THE EFFECTS OF RACE-RELATED STRESS, RACIAL SOCIALIZATION AND BURNOUT IN AFRICAN AMERICAN TEACHERS WHO ATTENDED HBCUs vs. PWIs

by

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ABSTRACT

Prior research has indicated racial socialization (RS) safeguards against race-related stress (RRS). Despite previous investigations, there has been a dearth of scholarship exclusively examining how RRS, RS, and burnout effect African American teachers with divergent collegiate experiences. To illuminate this research gap, this quantitative study used an online survey to examine the predictive role of RRS and RS on burnout in African American teachers *(N* = 20) who attended HBCUs or PWIs. This study also measured the potential moderating role of collegiate experience on RRS and RS. The respondents were administered the Trauma Symptoms of Discrimination Scale (TSDS), Cultural and Racial Experiences of Socialization (CARES), and Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey (MBI-ES). The findings concluded that no statistical significance emerged in the predictive role of RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences on burnout. The findings indicated the need for future research into African American teachers' experiences who attended both a PWI and HBCU, in addition to teachers who attended a PWI or HBCU for both undergraduate and graduate studies.

Keywords: Race-related stress, racial socialization, burnout, work-related stress

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Dedication

First, I dedicate my dissertation to my beloved parents, the late Evangeline Wiggins Burton and the late Johnnie Burton, Jr., who both passed unexpectedly in 2020. Your guidance, love, and support will always be beyond reproach. I am, unapologetically, who I am because you encouraged me to embrace diversity, to be confident when I'm the only Black person in the room, to smile when others gossip about me, and to be completely "ok" with being weird or odd. You taught me to never minimize someone else's pain. Now that I understand that trauma is an individual, subjective, and sensory experience, that makes so much sense. Thank you for teaching me compassion, empathy, altruism, kindness, and gratitude. I love you both… "til we meet again."

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List of Abbreviations

Cultural and Racial Experiences of Socialization (CARES)

Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs)

Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey (MBI-ES)

Predominantly White Institutions (PWIs)

Racial Socialization (RS)

Race-related Stress (RRS)

Trauma Symptoms of Discrimination Scale (TSDS)

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

Chapter One examines the effects of African American teachers' race-related stress, racial socialization, and burnout regarding their collegiate experiences at Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) and Predominantly White Institutions (PWIs). Race-related stress and racial socialization are well-documented in the literature, but limited studies investigate how these concepts effect burnout in African American teachers who attended HBCUs vs. PWIs. Chapter One provides a general outline of the study's background, including the historical and social context of the problem. Chapter One also examines the study's problem, purpose, significance, research questions, and definition of terms.

Background

Stress is an organic or non-specific response (Selye, 1976) caused by threatening or challenging circumstances (World Health Organization [WHO], 2023). Selye (1976) described stress as the "spice of life" (Rochette et al., 2023). Thus, stress is a conduit for physical and mental health conditions (Occupational Safety and Health Administration [OSHA], 2023), with workplace stress, specifically, as the cause of nearly 120,000 deaths in the U. S. workforce (OSHA, 2023). Work-related stress is a psychological or physical response that occurs when individuals' job demands are incongruent compared to their skills, resources, and needs (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2014; Mohamed et al., 2022).

Work-related stress is an increasingly significant issue in teachers (Avici et al., 2017; Harmsen et al., 2018b; Hester et al., 2020; Wolgast & Fischer, 2017). Teachers experience more work-related stress (American Institute on Stress [AIS], 2019; Steiner & Woo, 2021; Welch, 2022) and are more susceptible to stress compared to other occupations (Abramson, 2022).

Annually, eight percent of teachers depart from education (Darling-Hammond, 2016; Fitchett et al., 2020) because of work-related stress (Steiner & Woo, 2021). There is a growing body of evidence suggesting teachers' work-related stress is caused by increased job responsibilities, psychological demands, inadequate resources, limited professional learning opportunities (Harmsen et al., 2018), personal frustrations (Cancio et al., 2018), discontent with teaching and work-related conditions (Darling-Hammond, 2016), legal matters (Hester et al., 2020), and emotional exhaustion (Cancio et al., 2018; Seibt & Kreuzfeld, 2021). Chronic work-related stress leads to burnout (American Institute on Stress [AIS], 2022; Feldt et al., 2014; Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

Burnout

Burnout is a state of psychological or emotional exhaustion caused by chronic work-related stress (Maslach & Leiter, 2016; WHO, 2019). The dimensions of burnout are detachment and cynicism, emotional exhaustion, and decreased personal accomplishment (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Considerable evidence exists to support burnout in teachers. Maslach and Leiter (2016) found that burnout is the highest in the teaching profession and is associated with attrition or the reduction of teachers in the workforce (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Teacher burnout is linked to emotional exhaustion (Meredith et al., 2020), reduced psychological capital (Ferradas et al., 2019), or one's positive internal states (Luthans, 2002; Luthans et al., 2004), particularly in the areas of optimism and hope (Xue et al., 2023) and also depression (Steiner & Woo, 2021).

According to the results from the 2021 State of U.S. Teacher Survey, half of teachers reported feeling burnout, with 23% planning to leave the profession at the end of the 2020-2021 school year (Steiner & Woo, 2021). Specifically, Steiner and Woo (2021) found that COVID-19 and other career opportunities influenced teachers' decisions to leave education. Pressley (2022)

also found evidence that teacher burnout is related to the absence of administrative support, mental health concerns, and lack of autonomy, all predictors resulting in an influx of teacher resignations amid the pandemic (Lawrence & Cassimeda, 2022). Post-pandemic, 67% of teachers indicate burnout as a serious problem. Although feelings of depression, work-related stress, and burnout are common experiences in teachers (Steiner & Woo, 2021), African American teachers experience more work-related stress (Steiner & Woo, 2021).

African American Teacher Stress and Burnout

African American teachers experience more burnout in comparison to their White colleagues (Doan et al., 2023). However, school demographics influence variations in burnout between African American and White teachers (Doan et al., 2023). Preceding Doan et al.'s (2023) study, scholars documented burnout as a widespread experience. In data profiling the 2011-2012 NCES data set, McCarthy et al. (2020) found that African American teachers generally work in schools comparable to their racial backgrounds. McCarthy et al. (2020) also reported nearly 60% of African American teachers are more vulnerable to stress in schools with higher percentages of minority (e.g., African American, Hispanic) students. Comparably, African American teachers are less vulnerable to stress in predominantly White schools (McCarthy et al., 2020). Furthermore, in a National Education Association (2022) nationwide poll, African American and Hispanic teachers reported their intentions to leave or retire from the profession because of the pandemic. Moreover, from the poll, 55% of public-school teachers planning to leave education was disproportionate to the 62% of African American teachers with similar intentions (National Education Association, 2022).

Qualitative studies suggest African American teachers experience disparate work-related duties perpetuating stereotypes and discrimination. Specifically, African American

teachers are seen as representatives of their race in schools (Carver-Thomas, 2017). Madsen and Mabokela (2016) found that African American teachers are expected to be spokespersons for the Black culture. Also, among teachers of color, African Americans feel pressured to be superheroes for their students in urban schools (Pizarro & Kohli, 2020). Specifically, African American male teachers are likely to serve as student disciplinarians (Bristol & Mentor, 2018; Brockenbrough, 2015), whereas African American female teachers are often seen as surrogate parents for students of color (Lyons & Chelsey, 2004). African American teachers' job roles involve implicit expectations that create conflict between their personal identities and school structure (Olitsky, 2020)

Pertaining to race, African American teachers are more likely to experience racial discrimination in contrast to their White colleagues (Doan et al., 2023). Race-related stress (RRS) is associated with occupational burnout (Solomon et al., 2022; Velez et al., 2018). The accumulation of RRS can manifest into racial battle fatigue (RBF) (Pizaro & Kohli, 2020). RBF is exhaustion from cumulative race-related experiences (Quaye et al., 2019) that produce behavioral, psychological, or emotional strain (Smith, 2004) to racial microaggressions (i.e., direct or subtle behavioral, environmental, or verbal messages that convey hostile or derogatory insults or slights towards persons of color) (Sue et al., 2007, p. 271) and racial discrimination (Smith, 2004, as cited in Chancellor, 2019). African American teachers experience microaggressions at work (Brown, 2019; Kohli, 2018; Moseley, 2018; Pizarro & Kohli, 2020) that influence their intention to leave education (Kohli, 2018).

Historical Context

The recruitment and retention of African American teachers is a substantial concern in preceding public education. African American teacher attrition is linked to the case of *Brown vs.*

Board of Education of Topeka (Madkins, 2011). In the case, the Supreme Court ruled the racial bifurcation of children in public-schools was unconstitutional (National Archives, 2021; U.S. Department of Education, 2023). However, state court systems were unprepared to manage widespread resistance to desegregation, particularly in the deep South (Tillman, 2004). School desegregation was considered a violation of civil rights, not educational rights; therefore, judges were reluctant to infringe on school boards' guidelines (Tillman, 2004). Moreover, neither institutional policies governing desegregation laws nor the Civil Rights Act of 1964 protected African American teachers' jobs (Oakley et al., 2009). Fultz (2004) described school desegregation as an abuse of power caused by the absence of parameters on integration, leading to the dispersion of African American teachers. Preceding desegregation, there were nearly 82,000 African American teachers (Hudson & Holmes, 1994). However, between 1954 and 1965, nearly 38,000 African American teachers and administrators in southern and border states lost their jobs (Fultz, 2004). African American teachers were either demoted, reassigned, or dismissed from their schools (Irvine & Irvine, 1983, p. 187).

School desegregation reform created a negative illustration of African American teachers. African American teachers were viewed as insubordinate (Tillman, 2004), incompetent (Lutz, 2017), and subsequently replaced by inexperienced White educators (Lutz, 2017; Tillman, 2004). Cognizant of the racial climate, African American teachers understood that racism was the catalyst for their losing their jobs (Tillman, 2004). In 1964, the NEA passed Resolution 12 which supported the reintegration of African American teachers and mandated its affiliates to abide by the laws (Fultz, 2004). By the 1970s, demotions and dismissals of African American teachers lessened because of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People and Black power movements (Fultz, 2004, p. 45). Transitioning to the 1980s, African American

teachers experienced barriers due to changes in teacher certification requirements preventing their reintegration into the public school system (Tillman, 2004). Also, Post-*Brown*, many African American teachers did not return to the field of education (Oakley et al., 2009); instead, they decided to pursue alternative careers (Tillman, 2004). At present, the shortage of African American teachers remains a noteworthy issue in the sphere of education (Oakley et al., 2009). For example, a disproportionality exists between the number of African American teachers and students (NCES, 2022). Among African American teachers remaining in public schools, they are unevenly distributed (Fitchett et al., 2020) and overrepresented in lower-income schools (Gist, 2018).

