

Walden University ScholarWorks

Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies

Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies Collection

2021

Faculty Perspectives of Recruitment and Retention of African American Faculty in Predominantly White Institutions

Monica Jean Lowe Walden University

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations

Part of the Education Commons

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies Collection at ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact ScholarWorks@waldenu.edu.

Walden University

College of Education

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Monica J. Lowe

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects, and that any and all revisions required by the review committee have been made.

Review Committee Dr. Patricia Brewer, Committee Chairperson, Education Faculty Dr. Alice Eichholz, Committee Member, Education Faculty Dr. Sherry Lowrance, University Reviewer, Education Faculty

> Chief Academic Officer and Provost Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

> > Walden University 2021

Abstract

Faculty Perspectives of Recruitment and Retention of African American Faculty in Predominantly White Institutions

by

Monica J. Lowe

MPHIL, Walden University, 2020 MAPT, Ashland Theological Seminary, 2004 MSSA, Case Western Reserve University, 2001 BA, University of New Haven, 1987

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Education

Walden University

February 2021

Abstract

Despite a growing population, the underrepresentation of African American faculty in predominantly White institutions (PWIs) is a growing concern in the United States. Recent studies indicate PWIs have been focused on increasing diverse student enrollment, particularly among African Americans, but not on recruiting and retaining African American faculty. The purpose of this basic qualitative study was to obtain the perspectives of faculty members regarding recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs. The goal was to identify faculty perspectives on recruitment and retention based upon their personal experiences. Conceptual frameworks for this study were Bell's critical race theory and Tajfel's social identity theory. Seven African American and three European American faculty who had worked at a PWI for a minimum of 2 years and who served on faculty search committees or provided advocacy for African American faculty through mentoring, coteaching or conducting coresearch participated in semistructured interviews. Data from interviews were analyzed using a seven-step process that included both NVIVO 12 Plus and hand coding. The key results from the study involved (a) distinctions of privilege, (b) European American faculty functions, (c) views of diversity, (d) search committee actions, (e) institutional barriers and (f) approaches to mentoring. Future research includes establishment of formal mentoring programs and building sustainable partnerships with Historically Black Colleges and Universities to promote faculty recruitment and retention. Social change implications include PWIs willingness to make systemic changes to institutional barriers and awareness of privilege throughout their institutions.

Faculty Perspectives of Recruitment and Retention of African American Faculty in

Predominantly White Institutions

by

Monica J. Lowe

MPHIL, Walden University, 2020

MAPT, Ashland Theological Seminary, 2004

MSSA, Case Western Reserve University, 2001

BA, University of New Haven, 1987

Proposal Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Education

Walden University

February 2021

Dedication

This body of research is dedicated to all African American faculty who work at predominantly White institutions and who seek to be change agents to raise the voice of diversity in every space of its institutions. I also dedicate this to my late Grandmothers, Elberta and Ruby, who instilled in me the importance of being educated.

Acknowledgments

This dissertation has been a long journey for me. I am thankful that it is completed. I must first acknowledge my number one encourager—Jesus Christ. I also want to thank my mother, Patricia, for her support, my brother Danny Jaland who always made time to review my chapters and bounce ideas off. My cousin Alisa for constantly telling me not to quit but stay the course. Also, to the rest of my family, friends, and coworkers for your support and prayers. I'd like to thank my amazing committee, Dr. Patricia Brewer, chair, and committee members Dr. Alice Eichholtz and Dr. Sherry Lowrance. I would also like to thank my editor, Dr. Carol Koller and Dr. Cheryl Keen, who offered some dynamic writing clinics that helped me towards the end of this journey.

List of Tablesv
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study1
Background2
Problem Statement
Purpose of the Study
Research Question4
Conceptual Framework4
Nature of the Study
Definitions5
Assumptions
Scope and Delimitations7
Limitations7
Significance
Summary
Chapter 2: Literature Review10
Literature Search Strategy10
Conceptual Framework11
CRT
SIT
Rationale for Conceptual Framework
Literature Review of Key Components21

Table of Contents

Retention and Recruitment of African American Faculty	
The Role of Mentoring in Recruitment and Retention	
Barriers to Retention of African American Faculty	
Summary and Conclusions	
Chapter 3: Research Method	
Research Design and Rationale	
Role of the Researcher	
Methodology	35
Participant Selection Logic	
Instrumentation	
Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection	
Data Analysis	
Issues of Trustworthiness	40
Credibility	
Transferability	
Dependability	
Confirmability	
Ethical Procedures	42
Summary	44
Chapter 4: Results	45
Setting	45
Demographics and Participants' Descriptions	45

Data Collection	49
Data Analysis	51
Evidence of Trustworthiness	54
Credibility	54
Transferability	54
Dependability	55
Confirmability	55
Results	55
Theme 1: Distinctions of Privilege	56
Theme 2: European American Functions	61
Theme 3: Views of Diversity	67
Theme 4: Search Committee Actions	74
Theme 5: Institutional Barriers	77
Theme 6: Approaches to Mentoring	
Summary	87
Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations	89
Interpretation of the Findings	90
Theme 1: Distinctions of Privilege	
Theme 2: European American Functions	93
Theme 3: Views of Diversity	95
Theme 4: Search Committee Actions	
Theme 5: Institutional Barriers	

Theme 6: Approaches to Mentoring	
Limitations of the Study	104
Recommendations	104
Implications	106
Conclusion	106
References	
Appendix: Interview Guide	118

List of Tables

Table 1	Demographics	46
Table 2	Major Themes	53
Table 3	Themes and Subthemes	56

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Within the past 30 years, demographers have noted shifting trends in ethnic populations in the United States. The shift includes an increase in Latinx and Asian American populations, a decline in European Americans, and African American numbers remaining relatively unchanged (Hagan et al., 2016). The U.S. Census Bureau (2019) projects underrepresented populations will be the majority in the United States by 2060.

Minority student enrollment at predominantly White institutions (PWIs) has been on the rise based on the increase in minority high school graduates (Abdul-Raheem, 2016). Wilder et al. (2015) argued that most PWIs focused on strategies to improve minority student enrollment, particularly among African Americans, but ignored or lost interest in recruiting and retaining African American faculty. PWIs have consistently had a low representation of African American faculty (National Center for Educational Statistics [NCES], 2017). The NCES (2017) reported that annual African American faculty hires did not increase from 2006 to 2016. African American men and women represented only 6% of faculty hired by PWIs (NCES, 2017). According to the NCES, 1.5 million people were employed as faculty at degree-granting postsecondary institutions, 75% of whom were European American, 6% African American, and 19% from other races or ethnicities.

This chapter begins with a background and summary of the research literature concerning the status of African American faculty at PWIs. I provide a statement of the problem addressed by this research, its importance, and purpose as a context for the research question that directed this study. The conceptual framework, nature of the study, definitions, assumptions, scope and delimitations, limitations, and significance of this research precede a final discussion outlining the implications for social change.

Background

With the shifts in demographic composition among students, there is a greater need to intensify efforts to improve diversity in higher education faculty (Dade et al., 2015). One way to meet the need would be to provide support for minority students who have indicated their concerns regarding the lack of faculty of color and how their interaction with European American members has, at times, been negative (Hagan et al., 2016; Reddick & Pritchett, 2015). Abdul-Raheem (2016) noted that minority faculty mentors helped student success and promoted equity in research, mentorship, and overall representation from all minority groups. The increase in minority populations has caused many in higher education to examine the extent of diversity at their institutions (Dade et al., 2015).

Recent research has shown the underdeveloped aspect of the recruitment and retention process from the perspectives of diverse faculty members, including African Americans, European Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans, and Latinx Americans (Dade et al., 2015; Siegel et al., 2015). Research has pointed to how policymakers at PWIs describe diversity at their institutions and how it affects the process of recruitment and retention to improve campus racial climate (Kelly et al., 2017). Derald et al. (2019) argued that institutional expression of the superiority of one group's cultural heritage through White privilege has negatively influenced the institutional and structural policies and hiring practices for African American faculty. Edwards and Ross (2018) argued that the lack of diversity in PWIs left African American faculty members with negative experiences of isolation, marginalization, and racism. Other authors noted that 21st-century universities need to review persistent perceptions of racism and disenfranchisement that studies show still exist to improve retention and recruitment of African American faculty (Gamble & Turner, 2015; Griffin et al., 2016). However, minimal research has included the perspectives of faculty regarding their roles in the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs. Understanding these perspectives may lead to useful strategies that could enhance recruitment and retention initiatives toward that aim.

Problem Statement

The problem addressed in this study is the lack of understanding of the perspectives and experiences of faculty members who participated in the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs. Sensoy and DiAngelo (2017) postulated that the hiring process was a critical barrier to racial diversity at PWIs. Still, minimal research has included the perspectives of faculty regarding the process to increase recruitment and retention of African American faculty in U.S. colleges and universities (Dade et al., 2015; Kivel, 2017). Understanding the perspectives of faculty members regarding the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs could provide more information on strategies to increase African American faculty at PWIs.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this basic qualitative study was to obtain the perspectives of faculty members regarding the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at

PWIs. The faculty members were representatives from African American and European American faculty groups to provide insight into this process. Limited research exists regarding how various faculty members perceive their experiences with increasing the recruitment and retention of African American faculty.

Research Question

The research question that guided this study was as follows: What are the perspectives of faculty members who have experience participating in the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs?

Conceptual Framework

Critical race theory (CRT; Bell, 1987; Delgado & Stefancic, 2012) and social identity theory (SIT; Tajfel, 1982) provided this study's conceptual framework. CRT asserts that racism is endemic to U.S. culture (Bell, 1987) and contributes to group advantages and disadvantages (Delgado, 1995). CRT was the basis for understanding the perceptions and experiences of the study's participants within PWIs. SIT addresses how individuals experience a sense of belonging to an organization and how they perceive themselves or behave among the dominant group in their environment (Tajfel, 1982). SIT provided an understanding of how faculty viewed themselves and their interactions with other groups in the retention and recruitment process. I used both theories to establish whether race and identity within a race were prevalent factors in the experiences of recruitment and retention of African American faculty.

Nature of the Study

For this study, I used a basic qualitative research approach as described by Merriam and Tisdell (2016). Basic qualitative research was appropriate for this study because it enabled me to understand what could be learned about the issue or problem investigated (see Patton, 2015). I used interviews to collect data related to faculty members' perspectives and experiences in the recruitment and retention process of African American faculty. Rubin and Rubin (2012) posited that in-depth qualitative interviewing is a method to gather data from those "who have knowledge of or experience with the problem of interest" (p. 3). I selected 10 faculty members for this study who had experiences participating in the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs located in the United States.

The inclusion criteria for the study's participants were that faculty had worked a minimum of 2 years at a PWI and either served on a search committee recruiting African American faculty or served in teaching, research, or mentoring roles with African American faculty. I collected data through in-depth interviews. I analyzed the responses by identifying themes in the participants' experiences and perspectives in recruiting and retaining African American faculty and used alpha/numeric identifiers to protect their identities. I used NVIVO 12 Plus to integrate responses with my notetaking during the interview process.

Definitions

African American faculty. Faculty members who identify as African American or Black from African descent.

Diversity. There is no universal definition of diversity. However, many higher education institutions construct their own meanings as a framework to help implement policy centered on racial and cultural workforces and student representation. Abdul-Raheem (2016) described cultural diversity as "cultural needs accepted and respected in the classroom and workplace" (p.53). For this study, I define diversity from the perspective of a person's racial makeup and the cultural influences in society or environment. Diverse faculty in the context of this study consists of ethnicities, such as African American, Latinx American, Asian American, and European American.

PWIs. Higher education institutions whose faculty and staff are 50% White (DiAngelo, 2018). The percentage of minority student populations at these institutions is greater than that of the faculty (Abdul-Raheem, 2016; Wilder et al., 2015).

White allies. European Americans who seek to provide support to African Americans (DiAngelo, 2018; Kivel, 2017).

Assumptions

My primary assumption in this study was that the participants would feel they could freely share their experiences and perceptions about their work in recruitment and retention safely and honestly. I also assumed that they perceived themselves as interacting with ethnicities other than their own in their work environment as described in SIT. My last assumption was that racism and White supremacy played a role in how European Americans engaged with African American faculty in the institution, as detailed in CRT. These assumptions were necessary and appropriate as research by Dade et al. (2015) has shown that these have been factors in how African American faculty have been treated at PWIs and influenced recruitment and retention efforts.

Scope and Delimitations

The participants in this study worked at various PWIs in the United States. In this study, I considered faculty members' perspectives and experiences regarding their roles in the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at a PWI rather than faculty from historically Black colleges and universities (HBCUs). The rationale for not including these institutions was that 58% of the faculty at 99% of HBCUs are African American (NCES, 2017).

Limitations

One limitation of this study was my own biases as a researcher. I am an African American female adjunct professor and have been employed at a PWI for 7 years. There are no full-time African American faculty or other minority races represented in the department where I work; the university currently employs one full-time faculty of color from an African country. Recruitment and retention problems may be linked to a lack of interest by African Americans, such as myself, to move to a rural community; therefore, recruiting faculty from other countries may help PWIs reach diversity goals.

The small sample size was also a limitation. Patton (2015), however, argued that there are no universal rules for sample size in qualitative research. I decided to pursue the depth of my study topic by focusing on an array of experiences found in a smaller sample size.

Significance

The perspectives of faculty members regarding recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs could help bring about positive social change as this information could be used to increase the numbers of African American faculty throughout U.S. colleges and universities. The knowledge obtained from the findings of this research could help improve the social conditions experienced by African American faculty. The results can also provide institutions with better strategies to recruit and retain African Americans and foster stronger relationships among other faculty. Lastly, a better understanding of the role of faculty in recruitment and retention may facilitate positive initiatives and provide support for African American faculty through mentoring and creating professional development relevant to their retention and recognition as peers.

My hope in conducting this research was to have the results serve as an impetus for social change in higher education by reducing the inequities in hiring and retaining African American faculty. This research provided a detailed account of the perspectives and experiences of African American and European Americans concerning the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs. Although existing research has uncovered issues of recruitment of retention concerning mentoring, racial awareness, and barriers, the lack of African American faculty is still a prevalent problem (Diggles, 2014; Dutton et al., 2017; Edwards & Ross, 2018; Gumpertz et al., 2017).

Summary

The low representation of African American faculty at PWIs is evidenced by 6% representation compared to 44% of European American(Edwards & Ross, 2018). This is

a problem because of the increased enrollment of African American students and the lack of comparable representation in faculty at PWIs (Abdul-Raheem, 2016; Wilder et al., 2015). Learning faculty members' perspectives regarding their experiences in recruitment and retention of African American faculty may help policymakers develop strategies and approaches to increase African American participation as faculty at PWIs. The conceptual framework of CRT and SIT helped provide an understanding of the perceptions and experiences of the participants. The 10 faculty members interviewed in this study were from diverse racial backgrounds and served in some capacity in the recruitment and retention at PWIs. In Chapter 2, I document relevant research related to the conceptual framework built on CRT and SIT as well as discuss the empirical literature regarding recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The problem that I addressed in this study was the lack of understanding of the perspectives and experiences of faculty members who participated in the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs. The purpose of this basic qualitative study was to gain an understanding of these perspectives and experiences. African American faculty representation at PWIs has not kept up with increased higher education minority student admissions in the United States (NCES, 2017) or the increase in diverse student populations (Hughes, 2015; Victorino et al., 2013).

This chapter includes the research literature search strategy used for this study, including key search terms and databases. Next, I present the conceptual framework, including detailed information on CRT and SIT. Lastly, I discuss the research on the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs.

Literature Search Strategy

To gather and analyze relevant research concerning faculty members' perceptions and experiences in the recruitment and retention efforts of African American faculty in PWIs, I accessed peer-reviewed articles, seminal texts, and journals through Walden University's library databases. I utilized online resources and search engines, such as ProQuest, Google Scholar, ERIC, and Taylor and Francis to identify relevant research from 2014-2020. The keywords and phrases I used to generate sources of pertinent research included, *African American faculty, faculty of color in higher education, diverse faculty, White allies, recruitment and retention of African American faculty, White faculty, history of African Americans in higher education, African American faculty* working at predominately White institutions, CRT, tenets of CRT, SIT, racism, microaggressions in higher education, White privilege in higher education, and experiences of African American faculty in PWIs.

Conceptual Framework

In this study, I used concepts from CRT (Bell, 1987; Delgado & Stefancic, 2012) and SIT (Tajfel, 1981) to build the conceptual framework to understand the perceptions and experiences of faculty members interacting in the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs. The topic of race is delicate as it can produce agitation and expose fragility among White Americans (DiAngelo, 2018; Dyson, 2018). However, acknowledging race is pivotal in CRT and requires an understanding of how race impacts the way people live, including how they are educated and make decisions. Thus, to adequately study how race influences the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs, it is essential to give a brief overview of the social construction of race.

CRT

CRT was put forward in the 1970s by Bell (1987) along with lawyers, activists, and legal scholars to advance the Civil Rights Movement to combat elusive forms of racism (Bell, 1995; Delgado & Stefancic, 2012). The early theorists revealed that power and construction of social roles perpetuated systemic racism with European Americans as the dominant race and persons of color experiencing adverse effects. Delgado and Stefancic (2012) referred to CRT as the foundation that links race, racism, and power. Bell (1992) used CRT to illustrate how race and racism continue to dominate American society and stressed that oppressions are not easily separated from one another, but instead, put in strict categorizations. Bell (1992) continued to describe racism as an integral, permanent, and indestructible component of society.

