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The Perceptions of Black Teachers Regarding Their Decision to Teach and Satisfaction with Their Work Experiences in Predominantly White K-12 Schools

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THE PERCEPTIONS OF BLACK TEACHERS REGARDING THEIR DECISION TO TEACH AND SATISFACTION WITH THEIR WORK EXPERIENCES IN PREDOMINANTLY WHITE K-12 SCHOOLS.

by

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Dedication

I dedicate this study to my wonderful and most supportive parents. Words cannot express how thankful I am to God for giving me such gems. From the time that I was born, the both of you have always been there and have acted as a support system for me in all of my endeavors. With the passing of time, you guys surpassed being just my parents and support system and managed to become my best friends. Your motivation and love were the very things that I needed to push me, and allow me to muster up enough strength to finally complete this journey. I will always be forever grateful to the both of you. In my eyes, you two are indeed the real MVPs.
Acknowledgments

Acknowledgments go to my entire committee, for the feedback and support that was provided throughout this journey. To: Dr. Wilder, Dr. Gregg, Dr. Dinsmore, and Dr. Gupton, you will never know how much the completion of a doctorate-level dissertation means to the son of community college dropouts.

Special thanks to my methodologist, Dr. Dan Dinsmore. I’m so grateful to you for taking the time to sit and explain quantitative data to someone who was completely oblivious. Your patience, understanding, dedication and assistance completely surpassed all of my expectations. At the urging of a friend, I sent you a random email asking if you’d be interested in helping a very lost doctoral student. From that email, you so kindly coached my incompetence into effectiveness. Because of that coaching, today I have produced this read worthy document.

Finally, I must give my greatest thanks to my Chair, Dr. Sandra Gupton. Dr. Gupton, you are indeed amazing. Who knew that when I was so desperately seeking to find a chair, I would end up in your office? Who knew that after being oblivious to who you were and what your reputation was, that you would change my life forever? Although I was clueless about the strong impact that you would have on me and my writing, I am eternally grateful that things happened the way they did. Throughout my life, my dad has always told me, “Son, be careful how you entertain strangers because unaware you may entertain angels.” You have truly been my angel throughout this process. During this process, I have talked to you, confided in you, and even cried in front of you. Through it all, your professionalism, your concern, your inspiration, and your ambiance remained intact. Although the magnitude of my gratefulness could never be expressed with words, please know this, “you will always be my favorite diva”!
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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of Black teachers regarding their decision to teach and the satisfaction with their work experiences in predominantly White K-12 schools. A total of 118 teachers who were identified as Black and as employees of a predominantly White school were invited to complete a survey via email. A total of 56 did in fact respond. Of that 56, only 51 respondents provided enough usable data (which is defined as a survey completed in full). The data, which came from a Perceptions Survey, meant to report levels of job satisfaction as it relates to perceptions of work experiences.

The primary research question was: What are the perceptions of Black teachers regarding their satisfaction with their work experiences in predominantly White K-12 schools? The subsequent sub-question was: How do those work experiences impact Black teachers’ decision to continue teaching, be promoted from teaching, or recommend a career in teaching to other Black people? The independent or predictor variables were: spirituality, cultural acceptance, interracial relationships, intra-racial relationships, mentoring, and advancement opportunities. The dependent variable was: job satisfaction. A bivariate correlation analysis was used to determine if the predictor variables should be grouped as components using their variance scores. The variance scores did indeed indicate the need to group the predictor variables as components. Those components were named as relationships, oppression, and mindset. The component named oppression had a significant correlation with job satisfaction.

Overall the findings indicated that a large percent of Black teachers in predominantly White schools are not satisfied with their job. Further research about the job satisfaction of Black teachers is recommended because of the growing need to recruit and keep Black teachers in our schools.
In the United States, the under-representation of Black teachers continues to be a concern in public K-12 schools (Barnes, 2000; Gordon, 2005; Wilder, 2000). Every day, schools are becoming more diverse. The National Center for Education Statistics (2014) reported that White students make up 52% of K-12 public school populations while Black, Asian, Hispanic, Indian, and other students together make up 48% of the populations. Those demographics reflect a very diverse student population. Unfortunately, it’s quite rare to witness that same diversity amongst teachers. Subsequently, one of the biggest disparities in the nation’s education system is the disproportionate number of Black teachers compared to the number of Black students (Fairclough, 2004; Gursky, 2002). The general concern is that there should be a more proportionate ratio of Black teachers to represent the growing number of Black students in this country’s schools. However, the percent of Black teachers compared to Black students continues to be significantly disproportionate. The scarcity of Black teachers is often correlated with recruitment and retention issues. Clearly, the initiatives to recruit and retain Black people into teaching careers have not succeeded to date (Hanushek & Pace, 1995; Shipp, 1999). Concerning the recruitment and retention of Black teachers, an obvious struggle exists. The struggle is often believed to be the result of poor recruitment and retention attempts. The National Association of Independent Schools (NAIS) also addressed the struggle in their Principles of Good Practice (PGP). In PGP, they stated that institutions are lacking racial, cultural, and gender diversity, and should more actively “seek a diversity of cultural, national, and ethnic backgrounds in recruitment of both teachers and administrators” (NAIS, 2012, p.6). The seriousness of the issue is confirmed by The National Center for Education Statistics (2014) who reported that America’s
Black student population makes up 23.69% of elementary and secondary schools, yet Black teachers make up only 7% of the teaching population.

A discussion of how difficult it is to recruit and retain Black teachers is not complete without a better understanding of why this presents a problem to the teaching profession. Getting feedback from Black teachers themselves should be helpful in understanding better why there are so few Black teachers in proportion to the number of Black students in this country. When the story of Black teachers is told, we find that Black teachers perceive their work experiences to be quite different than their Caucasian counterparts (Cozart, 2001; Mabokela & Madsen, 2003). Brosnan (2001) explained that some of the reasons that it’s difficult to recruit and retain Black teachers are because they describe their experiences based on feelings of cultural isolation, being treated as outsiders, being spirituality handicapped, being hired as “tokens”, or being put on display. It seems reasonable to assume that those perceptions were heavily influenced by the culture of the school in which they work. Moreover, school cultures are certainly influenced by the racial demographics of the school. Brosnan (2001) confirmed that different races and ethnicities tend to adopt different cultural behaviors and that the most unpleasant perceptions of work experiences were traditionally reported when Black teachers worked in predominantly White schools (greater than 50%). Unfortunately, situations such as these have been minimally studied. The nation’s current demographics suggest a need to increase the amount of research about Black teachers in predominantly White K-12 schools. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2014), in America the average K-12 school’s population of White students is about 54%. Therefore, at present, any Black person choosing a career in K-12 education faces a strong possibility of walking into a classroom of predominantly White students. Knowing this, any research attempting to contribute ideas for promoting teacher diversity, must at some point
consider how integral feedback from Black teachers working in predominantly White schools has become (Kelly, 2007). From that consideration arose the decision to focus this study on the perceptions of Black teachers working in predominantly White schools.

**Significance of the Research**

This study’s significance is rooted in its attempt to learn more about how the Black teachers working in predominantly White schools perceive their work experiences and describe their level of job satisfaction. Equally significant is the methodological nature of this study. Most of the previous research pieces addressing Black teachers or administrators in predominantly White schools are collegiate based and qualitative (Alexander & Moore, 2008; Hansberry, 2013; Hamilton, 2009). Many of those qualitative studies have already allowed Black teachers and administrators to vocalize what they perceive to be their most pressing issues. This research solely concentrates on teachers in K-12 settings and does so using a quantitative methodology. Moreover, this study looks at the perceptions of Black teachers work experiences that were identified by the literature and to date had only been qualitative. It then attempts to quantify a relation between those work experiences and job satisfaction. From that, the researcher believed that this study will provide greater insight and understanding to facilitate and inform policy and practice for the recruitment and retention of Black teachers. Black teacher recruitment and important because of their clear under-representation in K-12 schools when comparing their numbers to the numbers of Black students enrolled (Barnes, 2000; Gordon, 2005; Peske & Haycock, 2006). Although the under-representation of Black teachers in America’s schools is a modern-day disparity in education, history suggests that there have always been rough times for Black people living as minorities in the United States. The issues of Black people go all the way back to slavery days. It was during slavery that African slaves were expected to forsake their
culture while faithfully working and submitting to White Euro-American culture on plantations or inside “the big house”, which was named to represent their loss of freedom and entrance into ownership. Ladsen-Billings (2005) is a key scholar in educational matters who suggested that the Black race has never recovered from the crippling of slavery. In fact, she suggested that “the big house” concept from slavery is now the reality of Black teachers. She explained that Black teachers in White schools were often expected to reject their culture and assimilate the culture of White people, all while serving the needs of White children. That process is similar to what was encountered by Black slaves while in “the big house”.

The many years of culture crippling and discrimination against Black people in this country have impacted and historically been reflected in education throughout America. The number of Black teachers has, in fact, declined over the last 40 years. The National Center for Education Statistics (2014) reported the percent of teachers who identify as White is at an all-time high of about 89%. They also reported the percent of Black teachers at an all-time low of 7%. Seven percent is the lowest percent of Black teachers documented since 1971. Based on those statistics, it seems reasonable to say that K-12 schools are dominated by White teachers, and the need for committed Black teachers in the classrooms is increasingly evident (Dilworth, 1987; Spelman, 1988).

Within our schools, the shrinking number of Black teachers compared to the increasing number of Black students is cause for major concern. Milner (2006) disputed the idea that Black teachers must teach Black kids. Instead, he explained that the very presence of Black teachers seems to provide inspiration, mentorship, and relatability to Black students. Milner (2006) also contended that the presence of Black teachers creates an assurance and promise that Black students wouldn’t normally have. Moreover, as the number of Black teachers continues to
diminish, one has to wonder how that impacts Black students’ school experiences and if it is related to some of the disturbingly negative issues that Black students have in schools. When Black students don’t see Black teachers, does this contribute to their feelings of being disconnected from the school community? If so, such disconnected feelings have consequences and surely must contribute to a series of disparities for Black students (Tatum, 1997). For example, in 2012, the dropout rate for White students was barely 4%, yet it was over 9% for Black students (National Center for Education Statistics, 2012). Also, the National Center of Education Statistics (2014) reported that Black students are overpopulated into special education, have more discipline issues, and perform poorer academically across the board when compared to White students. Many of these persistent issues may be abated in part by having more Black teachers. Having Black teachers seems necessary since Black students typically perform better in situations where they can identify with some portion of their instructors (Ingersoll & Perda, 2011; Pang & Sablan, 1998).

Discrepancies in school success and performance as a function of race are important because students’ success in school is a strong predictor of their success in the larger society (Fairclough, 2004; Lynn, 2006; Martin, 2007). Black students who drop out or express that they don’t feel mentored, are less likely to enroll in college or land good jobs, and are more likely to be on public assistance or incarcerated for criminal activity (Barnes-Johnson, 2008; Burley, Butner, Causey-Bush, & Lawson, 2007). Burley et al. (2007) assert that increasing the presence of Black teachers could significantly increase the achievement of Black students and the overall success of Black people in society. Therefore, this study leads to recommendations for improving the Black teacher’s work experiences and ultimately facilitate greater success with the recruitment and retention of Black teachers.
Statement of the Purpose

As the disproportionately low number of Black teachers is now widely acknowledged, there is recognition of the need for more research to understand why this is the case and what can be done to attract and retain Black teachers in America’s schools. This study attempts to identify Black teachers’ rationales for choosing to teach (or not) and their level of satisfaction with their work experiences in predominantly White schools. Information was collected which provided insight for improving the recruitment and retention of all Black teachers. Furthermore, this study had merit in filling the void of research and understanding of Black teachers’ perceptions of their work experiences in predominantly White school. Finally, this study helps to address the problem of the under-representation of Black teachers in K-12 education.

Research Questions

This study addressed the following primary research question:

(RQ1): What are the perceptions of Black teachers regarding their satisfaction with their work experiences in predominantly White K-12 schools?

More specifically, it addressed the following sub-question:

(RQ1a): How do those work experiences impact Black teachers’ decision to continue teaching, be promoted from teaching, or recommend a career in teaching to other Black people?

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions will provide clarity and common understanding:

1. *African-American or Black*: a person that has origins or ancestry in any of the Black race groups from Africa. For the purpose of this study, the terms African-American and Black may be used interchangeably.
2. **People of color or minorities**: identified as people who are members of racial groups other than White. These could include African-Americans, Asian Americans, Hispanic Americans, and Native Americans.

3. **Caucasian or White**: light skinned race; of or relating to one of the traditional divisions of Humankind, covering a broad group of peoples from Europe, western Asia, and parts of India and North Africa.

4. **Predominantly White schools or districts**: K-12 schools or districts with the population being at least 50% White Americans.

5. **Spirituality or religion**: faith-based practices that are used to connect to higher beings and find an inner strength to cope with the discomforts of life.

6. **Cultural acceptance**: receiving, respecting, and valuing the beliefs, values, customs, and rituals that are proposed by an individual and often related to one’s race.

7. **Interracial Relationships**: the contact and associations that a person has with members of their same race.

8. **Intra-racial Relationships**: the contact and associations that a person has with members of their same race.

9. **Mentoring**: a process in which one person, usually of superior rank or achievement, guides the development of another person who is at a beginning or entry-level state.

10. **Advancement Opportunities**: openings or chances to get raises, promotions, and elevations on the job.

11. **Work experiences**: the actions, encounters, situations, and conditions that an individual faces with while working in a place of employment.
Methods

In this study, a survey instrument developed by the researcher was emailed to Black teachers who were members of a Black educator social media group. The teachers who received the email had elected to provide their personal email address to the researcher, and had identified themselves as meeting the study criteria (Black and working in a predominantly White K-12 school). The survey data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18.0.

Limitations/Delimitations

In researching the perceptions of Black teachers in their predominantly White schools, sensitive topics arose. In fact, because of the nature of the study, the sample size was reduced since many respondents chose not to have race-based conversations. Delimitations included the fact that the researcher became restricted to a single Black educator social media group since he was unable to obtain an approval to distribute his survey instrument to Black teachers in any predominantly White school district.

Organization of the Study

This study is organized into five chapters. Each chapter is dedicated to a different purpose. Chapter 1 introduces the study and includes the significance of the research, statement of purpose, statement of the research questions, definition of terms, and limitations.

Chapter 2 provides a review of related literature. This literature focuses on the present conditions of the education system in the U.S. It also focuses on the effect those conditions have on society and what are the possible causes of those conditions.

Chapter 3 describes the design of the study. Also a description of the methodology, as well as justification for choosing that method, is explained.
Chapter 4 presents the results of the data collected from survey respondents, Black teachers working in predominantly White schools. Also included in this chapter is the analyzing of the data and key findings related to the study’s questions.

Finally, Chapter 5 contains a summary of the study with a discussion of the findings, the researcher’s suggestions for further research, and recommendations for improving the recruitment and retention of Black teachers in education.
Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

In this chapter, a review of the literature related to the importance of Black teacher perceptions is provided. Each section of this literature review is girded by the following questions: Historically, what have the experiences of Black people in America been like? How much impact have historical events had on the present day progression (or lack thereof) of Black people? Is the Black community finding it hard to thrive in a predominantly White society? What in times past, have Black people considered to be the greatest influences on how they perceive their encountered experiences? Based on these questions, this chapter first provides a historical context. The historical context reviews the oppression and disparities of Black people dating all the way back slavery, and the emancipation of slaves. Then it explores the post-slavery period in which racism and segregation were very problematic. Next, the Civil Rights Movement (CRM) is discussed. The CRM discussion is followed by an exploration of affirmative action implementation. As the historical context concludes, it explains how various equal opportunity efforts have yet to eliminate discrimination, oppression, and disparities against Black people. These discrepancies are most commonly seen in areas such as health care, economic status, and education. Black people continue to have inequitable access to health care, wealth, and jobs, specifically in the field of education. As a result, moving forward, this chapter focuses on the most relevant racial issues in this country and how present day treatment of Black teachers has impacted both society and student success within our schools. Proceeding is a discussion of some factors that were identified as contributors to a Black teacher’s perception of their workplace experiences. Finally, the chapter concludes with a review of the critical race theory (CRT) which is the academic discipline used to frame and undergird this study. CRT, its ideas, key players,
and contributions are thoroughly explained. CRT is described as an appropriate framework for this study because of the constant emergence of institutional racism in the institute of education. Addressing institutional racism within the field of education, while looking through the lens of CRT will assist with recruitment and retention of Black teachers.

