses for the instructor and course compared to high school and college courses while combined scores between 8-10 indicate negative responses regarding the instructor and course compared to high school and college with six (6) being average.

Academic Competence had a mean of 8.01 ( $SD = 2.94$ ), and scores ranged from 5.00 to 19.00 which indicated that majority of the faculty members were viewed as being academically competent with a score of 8.01. Scores were based on the summation of responses for questions 3-7 for academic competence:

**Question 3:** The instructor seems well prepared for the lecture or discussion.

**Question 4:** The instructor shows a scholarly grasp of the course material.

**Question 5:** The instructor shows confidence before the class.

**Question 6:** The instructor keeps lectures and class discussions focused on the subject of the course.

**Question 7:** The instructor uses clear and relevant examples.

Combined scores of 5-10 indicate that the faculty member was more academically competent while combined scores between 20-25 indicate that the faculty member was less academically competent with the score of 15 being neutral.

Sensitivity to Students had a mean of 9.41 ( $SD=3.60$ ), and scores ranged from 5.00 to 25.00 which indicated a mean that most students found the faculty member more sensitive to the needs of the students with the score of 9.41. Scores were based on the summation of responses for questions 8-12 for sensitivity of students:

**Question 8:** The instructor seems to be sensitive to the feelings and needs of the students.

**Question 9:** The instructor makes me feel free to ask questions, disagree, and express my ideas.

**Question 10:** The instructor is generally accessible to students outside of class.

**Question 11:** The instructor usually seems to be aware of whether the class was following the presentation with understanding.

**Question 12:** I am satisfied with the way the performance of students is evaluated in this course.

Combined scores of 5-10 indicate that the faculty member is more sensitive to the needs of students while combined scores between 20-25 indicate that the faculty member is less sensitive to the needs of the student with 15 being neutral.

Students' Viewpoints on Racism had a mean of 14.04 ( $SD = 2.63$ ), and scores ranged from 6.00 to 22.00 which indicated that students more racist viewpoints with a mean score of 14.04. Scores were based on the summation of responses for questions for viewpoints on racism:

**Question 13:** How do you feel about racial equality?

**Question 14:** How do you feel about having Black neighbors?

**Question 15:** How do you feel about interracial dating?

**Question 16:** How do you feel about each ethnic group staying in its own place?

**Question 17:** How do you feel about White superiority?

**Question 18:** How do you feel about interracial marriage?

Combined scores between 10-20 indicate that students have more racist viewpoints while combined scores between 40-50 indicate fewer racist viewpoints. A combined score of 30 indicate that the respondent is neutral or does not have an opinion.

Table 1

*Descriptive Statistics for the Sample (N = 210)*

Dependent Variables	Min	Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
Academic Competence	5.00	19.00	8.01	2.94	1.06	1.17
Sensitivity to Students	5.00	25.00	9.41	3.60	0.95	1.15
Instructional Effectiveness	2.00	10.00	4.41	1.52	0.18	-0.21
Students' Viewpoints on Racism	6.00	22.00	14.04	2.63	0.06	1.31

*Note.* S.E. for skewness was .16; S.E. for kurtosis was .33.

## Results

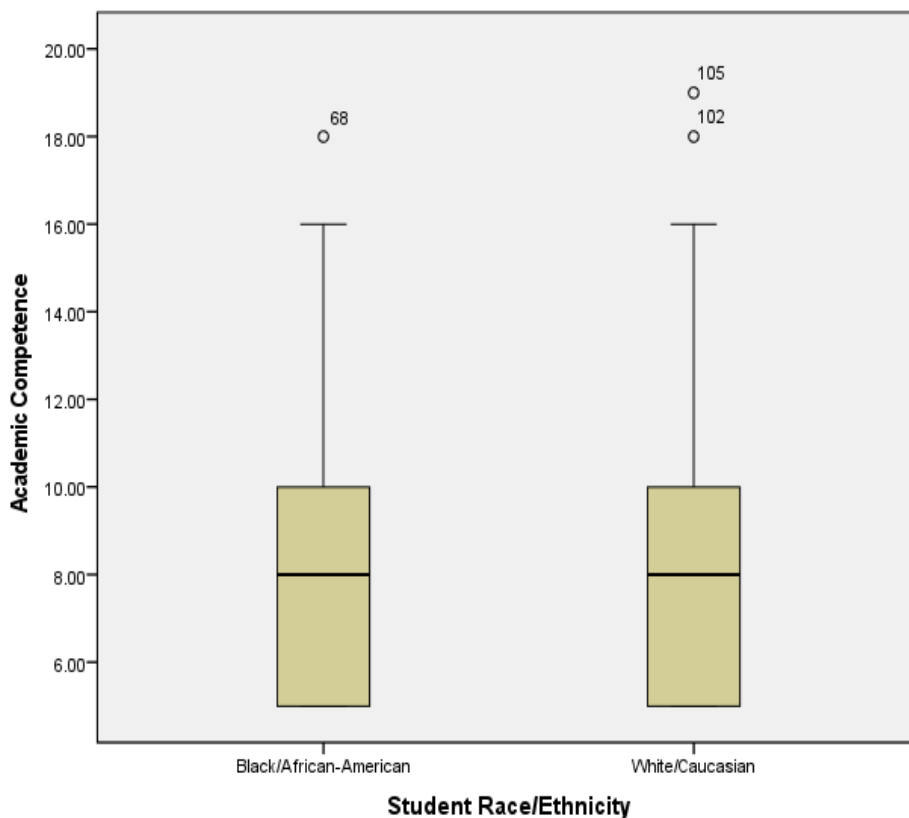
The results of the statistical analyses are presented with regard to a two-way ANOVA examining the interactions between variables. The independent variables were Black and White faculty race and Black and White student race. The dependent variables were academic competence, sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness (overall global evaluation), and viewpoints on racism.

### Assumption Tests

Data screening for the assumptions of ANOVA included examining the data for extreme outliers via Box and Whisker plots and standardized residuals, normality with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests and skewness and kurtosis values, and homogeneity of variance using Levene's test of equality of error variance. For the first assumption of a two-way ANOVA, it is required that the dependent variable be measured at ratio/interval level or continuous. This assumption was met because the dependent variables were continuous. The assumption of independence of observation requires that there be no relationship among the observations in each category for a group. This assumption was also met because each category of race/ethnicity for students and faculty had different participants based on their race of Black or White.

Box and Whisker plots were used for assessing outliers and data inconsistencies. There were a few outliers, but none of them had extreme values. The boxplots for each dependent

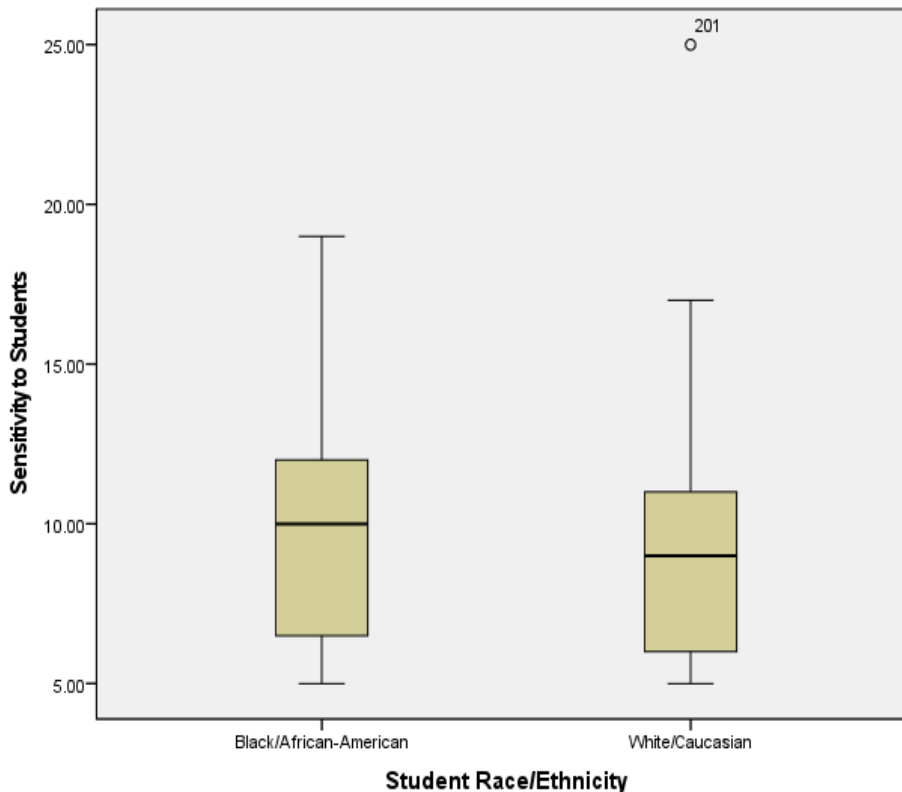
variable are presented in Figures 13, 14, 15, and 16. Figure 13 depicts Black/African-American and White/Caucasian students and academic competence scores. There are no bottom whiskers for White/Caucasian and Black/African American students' scores which indicate that the bottom 25% of the responses were all the same, therefore, 25% of academic competency scores were 5s.