Racism is endemic to U.S. culture (Bell, 1987, 1992, 1995; Delgado, 1995; Delgado & Stefancic, 2012). For this reason, I used CRT as a lens to understand the perceptions and experiences of the study's participants within PWIs. Delgado (1995) posited that factors that contribute to CRT include racism, which is the cause of grouplevel advantages and disadvantages, and the interjection of race into a situation. Unfortunately, African Americans remain the race most deeply affected by racial disparities. Dyson (2018) wrote,

To be sure, black folk found room to breathe within the smoothing confines of white society. They craft an existence outside of the slavish demand for total surrender. But their lives were controlled to a large degree by white supremacy. Schools, churches, social clubs, businesses, and courts were run by and for white folk. The point of politics was to defend white interests (p. 55).

Von Robertson and Chaney (2017) noted that CRT identifies people of color's lived experiences in a White-dominated society and context such as the PWI environment. CRT focuses on examining and transforming relationships between race, racism, and power (Delgado & Stefancic, 2012).

Tenets of CRT

Although there have been many tenets of CRT identified over the years, I only used the five that were germane to this study (see Bell, 1992). These tenets include (a) the

permanence of racism, (b) interest convergence, (c) counter storytelling, (d) differential racialization, and (e) intersectionality.

Racism is a core tenet of CRT. In the cultural framework of the United States, racism is presumed to be embedded. Interest convergence and material determinism accommodate people of color as long as its benefits European Americans. Bell stated that interest convergence was most clearly seen in the way that "most racial remedies... when measured by the actual potential, will prove of more symbolic than substantive value to blacks." (p. 646). A prime example of interest convergence is affirmative action. Ladson-Billings (2013) claimed that affirmative action was used to ensure that an applicant's race, creed, color, or national origin did not impede them from being treated fairly in their employment.

Counter storytelling is described as the unique voice of people of color when sharing their experiences of racism's permanence (Bell, 1992; Delgado & Stefancic, 2012). Differential racialization is the process of putting races in categories that society creates and then manipulates. According to Reynolds and Mayweather (2017), differential racialization is also when Whites, the dominant culture, use different racial groups for tasks when the labor market shifts.

Another core tenet of CRT is intersectionality. Intersectionality is the concept that people, in general, do not hold a unitary identity (Kelly et al., 2017; Nixon, 2017). Intersectionality means that a person is not only discriminated against by race but also by gender or class (Schmaling et al., 2015). I will outline the five tenets most salient to this study is discussed as a basis for understanding the experiences of diverse faculty in PWIs. To facilitate an understanding of CRT and its contribution to this study, I present an in-depth overview of racism, counter storytelling, and intersectionality. Racism is subjective. DiAngelo (2018) argued that there needs to be a distinction between prejudice and discrimination to understand racism. Prejudice is a prejudgment about another person based on the social groups to which they belong (DiAngelo, 2018). As a result, all people have some form of prejudice, which most often consists of stereotypes, attitudes, and generalizations.

On the other hand, discrimination is "action based on prejudice . . . [and has] included ignoring, exclusion, threats, ridicule, slander, and violence" (DiAngelo, 2018, p. 20). Delgado and Stefancic (2012) defined racism as "ordinary, not aberrational–normal science, the usual way society does business, the common everyday experience of most people of color in this country" (p. 7). Delgado and Stefancic argued that the American societal system exemplifies a White-over-color mindset that permeates the dominant group's psyche and materials. DiAngelo (2018) defined racism as "the acknowledgment that whites hold social and institutional power over people of color" (p. 1). Racism is also a form of oppression, which occurs when a racial group's prejudice is backed by legal authority and institutional control. DiAngelo also argued that racism is a system. Ladson-Billings (2013) noted that racism is normal in American society and benefits Whites' interests to oppress African Americans and other people of color.

Storytelling allows the person of color to communicate in a unique voice about their experiences of racism as well as the opportunity to speak with competence about race and racism and apply their perspectives (Bell, 1992; Delgado & Stefancic, 2012). Delgado (1995) and Ladson-Billings and Tate (1995) posited that stories provide members of outgroups, such as African Americans, a vehicle for psychic selfpreservation. Furthermore, the exchange of stories from teller to listener can help overcome ethnocentrism and the dysconscious conviction of viewing the world from a single perspective.

Delgado and Stefancic (2012) defined intersectionality as "the examination of race, sex, class, national origin, and sexual orientation, and how their combination plays out in various settings" (p. 57). Lynn and Dixson (2013) further explained that intersectionality is complex and that individuals embody multiple identities. Delgado and Stefancic (2012) defined microaggressions—an outcome of CRT—as "stunning small encounters with racism, usually unnoticed by members of the majority race" (p. 167).

Microaggressions can be viewed as everyday racialized actions or comments to people of color. Microaggressions can also be expressed by not noticing people of color or assuming their invisibility (Fleras, 2016). Fleras posited that microaggressions also "refer to those covert and nuanced expressions of everyday racism that look innocuous enough on the surface, but implicitly communicate an affront identified as racist or offensive by the micro-aggressed" (p. 2). DiAngelo (2018) noted that White privilege is the concept of Whiteness as property. Whiteness has been considered a legal status and an aspect of identity (DiAngelo, 2018). Therefore, this identity has included perceptions of self-worth and granted a sense of entitlement that enabled White people to avoid focusing on how racism hurts people of color and, instead, elevates them. DiAngelo (2018) defined the foundation of Whiteness as the "norm or standard or human, and people of color as a deviation from that norm" (p. 25). As a result, Whites do not acknowledge one another as White. Delgado and Stefancic (2012) stated that the "notion that whiteness itself has value for its possessor and conveys and host of privileges and benefits" (p. 174). DiAngelo defined White privilege as "a sociological concept referring to advantages that are taken for granted by whites and that cannot be similarly enjoyed by people of color in the same context (government, community, workplace, schools, etc.)" (p. 24). DiAngelo continued to argue that White privilege enables Whites to avoid facing the barriers of racism or racial situations. Abdul-Raheem's (2016) study showed that White educators used their privilege of racial identity in the academe.

CRT in Education

In 1995, educational scholarship concerning CRT was introduced to analyze and critique educational research and practice (Ladson-Billings, 2005; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995; Lynn & Dixson, 2013). Ladson-Billings was the pioneer critical race theorist in education. Initially, Ladson-Billings (2005) explained that although CRT was used in legal matters of race as a result of *Brown v. Board of Education* and the impetus for part of the Civil Rights Movement, the inequities in education were the result of the legal battles in desegregating schools. Today, students of color continue to struggle with the results of segregation even though African Americans represent 12% of the population. African Americans are the majority in 21 of the 22 largest (urban) school districts in the United States but have fewer education opportunities (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995).

Ladson-Billings (2005) argued that CRT, as it applies to education, demonstrates that the link of race to property is foundational to the claim that the genealogy of Black/White binaries has categorized nonBlacks as White. For example, Asians, Indians, and Latinxs have been considered White, which meant that racial and ethnic identity was situated in Whiteness. Therefore, it would be difficult to argue that a faculty member is not diverse when these other groups are represented, with the exception of African Americans. Ladson-Billings explained that CRT in education is helpful to understand persistent racial inequities in U.S. schools. Dixson and Anderson (2018) suggested that CRT in education has been used to expose racial inequity in the achievement system, which is premised on competition. As it applies to education, CRT also scrutinizes the role of policy and practices in the "construction of racial inequity and the perpetuation of normative whiteness" (p. 122).

Lynn and Dixson (2013) argued that CRT "emerged as a way to engage race as both the cause of and the context for disparate and inequitable social and educational outcomes" (p. 1). As a result, race plays a central role in society and education. Dixson and Anderson (2018) argued that CRT in education "rejects ahistoricism and examines the historical linkages between contemporary educational inequity and historical patterns of racial oppression" (p. 122). Murray et al. (2016) defined CRT in education as a way that scholars analyze and understand issues related to testing, discipline, curriculum, tracking, and other issues of high stakes for students, teachers, and families. Kelly et al. (2017) used CRT to support their study and demonstrate that systemic racism in PWIs existed through White privilege, which adversely impacted African American faculty's experiences.

SIT

I used SIT (Tajfel, 1981, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1979, 1986) in this study to describe the perspectives and experiences of racial groups in addition to African Americans regarding retention and recruitment practices at PWIs involving African Americans. According to Tajfel (1982), SIT demonstrates how human groups are identified by social categories and exhibit intergroup conflict in their environments. Tajfel and Turner (2001) defined social identity as "aspects of an individual's self-image that derive from the social categories to which he perceives himself as belonging" (p. 101). People strive to maintain or enhance their self-esteem through social groups. Therefore, in this research, I used SIT as a lens to understand faculty experiences and perspectives at PWIs and their views of African Americans in the retention and recruitment practices.

SIT explains that part of a person's self-concept comes from the groups to which they belong. Tajfel and Turner (1986) purported that an individual may have multiple selves and identities associated with their affiliated groups and act accordingly. SIT is composed of three core stages: social categorization, social identification, and social comparison. These stages are helpful in understanding that a person's group membership may include prejudice and discrimination related to this membership (Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

Social Categorization

Social categorization concerns how society categorizes people to understand and identify them (Tajfel & Turner, 2001). Some examples of social categories include Black, White, professor, student, Republican, and Democrat. An individual can belong to several groups at the same time. By knowing the categories to which a person belongs, an individual can achieve self-awareness and define appropriate behaviors according to the norms of these groups.

Social Identification

Social identification is when a person or other individuals identify with a group based on the norms and attitudes of that group's members (Tajfel & Turner, 2001). Social identification is when people adopt the group's identity through the actions and behaviors they perceive its members exhibit. For example, if a person identifies as a Democrat, they will likely behave according to the norms of that group. Identification with a group causes a person to attach emotional significance to that identification, and their selfesteem will be dependent on it.

Social Comparison

Social comparison is when a person judges those belonging to another group and becomes closely aligned with their perceptions of their group membership (Tajfel & Turner, 2001). Social comparison demonstrates how self-esteem is enhanced by or detracted from perceptions of how groups perform. As a result, a person will seek to maintain self-esteem by a favorable or unfavorable comparison to the other group. Social comparison can help explain prejudice and discrimination as a group will tend to view members of competing groups negatively to increase self-esteem (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). This systematic review of SIT as part of the conceptual framework for this study serves as a foundation to understand how African American faculty view and compare themselves to others.

Rationale for Conceptual Framework

Understanding the social construction of race through CRT provides a better understanding of its impact on people and the environments in which they interact (Bell, 1995). Levin et al. (2013) and Griffin et al. (2016) performed qualitative studies that focused on the marginalization of faculty of color. This supports CRT's tenets of racism, isolation, shared experiences of identity conflicts, professional roles, and cultural identities (Bell, 1995). Both study's findings supported CRT in that European American faculty held higher ranks and had more tenure and earnings than African American faculty. This left African American faculty to perceive themselves as separate from their European American colleagues in terms of cultural expression. Therefore, in this study, interviewing faculty to identify their experiences and perspectives regarding recruitment and retention of African American faculty was an application of CRT, which provided clarity in this area as some of the tenets of CRT were validated by the participants.

Tajfel's (1981) discussion of SIT focused on how people view themselves compared to others. Both CRT and SIT demonstrate the role of race and identity in faculty members. Tajfel (1982) presented SIT as a theoretical construct to support a sense of belonging to an organization because individuals experienced or felt less than equal among the dominant group in this environment. CRT supported and provided an understanding of how race is a factor in the process of recruiting and retaining African American faculty at PWIs by exploring how they interact with European American faculty. The findings of this basic qualitative inquiry demonstrate how people construct reality through interaction with the social worlds of those outside themselves. The conceptual framework, built on CRT and SIT, illustrates how race and interactions with others were important to the perspectives of faculty members interviewed in this study. SIT focuses on how people perceive themselves according to and compared with other groups, whereas CRT helps identify the ubiquitous existence of racism in the world and the importance that people of color are heard.

Literature Review of Key Components

In this section, I discuss retention and recruitment literature, which includes research on the process of recruiting and retaining African American faculty. I also explore the role of mentoring African American faculty in retention. Finally, I present successful approaches to African American faculty recruitment and retention as well as barriers to this process.

Retention and Recruitment of African American Faculty

According to DiAngelo (2018), 84% of full-time college professors are White. The NCES (2017) found that the majority of full-time faculty in the United States identify as White and approximately 20% identify as Black, Asian/Pacific Islander, Latinx, American Indian/Alaska Native, or multiracial. In a significant number of higher education institutions in the United States, African American faculty recruitment and retention efforts have resulted in representation of a little over 6% and as low as 2%. The small numbers of African American faculty have contributed to student protests, demands for an increase of African American faculty throughout the academe, as well as spotlight historically marginalized groups and the lack of progress in addressing these issues (Flaherty, 2015; Gumpertz et al., 2017; Libresco, 2015; Strauss, 2015). Although many of these PWIs claimed to be diverse, their recruitment and retention efforts to accomplish this task lacked the results demonstrating racial inequity (Kelly et al., 2017).

Edwards and Ross (2018) noted that African American faculty are underrepresented in PWIs due to racism and a deficiency in promotion and gaining tenure. Edwards and Ross posited that African American faculty also experienced social isolation, which adversely impacted their success at PWIs and eventually led to their departure. Diggles (2014) extended the argument to color-blindness. Delgado and Stefancic (2012) described color blindness as the "belief that one should treat all persons equally without regard to their race" (p. 158). Diggles stated that if the institutional structure of higher education continues to operate without actively diversifying faculty across race, this will continue to mask the underlying issues that cause the lack of recruitment and retention of faculty of color. Recruitment and retention problems are not limited to education.

Other studies have demonstrated the experiences and challenges that African Americans face in PWIs (Gumpertz et al., 2017; Hassouneh et al., 2014). The healthcare industry has also experienced similar issues with recruiting and retaining African American faculty and found that diversity in these ranks markedly impacted the health of diverse populations (Health Resources and Services Administration, 2015; Salvucci & Lawless, 2016). In the healthcare field, specifically with nursing faculty, African Americans make up 10.7% of the 2.9 million registered nurses in the national workforce (Health Resources and Services Administration, 2015). Salvucci and Lawless (2016) argued that health disparities in minority patient population groups are due to the lack of diversity in these professionals, who are underrepresented in the healthcare field. Salvucci and Lawless noted that national health reporting showed a link to patients' health disparities due to the lack of African Americans and Latinx Americans in the workforce. As a result of these disparities, the healthcare system has been under pressure to diversify its employees to respond to the diversity issues of patients these professionals can help resolve.

African American nursing faculty have faced challenges to diversity such as discrimination, lack of advising or mentoring and feeling less than competent (Salvucci & Lawless, 2016). In Salvucci and Lawless's (2016) study, the Latinx faculty experienced similar issues and also experienced language barriers; therefore, they were viewed by their White colleagues as less intelligent. An important point is that Latinx faculty identified as White, so their workplace experiences were not as obvious compared to those of African Americans. DiAngelo (2018) posited that Latinxs, Asians, Irish, and other European ethnic groups identified as White and therefore enjoyed White privileges in society. African Americans could not claim the same privileges because of skin color, hair, and other external qualities that showed they were different. Even though African

Americans and Latinx American both had adverse experiences, the African Americans' experiences were more detrimental to their roles as faculty.

Similarly, Killough et al. (2017) conducted a qualitative study using in-depth interviews with 16 diverse faculty to demonstrate how race shaped the meanings of the relationships between African American faculty and their colleagues at PWIs. One of their salient findings was that the European American did not understand the scope of what it meant for African Americans to coexist within the PWI context. The other significant finding was that both White men and women were more likely to hold seniorlevel positions than minority men and women over the past 6 years. Killough et al. also pointed out that the quality of care that minorities received from a diverse workforce was arguably better. This perception also indicates that a diverse group of educators can positively influence students to be academically successful. Killough et al. noted that African American faculty experienced racism and other adverse actions found in other studies in this literature review. I conducted interviews with 10 faculty to understand their perspectives and experiences participating in the recruitment and retention of African American faculty. The difference between this study and that of Killough et al. was that that study focused on how race shaped the meaning of relationships of African American faculty with European American at PWIs, while this study focused on recruitment and retention, even though race may have played a role.

Over the years, disenfranchised groups such as African Americans have not been successful in gaining advocates. Kivel (2017) claimed that it has not been common practice for superior groups to collaborate with disenfranchised groups to become aware of issues they could change but were unwilling to concede regarding changing policies to provide equity to African American faculty. However, social change comes when people organize, become allies, and challenge the practices and policies of organizations and governing bodies with nonviolent or violent direct action, mass mobilizations, electoral campaigns, or other strategies that help motivate change in an organization (Kivel, 2017).

One of the noticeable problems concerning faculty racial diversity was for the academe to agree on a universal meaning for diversity. Dutton et al. (2017) argued that diversity is recognized as a value of the academy and does not necessarily have to do with race. Alemán (2014) cautioned that solely focusing on increasing the representation of faculty of color is not enough. The academe must also examine socialization processes and validate faculty of color for their knowledge and research outside of the White lens of success in recruiting these faculty. The phenomenon of race has been based on skin color and physical characteristics (Delgado & Stefancic, 2012). However, DiAngelo (2018) argued that other races were considered White (e.g., Indians, Irish, Italians, and Asians), but African Americans were not. Bonilla-Silva (2018) suggested that if Whiteoriented institutions maintained their Whiteness through culture, curriculum, traditions, and demography, then race will not be viewed as an issue except by those who are of color. Bonilla-Silva also noted that for Whites, this environment is normal, and they have no knowledge and awareness of the structures of racism or frameworks that support White advantage.