**The Historical Context**

In the United States, oppression is nothing new to Black people. In fact, Black people have always suffered oppression in America since the time they set foot on this country’s soil. The oppression of Black people dates all the way back to slavery that was marked by the arrival of their ancestors on ships. Once they were completely exported, they were forced to serve as pieces of property. They were murdered, mutilated, raped, and beaten into submission. They were forced into cultural imperialism, traded, or sold for a little of nothing. As a people, they endured a very gruesome lifestyle for nearly 250 years. In fact, the enslavement of Black people initially began in the early 1620s and was not abolished until the later-1800s. Moreover, even after slavery was abolished, its impact was long-lasting. Furthermore, the crippling of the Black race went into full effect in America (Berlin, 2003; Fogel, 1989, Horton & Horton, 2005; Rodriguez, 2007).

It wasn’t until 1865 that abolishing slavery officially took place. Even then, the end of Black people’s captivity was nowhere in sight. In fact, history suggests the contrary. Many historians reported that immediately after the enslavement of Blacks ended, a period called the re-enslavement of Blacks began. The re-enslavement of Blacks was a period right after the United States Civil War. Blackmon (2008) says that during this period, Black people were terrorized for seeking the full benefits of U.S. citizenship. They were intimidated into exile by laws that were enacted specifically for Blacks. As a result, tens of thousands of Blacks were
arrested, asked to pay outrageous fines, and charged for the costs of their arrests. Since many of them had no means to pay those newfound “debts,” they were sold as workers to generate a form of payment. All of a sudden, many Black people found themselves back in coal mines, lumber camps, brickyards, railroads, quarries, and farm plantations. Additionally, armies were making Black folks laborer without any compensation. Black people who were hypothetically free were once again repeatedly purchased and sold, and forced to submit to White masters who used physical beatings and torture for decades after the “supposed end of slavery” (Blackmon, 2008).

Even as that period faded and a period of Reconstruction began, the road traveled by Blacks in America certainly wasn’t an easy one. Access to education and skills increased but were in separate facilities from White people. There were numerous court cases, such as the 1896 case of Plessy vs. Ferguson, in which the law upheld that separation of the races remains fair and constitutional as long as the facilities were “separate but equal” (Encyclopedia of American Studies, 2010). Of course separate but equal was never the case. In fact, Black people complained for years that their schools, facilities, services, and accommodations were inferior to Whites. It wasn’t until the middle of the 1900s that cases like Brown vs. Board of Education (1954), prompted the Supreme Court to overturn the Plessy vs. Ferguson verdict and declare segregation as unconstitutional (Blackmon, 2008).

Although Brown vs. Board of Education was a major and groundbreaking moment in the advancement towards equality, it’s not practical to believe that integration replaced segregation with ease. There was a lot of reluctance and unwillingness to adopt that new tradition. That reluctance and unwillingness, it was discovered that a response prompted a response in the form of a law. The law was needed to help guarantee everyone’s cooperation in the new quest for equality. The law was called the Civil Rights Act (1964). The Civil Rights Act is a landmark
piece of civil rights legislation in the United States that outlawed discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin (Encyclopedia of American Studies, 2010). From the Civil Rights Act, the Civil Rights Movement was birthed. The Civil Rights Movement (CRM) was a series of worldwide political movements that challenged various intentions to fulfill the newly required equality under the law. The CRM peaked somewhere around the mid-1960s. Many abolitionists arose during this movement and organized nonviolent campaigns that displayed civil resistance. Although these movements did not fully achieve their goals, they did make some strides toward the improvements of equal legal rights for groups that were previously oppressed. Although the movements are associated with African American people, they crossed over into providing protection under the law for the rights of all ethnic minorities, women, and gays (King, 1992).

During the CRM, as Black people sought solutions to discrimination issues, different measures emerged as a way to force schools and workplaces to abide by Civil Rights laws. These measures are known as affirmative actions. Affirmative actions were needed because historically, race, gender, and religion have influenced the employment opportunities for minorities. Minority groups were facing exclusion and were confined to lower positions (Rai & Critzer, 2000). Harvey (1999) suggested that weak or indifferent recruitment practices, lack of commitment to diversity, lack of training, and institutional racism were additional reasons that affirmative actions were needed. Affirmative action was birthed around 1972. It was then that Congress saw the need for policies to promote equality and diversity. Achieving affirmative action was, and still is an ongoing challenge. Even as Black people were recruited and advanced in employment, they were still subjected to injustices. Additionally, they often felt their
presence was needed simply to fill requirements and often identified themselves as “tokens” (Kelly, 2007; Cox & Nkomo, 1990).

Even with the emergence of the CRM and affirmative action measures, the post-slavery period continued to have major issues related to the treatment of Black Americans as citizens with equal rights and endowments. Following the CRM arose an era in which various theories were created attempting to explain the ill treatment of Blacks. The most pertinent theory that emerged during that time was called the Critical Race Theory (CRT). CRT is an academic perspective birthed post-Critical Rights Movement. It tries to analyze race and racism from a legal point of view. It provides a standard by which an examination of society and culture can be taken. In doing so, it recognizes the strong presence of racism that is ingrained in American society (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). Tate (1997) said that CRT explains that the racism in our society no longer comes in the form of individual racists. However, there is a strong pattern of institutional racism that collectively rules as a dominating force throughout the nation. That same dominating force explains why it seems that the cultural recovery of Black people in America is almost impossible.

Despite the overall failure to revitalize the Black race, there have been a series of breakthroughs for Blacks. They have gained greater access to many of the benefits that are enjoyed by Whites. However, having access to many of the schools, services, jobs, and neighborhoods of Caucasian counterparts simply does not suffice. In each of those jobs, services, schools, and neighborhoods, there remains much inequality despite access. The inequalities within institutions are known as institutional racism. Institutional racism permeates society and creates disparities of all kinds for Black people. One area in which this is witnessed the most is in education. Within the U.S. education system, Black teachers are disproportionately
underrepresented, while Black students as a group consistently underperform (Barnes, 2000; Gursky, 2002; Lewis, 2006). The National Center for Education Statistics (2007) reported that White students had higher scores than Black students on all assessments. White students had average scores at least 26 points higher than Black students in each subject, on a 0-500 scale.

Various studies have inferred that part of the underperformance that is seen in Black students is attributable to the shortage of Black teachers. Further exploration of the Black teacher shortage paired with the limited success of the Black student, creates multiple societal setbacks (Barnes-Johnson, 2008; Burley & Lawson, 2007).

The Impact of the Scarcity of Black Teachers on Society

History has confirmed that achieving equality across all racial barriers is quite a challenge. It almost seems impossible to birth culture that is colorblind and anti-discriminatory. On the contrary, it is quite easy and evident to witness discrimination and oppression as it flows throughout our society. The flow of those discriminatory and oppressive forces causes more racial discrepancies for Black people and collectively makes the nation more indignant. Some of the most noted discrepancies for Black Americans are higher crime and incarceration rates, more reported cases of victimization and defeat, and a greater use of public assistance programs.

According to The U.S. Census Bureau (2013a), of the 316,128,839 people who claim residency in the United States, only 13.2% are Black. Ironically, although Black people represent a small percentage of the nation’s population, they represent a large percent of the nation’s crime. The Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) (2011) expressed that the number of crimes committed in the United States within a year was 9,499,725. Of that number, 2,697,539, or 28.3% were committed by Blacks. According to these statistics, contrary to popular belief, Black people do not commit the most crimes. However, the ratio that compares the number of
crimes committed to the population of Black people is no doubt alarmingly disproportionate. Additionally, Black people seem to commit more crimes of violence and rage. The FBI also reported that 55% of murders were committed by Blacks. Furthermore, Blacks seem to commit crimes at much younger ages than Whites. The Department of Juvenile Justice (2012), reported that young Black people committed six times more murders, three times more rapes, ten times more robberies, and three times more assaults than did their White counterparts in the same age groups.

Historical and present-day discrimination of Black people in the U.S. plays a significant role in Black crime statistics. Often, Black people feel they have a moral obligation to commit a crime. Some feel that they live in a world where their choices and opportunities are limited, yet the punishments they face, the penalties they’re assessed, and the likelihood of fiascos are endless. As a result, faced with no other options, they tell themselves that they’re stealing to provide for themselves, they’re assaulting to protect themselves, and they’re killing to prove themselves. They do this in a society where they feel they are defeated and are lacking any other opportunities (Miller, Rote & Keith, 2013; Stanford, 1972)

There are statistics that confirm the notion that Blacks receive fewer opportunities and more severe consequences. For example, the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2011) stated that Black people make up 39% of the jail and prison populations. Those statistics are quite alarming considering they only commit 28% of crimes. Perhaps Black people are getting extended sentences and are being forced to serve time while White people are getting second chances, paroles, and earlier release dates. Additionally, Black people convicted of crimes are much more likely to be sentenced to capital punishments (death penalties). The Death Penalty Information Center (2014) reported that 41.69% of death row inmates are Black, while 43.13% are White.
Those numbers are not consisted with the U.S. population in which Blacks are 13%, nor are they consisted with the prison population in which Blacks are 39%. It was also reported that the likelihood of being placed on death row seems greater when the victim in question was White. In current death row cases, a White victim was involved 76% of the time. Meanwhile, a death sentence was only given 15% of the time when the victims were Black. The message sent seems to be that there are extreme consequences for Black people who violate Whites citizens.

To grow up and feel that society will never readily support and embrace your need to develop and advance is a hard pill to swallow. More often than not, many Black people go throughout their entire lives feeling like a victim and playing the role of one. Many feel that there is nothing they can do that will ever combat the negativity that they were assigned at birth. As a result, their personal advancement becomes limited by the excessive and constant obsession with living the life of a victim. Rollins and Valdez (2006) said that as a victim, Black people use various acts of discrimination (personal and impersonal) as the reasons they can’t be successful. The more discrimination pollutes our society, the more members of the Black race feel resentment to Whites. In their eyes, White people become responsible for failures on their job, failures in their education, and even failures in their health. Life easily becomes less about living and more about surviving or existing. The victimized roles taken on by Black people makes it much harder to witness racial equality (Rollins & Valdez, 2006). Part of the reason that’s true is because when opportunities better educations or job advancements arises, many Black choose to pass them up. They feel inadequate, unworthy, or threatened to pursue that kind of success. Many avoid pursuing something better because they fear they will receive a predestined rejection. As a result, they channel their energy into illegal activities, or they take advantage of
the system by exhausting access to governmental assistance programs such as welfare, food stamps, and unemployment (Broman, Mavaddat & Hsu, 2000; Rollins & Valdez, 2006).

According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2013), 15% of all Americans are in poverty. That percent is interpreted as over 47 million people based on the country’s population. Of course, a large majority of those impoverished Americans are receiving governmental assistance. The Department of Commerce (2014) reported that in the U.S. 12,800,000 people are on welfare, 46,700,000 are receiving food stamps, and 5,600,000 are receiving unemployment benefits. Of those numbers, Black people make up a large percent. Also reported by the Department of Commerce (2014), Black people make up 39.8% of the people receiving a form of government assistance, whereas Whites make up 38.8%. That number is sobering since Black people make up only 13.2% of the nation’s population. So the demographics of welfare recipients are not comparable to the overall demographics of the U.S. Even more disconcerting, Black Americans are more than two times as likely to have been on welfare as White Americans. Although it cannot be said with certainty, surely the years of oppression and discrimination experienced by Blacks must be related to these statistics. Even as the years have passed, Black people as a unit are still struggling to gain a momentum that’s strong enough to recover from historical wounds. They need the momentum that will create generations of firsts within their families. These firsts include the first to graduate from high school, the first to attend college, the first to land a prestigious job, or the first to purchase a home. In the absence of that momentum, 27% of the Black race seem plagued by poverty. That 27% exceeds the country’s average of 15%. This number becomes infectious to Black people, and all other citizens of the U.S. Maintaining governmental assistance programs can become quite costly. The U.S. Department of Commerce reported that on welfare alone, $131.9 billion dollars is spent each year. With assistance
programs requiring that kind of spending, it is evident that making amends to societal injustices would work to the advantage of us all (Smith, 2007; Volden, 2002)

**The Impact of the Scarcity of Black Teachers on Schools**

Feelings of resentment and distrust toward White people continue to plague the Black community. Moreover, those feelings become embedded in the Black community as they are passed down from one generation to the next. Black parents commonly express their distrust and resentment in front of their children. As a result, their children adopt the same feelings and then carry it into their schools. Immediately, a barrier is created between the Black student and the White teacher. That barrier becomes extremely problematic for Black students because the majority of their teachers are White (Madsen & Mabokela, 2003). In other words, situations are created in which Black students are left thriving in schools that are full of White teachers (and White students) that they never learned to connect with or trust.

Black students arrive on schools campuses looking for Black teachers to give them feelings of safety, assurance, and support. Often, they are disappointed when they don’t find that teacher. Or, situations may arise when a few Black teachers are present, but they are unable to have some the Black students who need them the most. As a result, White teachers end up teaching Black students while feeling completely unprepared to deal with the resentment that the Black students may carry. Take Black students who enter schools feeling both resentful and inferior to their White classmates and teachers, and pair that with White teachers who have don’t know how to break those feelings or are unwilling to try, and achievement gaps for Black students are created (Pringle, Lyons, & Booker, 2010). These gaps (which seem to overlap and correlate) are frequently seen in special education, graduation, standardized testing, disciplinary action, and entrance into colleges.
Historically, feeling alone, no support, and inadequate has always led Black students to suffer disparities. Feeling like the underdog is easily followed with performing as such. White teachers not understanding the lack of drive or deeper psychological issues don’t have enough time in full classrooms to slow down and evaluate their Black students individually. Therefore, Black students commonly become potential candidates for special education services (Kavale & Forness, 1996; Pringle, Lyons, & Booker, 2010). In a study of the demographics of special education students, Kunjufu (2010) reported that even though Black students were only about 20% of the school population, they made up over 40% of special education cases. And of those cases, 80% were Black males. What alarming statistics. A true indication that special education programs are severely overpopulated by Black students. As Black students overpopulate special education, it’s important to note the long-term impacts associated with that classification. In fact, receiving a special education classification can set the tone for their entire life. Many students in the special education never receive a high school diploma, enroll in college, or acquire sufficient employment (Dunn, Chambers, & Rabren, 2004; Kavale & Forness, 1996).

Connected to special education classification is graduation rates of Black students. As Black students receive special education classifications, their chances of graduating and receiving a standard diploma substantially decreases. According to Kavale and Forness (1996), those students who don’t receive the classification can still be broken just by the referral. Once a child has been classified or referred as into special education programs, their entire outlook on learning changes. They began to manipulate their minds to believe that certain tasks, such as reading, writing, and spelling are much more difficult for them. In fact, even under the best circumstances, the child is not likely to lose the belief that those areas are difficult for them. Moreover, it is quite easy to understand why the National Center for Education Statistics (2013)
reported that 85% of White students successfully graduate with a standard high school diploma compared to only 65% of Black students. Then, of course, the amounts of special education students not receiving a public high school diploma is at least two times greater than those not in special education. Considering that a large portion of special education students is Black, those graduation gaps are quite understandable (Dunn, Chambers, & Rabren, 2004).