*Figure 13.* Boxplot: Students' perceptions of faculty's academic competence by race/ethnicity.

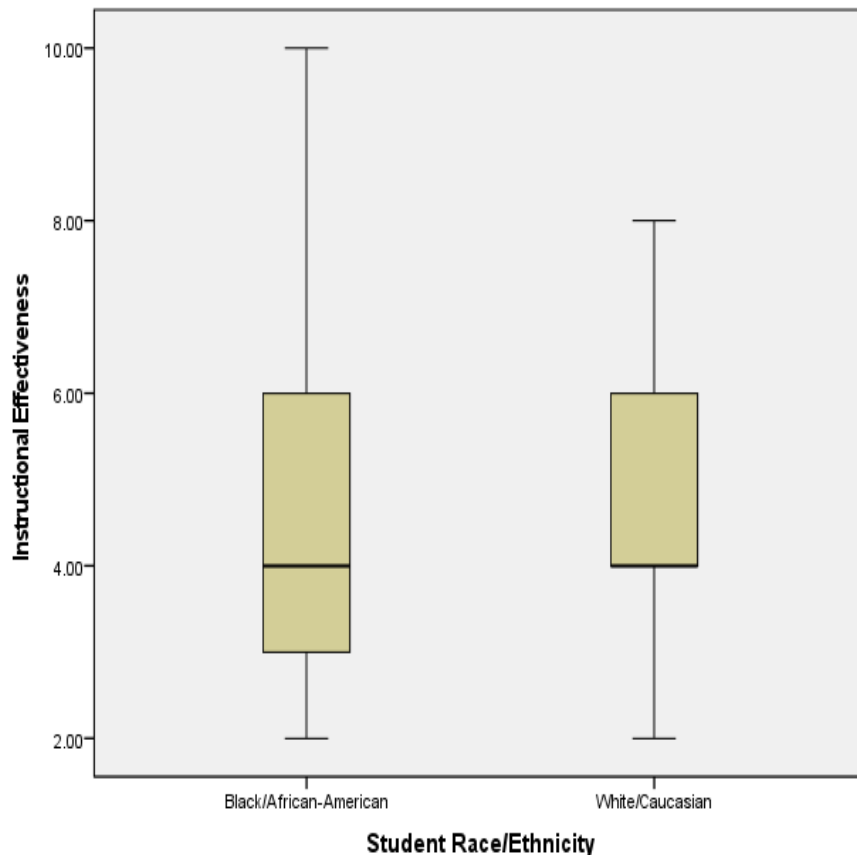
Figure 14 depicts Black/African-American and White/Caucasian students and sensitivity to students' scores. There is more variability among Black/African American students' scores in regards to faculty members' sensitivity to the needs of their students compared to their White/Caucasian counterparts. Both data, however, appear to be normally distributed.





*Figure 14.* Boxplot: Students' perceptions of faculty sensitivity to students by race/ethnicity.

Figure 15 depicts Black/African-American and White/Caucasian students and instructional effectiveness scores. There is much more variability in the instructional scores for Black/African-American students. The upper whisker (top 25% of the scores) are more spread out for Black/African American students. For White/Caucasian students' scores, the chart indicates that all values in between are the same data point. All responses appear to be the same as the median value.



*Figure 15.* Boxplot: Students' perceptions of instructional effectiveness by race/ethnicity.

Figure 16 depicts Black/African-American and White/Caucasian students and their viewpoints on racism scores. There is a significant difference overall in the variability among Black/African American students' scores in regards to how they responded to racial questions compared to White/Caucasian students' scores that have outliers in the lower and upper limits. However, both data sets appear normally distributed.

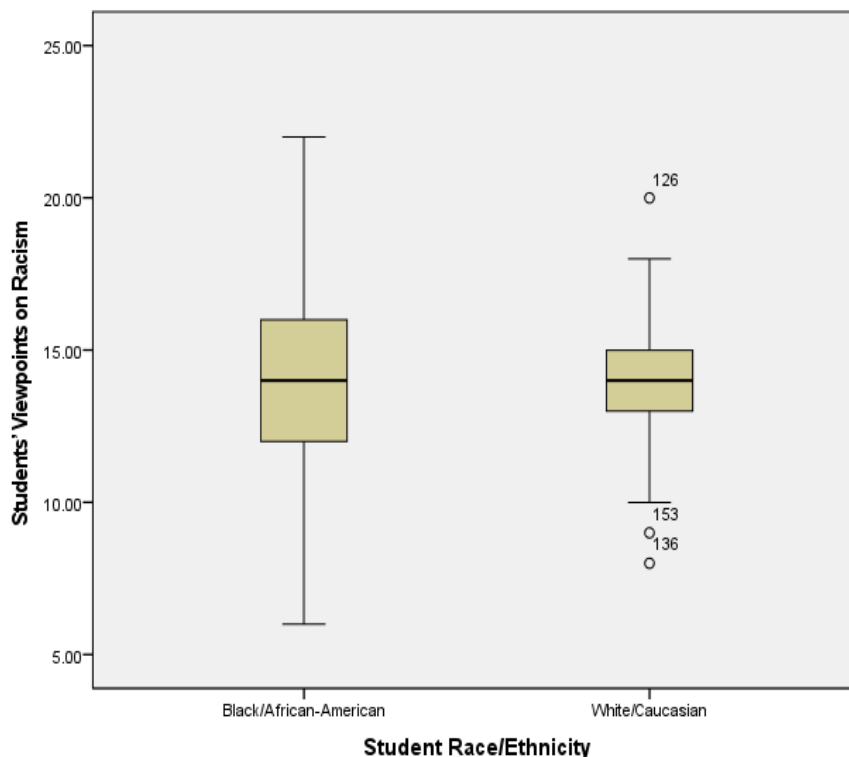


Figure 16. Boxplot: Students' viewpoints on racism by race/ethnicity.

Outliers were also assessed using case diagnostics. Cases with more or less than  $\pm 3$  for the standardized residuals are considered outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). For the dependent variables of academic competence, sensitivity to students, and instructional effectiveness, standardized residual values were greater than  $+3.3$ . In academic competence cases 105, 102, and 68 had standardized values of 3.96, 3.61, and 3.24 respectively. For sensitivity to students, case 201 had standardized value of 4.32 while instructional effectiveness and case 75 had standardized value of 3.52. The standardized residuals for viewpoints were less  $\pm 3$ . To check the influence of these values on the results, Cook's  $D$  values were examined for each dependent variable as calculated in regression. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2012), Cook's  $D$  values greater than 1 are potential problem. None of the Cook's  $D$  values for the dependent variables were more than 1. Hence, there was no undue influence of these cases on the results.

For the assumptions of normality, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used. As seen in Table 2, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov results were statistically significant, indicating deviation from normality. However, this test is sensitive to uneven sample sizes.

Table 2

*Kolmogorov-Smirnov Values for the Dependent Variables by Student and Faculty Race/Ethnicity*

Dependent Variable	Student Race/Ethnicity	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
		Statistic	df	p
Academic Competence	Black/African American	.155	91	.001
	White/Caucasian	.156	117	.001
Sensitivity to Students	Black/African American	.127	91	.001
	White/Caucasian	.140	117	.000
Instructional Effectiveness	Black/African American	.145	91	.000
	White/Caucasian	.168	117	.000
Students' Viewpoints on Racism	Black/African American	.113	91	.006
	White/Caucasian	.201	117	.000
	<u>Faculty Race/Ethnicity</u>			
Academic Competence	Black/African American	.206	85	.001
	White/Caucasian	.120	123	.001
Sensitivity to Students	Black/African American	.135	85	.001
	White/Caucasian	.125	123	.000
Instructional Effectiveness	Black/African American	.164	85	.000
	White/Caucasian	.152	123	.000
Students' Viewpoints on Racism	Black/African American	.152	85	.006
	White/Caucasian	.176	123	.000

As such, the examination of skewness and kurtosis values was also used to assess normal distribution. Kline (2015) recommended skewness values less than 3 and kurtosis value less than 10 as acceptable for the normality assumption (see Table 3). Based on Kline's recommendation, the data met the assumption of normality.

Table 3

*Skewness and Kurtosis Values for the Dependent Variables (N = 210)*

Dependent Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis
Academic Competence	1.06	1.17
Sensitivity to Students	0.95	1.15
Instructional Effectiveness	0.18	-0.21
Students' Viewpoints on Racism	0.06	1.31

*Note.* S.E. for skewness was .16 S.E. for kurtosis was .33.