Delgado and Stefancic (2012) described diversity as a "policy founded on the belief that individuals of different races and ethnicities can contribute to workplace, schools, and other settings" (p. 161). Abdul-Raheem (2016) posited that minority faculty who are eligible for tenure status are underrepresented, which decreases their ability to advocate and provide input to create cultural diversity in higher education. European American members or educators have also been known to hold more power in higher education than minorities (Abdul-Raheem, 2016). White educators who often possess more control over faculty of color must take responsibility to encourage cultural diversity.

The Role of Mentoring in Recruitment and Retention

Mentoring has been a staple in colleges and universities to help assimilate faculty and staff to racial/ethnic relationships (Reddick & Pritchett, 2015). Mentoring African American faculty was important to this research because it was found to be a successful approach in recruitment and retention. Mentoring, then, could be seen as an advantage. However, it can also be a disadvantage in retention, as Reddick and Pritchett (2015) noted, because there are not enough African American faculty to mentor others. Edwards and Ross (2018) claimed that African American faculty who were not mentored went through the academy by trial-and-error and found professional socialization difficult. Dutton et al. (2017) discussed the importance of mentoring to help retain faculty of color. In most mentoring programs, the mentoring models are formal; however, in the study by Dutton et al., an informal mentoring model was considered in the legal academe where the mentees could seek out their mentors within their academy or another institution. Mentoring diverse faculty for retention and promotion represents an important strategy, particularly when hiring is slow (Dutton et al., 2017). Hsiao et al. (2015) conducted a qualitative study focused on ethnicity and relationships. Findings indicated that retention of employees with the same ethnicity or indigenous employees promoted a positive work environment and gave the perception that the organization was diverse. The results also demonstrated that the turnover of indigenous employees was prompted by negative relationships among nonindigenous workers. Hsiao et al. were able to look at whether ethnicity had a moderating effect on perceived organizational diversity, job performance, organizational citizenship, and turnover factors.

African American faculty have reported experiences with patterns of exclusion, survival strategies, reduced compensation, racism, and the lack of support by mentors, peers, and leaders within an organization, which makes it difficult for faculty of color to be retained and succeed (Hassouneh et al., 2014; Lodhi et al., 2013). As mentioned previously regarding recruitment and retention issues of African American faculty, these problems are not limited to education. In the healthcare field, specifically for nursing faculty, the data shows that African Americans make up only 10.7% of the 2.9 million registered nurses in the U.S. workforce (Health Resources and Services Administration, 2015). DiAngelo (2018) argued the need for mentoring support from self-identified White allies, and at least one profession has tried this approach. Spanierman and Smith (2017) identified the pitfalls and benefits related to the role of White allies as mentors with European American psychologists and their colleagues of color. White allies needed to guard against European American dominance over faculty of color; however, they could provide collegial counsel.

One of the most persistent challenges in American higher education today is the growth and preservation of faculty from all underrepresented racial minorities (Gumpertz et al., 2017; Hagan et al., 2016; Hassouneh et al., 2014). However, the status of Black/African American faculty is of concern given the unique history of racism and discrimination affecting this racial/ethnic minority group throughout U.S. history (DiAngelo, 2018; Wilder et al., 2015). A primary goal of the 1960s Civil Rights legislation was to improve access to education for underrepresented groups, yet the ascension of Blacks to the professoriate has been slow in the post-Civil Rights era (Wilder et al., 2015). Wilder et al. (2015) argued that the presidency of Barack Obama would help provide a "post-racialism" (p. 175) effect in higher education to escalate the discussion of propagating the Black professoriate, which would improve the visibility of African American faculty on campuses for students. Beard and Julion (2016) illustrated how in the nursing field, the issue of race matters with African American faculty in PWIs. The 23 African American faculty in the study claimed that their experience with discrimination was a factor causing them to leave or stay in academia. Beard and Julion also found that intentional actions, recognizing the extent to which racism exists within the institution and recommending a change in policies and structures, can provide institutional leaders with the opportunity to discuss racism and other inequities that could strengthen institutional commitments to racial diversity and support recruitment and retention efforts.

CRT has also been used to identify racism as a chief factor affecting African Americans' decisions to enter and remain at PWIs. An important factor in recruitment and retention is understanding if there is a role for a White ally as an informal mentor. DiAngelo (2018) argued that collectively addressing equity issues that transform policy, programs, and practices are needed for the support of self-identified White allies. According to Schmaling et al. (2015), in most studies, even though researchers interviewed White faculty, have not focused enough on the needs of allies to improve African American retention and recruitment. Kivel (2017) argued that White allies must be intentional (i.e., taking initiatives to advocate for African American faculty and foster research and mentoring) in their relationships with people of color, no matter the field. Research shows that African American faculty have seen the smallest growth of any faculty group at PWIs (Dade et al., 2015; NCES, 2017). Although institutions strive to increase their recruitment efforts for diversifying faculty, African Americans remain consistently less represented than their European American colleagues.

Barriers to Retention of African American Faculty

Researchers have provided examples of the experiences of African American faculty regarding the barriers they faced while employed at a PWI. Some experiences centered around the lack of significant interaction with other African American faculty, while others experienced isolation and systemic racism. Siegel et al. (2015) investigated the underrepresentation of African American faculty at PWIs, including factors of marginalization and isolation experienced by these faculty members. The researchers used a comparative case study designed to explore the perceptions of 18 full-time tenured and nontenured African American faculty regarding the benefits of staying at PWIs despite the disparities they experienced. The results indicated that although African American faculty found it easy to associate with their European American colleagues, they still felt institutional barriers of racism.

Schmaling et al. (2015) offered reasons for diversity and African American faculty experiences related to recruitment and retention that contributed to racism, White privilege, and isolation. Schmaling et al. interviewed 191 candidates for tenure-track faculty positions to understand how they would advance diversity through research, teaching, and service. The results provided further understanding of how various academic disciplines approached diversity. The results also demonstrated that diversity statements from the individual disciplines within the institutions included differences in how they were categorized, such as gender, age, race, and ethnicity.

Gamble and Turner's (2015) phenomenological study sampled 10 African American women in executive leadership in postsecondary institutions to explore how life experiences and career development impacted their roles in professional development. The results showed that African American leadership with similar experiences and degrees as their European American peers experienced a lack of respect and rejection in expressing their ethnicity or cultural identities. Dade et al. (2015) focused on a PWI in the Midwestern United States using a case study approach. Dade et al.'s study was auto ethnographic and explored the adverse experiences of faculty of color resulting from organizational biases, institutional racism, and overall deficiency of cultural awareness. The findings of the study helped institutional leaders develop cultural sensitivity training for faculty and annual reviews of diversity policies.

Summary and Conclusions

Chapter 2 began with the literature strategy to identify research that supported the phenomena that African American faculty represent the smallest growth in faculty members at PWIs. Moreover, the discussion of CRT and SIT demonstrated how racism, isolation, and discrimination have existed in higher education institutions and how ethnic groups interact with one another, which has adversely affected the recruitment and retention of African American faculty. The conceptual framework built on CRT and SIT supported the research design concerning how African American faculty navigate White spaces through the lens of race and how they view themselves compared to their European American colleagues. The advantages and disadvantages of recruitment and retention demonstrate how African American faculty navigate PWIs, which struggle to define diversity at their institutions. The recruitment and retention of African American faculty in these areas as institutions seek to grow these efforts in the academe.

In Chapter 3, I provide the research design and rationale and explain my role as the researcher. I detail the methodology used, including the interview protocol and provide the data analysis plan. Finally, I discuss issues of trustworthiness as well as ethical procedures used in this study.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this basic qualitative research study was to obtain the perspectives of faculty members regarding the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs. In this chapter, I present the research design and rationale, my role as the researcher, and methodology, including participant selection, interview approach, and data analysis plan. I also discuss issues of trustworthiness—credibility, dependability, and confirmability—as well as ethical procedures.

Research Design and Rationale

The research question for this qualitative study was the following: What are the perspectives of faculty members who have experience participating in the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs? I used a basic qualitative research approach, described by Merriam and Tisdell (2016) as appropriate when the researcher wishes to better understand and explain the issue or problem being investigated. Therefore, in this study, obtaining the perspectives of faculty who had experience participating in the recruitment and retention of African American faculty was helpful to provide explanations of why barriers exist and to help develop strategies that could improve these areas. Basic or generic studies allow the researcher to have the flexibility to fit the research design to the study as well as align it with the research question instead of following a set pattern, which assists the researcher in interpreting the study's findings (Kahlke, 2018).

Merriam (2009) noted that a chief characteristic of qualitative research is how individuals construct meaning in their interaction with their social worlds. Although ethnography and phenomenology designs could have been used in this study, the best approach was basic qualitative. Initially, ethnography was a choice because of the cultures represented in this study. The purpose of an ethnographical design is to understand the interaction of individuals with others and the cultural impact in their lives through everyday life and practice (Merriam, 2009). Ethnography is grounded in cultural anthropology and in understanding a social-cultural system (Creswell, 2009). However, I did not choose ethnography because my focus in this study was not on cultural concepts or the prominent role of culture but on the experiences and perspectives of faculty members in terms of recruitment and retention of African American faculty.

A phenomenological design allows the researcher to understand the meaning of a phenomenon. The researcher is also highly involved and attempts to set aside biases, perspectives, and cultural norms to focus on how a small group experiences a phenomenon and then make meaning of it (Creswell, 2009). Phenomenology would have been appropriate for this study because it focuses on a small group of participants who have common experiences. Phenomenology is also used to examine the experiences and perspectives and their meaning to the participants. However, phenomenology was not appropriate for this study as I did not seek to understand the meaning of the phenomenon but to obtain faculty perspectives regarding the recruitment and retention of African American faculty. Therefore, the most appropriate choice was a basic qualitative research design that included interviews to gather data concerning the experiences of the participants.

I used in-depth interviews to collect data to obtain the perspectives of faculty who participated in the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs. Rubin and Rubin (2012) posited that in-depth interviews in qualitative research involve talking to those "who have knowledge of or experience with the problem of interest" (p. 3). Additionally, in-depth interviewing enables the researcher to explore, in detail, the participants' experiences and view the world through a lens other than their own. A basic qualitative inquiry also shows how individuals construct reality in interaction with the social worlds outside of themselves.

Role of the Researcher

Creswell (2009) argued that in qualitative research, the researcher is the instrument. In qualitative research, the characteristics of the interviewer may benefit the goal of the study, in particular, the style of the interviewer (Pezalla et al., 2012). Rubin and Rubin (2012) suggested that the role of the researcher is significant regarding interview style and how the researcher prepares to question the participants. My role as the researcher in this study was to develop the interview questions (see Appendix), participant invitation flier, consent form, and thank you letter. Rubin and Rubin (2012) also argued that it is important that the researcher establish a role that will be meaningful to the participants by establishing a rapport.

In this study, I used my previous roles as counselor, reporter, and public speaker, as well as my interviewing style and ability to engage with people to help build a rapport with the participants intellectually and educationally to obtain the information essential to this research. I also played the role of observer. These attributes also assisted me, as a scholarly researcher, to ask questions that were germane to the study and yielded responses that prompted follow-up questions to understand the experiences of the participants. As a result, I had the opportunity to establish a conversation with the participants, who were willing to relay rich and reliable information to help me understand the problem of this study. In addition, I kept a research journal to track any information that supported themes or phenomena of interest in this study. Lastly, it was important for me to recognize any biases I might have had as I am an African American faculty member working at a PWI. Although I attempted to recruit participants through venues that were familiar to me (social media and a professional network), I did not recruit any participants from professional organizations or with whom I had worked or have a personal relationship.

Methodology

In this section, I describe the methodology for this research, including the rationale for participant selection, the data collection instrument (interview protocol), and the participant selection process. I also discuss the processes for participant recruitment, participation, and data collection. Lastly, I include the data analysis plan and discuss issues of trustworthiness and ethical procedures.

Participant Selection Logic

Patton (2015) argued that richness and depth of information could be achieved with a small sample size. According to Mason (2010), a large sample size is not necessary if the information collected is rich and saturation can be reached. The participant selection strategy for this research study used specific criteria to recruit 10 faculty members who had experience participating in recruiting and retaining African American faculty at PWIs. Even with a small sample size, data can be rich if the participants are carefully selected based upon relevant criteria. Faculty self-identified for this study using the requirements below. All interviewees met the first criteria and either the second or third for participation in this study.

First Selection Criterion

The first requirement for selection in this study was that the participants must have been faculty currently working at a PWI and employed at a PWI for a minimum of 2 years. I selected the timeframe of 2 years because it gives faculty time to acclimate to their roles and responsibilities related to the recruitment and retention of African American faculty. The amount of time provided faculty with an understanding of the climate at their respective institutions.

Second Selection Criterion

The second criterion was that the participants had served on a faculty search and/or tenure committee. A faculty member with experience on a search committee could provide valuable information and descriptions of their experiences in the recruitment and retention of faculty. A participant with tenure committee experience could offer recommendations on a process for new hires for tenure track.

Third Selection Criterion

The third selection criterion included providing advocacy for African American faculty member(s) through either mentoring and/or coteaching or conducting coresearch with those colleagues. In regard to mentoring, African Americans could be mentored by

other African American faculty or by European American faculty. Coteaching and coresearching could be achieved through European American faculty or African American faculty sharing class loads or participating in joint research opportunities.

The participants chosen for this study were both men or women faculty employed at various PWIs in the United States who self-identified their racial and ethnic backgrounds. I recruited the participants using a flier posted on LinkedIn. The participants self-identified that they met the required criteria, completed the informed consent form, agreed to interviews, and answered the questions in the interview guide.

Instrumentation

I developed an interview guide and audio-recorded the interviews for this study. Creswell (2009) suggested that an interview guide be developed with open-ended questions that include exploratory verbs and language. This protocol helps the researcher remain focused on the central research question. The interview guide for this study included open-ended questions based on the conceptual framework, review of the research literature, and the research question. These questions allowed the participants to provide data to answer the research question.

I took journal notes to document my thinking during the research process and to capture my impressions of how the participants responded to the interview questions. I also asked additional questions, which helped me to follow-up on a salient point from the participant. Through the data collection and analysis process, I reviewed my journal notes to get a clearer understanding of what the participant revealed in the interview.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

After obtaining Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval (# 04-10-20-0344438), I proceeded with a participant recruitment strategy. I employed the following strategies to recruit participants for this study. I had 17 inquiries from the flier I posted on LinkedIn. As a result, I ended up interviewing 12 participants but rejected two based on insufficient information to meet the criteria. I also used snowball sampling as outlined by Merriam (2009) and Patton (2015) as a second strategy to recruit participants. The last strategy I employed was to post my flier on the Black Women Faculty Professional Staff Network website; however, there was no response, and I did not recruit any participants from this site. All 10 participants were recruited from LinkedIn.

Once I identified qualified participants who met two of the three inclusion criteria posted on the flier, I sent them the informed consent form via email to indicate they agreed and understood the research study. All participants signed the informed consent form and responded by email. Following the email reply, I scheduled a 45–60-minute phone interview for each participant using a generated conference call number that I set-up on my phone to record the interviews. At the start of each interview, I introduced myself and restated the purpose of the study, which included the research question. I then proceeded with the questions from the interview guide and collected data from the participants.

I audio recorded the interviews using a phone application. I took journal notes during each interview to ensure the data was accurately captured. In the recorded interviews, I identified the participants using pseudonyms to protect their identities and ensure confidentiality. The use of pseudonyms made it easier for me to match the transcripts with the correct participants and to code and identify themes. Allen and Wiles (2016) posited that the researcher's use of assigned pseudonyms supports confidence that confidentiality will be protected and only the researcher will know the participants' real names.

I enlisted a professional transcription service, Rev, to transcribe the interviews. I downloaded the Rev phone application to record the interviews. The company had secure data encryption security, provided a nondisclosure agreement, assured 99% accuracy with a 12 hour to 4-day turnaround. I listened to the audio of the interviews, reviewed my notes, and assigned the pseudonyms to the participants prior to sending the recordings to Rev. Once each transcription was completed, I reviewed and sent an electronic copy to each participant via email to review and verify its accuracy and asked that it be returned in 1 week with any revisions. Participants who had revisions sent them to me via email. If there was a need to clarify further, I offered to arrange a phone call using the same generated conference call number. I also blacked out the name of the participants' universities on the transcripts to ensure their identity or place of employment was confidential. The participants were offered a \$15 gift card upon the completion of the interview process.

Data Analysis

There were seven steps in the data analysis process as outlined by Rubin and Rubin (2012). In the first step, after I had recorded the interviews, I uploaded these to Rev for transcription. Next, I summarized each interview. In the second step, I defined

the text and coded the participants' names using pseudonyms and reviewed each transcript.

The third step in the data analysis process was to identify codes. Once I summarized each interview, I reviewed my notes and added this information to the interview summary. I inputted the data into NVivo 12 Plus to organize themes and concepts and compared this with my interview notes. This helped me to examine how the participants' responses answered the research question.

The fourth step was to sort codes to identify repetition. NVIVO 12 Plus sorted and identified repetitive codes linked to similar themes. The fifth step in the analysis was to integrate descriptions from the interviews and combine codes into themes, review themes, and any other relevant information. The sixth step was to generalize the results of the study. I identified how these results tested, modified, or extended CRT or SIT as well as answered the research question.

Finally, in the seventh step, I used the raw data to describe the themes. I also utilized NVIVO 12 Plus to sort responses. I integrated descriptions from different participants using the raw data to create a complete picture of the themes that answered the research question and offered suggestions for social change. These findings may also offer next steps for future studies.