Social Context

The roles of African American teachers extend beyond teaching and learning. African American teachers foster positive student relationships (Ware, 2006), serve as role models (Ingersoll et al., 2019), and protect at-risk African American students against racialized societal conditions (McKinney de Royston et al., 2020). African American teachers also often positively impact many students (Lyons & Chelsey, 2004; Villegas & Irvine, 2010). However, research indicates African American teachers experience work-related challenges. Data shows that 66% of African American teachers serve in southern states. In southern states like North Carolina and Alabama, African American teachers are disproportionately expected to serve surrogate parents (Lyons & Chelsey, 2004). Comparably, 51% of African American teachers serve in city or urban schools (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2022). Over half of African American teachers work in schools with more minority students (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017; Gist, 2018) and higher turnover rates (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017).

Brockenbrough (2015) found that African American male teachers are pigeonholed into predetermined roles (e.g., disciplinarians). Other qualitative studies show African American teachers experience devaluation, institutional racism, microaggressions (e.g., subtle, derogatory insults (Sue, 2007), lack of mentorship, and color-blindness (e.g., ignoring an individual's race) in urban educational settings (Kohli, 2016). These experiences are conducive to experiencing RRS (Smith et al., 2011). However, racial socialization (RS) safeguards against RRS (Hughes et al., 2006; Sue et al., 2019). In African American teachers, RS reduces their race-related stressors (Stevenson, 2014).

RS refers to the process that African American parents use to communicate about the implications of race and ethnicity (Neblett et al., 2012;), racial identity (Tang et al., 2016), preparation for racism (Osborne et al., 2020), preparation for bias and cultural socialization (Hughes et al., 2006) and coping with race-related stress (Butler-Barnes et al., 2019; Sue et al., 2019). RS is a direct (Hughes et al., 2006) and indirect (Peck et al., 2014) process preceding the formation of one's racial identity (Bennett, 2006). The process of becoming Black is a nonlinear process (Cross, 1981; Cross & Vandiver, 2001), and racial identity changes are contingent on social experiences or through the recycling process (Parham, 1989). An example of recycling occurs when African American students decide to attend an HBCU or PWI. African Americans will either increase their Black consciousness or achieve success through the White culture (Parham, 1989, p.199).

Conceptual / Theoretical Context

Transactional Model of Stress and the Coping

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) proposed stress is a subjective experience affected by an individual's appraisal of the event. Stress is conceptualized as the reciprocity between the

individual and the environment (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) that is evaluated or cognitively appraised (Ben-Hur, 2019) through transactions (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The individual's perception of the stressful event shapes emotions that subsequently elicit arousal (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 265). Once exposed to stress, an individual uses primary cognitive appraisals to determine the neutrality of the event; initially, the stressful encounter is neither positive nor negative (Campbell, 2013). However, if a stressful encounter is harmful, an individual determines how to cope through secondary appraisal (Lazarus, 1996). Secondary appraisals involve the utilization of problem-solving and self-regulation skills (Lazarus, 1996). Through re-appraisal, an individual modifies internal and external demands and then attempts to cope with available or depleted resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

The Transactional Model of Stress and Coping theory supports studies suggesting a positive relationship between stress, cognitive appraisals, and burnout (Gomes et al., 2013; Rocha et al., 2022). Educational research shows an association between teachers' perceived stress and self-efficacy (Collie et al., 2012) or confidence in controlling one's motivation or social environment (American Psychological Association [APA], 2023, para 1). Yurt (2022) found that teachers' efficacy and job satisfaction significantly affect experiencing burnout. In a case study, Milner and Hoy (2003) found that RRS diminishes self-efficacy, particularly the stereotype threat (i.e., fear of confirming a stereotype about a particular group (Casad & Bryant, 2016, p. 1). Studies show a statistically significant positive correlation between stereotype threats and burnout (i.e., Bedynska & Zolnierczyk-Zreda, 2015).

Race-Related Stress

RRS is defined as stressful exchanges between individuals (or groups) and their environmental conditions that arise from racism (Harrell, 2000). Consistent with the

transactional model of stress and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), race-related transactions are perceived as burdensome or menacing to one's quality of life (Harrell, 2000). Carter (2007) posited that exposure to recurrent racist encounters creates injuries that impede homeostasis by generating psychological and emotional dysregulation (Roach et al., 2023; Williams et al., 2021). Carter (2007) also suggested African Americans are more susceptible to prolonged exposure of RRS. Additionally, Carter (2006) proposed that RRS leads to the development of chronic mental and physical health conditions, including post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Carter (2006) warned that racist encounters are not inclusive; they require explicit definitions because racist encounters occur at individual, cultural (e.g., assigning cultural traits to race) (Blum, 2023), or institutional levels. Therefore, this type of racist encounter elicits specific psychological reactions (Carter, 2006). The following race-related injuries are discussed further in chapter two:

- Avoidant racism: distancing behaviors between dominant and non-dominant racial groups (e.g., being denied a loan because of race).
- Hostile racism: demonstrating behaviors that convey inferiority because of race (e.g., being followed around a store by an associate because of race).
- Aversive-Hostile racism: creating distance in a hostile fashion after a racial minority gains access to an establishment previously excluded from (e.g., questioning one's qualifications or skills because of race. (Carter et al., 2016, p. 64)

Racial Socialization

African American parents use RS to communicate direct or subtle messages about navigating life as a Black person (Demo & Hughes, 1990). RS is a fundamental process in Nigrescence theory, which proposes that the Black identity forms through RS (Cross & Vandiver, 2001). African American parents use six RS strategies to communicate positive or

negative messages consisting of racial pride, racial barriers, self-worth, negative, egalitarian, and behavioral messages (Lesane-Brown, 2006). RS is strengthened through specific identity functions like buffering (i.e., psychological protective mechanisms against racism) (Cross & Vandiver, 2001) or code-switching (Cross & Vandiver, 2001), which is the practice of altering between dialects or languages (Johnson et al., 2021, p. 2). For example, in occupational spaces, African Americans code-switch by altering their attire, speech, or behavior (Cross & Straus, 1998). African Americans are more likely to experience burnout because of code-switching to circumvent racial discrimination (Hewlin, 2009, as cited by Johnson et al., 2021).

RS is referred to or used interchangeably with racial/ethnic socialization (RE/S) (Hughley et al., 2019; Osborne et al., 2023; Tang et al., 2016). According to Racial Encounter Coping Appraisal Theory (RECAST), the racial counterpart to Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) transactional model of stress and coping (Anderson & Stevenson, 2019, p. 6), RS minimizes stress caused by discriminatory racist encounters (DREs) (Anderson & Stevenson, 2019) and buffers race-related stress. RS is positively associated with racial self-efficacy (Anderson & Stevenson, 2019; Bentley-Edwards & Stephenson, 2016) and racial socialization competency (Anderson & Stevenson, 2019). Racial self-efficacy is necessary for the reappraisal and management of RRS (Anderson & Stevenson, 2019; Bentley-Edwards & Stephenson, 2016), whereas racial socialization competency consists of the skills required to communicate racial socialization messages (Anderson & Stevenson, 2019, p. 68). RS also occurs through exchanges between peers, teachers, authority figures, media, and systems (Bentley-Edwards & Stephenson, 2016.) Among college students, ethnic-racial socialization (ERS) is positively related to ethnic-racial identity (ERI) (Reynolds et al., 2017) and linked to attitudes about skin color or colorism (Crutchfield et al., 2021).

Racial protection. Racial protection is a strategy used to safeguard against racial conflict that helps African American youth cope with RRS (Bentley-Edwards & Stevenson, 2016). Racial protection messages include racial buffering, awareness, and coping skills (Bentley-Edwards & Stevenson, 2016; Hughes & Chen, 1997, as cited in Cooper & McLloyd, 2011). Stevenson (1994) found on the Scale of Racial Socialization for Adolescents (SORS-A) *family teaching of racism* sub-scale that parents use racism awareness teaching to "challenge" youth to reject racist opinions about Black culture with respect to gender differences (p. 463). The Cultural and Racial Experiences of Socialization (CARES) subscale, racial protection of RS, explores racial buffering through mechanisms like affirmations, racism awareness, and racism coping (Bentley-Edwards & Stevenson, 2016).

Bicultural coping. Biculturalism is the process of maintaining one's identity while interacting with society at-large (Phinney & Devich-Navarro, 1997). Bicultural identity development is conceptualized as the interaction between an individual and the environment that occurs internally and in society (Meca et al., 2019). Thus, bicultural coping is a strategy used to reduce stress caused by juggling two concurrent cultural identities (Romero & Roberts, 2003, as cited by Romero et al., 2021) because of problems like experiencing discrimination (Romero et al., 2007). The CARES bicultural coping subscale of RS explores code-switching, assimilation, and managing conflict (Bentley-Edwards & Stevenson, 2016).

Burnout

Burnout is a psychological syndrome caused by chronic work-related stress. The dimensions of burnout include physical or emotional exhaustion, detachment, and a diminished sense of self-efficacy or personal accomplishment (Maslach & Leiter, 2016; Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993). Gradually, burnout depletes one's resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018), creating

meaningless work-related experiences (Barzoki et al., 2018), thus influencing job disengagement (Phillips, 2022). Theoretically, burnout is associated with concepts rooted in clinical, social, personality, and organizational psychology that encompass individual, organizational, and interpersonal perspectives (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993, p. 16). Particularly, the multidimensional model, developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981), is an interpersonal approach to burnout that highlights exhaustion, depersonalization, and a reduced sense of accomplishment from serving or caring for others (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993).

As helping professionals, teachers endure unreasonable job demands while expected to operate as the "background of democracy" for students (U. S. Department of Education, 2023, para 1). Considering teachers interact with students daily, they experience a type of burnout referred to as interpersonal burnout (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993). Teacher burnout emanates from specialized occupational stressors (Druge et al., 2021) like workplace disappointment (Manju, 2018), unrealistic parental expectations, student behavior problems, heavy workloads (Arvidsson et al., 2019); disciplinary issues and fear of abuse from children with disabilities (Mulyani et al., 2021). Teacher burnout is also associated with negative student outcomes. Herman et al. (2017) found among elementary teachers (i.e., Kindergarten through 4th grade), high levels of both stress and burnout were linked to substandard student educational outcomes. In African American teachers, burnout becomes more intricate. For example, American teachers are expected to spearhead race-related issues or discipline minority students (Cormier et al., 2021). Doan et al. (2023) indicated in the *RAND* report U.S. African American teachers reported increased levels of burnout compared to White teachers, along with the intention to exit the profession.