The assumption of homogeneity of variances was met for the three dependent variables of academic competence, sensitivity to students, and instructional effectiveness (overall global evaluation). Levene's test of homogeneity of variance was  $F(3, 204) = 0.87, p = .45$  for academic competence,  $F(3, 204) = 2.25, p = .08$  for sensitivity to students, and  $F(3, 204) = 1.90, p = .13$  for instructional effectiveness (See Table 4). However, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not met for viewpoints on racism: Levene's test of homogeneity of variance was statistically significant for viewpoints on racism ( $F(3, 204) = 8.05, p = .001$ ). Given that ANOVA is robust to violations of normality, the researcher proceeded with the ANOVA for viewpoints on racism.

Table 4

*Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variance for the Dependent Variables*

Dependent Variable	Levene's Test of Homogeneity		
	of Variance ( <i>F</i> )	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Academic Competence	0.87	3, 204	.450
Sensitivity to Students	2.25	3, 204	.080
Instructional Effectiveness	1.90	3, 204	.130
Viewpoints on Racism	8.05	3, 204	.001

The assumptions were met, and the researcher proceeded with the two-way ANOVA analysis with alpha set at  $p = .0125$  instead of the usual  $p = .05$  due to a Bonferroni correction.

**Null Hypothesis 1: Academic Competence**

The null hypothesis for RQ1 was there is no difference in *evaluations of academic competence scores* for faculty based on *their race* and the *race of the students* as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions.

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to test this hypothesis. The descriptive statistics for academic competency by student and faculty race/ethnicity can be found in Table 5. As seen in Table 6, the interaction between race of student and race of faculty was not statistically significant,  $F(1,204) = 1.65, p = .20$ . The interaction is plotted in Figure 17. Given the Bonferroni correction of  $p = .0125$ , there was no statistically significant main effect for race of faculty,  $F(1,204) = 5.39, p = .02$  or race of student,  $F(1,204) = 0.039, p = .84$ . The effect size was small ( $\eta^2 = .00$ ) for student race, small ( $n^2 = .02$ ) for faculty race, and small ( $\eta^2 = .008$ ) for the interaction between faculty and student race. Cohen (1988) classified effect sizes as follows: (a)  $n^2 = 0.01$  indicates a small effect,  $n^2 = 0.06$  indicates a medium effect, and (c)  $n^2 = 0.14$  indicates a large effect. Hence, the researcher fails to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference

in evaluations of academic competence scores for faculty based on their race and the race of the students as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions.

Table 5

*Descriptive Statistics for Academic Competency by Student and Faculty Race/Ethnicity*

Student Race/Ethnicity	Faculty Race/Ethnicity	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
Black/African American	Black/African American	7.26	2.56	46
	White/Caucasian	8.78	3.12	45
	Total	8.01	2.93	91
White/Caucasian	Black/African American	7.72	3.47	39
	White/Caucasian	8.15	2.72	78
	Total	8.00	2.98	117
Total	Black/African American	7.47	3.00	85
	White/Caucasian	8.38	2.87	123
	Total	8.00	2.95	208

Table 6

*Two-Way ANOVA Statistics for Academic Competence*

Predictors	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	Partial $\eta^2$
Corrected Model	57.28	3	19.10	2.3	.080	.030
Intercept	12354.29	1	12354.29	1439.58	.001	.880
Student Race	.34	1	.34	.039	.843	.000
Faculty Race	46.27	1	46.27	5.39	.021	.020
Student Race X Faculty Race	14.18	1	14.18	1.65	.200	.008
Error	1750.69	204	8.58			
Total	15152.00	208				
Corrected Total	1807.98	207				

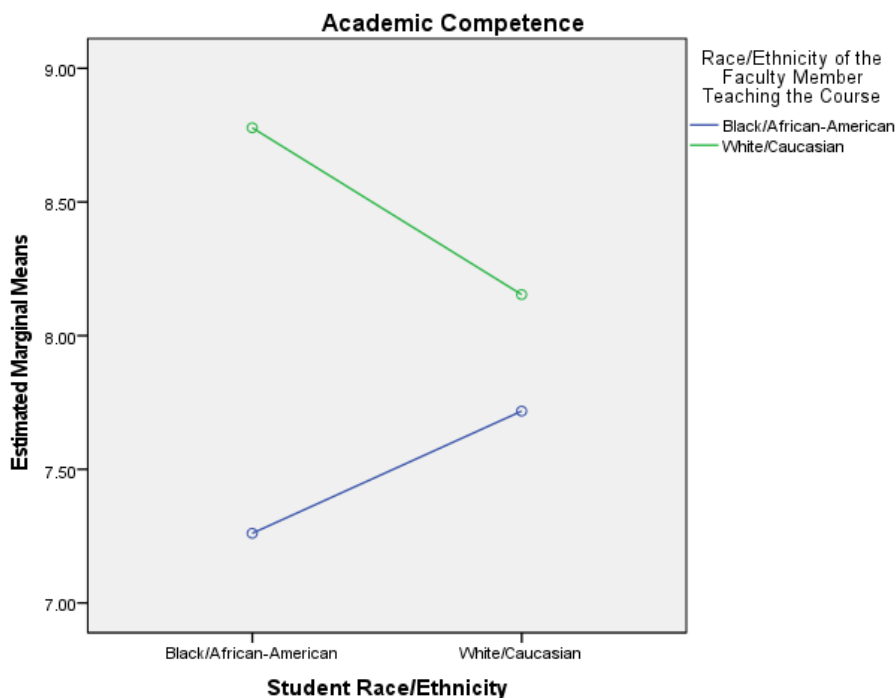


Figure 17. Plotted estimated marginal means for academic competence.

### Null Hypothesis 2: Sensitivity to Students

The null hypothesis for RQ2 was that there is no difference in *evaluations of sensitivity to students' scores* for faculty based on *their race* and the *race of the students* as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions.

A two-way analysis of variance was conducted to explore this hypothesis. The descriptive statistics for sensitivity to students by student and faculty race/ethnicity can be found in Table 7. As seen in Table 8, the interaction between student and faculty race was statistically significant,  $F(1,204) = 8.94, p < .01$ . The interaction is plotted in Figure 18. White faculty/Black students had a higher mean score ( $M = 11.40, SD = 4.14$ ) than White faculty/White students ( $M = 9.22, SD = 3.44$ ). In addition, Black faculty/White students had a higher mean score ( $M = 8.97, SD = 3.41$ ) than Black faculty/Black students ( $M = 8.17, SD = 2.79$ ).



There was also statistically significant main effect for race of faculty,  $F(1,204) = 12.10$ ,  $p < .01$ . On average, White faculty had higher mean for sensitivity to students' scores ( $M = 10.01$ ,  $SD = 3.82$ ) than Black faculty ( $M = 8.54$ ,  $SD = 3.09$ ). Per Cohen, there was a medium effect size ( $\eta^2 = .06$ ). Hence, the researcher rejects the null hypothesis that there is no difference in evaluations of sensitivity to students' scores for faculty based on their race and the race of the students as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions.

Table 7

*Descriptive Statistics for Sensitivity to Students by Student and Faculty Race/Ethnicity*

Student Race/Ethnicity	Faculty Race/Ethnicity	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
Black/African American	Black/African American	8.17	2.79	46
	White/Caucasian	11.40	4.14	45
	Total	9.76	3.86	91
White/Caucasian	Black/African American	8.97	3.41	39
	White/Caucasian	9.22	3.44	78
	Total	9.13	3.41	117
Total	Black/African American	8.54	3.09	85
	White/Caucasian	10.01	3.84	123
	Total	9.41	3.62	208

Table 8

*Two-Way ANOVA Statistics for Sensitivity to Students*

Predictor	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	Partial $\eta^2$
Corrected Model	258.76	3	86.25	7.14	.001	.09
Intercept	17304.51	1	17304.51	1434.03	.001	.87
Student Race	23.16	1	23.16	1.92	.167	.01
Faculty Race	146.06	1	146.06	12.10	.001	.06
Student Race X Faculty Race	107.92	1	107.92	8.94	.003	.04
Error	2461.68	204	12.07			
Total	21152.00	208				
Corrected Total	2720.44	207				