Additionally, there are certain behaviors associated with special education students. Many teachers claim to witness those same behaviors in many Black students across the board. The most common of the behaviors (which is known to be success-limiting) is low self-esteem (Kavale & Forness, 1996). Low self-esteem is a major contributor to achievement gaps with test scores. Black students both in and out of special education tend to have a low peer acceptance that has a vast impact on their confidence level. (Barclay & Doll, 2001). The more they lack confidence and become perceived as the “slow kid”, the more their actions starts to confirm that notion. Their school experience becomes overly complicated and their ability to excel on standardized tests that are “Caucasian driven” becomes restricted. On average, the National Center for Education Statistics (2012) reported that Black students scored 99 points lower in reading and 108 points lower in Math on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) than their Caucasian counterparts.

Another essential impact issue with Black students in the schools is discipline issues. As all kids go through phases and are subject to disciplinary action at times, statistics tell us that Black students are more frequently the victim of disciplinary actions in the schools. There could be a series of reasons for this. It could be lashing out against White teachers or classmates that they don’t feel to be trustworthy, it could be feeling so intimidated by the material that they decide to act out, or it could be a clever way to get out of school. It’s possible that Black students...
hate their school life so much that they purposely act out just to be sent out or away from it. Whatever the reason may be, the fact remains that the National Center for Education Statistics (2012) reported that on average, Black students are suspended and expelled at a rate three times greater than white students. On average, 5% of white students are suspended, compared to 16% of black students.

All of the above issues become related to the low numbers of Black students entering college. The mass volumes of Black students being classified as special education directly impacts the rate at which they are graduating. Research confirms that for those Black students who do successfully graduate with a high school diploma, there is still a strong chance that they may have lower standardized test scores or more negative discipline records than White students that were their graduating counterparts. All those things considered, it’s not surprising that Black students also enter and are accepted into colleges in numbers much lower than White students. The National Center for Education Statistics (2011) reported that of the students who entered a degree granting institution, 61% of them were White while only 15% of them were Black. In a day and age where most jobs require post-secondary training, that means that 85% of Black students would leave high school not prepared to take on a job that would guarantee them a successful life.

After having given a report of such disheartening statistics, it’s necessary to put these numbers in perspective. This is not to say that all of these problems can be alleviated by simply employing Black teachers. The reality is that many deep issues exist, and there is no one correct or quick answer. However, it is very important that people feel culturally connected. Racial identity has a lot to do with who feels culturally connected to who. Baldwin (1972) attempted to describe the factors that contribute to a person’s identity development. He said, “No one knows
precisely how identities are formed, but it is safe to say that identities are not invented: an identity would seem to be arrived at by common ways in which people face and use their experience” (Baldwin, 1972, p. 189). In other words, Black people identify with Black people because they feel connected with the same experiences. That is the same connection that can give Black students a sense of security, protection, and confidence that can substantially improve their performances in school and close many school-related achievement gaps (Pluviose, 2006; Tatum, 1997). Black teachers tend to spend more time addressing both the educational and personal needs of Black students. Milner (2006) interviewed Black teachers and students and found that Black teachers provide mentors to their Black students. He also found out that Black students are more likely receive encouragement to perform higher academically, to stay away from the disciplinary actions, and to graduate from high school and enroll in college when they are in a Black teacher’s class.

**Suggested factors related to Black teacher satisfaction**

As the number of Black teachers continues to decline, it is reasonable to presume that there are some common factors related to this decline. These factors could exist mutually for Black teachers. Quite often people of the same race share common thoughts with things they value, believe in, or deem significant in society. In fact, Tatum (2003) asserts that there are very strong culture differences that exist between races. She also asserts that most people do not know how to talk about those racial differences. Whites are afraid of using the wrong words and being perceived as "racist" while parents of color are afraid of exposing their children to painful racial realities too soon. In light of this, it is quite often to see why people of the same race tend to identify with each other and build rapports and share commonalities. According to Baldwin (1963) and Baldwin (1972), there is no one size fits all recipe for describing the wants and needs
of a particular race or ethnicity. He contended that every person regardless of race has basic
standards, morals, values, and principles that become signature to their family and upbringing.
Nonetheless, Baldwin also expressed that people tend to find members solace with members of
their race much faster than members of opposite races. In the process, like-minded conversations
are had, and race-based cultural themes are developed. Baldwin (1963) and Baldwin (1972),
listed some general workplace factors that may be valued by Black people as being: spiritually
free, culturally accepted, comfortable with their interracial and intra-racial relationships, an
effective mentor or mentee, and graced with the opportunity to advance.

**Spirituality.** As previously mentioned, it’s quite common for members of the same race
to share common characteristics. Many of those common characteristics are culturally related.
Ultimately, each race has their distinct culture that’s quite different from other races. As cultures
differ from one group to another, so does their outlooks on spirituality. An individual’s spiritual
life is very important in understanding how they describe their work experiences. In fact, quite
often it dictates the shaping of a person’s perception. Chickering and Reisser (1993) authored a
book called *Education and Identity*, in which they named characteristics that were most
influential to one’s personal description. They found that many people identify themselves and
their personal life by their spiritual identity. Furthermore, that same identity was determined to
be a fundamental contributing attribute in the development of individual personalities (Watt,
2003). Historically, Black people have been called some of the most spiritual people. Watt
(2003) also concluded that Black people often attribute civil advances to their faith. When
spiritual, Blacks tend to have upbeat personalities and are more optimistic about life’s events.
They gain hope in the fact that they can encourage themselves, gain strength and find support by
turning to their religious or spiritual practices for answers (Mattis, 2002; Watt, 2003). Work
environments where spirituality is accepted, understood, or celebrated are more satisfying and pleasurable to spiritual people. Their satisfaction comes from the fact that they feel comfortable and free enough to openly embrace the practices used to assign meaning to their lives (Howard & Howard, 1997). For some time now, prayer and religion in schools have been outlawed. Therefore many Black people began to feel disjointed and choose to seek employment elsewhere.

**Culture.** In most situations, an individual’s culture almost always influences their perception. Most people define culture as individual principles, customs, values, and beliefs. However, a common misconception is that culture comes solely from one's race. Although race is not the sole component of culture, it is common to see similar cultures amongst members of the same racial ethnicity. Based on an employee’s cultural background, it is often possible to project how well they will fit into their workplace community. Furthermore, the cultural identity of an employee is quite often an indicator of how comfortable an employee will be with the rituals and routines of their organization (Lockett & Harrell, 2003; Stanley, 2007).

As individuals move from adolescence into adulthood, the development of their cultural identity is enhanced. Lockett and Harrell (2003) found that as that enhancement takes place, it’s most impertinent that they feel accepted and that they can identify with their larger cultural community. In other words, as adults our cultural identity becomes so important, that even in the workplace, it is important to have cultural similarities to create a sense of belonging. When employees a sense of belonging to the organization in which they work, it increases their confidence and helps them more successfully perform their job. That feeling of confidence in the workplace relates to job satisfaction. Job satisfaction can help deter and limit the feelings of alienation and isolation that one often feels when they are dissatisfied (MacMillan, 1999).
Once cultural identity becomes discovered, it is quite common for it to be a template for determining one’s self-worth. In other words, based on one’s distinct culture, an image of how someone sees themselves arises (Oyserman & Lee, 2008). The images are then measured based on confines of their cultures. Self-esteem can then be increased or decreased based on how well they measure up (Tsai, Ying, & Lee, 2001). As self-esteem changes, the perception of experiences in the workplace varies. Typically those with higher self-esteem are more confident about their image, the image their co-workers have of them, and their ability to perform their duties (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

Finally, culture can become a determinant of trust in the workplace. As the personal culture of an individual shines bright, so does their ability to develop and implement trust (Doney, Cannon, & Mullen, 2004). In other words, there is a direct influence of culture on trust. Culture determines how and if an employee will establish trust in their co-workers, their supervisor, and their company as a whole. Trust is an essential value for most people, the absence thereof can manipulate their judgments, behaviors, and perceptions in the workplace causing them to seek employment elsewhere (Finegan, 1994).

**Interracial and intra-racial interactions.** Deeper perusal of the literature indicated that perception of individual work experiences’ also depends on their relationships with co-workers. In any work environment, there are many different people with different personalities. However, in work environments in which a person has become racially isolated, there are some preconceived notions to consider. In situations like these, the outlook on a person’s interracial and intra-racial interactions must be examined. Historically, interracial interactions were known as correspondence between Black and White Americans, but today it also refers to any situation
in which dialogue occurs, and the parties involved differ in their race. Moreover, interactions existing between members of the same race are intra-racial (Ayman, 1993; Cox, 1993).

A trip to any workplace produces an environment with numerous races all intermingling together. As different people from different ethnic groups are interacting, the potential for increased inter-group conflict is heightened. Bell (2002) claims that inter-group conflict comes from the fact that each racial group has their personality image. Typically, the overall personality that characterizes a group is also strongly tied to the individuals who are a part of that group. In other words, there are common character traits tied to Blacks, Whites, Hispanics, and so on. Whites better identify with others who share their common personality traits, as does Blacks, Hispanics, and other ethnicities. As a result, many clashes that occur in the workplace are simply displays related to personality because of group identity conflicts (Ayman, 1993; Bell, 2002; Cox, 1993).

Cognizance of racial conflict is not the determining factor for workplace perception; instead, one will perceive their race related workplace experiences based on their ability to handle that conflict. Favorable work experiences are reported by people who know how to work beyond the issue of race. Madsen (2002) confirmed this when he summed up great race interactions as situations in which someone of a specific race acknowledges the presence of group to group conflict, but are still able to form functional friendships, partnerships, and relationships with members of other races. When a person can come into the workplace with those functional dealings, it provides them a confirmation that cohesive dialogue can exist and will allow them to limit their own negativity and have a more enjoyable work experience.

Equally influential to the perception of work experiences is intra-racial interactions. Cosier (1981) was one of the earliest researchers to explore the conflict that exists intra-racially.
Contrary to what many think, Cosier explained that negative relations with one’s race are quite possible. In other words, people often come into the workplace bitter, battered, and scorn from some conflict that existed between members of their very own race. Cosier (1981) continued to say that excessive conflict with members of one’s race creates apprehension and distrust when working with co-workers of both the same and different race. There is the notion that “I certainly can’t trust the others if I can’t trust my own”.

Today, most intra-racial conflict is inspired by social class differences within races. Social class differences tend to connect to education and income levels (Welch & Combs, 1985). But Cox (1993), expressed that historically, the intra-race conflict existed for some different reasons. For example, in the Black2 community, past conflict was because of the different mindsets of Black Northerners vs. Black Southerners. There was also conflict because of the struggle of being light-skinned or dark-skinned. Although those issues are not quite as prevalent today, they still have a negative influence on the Black race. Black Northerners still consider themselves more elite, educated and cultured and often refer to Black Southerners as ignorant or country. Light-complexioned Blacks perceived as beautiful and good looking where dark-complexioned Blacks are perceived to be less attractive. As destructive as those issues can be, their occasional re-emergence is nowhere near as damning as the intra-racial clash over social status.

When social class separation exists within a race, it causes a divide to the cohesiveness of that race. That lack of cohesiveness comes from the power given to the socially elite. It creates subgroups within races. For example, the Black race may consist of the economically affluent ‘haves’ and the economically challenged ‘have-nots’ (Hwang, Fitzpatrick, & Helms, 1998). Often in the workplace, the ‘haves’ feel seniority to ‘have-nots’ and vice versa. Those who aren’t
able to look past social status and interact peacefully with members of their race are guaranteed
to experience major issues in the workplace. Often when employees are in the minority, if they
are accompanied by members of their same race, but of different social statuses, they still don’t
feel any more comfortable than if they were a complete singleton. Therefore, it won’t be until
they reach a place where they can connect with “their own kind”, despite their social status, that
they will feel truly confident enough to connect and work well with others. Therefore unhealthy
understanding or acceptance of inter and intra-racial conflict will continue to limit the
recruitment and retention efforts of Black teachers into our nation’s schools (Cox, 1993; Hwang,

Mentoring. Prior research suggested that for many people, they feel more content and
satisfied in their workplace if they feel they are successfully serving the needs of people. Stanley
(2007) took a deeper look and expressed that this held particularly true for Blacks. Having come
from a thriving historical background, many Black people who have earned a certain job or level
of education feel there’s a responsibility to become role models and mentor to those who will
follow in their footsteps. According to Patitu and Hinton (2003), that holds particularly true for
Black teachers. They said Black teachers share common experiences and responsibilities
concerning race, isolation and under-representation of Black students. Moreover, particularly in
predominantly White schools, Black students must feel comfortable and ‘allowed’ to intervene
and address needs for their Black students. That mentoring really can add to their contentment.
When they don’t feel they can provide that mentorship piece, feelings of resentment can easily
arise. The more they resent their job, the greater their desire to find work elsewhere.

The other part of mentoring is that those who mentor are equally interested in being
mentored. Again, this holds even truer for Black people. Many Black people feel they are already
at a disadvantage in that they work in environments where few of their co-workers are racially connected to them. They generally prefer to have someone there who understands their struggles and can shine some light and offer an encouraging word to embolden their situation. Dey and Thompson (1998) concurred that Black employees often feel isolated, lack information about tenure and promotion, and find themselves unsupported. Black teachers who don’t have other Black teachers to provide the mentorship they so desperately desire, often ends up going into other fields where Black mentors are more readily available.

**Advancement Opportunities.** For many people, seeking a job or going into a specific career is contingent upon the opportunities to be promoted or advanced with salary, positions, and accolades. The literature suggests that this is even truer for African Americans. In fact, MacMillan (1999) explained that Black people who achieve a certain level of education are doing so expecting certain salaries, opportunities, or positions. Although that is also true of educated White people, they are still more willing to work a job for reasons related to their passion or personal fulfillment.

As aforementioned, it is very important to Black people that they feel they are working in an atmosphere in which they can progress to a higher position. In many employment environments, Black people feel that their opportunity to advance is foreshadowed by their significance to the organization. Programs such as Affirmative Action have created a need for employers to carry a certain amount of diversity. Because of that, some Black people feel they assume roles at their jobs in which they are more of a representative and less of a potential leader. Situations such as these are examples of ‘tokenism’. Sax (1996) explained that tokenism exists when a person or a small number of persons are recruited from an underrepresented group solely for the sake of giving the appearance of racial and sexual equality.
When a Black person in a professional environment is a ‘token’, it is very hard for them to prove their validity in the workplace. Moreover, it is even harder for them to receive the attention they would need to receive a promotion or advancement. They often notice times in which their counterparts knowingly undermine and underestimate them. As a result, they find it necessary to go into alienation, feel role entrapment, and have general reservations about even pursuing promotions.

These same issues are present in school settings. Black teachers who are isolated or are singletons within their schools, often feel like ‘tokens’. They report numerous cases in which they feel limited to their teaching position without ever seeing a potential promotion. Blair (2003) reported that even though Black teachers are likely to apply for accolades such as national certifications, they are less likely to win it, when comparing them to their Caucasian counterparts. After years of being pessimistic about their future as an educator, the possibility of them choosing another field becomes greater and greater.

**Critical Race Theory**

As previously mentioned, following the Civil Rights Movement (CRM), various academic theories about the institution of race emerged. One very significant one, which is underpinning this study, is a well-respected body of work known as Critical Race Theory (CRT). Critical race theory is a specific academic discipline that analyzes race and racism from a legal point of view. It provides a standard to examine society and culture. In doing so, it recognizes the strong presence of racism ingrained in American society (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). Tate (1997) explained the CRT as a way to examine the institutional racism that collectively rules as a dominating force throughout the nation. He said that our nation’s biggest racial issues were much less about racists and more about the patterns of racism that go unnoticed in many of our
organized institutions. CRT explains that the racism in institutions comes from the power structures produced by White supremacy and the White privilege. As those power structures continue to have dominion, the likelihood of colored people's marginalization will continue to grow. Examples of this marginalization are the underrepresentation of Black teachers in public schools. To combat situations such as these, critical assessment of the present day legal order must be taken from the minority point of view (Gordon, 1999). This study will attempt to provide that point of view within the context of public schools. That context could become instrumental in changing retention and recruitment of Black teachers by changing the relationship between race, racism, and power within public schools.