Collegiate Experience

In 2021, the college student population was about 19 million adults (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2022). Among postsecondary students, there were 2.3 million African Americans enrolled in higher learning institutions (NCES, 2022), with seven percent enrolled at HBCUs and 53% enrolled at PWIs (Lake, 2021). The Higher Education Act of 1965 indicates HBCUs are institutions founded prior to 1964 that provide educational access to Black Americans (U.S. Department of Education, n.d.). Though, HBCU is not synonymous with a Predominantly Black Institution (PBI) (Jones, 2000), which are two-year institutions that serve about 6.8% of the African American student population (Jones, 2000; Postsecondary National Policy Institute [PNPI]; 2019). Although PBIs offer lower-income African Americans with academic opportunities, there are advantages to attending an HBCU. The HBCU experience provides African American adults with a supportive learning environment (Genera, 2004) and enhances both racial identity development (Van Camp et al., 2009) and academic confidence (Cokley, 2002). Furthermore, African American students at HBCUs surpass those attending PWIs in cultivating social mobility (Hardy et al., 2019). After controlling for precollege characteristics (e.g., SAT scores), HBCUs show greater educational outcomes for African American students.

In contrast, a PWI is an acronym used to refer to institutions that have "50% or more enrollment from White students" (Gaston & Ojewuji, 2022). Robinson (2018) argued that PWIs better prepare African American students. At PWIs, African American students are forced to interact with unfamiliar individuals and compelled to think about what it means to be Black in uncomfortable spaces (Robinson, 2018). Also, considering socioeconomic status, Hardy et al. (2019) found African American students at PWIs surpassed African Americans at HBCUs in

terms of graduation and retention rates and post-undergraduate salaries. Although 53% of African Americans attend PWIs (Lake, 2021), these institutions are criticized for ostracizing African Americans students (Eakins & Eakins, 2017). For example, African American students enrolled at PWIs report a lack of feeling a sense of belonging (Eakins & Eakins, 2017), which is associated with both positive collegiate experiences and social identity development (Strayhorn, 2015).

In African Americans, the Black racial identity is also a social identity (Cross & Vandiver, 2001). Social identity is mediated by RS (Stanley, 2014); thus, parental RS can influence college choice (Chapman et al., 2018). During the collegiate years, RS is imperative for African American students' adjustment (Anglin & Wade, 2007). RS is associated with successful higher educational outcomes (Wang et al., 2020) and is useful for coping with negative collegiate experiences (Bynum et al., 2007). Negative experiences like RRS are issues at HBCUs and PWIs. African American students often experience environmental and racial microaggressions at PWIs (Campbell et al., 2019; Mills, 2020) and interpersonal racism at HBCUs (Polischuck, 2022).

Problem Statement

A substantial amount of literature has been published on teacher burnout. Teachers experience higher-than-normal burnout rates in comparison to other occupations (Kyriacou, 2015; Steiner & Woo, 2021). In a systematic review on teachers' stress and burnout, Westphal et al. (2022) found that insufficient administrative support predicted the burnout dimension, emotional exhaustion. Westphall et al. (2022) also found teachers' susceptibility to contracting COVID-19 was related to stress and burnout. While Westphal et al.'s research shows the

implications of stress on teachers, his review neglects to explore the effects of stress and burnout, specifically in African American teachers.

African American teachers are more likely to resign from education (Diliberti et al., 2021; Sun, 2018) due to experiencing disproportionate amounts of stress compared to their colleagues (Steiner & Woo, 2021), encountering racism (Kohli et al., 2017), earning less money (Fiddiman et al., 2019), managing the working environment (Ingersoll et al., 2019), and feeling overlooked for leadership roles (Kohli, 2016). In addition, African American teachers often experience RRS because of interacting with race-evasive colleagues (Kohli, 2018) and working in racialized climates (Grooms et al., 2021). Gradually, African American teachers develop RBF, an intricate form of RRS (Pizarro & Kohli, 2020). RBF constitutes the cumulative psychological or emotional effects (Quaye et al., 2019) of working in racialized climates that perpetuate White supremacy (Grooms et al., 2021), microaggressions (Huber & Solorzano, 2015, p. 302; Kohli, 2018; Pizarro & Kohli, 2020) and color-blindness (Ferlazzo, 2020; rejecting racism exists or circumventing race; Mekawi et al., 2020).

RRS is a taxing experience on African Americans (McGee & Stovall, 2015) that is predictive of burnout (Miu & Moore, 2021; Shell et al., 2021a; Shell et al., 2022b; Solomon et al., 2022; Velez et al., 2018). Studies show ethnic teachers receive more family RS and experience more racial discrimination compared to their White colleagues (Bentley-Edwards, 2020). RS buffers RRS (Causey et al., 2022; Jimínez & Glover, 2023) as well as produce positive collegiate experiences (Wang et al., 2020) given that higher educational institutions are the contexts for racial-ethnic socialization (Bentley-Edwards, 2020, p. 19). While RRS, RS, burnout, and collegiate experiences exist in the current literature, the problem is no one, to the best of this researcher's knowledge, has designed a quantitative study investigating the effects of

RRS, RS, and burnout in African American teachers with different collegiate experiences at HBCUs vs. PWIs. Recommendations for future research suggest investigating RS (and racial identity) as prospective mediating and moderating variables between other relationships (Stanley, 2014), examining students' discriminatory experiences enrolled at HBCUs and PWIs (Causey et al., 2022), the effects of college choice and divergent collegiate experiences (Clayton et al., 2023), and college students' identity development and racial socialization (Pittman et al. (2019).

Purpose Statement

This study's purpose is to address the gaps in the literature related to examining the effects of RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences on burnout in African American teachers. Ample research exists on RRS (Brown, 2019; Doan et al., 2023; Kohli et al., 2017; Pizarro & Kohli, 2020), RS (Anderson & Stevenson, 2019; Bentley-Edwards et al., 2020; Hughley et al., 2019; Osborne et al., 2022), collegiate experiences (Elias et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2020) and burnout (Miu & Moore, 2021; Shell et al., 2022b; Solomon et al., 2022). Though, there are limited studies exploring the association between RRS, RS, and burnout explicitly in African American teachers who attended HBCUs vs. PWIs. This study explores if predictor variables, RRS, as measured by the Trauma Symptoms of Discrimination Scale (TSDS) (Williams, 2018) located in Appendix G, RS as measured by the CARES (Bentley-Edwards & Stevenson, 2016) in Appendix A and collegiate experiences (e.g., HBCU or PWI) predict burnout (criterion variable) as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) in Appendix_ in African American teachers. This study examines if predictor variables, racial protection, and bicultural coping of RS as measured by the CARES predict RRS (outcome variable) in African American teachers. This study also uses a moderation analysis to determine if collegiate

experience strengthens or weakens the effects of RRS and RS on burnout and if high RS reduces the effect of RRS on burnout in African American teachers who attended PWIs.

Significance of the Study

This study contributes to the existing literature in several ways. The primary significance is to add to the current research indicating that racism is a chronic public health concern (American Public Health Association [APHA], n.d., p. 1; Bryant & Gimont, 2021; Mendez et al., 2021) and an impetus for disparaging social health outcomes (APHA, n.d.) namely PTSD (Sibrava et al., 2019; Williams et al., 2021b). In racial-ethic groups, the rate of PTSD in African Americans is higher than the national average (Brooks et al., 2020). Lewis et al. (2020) suggested African Americans deflect by using avoidance coping techniques, leading to the development of PTSD. Moreover, among the 11% of teachers experiencing PTSD (Idoiaga Mondragon et al., 2023), RRS is linked to PTSD (e.g., hypervigilance) in African American teachers (Kohli, 2022). Though symptoms manifest contingent on the current social factors (Alford, 2016). Thus, by explicitly surveying African American public-school teachers, this study is to provide insight about RRS and RS experiences leading to burnout.

Tinsley (2018) stated that exploring RS could provide insight for stakeholders who design teacher preparation programs. Tinsley (2018) also indicated preparing educators to dialogue in conversations about their early childhood experiences will assist African American teachers with navigating race-related issues like racial activism stress (i.e., racial discord with coworkers) and racial vicarious stress (i.e., hearing about race-related conflict) (Grooms et al., 2021). The findings of this study may also serve as a portal to promoting anti-colonialism, culturally responsive pedagogy, and critical consciousness (e.g., dismantling inequality) (El-Amin et al., 2017) in teacher preparation programs (Benson et al., 2020)

The secondary significance of the study is to offer awareness for school districts experiencing challenges with recruiting and retaining African American teachers. African Americans will likely experience somatization, depression, and anxiety caused by perceived stress and job dissatisfaction (Howard et al., 2017). In African American teachers, hiring inequities and job dissatisfaction increase stress levels (D'Amico et al., 2017; Farinde et al., 2016). In addition, racial discrimination is a barrier in the recruitment of African American teachers (Boyd-Swan & Herbst, 2019; D'Amico et al., 2017). This is evidenced by D'Amico et al. (2017), who found identifying as Black was negatively related to receiving an offer for employment. Furthermore, African American applicants are less likely to receive employment interviews (Boyd-Swan & Herbst, 2019). Among African American teachers who receive job offers, they are more likely to be hired by an African American administrator and placed in schools with higher concentrations of students of color or students residing in poverty-stricken conditions (Di'Amico et al., 2017, p. 44).

Research Questions

RQ1: Are RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences predictors of burnout in African American teachers?

RQ2: Does racial protection and bicultural coping of RS predict RRS in African American teachers?

RQ3: Does collegiate experience moderate the effect of RRS and RS on burnout in African American teachers?

RQ4: When RS is "high," do African American teachers who attended a PWI have a reduced effect of RRS on burnout than African American teachers who attended an HBCU?

Definitions

1. *African American or Black*- An individual "having origins in any of the Black racial groups of Africa" (U.S. Census Bureau, 2022).
2. *Attrition*-Employees voluntarily or involuntarily exiting an organization (Gartner, 2022).
3. *Bicultural coping*- a coping mechanism used to reduce stress caused by managing one's cultural and mainstream identities (Romero & Roberts, 2003, as cited in Romero et al., 2021)
4. *BIPOC*-Black, Indigenous, and People of Color (Mental Health America, 2023).
5. *Burnout*-A decrease in work engagement due to chronic stress (Pirelli et al., 2020).
6. *Classroom teacher*-An individual employed by a school district responsible for helping students achieve academically (National Education Association, 2022).
7. *Colorism*-Privileges or favoritism granted towards lighter-skin African Americans (Hunter, 2007).
8. *Discrimination*-Unjust treatment or prejudice towards people or groups based on gender, sexual orientation, ethnicity, race, etc. (American Psychological Association, 2023).
9. *Harassment*-Unpleasant behavior or words meant to harm or threaten an individual from a protected class (Equality and Human Rights Commission, n.d.)
10. *Hispanic Black*-A Hispanic (ethnicity) individual who identifies as Black (race)
11. *Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU)*- Any accredited Black college or university founded prior to 1964 with a principal intention to educate African Americans (U. S. Department of Education, n.d.).
12. *Microaggressions*- Direct or subtle behavioral, environmental, or verbal messages that convey hostile or derogatory insults or slights towards persons of color (Sue et al., 2007, p. 271).