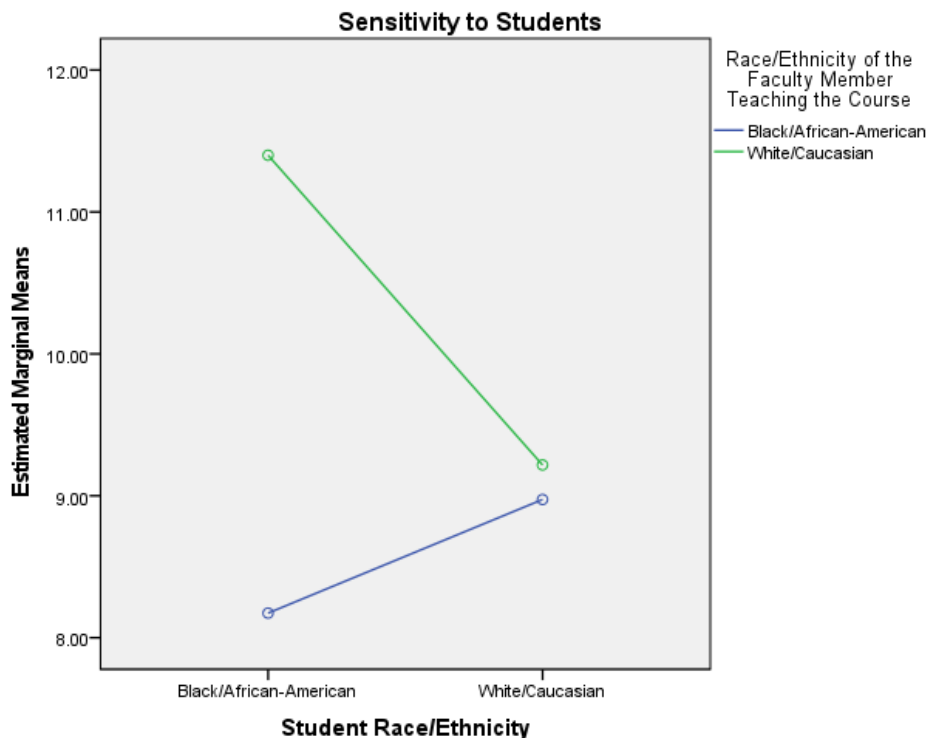


Figure 18. Plotted estimated marginal means for sensitivity to students.

### Null Hypothesis 3: Instructional Effectiveness

The null hypothesis for RQ3 was that there is no difference in *evaluations of instructional effectiveness scores* for faculty based on *their race* and the *race of the students* as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions.

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to explore this hypothesis. The descriptive statistics for instructional effectiveness by student and faculty race/ethnicity can be found in Table 9. As seen in Table 10, the interaction between race of student and race of faculty was statistically significant,  $F(1,204) = 8.64, p < .01$ . The interaction is plotted in Figure 19.

White faculty/Black students had a higher mean score ( $M = 4.96, SD = 1.77$ ) than White faculty/White students ( $M = 4.23, SD = 1.48$ ). In addition, Black faculty/White students had a higher mean score ( $M = 4.62, SD = 1.31$ ) than Black faculty/Black students ( $M = 4.04, SD = 1.39$ ).

There were no statistically main effects for race of students,  $F(1,204) = .08, p = .76$ ) or race of faculty ( $F(1,204) = 1.64, p = .20$ ). However, the null hypothesis is rejected as the interaction between race of student and race of faculty was statistically significant because there is a difference in evaluations of instructional effectiveness scores for faculty based on their race and the race of the students by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions.

Table 9

*Descriptive Statistics for Instructional Effectiveness by Student and Faculty Race/Ethnicity*

Student Race/Ethnicity	Faculty Race/Ethnicity	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
Black/African American	Black/African American	4.04	1.39	46
	White/Caucasian	4.96	1.77	45
	Total	4.49	1.64	91
White/Caucasian	Black/African American	4.62	1.31	39
	White/Caucasian	4.23	1.48	78
	Total	4.37	1.43	117
Total	Black/African American	4.30	1.38	85
	White/Caucasian	4.51	1.62	123
	Total	4.42	1.52	208

Table 10

*Two-Way ANOVA Statistics for Instructional Effectiveness*

Predictors	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	Partial $\eta^2$
Corrected Model	22.99	3	7.66	3.399	.019	.048
Intercept	3874.73	1	3874.73	1718.630	.000	.890
Student Race	.19	1	.19	.090	.768	.000
Faculty Race	3.71	1	3.71	1.650	.201	.010
Student Race X Faculty						
Race	19.60	1	19.60	8.690	.004	.040
Error	459.93	204	2.25			
Total	4561.00	208				
Corrected Total	482.91	207				

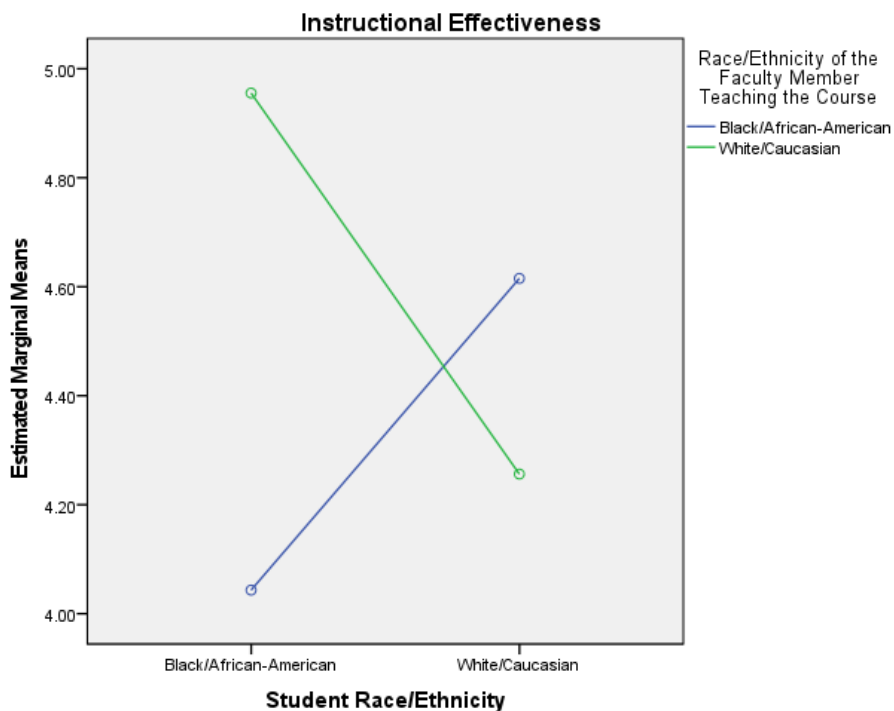


Figure 19. Plotted estimated marginal means for instructional effectiveness.

#### Null Hypothesis 4: Students' Viewpoints on Racism

The null hypothesis for RQ4 was that there is no difference in *students' viewpoints on racism* based on *their race* and *race of the faculty member* as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions. A two-way ANOVA was conducted to explore this hypothesis. The descriptive statistics for students' viewpoints on racism by student and faculty race/ethnicity can be found in Table 11. As seen in Table 12, the interaction between race of student and race of faculty was not statistically significant,  $F(1,204) = 2.30$ ,  $p = .13$ . The interaction is plotted in Figure 20.

There were no statistically significant main effects for race of students ( $F(1,204) = 0.012$ ,  $p = .91$ ) or race of faculty ( $F(1,204) = 3.21$ ,  $p = .07$ ). The effect size was small ( $\eta^2 = .00$ ) for student race, small ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ) for faculty race, and small ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ) for the interaction between faculty and student race. The researcher fails to reject null hypothesis that there is no difference

in students' viewpoints on racism based on their race and race of the faculty member as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions as given the lack of statistically significance that the main effects of faculty viewpoints on racism, students' viewpoints on racism, and the interaction between student and faculty viewpoints on racism.

Table 11

*Descriptive Statistics for Students' Viewpoints on Racism by Student and Faculty Race/Ethnicity*

Student Race/Ethnicity	Faculty Race/Ethnicity	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
Black/African American	Black/African American	13.36	3.22	46
	White/Caucasian	14.60	3.22	45
	Total	13.97	3.26	91
White/Caucasian	Black/African American	13.97	1.84	39
	White/Caucasian	14.07	2.02	78
	Total	14.04	1.95	117
Total	Black/African American	13.64	2.68	85
	White/Caucasian	14.26	2.52	123
	Total	14.01	2.60	208

Table 12

*Two-Way ANOVA Statistics for Students' Viewpoints on Racism*

Source	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	Partial $\eta^2$
Corrected Model	34.92	3	11.64	1.73	.16	.02
Intercept	38076.02	1	38076.02	5686.19	.000	.96
Student Race	.08	1	.08	.01	.913	.00
Faculty Race	21.56	1	21.56	3.22	.074	.02
Student Race X Faculty Race	15.43	1	15.43	2.30	.131	.01
Error	1366.03	204	6.69			
Total	42253.00					
Corrected Total	1400.95					