The emergence of Critical Race Theory. Following the abolition of slavery in the U.S., cases of racism and oppression were still very common throughout the nation. As racism continued to prevail, a series of activists, scholars, and abolitionists arose to challenge its presence. They emphasized that even after the law made provisions that attempted to outlaw racist acts, racism never disappeared; it just existed in different forms. Advocates arose and claimed that the organized racism once displayed against individual persons changed into an oppressive force against entire groups. Bell (1995) cited this oppressive force against groups as legal issues. He said that legal discourse asserts that our law is universally neutral and colorblind. However, Carbado and Mitum (2003) said that culture in workplaces seems to be a constant illustration of racial domination because it only shows acceptance and tolerance to people outside the White race if they nicely adhere to the requirements and cultural vision that’s associated with being employed by a predominantly White institution.

Within legal contexts, more and more racism against groups was recognized, and cognizance of the false picture painted by the law was better understood. That ‘false’ picture
describes everyone as equals who have the same access to wealth, power, and privileges (Alexis, 1999). However, the truth began to unveil causing many movements to arise with the goal of questioning the law. Of those, the most influential movements to address racism were the civil rights movement and critical legal studies. Moreover, the CRT is referred to as the academic discipline birthed in the 1980s that responded to racism-themed movements.

The Civil Rights Movement (CRM) was a series of worldwide political movements that challenged the equality presented under the law. The CRM peaked somewhere around the 1960s. Many abolitionists arose during this movement and organized nonviolent campaigns that displayed civil resistance. Although these movements did not fully achieve their goals, they did make large strides toward providing equal legal rights for groups that faced oppression. King (1992) reported that CRMs were associated with African American people, but with time they crossed over into providing protection under the law for the rights of all ethnic minorities, women, and gays.

Critical legal studies (CLS) is a movement that first originated in the late 1970s and early 1980s. CLS birthed numerous advocates who challenged the law as the neutral, value-free institution that it claimed to be. In fact, the primary goal of CLS was to overturn themes previously accepted in legal theory and practice. Some of those themes included: treating law as politics, protecting the interests of the powerful and wealthy over the demands of the poor and powerless, and restricting individuals to their community that limits their life choices (Kelman, 1987).

As movements such as the CRM and CLS rolled out, it made the questioning of the ‘unlawful’ seem more natural. The slow pace of racial reform became connected to issues addressed by movements. Scholars began outgrowths of even more movements in the hope of
producing larger gains. Finally, in 1989, those outgrowths marked the birth of Critical Race Theory (Delgado, 1995).

**The main ideas asserted by Critical Race Theory.** As aforementioned the Critical Race Theory contested Critical Legal Studies and the Civil Rights Movement while still drawing on the priorities and perspectives of them both. As a result, an assembly of theoretical elements was developed from the CRT. Delgado and Stefancic (2001) documented those elements as such and declared them as the main ideas that characterizing the CRT:

- A critique of liberalistic theory: Many of the methods proposed by liberalism are contradictory of the goals of CRT scholars. For example, in CRT, more aggressive approaches to social transformation are favored, and liberalism is more cautious with social transformation. Also, CRT favors a transformation that is conscious of one's race which is in contrast with liberalism's embrace of color blindness. Finally, CRT is more reliant on political organizing, yet liberalism is less reliant on political organizing and is more right-based.
- The use of storytelling to create vivid illuminations and explorations of existing racial oppression.
- Advocating new interpretations of civil rights law and progress because CRT scholars were making criticisms that many revisions based on civil rights scholarship and anti-discrimination laws were, in fact, more so about self-interest than about promoting equality and ending discrimination.
- The application of race-related writings from social science as insights into legal problems.
• The inclusion of the intersections theory which closely looks at the following demographics: race, sex, class, national origin, and sexual orientation. It then looks at how in combination, those demographics can play out in various settings.

• Essentialism of oppression. This was a philosophical term that attempted to look at broad groups or categories such as race or gender and reduce what they encounter into smaller sub-groups or categories. In other words, it’s suggestive that all oppressed groups suffer from similar oppressive forces; however, depending on the type of group they represent, the oppression can be more or less intense. For example, the oppression of women is different for White women versus Black women, or the oppression of racial minorities is different for Hispanics versus African-Americans.

• Termed as separatism, CRT also argues that individual groups should not be forced to mix their cultures and identities into a melting pot to conform to others, but should instead be able to practice autonomy with their own personal, cultural, ethnic, tribal, racial, governmental, religious, or gender-based group.

• Specific factors influence outcomes. The term for this is structural determinism. Another way to explain structural determinism is by acknowledging events or processes can be predicted or predetermined based on certain structural elements. An example of structural determinism in a discipline such as CRT is to look at a factor such as race to determine the possibility of success or education completion.

• The notion that minorities are at a disadvantage because they are not members of the most dominating race. That notion called “white privilege” refers to the showering of social advantages, benefits, and courtesies that come with being a White member of
society. An example: Unlike Black men, White men who publicly display anger or frustration, aren’t permanently coined with the reputation of “angry White man”.

- The presence of non-physical aggression existing in interactions between people from different races. Termed as racial microaggression, it includes small acts of racism consciously or unconsciously perpetrated. For example, a White man may grab his back pocket checking for his wallet when walking through a crowd of young Black men.

- Disputing the notion that empathy can reduce racism. CRT says that depending on the empathy of others to influence racism will always be ineffective because most people aren’t empathetic to the needs of other groups because they never intertwine themselves with other groups enough to witness their needs. As a result, CRT scholars birthed a phenomenon called the empathic fallacy.

Even as CRT emerged, and key ideas formed, specific people were credited with the development of those ideas. To connect the ideas to the contributors, the work of William Tate emerged. Tate (1997) reported that in the 1970s, many different lawyers, activists, and scholars began making evaluations of work proposed by the Civil Rights Movement (CRM) and by ethnic studies. They formed conferences to discuss the slow pace of racial reform. Meanwhile, also in the 1970s, schools of law began implementation of Critical Legal Studies (CLS). Scholars of CLS somewhat mirrored the thoughts of CRM on racial issues. In fact, Tate also explained that CLS scholars such as Patricia Williams, Kimberle’ Williams Crenshaw, and Mari Matsuda, applauded the CRM for its stance on race. However, they were critical of civil rights scholars’ sole commitment to being colorblind and limiting intentional discrimination. They felt that the movements needed to go beyond that and stress a broader focus.
Stefancic (2012) documented the history of the CRT. He said in the 1980s, the scholars of CRM and CLS couldn’t quite agree upon how to transform the relationship between law and racial power, new conversations developed. One specific scholar began to propose a project in which racial emancipation and anti-subordination would be possible. That scholar’s name was Derrick Bell. Bell attempted to make connections between both the CRM and CLS in a completely reformed movement. Bell pitched his thought to another gentleman named Alan Freeman. Together, Bell and Freeman pressed forward with an outgrowth movement. As they carried out the mission of recruiting other scholars to buy into the Critical Race Theory, they got one specific gentleman very inspired. The new scholar’s name was Richard Delgado. The three scholars together were determined to persevere and put CRT on the map as a respected movement.

The efforts of the founding scholars proved to be quite successful, because in 1989, after Bell, Freeman, and Delgado organized and held their first conference in Madison, WI, CRT begin to take its place as a respected movement (Hartlep, 2010). With time, more revisions provided clarity on the goals of the movement. Scholars such as Angela Harris came and defined CRT as a radical critique of the law. She joined other scholars such as Roy Brooks. Brooks (1994) defined CRT as “a collection of critical stances against the existing legal order from a race-based point of view” (p. 85).

The scholars who contributed to CRT were quite influential. So much so that by 2002, over 20 US law schools and at least three foreign law schools were offering coursework or classes centrally covering CRT (Hartlep, 2010). CRT soon crossed over and also became a hot topic in the field of education. Yosso (2005) contends that CRT is still very relevant today.
having been adopted to develop sub-disciplines such as the AsianCrit (Asian), FemCrit (Women), LatCrit (Latino), TribalCrit (American Indian), and WhiteCrit (White).

**Applications of Critical Race Theory to this study.** CRT at its core means to challenge the current state of racial acceptance and equality in the United States. It makes the argument that although individual violence and open displays of racism are a thing of the past, organized institutional racism against groups is alive and well. As a result, the scholars of CRT studied various disciplines to confirm the true presence of racism. Furthermore, amongst others, education has been identified as a field of interest.

Ladson-Billings (1998) suggested that even in a field as “nice” as education, there is a need for CRT. In fact, she also contends that educational reform is moving at a pace just as slow as racial reform. Therefore, just as society seems to be most promising for White people, the education system seems most beneficial to White students. As a result, disparities in education have been created. Those disparities became an issue worthy of CRT’s attention because of the weight and role that are held by education in society. Schooling is the preparation piece for people of the USA. For many ethnic groups, that preparation is never received in an education system they perceive as tainted. Ladson-Billings asserts that CRT declares citizenship and race as impacts of the state of education facilities, the perceived experiences of teachers, and the journey encountered by students.

CRT’s relevance for framing this present study is because this theory acknowledges the strong presence of racial oppression faced by the Black community when dealing with our nation’s system of education. Community oppression shows in the obvious disparities seen when comparing schools groomed in predominantly White neighborhoods compared to those groomed in predominantly Black neighborhoods. The literature attributes this to the disparities of
socioeconomic status that exists among various races. For example, in the United States, members of the White race are generally the more financially secure members of society. On the contrary, African Americans are more likely to endure financial troubles. Furthermore, Mayer and Jencks (1989) reported that schools in the U.S. receive funding based on the area’s property taxes. As a result, poor Black neighborhoods produce poorly funded schools, while wealthy White neighborhoods produce well-funded schools. Hanushek (1996) said more funding means, more resources, which means better performances, and higher quality.

Another reason CRT is relevant to this study is because it also asserts the existence of oppressive forces against certain teachers. In the literature I found that African-American teachers constantly report prejudicial treatment. Aforementioned, Blair (2003) discussed how African-American teachers are far more likely than their White counterparts to apply for National Board for Professional Teaching Standards certification, yet they are far less likely to receive the credential. He also discussed the assignment of African American teachers to some of the most intellectually and behaviorally challenged kids. He cited that there is this connotation that Black teachers thrive best with those students. Also, Agee (2004) described how challenging it is for African-American teachers to teach standards for state mandated tests. She said it can be a struggle for them to ignore the need for diverse presentations and stick to “White friendly” curriculums.

Finally, CRTs relevance to this study is that it asserts the existence of oppressive forces toward minority students. For example, there is still that over-representation of African-American students in Special Education. This stems from the fact that Black students are much more likely to be tested and classified for those services in comparison to White students (Chinn & Hughes, 1987). Also, Bergin and Cooks (2002) claim that White students are generally apt to
receive more academic support, encouragement, and recommendation into challenging classes while Black students are more often victims of low expectations and are also much less likely to be recommended for Honors or AP level classes. Truthfully, the greatest expectations that are set for black students seems to be when athletics are involved (Ensminger & Slusarcick, 1992). Gordon (2005) reported that Black students commonly go through their K-12 school career without the needed guidance and mentoring. He explained that in the absence of Black teachers, White teachers seldom connect well enough with their Black students to motivate them to be academically strong or participants in academically related extracurricular activities (such as scholastic clubs, yearbook staffs, debate teams, student councils, safety patrols, and so forth). He did however state that when special interest is taken into Black students, it is often because of a strong athletic ability. Great Black student athletes sometimes forego graduation requirements that can become restrictive for non-athletic Black students. That allows them success despite the aforementioned graduation rates in which Black students carry rates significantly lower than for White students (Dunn, Chambers, & Rabren, 2004).

The literature shows that application of CRT to this education issue is essential. The use of CRT identified the oppression seen in Black school institutions when they are compared to flourishing White school institutions. The use of CRT also identified some of the levels of oppression to which Black teachers working in a predominantly White society are susceptible. Finally, the use of CRT identified instances of oppression that limits the success of Black students while accenting the high achievements of White students. Potentially, the application of CRT in this study will help me to analyze and interpret the collected data from survey respondents—a selected pool of African American teachers working in predominantly White schools.
Summary

This chapter provided an in-depth review of the literature related to African-Americans who teach in K-12 schools. The literature indicates that there’s a historical background of racism and oppression geared toward people of color. As a result, an uneven distribution of money and power has been created. The literature also indicates that education is the key to gaining success, overcoming past hardships, and establishing a respected reputation. In other words, strong correlations exist between a person’s educational experiences and what they do with their life. The literature also indicates numerous disparities among Black people who have never had a positive or effective school experience. Positive school experiences are necessary for the advancement of Black people in the U.S. Considering the impact that Black teachers make on Black students; this study focuses only on African American teachers. In the historical context, we learn that African American teachers have always been high in demand but short in supply (Gordon, 2005). While the literature indicated that Black teachers may struggle to teach test-driven standards developed and embraced primarily by White members of the society, it also suggested some of their biggest struggles were brought on by a lack of receptivity to Black teachers’ spirituality, culture deficits, the state of their inter or intra relationships, inadequate chances to mentor/mentee, and insufficient opportunities to advance (Fairclough, 2004).

The literature explained that the factors above may have been insightful in understanding the workplace experiences of Black teachers. It acknowledged the fact that a school’s demographics does not negate the need to adhere to predominantly White legislation in a predominantly White society. For those reasons, my hope, as the researcher of this study, is that we will gain understanding from African American teachers who teach in predominantly White schools. Kelly (2007) claims that with an understanding such as that comes the ability to assist
with retention and recruitment of African American teachers and be able to describe how a Black teacher can progress and be successful while yet honoring and preserving their individual culture.

The final portion of this chapter addressed the Critical Race Theory. This theory was used to frame and underpin this study as it attempts to explore and more fully understand the issues of African American teachers in predominantly White schools. Its appropriateness comes from the fact that it challenges the equality and justice of institutions as a whole. CRT allows this research to place true focus onto the experiences and interpretations of African American teachers whose encounter with the dominant culture is illuminated.

In the next chapter, there is a rationale for the methods chosen as well as details surrounding those methods. Additionally, is an explanation of the plan used for collecting and analyzing the data needed to explore this study’s key questions.
Chapter 3

Methodology

This chapter details how this study was conducted. This exploratory research study addressed the following primary research question (RQ1): What are the perceptions of Black teachers regarding their satisfaction with their work experiences in predominantly White K-12 schools? And sub-question (RQ1a): How do those work experiences impact Black teachers’ decision to continue teaching, be promoted from teaching, or recommend a career in teaching to other Black people?

The purpose of the study was to explore Black teachers’ perceptions of their work experiences and how they relate to their job satisfaction in predominantly White schools. In turn, that information is used to provide insight to improve the recruitment and retention process for Black teachers. There is one major research question in this study: *What are the perceptions of Black teachers regarding their satisfaction with their work experiences in predominantly White K-12 schools?* In the coming sections of this chapter, the methods that were used by the researcher to answer that question will be thoroughly discussed. Moreover, this chapter provides details for the following: the research design, the data collection method, the selection of the site, selection of participants, the procedure for collecting data, the procedure for analyzing data, a discussion of informed consent, and a section on the researcher’s assurances of warrant, transparency, and ethical considerations. The chapter concludes by addressing the limitations of this study and then by providing a summary of this chapter.