Issues of Trustworthiness

Nowell et al. (2017) postulated that for any research to be accepted as trustworthy, the researcher must demonstrate that data analysis has been conducted in a precise, consistent, and thorough manner. This is done by recording data, disclosing the methods of analysis, and evaluating the participants' responses to ensure the findings are accurate. Additionally, it is important for the researcher to avoid biases and to guide the reader to determine if the process is credible. Trustworthiness is addressed through credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability.

Credibility

The credibility/internal validity of a study refers to whether the research findings represent plausible information collected from the participants and that there is a correct interpretation of the data (Anney, 2014). Credibility was demonstrated as each participant had the opportunity to review their interview transcripts for accuracy. To increase plausibility and rigor, I utilized these reviews to test the data, including the voices of the participants, and eliminated any bias(es) I might have had when analyzing and interpreting the results of the study (see Anney, 2014). Birt et al. (2016) recommended using member-checking to ensure the accuracy of the participants' responses regarding their experiences and to help decrease researcher bias(es) while strengthening research integrity.

Transferability

Transferability is accomplished when thick, rich descriptions of the findings allow others to determine to what extent they can be transferred to other types of studies (Nowell et al., 2017). The transferability of this study is strengthened by the findings from the interview questions; data saturation was achieved with multiple common responses by the participants regarding their experiences and perceptions in recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs. Providing the responses of the participants in relation to the conceptual framework of CRT and SIT allows the reader to determine transferability.

Dependability

The dependability of a study demonstrates that the research process is clearly documented and consistent (Nowell et al., 2017). Dependability involves participants evaluating the study's findings. In this study, dependability was accomplished through audit trails that included my interview notes and data collection.

Confirmability

Confirmability is establishing that interpretations of the study's findings are not imaginative but derived from the data (Anney, 2014). Confirmability was demonstrated by validating the conceptual framework built on CRT and SIT with the participants' experiences, the research problem, and the research question. Nowell et al. (2017) argued that confirmability establishes confidence in the research findings from the data, audit trails, reflective journals, and records. As the research instrument, I applied reflexivity as a process to critically think about how I understood the data through notetaking to appropriately interpret the data and understand how the participants' responses aligned with that interpretation (Patton, 2015).

Ethical Procedures

The ethical processes followed in this study included obtaining approval from the Black Women Faculty Professional Staff Network to recruit participants by posting a flier on their website. There were no approvals needed for LinkedIn for this study. Once I gained approval from the Black Women Faculty Professional Staff Network, I sent a copy of the flier to the designated staff member to post; however, no participants were recruited from this organization. I was granted approval from Walden University's IRB in April 2020. Once approval was granted, I proceeded to recruit participants for the study consistent with the guidelines established by IRB and outlined in this chapter. The informed consent agreement indicated the participants' voluntary consent, provided them with a statement of confidentiality and assured them that pseudonyms would be used to protect their identities.

In most studies, the researcher should anticipate ethical implications. An ethical concern in this study was confidentiality, which was critical for these participants as the issue of diversity, recruitment, and retention could have adversely impacted their jobs if I revealed any identifying information about their institution. The informed consent included the purpose of the study, a request to audio record the interview, and the timeframe for taking part in the study (one 45-60-minute interview, in person or over the phone).

The participants were informed that they could opt-out of study at any time. I scheduled a transcript review following the interview with each participant via email to confirm the accuracy of their responses. I set up a separate, secure email for the participants, and I was the only person to access this with password protection. Coordination of the interviews took place during the COVID-19 pandemic, but I was fortunate to complete the interview process in 1 month as opposed to the estimated 2-3 and 2-4 months to analyze data. Finally, I saved the digital and audio versions of the transcripts, analyses, and recordings on a password-protected external hard drive, which

was only accessible by me and kept in a secure location. The data will be stored for 5 years after the study's completion and then destroyed.

Summary

In Chapter 3, I outlined the research method for this basic qualitative research study to support the data collection and analysis of the perspectives and experiences of faculty members who have participated in the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs. I discussed how I used a single interview approach and analyzed the data with circumspection and in detail by identifying the themes in the participants' responses that answered the research question. Finally, I outlined the process of how to recruit and secure data.

In Chapter 4, I discuss the study's setting and demographics as well as the procedures for data collection and analysis. I also present the processes for ensuring the trustworthiness of the study. Finally, I provide the results of the data analysis as it pertains to the research question.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this basic qualitative study was to obtain the perspectives of faculty members regarding the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs. The following research question guided this study: What are the perspectives of faculty members who have experience participating in the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs? In this chapter, I discuss the study's setting and demographics as well as the procedures for data collection and analysis. I present the processes for ensuring trustworthiness and the findings from the data analysis.

Setting

I conducted individual interviews for this study during a nationwide health pandemic, COVID-19, which resulted in stay-at-home orders for most of the United States. Therefore, I was obligated to interview all participants by telephone to comply with safety guidelines. Fortunately, the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic did not influence the interpretation of this study or its results.

Demographics and Participants' Descriptions

Table 1 provides a list of the participants' demographics and their pseudonyms. The table also includes their gender, race/ethnicity, the geographic region where they work, and their faculty roles.

Table 1

Demographics

Name (pseudonym)	Gender	Race/ethnicity	Geographic region	Faculty roles
Sherry	Female	African American	East Coast ^a	Tenure track faculty
Payton	Female	European American	Midwest ^b	Assistant professor
Wayne	Male	African American	South ^a	Assistant professor
Omar	Male	African American	Midwest ^a	Assistant professor
Marsha	Female	African American	Great Plains ^a	Research assistant /adjunct faculty
David	Male	European American	Midwest ^b	Department chair/tenured professor
Pamela	Female	African American	Midwest ^b	Director of counseling/assistant professor
Copper	Male	African American Gulf Coast ^a		Affiliate faculty
Marvin	Male	African American	East Coast ^c	Tenured professor/part-time faculty
Heather	Female	European American	Southeast ^b	Assistant teaching professor

Note. This table describes the demographics of the participants in this study.

^aIndicates a public PWI. ^bIndicates a private PWI. ^cIndicates the participant worked concurrently at both public and private institutions at the time of the interview.

The 10 faculty participants represented multiple regions of the United States, with the exception of the West Coast, Alaska, and Hawaii. Six participants worked at public institutions, and four worked at private institutions. The participants were equally male and female. Seventy-five percent were African American and 25% European American. The first criterion for participation in this study was that the faculty member must currently work at a PWI and have done so for a minimum of 2 years. The second criterion was that they had served on a search and/or tenure committee. The third criterion was that the faculty member had provided advocacy for African American faculty member(s) either through mentoring and/or coteaching or had conducted research with those colleagues. All 10 faculty members met the first criteria and either the second or the third. Below is a brief description of each participant.

Marvin, an African American tenured professor and former dean, currently works at both a public and a private PWI in two different roles. Marvin serves part-time as an adjunct faculty for the private PWI while serving at a public PWI as a tenured professor. He has worked 27 years in PWIs where he served on a search committee as a faculty member and former dean. Marvin has also participated in research and created programs to engage faculty in the community.

David is a tenured European American professor and department chair from a private PWI. He has worked for this PWI for 9 years, served on search committees, and participated in coteaching and mentoring roles. Pamela is from the same private PWI as David, is African American, and has been an assistant professor for 2 years. She has served on search committees, has mentored students, and been a faculty mentee.

Copper, an African American affiliate faculty member for 2 years, has served on a search committee and has roles in teaching and administrative responsibilities.

Heather is a European American assistant professor who has worked 21 years in both private and public PWIs, served on search committees, and advocated for African American faculty.

Payton, a nontenured European American assistant professor for 9 years, has served on search committees. She has worked with South Asian faculty and with one African American faculty member. Payton's PWI is located in a predominately European American rural community in the Midwest.

Marsha, an African American adjunct professor for 4 years, conducts research, and has served on search committees. She started a tenure-track assistant professor of educational leadership position at another PWI post-interview.

Sherry is an African American and has been tenure-track faculty for 3 years, served on search committees, and has been a faculty mentee.

Wayne, an African American assistant professor on tenure-track for 2 years, has served on an African American teaching recruitment committee.

Omar is an African American tenure-track assistant professor of education for 2 years, who has served on search committees and participated in research.

Data Collection

Following Walden University's IRB approval (# 04-10-20-0344438), I began recruiting participants for the study. Although I received 17 inquiries and interviewed 12 participants who self-identified as meeting the criteria, I used interview data from only 10 participants. I chose to remove two participants from the data analysis because I discovered during the interview that they did not meet the study criteria. I collected data using the interview guide, which I developed, containing the interview questions as well as follow-up questions (if needed) to clarify the participants' responses. Each interview took approximately 45-minutes. I conducted interviews from April 23 through May 20, 2020, during the day and evenings because the participants lived in various time zones. The participants provided in-depth responses to each interview question and additional valuable feedback when I asked probing questions. This, in turn, helped provide rich and dynamic data concerning their perspectives and experiences.

I designed the interview questions to elicit responses to support the literature review, the conceptual framework, and answer the research question. I used the Rev phone application to record each interview, which gave me the ability to upload the interviews for transcription with 99% accuracy. The Rev application also allowed me to set up a phone number for the interviews along with recording and transcription capabilities.

When I called the participants, I introduced myself, reiterated the purpose of the study, and allowed for questions before I started recording. Once the interview was completed, I assigned each participant a pseudonym to protect their identity and removed

any reference to their employer's name before transcription. I listened to the recording and sent it to Rev for immediate transcription; I received the interview transcripts via my secure email within 12-hours of each interview. Once I received the transcripts, I saved them on an external hard drive. I matched the participant's pseudonym with an alpha/numeric code. Next, I reviewed the transcripts for any spelling errors or identifying information before sending them to the participants to check for accuracy. There were only two minor corrections (e.g., spelling errors brought to my attention by two participants), and those were corrected then resent for confirmation.

While there were no unusual circumstances encountered in data collection, there was one variation to the initial plan for recording, which was to use my Galaxy tablet. I used my phone, which included both the recording and transcription application, which provided further protection of the participants' privacy as well as reliability when recording to ensure accurate transcriptions. Lastly, Rev also provided me with a copy of a nondisclosure statement, which stated that the transcriptionists at Rev had signed a confidentiality agreement. I reviewed the agreement and sent it back to their legal department as an acknowledgment. The agreement was sufficient to ensure confidentiality.

Lastly, I offered each participant a \$15 Amazon gift card for completing the study. Six of the participants opted not to take the gift card and stated that they wanted to participate in the study because of the relevance of the research, especially since it was conducted during a pandemic.

Data Analysis

I took notes during the interviews while recording each participant. I began coding following the interviews. As planned, I employed the 7-step process for data analysis proposed by Rubin and Rubin (2012). I read each participant's transcript and used NVIVO 12 Plus to identify emerging themes and common words and phrases from the interviews. I then reviewed the transcripts again and used a whiteboard where I continued the process of identifying repetitive words and phrases that described the participants' perspectives that aligned with the research question. NVIVO 12 Plus provided a word cloud through a query that showed frequently used words but did not benefit me in identifying emergent themes.

I continued to analyze the data and hand code using a whiteboard and post-itnotes; I reviewed the raw data and journal notes I wrote during the interviews to help identify emergent themes. Next, I reviewed the interview guide questions and where I used follow-up questions relevant to the research question. As planned, the three European American faculty members were not asked the two questions designated for the African American faculty. Two participants were not expressly asked all questions in the guide as they provided responses that provided answers to these in a different interview question.

The following words and phrases were used as codes to develop and identify emergent themes: distinctions of privilege, European American faculty functions, views of diversity, search committee actions, institutional barriers, and approaches to mentoring. Below, I provide a brief summary of the themes and codes from my data analysis. I present the findings in the context of the research question.

Table 2

Major Themes

Theme	Corresponding codes	Theme Definition
Distinctions of privilege	Using the race card, White privilege, class and gender, and generational bias	Distinctions of privilege is the perceived entitlement experienced or witnessed by participants that takes place in their respective institutions toward African Americans.
European American functions	White allies, ineptitude of European American faculty, and European American faculty advocating for African American faculty	European American faculty functions refer to the various ways in which European American faculty engaged with African American faculty through advocating and the role of the White ally, how European American faculty slacked in their responsibility to improve retention of African American faculty.
Views of diversity	Lack of diverse faculty and institutional commitment to diversity	Views of diversity refers to how participants experienced diversity in their institutions through structure and interaction with other faculty.
Search committee actions	Individual committee member's actions, collective committee members' actions, and a sense of belonging	Search committee actions describe the intentional efforts search committee members employed to actively recruit African American faculty
Institutional barriers	Low pay, tenure track process, lack of partnerships, inadequate faculty packages, and racism	Institutional barriers are inequities among institutions, such as low pay, tenure track process, racism, lack of partnerships, and inadequate faculty packages that impacted retention.
Approaches to mentoring	Informal and formal mentoring	Approaches to mentoring is how participants experienced mentoring at their institutions and how they took the initiative in mentoring.

Discrepant cases are responses that are dissimilar from those voiced by the majority of participants. In qualitative research, these cases must be factored into the analysis of the study's findings. Based on the responses of the participants concerning their experiences and perspectives, I did not identify any discrepant cases.

Evidence of Trustworthiness

In this basic qualitative study, I took multiple steps to ensure the credibility, transferability, and dependability of results and confirm that the study reflected the perceptions of the participants and not personal bias.

Credibility

I established credibility by recording the interviews and taking notes during and after the interview with each participant. I then reviewed the recordings and listened to sections listed by Rev as inaudible in the transcripts to ensure accuracy in the responses from the participants. I conducted transcript reviews with the participants to provide an opportunity for them to confirm their accuracy. Next, I examined the data for discrepant cases by identifying any that differed from the majority of the findings by analyzing the data for outlier responses.

Transferability

Transferability is dependent on thick, rich descriptions of the findings (Nowell et al., 2017). I provided these as well as information on my processes for collecting and analyzing the data. As a result of the in-depth analysis of the detailed responses from the participants, readers can determine the extent of transferability to other disciplines.

Dependability

To achieve dependability in this study, I reviewed, analyzed, and coded the transcripts with a colleague and my doctoral committee chair. I kept a journal of the coding process and findings, which established an audit trail. Additionally, I developed a whiteboard chart with post-it-notes of themes, categories, and responses from each participant. This process enabled me to conduct a thorough review of the data to create a complete picture of the emergent themes and subthemes.

Confirmability

I established confirmability in this study, creating an audit trail by detailing the research process and recording interviews. I practiced reflexivity by keeping a journal, which was helpful in identifying codes and emerging themes and analyzing the data. I also ensured confirmability by interpreting the results from the responses of the participants, avoiding biases to understand how the participants' responses aligned with the research question.

Results

During this study, I interviewed 10 individuals from various PWIs across America regarding their experiences and perspectives on the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at the institutions where they worked. Some participants recalled experiences from previous PWIs. The participants' responses included several experiences that answered the research question: What are the perspectives of faculty members who have experience in participating in the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs? There were six themes that emerged from the data for both recruitment and retention: distinctions of privilege, European American faculty functions, views of diversity, search committee actions, institutional barriers, and approaches to mentoring. Table 3 lists these themes and the accompanying subthemes.

Table 3

Themes	and	<i>Subthemes</i>

Themes	Subthemes		
Distinctions of privilege	White privilege, class and gender, generational		
	bias, and using the race card		
European American functions	White allies, ineptitude of European American		
-	faculty, and European American faculty		
	advocating for African American faculty		
Views of diversity	Lack of diverse faculty and institutional		
	commitment to diversity		
Search committee actions	Individual committee actions and collective		
	committee actions		
Institutional barriers	Low pay, tenure track process, lack of		
	partnerships, inadequate faculty packages, and		
	racism		
Approaches to mentoring	Informal and formal mentoring		

Theme 1: Distinctions of Privilege

Eight participants in this study depicted privilege as present through established institutional policies and structures. Some European American recognized this, while others dismissed it. The findings indicated that there were many facets to privilege. Both European American and African American participants agreed that they possessed some level of privilege with African American faculty indicated that privilege was linked to being the only representation of their race at the institution. African American faculty also described White privilege as a pejorative, with the term used most often by European American in policy and hiring. Copper, an African American faculty participant, shared his thoughts about how privilege was a concern that both African American and European Americans needed to recognize, value, and hold themselves accountable for. He said,

Everybody has to take a look at their selves in the mirror, figure out what their

privilege is because the fact of the matter is [that] minorities have privilege too.

And so, we have to check our privilege at the door.

Marsha acknowledged that she had privilege as a minority. She posited that she benefited from the privilege of being the only African American in her department. Marsha stated, "And while it's both exhausting and frustrating and ridiculous that I, on many occasions, was the only Black woman in the department, I will also say I benefited from that in some ways."

White Privilege

European American shared how they witnessed White privilege at their institutions through policy and inequitable actions toward African American faculty. Heather, a European American assistant professor and former administrator said, "So I was on lots of search committees. And what I experienced as far as White privilege and being at a historically White institution was just that: very comfortable." Similarly, David observed White privilege, which a colleague also confirmed; however, he believed that it was something that European Americans do not understand. He noted,

I've seen decisions made that appeared to be very founded in White privilege. As I stood outside, it's like, okay, I think I know what's going on here. . . . It's not an excuse. [It is] knowing what they don't know.

Wayne, an African American assistant faculty member, noted that White privilege is viewed by African Americans as invisible labor. He explained,

When I talk about that invisible labor, I think that it's partially something we own as we go into these positions knowing that we're going to encounter Whiteness from our students, from faculty. When I talk about Whiteness, I'm just talking about the ways around some of the things with White privilege and sort of this sense of what it means to present diverse ideas or whatever that might be. We sort of take on that extra work.