13. *Multi-racial*-Individuals who identify as two or more races (e.g., African American/Black and White) (U.S. Census Bureau, n.d.)
14. *People of Color (POC)*-An acronym used to describe marginalized Americans, including African American/Black, Hispanic/Latino, Asian/Pacific Islanders, biracial individuals, and Native Indigenous People (Carter, 2007, p. 18).
15. *Predominantly Black Institutions (PBIs)*- Mainly two-year institutions with 40% of the study body identifying as Black or African American (Post-Secondary National Policy Institute, 2019).
16. *Predominantly White Institutions (PWIs)*- An acronym used to refer to institutions that have "50% or more enrollment from White students" (Gaston & Ojewuji, 2022).
17. *Racial identity*-The psychological characteristics attributed to one's race (Carter, 2007, p. 18).
18. *Racial socialization*- A strategy used specifically by Black or African American parents to convey direct or subtle messages about the Black identity and consequences of race-related stress (Demo & Hughes, 1990).
19. *Race-Related Stress*-Psychological stress caused by racism (Chapman-Hilliard, 2020, p. 551); referred to as with race-based traumatic stress, racial trauma, or race-based stress (Bauer & Saraiya, 2021).
20. *Racism*- A systemic form of prejudice, discrimination, harassment, or hatred grounded on the premise that race holds value and governs certain groups' opportunities based on their physical features or skin color (CDC, 2021).
21. *Secondary Traumatic Stress*-Distress experienced by hearing about other's trauma (National Child Traumatic Stress Network, n.d.)

22. *Self-efficacy*-Belief in controlling one's circumstances, motivation, or capability (American Psychological Association, 2023).
23. *Traumatic Stress*- "A normal reaction to an abnormal event" (American Psychological Association, 2019).
24. *Trauma Symptoms of Discrimination Scale*-A measurement tool used to discriminatory experiences (Williams et al., 2018).
25. *Stress*- "A physical and/or mental response to an external cause" (National Institute of Mental Health, n.d.).
26. *Work-Related Stress*-An imbalance between employees' work demands and abilities preventing the ability to effectively cope (WHO, 2020).

Summary

Chapter one examined the dearth of research on the effects of RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences on burnout in African American teachers. The background of the problem demonstrated that prior studies had shown African American teachers' experience more occupational stress (Steiner & Woo, 2021), RRS (Kohli, 2016), and burnout (Dixon et al., 2019; Doan et al., 2023; Mahatmya et al., 2022). Though, RS buffers RRS (Causey et al., 2022; Jimínez & Glover, 2023) and produces positive collegiate experiences (Wang et al., 2020). The significance of the study conveyed the importance of exploring racial activism and racial vicarious stress (Grooms et al., 2021) in educator preparation programs and hiring against racial discrimination (Boyd-Swan & Herbst, 2019). Chapter one concluded with the research questions and key terms.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

The effects of RSS on African Americans are documented in the literature (Anderson & Stevenson, 2019; Carter, 2007; Franklin-Jackson & Carter, 2007; Williams, 2018). In African American teachers, race-related problems are critically examined through the lens of Critical Race Theory (CRT) (Capper, 2015; Ledesma & Calderón, 2015). While CRT focuses on racial inequities (Capper, 2015) and everyday racism (Ford & Airhihenbuwa, 2010), CRT provides minimal discussion on the damaging effects of RRS on African American teachers (Grooms et al., 2021; Pizarro & Koli, 2020; Ramirez & Williams, 2018). To provide context for this study, Chapter Two provides an overview of the theoretical and conceptual frameworks used for this study. This chapter also examines the existing literature pertaining to race-related stress, racial socialization, and burnout in African American teachers who attended HBCUs and PWIs.

Conceptual and Theoretical Framework

A theoretical framework is the foundation of a research study. The theoretical framework functions as a blueprint of a house (Grant & Osanlo, 2014); each room in the house holds a unique purpose (Kivunja, 2018, p. 47). The theoretical framework establishes the vision for the study by identifying and deconstructing theories into clusters (Crawford, 2020). An appropriate theory (or theories) is selected contingent on the study's background, problem, and purpose and furthermore explains how the theory will advance research in that area (Crawford, 2020). Comparably, the conceptual framework is the study's floorplan that maintains the flow of the study (Grant & Osanlo, 2014). The conceptual framework integrates concepts, structures, empirical findings, and underlying motives of the research study (Kivunja, 2018). The conceptual framework also highlights the study's significance and offers a logical justification

for the relationships among variables for the research design and methodology (Crawford, 2020). In addition, the conceptual framework allows for a synthesis of knowledge from a myriad of perspectives about the research topic (Crawford, 2020). The Transactional Model of Stress and Coping is the blueprint or theoretical framework for this study. The conceptual framework explores the relationships between RRS, RS, collegiate experience, and burnout in African American teachers.

Transactional Model of Stress and the Coping

In 1966, Richard Lazarus merged existing health, coping, and stress research studies. He drew attention to the stressor which lies at the heart of a stressful experience. Lazarus (1966) posited stress is an interaction between a person and the environment. Lazarus' interpretation of the influence of stressors is the foundation for the transactional model of stress and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Extending on Hans Selye's conceptualization of stressors, Lazarus and Cohen (1977), as cited by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), suggested stressors are daily hassles (e.g., irritating situations) and events that generate paramount changes affecting one person, a few people, or groups (p. 12). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) elucidated stress is not a variable; instead, through transactions, stress is a relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised as taxing or exceeding one's resources for coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 19). However, due to individual differences, stress is a subjective experience (Sergeston & Smith, 2019) mediated by cognitive appraisals (Campbell et al., 2013; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Cognitive appraisal and coping are the principal constructs of the transactional model of stress and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Appraisals are processes of arranging or assessing if events are relevant (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 31). Meaning one's perception elicits

affective responses in stressful circumstances (Lazarus, 1991). Thus, Lazarus and Folkman (1987) posited that information and appraisal function in the emotion process. Information is what is known, whereas appraisal is the implicit meaning of information (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987). A primary appraisal is the significance of what is occurring (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The person unconsciously or consciously (Lazarus, 1991) determines if the stressor is neutral, negative, or positive (Campbell et al., 2013). Stress appraisals are deemed as either harmful due to prior experiences, threatening because of the anticipation of stress, a challenging experience serving as an opportunity for advancement, or a beneficial experience (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987, p. 145). A beneficial (or harmful) experience depends on one's socio-cultural circumstances and intrapsychic traits (e.g., motivation and cognition) (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987, p. 145).

Primary appraisals are also linked to one's emotions (Folkman, 2013). For example, Folkman (2013) associated emotions like anxiety and fear with threats, guilt with harm, and excitement with challenges. A secondary appraisal is evaluating the resources required to respond or cope with the stressor (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Secondary appraisals permeate emotions (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985); a person decides how much control (or lack thereof) to manage consequences (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) also discussed re-appraisals. During the reappraisal process, the person adapts by modifying behaviors or thoughts to manage internal or external demands (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). This is achieved through the utilization of problem-focused and emotion-focused coping skills.

Coping is the secondary construct of the transactional model of stress and coping. Lazarus and Folkman (1987) conveyed coping is a mediator of one's short-term emotional responses to either alter the person-environmental transaction (e.g., problem-focused coping) or

to regulate one's emotions (emotion-focused coping) (p. 47). Coping encompasses evaluating one's behaviors and thoughts contradictory to what is occurring (or has occurred) based on specific situations, time, or across different conditions (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987, p. 143). In addition, coping styles (e.g., Type A or Type B) and cognitive characteristics like cognitive controls (e.g., structures mediating motivational states and responses) (Gardner, 1959) influence coping with stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Lazarus and Folkman (1987) elaborated on the relevance of coping mechanisms in relation to one's emotional responses. Emotional responses are systems arranged as person antecedents (e.g., beliefs), environmental antecedents (e.g., demands, resources), mediators (e.g., appraisals), and short-term and long-term effects. Lazarus and Folkman (1987) explained emotional responses become a gradual or cross-situational process of change as both primary and secondary appraisals mediate emotional responses (p. 147) when one wants to alter the transaction (e.g., problem-focused) or regulate emotions (e.g., emotion-focused).

Lazarus (1996) described problem-focused coping as confronting the emotions associated with threat or harm. Comparably, Lazarus (1996) shared emotional regulation, or emotion-focused coping, explicitly self-regulation skills, emphasizes how to handle emotional reactions through introspection. During this process, an individual identifies the availability of positive coping skills (e.g., humor, kindness) or negative coping skills (e.g., rumination) (Stanislawksi, 2019). Secondary appraisals also consider taking accountability (e.g., accepting responsibility for the results) and deciding if the situation will change or what is considered future expectancy (Smith & Lazarus, 1993).

Race-Related Stress

Carter (2007) postulated stress is detrimental when the response is prolonged or manifests into trauma. Racism is a form of stress (Clark et al., 1999; Stevenson, 2020), proliferating stress in other areas of life (Pearlin et al., 2005). Racism is ubiquitous, hence the absence of a universal definition (Clark et al., 1999). However, psychological or emotional responses to cumulative actual or perceived life-threatening experiences with racism constitute RRS (Carter, 2006, pp. 1-2; Comas-Diaz et al., 2019; Polanco-Roman et al., 2016). In other literature, RRS is referred to as racial trauma (Bauer & Saraiya, 2021; Williams et al., 2021a; Williams et al., 2018b), race-based traumatic stress (Bauer & Saraiya, 2021; Carter, 2007), racism-related stress, insidious trauma, or race-based stress (Bauer & Saraiya, 2021). RRS can elicit a physical reaction described as racism-related fatigue or a self-protection defense mechanism referred to as an anticipatory racism reaction (Utsey, 2001).

The pervasiveness of RRS is documented in stress theory. According to the transactional model of stress and coping, stress is a relationship between the person and environment that is appraised as taxing or exceeding one's resources for coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 19). From Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) model, RRS is African Americans' transactions and their environments that perpetuate racism (Utsey et al., 2001). Though, Slavin et al. (1991) pointed out that the limitation of Lazarus and Folkman's model is the absence of cultural relevance. Slavin et al. (1991) adapted Lazarus and Folkman's model. Slavin and colleagues introduced the Multicultural Model of the Stress Process, which explores RRS from a culturally relevant lens. Like perceived stress, RRS stress is appraised as a potential threat or harm and then secondarily appraised through either coping or adapting to the stressor (Slavin et al., 1991). When the race-related stressor is manageable, one study found African Americans use similar coping skills for

physical pain and emotional pain (e.g., religion/spirituality, seeking social support) (Jacob et al., 2023). Prolonged RRS may be understood in terms of racial trauma (Carter, 2007), which can lead to the development of PTSD (Maeng & Milad, 2017). However, susceptibility is contingent on individual differences, certain predispositions (Carter, 2007, p. 25), and resources (Carter & Scheuermann, 2020).