Design

In this study, the aim was to seek, understand, and present an evaluation of what Black teachers have previously voiced concerning being Black and working in a predominantly White
schools. Based on that aim, a quantitative research approach was chosen in an attempt to validate or negate the themes present in the extant literature on Black people’s experiences in this country, and most particularly, Black teachers’ work experiences in predominantly White schools. Based on that aim, a quantitative research approach was chosen in an attempt to validate or negate the themes present in the extant literature on Black people’s experiences in this country, and most particularly, Black teachers’ work experiences in predominantly White schools. Quantitative research becomes fundamental to this study because of the way in which this study’s designed. The exploratory nature of this study lends itself to a non-experimental design that analyzes the data with a regression model. As a study framed by the Critical Race Theory (CRT) which explores the impact of society on various cultures, it is imperative to identify impact variables. According to Campbell and Stanley (1963), the use of quantitative research to create a study which can be analyzed with a regression model is ideal for studies that are multivariate and do not involve any manipulations of the data. While using regression in this study, the goal was to examine the variation of two or more variables in a search for some sort of causal relation. In other words, I suggested that the perceptions Black teachers have about their experiences were predictors of their level of job satisfaction and ultimately the retention rates of Black people in teaching positions. In this case, the variables to consider were dependent and independent. The variables are defined and discussed in the subsequent section. As previously stated scant research regarding this topic was found. Because the researcher found no similar studies, the decision was made to use a regression design. Campbell and Stanley (1963) stated that regression studies are often conducted as exploratory or beginning research when prior research is not readily available.
Data Collection Tool: Survey Instrument

The instrument for collecting data was a survey developed by the researcher and titled *Perceptions Survey* (See Appendix A). Because there is such scant research (particularly quantitative) about Black teachers working solely in predominantly White schools, no survey instrument that was previously developed and validated was found. As a result, the researcher created the survey instrument to collect data that would respond best to the study’s research questions. An overarching question is: *What are the perceptions of Black teachers regarding their decision to teach and satisfaction with their work experiences at predominantly White K-12 schools?* From that question, the researcher identified one dependent and six independent variables. Using a non-experimental design and regression analysis, the researcher attempted to identify a causal relation between the two. Any relation found was based on the researcher analyzing participants’ responses to the Perceptions Survey. On the survey, the dependent or criterion variable was the Black teacher’s *satisfaction with their work experiences*. The independent or predictor variables were: *spirituality, cultural acceptance, interracial relationships, intra-racial relationships, mentoring, and advancement opportunities*. An explanation of how the researcher chose those variables comes in the subsequent section.

**Developing the Instrument.** In developing the survey instrument, the first thing that the researcher did was determine the appropriate variables to test. The aim of the research was to find out how Black teachers working in predominantly White schools describe their job satisfaction as it relates to perceptions of their work experiences, in hopes of suggesting more effective methods to recruit and retain Black teachers. That aim clearly identified the dependent variable as *Black teachers’ satisfaction with their work experiences*. Furthermore, the researcher used the Critical Race Theory (CRT), which is the theory that undergirds this study, to peruse
literature that would indicate relevant independent variables. Using the CRT’s examination of society, it was easily discovered that the culture associated with Black people was signature to them and quite different to White people. Moreover, as stated in Chapter 2, some things that are considered common and important regarding the work experiences of Black people was also different from those of White people. According to Baldwin (1972), many Black people’s levels of job satisfaction has some relationship to being: *spiritually free, culturally accepted, comfortable with their interracial and intra-racial relationships, able to mentor or be mentored, and given the opportunity to advance.* Based on the CRT’s interpretation of institutional racism, not only will members of the Black race feel deprived or unsupported in the workplace when the needs above are not met, but they are also going to feel completely unsatisfied which could easily contribute to their need to leave their workplace and field. Based on this well-known body of research, the variables named above were selected to be the independent variables which the literature identifies as some factors on which Black teacher satisfaction is dependent. These variables are the factors used as the organizing core for the development of the items on the Perceptions Survey. In creating the Perceptions Survey, the researcher first assembled a document that shows what was used to develop the items on the instrument, and how the items included in the survey correspond to the theory base taken from the literature review. The researcher named the document *Perceptions of Black Teacher Work Experiences Scale* (PBTWES) (See Appendix B). That information was used as the basis of the survey instrument along with other items using the following format: A total of three introductory demographic items asking gender, race, and age, followed by thirty items related to satisfaction variables (as explained on the PBTWES) which will be rated on a 7-point Likert scale. Those 30 items will be referred to as work experience items. The final section consists of four questions (also rated on a
Likert scale) to indicate both the survey participants’ levels of satisfaction and their intentions to pursue further or recommend a career in education. Those items were called satisfaction items. The Likert-type scale was on a continuum from 1 - strongly disagree to 7 - strongly agree. In total, the Perceptions Survey consists of 37 items to which participants were asked to respond.

It is vital that the researcher define the independent variables above and explain how they correspond to Black teacher satisfaction. Cultural and spiritual acceptance (i.e., feeling that individual beliefs and customs, or religious practices are being received) were selected because of the weight they carry within the Black community (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Inter and Intra-racial relations (i.e., the state of our dealings with members of opposite or the same races) were chosen because they test how much of an impact race and race relations have on someone’s perception of their experiences. This is particularly important in a study that attempts to analyze the satisfaction of Black teachers working with predominantly White cohorts. Finally, mentoring and advancement opportunities (i.e., being able to advise, train, or be trained and being provided with the chance to move into higher positions) are both measured as indicators of Black teacher satisfaction since Dey and Thompson (1998) indicated that they can determine whether or not they an employee feels supported, like a token, or like a respected employee with a prosperous future. All these variables were tested by work experiences items.

Each of the above variables is highly relevant to the central research question as well as the sub-questions. However, it is the final section of the Perceptions Survey (containing the four satisfaction items), which is also on a Likert scale, which specifically addresses the researcher’s sub-question. This is because the nature of the sub-question directly relates to the Black teachers’ desire to continue in the same career path. The validity and reliability of scores on the instrument was established through an extensive evaluation process using the quantitative evaluation tool,
Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18. More specifically, the SPSS was used for factor analysis.

**Piloting the Instrument.** To be sure that the survey instrument that was developed by the researcher had items that were clear, sensible, and time effective, a piloting of the instrument was completed. The researcher chose five Black teachers ranging in ages from 32-58. These teachers were of the following genders: 4 females and 1 male. Each teacher was asked to take the survey and asked to respond to every item. They were instructed to request clarity for any item they found unclear. The researcher timed the various teacher respondents as they completed the survey. No single respondent exceeded six minutes to complete the survey. As each respondent completed the survey, the researcher questioned them to see if they understood the theme of the survey. The overall consensus was that the survey’s theme was clear. The researcher also asked each respondent to interpret what they felt each item was asking. Respondents required the most clarification and lacked a clear understanding of items 17, 18, 22, and 26. For example, some respondents made claims of being unable to determine what was being asked or in what context. Using the feedback from the pilot respondents, the researcher amended those items.

**Site Selection**

Bogdan & Biklen (2003) said to avoid biases, an intentional and explicit process should be used for site selection. In this study, the researcher’s plan was to do just that. In a study such as this one, it was critical that the researcher chose a site where there was a sample of participants who were accessible and highly relevant to the proposed research topic and key questions.

In line with the research question, relevant sites were initially chosen to be schools in which the students and teachers are predominantly White. Predominantly White Schools had
commonly been defined as schools in which more than 50% of the student and teacher population is White. The researcher’s goal was to select those schools from a single school district in the North Florida area. North Florida seemed ideal because of its proximity to the researcher as well as its shaky racial past, having just begun integration of schools in 1959 (Tomberlin, 1974). The researcher did propose one set school district and was pursuing approval to submit the survey to their Black teachers working in predominantly White schools. However, the sought-out school district refused to grant the researcher access to survey their Black teachers. Obviously faced with a challenge, the researcher chose a similar school district also within the North end of the state of Florida. Once again the researcher was denied the right to survey the district’s Black teachers. Although the researcher could not say with certainty, he believed that the topic was perceived to be too controversial to for a school district to approve the distribution of his survey.

After two failed attempts to gain approval from school districts, the researcher sought out other options. Through the urging of a colleague, the researcher joined a social media group with a membership composed only of Black educators. The researcher used the social media groups to solicit the email addresses of Black teachers within the group who worked in predominantly White schools. At that point, the social media group became the researcher’s selected research site.

**Participant Selection**

K-12 teachers who identified themselves as African American were used for this study. These teachers came from a Black educator group on social media. The group reported a membership of over 130,000 Black educators with levels ranging from elementary to collegiate. Upon joining the group, the researcher explained that he was working on a research topic that
required Black teachers working in predominantly White K-12 schools. The researcher also asked if anyone would consider participating. Those who would consider it was asked to provide their personal non-work related email address. The researcher received a total of 118 email addresses of people who fit the criteria and expressed interest. The 118 Black teachers who volunteered their email addresses were now considered potential study participants.

**Data Collection Procedure**

Data came from the participants who voluntarily gave their email addresses, during a chosen 5 week period during the year 2015. The survey was administered to all 118 self-professed Black teachers in predominantly White schools via their personal email, using Qualtrics. The researcher sent follow-up e-mails to those who did not respond within 1 week. At the end of the 5 week period, 56 survey responses were collected, and 51 of them were completed in full which made them eligible to be analyzed.

**Data Analysis**

The data analysis included examining demographic data, conducting a reliability analysis (factor), running bivariate correlations, and regressions for independent and dependent variables. All statistical analyses were performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 18 (SPSS). Based on Thompson (1984) the researcher used factor analysis as a data reduction technique, and Multiple Linear Regression to examine if work experiences related to job satisfaction.

**Informed Consent and Institutional Review Board Approval**

In this study, no participants were asked to sign an informed consent statement at the end of their survey. Before participants received the survey by email, the researcher obtained approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB). Once IRB received this study at the
University of North Florida, they assigned it a particular IRB status. This study was exempt status because of the level of anonymity provided by the researcher. Additionally, using the Qualtrics system and refusing to record names (only email addresses) added to anonymity. Therefore, the researcher was excused from getting additional approvals, confidentiality, or informed consent agreements. The researcher’s obtained IRB approval from the University of North Florida comes later in this dissertation. (See Appendix C).

**Ethics, Warrant, and Transparency**

According to Marshall and Rossman (1999), it is important that in any study, ethics is maintained by having all participants legally consent to be a participant and that the researcher provides as much anonymity as possible. As previously stated, no names were ever taken. The only communication was to record email addresses and then use an anonymous option to send surveys directly to those email addresses through Qualtrics. Additionally, although the researcher did not collect names, all of the survey responses were still kept confidential. Anonymity and confidentiality help ensure that people feel comfortable enough to share the feelings of their true self. Furthermore, the only data presented were aggregated.

After the completion of all of the surveys, they were then analyzed. Then the researcher looked back at the claim that Black teacher satisfaction is dependent upon specific factors that are considered a high priority for Black teachers. The researcher found that grouping initial variables together into meaningful components were greater indicating predictors of job satisfaction. The researcher then began warranting his claims using these said components identified from the analysis. To warrant the claim means that the researcher tried to explain how and why the data analyzed from survey responses acted as evidence and support to initial claims. In the process, the researcher attempted to remain transparent to provide the research with more
credibility. Transparency came from the fact that charts, data tables, SPSS figures, were all included to show that the researcher was withholding nothing. That inclusion should help reduce doubt, increase openness, and prompt a better understanding and interpretation of data.

**Limitations of the Study**

In this study, the methods of choice created a few limitations. The researcher found that predominantly White school districts do not want to invite their Black teachers readily to take a survey that they perceive as controversial. As a result, the researcher had to use a social media group. Even within that group, another limitation was that the researcher had limited access to Black teachers who teach in predominantly White schools. Therefore, the sample size was smaller than anticipated.

**Summary**

The research design employed was correlational and multivariate. The independent variables identified from the literature, and prior research were the following factors: *cultural acceptance, spirituality, inter and intra-racial relations, mentoring, and advancement opportunities*. Those factors are representations of work experiences. The dependent variable was *Black teachers’ satisfaction with their work in predominantly White schools*, as measured by the subscales of the Perceptions Survey (See the subscales and how they were derived in Appendix B). The survey’s sub-scaled items, together with demographic and other informational items, formed the content of the survey instrument. The Perceptions Survey served as the research instrument used for data collection.

Data were collected in October 2015 from Black teachers teaching in predominantly White schools. Approval for this study was obtained from the Institutional Review Board at the University of North Florida before data collection. Data analysis consisted of examining
demographic data and reporting trends based on percentages and/or averages, running bivariate correlations for independent and dependent variables, and conducting a factor analysis using SPSS.

In Chapter 4, the results of the data analyses are presented. The findings were then applied to testing the research hypotheses and were used to answer the primary research questions.
Chapter 4

Results and Discussion

As stated in Chapter 1, the present study examined the perceptions of Black teachers regarding their satisfaction with their work experiences in predominantly White K-12 schools (RQ1). It also examined how do those work experiences impact a Black teachers’ decision to continue teaching, be promoted from teaching, or recommend a career in teaching to other Black people (RQ1a)?

To answer the question(s), data were collected using a survey (Perceptions Survey) and then analyzed. First, was an examination of the demographic data. Next was the compiling of descriptive statistics from the survey instrument responses. Then, the survey items were categorized into subsets based on their association with the theoretical factors. The first subset had 30 items related to the theoretical factors that were identified from the literature to be indicators of perceived work experiences. The second subset was composed of four items related to the perception of job satisfaction. Therefore, subset one had items that were related to work experiences and were predictors (independent variables) for subset two which described job satisfaction (dependent variables). Data received from the work experiences were intended to answer this study’s RQ1. Data received on the job satisfaction were intended to answer this study’s RQ1a. Other statistical testing included: a factor analysis to legitimize the chosen independent variables as representatives of work experiences, bivariate correlations to confirm the proposed relation between work experiences and job satisfaction, and a regression analysis to determine how significant the relation may be.
Demographic Data Analysis

Demographic data from participants provided a means to understand better what type of representation was covered by this participant pool. It is important to know that a sample represents a diverse enough population if one's attempting to generalize the results of their data analysis. Among the 56 total survey responses, 18% were male (n = 10) and 82% (n = 46) were female. Because members of a Black teacher social media group completed the survey and this research was conducted to examine the perspectives of Black teachers, the assumption was that 100% of participants would identify as Black or African American. In actuality, 98.2% (n = 55) identified as Black or African American, 1.8% (n = 1), identified as other, meaning they were some combination of Black or African American, with other contributing races. Ages of the participants ranged from 26 to 62, with a mean of 38.0 (SD = 6.79).

Descriptive Statistics: Data Analysis

On the Perceptions Survey, there were a total of 34 items measured on a seven-point Likert-type rating scale. As previously mentioned, those items were categorized into two subsets based on their relevance to research questions and which variable they would test. The first subset included 30 items while the second subset included four items (for a total of 34 items unrelated to demographics). In that both item sets were on the seven-point Likert-type scale, all 34 questions had a theoretical minimum of one and a maximum of seven. In the first subset of items that described perceptions of work experiences, the scoring ranged from 30 to 210, with a midpoint of 120. The mean and standard deviation of each of these items appear in Table 1. Those work experience items directly answered RQ1. Respondents scoring high on the work experience items had less favorable perceptions of their work experiences. In the second subset of items that described job satisfaction, the scores ranged from 4 to 28 with a midpoint of 16.
The mean and standard deviation of these items appear in Table 2. Job satisfaction items answered RQ1a. The wording of the job satisfaction items gave rise to the use of reverse scoring. Using reverse scoring, the higher scores indicated greater level of job dissatisfaction among participants.