Payton, a European American member from a private Christian school, viewed White privilege through the lens of accountability as a European American:

There's probably a group of 12 of us that have actively tried to look at White privilege, and I have to say going into it, I just wanted to know more. I wanted to know if I was doing something wrong, saying something wrong.

Copper, on the other hand, shared the perspective that privilege is a struggle for African Americans, and he contended that some of White privilege is meant to help African Americans. He stated,

I find that there are people that want to help you. They don't know how to help you. We have to be able to understand that there are people who want to help us, but there are also sociological and psychological things that they're being mindful of as well sometimes that may not necessarily always make them as comfortable. White people that want to help you, but they don't know how to help you.

Class and Gender

Marsha perceived that privilege was based on the faculty's class (e.g., tenure versus nontenure) at her PWI as well as gender in terms of promotion and pay opportunities for men and women faculty. Marsha said, "Changing the way that the academy views Black women, but also changing the ways that they talk about themselves throughout the process. So again, it's some type of initiative around recruitment and retention." Sherry also shared her perspective regarding class privilege as it related to policy in higher education:

We're going to see a lot of racial and class privilege acting out in higher ed. than I think we've seen before. The class privilege is something that I'm really attentive to right now in terms of all the policies and change that's happening because I think people, we don't talk about class enough. And then, the intersection of race and class is another piece of the puzzle that doesn't get enough attention in practice or in policy.

Generational Bias

Heather's perspective of generational bias was that there was a network of older European American men who employed policies that were discriminatory toward African American faculty; however, she thought they were open to diverse groups, even though there were no diverse faculty at her PWI. She called this generational bias.

Because the institution I was working at was definitely predominantly White and historically White . . . when push comes to shove and you're in the heat of a situation or a hiring situation, I found it to be really challenging when they

sometimes would go with what was comfortable, would be maybe a White person who's really experiences [*sic*], tons of experience. And may go with that rather than take a chance on a person of color who would have a lot to offer as far as new ideas and innovation and just coming from a different worldview perspective.

Using the Race Card

A unique use of privilege was discussed by Copper, who described privilege for African Americans as their ability to use the "race card." Copper described a European American colleague of his delicately discussing race while giving him advice about a career move.

And this was a White woman saying something like that, talking about a topic like race in terms of where I should move to advance my career, right? And so, with that being said, that's an example of somebody kind of traversing the waters on that race card. And even though she wasn't the most comfortable saying it, she still delivered the advice, but it wasn't in her comfort zone or in her wheelhouse.

Copper made this claim because he believed the advice was unusual coming from a European American colleague. Copper was seeking a position in another city where the population was predominately African American, whereas he currently resides in a community that is not. His colleague advised him to stay where he was because he would stand out more as the only African American. Copper stated that he benefited from the advice, but the colleague apologized as if she had offended him. Copper used the term race card as a privilege for African Americans. He stated, And they [White people] don't get that privilege of the race card to be able to use it and to say it and it say like, "I'm a minority." Even though there are a lot of nonprivileges that come with the race card, we get the privilege of being able to utilize it when it is beneficial for us.

Theme 2: European American Functions

Seven faculty in this study had different experiences with European American functions. The European American agreed that cultural sensitivity and inclusion are practices in which European American should take part through training. African American and European American also agreed that White allies have made an overwhelmingly positive contribution to the retention of African American faculty. This was achieved through mentors who advocated for policies and practices that affirmed African American faculty. However, the African American faculty agreed that European American needed to contribute more to policy and systemic changes. David discussed that, in his experience, being culturally sensitive and serving as an ally was important for retention:

I think our retention has been pretty good, but you can always improve. I would think, maybe, as opposed to adding something [or] continuing to be culturally sensitive because we tend to be a majority White institution in a majority White geographic area, so it's kind of a double threat situation. So cultural sensitivity—it can't be assumed. I think my department is ahead of the curve of the institution just because of our training and what we do [and] we have to be. Yeah, I guess my quick answer would be to have everybody else listen to what we do, but that's kind of a self-centered approach.

Payton contended that to recruit or retain African American faculty is not a decision for just European American to make. He noted, "It's inappropriate, but can you put a bunch of White professors together to solve the problem? No. I think we're talking to the wrong people."

White Allies

Both European and African American faculty saw a role for White allies— European Americans acting as allies and African Americans viewing European Americans as allies. For example, Heather, a European American member, considered herself a White ally. She said, "I would say I definitely consider myself an ally for faculty of color." Pamela, an African American faculty member, saw her mentor as a White ally. She noted,

Yes, there are most definitely [White allies]. My mentor is a White ally. And there's a lot of assistance in coteaching and how I adjust to students. Because the other side of staying on at [a] PWI [is] we have students that are predominantly White. So, having an advocate with the students and administration is really helpful. When I start to encounter, like, implicit bias or microaggressions from White students, other faculty, or administrators, having those allies is usually helpful. On the other hand, Marsha did not view White allies as positive. Citing her experience with her institution and their lack of equitable policies or barriers that did not benefit African American faculty, she said,

Let's actually have an equity mindset where we're pushing those things, and that's not going to happen on the backs of people of color because we've been doing the same thing over and over and over again. I don't like the word allies because I don't think people can truly be allies. And that's a whole other conversation. What I do think is we need White people who are going to be about their business and stop doing, in the words of one of my participants for my dissertation, "Stop doing cover-your-ass strategies but actually do the work to change."

David, a European American member, believed that his engagement practices with African American faculty enabled him to be an ally by reaching out to them. He explained,

We have a specific program in Black church studies. I see White faculty consulting with faculty in that program to say, "What should I be reading? What do I need to be aware of?" Those kinds of things. So, on a faculty level, some pretty proactive things have been done and continue to be done.

Wayne viewed White allies as a system:

There are White folks who want to do good work. I do think they exist. I've found and been in [the] community with some. I have some colleagues who I'm actually working with. We're doing projects in a local charter school here together, and these are two White women who are committed to doing the work. So, I certainly don't suggest that it's individualized to White people, but I'm talking about Whiteness as a system.

Ineptitude of European American Faculty

The findings of this study indicated the ineptitude of European American and their perpetuation of African Americans as invisible labor. In addition, European American lack comprehension concerning how to advocate for African Americans. At many of the PWIs that Heather, a European American member, has worked, she argued that the leadership did not want to do the hard work with retention when it came to diversity at the institution. She stated,

Older White people, I think, who have that whole stereotype of thinking of one style of leadership, or one style of being part of it, how they participate on the committee or any of that. There's so much comfort that's unspoken about, kind of that typical White presence on a committee. Somebody who's not going to ask questions that make everybody uncomfortable or everybody as far as like White people uncomfortable because they're asking about retention . . . and not wanting to do the hard work.

Wayne's perspective was that European Americans did not bear the same responsibility as African Americans regarding working with minority students:

So, thinking about the additional labor that is often attached to Black faculty and staff, to minoritized faculty generally, to name these things that folks have just sort of allowed to persist is part of the work, . . . [is] part of that invisible labor that

nobody sort of takes up. I think about ways in which I've heard students of color written off. I've seen folks who are dissertating and even master [*sic*] students written off by European American members. In my mind, it's kind of like, if nobody steps in for these students, then they're just going to sort of fall by the wayside.

European Americans Advocating for African American Faculty

Heather claimed that she has often advocated for African American faculty to have administrative roles. She explained,

I did actively advocate for a faculty member of color to be in a higher position as an executive director of equity, diversity, and inclusion . . . for the institution. And yes, just the importance of that for an institution and to have representation and to elevate faculty of color into administrative roles. I've definitely done that over the course of my career quite a bit.

Omar discussed a European American member who helped him professionally:

Another White woman helped me. . . . You know, a big name in the field. She was like, "Hey, if you ever want me to look at something, let me know, paperwise." And I tend to take people up on that, and she really gave me transformative feedback for the paper that I was writing. And that's the type of. . . . That's what I need more than anything, you know? Like, I don't need a White person telling me they feel bad about what . . . happened in regard to racism, you know? You know, I don't care about that. . . . I'm confident. But, if you can help me professionally, if you can help with something, you know, look over a paper. You can include me on a grant. Stuff like that, you know. Where that real capital is. That's what I care about, you know?

Marsha recounted a negative experience she had when European Americans did not advocate for African American faculty but still claimed to support diversity:

An experience where [the] majority of our faculty members are White. We have a couple who identify as Asian American, or at the time, identified as Asian Americans. We had one Chicana scholar within the department, and we had one international Chinese faculty member. So, it [*sic*] wasn't a lot of diversity. You don't care enough about [the] Black faculty member, so you don't do anything to advocate for them, so the system keeps going. So White people have to get their people and do something more than just say, "Oh, we believe in diversity. We believe in inclusion." Stop using those words. You're using them wrong. It's like intersectionality.

Heather thought it was important for a candidate of color to feel a sense of belonging. She said that she would pair the candidate with a person of color who would show them around the community to locate services that met their needs, such as where to get their hair done, as a way to recruit them. She explained,

I think part of it is having diverse faculty on the search committee, and making it comfortable to talk about, especially if they're [the candidate] invited to campus, or they become a finalist. . . . And if they weren't on the search committee, at least part of the on-campus interview process. That they would meet other faculty from diverse backgrounds and get to know things about the area socially. And I know

every campus has its particular situation, but the campuses I've worked on, just to make sure that there would be other faculty who can talk about, okay, "Here's where you could go to get your haircut, or here's where you could go . . ." just different restaurants and whatever might be important culturally. That there were kind of ambassadors, informally, part of the process.

Pamela contended that her experience at her PWI has been positive because of the family atmosphere:

I think, in particular, at my university, there's a lot of family support and promotion and that all. Just like personal support. I think it's very helpful for African Americans. And so, I think if we promoted that more, that would be considered an asset.

Theme 3: Views of Diversity

Eight participants had strong views regarding the appearance of diversity, ranging from the presence of diverse faculty to the institution's commitment to it. The findings demonstrated that European American agreed that diversity was difficult to define in their respective institutions; therefore, their approach did not focus specifically on African American recruitment. Both European Americans and African American faculty agreed that representation of other ethnicities was the litmus test that demonstrated institutions were diverse. European American and African American faculty agreed that the institutions were not intentional in their recruitment of African American faculty. The institutions promoted diversity, but it was nonexistent in departments and faculty ranks. David noted that his institution was unaware of diversity: "And so in terms of diversity, it's kind of an uphill battle sometimes because some people who are in decision making positions don't know what they don't know." Payton's view of diversity did not particularly focus on race or ethnicity:

I have not worked with faculty members of color in my department, but I've worked with diversity. We had a woman whose parents were from India . . . she was born in America but talked about growing up in the Midwest where we're located and never feeling a part of [it]. I have not made it sound very enticing to work here. There's lots of good about it, but diversity is not one.

Sherry's view was that there is no intentional effort to recruit African American faculty. She even attended a workshop on diversity at her institution concerning conducting an equitable search for diversity; however, the workshop appeared to be superficial, not intentional. Sherry described her experience:

And he's delivering this workshop to us, and I'm listening to him, and I'm basically hearing him affirm the myths that are out there and making it okay to just do the basic thing of make sure you have a commitment statement around [being an] equal opportunity employer. And I'm like, that is nice, but that's a legality. And then he's talking about . . . they can pull the stats on the demographics of folks with earned degrees in your discipline, and as long as your pool matches the makeup of the degrees being granted, then that's a good measuring stick. And I'm like, no, no. We want to actually change the makeup. We have to oversample. . . . We have to invert it. This 80/20 White to Black graduates—your pool should be 80% Black and 20% White if you actually want

to net yourself a Black hire, for example. So, I'm just like, this is awful. Stop talking. People are sitting there taking notes, like, oh okay. Cool. Tell me, and I'm like, oh my God. No, this is not going to work.

Lack of Diverse Faculty

The participants expressed the need to have faculty of color at their PWIs, specifically, African Americans. The participants noted that in their experience there was a lack of African Americans in this role and that they have advocated for diverse faculty representation in teaching and research. Marsha's experience at her PWI was that there was a lack of diverse faculty. She explained,

But on the higher ed. side . . ., which is the program that I was in and also in the student affairs side, which was the program I was teaching in, there's no Black faculty members. So as a research assistant, I was actually [a] research assistant/teaching courses, whatever, I was the only Black representative there, which typically students had access to.

Copper's experience at his institution was that in the three departments in which he has worked, diversity among faculty has been minimal, if it was present at all.

The institution may promote diversity on promotional material for the university, but that is the extent of it. I think that they are lumped in and lauded with like. . . . Put on posters or on marketing material and used to mentor minority students or what have you. But I don't necessarily think that there's a huge drive to say that this needs to be more minority-focused on terms of making the composition of our faculty members more diverse. I haven't seen that. Across three departments that I've worked in, I haven't seen that.

Heather contended that a best practice is to advertise on various platforms to recruit diverse candidates. She stated,

I certainly think . . . advertising or posting positions nationally, for sure. And also posting them . . . more increasingly on different platforms that were intended for more diverse representation, for professionals from diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds in particular. So, like a diversity in academy type post. I can't remember exactly the different platforms that we used, but I know that there were specific ones. And then locally, there were some places that we would post positions. . . . That we knew there were more folks who would be looking, who were from diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds, if that makes sense.

Marsha's experience at her institution was that most of the faculty were European American. Although there may be other ethnicities at the institution, representation was not close to being equal to the diverse student population. She explained,

To give you more context, the majority of our faculty members are White. We have a couple who identify as Asian American. We had one Chicana scholar within the department, and we had one international Chinese faculty member. So, it [*sic*] wasn't a lot of diversity. And then, even between individuals who were in my same position, so whether they were teaching or coteaching courses, they were all White. So, when you think of mentoring, research, teaching, all of those components, if you were talking about the Black experience, I was that within the

department. So, I was often called on for my opinions, and/or students gravitated towards me, and not just Black students. I would even say people of color in general because there wasn't a lot of diversity within any of the programs. Omar viewed the lack of African American faculty as linked to policies and inadequate support to recruit them:

And they're not really doing that much with junior scholars in general. But I'm like, "Okay, so of the things you're doing for junior scholars, what are you doing for your faculty of color, specifically?" And it's nothing. And I think that's always a question. You know, what structures are in place? What policies in place are there to support your Black faculty? And if the administrator or school leader has to revert to something that's for all faculty or for all junior faculty, then you're not doing anything for Black faculty. And that's a lot of what's happening here.

Institutional Commitment to Diversity

The institution's commitment is demonstrated by its support for African American faculty through incentive packages in research, conferences, and mentoring. Heather stated, "Like the public university system, there are definitely lots of diversity admissions and recruitment efforts underway." Marsha said her institution was interested in her because of her contribution to research. She elaborated,

I tell you, I got in front of those people, and the only thing that they cared about was research. Now, granted, I excelled in research. I excelled on grants for coming in the door. And I also excel in teaching and mentoring, and I've gotten recognitions and awards nationally for all of those things. But that's not what they wanted to talk to me about. They wanted to talk to me about what research [I had done]. "Where have you published? Where do you expect to publish? I see you have some minor, some little grants." I had \$10,000 worth of grants as a Ph.D. candidate and research assistant who has taught about seven classes within the department and overseeing about six research projects within 4 years.

Heather stated that commitment to diversity must be intentional to recruit faculty of color. She said,

But absolutely I think [it is a good idea] having an intentional recruiting effort to attract a diverse candidate pool with faculty of color, I think that would... Yeah, absolutely I would be advocating for that once we're able to open the position for hire again.

Marvin linked tenure and an all-in approach of the faculty to diversify this group. Marvin said, "There has to be institutional commitment for diversity throughout the faculty ranks. There also has to be sort of a rethinking of the faculty promotion and tenure process throughout the institution."

Copper argued that institutions should utilize the approach they use to recruit diverse students to recruit diverse faculty. He explained,

[Having a] presence at conferences that African American faculty members frequent and in their respective disciplines, everybody has kind of those conferences that people frequent in their particular disciplines that are particularly engaging. I know in science, people have, like, the American Biomedical Research Conference for Minority Students. A lot of faculty members are there because they want to recruit minority students into their programs. That's an amazing way to also recruit faculty members by way of being there. Also, more targeted and focused intentional sourcing of faculty members. I mean, if you want to embody the goals and the standards of every university, which says diversity is important regardless of age, sex, creed, color, blah, blah, blah, religion, yada, yada, yada. Then if you find that there's a dearth of that, then you need to be intentional about your recruitment and your hiring.

Omar shared his experience on a diversity and equity committee but bemoaned its progress because it appeared to be a placeholder:

[I am on the] diversity and equity committee. I'll go the meetings, but it's a lot of just talking about what's wrong with this school, you know? And you think about it. You know, they'll serve lunch. That's not that much. That's not a big investment, you know? You have lunch once a month. You get people to come and talk about the inequities in the school. You get to say," Okay, this is. . . . The school is taking action by having this committee meeting regularly." You know? But what's actually being done for underrepresented folks, you know? Nothing. It's a real small investment, you know? It's a symbol. It's a signal that, okay, you care about diversity, but you're not really willing to invest in diversity. Sherry, however, felt valued at her institution. She noted,

I think the most effective thing that has worked for me is feeling valued by my program. I feel good about staying and committing to my university because I feel that they are committed to keeping me at the university. And so that comes through people directly saying, "Hey, we want you to be successful here. We want to keep you here. We want to provide you with what you need to be successful."