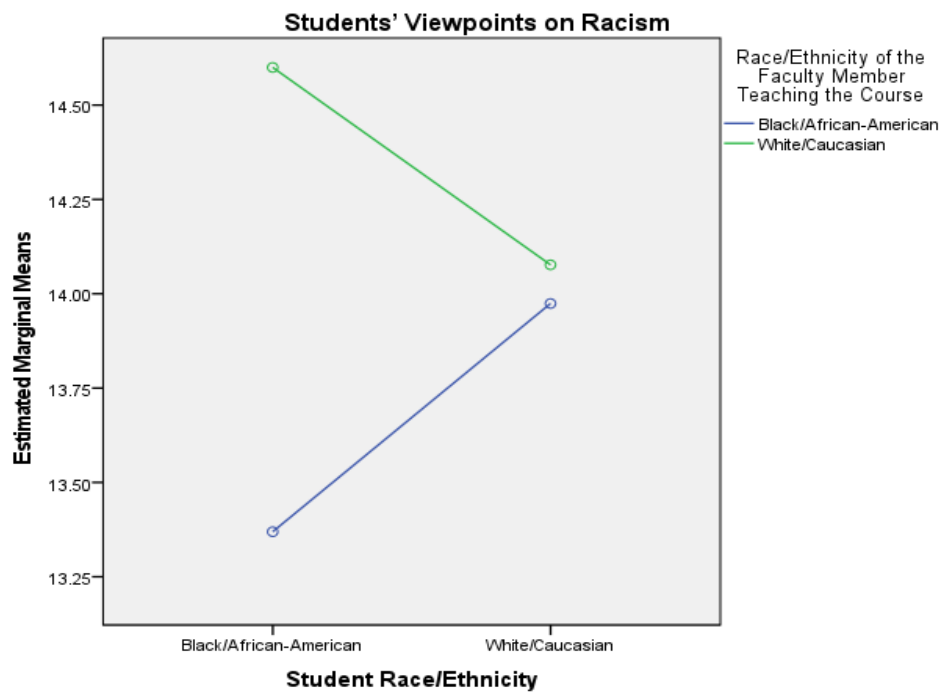


Figure 20. Plotted estimated marginal means for students' viewpoints on racism.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS**

### **Overview**

A quantitative, nonexperimental, causal-comparative study was conducted to determine differences in students' evaluation scores between Black/African American and White/Caucasian faculty members as measured by faculty academic competence, sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and students' viewpoints on racism at public Historically White Institutions in Southern states. This chapter discusses the findings of this study, implications, delimitations, limitations, and recommendations for future research.

### **Discussion**

The purpose of the study was to investigate differences in students' evaluation scores between Black/African American and White/Caucasian faculty as measured by their ratings on faculty academic competence, sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and student viewpoints on racism as measured by the SDO7 based upon the race of the student and race of the faculty member at public research Historically White Institutions in Southern states. There were 210 Black/African American and White/Caucasian undergraduate and graduate student respondents between the ages of 18 and older, in various majors, academic ranks, and gender categories, using online, in-person, and hybrid learning models who evaluated only Black/African American and White/Caucasian faculty members.

There is very little research regarding student evaluations of faculty members based upon race (Littleford & Jones, 2017; Parker & Neville, 2019; Ray et al., 2018; Williams, 2019). The majority of the faculty evaluations studied have been from faculty members' viewpoints themselves, not from the students' perspectives (Haynes et al., 2018). Furthermore, research stated that the role that race plays throughout student evaluations were done by using fictitious

professors, hypothetical curriculum vitae, photos, but not by actual professors within a university setting (Aruguete et al., 2017; Bavishi et al., 2010; Chatelain, 2015; Mendez & Mendez, 2015; Smith & Anderson, 2005; Smith & Hawkins, 2011).

Critical race theory has served as the theoretical framework for this study and contends that racism is normal in everyday society, rejects inferiority of underserved groups, and continually works toward exposing racial inequities (Dixson & Anderson, 2018). From the standpoint of CRT, this study was designed to examine if any racial inequities exist between Black/African American and White/Caucasian faculty evaluation scores in academic competence, institutional effectiveness, and sensitivity to students. Thus, this study examined whether students' viewpoints of racism played a factor in how they evaluated Black/African American and White/Caucasian faculty members.

### **Research Question One: Academic Competence**

The first research question addressed if there was a difference in students' evaluation scores for academic competence for faculty based on their race and race of the students as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions. To measure academic competence as a dependent variable, 210 undergraduate and graduate respondents from Historically White Institutions in Southern states from various majors, ages, academic ranks, and different gender categories were surveyed. The results showed that there was no effect in evaluation of academic competence scores for faculty based on their race and the race of the students. In addition, there was no significant main effect for race of the faculty,  $F(1,204) = 5.39, p = .02$  or race of the students,  $F(1,204) = 0.039, p = .84$  with a small effect size of  $\eta^2 = .026$ . Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis that there was no significant difference of academic competence scores for faculty based on their race and the race of the students.



Within this study, critical race theory (CRT) explored if racial inequities existed between Black/African American and White/Caucasian faculty at Historically White Institutions. Research has reported that Black/African American faculty scholarship has not been valued (Bernal & Villalpando, 2002) as the institutions of higher education were not designed for students or faculty of color (Tuitt, Haynes, & Stewart, 2018). Moreover, according to CRT, institutions of higher education perpetuate curriculum, policies, and research that are grounded in White supremacy, also not meant for faculty of color (Haynes & Bazner, 2019).

Research has shown that Black faculty were perceived as being less academically competent than White faculty (Aruguete et al., 2017; Croom, 2017; Denson et al., 2018). It was consistent within this study. Furthermore, the mean scores varied among White/Caucasian students evaluating White/Caucasian faculty members ( $M = 8.15$ ) compared to Black/African-American faculty members ( $M = 7.72$ ). Moreover, Black/African-American students who evaluated White/Caucasian faculty members had the highest mean score of  $M = 8.78$  compared to Black/African-American students who evaluated Black/African-American faculty members with a mean score of  $M = 7.26$ .

### **Research Question Two: Sensitivity to Students**

The second research question addressed whether there was a difference in students' evaluation scores in sensitivity to students for faculty based on their race and race of the students as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions. To measure sensitivity to students as a dependent variable, 210 undergraduate and graduate respondents from Historically White Institutions in Southern states from various majors, ages, academic ranks, and different gender categories were surveyed. The results showed that there was no effect of evaluations of sensitivity to students' scores for the race of the students. However, the interaction between

student and faculty race was statistically significant,  $F(1,204) = 8.94, p < .01$  with a medium effect size  $\eta^2 = .06$ . Furthermore, there was a statistically main effect for race of faculty,  $F(1,204) = 12.10, p < .01$ . Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected that there was no significant difference of sensitivity to students' scores for faculty based on their ace and race of the students.

Student–faculty interactions are important; nevertheless, it has been reported that faculty of color have experienced negative interactions from White students (Cody, 2017). Critical race theory contends that racism is embedded within our society, social structures, and behaviors (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). The findings within the current study were consistent with prior studies that showed that White students emphasized that White faculty were more sensitive to the needs of students compared to Black faculty (Sidanius, 1976; Sidanius, 1989; Sidanius & Crane, 1989). In addition, there was a difference in mean scores related to sensitivity of students' scores regarding White faculty ( $M = 10.01$ ) with a higher mean compared to Black faculty ( $M = 8.54$ ). Both Black and White students had higher mean scores for White faculty ( $M = 11.40, M = 9.22$ , respectively).

### **Research Question Three: Instructional Effectiveness**

The third research question addressed whether there was a difference in students' evaluation scores in instructional effectiveness for faculty based on their race and race of the students as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions in Southern states. To measure instructional effectiveness as a dependent variable, 210 undergraduate and graduate respondents from Historically White Institutions in Southern states from various majors, ages, academic ranks, and different gender categories were surveyed. The results showed that there was an interaction between race of the student and race of the faculty,  $F(1,204) = 8.69, p < .01$  with a medium effect size  $\eta^2 = .04$ . Therefore, the researcher rejected the null hypothesis that

there was no difference in evaluation scores of instructional effectiveness for faculty based on their race and the race of the students by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions. In addition, this study has shown that Black/African American students who evaluated White faculty had a higher mean score ( $M = 4.96$ ) than Black/African American students who evaluated Black/African American faculty ( $M = 4.04$ ). Thus, White/Caucasian students who evaluated Black/African American faculty had a mean score of  $M = 4.62$  compared to White/Caucasian faculty  $M = 4.23$ .

Furthermore, Black faculty have been portrayed negatively in images (McGee & Kazembe, 2016), and their research has been regarded as trivial and discounted (Croom, 2017; Johnson et al., 2018). Critical race theory asserts that institutions of higher education often oppress faculty of color (Solorzano & Yosso, 2002a) and do not grant them the same opportunities offered to White faculty (Levin et al., 2014; Martinez et al., 2017). However, the findings were consistent with prior studies that Black faculty had the highest total performance evaluations, especially from White/Caucasian students (Sidanius, 1976; Sidanius, 1989; Sidanius & Crane, 1989). Thus, Black students and White faculty had a higher mean ( $M = 4.96$ ) compared to Black students and Black faculty ( $M = 4.04$ ). In addition, White students and Black faculty also had a higher mean ( $M = 4.62$ ) compared to White students and White faculty ( $M = 4.23$ ).