**Descriptive statistics for work experience items.** As previously noted, the researcher developed a *Perceptions of Black Teacher Work Experiences Scale* (PBTWES) from which the *Perceptions Survey* came. On the PBTWES, five survey items were created based on each of the six factors identified in the literature (*spirituality, cultural acceptance, interracial relationships, intra-racial relationships, mentoring, and advancement opportunities*). In total, those 30 items became a specific subset of the survey that was the independent variable and intended to provide an answer to RQ1. Although the theoretical minimum was 30 and the theoretical maximum was 210, this sample ranged from 38 to 210, with a mean of 128.60 and a standard deviation of 51.40. Each question is listed by its numerical position in Appendix A for clarity. Also, it was noted that some of the strongest mean responses were on questions 17, 18, and 21. Based on the verbiage of those items, there was a collective agreement that Black teachers value their culture, religion, and building rapports with Black students respectively. It was also a noted that some of the items scoring the weakest means were 6, 22, and 24. Based on the verbiage of those items, there was a collective agreement that Black teachers have no problem coping with a predominantly White environment and that although they do value their religion, they don’t feel they are alone with it, nor do they feel prohibited from practicing it in their workplace. Descriptive statistics for each of the items appear in Table 1.
Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Work Experiences items 1-30

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<td>1.629</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_11</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>2.105</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_12</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>1.973</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_13</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>1.798</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_14</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>2.318</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_15</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>1.040</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_16</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.712</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_17</td>
<td>6.29</td>
<td>0.923</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_18</td>
<td>6.29</td>
<td>1.026</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_19</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>2.203</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_20</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td>1.954</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_21</td>
<td>6.12</td>
<td>1.032</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_22</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>1.390</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_23</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>1.981</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_24</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>1.632</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_25</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>1.585</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_26</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>1.509</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_27</td>
<td>5.69</td>
<td>1.225</td>
<td>51</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q_28</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>1.621</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_29</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>1.755</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_30</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>1.931</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Descriptive statistics for job satisfaction items.** After the initial 30 items had come from the PBTWES, the researcher created four more items that would provide a method of measuring the dependent variable (job satisfaction) and ultimately answering RQ1a. For this subset in the Perceptions survey, the theoretical minimum was 4 and the theoretical maximum...
was 28. The values from the sample spanned through that entire range and had a mean of 11.95 and a standard deviation of 8.01. Each item appears in Appendix A for clarity. Also, it was noted that the strongest mean response of 3.38 was on item 2. That means that almost 50% of the sample agreed that they would not choose education as their career again. The weakest mean response of 2.40 was to the notion that the Black educators weren’t interested in seeking promotions. Descriptive statistics for each of the items appear in Table 2.

Table 2

*Descriptive Statistics for Job Satisfaction Questions 1-4*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q_1</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>2.104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_2</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>2.215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_3</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q_4</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>1.874</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Factor Analysis: Job Satisfaction**

As the initial goal of this research was to identify how Black teacher perceptions of their work experiences impact their level of job satisfaction in predominantly White schools, it was most important to conduct an analysis to examine the survey items that specifically dealt with job satisfaction. As previously indicated, the final survey items included four specific items related to satisfaction. Upon running a factor analysis, the researcher was able to identify a single component with a loading of 53%. That value represents a component covering well over half of the data variance. In other words, it indicates that one factor is adequate in capturing much of the variability across these four items. The researcher defined and referred to that component as *job satisfaction*. Complete data relevant to the factor analysis appear in Table 3.
Table 3

*Factor Analysis for the Total Variance Explained for Satisfaction Questions 1-4*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Initial Eigenvalues</th>
<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% of Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.136</td>
<td>53.394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.860</td>
<td>21.505</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.610</td>
<td>15.252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.394</td>
<td>9.849</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Factor Analysis: Work Experiences**

After running a factor analysis on the job satisfaction questions, the researcher went back and ran the same on the 30 items that were created to identify the perception of work experiences. Upon running the analysis, the researcher found that three components explained 42.30% of the total variance. Unlike job satisfaction, which appeared to be a unitary construct, work experiences seemed to be better explained using the three mentioned components. The researcher decided to identify what those components represented because the numbers from the components were significant enough to use as the basis for further analysis. Table 4 presents the salient data from the factor analysis of work experience items.
Table 4

Total Variances Explained for Work Experiences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Initial Eigenvalues</th>
<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% of Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.959</td>
<td>9.865</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.588</td>
<td>8.627</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.899</td>
<td>6.330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.762</td>
<td>5.874</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.588</td>
<td>5.293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.366</td>
<td>4.553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.164</td>
<td>3.882</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.107</td>
<td>3.688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.962</td>
<td>3.206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.906</td>
<td>3.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.868</td>
<td>2.893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.725</td>
<td>2.417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.661</td>
<td>2.205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.604</td>
<td>2.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.569</td>
<td>1.897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.445</td>
<td>1.483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>0.438</td>
<td>1.461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.424</td>
<td>1.412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.306</td>
<td>1.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>0.268</td>
<td>0.893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>0.245</td>
<td>0.816</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>0.219</td>
<td>0.731</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.179</td>
<td>0.598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>0.164</td>
<td>0.545</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After deciding that the first three components had variances large enough that collectively they should be used for further analysis, the researcher went back to the PBTWES document and identified which items produced which values. The researcher searched to find which of the 30 work experiences items scored the greatest (positively or negatively) for each of the three components. The goal was to identify enough positive or negative commonalities from
related items within each component to give each component a meaningful name. See all the component data listed in the component matrix presented in Table 5.

Table 5

*Work Experiences Component Matrix*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q5_1</td>
<td>0.580</td>
<td>0.415</td>
<td>-0.399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_2</td>
<td>0.462</td>
<td>0.254</td>
<td>-0.135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_3</td>
<td>0.465</td>
<td>-0.065</td>
<td>0.060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_4</td>
<td>0.345</td>
<td>-0.501</td>
<td>0.493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_5</td>
<td>0.656</td>
<td>0.209</td>
<td>0.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_6</td>
<td>0.579</td>
<td>-0.392</td>
<td>-0.205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_7</td>
<td>0.349</td>
<td>0.403</td>
<td>-0.423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_8</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>0.063</td>
<td>0.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_9</td>
<td>0.497</td>
<td>-0.439</td>
<td>0.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_10</td>
<td>0.726</td>
<td>-0.127</td>
<td>0.102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_11</td>
<td>0.762</td>
<td>-0.207</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_12</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>-0.468</td>
<td>0.060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_13</td>
<td>0.725</td>
<td>0.385</td>
<td>-0.132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_14</td>
<td>0.382</td>
<td>-0.030</td>
<td>-0.237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_15</td>
<td>-0.143</td>
<td>0.401</td>
<td>0.419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_16</td>
<td>0.688</td>
<td>-0.257</td>
<td>0.139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_17</td>
<td>0.401</td>
<td>0.232</td>
<td>0.460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_18</td>
<td>0.318</td>
<td>0.340</td>
<td>0.209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_19</td>
<td>0.556</td>
<td>0.362</td>
<td>-0.277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_20</td>
<td>-0.0191</td>
<td>-0.029</td>
<td>0.341</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_21</td>
<td>0.201</td>
<td>0.524</td>
<td>0.487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_22</td>
<td>0.337</td>
<td>-0.390</td>
<td>-0.233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_23</td>
<td>0.570</td>
<td>0.112</td>
<td>-0.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_24</td>
<td>0.277</td>
<td>-0.451</td>
<td>0.395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_25</td>
<td>0.371</td>
<td>0.252</td>
<td>0.418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_26</td>
<td>0.179</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>0.365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_27</td>
<td>0.041</td>
<td>0.367</td>
<td>0.600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_28</td>
<td>0.661</td>
<td>-0.162</td>
<td>-0.091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_29</td>
<td>0.718</td>
<td>0.249</td>
<td>-0.091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5_30</td>
<td>0.643</td>
<td>-0.149</td>
<td>0.097</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Items that loaded on the first factor addressed feelings of oppression. Thus, component one was labeled feeling *oppressed (FO)*. Examples of a few of those items that scored
significantly highly were: “I feel pressured to tone down my cultural characteristics”, and “I feel my race plays a role in my promotion potential”. The next component was number two. After using the same method of examining the items to see what kind of positive and negative values arose, the researcher realized that strongly related items in this component were all geared towards one’s thought process, feelings, and mental perceptions. Knowing that perceptions can change based on the how positive or negative an individual mindset can be, the researcher called component two, positive mindset (PM). Some examples of a few of those items that significantly scored, are: “Even if I apply, I don’t feel I will get a promotion”, or “I don’t feel like my superiors want to see me promoted”. Finally, for the third component, the same concept was used for identification purposes. Upon comparing the highest positive and negative scoring items in that component, a central theme of relationships was discovered. In other words, that component seemed to be correlated to survey items that described work experiences based on the presence or absence of supportive relationships both in and out of the workplace. Knowing that perceptions can change based on whether said relationships are supportive or not, the researcher called component three, supportive relationships (SR).

**Multiple Regression Analysis**

Based on the significant components identified from the work experiences data, the researcher used the factor scores from those components to test if job satisfaction could be explained by participants’ work experiences. The independent variables which the researcher initially named as the six factors that emerged from the literature (spirituality, cultural acceptance, interracial relationships, intra-racial relationships, mentoring, and advancement opportunities), were now being consolidated as three components that would allow more meaningful. The dependent variable was determined to be a single component (named job
satisfaction) that came from the (four) satisfaction items on the survey. A visual image of these relations appears in Figure 1.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 1.** Relation of independent and dependent variables.

The goal of the multiple regression analysis was to show that there would be a significant relation between the components which were determining work experiences and perceived job satisfaction. Before turning to the multiple regression analysis, bivariate correlations were examined.

**Bivariate correlation.** Upon reviewing the results of the bivariate correlation, the researcher found that not all three independent variable components had a significant relation to job satisfaction. In fact, the researcher learned that there was a strong significant relation only with feeling oppressed and job satisfaction. In other words, it is indeed suggestive that there is a significant relation between Black teachers feeling oppressed in regards to promotion potential, culture or religion, and job satisfaction. Table 6 presents intercorrelations of the components: oppression, relationships, and mindset to job satisfaction.
Table 6

*Bivariate Correlations for Independent and Dependent Variables*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>JS Score</th>
<th>FO Score</th>
<th>PM Score</th>
<th>SR Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS Score</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.252</td>
<td>-0.161</td>
<td>-0.206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FO Score</td>
<td>0.252</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-0.233</td>
<td>0.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM Score</td>
<td>-0.161</td>
<td>-0.233</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-0.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR Score</td>
<td>-0.206</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>-0.025</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (1-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS Score</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>0.131</td>
<td>0.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FO Score</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td>0.381</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM Score</td>
<td>0.131</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR Score</td>
<td>0.075</td>
<td>0.381</td>
<td>0.432</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS Score</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FO Score</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM Score</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR Score</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 6, it is noted that feeling oppressed (FO) had a significant relation to job satisfaction. The .25 correlation is statistically significant. The other two variables were not deemed to have a statistically significant relation to the dependent variable. One reason for the lack of significance could be the small sample size of only 56. Another reason could be an actual non-relation between these variables. Multiple regression was used to examine further this issue.

**Regression: Work Experience Components and Job Satisfaction.** A regression analysis was completed to validate further the significance of the work experiences in determining job satisfaction. Upon completing the regression, it was discovered that a significant percent of statistical variance was explained by three components (feeling oppressed, positive mindset, and supportive relationships). In other words, there was a set number for the variation in Black teacher job satisfaction that was explained by the work experience factors identified by the researcher. That set number, which is called R square, was .123. Therefore, the interpretation is
that 12.3% of job satisfaction levels of Black teachers (in this sample), can be explained by those components. Table 7 displays the model summary for the multiple regression.

Table 7

Regression: Predictors (a) of Job Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.350&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.123</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>0.95332728</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although the R-square value may not seem large, it is to be noted that interest should be in any value above 10% (Lomax, 2001). Therefore, an R-square value of 12.30% is considered large enough for this research to be of interest. Another part of the regression was to substantiate which of the work experience associated factors were deemed most significant. The analysis revealed that although R-square was large enough to be of interest, there was no individual component that was a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction at $\alpha < .05$ level.

Although none of the variables met that criteria, feeling oppressed approached significance in the model ($\alpha = .10$). The fact that it neared significance in regression paired with the fact that it was significant in the bivariate correlation suggests that further research using a larger sample size is warranted. See Table 8 for effect size and statistical significance values.

Table 8

Regression: Statistical Significance of Component Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>-0.040</td>
<td>0.135</td>
<td>-0.297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FO Score</td>
<td>0.231</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>0.235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PM Score</td>
<td>-0.112</td>
<td>0.142</td>
<td>-0.112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SR Score</td>
<td>-0.216</td>
<td>0.136</td>
<td>-0.219</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As the researcher considered that the R-square value was a value large enough to warrant interest, he also questioned the reasons that individual components lacked statistical significance. Of the three, the most statistically significant component in both correlation analysis and regression analysis was *feeling oppression*. Based on the lack of significance, the researcher made the following assumptions: significance levels were low because the sample size of 51 was not large enough. Also, it could be that *feeling oppressed* superseded or masked the significance of other components. For example, it is possible that *positive mindsets* and *supportive relationships* become irrelevant when Black teachers feel they are in an oppressive situation. A final assumption is that the last two variables simply are not good predictors of job satisfaction. Despite the reason, a more detailed discussion and recommendations for further research will be given in the following chapter.
Chapter 5

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

There is ample research on Black teachers that is available for perusal. The majority of that research has been qualitative in nature. To date, that research has been responsible for giving a voice to Black teachers and explaining what they perceive to be the greatest challenges they face while working in education. Using the voice of Black teachers, strides can be made to find out what they perceive as the greatest barrier to them having job satisfaction. Once identified, resolutions can be proposed to promote Black teacher job satisfaction. As the level of job satisfaction increases for Black teachers, the ability to recruit and retain Black teachers should also increase (Gordon, 2005; Gursky, 2002). However, it is important that the previously reported barriers be substantiated as true representatives of the Black teachers. The purpose of the present study was to do just that. It sought to identify the major challenges of Black teachers from prior research, Critical Race Theory (CRT), and the 1972 writings of Baldwin and then design a survey to verify their significances to job satisfaction. To do this, the researcher designed an instrument with items that described the perceptions of Black teachers regarding their satisfaction with their work experiences in predominantly White K-12 schools. The instrument’s design was meant to quantify the relations between Black teacher work experiences and job satisfaction that to date had only been qualitative.

In this final chapter, the employed methodology is reviewed. Next, the findings are summarized, discussed, and related to past research, as well as to the theoretical framework upon which this present study is based. Conclusions are drawn, and recommendations are made for future research. The chapter concludes with the contributions the study makes to the field of education, and more specifically, it suggests strategies for recruiting and retaining Black
teachers, based on the researcher’s findings from this study and his personal experiences as a Black teacher in a predominantly White school.

**Review of the Methodology**

One hundred eighteen teachers working in predominantly White schools who also identified themselves as Black or Black with a combination of other races were asked to participate in this study. The participants came from a Black educator group via social media. Each of the recruited participants was asked to provide a personal email address. The actual number of people who participated was 56. That total number included ten males and 46 females. Of that number, only 51 surveys were fully completed and used as a baseline for data analysis. The research instrument, called *Perceptions Survey*, consisted of 30 items as derived from the *Perceptions of Black Teacher Work Experiences Scale* (PBTWES), and other informational items. Although the amount of surveys completed in entirety did not provide a desirably large sample size, it did represent a cross-section of the perceptions of Black teachers (of various ages, and genders). That cross-section was all employed by various predominantly White schools throughout the U.S. The Institutional Review Board provided an exempt level approval before the researcher’s data collection. Based on the level of anonymity provided by using while using Qualtrics for survey distribution, no informed consent was needed. All participants completed the survey online in October 2015.

The dependent variable was the level of job satisfaction measured by the Black teachers’ responses to four specific items on the survey instrument. The independent variable(s), were workplace experiences described by individual responses to items about *spirituality, cultural acceptance, interracial relationships, intra-racial relationships, mentoring, and advancement opportunities in the workplace*. Analysis of data consisted of demographic examination, factor
analysis to legitimize independent variables, bivariate correlations to test for a relationship between the independent and dependent variables, and regression to determine what level of significance the relation had.