RRS elicits intrusion, avoidance, and arousal, which are symptoms aligned with the PTSD criteria set forth in the Diagnostic Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5) (Carter, 2007). Williams et al. (2018b) conveyed race-related experiences potentially qualifying for a PTSD diagnosis under Criterion A, including experiencing occupational discrimination (e.g., racial threats at work) or hearing racial slurs or threats. Carter (2007) also found that certain race-related experiences elicit certain PTSD symptoms. Racial harassment is positively associated with hypervigilance, while racial discrimination is associated with avoidance (Carter & Forsyth, 2010). In a more recent review of the literature on RRS, Carter et al. (2017) described that distinguishing between what constitutes a racist encounter is mainly dependent on racial identity development and related in-group differences (p. 31). Although identity formation and in-group differences can potentially alter perceived racism,

The evaluation of racial trauma is not captured in standard clinical assessments because of the limitations in the PSTD criteria (Carter, 2007). The Index of Race-Related Stress (IRRS) (Utsey & Ponterrotto, 1996), the Perceived Ethnic Discrimination Questionnaire (PEDQ) (Brondolo et al., 2005), the Race-Based Traumatic Stress Symptom Scale (RBTSS) (Carter, 2007), and the Trauma Symptoms of Discrimination (TSDS) (Williams, 2018) are a few measures used to evaluate the effects of RRS.

Trauma Symptoms of Discrimination Scale

The TSDS (Williams et al., 2018) was created to address both diagnostic errors and the complicated scoring process found in Carter's RBTSS (Williams et al., 2021). The TSDS examines symptoms associated with anxiety because of discriminatory experiences. Williams et al. (2018) administered the TSDS to over 100 African American undergraduate college students. As a result, Williams et al. (2018) found hyperarousal, feeling alienated, perceiving others as dangerous, and worries about the future as race-related stress reactions. Though the TSDS is not limited to measuring racism, the TSDS also captures issues surrounding sexism, poverty, or homophobia (2023).

Cultural and Racial Experiences of Socialization (CARES)

Racial and ethnic socialization (R/ES) captures the intricate verbal and nonverbal intergenerational messages transmitted by parents or extended family members (Bentley-Edwards & Stevenson, 2016; Blackmon et al., 2016). African Americans' R/ES is achieved through racial identity development. Black identity development integrates multiple behaviors, messages, or interactions. (Bowman & Howard, 1985; Boykin & Toms, 1985; Hughes et al., 2006; Stephenson, 1994, as cited by Neblett et al., 2016). As a protective strategy, African Americans parents facilitate conversations about racial bias and discrimination (Hughes et al., 2006; Simon, 2021) and how to cope with RRS (Bentley-Edwards & Stevenson, 2016). For example, Stevenson (1994) found on the Scale of Racial Socialization for Adolescents (SORS-A) *family teaching of racism* sub-scale that parents use racism awareness teaching to "challenge" youth to reject racist opinions about Black culture (p. 463). Similarly, Bentley-Edwards and Stevenson (2016) used racial protection, a sub-scale of the CARES scale to appraise racial

buffering, or the psychological tactics used when experiencing explicit racism (Cross & Vandiver, 2001), racism awareness, and racism coping (Bentley-Edwards & Stevenson, 2016).

Racial socialization messages are divided into messages that promote racial barriers or racial pride. Racial barrier messages warn youth about racial inequalities (Hughes & Chen, 1997). The most common racial barrier message is "The Talk" (Solis, 2021, para 1). This conversation teaches youth about racial policing, specifically, how to behave and respond when interacting with law enforcement (Anderson, 2021). Racial socialization messages also promote racial pride through slogans such as *Black Girl Magic* (Osterheldt, 2021). Furthermore, RS messages address color-blindness (i.e., believing race is irrelevant) (Gaskin, 2015, para. 3), encourage mistrust or wariness of interacting with other racial groups (Hughes et al., 2006, p. 757), and promote egalitarianism or the notion of individualism and remaining silent about race-related issues (Hughes et al., 2006). Given the complexities of African American racial socialization practices, Bentley-Edwards and Stevenson (2016) warranted the necessity of a scale that would measure adaptive and maladaptive messages expressed in African American families. The CARES scale explores racial socialization messages to a greater degree. The measure is divided into the following five psychosocial groups: racial protection, cultural insights, racial stereotyping, bicultural coping, and old-school cultural thinking (Bentley-Edwards & Stevenson, 2016, p. 103).

Racial Protection

Racial protection is a strategy used to safeguard against racial conflict that helps African American youth cope with RRS (Bentley-Edwards & Stevenson, 2016).

Bicultural Coping

According to Romero and Roberts (2003), as cited by Romero et al., 2021, bicultural coping is a strategy used to reduce stress caused by juggling two concurrent cultural identities. Bicultural conflicts are commonly seen in education. For example, African American students are forced to maintain their loyalty to the Black community or assimilate in the dominant school culture (Fordham & Ogbu, 1986).

Burnout

Burnout is a syndrome caused by chronic work-related stress. Burnout creates depersonalization (i.e., cynicism), psychological, spiritual, or physical exhaustion, and a reduced sense of personal achievement (Cummings et al., 2021; Maslach & Leiter, 2016). In 1974, Herbert Freudenberger and Sigmund Ginsburg introduced burnout in two different research studies (Heinemann & Heinemann, 2017). However, Freudenberger is credited for associating emotional exhaustion with prolonged work-related stress (Heinemann & Heinemann, 2017, p.2). Prolonged work-related stress is linked to pervasive mental health symptoms, with burnout serving as a mediator for developing anxiety and depressive disorders (Arzoo & Ali, 2022; Fortes et al., 2020; Papathanasiou et al., 2017). Studies reveal depression is a costly work-related problem responsible for employee disability, absenteeism, job turnover, and reduced productivity (Calitz et al., 2021, p.) across multiple professional disciplines. Burnout is also linked to other psychological stress-related conditions, including secondary traumatic stress (STS), vicarious trauma (VT), and compassion fatigue (CF) (Riethof & Bob, 2019). Since its inception, burnout has been reported to impact anyone functioning in a helping capacity, including responders, attorneys, firefighters, police officers, attorneys, counselors, and educators (Izzo & Miller, 2010). Burnout can also be experienced socially (e.g., a victim of a workplace bully) or individually

(e.g., depressive symptoms, perfectionism). Hatch et al. (2019) conveyed occupational and socially mediated burnout experiences negatively influence mental health.

In public education, burnout is influenced by special occupational stressors that are different from other helping professionals (Druge et al., 2021). In a survey of 315 teachers, Szempruch (2018) found respondents experience high levels of burnout consistent with Maslach's burnout measure (e.g., depersonalization, exhaustion, and reduced sense of personal commitment) in addition to physical fatigue. The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) is the gold standard for measuring burnout (Williamson et al., 2018). An extension of the MBI, the MBI-ES is a burnout measure tailored for use with educators. The MBI-ES measures emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment, and depersonalization experiences and includes a survey (i.e., Areas of Worklife) (Mind Garden, 2023) assessing one's perception of the organizational climate possibly leading to burnout (Mind Garden, 2023).

Related Literature

Education of African Americans

The tumultuous narratives of African Americans' quest for educational opportunity, access, and equality were influenced by the Transatlantic slave trade (Bertocchi & Dimico, 2014). Prior to the American Revolutionary War, the 1739 Stono Slave Rebellion uprising led to barring freed and enslaved African Americans from learning to read or write (Black Past, 2023; Niven, 2016). Thus, the consequences for attempting to teach African Americans to read or write were whippings, fines, imprisonment, or death (Maddox, 2022). At the start of the 19th century, several educational advancements emerged for African Americans. Mathilda Beasley, the first African American Catholic nun, established a secret school in Savannah, Georgia (Maddox,

2022; Withun, 2018), while Susie King Taylor, who covertly learned to read and write, is noted as the first African American teacher (James, 2007).

In 1865, the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands, referred to as the Freedmen's Bureau (Ebony, 1971, p. 15), provided academic access, training opportunities, and basic needs for freed African Americans and White refugees (Ebony, 1971a). By 1870, the Freedmen's Bureau established approximately 4, 000 day and evening schools (Ebony, 1971a). The bureau gave African Americans access to colleges and universities because the First Morrill Act of 1862 prohibited African Americans from attending land-grant universities (Lawrence, 2022). Subsequently, the Second Morrill Act of 1890 lifted race restrictions and required states to either provide separate land-grants for African American students or prove that race was not a decision factor for admission (Lawrence, 2022). In lieu of land, Black learning institutions received money, resulting in the establishment of 19 HBCUs (Lawrence, 2022). Following the Second Morrill Act of 1890, the *Plessy vs. Ferguson* U. S. Supreme Court sanctioned *separate but equal* facilities (National Constitution Center [NCC], 2023).

School segregation safeguarded African American students from harm (Coats, 2010, as cited by Evans, n.d.). However, the availability of resources and funding were incongruent for segregated schools (Evans, n.d., p. 2). The buildings used for educating African American students were dilapidated, dirty, and overcrowded (Brooker, 2022). African American teachers were restricted from teaching certain concepts (i.e., equality) (Brooker, 2020, para. 13), earned less compensation compared to White teachers (Brooker, 2020), and often used their personal finances to fund schools (Organization of American Historians [OAH], 2023). Segregated schools served as a portal to the sustainability and propagation of racism in schools located in the South and Northern ghettos (Ebony, 1971b) (i.e., clustering of African Americans to certain

areas due to segregation) (Cutler et al., 1999). Thus, a protest became a pivotal moment in desegregating public schools.

In 1954, the *Brown vs. Board of Education of Topeka* case became a critical moment for African Americans. The Supreme Court ruled "*separate but equal"* as unconstitutional (National Archives, 2021). Though, school desegregation was criticized as an "act of charity" contrary to a means to dismantle racial segregation (Wells, 2001, p. 779), evidenced by laws that prohibited African American student enrollment (Old Dominion University, n.d.). Moreover, African American teachers were fired from their jobs (Lutz, 2017), and institutions designed to protect employment rights were weakened after the court's ruling (Thompson, 2022). Some teachers, particularly in the South, either migrated to other areas or obtained lowered skilled occupations (Thompson, 2019, p. 3). Presently, studies show desegregation continues to infringe on African American teachers, evidenced by structural inequities pertaining to recruitment (D'Amico et al., 2017), hiring (Boyd-Swan & Herbst, 2019), and job promotion (Kohli, 2016).