#### **Research Question Four: Viewpoints on Racism**

The fourth research question addressed whether there was a difference in students' viewpoints on racism based on their race and the race of the faculty member as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions. To measure students' viewpoints on racism as a dependent variable, 210 undergraduate and graduate respondents from Historically White Institutions in Southern states from various majors, ages, academic ranks, and different gender

categories were surveyed. The results showed that there was no interaction between race of students ( $F(1,204) = 0.01, p = .91$ ) or race of faculty ( $F(1,204) = 3.22, p = .07$ ) with a small effect size for race of student ( $\eta^2 = .00$ ) and race of faculty ( $\eta^2 = .02$ ). Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis that there was no difference in students' viewpoints on racism based on their race and race of the faculty member as measured by the SDO7 at Historically White Institutions.

According to CRT, Whiteness is the dominate paradigm in higher education institutions (Patton & Bondi, 2015). To alleviate racial inequities, it is imperative to understand the role of race and racism within these institutions (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995). However, the findings were not consistent with the literature that stated students' viewpoints on racism impacted how they evaluated Black/African American and White/Caucasian faculty (Wood et al., 2017). Within this study, students' viewpoints on racism did not impact how they evaluated Black and White faculty. Moreover, the mean score for Black/African American students' viewpoints of racism who evaluated White/Caucasian faculty was the highest ( $M = 14.60$ ), and White/Caucasian students who evaluated White/Caucasian faculty had a mean score of  $M = 14.07$ , followed by White/Caucasian students' viewpoints on racism who evaluated Black/African American faculty ( $M = 13.97$ ) compared to Black/African American students who evaluated Black/African American faculty ( $M = 13.36$ ).

### **Implications**

The first implication of this study is to provide Black faculty members who desire to work at Historically White Institutions with valuable knowledge of what they could experience as a faculty member within a department and how they could be evaluated differently than White faculty based upon race. There is a plethora of literature regarding what faculty members feel

about the evaluative process (Aruguete et al., 2017; Basow et al., 2013; Chan et al., 2014; Howard-Baptiste & Harris, 2014).

The second implication of this study is to provide university administrators and departmental chairs with valuable knowledge as to what Black/African American faculty members could experience. This study can provide insight to how Black/African American faculty members could be affected by negative interactions and evaluations from students and other faculty, which could impact their ability to perform the essential duties of their position. Furthermore, due to the lack of Black faculty members employed at Historically White Institutions (Comer et al., 2017; Jayakumar et al., 2016), there is a need to provide mentorship and support so they can feel valued, respected, and heard.

The third implication of this study is that it takes a broader look at the purpose of faculty evaluations and explores whether they provide what they are intended to. Evaluations do not necessarily improve instructional practices, and the results could be more personal in nature. Hence, the main of purpose of this study was to address the gap in literature regarding whether students evaluate Black/African American and White/Caucasian faculty members differently, which could impact Black/African American faculty members' opportunities to gain tenure, possibly expose them to a toxic work environment, and could cause mental, psychological, and physiological stressors in their daily lives (Croom, 2017; Jones et al., 2016).

### **Delimitations**

The first delimitation is the population which was chosen. Due to the fact that there is very little research that evaluates Black and White faculty within a university setting from the standpoint of the students (Parker & Neville, 2019; Williams, 2019), this research was necessary to address that gap in literature. Focusing on Historically White Institutions allowed the

researcher to examine if there were discrepancies in academic competence, instructional effectiveness, and sensitivity to students between Black and White students in how faculty were evaluated which could affect their ability to attain tenure and receive promotions.

The second delimitation is that closed-ended questions were chosen instead of open-ended questions already created by Dr. James Sidanius in prior studies from Harvard University. The survey questionnaire allowed the researcher to collect data that was not observable (Gall et al., 2007). Although open-ended questions would have provided more detailed information as to why students evaluated Black and White faculty members differently, a closed-ended questionnaire, using the Survey Monkey link, provided more convenience for faculty and students as faculty reported that the pandemic created time constraints.

The third delimitation was using another survey platform, Prolific, an online advertisement survey platform. Gall et al. (2007) stated that the appropriate participant population for a two-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is 126, assuming a medium effect size, .7 power, and an alpha level of  $p = .05$  to increase the probability of achieving statistical significance results and reducing a Type 1 error. However, the researcher used the Bonferroni correction of  $p = .0125$  to minimize a Type 1 error. Nonetheless, to accomplish this goal, 35 White students needed to evaluate White faculty, 35 White students needed to evaluate Black faculty, 35 Black faculty needed to evaluate White faculty, and 35 Black students needed to evaluate Black faculty. Data stalled at 75 respondents; therefore, the researcher needed to add the Prolific platform to gain more participants.

The fourth delimitation was using critical race theory as the theoretical framework to show any racial inequities in academic competence, instructional effectiveness, and sensitivity to students at Historically White Institutions in Southern states. Even though some differences were

revealed in academic competence and sensitivity to students, critical race theory would have been more useful in a qualitative study where the participants could have explained in more detail the discrepancies that exist and why. Thus, a theory that addresses resilience (Yates, Tyrell, & Masten, 2015) and challenges of systematic racism, daily microaggressions, and racial battle fatigue of Black faculty at Historically and Predominantly White Institutions would provide greater insight because critical race theory shows the discrepancies but does little to address them (Cabrera, 2018; Ledesma & Calderon, 2015)

### **Limitations**

There are several limitations within this study. One limitation is data collection. The COVID-19 pandemic limited access to being able to gather data from various Historically White Institutions to examine if academic competence, instructional effectiveness, and sensitivity to students were evaluated differently for Black and White faculty members. It would have been more beneficial for the researcher to present the study in person to faculty members and students, to address their questions and concerns directly, instead of using the Prolific and Survey Monkey websites that could pose a threat to internal validity due to the selection of the participants and maturation throughout the courses (Creswell & Creswell, 2014). Furthermore, with the ability to visit the universities, students and faculty members would have been less likely to decline participation within the study and would have been more reassured that none of their information would be shared as confidentiality and anonymity were protected for the entire study.

The second limitation to the study is that all of the respondents may not have been randomly selected. The main reason in selecting a random sample is to collect data that can be generalized to a larger population (Gall et al., 2007). Due to the fact that faculty members introduced the study to their students, it is a possibility that students who were not Black or

White participated within the study at University X. Moreover, Universities Y's and Z's students were paid to complete the questionnaire, so it is possible that they did not meet the criteria to participate in the study such as being 18 years old and older, a Black or White student, currently enrolled in any course at a Historically White Institution in Southern states, and that course must be taught by a Black or White faculty member.

The third limitation is the low response rate for Black/African American students. Gaining higher response rates is the goal for all researchers. Thus, higher response rates depend upon trust and rewards provided by the researcher to the respondent (Saleh & Bista, 2017). In an attempt to gain better response rates, surveys were sent to faculty members before the study started, emails were sent out as reminder for faculty members, students were paid to complete surveys, and the Prolific platform was added. However, during the time in which the study was being conducted, the country was experiencing ongoing police brutality against Black/African American citizens, the killing of George Floyd shown publicly, and a cry for social justice. Low response rates could be attributed to Black students' fear of negative consequences associated with participating in the study such as receiving failing grade or retaliation from White faculty members. Also, White/Caucasian students could have been reluctant to participate due to the ongoing racial sentiment within the country or out of fear of being regarded as racist.

### **Recommendations for Future Research**

The results of the study revealed that there were some differences in how Black/African American and White/Caucasian faculty members were evaluated in terms of sensitivity to students and instructional effectiveness. Based upon the results of the study and limitations, recommendations for future research include:



1. Future studies should be conducted in person, not virtually. In order to gain a better understanding from students regarding how they evaluate Black/African American and White/Caucasian faculty members, it is imperative for the researcher to develop a positive and trusting relationship with students and to be able to answer any questions related to the study directly and immediately.
2. A qualitative study is recommended to gain better insight into why students evaluate Black/African American and White/Caucasian faculty members differently. Such research could provide for personal reflection, and a way for students to openly discuss factors used in evaluating their current faculty members. A more detailed discussion about the role race plays in student evaluations is warranted.
3. This study should be expanded to Historically White Universities within different regions, not just in Southern states. It would be beneficial to explore how Black/African American and White/Caucasian students evaluate Black/African American and White/Caucasian faculty from various geographical regions with different norms, cultures, and traditions could affect how students look at race of a faculty member.