**Summary of Results**

Overall, the findings indicated that Black teachers who work in predominantly White schools were not satisfied with their job. The factor analysis indicated that the 4 item subset that followed the initial 30 item subset were indeed indicators of job satisfaction. It was important to consider some specific details about those items. For example, the first item had a mean score of 3.26. The second item had a mean score of 3.38. To interpret those means, consider this: on a Likert scale of 7, those two items about job satisfaction scored a mean value of almost 50%. Simply put, 46.50% of the sample agreed that they would leave education if they could (item one), and 48.20% would also not choose it as their career again (item two). That declaration is a major finding. Of course, the findings also indicate that Black teachers in predominantly White schools across the board perceive their work experiences as unfavorable. That is to be expected considering such low satisfaction levels. Most notable is a component that emerged from data analysis called *feeling oppression*. Not only was there a high loading there, but there was also a correlation between having those feelings and being dissatisfied. Although about half of the sample was not satisfied, there appears to be another half that is. It is important to know what can be said of that, considering that the data analysis suggests that the Black teachers perceived very negative work experiences. Although there may not be one set explanation, the researcher assumes that there may be other factors that contribute to Black teacher job satisfaction besides their work experiences. Also, the love of doing a specific type of work (teaching) may produce
Discussion of Results

This section discusses the findings of the present study in two different manners. First is a discussion of the findings in relation to past research studies. Next is a discussion of the findings as an interpretation within the theoretical framework upon which this study is based. Limitations of this research precedes this section.

Relation of the Present Study to Previous Research. As previously noted, there are very few empirical studies that have focused solely on describing the perceptions of Black teachers in predominantly White K-12 schools. Much of the literature related to this topic concerns Black collegiate level teachers or administrators. Even so, the research is consistent enough to provide overarching themes for all Black teachers working in predominantly White schools.

There are a few studies about Black teachers or administrators in predominantly White K-12 settings (Fridie, 1975; Hasberry, 2013; Kelly, 2007) that the researcher found. Those studies are all qualitative in nature. They collectively attempt to describe the perceptions of Black teachers work experiences in predominantly White schools and to address their ideas about what they foresaw as reoccurring challenges and which coping tactics they employed to elude them. Fridie (1975) used 40 Black teachers in predominantly White K-12 schools to qualitatively describe their perception of work experiences. The emerging theme from that research is that the Black teachers perceived forming healthy relationships as their biggest challenge. That applied to relationships such as the teacher with the community, the teacher with the parents, the teacher with the administrators, the teacher with the other teachers, and the
teacher with the students. Hasberry’s (2013) research on K-12 schools, solely focuses on using qualitative measures to describe the experiences of Black teachers in predominantly White K-12 private schools. His underlying theme is that the presence and coping mechanisms of tokenism manipulate the perception of work experiences. Finally, Kelly (2007) also gives a qualitative account of the perception of Black teachers working in predominantly White K-12 schools. This account is based solely on work experiences being associated with the feelings of role entrapment and the pressure to outperform their White counterparts.

A few concrete pieces of research involving Black college level teachers or administrators in predominantly White schools were found (Alexander & Moore, 2008; Hamilton, 2009; Jackson, 2000; Logan, 1990). Most of these studies are also qualitative in nature. Alexander and Moore (2008) take a qualitative approach to describing the main benefits and challenges associated with the work experiences of college level Black educators in predominantly White institutions of higher learning (PWI). Benefits such as mentorship for Black students and bringing a presence that deters negative stereotypes is discussed. Additionally the perception that White counterparts question the competency and are hostile are also discussed. Hamilton (2009) researches collegiate level Black administrators working in PWI. In her qualitative approach, Black administrators are asked to describe their work experiences at the PWI in which they worked. The collective theme is that Black administrators feel unsupported, racially unequal, and advancement deprived in comparison to their White counterparts. As a result, she concludes that the retention of Black teachers would be an ongoing challenge. Jackson (2000) conducted qualitative research stating that the rise of Black administrators working in predominantly White schools indicates that recruitment efforts are becoming successful. However, he also states that statistics show that retention is failing. He asks the participants to
describe what they perceive to be the most successful recruitment tactics. Each participant cites excellent conversations offering ideal work environments with great culture and awesome advancement potential. When asked about their perception of what causes poor retention, the unanimous response is the discovery of an environment that lacks support and wherewithal to deliver what was promised. Finally, Logan (1990) provides the only formal quantitative research on the factors determining a Black educators’ perception of their job satisfaction while working in a college level 4-year Predominantly White Institution in the south. The collective theme in Logan’s research piece is that factors such as opportunities for promotion, salaries, and the availability or offering of a tenured status were all very instrumental in their perceived satisfaction.

Although there is an obvious relation between the research mentioned above and the present study, there is still a limited amount of quantitative research on Black teachers working in predominantly White K-12 schools. Therefore, the present study attempts to verify those findings. The majority of reviewed studies yielded qualitative reports of how Black teachers (or administrators) perceived their work experiences and how that impacted their levels of satisfaction in predominantly White K-12 schools. The present study tested the validity to which Black teachers perceived previously identified factors, which molded their work experiences, as determinants of their level of job satisfaction.

In comparing the results of the present study to the previous studies, there are apparent consistencies. Many of the prior studies describe Black teachers (and administrators) perceptions of their work experiences as negative because of their feelings of tokenism, cultural biases, limited promotion potential, and relationship challenges. Those perceptions are evident in the current study. These feelings all represent forms of oppression. Oppression was one of the three
key components that the data analysis suggested the factors be clumped. *Feelings of oppression* were also proven to have a significant relationship to job satisfaction. So, just as the previous studies provide various accounts of oppression perceived by Black teachers in predominantly White schools (or institutions), the present study quantitatively confirms the presence of oppression in predominantly White K-12 schools and identifies oppression as a factor limiting the reported level of job satisfaction.

**Interpretation of the Results within the Theoretical Framework.** According to Baldwin (1972), there is no one size fits all recipe for describing the wants and needs of a particular race or ethnicity. Every person regardless of race is raised with basic standards, morals, values, and principles that become signature to their family. However, Baldwin expressed that situations arise in which people of certain races become more comfortable with and even navigate towards people of their same race. Tatum (2003) asserts that most people do not know how to talk about our racial differences. Whites are afraid of using the wrong words and being perceived as "racist" while parents of color are afraid of exposing their children to painful racial realities too soon. It is quite often to see people who share the same race building rapports and commonalities. Baldwin claims that those commonalities exist within the Black race. He contends that although the commonalities may not overwhelming speak for all Black people, there is enough buy-in from people of the Black race to note some significance. Moreover, Baldwin thought then looking at those workplace commonalities, Baldwin thought that enough Black people would vastly agree that (among other things), some level of their job satisfaction could be defined by their ability to be: spiritually free, culturally accepted, comfortable in their interracial and intra-racial relationships, an appropriate mentor or mentee when necessary, given advancement opportunities as they become available. Of course, the
notion that Black teachers are less likely to report satisfaction with all of these factors can then be explained by the Critical Race Theory (CRT).

According to CRT, racist people do not need to exist to note that racism is pervasive in the dominant culture (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). CRT says that racism can be hidden within institutions and presented as various forms of oppression within schools, workplaces, and so on. Tate (1997) explained that these broader forms of oppression, known as institutional racism, appear because of a false picture of meritocracy; claiming everyone who works hard can attain wealth, power, and privilege while ignoring the systemic inequalities created by societal concepts such as White supremacy and White privilege. In other words, based on CRT, within the present research, the researcher hypothesized that the possibility of a Black teacher perceiving that their needs were met and that they were being provided with many of the above factors while working in predominantly White schools was slim. CRT asserts that enough members of the White race have refused to acknowledge their power and privilege and therefore further exert it in the process.

In the present study, the factors posed through the work of Baldwin were tested for legitimacy via the survey instrument. Each factor had a total of five questions themed completely around it. Within those five questions, there was always an initial question to ask if the factor was indeed important to the Black teacher’s perceived work experiences. The data was based on a 7-point scale with seven indicating a strong importance. It is reported as such: spirituality ($M = 6.29$, $SD = 1.026$), culture ($M = 6.29$, $SD = .923$), interracial ($M = 3.24$, $SD = 1.914$), intra-racial ($M = 4.69$, $SD = 1.726$), mentoring ($M = 4.92$, $SD = 1.968$), and advance opportunities ($M = 5.25$, $SD = 1.585$). Based on this data, we can see that in all cases, substantial numbers of the respondents felt the factor had value. Some factors were valued much more than others. For
example, culture and spirituality are both equally strong indicators with a mean of 6.29. That means that feeling culturally or spiritually restricted would cause a large perception of dissatisfaction. Another very strong indicator is the need for mentoring. With a mean of 5.25, not having proper mentorship can also produce strong feelings of dissatisfaction.

Upon using the data to verify that the said factors (produced by the extant literature) are indeed significant to the perceived work experiences of Black teachers in predominantly White schools, the researcher was also able to confirm the CRT as the true framework for this study. As previously stated, the analysis that was run took all the responses to questions (that were factor related), and consolidated them into three data components that represented a vast majority of response variance. Each was named based on the tabulation of their loading strength in response to questions. Based on that, the first component was named as feeling oppression (FO). The FO component referred to all the questions that receive strong loading responses and were associated with some reporting of discrimination or oppression that had been encountered. This supports the use of Critical Race Theory as the theoretical theme of this research, since the entire theme of CRT is that institutional racism exists and is brought on less by individuals and more so by the dominating forces exerted within the workplace by members of the White race.

Limitations

In this research, there were some limitations. For example, because there was not enough relevant prior research, the researcher created a survey to produce data. While the survey was constructed to address important factors related to this study’s topic and received good feedback from a piloting, the lack of prior use to validate the instrument’s content and reliability limits its credibility as the best means to measure work experiences or satisfaction.
Another limitation of this study would be the level of credibility that comes from its small sample size. The goal with quantitative research is to be very data rich which comes from having very large sample size. Because of the nature of the research, obtaining a large sample size became problematic. Finding Black teachers in predominantly White public K-12 schools was one issue, and then getting them to commit and follow through with survey completion was still another. Of 118 survey requests that were sent out and that people committed to complete, the final completion number was 55 (with only 51 completed in entirety). While the sample size was enough to conduct an analysis and state claims, it may not be enough to substantiate them or provide true and accurate feedback. For example, a couple of the components that were not found to be statistically significant may have scored lower because they lack enough participant responses to show significance.

Finally another limitation would be the ability to deepen the satisfaction response. For example, some questions related to satisfaction were: would they again choose education or would they leave education. This doesn’t take into account the fact that despite negative work experiences, there may be some Black teachers who love their job because of what it represents, and they would not leave or would choose it all over again because of that. For that reason, it may have helped to word satisfaction questions to address that possibility.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The findings of the present study lead to conclusions and recommendations which are applicable to the field of education (and educators), as well as to anyone wanting to conduct further research on the perceptions of Black teachers in predominantly White K-12 schools.
**Conclusions.** In conclusion, the researcher’s closing discussion is guided by the fact that even in this highly quantitative study, the researcher’s own interest in the study makes him a research tool and warrants this study to still have some qualitative creditability. The researcher himself worked as a teacher in a predominantly White school for many years and actually held that position during the greater part of this research. As a result, after the data were analyzed, the interpretations of the data were given through vested eyes. Although some may argue that because of the researcher’s own interest in the topic, the data interpretations are biased. However, the researcher argues quite the contrary and actually feels that his own interest adds credibility to the data interpretations. The researcher has personally experienced being a Black teacher in a predominantly White school. Therefore, he was able to identify with many of the perceived work conditions, and also deal with the disappointment of having a school district deny the distribution of surveys. Furthermore, the results of the present study indicate that there is a large number (nearly 50%) of Black teachers working in predominantly White K-12 schools who are not satisfied with (or in) their position. Although the six factors from the literature (culture, spirituality, interracial relations, intra-racial relations, mentoring, and advancement opportunities) which explained the perception of work experiences initially were defined as the predictor variables, data analysis crunched them into three components which covered a vast majority of variances. Those components were named and analytically tested as independent variables. The final conclusion made says: a significant correlation does exist between the feeling oppressed component (variable) and job satisfaction. Otherwise, there premise that many of the Black teachers that do not have job satisfaction feel they are facing some forms of oppression in the workplace.
**Recommendations.** In the present study, based on the analysis of data, the researcher has recommendations to advance further the study’s significance. Regarding further study, the researcher recommends:

- The survey instrument is used in subsequent studies to validate further its construct, content, and reliability.
- A larger sample size is tested to add more validity to the findings.
- The analysis failed to show significance to the components that were named as supportive relationships (SR) and positive mindsets (PM), yet there was significance to the component named feeling oppression (FO). Therefore, it is recommended that other researchers use FO in further testing and possibly dismiss SR and PM to find other factors with greater significance.
- Possibly define the job satisfaction questions with the consideration of other things besides work experiences. It is quite possible that Black teachers in predominantly White schools are satisfied by (or with) factors other than their just work experiences. For example, many Black teachers may love the notion of being a lifeline to the few Black students and an awakening to the many White students.
- Use more recent literature to frame the factors seen as impacts on the perception of Black teacher work experiences. The basis of this study is the 1972 work of Baldwin, which may be a little outdated.
- Complete a comparative study of gender-specific perceptions of Black teachers in predominantly White schools.
• Having now learned (from the data) that race relations play a small role in the job satisfaction of Black teachers in predominantly White schools, a comparative study on the perceptions of Black teachers in predominantly White schools and Black teachers in predominantly White schools should be done. Agee (2004) suggested that even in predominantly Black schools, Black teachers feel oppressed with the requirement of teaching and upholding very “White” curriculums.

Also from the data, the researcher has recommendations for increasing the effectiveness of Black teacher recruitment and retention. Based on the data, the researcher recommends that attention shift to the needs of Black teachers. Members of the education field seem to realize the importance of Black teachers finally. As a result, it seems that efforts to recruit Black teachers are increasing. However, even with the recruitment of Black teachers into education, the more persistent and troubling problem becomes the inability to keep them there. Moreover, of those that do stay in education, despite their perception of work experiences, the data suggests that 41% of those would not recommend other Black people to become a teacher. Therefore, using the data, the researcher has the following recommendations for the recruitment and retention of Black teachers:

• Because the data identified an issue with appropriate mentoring being provided for Black teachers, school districts should provide innovative teacher preparation programs. These may make new Black teachers feel knowledgeable and empowered. They may also prompt them to not only continue teaching but make them feel they are effective.
As the data suggested, there is a strong presence of oppression felt by Black teachers in predominantly White schools. Although the data does not suggest that the oppression is related to race relations, it does suggest that those feelings are accented by administrator’s refusal to address or encourage diversity. Moreover, the states should hold school districts accountable for electing superintendents that foster diverse teacher populations. That can begin with superintendents being required to attend their diversity recruitment meetings for direct monitoring. That could also include an expected number of minority teachers receive promotions. That would help change the perception that Black teachers feel they are tokens and not promotable.

Superintendents should then hold individual principals accountable for Black teacher recruitment and retention within their school building. Additionally, they should require the principals to have conversations in their schools which would show the willingness of the schools to embrace diversity and may change the Black teacher perceptions, so they not only stay in their school building, but they feel comfortable enough to recommend other Black people to teach as well.

Each state may even consider a budget for having a diversity officer on each school site. Those officers can help ensure the culture and climates of the schools are inviting and receptive to Black teachers.

Lastly, school districts must stop ignoring the obvious. They must stop hiring Black teachers to meet quotas or because the state became involved but instead have conversations from day one. A prime example of issue avoidance lies in the school district that refused to allow their Black teachers to take the researcher's
survey. Surely they are not the only school district declining to have desperately needed conversations.

Moreover, since the data says that Black Teachers’ feelings of oppression are significantly related to their job satisfaction, it seems likely that as oppression decreases, job satisfaction should increase and ultimately improve the potential for Black teachers to come and remain in the field.