Higher Education and African-Americans

Desegregation negatively impacted African American students in higher education. Through positive immunity, lawmakers sought to diminish racial discrimination in public learning institutions (Hill et al., 2021, p. 40). For example, in 1950, the U.S. Supreme court ruled that African American students could enroll at White colleges and universities (e.g., *Sweatt vs. Painter*, case *McLaurin v. Oklahoma* case) (Hill et al., 2021). In 1961, policymakers ruled against race-based decision-making in admission processes (Evan, n.d.). However, in 1963, the *Stand in the Schoolhouse Door* incident occurred when Alabama Governor George Wallace protested both Vivian Malone and James Hood's admission to the University of Alabama (Black

Then, 2021; Evans, n.d., Legal Defense Fund, 2023). Hence, the prohibition of segregation in colleges and universities did not alleviate the effects of race-related stress.

The literature shows among African American college students, approximately 40% report experiencing mental health symptoms and suicidality (e.g., suicide ideations and attempts) (Russell, 2021). African American students also experience more discriminatory stress in comparison to White college students (Bravo et al., 2021). Bravo et al. (2021) also found commonalities and differences in appraised stress related to discrimination in the sample of racial-ethnic student groups. Latinx, Asian, White, and African American students appraised stress is associated with depression, anxiety, sleep irregularities, and anger (Bravo et al., 2021); however, suicidal ideations were only relevant to the Asian and African American students (Bravo et al., 2021). Studies have indicated that marijuana use (Floyd, 2023), Africultural coping (i.e., coping strategies embedded in the African American culture) (Constantine et al., 2002), and depression (Morrison & Hopkins, 2019) increase suicidality in African American college students. Despite the social and psychological demands of rising adulthood and college adjustment, African American students enrolled at HBCUs and PWIs share similar race-related stressors caused by systemic racism (Mushonga & Henneberger, 2020).

HBCUs encourage leadership, community service, and political involvement (Thurgood Marshall College Fund, 2019), as well as produce more Black graduates in science, math, and technology, service disadvantaged groups, and better prepare students for life after college (HBCU First, 2023). Despite the advantages, African American students attending HBCUs experience depression and anxiety (Polishchuk, 2022), sexual minority stress (e.g., identity issues and discrimination) (Polishchuck, 2022), in-group race-related stress (Gasman & Abiola, 2016), and school-related stressors (e.g., paying for college and career readiness) (Sun, 2021).

In comparison to HBCUs, African American students at PWIs are compelled to ponder about what it means to be a Black particularly person in uncomfortable situations (Robinson, 2018). Randall (2018) indicated that PWIs prepare African American students for the real-world. Randall (2018) criticized HBCUs for lower admission standards and less rigorous curriculums in comparison to PWIs. However, these claims lack sufficient empirical support as Greer and Chwalisz (2007) found that African American students at PWIs have lower grade point averages and are unlikely to pursue graduate studies. At PWIs, African American students' report racial discrimination (Russell, 2021), personal invalidation, and limited academic support (Barker, 2016). Race-related stress and acculturation conflicts are positively related to alcohol use and coping-motivated drinking (Pittman et al., 2019). Nonetheless, stress and race-related stress affect African Americans students at both HBCUs and PWIs through in-group discrimination.

Colorism is a form of skin-tone discrimination that provides certain advantages and privileges to lighter-skinned African Americans (Hunter, 2007; McCombs, n.d.) or those who possess Eurocentric phenotypes (Monk, 2021). Colorism is rooted in chattel slavery (Hariss, 2008), where lighter-skinned slaves were favored over darker skin slaves (Monk, 2021). Generally, lighter skin slaves were allowed to work in the house, whereas darker-skinned slaves were required to work in the fields (Hunter, 2007). Post-abolition, the color hierarchy persisted in multiple facets of the African American culture. For example, Monk (2021) reported darker skin African Americans are more likely to receive harsher punishments (e.g., the death penalty) or earn less money. Among the workforce, lighter skin African Americans often hold prestigious positions (e.g., doctors).

In the past, those who desired access to churches, social clubs, or Black Greek letter organizations (BGLOs), admission was often granted by passing color tests (McCombs, n.d.) like

the brown paper bag test (Kerr, 2005) or the pencil test (Monk, 2021). BGLOs were established to promote scholarships, servitude, and connections among African American college students (Roberts et al., 2008). However, BGLOs like Alpha Kappa Alpha (AKA) Sorority denied membership to those who failed the paper bag test (Brown et al., 2005). Thus, colorism remains a relevant concern at HBCUs (Gasman & Abiola, 2016) and PWIs (Harris, 2021; Lee, 2019). Colorism perpetuates skin-tone trauma or events mediated by the color of one's skin that generate traumatic stress reactions (Landor & McNeil-Smith, 2019).

Neurobiology of Stress

Hans Selye, a renowned endocrinologist and founder of the stress theory, is credited for discovering the relationship between stress and illness (Tan & Yip, 2018, p. 2). After injecting a hormone into rats, Selye (1976) discovered the rats' bodies were under attack. Specifically, Selye observed enlargements in the adrenal cortex (i.e., releases hormones from the adrenal glands during distress) (John Hopkins Medicine, 2023), shrinkage of the spleen, thymus, and lymph nodes, and stomach and small intestine hemorrhages (Selye, 1976, p. 5). These alterations led to the development of General Adaptation Syndrome. In living things, Selye viewed stress as a "non-specific response of the body to any demand for change" that never organically transpires; instead, responses become convoluted by secondary actions of the stressors (Selye, 1950, p. 1384; Tonhajzerova & Mestanik, 2017, p. 173). The stress response incorporates three stages the alarm (i.e., fight or flight response), resistance (i.e., slower Hypothalamic-Pituitary-Adrenal; HPA activation), and exhaustion (i.e., stressor creates maladaptive states; Tonhajzerova & Mestanik, 2017). However, the central limitation in Selye's theory is the focus on physiological reactions to stress. In 1984, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) expanded on Selye's GAS theory by explaining how stress reactions also include cognitive and emotive components.

Stress theory is a social exposition about stress. Stress theories propose stress occurs when situational demands are perceived to extend beyond one's control (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Schupp, 2015). Perceived stress is the thoughts and emotions that influence how individuals perceive certain life events as stressful within a specific period (Cohen et al., 1983, as cited by Boluarte-Carbajal et al., 2021). Comparably, perceived stress is also seen as the inability to cope with a genuine or imagined threat that jeopardizes one's emotional, spiritual, physical, or mental wellness (Seaward, 2015, as cited by Schupp, 2015, p. 1). Taarborksy et al. (2020) stated that perceived stress is contingent on internal and external conditions and the nature of the stressors. However, earlier research suggests that perceived stress is linked to anticipation (Salposky, 2004). According to Salposky (2004), the anticipation of an event is the literal stressor. Salposky's explained in *Why Zebras Don't Get Ulcers* that humans are distressed by situations senseless to zebras. Dissimilar to zebras, homo sapiens ruminate about the possibility of an upcoming event; hence, anticipatory anxiety disrupts homeostasis (Salposky, 2004, p. 6). Henceforth, nonnormative, chronic, or repeated stressful experiences become traumatic stress.

Trauma and Traumatic Stress

Stress and traumatic stress share comparable features. Stress emerges into traumatic stress when a normal stress response is preceded by a potentially life-threatening or altering event (Schupp, 2015, p. 3). Unlike normative stressors, traumatic stressors like adverse childhood experiences (ACEs) and potentially traumatic events that occur between birth to 17 years old (CDC, 2023) are unavoidable and terrifying events. Connell et al. (2018) stated that by age 18, most will have experienced a potentially traumatic event. Terr (1991) clarified traumatic events are either Type I (single-event) or Type II (multiple-events).

Type I single-event traumas constitute, for example, surviving a natural disaster (e.g., hurricane, tornado, or volcano eruption), hearing (i.e., vicarious trauma [VT]) about a terrorist attack, witnessing a loved one pass away, or working with a trauma survivor (i.e., secondary traumatic stress [STS]). Type I traumas do not induce numbing responses, self-injury, or denial (Terr, 1991), unlike Type II trauma.

Type II encapsulates multiple traumas or complex traumas that generate intense and prolonged psychological distress. Type II traumas elicit traumatic stress reactions consistent with PTSD symptoms and affect dysregulation (Dvir et al., 2014), dissociation (i.e., splitting or disconnecting from emotions, thoughts, and feelings) (Chu, 2011; Sanderson, 2013), and self-destructive behaviors, and alterations in meaning, self-concept, memory and somatization (Sanderson, 2013). Type II trauma survivors aim to protect their psyche and may dissociate and repress thoughts, feelings, and emotions to protect the self or engage in self-anesthesia (Terr, 1991, p. 15). Stefanovic et al. (2022) suggested through their results that differences between Type I and Type II traumas are differences in the structure or co-occurrence of PTSD symptoms (p. 8).

When stress is chronic or toxic, the body's fear response activates fight, flight, or freeze stress. Stress hormones (e.g., glucocorticoids, neurohormones, adrenaline) intercede with the body, modifying the brain's architecture and central nervous system (Tarorksy et al., 2021; Uhnerick, 2017; Yaribeygi et al., 2017). Recurrent stressful encounters suppress the immune system from developing and releasing lymphocytes and generating antibodies for disease prevention (Salposky, 2004). Consequently, the brain becomes immobilized (McEwen & Akil, 2020) and influences behavioral, mental, or physiological tension, increasing the trajectory of disease development (Cohen, 2019; Kuebel, 2019, p. 53). The accumulation of chronic stress

disrupts homeostasis or equilibrium, forcing the body to recover through allostasis. When the body depletes its resources, it recalibrates internally and then externally to adapt to the changes (Mushiake, 2022).

The Adaptive Calibration Model proposes that conditional adaptation contributes to different stress responses (Tonhajzerova & Mestanik, 2017). Conditional adaptation is the assumption of individual differences in response to stress (Tonhajzerova & Mestanik, 2017). The model incorporates several developmental and physiological theories and concepts, including Porges' polyvagal theory of social engagement (i.e., the importance of social relationships during adversity), tend-and-befriend (i.e., female stress response when caring for children) (Taylor et al., 2000, as cited by Tonhajzerova & Mestanik, 2017), allostasis theory (e.g., proactively adjusting physical reactions to the anxious anticipation) (Ganzel et al. 2010, and hawks versus doves, or the fight/flight or freeze response. Moreover, the contributors describe the adaptive process as the long-term activation of stress during the early years, succeeded by hyperactivation and susceptibility to health disparities during adulthood (Tonhajzerova & Mestanik, 2017, p. 176). This model also supports the concepts of individual differences regarding gender, race, or occupation.

As part of a systematic review of the literature regarding the effects of stress, allostatic loads (ALs), and health outcomes, Guidi et al. (2020) reported that increased levels of ALs are associated with job stress and burnout in addition to less physical activity, lower socioeconomic status, diabetes, cancer, substance use, and psychopathology (e.g., depression, somatization, anxiety, and post-traumatic stress disorder). Guidi et al. (2020) also reported higher ALs in African Americans compared to Whites. Additional stress studies support their findings (Duru et al., 2012; Skinner et al., 2011) and link elevated ALs to cardiovascular and metabolic conditions

and racial discrimination (Thorpe et al., 2016). Given the consequences of trauma, Magruder et al. (2017) declared that trauma is a global public health concern and generally accepted that traumatic stress is linked to PTSD (Mew et al., 2022). Though, traditional and more recent psychological theories explain the development and prolongation of PTSD.