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**APPENDICES**

**APPENDIX A: Permission Request Letter for University X**

November 2, 2020

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

As a graduate student in the School of Education at Liberty University. I am conducting research as part of the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree. The title of my research project is Students' Evaluations of Black Faculty at a Historical White Institution: A Causal Comparative Analysis, and the purpose of my research is to evaluate if race plays a role in how students evaluate their faculty members.

I am writing to request your permission to conduct my research at [REDACTED].

Participants will be asked to complete an online faculty evaluation form referred as SDO7, using *Survey Monkey*, anytime during the course. However, students must meet the following criteria in order to participate in the study: a) must be at least 18 years of age or older, b) must be a Black or White student, and c) must be currently enrolled in social science course taught by a Black or White faculty member. The survey should take no longer than 10 minutes to complete. Participants will be presented with informed consent information prior to participating. Taking part in this study is completely voluntary, and participants are welcome to discontinue participation at any time.

Thank you for considering my request. If you choose to grant permission, please respond by email to [REDACTED]

Sincerely,

Kathleen Carter Gentry  
Graduate Student

**APPENDIX B: IRB Approval from University X**

**From:** [REDACTED] Institutional Review Board [REDACTED]  
**Sent:** Monday, February 22, 2021 12:46 PM  
**To:** Gentry, Kathleen Carter <[REDACTED]>  
**Subject:** RE: [External] RE: Outside Research Request

Hi Kathleen,

On the phone you mentioned the [REDACTED] faculty would forward your recruitment message on your behalf so you are confirming that they are not doing any human subjects research activities beyond recruitment.

If that is the case, and based on the information you have already provided, [REDACTED] is not considered engaged in conducting the human subjects research procedures for this study. Therefore, our IRB review and approval is not required for you to proceed.

You may still need additional permissions from the professors/department(s) you are having assist you with recruitment.

Please be sure to send me a copy of the IRB letter before starting any recruitment procedures here.

Thanks much,  
Katie

[REDACTED]

Note: I am telecommuting so please email me for more immediate reply.

**APPENDIX C: Screening Survey****Students' Evaluations of Black Faculty at a  
Historically White Institution**

The purpose of this research study is to investigate students' evaluation scores between Black and White faculty as measured by faculty academic competence, faculty sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and student viewpoints on racism.

**To participate in the study, you must meet the following criteria:**

- **You must be a currently enrolled student taking a course being taught by a Black or White faculty member.**
- **You must be 18 years of age or older.**
- **You must be a Black or White student.**

**If you meet all of the conditions above, please proceed. If not, please exit the survey. Thanks for participating.**

## APPENDIX D: Recruitment Informational Flyer

## Research Participants Needed

### Students' Evaluations of Black Faculty at a Historically White Institution

- Are you currently enrolled in any course?
  - Are you 18 years of age or older?
  - Are you a Black or White student?
- Is this course being taught by a Black or White faculty member?

If you answered **yes** to all of these questions, you may be eligible to participate in a student evaluation of faculty research study.

**The purpose of this research study is to investigate students' evaluations scores between Black and White faculty as measured by faculty academic competence, sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and viewpoints on racism. Eligible students will be asked to complete an online survey, using *Survey Monkey*, to evaluate their Black or White faculty member anytime during the semester. This should take approximately 10 minutes. Students will receive \$5 for completing the survey and have a chance to win a \$100 Amazon Gift Card.**

#### Link to Research Study:

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/YHTFQ7S>

Kathleen Gentry, a doctoral candidate, in the School of Education at Liberty University, is conducting this study.

Please contact Kathleen Gentry at [REDACTED] for more information.

Liberty University IRB – 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall 2845,  
Lynchburg, VA 24515

## APPENDIX E: Student Consent Form

**Title of the Project:** Students' Evaluations of Black Faculty at a Historical White Institution: A Causal Comparative Analysis

**Principal Investigator:** Kathleen Carter Gentry, Graduate Student,  
Liberty University

### Invitation to be Part of a Research Study

You are invited to participate in a research study. In order to participate, you must be a current student enrolled in any course, being taught by a Black or White faculty member, be at least 18 years of age or older, and be a Black or White student.

Taking part in this research project is voluntary.

Please take time to read this entire form and ask questions before deciding whether to take part in this research project.

### What is the study about and why is it being done?

The purpose of the study is to investigate student evaluation scores between Black and White faculty as measured by their ratings on faculty academic competence, sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and student viewpoints on racism based upon the race of the student and the race of the faculty member at a public, research, historically White Institution in a southern state.

### What will happen if you take part in this study?

If you agree to be in this study, I will ask you to do the following things:

1. Students will complete an on-line survey, using *Survey Monkey*, to evaluate their Black or White faculty member anytime during the course. This should take approximately 10 minutes.

### How could you or others benefit from this study?

Participants should not expect to receive a direct benefit from taking part in this study.

### What risks might you experience from being in this study?

The risks involved in this study are minimal, which means they are equal to the risks you would encounter in everyday life.

### How will personal information be protected?

The records of this study will be kept private. Research records will be stored securely, and only the researcher will have access to the records.

- Participant responses will be anonymous.

- Data will be stored on a password-locked computer and may be used in future presentations. After three years, all electronic records will be deleted.

#### **How will you be compensated for being part of the study?**

Participants will be paid \$5 for completing the survey and have a chance to win a \$100 Amazon Gift Card in the raffle drawing.

#### **Is study participation voluntary?**

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University or George Mason University. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time prior to submitting your survey without affecting those relationships.

#### **What should you do if you decide to withdraw from the study?**

If you choose to withdraw from the study, please exit the survey and close your internet browser. Your responses will not be recorded or included in the study.

#### **Whom do you contact if you have questions or concerns about the study?**

The researcher conducting this study is Kathleen Carter Gentry. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, **you are encouraged** to contact Kathleen Carter Gentry at [REDACTED]. You may also contact the researcher's faculty sponsor, Dr. Sharon Michael-Chadwell at [REDACTED].

#### **Whom do you contact if you have questions about your rights as a research participant?**

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, **you are encouraged** to contact the Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall Ste. 2845, Lynchburg, VA 24515 or email at [irb@liberty.edu](mailto:irb@liberty.edu).

#### **Your Consent**

**Before agreeing to be part of the research, please be sure that you understand what the study is about. You can print a copy of this document for your records. If you have any questions about the study later, you can contact the researcher using the information provided above.**

*I have read and understood the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.*

Liberty University  
IRB-FY20-21-302  
Approved on 2-22-2021



## **APPENDIX F: Directions for SDO7 Survey**

**DIRECTIONS:** You will see statements that will evaluate your current faculty member. Please read each statement and choose the response that most resembles your feelings about your current faculty member in academic competence, sensitivity to students, and instructional effectiveness. You will also respond to various racial statements. There are no right or wrong answers. It is your opinion.

**Section 1:** Please complete demographic information regarding your gender, race or ethnicity, age, academic rank, format of the course taken, the race of your faculty member, and the gender of your faculty member.

**Section 2:** Please read each statement carefully and select an answer that best fits your opinion about your faculty member regarding academic competence, sensitivity to students, and instructional effectiveness.

**Instructional Effectiveness: Please compare your faculty member and course to ones in high school or other courses by selecting one of the following:**

1=One of the Best, 2=Above Average, 3=Average, 4=Below Average, 5=Below Average

**Sensitivity to Students: Please select one of the following responses regarding your faculty member's sensitivity to the needs of his or her students:**

1=Definitely Yes, 2=Yes, 3=Uncertain or Neutral, 4=No, 5=Definitely No

**Academic Competence: Please select one of the following responses regarding your faculty member's academic competency:**

1=Definitely Yes, 2=Yes, 3=Uncertain or Neutral, 4=No, 5=Definitely No

**Section 3: Please read each statement carefully and select an answer that best fits your feeling on the racism scale:**

1= Very Positive, 2=Positive, 3=Uncertain or Neutral, 4=Negative, 5=Very Negative

**All responses are confidential. Thanks for participating in this study.**

**APPENDIX G: IRB Approval from Liberty University****LIBERTY UNIVERSITY.**  
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

February 22, 2021

Kathleen Gentry  
Sharon Michael-Chadwell

Re: IRB Exemption - IRB-FY20-21-302 Students' Evaluations of Black Faculty in a Historical White Institution: A Causal-Comparative Analysis

Dear Kathleen Gentry, Sharon Michael-Chadwell:

The Liberty University Institutional Review Board (IRB) has reviewed your application in accordance with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP) and Food and Drug Administration (FDA) regulations and finds your study to be exempt from further IRB review. This means you may begin your research with the data safeguarding methods mentioned in your approved application, and no further IRB oversight is required.

Your study falls under the following exemption category, which identifies specific situations in which human participants research is exempt from the policy set forth in 45 CFR 46:101(b):

Category 2 (i). Research that only includes interactions involving educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures, or observation of public behavior (including visual or auditory recording).