Theme 4: Search Committee Actions

Findings indicated that individual committee members used their networks to recruit African American faculty. Both African American and European American participants in this study agreed that search committee members made decisions to recruit African American faculty to ensure a diverse search committee. Five of the participants responded regarding how they took the initiative to recruit faculty, both individually and collectively. In addition, the African American participants discussed retention efforts to keep them at their institutions. Marsha relayed a particular situation:

So, I go back to the search committee situation. And I also go back to, while I was on that search at my institution, I was also in a search for a tenure track position that I obtained. And I was going through the process as I was seeing other Black women go through our process, and the one thing that I remember is that someone said on the committee was they have some great candidates, but they're leading with mentoring service and teaching. They're not leading as researchers.

Individual Committee Members' Actions

Omar made an effort to encourage his search committee colleagues to take more time to review an African American candidate's resume. He elaborated,

Just seeing how important it is to see who's on the search committee, you know? And knowing that I really had a voice, and I was able to leverage it, and, yeah, really fight for him to get that chance to really come on campus because at first, a lot of people weren't. . . . I think people didn't really look at his CV to begin with. But, yeah, just taking the extra time to read his personal statement, see what he's accomplished so far, and just was like, hey, let's look at this again. You know? And then he's wowed everyone. . . . Just a stellar candidate. . . . You know, just seeing how something small like that, taking the extra time.

Copper also searched for African American candidates for roles at the university. Copper said he employs a strategy he explained as coding positions. He assigns a code to African American applicants to see how the candidate would fit in that role:

In terms of recruitment, I think that the candidates see the candidate selection, and so then I want to code and say that in terms of the recruitment of African American faculty members, the position itself didn't specify whether or not it was minority retention or not. However, I knew myself that I wanted to give a chance to somebody who was a person of color or a person of minority [race] who was not as represented in the sciences.

Collective Committee Members' Actions

Heather's observation while serving on a search committee was that its members viewed candidates who were African American through a stereotypical lens. She noted, Just that sense that, especially older White people, I think, who have that whole stereotype of thinking of one style of leadership, or one style of being part of it, how they participate on the committee, or any of that. There's so much comfort that's unspoken about kind of that typical White presence on a committee. Somebody who's not going to ask questions that make everybody uncomfortable, or everybody as far as like White people uncomfortable, because they're asking about retention of students of color; students of color who are saying they are not having a good experience here and not wanting to do the hard work.

Heather, however, argued that the search committee in which she participated was intentional, not only in creating a diverse pool of candidates but also by providing an environment where they felt valued and a sense of belonging.

Some other experiences were being intentional on search committees, being intentional as much as possible to ensure we had a diverse pool of candidates and even diverse backgrounds of candidates who were invited to campus for interviews. We tried to create a diverse pool of background and experiences. And I found that to be very successful when the search committee would work together to establish goals for selecting the candidates in the pool and just make sure that was a priority.

David discussed the makeup of search committees at his PWI as being diverse, at least in his department. He noted, "On two of the search committees, there have been [African American representation] because it was my department, and we have two African American faculty members in my department." However, David did not see a representation of African American faculty on search committees in other departments on campus.

Theme 5: Institutional Barriers

Eight participants identified barriers that affected both the recruitment and retention of African American faculty. Two African American participants noted that their institutions lacked a recruitment strategy to hire these faculty through predominately African American organizations. They also stated that HBCUs decelerated recruitment efforts, as African American faculty were routinely hired there instead. Other findings indicated that the participants' PWIs lacked formal mentoring programs to acclimate African American faculty to their environment. This led them to form their own informal mentoring opportunities, seeking out mentors inside and outside their institutions. One African American participant, Marvin, indicated that faculty might not know how to be mentors. Another African American participant, Cooper, stated that African American faculty must take the initiative in the mentoring process.

Low Pay

Twice in her interview, Payton noted that low pay could be one of the reasons her institution did not attract African American faculty. She said, "I don't know if this is worthy information or not. I do think across the board, one of the issues we're up against as . . . a private Christian university, [is] our pay is very low." Sherry contended that low pay makes it hard to offer competitive salaries for African American faculty: "We can't offer as much salary, so they're not going to want to come here for this salary."

Omar cited inequities with retention regarding the credentials of European and African American faculty. He argued,

And you know, not just talking about salary, but paying me [an] equitable salary compared to other folks. You know, I found out that one guy who came in maybe 2, 3 years before me, got hired. . . . And you know, I don't know the equity economics of it all. I'm not good with numbers. But he got hired as a Ph.D. candidate with no publications. White guy. And [he] got hired at a larger starting salary than I did. And I'm like, "Okay. You know, I came in with a Ph.D. and a publication to my name already and a lower salary". And when I tried to advocate for a larger one, the dean was really. . . . You know, wasn't having it. So, it's just stuff like that you hear about. You're like, "Okay."

Wayne claimed that institutions should evaluate, using history, equity in PWIs today. He stated,

I'll say academic life is still being constructed around Whiteness. There are histories that we're walking into sometimes that we're just brought into that we oftentimes aren't aware of. For example, in the institutions that know they're not where they need to be in terms of just, say, equity, broadly, or even challenging [the] dynamics of Whiteness, and we're coming into them anyway. There's always, I think, generally, work to be done in and around Whiteness and White supremacy.

Tenure Track Process

Omar attested that the tenure process could be particularly long for African American faculty, which affects retention: Okay, so when was the last Black person to be tenured at this school? Well, in the School of Education? And the last Black person to be tenured in the school there was probably, maybe, over 10 years ago. And I don't think there's one Black professor who's a full professor at the school at this time in the School of Education.

Sherry said that there are few African Americans on tenure track at her PWI; however, she noted that "we have a really well-developed center for academic excellence that deals with faculty development in terms of teaching, research, navigating tenure track." Omar was asked to mentor a new tenure track faculty member by his dean. He stated, "I was already asked by my program chair if I would mentor our incoming tenure track professor, who's also a Black male." Marsha contended that she was the only African American tenure track faculty at her PWI. She said,

So, I have five, excuse me, four Black master's students from a second-year cohort that I really had a hand [in] teaching courses with. And so, essentially, I was the most access that they were able to have to anyone that looked like them as a Black faculty member on their side because there was no tenure track or even professors of practice within our area.

Inadequate Faculty Package

Faculty participants from both racial groups found that the lack of faculty engagement or providing faculty packages was a barrier to both recruitment and retention. Faculty packages included a competitive salary and funding for research and professional development. The participants mentioned that low starting salaries and a lack of funding for research and training in faculty packages restricted the recruitment and retention of African American faculty. Copper advocated for management of a faculty package that would help retain African American faculty. He noted,

So, you should have somebody in your program that handles faculty affairs and that is designed to help you understand. Okay. When you get your faculty package, you know you have this much time before your clock starts working, before you have to apply for promotion and tenure, etc.

Copper added, "I think retention is all about being able to engage your faculty members one-on-one and seeing what each and every faculty member, especially those that are from minority backgrounds, find challenges with."

Omar disagreed and claimed that European American are given better opportunities and that there is not a plan for retention:

There are White people here getting tenure who, I mean, I don't even know what type of work they do, you know? . . . They have the assumed competence that I think we don't always get. And they get the benefit of the doubt as well, so that's why I say there is no retention plan. It's me working extra hard to make sure that I have more than the [required] number of publications by the time I go up for tenure.

Racism

Both African American and European American participants recognized racism in their institutions; however, each had a different perspective. The African American faculty experienced systematic racism, causing them to work twice as hard as their European American counterparts for job promotions. The European American participants in this study were aware of the existence of racism; however, the African American participants experienced it firsthand within their institutions. Some participants agreed that there was a structure of systematic racism within their institutions. Heather reflected,

I look back at how that unwillingness to take a chance, it was subconsciously done, but definitely systemic racism. As far as people on a search committee. . . . They would just start to go back to that very rational [explanation that] this one has 15 years of experience, and they've done this, and that, and the other thing. And make it so much harder.

Marvin and Marsha both experienced the need to be twice as good as their European American counterparts. Marvin explained, "People that have preceded me in terms of the position that was open; I had to be twice as better [*sic*]." Marsha said, "To me, recruiting Black people, in particular, is still unfair. The process is not made for us."

Marsha also said she experienced inequities as a Black and a woman and contended that the academy views women differently. She elaborated,

I think there needs to be more both raced [*sic*] and gender opportunities, especially when I think of the academy for Black men. It doesn't mean that they don't have it worse; they do. But the ways that they treat Black men and Black women are completely different in the academy. And so, I would like to see some specific initiatives on recruitment and retainment of Black women, particularly on the professorship side. We often lean toward mentoring, which is great. Don't get me wrong, but why can't we have more programs' initiatives around research, around progressing.

Wayne postulated that for him, racism is a system:

There are White folks who want to do good work. I do think they exist. I've found and been in [a] community with some. I have some colleagues who I'm actually working with. We're doing projects in a local charter school here together, and these are two White women who are committed to doing the work. So, I certainly don't suggest that it's individualized to White people, but I'm talking about Whiteness as a system.

Marvin noted his experience with inequality when seeking a promotion at his PWI.

I had to at least undergo a level of scrutiny that I'm sure that my White counterparts did not have to go through. For example, in my last position, as dean of the state university, I offered three references of people like my current dean, like other people. Those references were important, but they were not good enough. The person that was doing the interview and was, I guess, the chair of the search committee [and] felt a need to talk to everyone that I supervised. This did not happen to my White colleague.

Lack of Partnerships

Marsha and Marvin claimed that their institutions did not have a durable strategy to intentionally recruit African Americans and cited the missed opportunity to partner with organizations like the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) or HBCUs. Marvin stated, "I would say one of the things that you probably want to do aside from the advertisement is to actually form partnerships with historical Black institutions that have doctoral programs." Marsha wanted her institution to partner with HBCUs and also send African American representatives:

We draft these recommendations to recruit at institutions that have people of color. So, let's recruit from HBCUs, for example. I'm an HBCU alum so that always comes to mind. So, let's recruit at HBCUs to actually get particularly Black faculty on campus. But there's no HBCUs in our state. There's no HBCUs, [as a] matter of fact, in the nearest states adjacent to us. So that means you're going to these other states, and then you're trying to convince these individuals to come here, and typically the person that's going is a White man or a woman.

Marvin also contended that partnering with local African American organizations would be helpful. This might be done, he said, by sending out announcements to HBCUs about faculty positions and getting community-based organizations involved, such as the Council La Raza, the NAACP, or others to make sure that there is communication with those who these institutions serve to achieve access to higher-education jobs.

Copper contended that PWIs should reach out to potential African American faculty at conferences and that the intuitions need a stronger presence at conferences African American faculty members frequent. Copper said, "In their respective disciplines, everybody has kind of those conferences that people frequent in their particular disciplines that are particularly engaging." Marsha remarked that she continues to be the "only" in her department, and the department leaders need to take a more active role in recruiting more African American faculty. Marsha said,

I don't know.... So, I never think someone should be the only. I think we have to start continuously breaking down these barriers, and I don't know what it's going to take to do that. I think it's going to take department chairs advocating for that and putting their money where their mouth is. So not only just recruiting them but helping them retain and do well.

Theme 6: Approaches to Mentoring

Six participants relayed their perspectives regarding mentoring at their institutions, which helped with their retention. The findings of this study indicated that some institutions lacked a formal mentoring process; however, some provided an informal process leading African American faculty to take the initiative in mentoring European American both inside and outside their institutions. Pamela posited that mentoring was one of the chief reasons she chose to stay at her PWI: "Mentoring is a big part of it. Like co-teaching. The driving force is actually the mentorship and opportunities to collaborate . . . that's the theory." David, who works at the same university as Pamela, discussed his experience with mentoring as part of the job evaluation process:

[Mentoring is] not a formal process. There is an informal process in that faculty meet with the dean annually and review their performance, but a part of that for a new faculty member would be talking about the mentoring process. I'm not aware of a formal evaluation process. Marsha posited that mentoring is the "go-to" for faculty but thought that research should be emphasized for African American faculty. She noted,

We're designed to do all these things, and particularly, we often go towards the mentoring service and teaching piece because that's the part that students need from us more than anything. But we're also dope scholars [a cultural slang meaning very good]. We're also brilliant individuals and methodologists. We're not trained to talk about those things. And I think why I did so well on the market is hearing some of the backstories from my own search and me going through that search; I led with that because I am great with all of those things. I believe I'm better at some than others, but I think getting that rhetoric, changing the way.... It's two different pieces.

Similarly, Marvin noted that too much emphasis was put on mentoring. Marvin's approach was for faculty to identify themselves as mentors rather than assume they have this role because they are faculty. He had a nontraditional view of mentoring, positing that not all faculty were mentors, but they had the potential. Marvin explained,

You know, there's a whole movement going on in education where people that are professors or others are now taking on roles as mentors, which is a different way of looking at things. A mentor is a guide. Some faculty members see themselves as professors who route knowledge, and if you stand in one place, you're bound to get it if you don't move. But a mentor is someone who takes an interest in another person's life and guides it. And I think that more faculty can begin to see themselves as mentors and guides. On the other end of the continuum, Copper argued that African American faculty need to "make the ask" to European American to provide a custom approach to mentoring. Copper noted that people do not know how to mentor or what need the mentor is expected to meet for the mentee. In some cases, if the African American mentee does not feel their need is met, they disengage and find other options. Copper noted,

So, you have to make the ask. And that's one of the big things. What is the ask? When you go, and you sit down with somebody, and you say, "I want you to be my mentor" or "I want you to be my sponsor," what is the ask that you're asking of them? "Okay. I need you to review my CV every 2 months or 3 months. I need you to help connect me to two other people that I can talk to as an outside mentor. And I need you to bring you [*sic*] my work product, so you can critically assess the areas that I did not really understand what's going on. And then my promotion and tenure package, I want you to review it." That's the ask that you may make of somebody. You can't just get out in front of somebody and say, "Help me." [They will say], "Okay. How? How do you want me to help you?"

Sherry provided an example of a mentee who did not have her needs met by the mentoring program the university provided. She remarked that when she first started at her PWI, she entered the mentoring program, but it was not what she expected:

The college, when I started, was just starting a mentoring program. So, I know the research talks about mentoring and the importance of mentoring for faculty of color. So, I'm like yeah, I need to do that. So, I participated in that. I think because I was just getting started, it was not as fulfilling for me as it might've

been for others, because, again, I study faculty life and faculty experience, so I knew what to expect and how to prepare for this role in ways that my counterparts maybe hadn't. And so, I didn't get a lot from that particular program.

Summary

Data analysis led to six major themes concerning the experiences and perspectives of faculty members participating in the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs. The first theme, distinctions of privilege, demonstrates that there are many facets to privilege and that the African American faculty perceived their use of privilege was linked to race. Additional findings for distinctions of privilege were that White privilege in PWIs was belittling to African American faculty but embraced by European American faculty, mostly in policy and hiring. The second theme, European American functions, shows that European American need to contribute more to policy and systemic changes. The findings highlight the ineptitude of European American who perpetuate invisible labor for African Americans. In addition, European American lack comprehension regarding how to adequately advocate for African Americans.

In views of diversity, the third theme that emerged, European American agreed that diversity is difficult to define at their respective institutions. The participants also indicated that institutions were not intentional in the recruitment of African American faculty, but that diversity was promoted; however, it was nonexistent in departments and faculty ranks. The fourth theme was search committee actions and demonstrates how individual committee members use their personal networks to intentionally recruit African American faculty. Members of the committee made decisions contrary to institutional policies to recruit African American faculty and ensure a diverse search committee.

Institutional barriers, the fifth theme, indicates that both retention and recruitment efforts at the participants' PWIs lacked partnerships with predominantly African American organizations and universities, which restricts recruitment efforts for African American faculty. The findings also show that inequities in the tenure track process, low pay, and inadequate faculty packages inhibit retention. Finally, approaches to mentoring, the sixth theme, reveals a lack of formal mentoring programs and that African American faculty take the initiative in the mentoring process. Other findings showed that faculty at the participants' PWIs did not provide mentoring.

In Chapter 5, I analyze and interpret the findings of this study through the lens of the current research literature and the conceptual framework consisting of CRT and SIT. I also discuss the emergence of themes, describe the limitations of the study, and provide recommendations for future research. Finally, I present the implications of this study for social change. Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this basic qualitative study was to obtain the perspectives of faculty members regarding the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs. The research question used to guide this qualitative study was: What are the perspectives of faculty members who have experience participating in the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs? The key findings of this study emerged from six themes as a result of data analysis: distinctions of privilege, European American functions, views of diversity, search committee actions, institutional barriers, and approaches to mentoring. To summarize, participants in this study spoke of six elements that affect recruitment and retention of African American faculty. These include privilege as it applies to European Americans and in some cases, to African Americans; the role that European Americans can play to either support or negate recruitment and retention of African American; faculty and how different views of diversity and it's worth affected participants' experiences. At the institutional level participants reported barriers pertaining to salary and professional development support the significant role of search committees in increasing the number of African American faculty on campus, and the need for effective mentoring opportunities especially for African American faculty who are in the tenure process. In this chapter, I report my interpretations of the findings, describe the limitations of the study, discuss recommendations for future research, and present implications for social change.

89

Interpretation of the Findings

I interpreted the findings of this study by considering the six themes that emerged from the data in the context of the peer-reviewed research literature discussed in Chapter 2 and through the lens of the conceptual framework built on CRT (Bell, 1995; Delgado & Stefancic, 2012) and SIT (Tajfel, 1981). This section is organized by the themes that emerged from the participants' responses to the interview questions designed to address the research question for the study. These responses pertained to the perspectives and experiences of faculty participating in the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at PWIs.