Theories Traumatic Stress

Existing theoretical models of traumatic stress suggest how one responds to a distressing event(s) and the PTSD sequelae. As a psychobiological condition, PTSD symptoms work collaboratively, and through these reciprocal interactions, individuals suffer from behavioral, psychological, and physiological problems (Wilson, 2004). Prolonged stress transforms into traumatic stress, functioning as a risk factor for developing PTSD (Maeng & Milad, 2017). The biological and fear conditioning theories propose the development, maintenance, and sustainability of PTSD; thus, these models do not explicitly expand on the effects in African Americans and race-related stress.

Biological Model

The biological model of traumatic stress posits vulnerability to trauma or PTSD is linked to genetic inheritability. Jiang et al. (2019) suggested that traumatic stress encodes in the deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) sequence. Repetitive DNA protein structures, telomeres, are found at the ends of chromosomes (National Human Genome Research Institute [NHGRI] 2023, para. 1) that damage immune cells caused by stress and inflammation (Lin & Epel, 2022). Consistent with Selye's findings on stress and immunity, shorter telomeres are directly related to diseases (Lin & Epel, 2022). Telomere length is also positively associated to paternal inheritability (Njajou et al., 2007). Therefore, the likelihood of developing PTSD rests on heritable encodes transferred from the parents to their children (Jiang, 2019). 30% to 40% of PTSD inheritability is

through DNA (Cornelis et al., 2010; Stein et al., 2002; True et al., 1993, as cited by Marinova & Maecker, 2015).

Biological models focus on the brain's reward system (dopaminergic system [DA] (Baik et al., 2019), the HPA, and serotonin transporters. The hypothalamus releases dopamine during stressful encounters. However, when experiencing chronic stress, dopamine becomes inhibited and subsequently leads to depressive symptoms (Baik et al., 2019). Moreover, weakened dopamine levels in the amygdala have been linked to stress responses (Uddin et al., 2012), mitigating the experience of PTSD. During psychological distress, dopamine release matches the degree of cortisol (Ryan et al., 2016). Over time, the overexposure of dopamine, epinephrine, cortisol, and other stress hormones, the body recalibrates the trauma survivor's body (Wilson, 2004, p. 14).

In African Americans, research suggests trauma is passed through genetic transmission, altering the stress response (Post, 2021). The experience of race-related stress is reported to shorten telomeres, increasing susceptibility to mental health conditions (Post, 2021). Lu et al. (2019) found that African American women who did not disclose their encounters with everyday discrimination had shorter telomeres. Comparably, in African American men, Chae et al. (2014) found a positive relationship between mortality and disease-related aging (i.e., shorter leukocyte telomere length), racial discrimination, and racial bias. Though, the adverse biological outcomes experienced among African American men and women are possibly related to fear conditioning.

Fear Conditioning and Learning

Fear conditioning and learning theories emphasize how fear is processed and stored after a potentially traumatic event (Ford & Greene, 2017). Fear conditioning and learning theories are grounded in classical and operant conditioning. Classical conditioning is a form of

associative learning (Lissek, 2015) or learning based on relationships established between one's senses and the environment (Christoforou, 2021). Ivan Pavlov posited when a conditioned stimulus is followed by an unpleasant (unconditioned) stimulus then the conditioned stimulus generates a fear response (Beckers et al., 2023). Classical conditioning elicits fear responses (e.g., intrusion/re-experiencing) (Nijdam & Wittmann, 2015) that are related to the development of PTSD (Ford & Greene, 2017), whereas operant conditioning is responsible for maintaining PTSD symptoms (Ford & Green, 2017) like avoidance through reinforcement (Gonzalez-Prendes & Resko, 2011). Non-associative behaviors induce PTSD habituation (e.g., hyperarousal or hypervigilance) (Lissek, 2015) in response to unrelated stimuli. Webb et al. (2022) found racial discrimination in African Americans modified connectivity in the amygdala (i.e., an almond-shaped structure responsible for emotional regulation) and the anterior insula (i.e., synchronizes feelings into thoughts and motivation) (Namkung et al., 2017) which produced symptoms of vigilance and hyperarousal.

Distressing race-related memories or thoughts experienced at work are stored in the amygdala (i.e., emotions) and hippocampus (i.e., memory and learning), and therefore, re-experiencing persists due to the failure to eliminate the conditioned fear response (VanElzakker et al., 2014, p. 10). On the other hand, operant conditioning modifies one's behavior or sustains learned behavior due to powerlessness (Ford & Green, 2017). Whether associative or non-associative, maladjustment pathology creates post-traumatic stress experiences (Lissek & van Meurs, 2015) that could alter beliefs about race-related experiences.

PTSD as The Prolonged Stress Response

Trauma is deemed a public health concern, given its association with the development of PTSD (Magruder et al. (2017). PTSD is the body's prolonged stress response to traumatic stress

(Wilson, 2004). In 2020, the U.S. Department of Veteran Affairs (2023) reported that 13 million adults suffered from PTSD, with a higher incidence rate in women. Women are two to three times more likely to experience sexual victimization (Olff, 2017) and reside in poverty-stricken conditions (Golin et al., 2016). Among minorities, Latinx, Native Americans/Alaskan Natives, and African Americans are more vulnerable in developing PTSD in comparison to other races (APA, 2023a).

The *Diagnostic Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders-5* (*DSM-5*) denotes PTSD as a Trauma-and-Stressor Related Disorder (APA, 2013c). PTSD is defined as exposure to a threatened or actual death, injury, or violence (Knipscheer et al., 2020, p. 1) through directly witnessing, experiencing, or learning about an event (APA, 2013). Following exposure, individuals experience intrusion or re-experiencing (e.g., trauma-related memories, thoughts, flashbacks, or dreams; emotional distress or physical reactions to internal or external cues representative of the event (APA, 2013); avoidance (any effort made to evade either intrusive symptoms or environmental reminders eliciting psychological distress (APA, 2013); negative alterations in mood and cognition (e.g., gaps in memory or amnesia about the traumatic event not induced by a traumatic brain injury or substance use); cognitive distortions about oneself or others; persistent negative emotions (e.g., fear, guilt, shame); anhedonia or difficulty experiencing pleasure, detachment, or lack of interest in pleasurable activities; and alterations in arousal and reactivity, intense alertness (i.e., hypervigilance), self-destructive behaviors, hyperarousal, sleeping irregularities, and difficulties with concentration (APA, 2013). Symptoms must persist for more than one month and significantly interfere with one's daily functioning (APA, 2013).

Exposure to a potentially traumatic event is not indicative of the development of PTSD (APA, 2023a). Through appraisals, an individual decides if the event is deemed stressful (Lazarus & Folkmans, 1984.) Trauma studies show a strong relationship between negative appraisals and PTSD (Gomez de la Cuesta et al., 2019) that are subject to gender and racial-ethnic differences (Valentine et al., 2019). Nadal et al. (2019) found a strong associated between race/culture and traumatic experiences. In the same study, Nadal et al. (2019) reported individuals who associate race or culture with their traumatic experiences yielded higher scores on the PTSD Checklist for DSM-5 (PCL-5), a 20-item checklist measuring PTSD symptoms (U.S. Department of Veteran Affairs, 2022). In racial-ethnic groups, African Americans are more susceptible to developing PTSD (APA, 2023a) by cause of the long-term psychological pain resulting from historical trauma (Rogers & Bryant-Davis, 2020).

PTSD and African Americans. The PTSD incidence is elevated in African Americans compared to White Americans (Roberts et al., 2011) and higher than the national average (Brooks et al., 2020). Among the general population, the prevalence of PTSD is 3.5% (APA, 2023a), which is disproportionate to the 8.7% of African American men and women who have PTSD (Lu et al., 2022). Nearly 18.3% of African Americans are underdiagnosed (Lu et al., 2022; Magruder et al., 2015) as well as undertreated (Magruder et al., 2015) for PTSD. African Americans are more likely to develop PTSD because of childhood sexual abuse and death of a loved one (Lu, 2023), interpersonal violence (e.g., sexual and organized violence) (McLaughlin et al., 2018, p. 2223), prior trauma (Bird et al., 2021), work-related stress (Lee et al., 2020), and racial discrimination (Archibald, 2021; Bird et al., 2021; Ford, 2009; Sibrava et al., 2019). Carter et al. (2016) found that race-related stress is associated with PTSD symptoms. Carter and colleagues also explored the dynamics between stress responses and race-related experiences.

They found associations between aversive-hostility racism and avoidance and hypervigilance, hostile racism and intrusion, and avoidant racism and hypervigilance (Carter et al., 2016).

Secondary Traumatic Stress and Vicarious Trauma

Secondary traumatic stress (STS) and vicarious trauma (VT) are indirect forms of trauma (Cummings et al., 2021; Pirelli et al., 2020; Virga et al., 2020) that are positively related to perceived stress (Ntontis et al., 2023; Orru et al., 2021) and significantly associated with burnout (Devilly et al., 2009). Prior traumatic experiences increase susceptibility to the development of STS and VT (Baird & Kracen, 2006). STS and VT are challenging experiences for service professionals. Empirical evidence shows that nurses (Zakeri et al., 2020), mental health workers (Begic et al., 2019; Leung et al., 2022; Pirelli et al., 2020); social workers (Virga et al., 2020); and teachers (Ormiston et al., 2022; Ramberg et al., 2020; Schepers & Young, 2021) are susceptible to the effects of STS and VT. STS and VT are empathy-based stress constructs (Rauvola et al., 2019) used interchangeably, though they differ in meaning.

STS is a psychological reaction to stress that develops after caring for others (Sanderson, 2013). STS is reported to be indistinguishable from compassion fatigue (i.e., the consequence of working with traumatized individuals) (Figley, 1995) and equivalent to PTSD symptoms (Figley, 1995). Predictors of STS include job satisfaction, emotional intelligence, and prior trauma history (Oginska-Bulik et al., 2021; Yazici & Ozdemir, 2022). STS studies show a negative relationship between STS, compassion fatigue, and burnout (Zakeri et al., 2020), with work satisfaction minimizing the STS symptoms (Cummings et al., 2021). In research studies, investigators administer the Professional Quality of Life Scale (ProQOL). The ProQOL is a 30-item self-report measure administered to assess secondary traumatic stress, burnout, and compassion fatigue (Zakeri et al., 2020). The ProQOL uses a 6-point Likert Scale ranked from *0*

(never) to 5 (*very often)*. In comparison to the ProQOL, the Secondary Traumatic Stress Scale is used to measure PTSD-related symptoms (Bride et al., 2004, as cited by Rauvola et al., 2019). Using a 5-point Likert scale, the STSS is a 17-item tool with high reliability (α=.94; Benuto et al., 2021) that measures the frequency of PTSD symptoms (e.g., avoidance, intrusion, and arousal). When the STSS and ProQOL are administered conjointly, studies show a positive relationship in scores (Cummings et al., 2021).