The information obtained is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that the identity of the human subjects cannot readily be ascertained, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects.

Your stamped consent form can be found under the Attachments tab within the Submission Details section of your study on Cayuse IRB. This form should be copied and used to gain the consent of your research participants. If you plan to provide your consent information electronically, the contents of the attached consent document should be made available without alteration.

Please note that this exemption only applies to your current research application, and any modifications to your protocol must be reported to the Liberty University IRB for verification of continued exemption status. You may report these changes by completing a modification submission through your Cayuse IRB account.

If you have any questions about this exemption or need assistance in determining whether possible modifications to your protocol would change your exemption status, please email us at [irb@liberty.edu](mailto:irb@liberty.edu).

Sincerely,  
G. Michele Baker, MA, CIP  
Administrative Chair of Institutional Research  
Research Ethics Office

**APPENDIX H: Demographics Questionnaire****1) What is your gender?**

- 1) male
- 2) female
- 3) transgender
- 4) other: \_\_\_\_\_

**2) What is your race or ethnicity?**

- 1) Black/African-American
- 2) White/Caucasian

**3) What is your age?**

- 1) 18 -24
- 2) 25-34
- 3) 35-44
- 4) 45-54
- 5) 55 or older

**4) What is your academic rank?**

- 1) freshman
- 2) sophomore
- 3) junior
- 4) senior
- 5) graduate student

**5) What is the race or ethnicity of your faculty member teaching this course?**

- 1) Black/African-American
- 2) White/Caucasian

**6) What is the gender of your faculty member teaching this course?**

- 1) male
- 2) female
- 3) transgender
- 4) other: \_\_\_\_\_

**7) How is your course being offered this semester?**

- a) in-person (within an actual classroom)
- b) virtually (on-line not in an actual classroom)
- c) hybrid (both online and in-person)
- d) other: \_\_\_\_\_

**APPENDIX I: SDO7 Survey Faculty Evaluation Form**

This survey is designed to investigate differences in students' evaluation scores between Black and White faculty as measured by their ratings on faculty academic competence, faculty sensitivity to students, instructional effectiveness, and student viewpoints on racism as measured by the race of the student and race of the faculty member at a public research Historically White Institution.

**Instructions:** Please respond to the answers that closely identifies how you evaluate your current faculty member who is teaching this course and your viewpoint on racial statements below.

- 1. Compared with all the instructors I have had, both in high school and college, this instructor is \_\_\_\_\_.**
  - 1) one of the best
  - 2) above average
  - 3) average
  - 4) below average
  - 5) far below average
  
- 2. Compared with all the courses I have had, both in high school and in college, this course is \_\_\_\_\_.**
  - 1) one of the best
  - 2) above average
  - 3) average
  - 4) below average
  - 5) far below average
  
- 3. The instructor seems well prepared for the lecture or discussion.**
  - 1) definitely yes
  - 2) yes
  - 3) uncertain or neutral
  - 4) no
  - 5) definitely no
  
- 4. The instructor shows a scholarly grasp of the course material.**
  - 1) definitely yes
  - 2) yes
  - 3) uncertain or neutral
  - 4) no
  - 5) definitely no
  
- 5. The instructor shows confidence before the class.**
  - 1) definitely yes
  - 2) yes

- 3) uncertain or neutral
- 4) no
- 5) definitely no

**6. The instructor keeps lectures and class discussions focused on the subject of the course.**

- 1) definitely yes
- 2) yes
- 3) uncertain or neutral
- 4) no
- 5) definitely no

**7. The instructor uses clear and relevant examples.**

- 1) definitely yes
- 2) yes
- 3) uncertain or neutral
- 4) no
- 5) definitely no

**8. The instructor seems to be sensitive to the feelings and needs of the students.**

- 1) definitely yes
- 2) yes
- 3) uncertain or neutral
- 4) no
- 5) definitely no

**9. The instructor makes me feel free to ask questions, disagree, and express my ideas.**

- 1) definitely yes
- 2) yes
- 3) uncertain or neutral
- 4) no
- 5) definitely no

**10. The instructor is generally accessible to students outside of class.**

- 1) definitely yes
- 2) yes
- 3) uncertain or neutral
- 4) no
- 5) definitely no

**11. The instructor usually seems to be aware of whether the class was following the presentation with understanding.**

- 1) definitely yes

- 2) yes
- 3) uncertain or neutral
- 4) no
- 5) definitely no

**12. I am satisfied with the way the performance of students is evaluated in this course.**

- 1) definitely yes
- 2) yes
- 3) uncertain or neutral
- 4) no
- 5) definitely no

**13. How do you feel about racial equality?**

- 1) very positive
- 2) positive
- 3) uncertain or neutral
- 4) negative
- 5) very negative

**14. How do you feel about Black neighbors?**

- 1) very positive
- 2) positive
- 3) uncertain or neutral
- 4) negative
- 5) very negative

**15. How do you feel about interracial dating?**

- 1) very positive
- 2) positive
- 3) uncertain or neutral
- 4) negative
- 5) very negative

**16. How do you feel about each ethnic group staying in its own place?**

- 1) very positive
- 2) positive
- 3) uncertain or neutral
- 4) negative
- 5) very negative

**17. How do you feel about White superiority?**

- 1) very positive
- 2) positive

- 3) uncertain or neutral
- 4) negative
- 5) very negative

**18. How do you feel about interracial marriage?**

- 1) very positive
- 2) positive
- 3) uncertain or neutral
- 4) negative
- 5) very negative

**Thank you for participating in the study.**

## APPENDIX J: Training Session

Two weeks before the commencement of the study, a 30-minute online training session through *Zoom* will be scheduled with faculty within Sociology and Psychology departments from University X. The following plan will be addressed:

### A. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to investigate student differences in evaluating Black and White faculty in academic competence, sensitivity to the needs of students, and instructional effectiveness. Student viewpoints on racism and demographic information will be part of the study as well.

### B. Faculty Script to Social Science Students

You are invited to be in a research study investigating the role that race plays in students evaluating Black and White faculty members within a university setting at a Historically White Institution. You have been selected because you are a currently enrolled student taking a course being taught by a Black or White faculty member. Please fill out the demographic and faculty evaluation form in its entirety online. Your responses are confidential, and anonymity is protected. It will take approximately 10 minutes to complete online, using a *Survey Monkey* link anytime during the semester. Thank you for participating in the study. If you have any questions, please contact the researcher, Kathleen Gentry, at [REDACTED]

### C. Participants

You must be a currently enrolled student taking a course being taught by a Black or White faculty member, be 18 years of age or older, and be a Black or White student.

### D. Procedures if an agreement to participate in the study:

- 1) Eligible students will complete an online survey, using *Survey Monkey*, to evaluate their White or Black faculty member any time during the semester. This should take approximately 10 minutes.

### E. Collection of Survey Material and Dates

No hard copies will be collected due to Covid-19 restrictions. All collected materials will be received electronically two weeks after the commencement of the study that will be stored in a secure locked computer that is password protected. Dates for collecting the material will also be sent to social science faculty members via email. If a faculty member missed the training session, the researcher will provide training online, using *ZOOM*, to alleviate errors, and to protect the integrity of the data and its subjects.



**F. Confidentiality and Anonymity protected**

No information will be shared with others. Your identity will be protected. There are minimal risks in participating.

**G. Destruction of data**

Data will be destroyed within three years after the completion of this study.

**H. Researcher contact information**

Kathleen Gentry is the researcher conducting the study. You are encouraged to contact her at [REDACTED]

**I. Question and Answer session**

**Thanks so much for participating in the study.**

**APPENDIX K: Permission from Instrument's Author**

Original Message-----

From: [REDACTED]

Sent: Tuesday, February 18, 2020 10:22 AM

To: [REDACTED]@wjh.harvard.edu>

Subject: Student Evaluation of Teachers Form [via Scholars at Harvard]

Good afternoon, Dr. [REDACTED],

Currently, I am working on a Ph.D. in Higher Education Administration at Liberty University. My dissertation topic is: Students' Evaluations of Black Faculty in a Predominantly White University. I would like to use your instrument to survey university students' opinions of actual Black and White faculty within a classroom in a southern state. Is it possible to gain access to your instrument, considering it is valid and reliable? Your help is deeply appreciated. I hope to hear from you soon.

Kathleen Gentry

[REDACTED]

• Gentry, Kathleen Carter

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[ EXTERNAL EMAIL: Do not click any links or open attachments unless you know the sender and trust the content. ]

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Dear Kathleen,

You have my permission to use the SDO7 scale in your research. Good luck with your dissertation.

[REDACTED]  
John Lindsley Professor of Psychology in Memory of William James  
and of African and African American Studies  
Department of African and African American Studies  
Department of Psychology  
Harvard University  
William James Hall 1430  
[REDACTED]