Theme 1: Distinctions of Privilege

Eight participants in this study linked privilege to race, class, and gender and the hiring practices and policies at their institutions. CRT identifies how racism is embedded in society due to power and the construction of social roles, which creates systemic racism (Bell, 1987; Delgado & Stefancic, 2012). CRT further elucidates that race impacts the way people are educated, live, and make decisions. Copper had a unique perspective: privilege for African Americans included using the race card. Copper's observation was that this privilege could be an advantage to minorities. Racism, a tenet of Delgado's (1995) CRT, was important to understand the use of the race card expressed by participants in this study. According to Delgado, racism equalizes advantages and disadvantages by injecting race into a situation. Copper's salient point of using the race card revealed how, in his experience, racism exists in the PWI where he worked.

White privilege was another aspect of this finding and showed inequities in the policies and structures at the participants' PWIs. Heather, Payton, and David, all European American faculty, agreed that White privilege existed at their institutions. For instance, Heather contended that White privilege included generational bias regarding policies and other inequitable actions toward African American faculty, including those as a result of racism.

Research by Schmaling et al. (2015) supports the distinction of privilege as related to racism, White privilege, and isolation in efforts to recruit and retain African American faculty. DiAngelo (2018) postulated that White privilege is an identity that includes perceptions of self-worth and grants a sense of entitlement that has enabled European Americans to avoid focusing on how racism hurts people of color. Heather remarked that at her institution, hiring faculty was primarily based on her European American colleagues feeling more comfortable hiring White faculty over African American faculty. On the other hand, Payton believed that European Americans should hold themselves accountable when using privilege. David's perspective of White privilege was that European Americans are not aware of White privilege in their encounters with African American faculty.

Tajfel's (1982) SIT explains how groups identify by social categories and exhibit intergroup conflicts in their environments. Social categorization in SIT, according to Tajfel and Turner (2001), demonstrates how society categorizes people so they can understand and identify themselves and others. Social categorization includes aspects of an individual's self-image derived from the social categories to which they perceive they belong, thus enhancing their self-esteem through membership in social groups. Categories such as Black, White, professor, or student are examples of these categories. Furthermore, social categorization helps individuals understand themselves and define appropriate behavior according to the group to which they belong.

On the other hand, social identity, although similar to social categorization, is an individual's identification with a group based on the norms and attitudes of members within that group (Tajfel & Turner, 2001). The premise of social identity is that the person adopts the actions and behaviors they perceive members of a group exhibit. Privilege, in its variety of distinctions, aligns with SIT because of how European Americans understand themselves and may assume certain behaviors such as superiority. However, this behavior results in intergroup conflict as African American faculty may reject this because it could make them feel subservient to European Americans or the Whiteness exhibited throughout the institution (e.g., racism and inequities in policies). For example, Marvin and Marsha experienced racism with regards to job promotion or asking for higher pay. Wayne experienced inequities in policies with he and European American colleague who was less experienced received a higher pay and substantial role in the university.

Tiffany Cross, the host of MSNBC's *Cross Connection*, interviewed American activist and author Brittany Packnett-Cunningham about privilege. Packnett-Cunningham noted, "Privilege convinces you that a problem isn't a problem simply because you haven't suffered from it" (MSNBC, 2020, 0:13). For example, Marsha, a doctoral student who served as an adjunct in a master's program, experienced the negative effects of privilege due to her gender and class. She reported being discriminated against when she applied for a position post doctorate for a research project and a European American colleague with less experience was offered the position.

In this study, I examined the intersectional relationships between class and gender, which aligns with research by Bell (1992), Kelly et al. (2017), Nixon (2017), and Schmaling et al. (2015). Intersectional discrimination is when a person faces discrimination in multiple categories, such as race, gender, and class. Derald et al. (2019) argued that institutional expression of the superiority of a group's cultural heritage through White privilege negatively influences the institutional and structural policies and hiring practices for African American faculty. This was the perspective of the participants in this study regarding their experiences at the PWIs where they worked.

Theme 2: European American Functions

Seven participants in this study claimed European American faculty had significant functions in their institutions, whether it was as a White ally and advocate or in exhibiting ineptitude in their encounters with African American faculty. Tajfel and Turner's (2001) social categorization tenet of SIT aligns with this finding because of how the African American faculty in this study viewed European American faculty as a group. Through social categorization, an individual can belong to several groups simultaneously. For example, David self-identified as a White ally to African American faculty member Pamela and also mentored Pamela professionally. He advocated for her when European American students did not respect her role as a faculty member. David promoted recruiting African American faculty by intentionally putting them on search committees and collaborating with other African American faculty in teaching and research. However, David's actions of advocating for African American faculty were not widespread across the institution among his European American colleagues.

David also agreed that while cultural sensitivity and inclusion are practiced at their institutions, the majority of European American do not help with the retention of African American faculty. This was a demonstration of ineptitude by European American regarding their efforts in retaining African American faculty. Gamble and Turner's (2015) phenomenological study aligns with this finding as their research showed that African American faculty experienced a lack of respect from European American colleagues as well as rejection when expressing their ethnicity or cultural identities, thus causing them to leave their institutions. In my study, David reported cultural sensitivity and inclusion was practiced by some, but not required at his PWI. Kivel's (2017) research provides a possible explanation. Kivel noted that it was not common practice for superior groups to collaborate with disenfranchised groups to become aware of issues related to these groups but that they were unwilling to concede regarding changing policies to provide equity to African American faculty.

Ineptitude of European American was also noted by two African American faculty who perceived that they did not recognize them as colleagues but rather invisible labor to help diverse students. For example, Wayne's and Marsha's experiences with "invisible labor." Wayne and Marsha described invisible labor as Whiteness in the university or European Americans ignoring or not recognizing the needs of minority students or diverse ideas coming from African American faculty. This left African American faculty feeling like they needed to take the initiative to advocate for minority students and themselves without the support of White allies. Microaggressions in CRT, as described by Delgado and Stefancic (2012) and Fleras (2016), fit with this theme. Microaggressions can be viewed as everyday racialized actions, comments, and small encounters with racism, usually unnoticed by members of the majority race, directed toward people of color. Microaggressions can also be expressed by not noticing people of color, creating invisibility.

In this study, the European American considered themselves White allies and were available to African American faculty who sought out mentors. Even though researchers have interviewed European American in several studies, there has been a lack of focus on the need for White allies to improve African American retention and recruitment (Schmaling et al., 2015). Kivel (2017) argued that White allies, in general, must be intentional in their relationship with people of color no matter the field. Heather considered herself a White ally who consciously advocated to recruit African Americans. Conversely, Marsha did not believe European American could be true allies because she thought they must first be willing to do the work of changing inequitable policies and removing barriers. DiAngelo's (2018) research aligns with this finding as collectively addressing equity issues that transform policy, programs, and practices are needed to support self-identified White allies.

Theme 3: Views of Diversity

Eight participants expressed what diversity looked like in their respective institutions, ranging from lack of diverse faculty, the institution's commitment to it, and

not knowing how to define it. Dade et al. (2015), DiAngelo (2018), and the NCES (2017) also reported the absence of diverse faculty and that African Americans have experienced European Americans. In my study, the African American participants were the only representation of diversity in their departments, and some were the only representation campus wide. Even though their institutions pledged a commitment to diversity, it was nonexistent in academic departments and faculty ranks. Research by Kelly et al. (2017) supports this finding in that the PWIs in their study also promoted diversity among faculty, but their recruitment and retention efforts did not reflect equity within the academy. Furthermore, in research by Gumpertz et al. (2017), Flaherty (2015), Libresco (2015), and Strauss (2015), the lack of diversity among faculty has resulted in student protests as well as little progress in addressing historically marginalized groups.

In this study, the participants reported no intentional efforts by their institutions to recruit African American faculty on a large scale. Beard and Julion (2016) found that deliberate actions (e.g., examining the extent of racism within institutions), creating an inclusive and safe environment, and open discourse (e.g., encouraging discussions about race) can strengthen institutional commitments to racial diversity and support recruitment and retention efforts.

The participants in this study perceived that diversity was difficult to define by their institutions, making it uncommon. Tajfel and Turner (2001) described social categorization as a means to understand and identify people within a society. Within this framework, European American faculty have been perpetuating the stereotype of African American invisibility. Furthermore, diversity is not only difficult to define, but non-European American faculty are not categorized.

Theme 4: Search Committee Actions

According to Magloire (2019), search committees play a critical role in hiring faculty. The search committees' purpose is to screen and select final candidates for hire to align with school policies, including plans to increase diversity. However, in my study, the participants took the initiative by using personal networks, worked collectively to thoroughly and intentionally review African American applicants, and encouraged a more diverse search committee.

Five participants had experience with taking individual actions. David intentionally recruited African American faculty in his department to serve on a search committee so that African American candidates or other minorities would see a representation of diversity in their initial encounter with the institution. However, this was not a directive from his institution. Both African American and European American in this study agreed that search committee members made decisions contrary to institutional policies to recruit African American faculty to ensure a diverse search committee. Marsha, Omar, Copper, Heather, and David indicated that they took initiatives to recruit African American faculty individually and collectively at their institutions by using their personal networks to recruit diverse faculty.

David sought out African American faculty within his department and invited them to serve on the department's search committee. He said his actions did not align with any particular policy but that it was his decision to get input from a diverse faculty. Similarly, Heather's experience was that the search committees at her university were predominately European American. She also sensed from her European American colleagues that the search committee was comfortable with keeping it that way. Subsequently, she also perceived that they viewed African American candidates through the lens of stereotypes. Therefore, she wanted to make African American candidates feel valued and create a sense of belonging during the recruiting process by having diverse staff on the committees. She also initiated an informal group of ambassadors, a diverse team who could give African American candidates a tour of the local area and answer questions relating to culture and the surrounding community.

According to Tajfel and Turner (1986, 2001), social comparison is when a person judges another group's behavior and becomes closely aligned with their group's perceptions. Self-esteem is enhanced or diminished by perceptions of how groups perform, which helps to explain prejudice and discrimination. The social comparison tenet of SIT aligns with the findings of this study regarding the stereotypes employed by search committee members at the participants' PWIs. Copper, however, purposefully recruited African American candidates by working to engage more of these faculty to work in the sciences. Because the faculty job description did not specify an African American, he wanted to prove that these candidates had the skills to fit the role.

SIT also addresses how individuals experience a sense of belonging to an organization and how they perceive themselves or behave among the dominant group in that environment (Tajfel, 1982). This part of the conceptual framework supports Heather's initiative to help the candidates have a sense of belonging while interviewing

on campus. Heather recruited a diverse staff from her campus to give tours of the campus and the community. She especially paired African American staff with African American candidates to take them to places of cultural interest (e.g., hair salons and barbershops).

Theme 5: Institutional Barriers

Eight participants responded that institutional barriers were a problem for the recruitment and retention of African American faculty. The participants cited racial barriers, inequities in the tenure track process, and lack of partnerships as roadblocks to both recruitment and retention. The African American participants employed a tenet of CRT, counter storytelling, which allowed them to communicate in a unique voice about their experiences of race and racism with competence and apply their perspectives (Bell, 1992; Delgado & Stefancic, 2012).

Research by Siegel et al. (2015) on the underrepresentation of African American faculty at PWIs, including their experiences of marginalization and isolation, supports the findings of this study concerning racism in the tenure track process. Siegel et al. used a comparative case study to explore the perceptions of 18 full-time tenured and nontenured African American faculty members regarding the benefits of staying at PWIs despite disparities. Their results demonstrated that although African American faculty found it easy to associate with European American colleagues, they still felt the institutional barriers of racism. Research by Wilder et al. (2015) disputes this finding by arguing that Barack Obama, the first African American president of the United States, would help provide a post-rationalization effect in higher education to escalate the discussion of propagating his role as a Black professor to improve the visibility of African Americans.

Hassouneh et al. (2014), Lodhi et al. (2013), and Abdul-Raheem (2016) supported the findings of this study that racial barriers exist in attaining tenure. In Abdul-Raheem's study, minority faculty who were eligible for tenure were underrepresented, which decreased their ability to advocate and provide input to achieve cultural diversity in higher education.

In this study, Marvin was the only tenured African American participant, while Wayne, Sherry, Marsha, and Omar were on the tenure track. Omar claimed that it had been 10 years since the last African American faculty at his institution earned tenure. The tenure process was not experienced by these participants as equitable for African Americans, and they claimed that the guidance they received was not the same as that provided to their European American counterparts. Sherry and Omar both reached out to European Americans to get advice regarding how to navigate the tenure process. They claimed the responses they received were to follow directions, whereas their European American counterparts had more hands-on help from leaders. Edwards and Ross's (2018) study supports the finding of this study that barriers are in place in the tenure process for African American faculty in PWIs because of racism, which was responsible for a deficiency in promotions and tenure. Edwards and Ross posited that this barrier adversely impacts African American faculty members' success at PWIs and eventually leads to their departure.

Marsha and Marvin argued that there is a need for their PWIs to foster partnerships with HBCUs and African American organizations like the NAACP to help with recruitment and retention. Research by Hsiao et al. (2015) supports this finding in that a focus on the inclusion of different ethnic groups and developing diverse relationships resulted in the retention of employees. This was achieved by promoting a positive work environment and giving the perception that the organization was diverse. Bell (1992) and Reynolds and Mayweather (2017) described differential racialization as the dominant culture racializing groups to retain power in the dominant culture. The use of differential racialization could be why some PWIs choose other ethnicities like Asian or Latinx to show diversity but do not focus on a specific race, namely African Americans, to be represented at their institutions.

Racism was a barrier experienced by participants in this study. African Americans have experienced racism and disenfranchisement through lack of recognition in promotions and low pay (Gamble & Turner, 2015). Marsha and Marvin both complained about working twice as hard as their European American colleagues. Marsha was denied pay for research opportunities awarded to her European American counterpart with less experience. However, Marsha's dean provided her with the opportunity to do extra work but without the pay. Marvin applied for a promotion but experienced more scrutiny in the screening process than the European American candidate for the job. The two had the same education, experience, and skills; however, the head of the search committee added an additional step to the process for Marvin by contacting his subordinates. Bell (1992) referred to this differential as interest convergence based on something that appears to provide accommodation to people of color but is done only as long as its benefits Whites. In Marvin's case, the accommodation was the opportunity to apply for the job; therefore,

the European American search committee leader could be seen as providing an African American faculty member with the chance to serve in a leadership role.

Marsha was "given" the opportunity to do additional work to add to her curriculum vitae and gain experience, post doctorate. However, she would not be formally recognized for her scholarly work or receive compensation for it. Similarly, Marvin was "given" the opportunity for a promotion. However, Delgado and Stefancic's (2012) research suggests that Marvin's experience is an example of disenfranchisement and racism because of his inequitable screening process. Although Marvin got the job, his experience with the process was linked to racism. Marvin perceived the actions towards him as racist because his European American colleague was not treated in the same manner. Additionally, Beard and Julion (2016) found that actions by institutions to examine racism in their policies and structures would help bring awareness to situations like Marvin experienced.

Theme 6: Approaches to Mentoring

Six participants agreed that various approaches to mentoring impacted the retention of African American faculty. The lack of formal mentoring programs caused some African American faculty to take the initiative in the mentoring process. Sherry did not receive what she needed in the mentoring program at her university. She claimed that the program was optional and seemed to be more like group meetings for new faculty to get to know one another and ask general questions but did not fulfill the function of mentoring. Sherry noted that her PWI did not meet her need for a mentor to provide assistance with the tenure track process and research opportunities; therefore, she sought mentors outside of her institution.

Reddick and Pritchett (2015) found that mentoring African American faculty was vital for successful recruitment and retention. However, Edwards and Ross (2018) claimed that African American faculty who lacked mentoring to help with their acclimation to academia would leave. Dutton et al. (2017) and DiAngelo (2018) discussed the importance of mentoring to retain faculty of color. Dutton et al. also noted that most mentoring programs were formal if they existed at all, and that informal mentoring facilitated faculty of color's decision to seek out mentors within or outside their institution.

Omar chose to seek out a mentor within his institution—another African American who was a dean of his department. Similarly, Pamela also chose a mentor within her institution who was a European American member she identified as a White ally. As a result, her mentor played not only dual roles but also had multiple identities. This is an example of Tajfel and Turner's (1986) claim that individuals may have multiple identities associated with the groups to which they belong. Beard and Julion's (2016) research aligns with Omar and Pamela's decision to seek mentors within their institutions and remain there. Beard and Julion argued that African Americans' decisions to enter and stay at PWIs increases if there are informal mentors. Dutton et al. (2017) noted that mentoring diverse faculty for retention and promotion represents an important strategy, particularly when there are few being hired.

Limitations of the Study

Within this basic qualitative study, there were limitations that warrant consideration. First, I needed to recognize my potential bias as the researcher. As an African American female adjunct professor who also works at a PWI, I could understand some of the participant's experiences who were adjuncts. However, my experiences are limited to part-time status; therefore, my point of view differed from those in this study who were full-time tenured or tenured track faculty. Additionally, I could not ignore the considerations of my ethnicity or employment status in regards to this study. The other limitation was the small sample size. I initially interviewed 12 participants who selfidentified as meeting the criterion. However, I used interview data from only 10 participants who were predominantly African American. I chose to remove two participants who did not meet the study criterion. Although the participants' responses were robust enough to provide sufficient data to answer the research question, a sample that did not exclude other ethnicities, such as Latinx and Asian, and included more European Americans, could have provided more dynamic experiences and perceptions.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, further research is needed regarding how PWIs' partnerships with HBCUs, the NAACP, and other predominantly African American organizations could be helpful to recruit African American faculty. The partnership might include offering visiting teaching roles with members of these schools or institutions to begin building these relationships. Additionally, research is needed that explores how providing formal mentoring programs could help retain African American faculty. Edwards and Ross (2018), Dutton et al. (2017), and DiAngelo (2018) discussed the importance of mentoring programs to help African American faculty acclimate to academia and increase retention. The findings of this study indicate that privilege is not limited to European American faculty but can also apply to minorities at PWIs. Faculty who participated in this study agreed that all races must be accountable for their use of privilege within academia.