**Contributions of the Study**

As explained in Chapter 1, although this present study's goal was to relate the work experiences of Black teachers to their job satisfaction, the greater good of the study was to find some information that would allow the researcher to make useful and meaningful recommendations for improving the recruitment and retention of Black teachers. Black Teachers Statistics (2014) reported that the average public school in America has about 54% White students. That statistic suggests that the majority of America’s school are predominantly White. From that, the researcher thought it would be helpful to understand better the perceptions of Black teachers who presently teach in predominantly White schools. More specifically, the researcher wanted to quantify the validity of some of the perceptions previously voiced in the literature. Based on this research, many Black teachers working in predominantly White schools still feel oppression overshadows their work experiences. It is that population of Black teachers that will probably leave, have a desire to leave, or will never recommend other Black people to come into education. However, this study also indicates that despite having feelings of oppression, there are still some Black teachers that choose teaching regardless of how their work experiences are perceived.
As an original study that attempts to quantify Black teacher perceptions, the major contribution of this study is that it raises awareness about an underlying oppression perceived by Black teachers in K-12 education. It also contradicts portions of earlier research that claims Black teachers are dissatisfied because of their racial isolation, or inability to “make nice” with other races (Fridie, 1975). It instead acknowledges that their dissatisfaction comes from their feelings of oppression. Those feelings of oppression are the contributing factors to an inability to successfully recruit or retain Black teachers.

The disproportionate number of Black teachers has so many adverse impacts within our schools and within society as a whole. In schools, Black students need Black teacher role models to broaden their view of what their long-term societal role can be. Even so, White students need Black teacher role models to broaden their views on minority achievements. Seeing Black teacher role models contributes to rectifying school issues such as the overpopulation of Black students into special education. The number of Black students in special education compared to White students is overwhelming. Kunjufu (2010) reported that even though Black students were only about 20% of the school population, they made up over 40% of special education cases. And of those cases, 80% were Black males. Additionally, Black students have much lower graduation rates, and much more instances of discipline (Kavale & Forness, 1996; Pringle, Lyons, & Booker, 2010). Long term, Black people have all kinds of societal disparities. Rollins & Valdez (2006) says within the U.S. the Black race has excessive amounts of high school dropouts, utilizers of government assistance, and incarcerations. There is a possibility that had those struggling Black adults received a supportive Black teacher; they may have been more apt to complete high school. That in turn could have meant going to college, landing better jobs,
staying off public assistance and out of prisons (Miller, Rote & Keith, 2013; Rollins & Valdez, 2006; Stanford, 1972).

The need for Black teachers is more apparent than ever. Black students desperately need to feel the attention, support and aspiration of Black teachers. Not to say that White teachers can’t effectively teach Black students, but Tatum (2007) affirms that we can’t ignore the significant impact that Black teachers make. As a society, we often discuss helping our nation’s youth. That help should clearly begin in the classroom. Black teachers must be recruited, employed, retained, and promoted. The analysis of this study’s data suggests that many Black teachers have very negative perceptions of their work experiences. Moreover, it suggests that those negative perceptions impact the ability to recruit and retain Black teachers.

Steps must be taken to address and change the perceptions of Black teachers so their recruitment and retention rates will stably maintain. It’s baffling that as educators, we vow always to act in the best interest of our students. When will we begin to honor those vows? Can any of us say we are doing all we can to employ Black teachers and witness the difference they can make in our schools? If not, shame on us. We owe this to our students, we owe this to our schools, and we owe this to our society. Although there are so many quirks to be worked out surrounding this issue, upon identifying a problem, resolution starts with dialogue. My challenge to each and every educator is: look at this data and the analysis, consider the findings, then realistically say, “Now let the conversations begin”.
Appendix A
Perceptions Survey

Gender: Male _____ Female _____ Age: _____
Race: White_____ Black_____ Hispanic_____ Native American_____ Asian_____ Other_____

Please rate each of the following items on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) about your experiences. Please respond based only on your work experiences at your present position.

<table>
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<th>Question</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Neither</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  In my workplace, even when I apply for promotions, I do NOT feel I will get them.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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<td>2  In my workplace, I have never been chosen or asked to mentor a colleague.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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<td>3  In my workplace, I typically feel more comfortable with other Black people.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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<td>4  In my workplace, I allow my past or present relationships with people of other races to impact how I perceive my work experiences.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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<td>5  In my workplace, I have experienced cultural or racial discrimination.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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<td>6  In my workplace, I do NOT feel that there are people at work who share my religious or spiritual beliefs.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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<td>7  In my workplace, I do NOT feel that my superiors want to see me get promoted.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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<td>8  In my workplace, I felt the need to be mentored as a new hire.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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<td>9  In my workplace, I allow my past or present relationships with other Black people to impact how I perceive my work experiences.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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<tr>
<td>10 In my workplace, it is a struggle to establish relationships with White parents.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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<td>11 In my workplace, I feel pressured to tone down some of my cultural characteristics that I would normally exercise.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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<td>In my workplace, I never feel completely comfortable discussing my religion or spirituality.</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>In my workplace, I feel that race plays a role in my promotion potential.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>In my workplace, I did NOT receive a competent mentor to assist me with transitioning when I was a new hire.</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>In my workplace, it is easy for me to establish relationships with Black colleagues.</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>In my workplace, it is a struggle to establish relationships with White colleagues.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>In my workplace, embracing my culture or race is important to me.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>In my workplace, embracing my religion or spirituality is important to me.</td>
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<td>In my workplace, I have lost a promotion to a White colleague.</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>In my workplace, I have chosen or been asked to mentor a student.</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>In my workplace, it is easy for me to establish relationships with Black students.</td>
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<td>22</td>
<td>In my workplace, I feel uncomfortable when completely surrounded by people from races that are opposite to mine.</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>In my workplace, I never feel that my supervisors do enough to encourage diversity or cultural tolerance.</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>In my workplace, I do NOT know of any places that I can go to practice my religion or spirituality.</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>In my workplace, the opportunity to advance plays a role in how I perceive my work experiences.</td>
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26. In my workplace, I feel that once I achieve a veteran status; I should be mentoring others.  

27. In my workplace, it is easy for me to establish relationships with Black parents.  

28. In my workplace, it is a struggle to establish relationships with White students.  

29. In my workplace, I feel that some of my challenges were created based on my culture or race.  

30. In my workplace, I feel that practicing my religious or spiritual rituals will get me judged and/or reprimanded.  

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Please answer these last items about the likelihood to remain in the profession, pursue promotions or recommend the profession using the same scale as above.

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| 1 | If given a second chance, I would not choose this position/field again.  
   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 2 | If it was possible, I would gladly leave this position/field.  
   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 3 | I have no intentions of seeking out promotions or advancement opportunities related to this position/field.  
   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 4 | I would never recommend this position/field to my Black friends or family members.  
   |   |   |   |   |   |   |

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THANKS VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!
Appendix B
Perceptions of Black Teacher Work Experiences Scale (PBTWES)

Included items will be scored based on a 7-point Likert type scale. The possible range of scores is 30 to 210, with a midpoint of 120. The higher the score, the less favorable the perception that the participants’ have about their experiences. The items are numbered based on how they appear in the Perceptions Survey.

Factor 1: Religion or Spirituality

18 In my workplace, embracing my religion or spirituality is important to me.
12 In my workplace, I never feel completely comfortable discussing my religion or spirituality.
24 In my workplace, I do NOT know of any places that I can go to practice my religion or spirituality.
6 In my workplace, I do NOT feel that there are people at work who share my religious or spiritual beliefs.
30 In my workplace, I feel that practicing my religious or spiritual rituals will get me judged and/or reprimanded.

Factor 2: Cultural Acceptance

17 In my workplace, embracing my culture or race is important to me.
29 In my workplace, I feel that some of my challenges were created based on my culture or race.
5 In my workplace, I have experienced cultural or racial discrimination.
23 In my workplace, I never feel that my supervisors do enough to encourage diversity or cultural tolerance.
11 In my workplace, I feel pressured to tone down some of my cultural characteristics that I would normally exercise.

Factor 3: Interracial Relationships

4 In my workplace, I allow my past or present relationships with people of other races to impact how I perceive my work experiences.
22 In my workplace, I feel uncomfortable when completely surrounded by people from races that are opposite to mine.
28 In my workplace, it is a struggle to establish relationships with White students.
16 In my workplace, it is a struggle to establish relationships with White colleagues.
10 In my workplace, it is a struggle to establish relationships with White parents.

Factor 4: Intra-racial Relationships
9 In my workplace, I allow my past or present relationships with other Black people to impact how I perceive my work experiences.
3 In my workplace, I typically feel more comfortable with other Black people.
21 In my workplace, it is easy for me to establish relationships with Black students.
15 In my workplace, it is easy for me to establish relationships with Black colleagues.
27 In my workplace, it is easy for me to establish relationships with Black parents.

Factor 5: Mentoring

8 In my workplace, I felt the need to be mentored as a new hire.
26 In my workplace, I feel that once I achieve a veteran status; I should be mentoring others.
14 In my workplace, I did NOT receive a competent mentor to assist me with transitioning when I was a new hire.
2 In my workplace, I have never been chosen or asked to mentor a colleague.
20 In my workplace, I have chosen or been asked to mentor a student.

Factor 6: Advancement Opportunities

25 In my workplace, the opportunity to advance plays a role in how I perceive my work experiences.
7 In my workplace, I do NOT feel that my superiors want to see me get promoted.
19 In my workplace, I have lost a promotion to a White colleague.
1 In my workplace, even when I apply for promotions, I do NOT feel I will get them.
13 In my workplace, I feel that race plays a role in my promotion potential.
Appendix C
MEMORANDUM

DATE: September 21, 2015

TO: Mr. Stephen Richardson

VIA: Dr. Sandra Gupton
Leadership, School Counseling & Sports Management

FROM: Dr. Jennifer Wesely, Chairperson
On behalf of the UNF Institutional Review Board

RE: Declaration of Exempt Status for IRB#807935-1:
"THE PERCEPTIONS OF BLACK TEACHERS REGARDING THEIR DECISION TO
TEACH AND SATISFACTION WITH THEIR WORK EXPERIENCES IN
PREDOMINANTLY WHITE SCHOOLS."

Your project "THE PERCEPTIONS OF BLACK TEACHERS REGARDING THEIR DECISION TO TEACH
AND SATISFACTION WITH THEIR WORK EXPERIENCES IN PREDOMINANTLY WHITE SCHOOLS."
was reviewed on behalf of the UNF Institutional Review Board and declared "Exempt" category 2. Your project
was declared Exempt based on the understanding that all individuals will be at least 18 years old and data will
be collected without any direct or indirect identifiers that could be used to identify individuals. If you obtain
information that could be used to identify individuals, please promptly notify the IRB as this may affect the
review type for your project.

Please note: In order to ensure that data are anonymous in Qualtrics, please select the “Anonymize Response”
option under Survey Options. If you will send the survey via the email option in Qualtrics, you will also need to
use the "Anonymous Link" option under Advanced Options in the Distribute Survey tab in Qualtrics to ensure
email addresses are not linked to responses. Both steps in this two-step process must be completed to ensure
data are anonymous.

Based on the recently revised Standard Operating Procedures regarding exempt projects, the UNF IRB no
longer reviews and approves exempt research according to the 45 CFR 46 regulations. Projects declared exempt
review are only reviewed to the extent necessary to confirm exempt status. Please contact a research integrity
administrator if you have questions about the review type for your project.
Once data collection under the exempt status begins, the researchers agree to abide by these requirements:
- All investigators and co-investigators, or those who obtain informed consent, collect data, or have access to identifiable data are trained in the ethical principles and federal, state, and institutional policies governing human subjects research (please see the FAQs on UNF IRB CITI Training for more information).
- An informed consent process will be used, when necessary, to ensure that participants voluntarily consent to participate in the research and are provided with pertinent information such as identification of the activity as research; a description of the procedures, right to withdraw at any time, risks, and benefits; and contact information for the PI and IRB chair.
- Human subjects will be selected equitably so that the risks and benefits of research are justly distributed.
- The IRB will be informed as soon as practicable but no later than 3 business days from receipt of any complaints from participants regarding risks and benefits of the research.
- The IRB will be informed as soon as practicable but no later than 3 business days from receipt of the complaint of any information and unexpected or adverse events that would increase the risk to the participants and cause the level of review to change. Please use the Event Report Form to submit information about such events.
- The confidentiality and privacy of the participants and the research data will be maintained appropriately.

While the exempt status is effective for the life of the study, if it is modified, all substantive changes must be submitted to the IRB for prospective review. In some circumstances, changes to the protocol may disqualify the project from exempt status. Revisions in procedures or documents that would change the review level from exempt to expedited or full board review include, but are not limited to, the following:

- New knowledge that increases the risk level;
- Use of methods that do not meet the exempt criteria;
- Surveying or interview children or participating in the activities being observed;
- Change in the way identifiers are recorded so that participants can be identified;
- Addition of an instrument, survey questions, or other change in instrumentation that could pose more than minimal risk;
- Addition of prisoners as research participants;
- Addition of other vulnerable populations;
- Under certain circumstances, addition of a funding source

To submit an amendment, please complete an Amendment Request Document and submit it along with any updated documents affected by the changes via a new package in IRBNet. If investigators are unsure of whether an amendment needs to be submitted or if they have questions about the amendment review process, they should contact the IRB staff for clarification.

**Your study was declared exempt effective 9/21/2015.** Please submit an Exempt Status Report by 9/21/2018 if this project is still active at the end of three years. However, if the project is complete and you would like to close the project, please submit a Closing Report Form. This will remove the project from the group of projects subject to an audit. An investigator must close a project when the research no longer meets the definition of human subject research (e.g., data collection is complete and data are de-identified so the researcher does not have the ability to match data to participants) or data collection and analysis are complete. If the IRB has not received correspondence at the three-year anniversary, you will be reminded to submit an Exempt Status Report. If no Exempt Status Report is received from the Principal Investigator within 90 days of the status report due date listed above, then the IRB will close the research file. The closing report or exempt status report will need to be submitted as a new package in IRBNet.
All principal investigators, co-investigators, those who obtain informed consent, collect data, or have access to identifiable data must be CITI certified in the protection of human subjects. As you may know, CITI Course Completion Reports are valid for 3 years. Your completion report is valid through 7/12/2018 and Dr. Gupton's completion report is valid through 12/18/2016. The CITI training for renewal will become available 90 days before your CITI training expires. Please renew your CITI training when necessary and ensure that all key personnel maintain current CITI training. Individuals can access CITI by following this link: http://www.citiprogram.org. Should you have questions regarding your project or any other IRB issues, please contact the research integrity unit of the Office of Research and Sponsored Programs by emailing IRB@unf.edu or calling (904) 620-2455.

This letter has been electronically signed in accordance with all applicable regulations, and a copy is retained within UNF's records. All records shall be accessible for inspection and copying by authorized representatives of the department or agency at reasonable times and in a reasonable manner. A copy of this memo may also be sent to the dean and/or chair of your department.
REFERENCES


York Press.


SPSS, Inc. (2009). *SPSS Base 18.0 user’s guide*. Chicago, IL: SPSS, Inc.


Vita

Stephen D. Richardson

EDUCATION


MPA, University of Central Florida, Public Administration, August, 2007.

B.S., University of Central Florida, Molecular Biology, December, 2005.


PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

2015 to present. Assistant Principal, Bartram Trail High School in St. Johns County School District, St. Johns, Fl.


2008 to 2011 Teacher, Darnell Cookman Middle/High School in Duval County School District, Jacksonville, Fl.

CERTIFICATIONS

Florida Teacher Certifications in: Pk-3; Biology 6-12; Education Leadership (All Levels)

PUBLICATIONS/PRESENTATIONS

None to date

AWARDS

2011-2012 Nominee for Creekside High School Rookie Teacher of the Year

2015 Certificate of Completion for 2015 St Johns County School District Phase I Leadership

PLACE OF BIRTH

06/19/1982 in Jacksonville, Florida
The dissertation of Stephen Delvin Richardson is approved by: (date)

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Accepting for the University:

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