Delgado and Stefancic (2012) claimed that because racism is so embedded in the United States, it is intricately linked to privilege. A recommendation based on the findings of this study is for a review of institutional policies and structures that may be barriers to recruitment and retention of African American faculty. The faculty in this study agreed that White allies were useful to some African American faculty because they advocated for them and provided support in teaching and research. In my study, some European American played the dual role of White ally and mentor. Therefore, further research is needed to identify if White allies increase the retention of African American faculty at PWIs.

Finally, this study only consisted of three European American and seven African American faculty from PWIs. A future study might include more European American members and faculty from other ethnicities, such as Latinx and Asian, to understand if there are other areas that need to be addressed concerning problems with recruitment and retention or if they face the same challenges as African American faculty.

Implications

Based on this study's findings, positive social change can occur if PWIs develop a willingness to make systemic changes to institutional barriers of racism, develop an awareness of privilege, and build sustainable partnerships with HBCUs and other minority organizations to improve strategies to recruit more African American faculty. Efforts by institutional leaders to implement equitable policies and structures driven by European American and African American faculty are needed to communicate what leaders in institutions perceive can be equitable changes to create positive social change on every level within the institution.

I conducted this study in the midst of 2020's social justice movement regarding racial injustices in educational, legal, and governmental systems. This study's results, part of a growing body of research on the lack of African Americans in academia, demonstrate the need to improve recruitment and retention using a multifaceted approach. Because social change is also multifaceted in that deliberate strategies and actions help promote the worth, dignity, and development of individuals, communities, organizations, institutions, cultures, and societies (Walden University, 2021), this study offers awareness that effective and intentional recruitment and retention strategies are needed to increase African American faculty at PWIs nationwide.

Conclusion

In this study, I investigated the perspectives and experiences of faculty at PWIs who participated in the recruitment and retention of African American faculty. The results align with the research literature and conceptual framework consisting of CRT (Bell, 1995; Delgado & Stefancic, 2012) and SIT (Tajfel, 1981). All participants agreed that the recruitment and retention of African American faculty need improvement based on problems of privilege, institutional barriers, and deficiencies in formal mentoring programs. The faculty who participated in this study were from the nine colleges and universities, both public and private, across the United States, and presented similar experiences with diversity, privilege, mentoring, and institutional barriers. Regrettably, European American agreed that racism and White privilege existed at their institutions, even in 2020.

References

- Abdul-Raheem, J. (2016). Faculty diversity and tenure in higher education. *Journal of Cultural Diversity*, 23(2), 53–56.
- Alemán, S. M. (2014). Locating whiteness in journalism pedagogy. Critical Studies in Media Communication, 31(1), 72–88.

https://doi.org/10.1080/15295036.2013.808355

- Allen, R. E. S., & Wiles, J. L. (2016). A rose by any other name: Participants choosing research pseudonyms. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 13(2), 149–165. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/14780887.2015.1133746</u>
- Anney, V. N. (2014). Ensuring the quality of the findings of qualitative research:
 Looking at trustworthiness criteria. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies*, 5(2), 272–281.
- Beard, K. V., & Julion, W. A. (2016). Does race still matter in nursing? The narratives of African American nursing faculty members. *Nursing Outlook*, 64(6), 583–596. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.outlook.2016.06.005</u>
- Bell, D. (1987). And we are not saved: The elusive quest for racial justice. Basic Books.
- Bell, D. (1992). Faces at the bottom of the well: The permeance of racism. Basic Books.
- Bell, D. A. (1995). Who's afraid of critical race theory? University of Illinois Law Review, 1995(4), 893–910.

https://sph.umd.edu/sites/default/files/files/Bell_Whos%20Afraid%20of%20CRT_ _1995UIIILRev893.pdf

- Birt, L., Scott, S., Cavers, D., Campbell, C., & Walter, F. (2016). Member checking: Tool to enhance trustworthiness or merely a nod to validation? *Qualitative Health Research*, 26(13), 1802-1811. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732316654870</u>
- Bonilla-Silva, E. (2018). *Racism without racists: Color-blind racism and the persistence* of racial inequality in America. Rowman and Littlefield.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). Research Design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches. SAGE.
- Dade, K., Tartakov, C., Hargrave, C., & Leigh, P. (2015). Assessing the impact of racism on black faculty in white academe: A collective case study of African American female faculty. *Western Journal of Black Studies*, 39(2), 134–146.
- Delgado, R. (1995). Critical race theory: The cutting edge. Temple University.
- Delgado, R., & Stefancic, J. (2012). *Critical race theory: An introduction* (2nd ed.). New York University Press.
- Derald, S. W., Alsaidi, S., Glaeser, E., Calle, C. Z., & Mendez, N. (2019). Disarming racial microaggressions: Microintervention strategies for targets, white allies, and bystanders. *American Psychologist*, 74(1), 128–142.

https://doi.org/10.1037/amp0000296

- DiAngelo, R. (2018). White fragility: Why its so hard for White people to talk about racism. Beacon Press.
- Diggles, K. (2014). Addressing racial awareness and color-blindness in higher education. New Direction for Teaching and Learning, 2014(140), 31–44. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/t1.20111</u>

- Dixson, A. D., & Anderson, C. R. (2018). Where are we? Critical race theory in education 20 years later. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 93(1), 121–131. https://doi.org/10.1080/0161956X.2017.1403194
- Dutton, Y. M., Ryznar, M., & Shaver, L. (2017). Advancing faculty diversity through self-directed mentoring. *Duke Journal of Gender Law and Policy*, 25(55), 55–76.
- Dyson, M. E. (2018). What truth sounds like: RFK, James Baldwin and our unfinished conversation about race in America. St. Martin's Press.
- Edwards, W. J., & Ross, H. H. (2018). What are they saying? Black faculty at predominately white institutions of higher education. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment*, 28(2), 142–161.

https://doi.org/10.1080/10911359.2017.1391731

- Flaherty, C. (2015, November 30). Demanding 10 percent. *Inside Higher Education*. <u>https://www.insidehighered.com/news/2015/11/30/student-activists-want-more-black-faculty-members-how-realistic-are-some-their-goals</u>
- Fleras, A. (2016). Theorizing micro-aggressions as racism 3.0: Shifting the discourse. *Canandian Ethinic Studies*, 48(2), 1–19. <u>https://doi.org/10.1353/ces.2016.0011</u>
- Gamble, E., & Turner, N. (2015). Career ascension of African American women in executive positions in postsecondary institutions. *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications and Conflict, 19*(1), 82–101.
- Griffin, K. A., Cunningham, E. L., & George Mwangi, C. A. (2016). Defining diversity:
 Ethnic differences in black students perceptions of racial climate. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, 9(1), 34–39. <u>https://doi.org/10.1037/a0039255</u>

- Gumpertz, M., Durodoye, R., Griffith, E., & Wilson, A. (2017). Retention and promotion of women and underrepresented minority faculty in science and engineering at four large land grant institutions. *PLOS ONE*, *12*(11), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0187285
- Hagan, A. M., Campbell, H. E., & Gaither, C. A. (2016). The racial and ethnic representation of faculty in US pharmacy schools and colleges. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, 80(6), 1–9. <u>https://doi.org/10.5688/ajpe806108</u>
- Hassouneh, D., Lutz, K. F., Beckett, A. K., Junkins, E. P., & Horton, L. L. (2014). The experiences of underrepresented minority faculty in schools of medicine. *Medical Education Online*, 19, 1–14. <u>https://doi.org/10.3402/meo.v19.24768</u>
- Health Resources and Services Administration. (2015). *African American faculty in healthcare*.

https://www.hrsa.gov/about/organization/bureaus/ohe/populations/diversepopulations.html

Hsiao, A., Auld, C., & Ma, E. (2015). Perceived organizational diversity and employee behavior. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 48, 102–112. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2015.04.009</u>

Hughes, B. (2015). Recruiting, retaining and benefiting from a diverse community college faculty: A case study of one colleges success. *Community Colleges of Journal of Research and Practice*, *39*, 659–672.
https://doi.org/10.1080/10668926.2014.885401

- Kahlke, R. (2018). Reflection/commentary on a past article "generic" qualitative approaches: Pitfalls and benefits of methodological mixology. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 17(1), 1.
 https://doi.org10.1177/1609406918788193
- Kelly, B. T., Gayles, J. G., & Williams, C. D. (2017). Recruitment without retention: A critical case of Black faculty unrest. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 86(3), 305–317. <u>https://doi.org/10.7709/jnegroeducation.86.3.0305</u>
- Killough, A. L., Killough, E. G., Walker, E., II, & Williams, O. (2017). Examining the delicate balance: Maintaining one's blackness as a black professor on the predominantly white campus. *Best Practices in Health Profession, Diversity, Education, Research and Policy, 10*(2), 81–110.
- Kivel, P. (2017). *Uprooting racism: How white people can work for racial justice*. New Society Publishers.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (2005). The evolving role of critical race theory in educational scholarship. *Journal of Race Ethnicity and Education*, 8(1), 115–119. https://doi.org/10.1080/136133.205200034.1024
- Ladson-Billings, G. (2013). Critical race theory—What it is not! In M. Lynn & A. D.
 Dixson (Eds.), *Handbook of critical race theory in education* (pp. 34–47).
 Routledge. <u>https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203155721.ch3</u>
- Ladson-Billings, G., & Tate, W. F., IV. (1995). Toward a critical race theory of education. *Teachers College Record*, 97(1), 47–68. http://www.unco.edu/cebs/diversity/Pdf/toardsacrtedvca.pdf

- Levin, J. S., Walker, L., Haberler, Z., & Jackson-Boothby, A. (2013). The divided self: The double consciousness of faculty of color in community college. *Community College Review*, 41(4), 311–329. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/0091552113512864</u>
- Libresco, L. (2015, December 3). *Here are the demands from students protesting racism at 51 colleges*. FiveThirtyEight Politics. <u>https://fivethirtyeight.com/features/here-</u> are-the-demands-from-students-protesting-racism-at-51-colleges/
- Lodhi, A. S., Raza, S. A., & Dilshad, M. (2013). Investigating factors affecting faculty retention at business schools. *Journal of Educational Research*, *16*(2), 21–33.
- Lynn, M., & Dixson, A. D. (2013). Handbook of critical race theory. Taylor and Francis.
- Magloire, J. (2019). Who wants to teach a diverse student body? Community college missions and the faculty search committee. *Journal of Research and Practice*, 43(3), 165–172. https://doi.org/10.1080/10668926.2018.1424666
- Mason, M. (2010). Sample size and saturation in PhD studies using qualitative interviews. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 11(3), Article 8. <u>https://doi.org/10.17169/fqs-11.3.1428</u>
- Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation* (4th ed.). John Wiley & Sons.
- MSNBC. [Cross Talk]. (2020, December 26). Brittany Packnett Cunningham on police reform: "We're not just talking about putting some officers in jail" [Video].
 Facebook. <u>https://www.facebook.com/watch/?v=1484969225032093</u>

Murray, M. M., Mereoiu, M., Cassidy, D., Vardell, R., Niemeyer, J. A., & Hestenes, L.
(2016). Not black like me: The cultural journal of an early childhood program. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 44(5), 429–436.

https://doi.org/10.1007/S10643-015-0731-4

National Center for Education Statistics. (2017). *The condition of education: Characteristics of postsecondary faculty* (NCES 2017-144). U.S. Department of Education. https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2017/2017144.pdf

- Nixon, M. L. (2017). Experiences of woman of color university chief diversity officers. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, *10*(4), 301–317. <u>https://doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000043</u>
- Nowell, L. S., Norris, J. M., White, D. E., & Moules, N. J. (2017). Thematic analysis: Striving to meet the trustowrthiness criteria. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, *16*(1), *1–13*. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/1609406917733847</u>
- Patton, M. Q. (2015). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (4th ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Pezalla, A. E., Pettigrew, J., & Miller-Day, M. (2012). Researching the researcher-asinstrument: An exercise in interviewer self-reflexivity. *Qualitative Research*, *12*(2), 165–185. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/1468794111422107</u>

Reddick, R., & Pritchett, K. O. (2015). "I don't want to work in a world of whiteness":European American and their mentoring relationships with black students.*Journal of the Professoriate*, 8(1), 55–84.

- Reynolds, R., & Mayweather, D. (2017). Recounting racism, resistance, and repression:
 Examining the experiences and #hashtag activism of college students with critical race theory and counternarratives. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 86(3), 283–304. https://doi.org/10.7709/jnegroeducation.86.3.0283
- Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. S. (2012). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data* (3rd ed.). SAGE.
- Salvucci, C., & Lawless, C. (2016). Nursing faculty diversity: Barriers and perceptions on recruitment, hiring and retention. *Journal of Cultural Diversity*, *23*(2), 65–75.
- Schmaling, K. B., Trevino, A. Y., Lind, J. R., Blume, A. W., & Baker, D. L. (2015).
 Diversity statements: How faculty applicants address. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, 8(4), 213–224. <u>https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038549</u>
- Sensoy, O., & DiAngelo, R. (2017). "We are all for diversity, but . . .": How faculty hiring committees reproduce whiteness and practical suggestions for how they can change. *Harvard Educational Review*, 87(4), 557–580.

https://doi.org/10.17763/1943-5045-87.4.557

Siegel, D. J., Barrett, T. G., & Smith, T. H. (2015). To stay or to go: A comparison of factors influential in the decisions of African American faculty to remain at two elite southern research universities. *Journal of Negro Education*, 84(4), 593–607.

Spanierman, L. B., & Smith, L. (2017). Roles and responsibilities of White allies: Implications for research, teaching, and practice. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 45(5), 606–617. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/0011000017717712</u> Strauss, V. (2015, November 12). *It's 2015*. Where are all the Black college faculty? *The Washington Post*. <u>https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/answer-</u>

sheet/wp/2015/11/12/its-2015-where-are-all-the-black-college-faculty/

- Tajfel, H. (1981). *Human groups and social categories: Studies in social psychology*. Cambridge University Press.
- Tajfel, H. (1982). Social identity and intergroup relations. Cambridge University Press.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In M.Hatch & M. Schultz (Eds.), *Organization identity: A reader* (pp.56–64). Oxford University Press.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1986). The social identity theory of intergroup behavior: Psychology of intergroup relations. Nelson-Hall.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (2001). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In M. A. Hogg, & D. Abrams, *Intergroup relations: Essential readings* (pp. 94-109).Taylor and Francis.
- U.S. Census Bureau. (2019). Quick facts. https://www.census.gov./quickfacts/2019
- Victorino, C. A., Nylund-Gibson, K., & Conley, S. (2013). Campus racial climate: A litmus test for faculty satisfaction at four-year colleges and universities. *Journal* of Higher Education, 84(6), 769–803.

https://doi.org/10.1080/00221546.2013.11777310

Von Robertson, R., & Chaney, C. (2017). I know it (racism) still exists here: African American male at a predominately white institution (PWI). *Humboldt Journal of Social Relations*, 39(1), 260–282. Walden University. (2021). Walden University catalog/handbook: Visions, mission and goals.

https://catalog.waldenu.edu/content.php?catoid=178&navoid=63595&hl=social+c hange&returnto=search

Wilder, J. O. L., Osborne-Lampkin, L. T., & Jackson, E. N. (2015). Rearticulating black faculty diversity efforts in the age of "postracialism" and Obama. Western Journal of Black Studies, 39(3), 174–185.

Appendix: Interview Guide

Researcher: I would like to begin by thanking you for participating in this study. I believe that your answers will be helpful to me in understanding the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at predominately White institutions. Your identity will be protected with a coding system that I have created so that your answers are not linked to you. I have provided an informed consent for you to review and sign before we begin. Please feel free to contact me if you have any questions. Your answers are important to me, and I am interested in hearing all your ideas, even those that you may think are insignificant. Here is my research question: What are the perspectives of faculty members who have experience participating in the recruitment and retention of African American faculty at predominantly White institutions?

Please answer the following questions:

- What is your ethnicity? __African American __White American __Asian American __Latinx American __Other __
 What is your gender? Male __Female __
- 2. In what roles have you served where you advocated for African American faculty? (e.g., mentoring, co-research, or co-teaching?)
- 3. Think back to a time that you were involved in the recruitment or retention of African American faculty. Is there an experience that stood out for you? What was that experience? What happened? Who was involved (by title, not name)?
- 4. What experiences with recruitment were found to be effective or ineffective?
- 5. What experiences with retention were found to be effective or ineffective?

- 6. What suggestions do you have that would increase recruiting of African American faculty?
- 7. What suggestions do you have that would increase retention of African American faculty?
- 8. Are there any other experiences that you would like to discuss in regard to seeking a faculty position or experience that afforded you the opportunities to stay at a PWI?

Questions for African American participants Only:

- As an African American faculty member, describe any professional development initiatives you participated in as part of your recruitment or retention process.
- 2. What were your experiences in seeking a faculty position at a PWI?

Follow-up Questions

- 1. Is your institution public or private?
- 2. What part of the country is your PWI located? (e.g., Midwest, east coast etc.)
- 3. What is your current position? ______What other positions have you positions have you held?
- 4. How long have you worked at your institution?
- 5. How does White privilege factor in recruitment or retention of African American faculty?

6. What has been your experience with White allies?

End interview script:

The next steps will be to send you a copy of the transcript of your interview to review for accuracy. I will send that later today or tomorrow. Also, may I send you an e-gift card from Amazon at this email address? If not, where can I send it? Thank you today for your time. I appreciate your participation.