Contrary to STS, VT incorporates clients' traumatic memories into the helper's memory system, referred to as cognitive schemas (McCann & Pearlman, 1990). Izzo and Miller (2010) expressed individuals who assist others with trauma are at risk for developing VT. Listening to trauma narratives, demonstrating empathic sensitivity, and having unresolved emotional wounds (e.g., childhood trauma) are risk factors for vicarious trauma. The effects of vicarious trauma are like post-traumatic stress disorder. VT can elicit intense emotions, hyperarousal, dissociation, cognitive distortions, or somatization (Izzo & Miller, 2010, p. 615). Among service-oriented professionals, teachers are at-risk for developing VT due to interacting with student trauma survivors. Teachers report difficulty navigating boundaries and adversely affecting their personal lives (Hickey et al., 2020). In African American teachers, the ProQOL results showed they had lower burnout and STS and better relationships with students in comparison to non-Black teachers who reported lower burnout and higher STS (Simon et al., 2022). However, Ormiston et al. (2022) argued the ProQOL is interpreted and used differently in research; additional studies are needed to consider the implications of historical, generational, and systemic oppression trauma among teachers and students of color (Ormiston et al., 2022, p. 814).

Intersections of Teacher Stress and Burnout

Studies on teachers' stress show their stress is largely due to increased responsibilities, inadequate resources, elevated psychological demands, student behavioral problems, lack of professional learning opportunities, emotional exhaustion, unmanageable exceptional education caseloads, and personal frustrations (Cancio et al., 2018; Harmsen et al., 2018; Hester et al. 2020). Gender differences reveal females are more likely to negatively evaluate their health as well as experience elevations in stress, worry, and helplessness in comparison to males (Ekornes, 2017; Lagrosen & Lagrosen, 2020). However, Avici et al. (2017) found no significant difference between teachers' perceived stress and psychological needs when controlling gender.

Burnout is a psychological response to work-related stress that produces depersonalization, exhaustion, and a decreased sense of personal achievement (Cummings et al., 2021; Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Burnout functions as a mediator between interpersonal factors in the work setting and organizational commitment (Leiter & Maslach, 1988, p. 299). Additionally, burnout is linked to gastrointestinal, respiratory, and cardiovascular diseases (Salvagioni et al., 2017), anxiety (Koutsimani et al., 2019), and overlaps with depression (Armon et al., 2014; Bianchi & Brisson, 2017) evidenced by continuous activation of the ANS (Bayes et al., 2021) which consequently altering the brain's architecture and increasing inflammation and AL (Bayes et al., 2021).

Theoretical and conceptual models of burnout convey burnout occurs depending on different external and internal influences. In a review of research, Edu-Vasania et al. (2022) described work-related models of burnout, positing burnout occurs because of incongruent job demands and job resources (i.e., Demand-Resources Theory), the synthesis of organization stressors and unhealthy coping skills (i.e., Organizational Theory), or the perceived lack of

reciprocity between work contributions to results (i.e., Social Exchange Theory). However, interpersonal models, like the Conservation of Resources (CoR) theory, propose burnout occurs because resource loss is more important than gain, resources must be protected and replaced, greater resources minimize susceptibility to loss, and depleted resources elicit maladaptive behavioral responses (Hobfoll et al., 2018, pp. 105-106). Comparably, the Developmental Process Model conjectures burnout manifests as a domino-effect. Leiter (1983) presumed job demands cultivate emotional exhaustion that not only elevates feelings of cynicism (i.e., depersonalization) but also functions as a coping technique due to the depletion of resources. Thus, the existential theory of stress presumes that distress from burnout manifests from meaningless experiences, inevitably creating frustration (Barzoki et al., 2018).

Extensive research on the prevalence and ramifications of burnout has been explored in several professions, including law enforcement (Queiros et al., 2020), mental health workers (Devilly et al., 2009; Pirelli et al., 2020) and teachers (Seibt & Kreuzfeld, 2021). Teacher burnout is caused by specialized occupational stressors (Druge et al., 2021). Conley and You (2021) found that attrition, or the intention to leave teaching, was correlated to negative student behaviors. Conley and You also found that teachers' commitment to the profession also mediated their intention to leave the teaching profession. Comparably, in a systematic review on teacher burnout, Madigan and Kim (2021) found an association between burnout and student academic underachievement. Though, Madigan and Kim indicated additional research is required to determine the circumstances that lessen or increase the effects of burnout.

In a longitudinal research study, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2020) investigated the effects of teachers' perceptions of their job demands and resources, burnout, and attrition. The results revealed that teachers' motivation to exit the profession was strongly associated with a lack of

job satisfaction, which was also moderately associated with cynicism, emotional exhaustion, and a reduced sense of accomplishment. Slaalvik and Slaavik's findings suggested that emotional exhaustion and burnout increase simultaneously. The experience of emotional exhaustion was also found significant in a sample of full-time and part-time teachers. Seibt and Kreuzfeld (2021) reported teacher participants experienced emotional exhaustion at least once per month whereas feelings of cynicism and a reduced sense of personal accomplishment were experienced once per year. Thus, there were no significant differences in burnout symptoms between part-time and full-time teachers (Seibt & Kreuzfeld, 2021).

Additional studies report that educators' workload stress and teaching efficacy were significantly correlated to positive work satisfaction, whereas their negative perceptions about workloads were negatively associated with job satisfaction (Collie et al., 2012, p. 1199). In other literature, teacher burnout is related to ongoing workplace disappointment and personality factors (Manju, 2018); unrealistic parental expectations, poor behavior problems, and heavy workloads (Arvidsson et al., 2019), and disciplinary issues and fear of abuse from children with exceptionalities (Mulyani et al., 2021). Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2017) reported that disciplinary issues, lack of student motivation, time pressure (i.e., work overload), and value dissonance (i.e., incongruent school norms and values) were critical stressors conducive to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization among teachers. However, there was no statistical significance between time pressure and depersonalization. Riethof and Bob (2019) indicated that burnout symptoms among teachers are occupational stressors related to micro-management, lack of team cohesiveness, lack of empathy, and organizational climate focusing solely on work (p. 382). The experience of burnout is also prevalent among those who work with children identified with disabilities, prior traumatic history, and untreated mental health concerns (Szigti, 2016).

Following the administration of the MBI-ES found that special education teaching and symptoms of depression are strongly associated with burnout (Szigti, 2016). Comparably, Hickey et al. (2020) indicated that teachers working with students who have experienced trauma reported difficulty navigating boundaries and negatively affecting their personal lives. Among ethnic teachers, African American teachers experience more burnout compared to their White colleagues (Doan et al., 2023). Furthermore, African American teachers experience a unique set of work-related stressors (e.g., RBF) (Pizarro & Kohli, 2020).

Race-related stress. Loo (1994) introduced a conceptual framework for race-related PTSD after the racial events experienced by Asian war veterans. Loo (1994) found race-related PTSD manifested in veterans because of contradictions between their identities and schemas, division of their bicultural identities, life-threatening experiences due to mistaken identities producing PTSD symptoms (e.g., arousal), and a diminished sense of belonging caused by stigma and ostracism (p. 641). Loo (1994) also acknowledged racism as a form of trauma and equally insidious as other types of human-caused traumas. Following Loo's (1994) study, Loo et al. (2001) designed the first race-related stress measure, the Race-Related Stressor Scale for Asian American Vietnam Veterans (Williams et al., 2021). After Loo et al. (2001) administered the scale to 300 Asian Vietnam veterans, they found that RRS accounted for more than 20% of the variance in PTSD symptoms (Loo, 2001, as cited by Williams et al., 2021, p. 2). Following Loo and colleagues, Carter (2007) introduced the Race-Based Traumatic Stress Theory (RBTS) and later constructed the RBTSSS (Carter et al., 2013). RRS is a psychological or emotional response to an accumulation of racism (e.g., racial discrimination, bias, and harassment) (Polanco-Roman et al., 2016). Thus, RBTS posits the cumulative psychological and emotional effects of racism generate symptoms closely aligned with PTSD (Carter, 2007). Carter (2007)

acknowledged the previous works of Essed's (1991) everyday racism, Omi and Winant's (1986) social and historical implications of racial formation, and other scholars' contributions. However, Carter (2007) argued those frameworks fail to connect race-related experiences to psychological injury (p. 75). Carter's (2007) vision includes grouping race-related experiences by type and then determining if those experiences produce trauma or stress. Carter and Helms (2002) and Carter et al. (2005), as cited by Carter (2007), cite racial discrimination and racial harassment as forms of racism known that elicit psychological injury. Later, Carter (2007) added discriminatory harassment (i.e., aversive hostility) as another form of racism. Carter (2007) suggested his theory reflects what race-related experiences mean to POCs and warns his descriptions may be inconsistent with legal definitions.

Racial Discrimination

Racial discrimination constitutes a form of avoidance found in policies, behaviors, or thoughts that are either intentional or accidental acts designed to create space between the dominant group and non-dominant group (Carter, 2007, p. 76). Carter (2007) traced racial avoidance to Essed's (1991) everyday racism theory, which reveals the systematic and cyclical issues reflected in attitudes and behaviors through contact avoidance. Avoidance is perpetuated by problematizing, or the notion that African American people have genetic abnormalities (Carter, 2007; Essed, 1991); containing, or keeping African American individuals in their "place" through intimidation or denial of racism (Carter, 2007, p. 77; Essed, 1991); and lastly, through marginalizing, or excluding or forbidding access (Carter, 2007, p. 77; Essed, 1991). Avoidance manifests on an individual level by limiting POC access or opportunity (Carter, 2007). Systematic level racism is either institutional (e.g., racism within institutions; policies that provide advantages for White individuals) (Race Forward, n.d.) or structural (e.g., racism across

institutions; structures reflective of White privilege and power) (Race Forward, n.d.). Cultural-level racism is deprecatory messages and policies that promote the exclusion of divergent racial and ethnic groups (Carter, 2007; Cogburn, 2019). Cultural racism also encourages assimilation by rejecting one's culture to resemble the dominant culture (Halstead, 1998, as cited in Scott, 2007). Racial discriminatory experiences are associated with physical and mental health disparities. Racial discrimination is also positively associated with anxiety, fear, depression, and anger (Carter, 2007), depression (Williams, 2018), substance abuse, and cardiovascular disease (Chen & Mallory, 2021) and AL (Brody et al., 2014) or the wear and tear on the body due to stress (Guidi et al., 2020).

Racial Harassment

Racial harassment is conveyed as either a category or collection of hostile experiences communicating inferiority or insubordination through policies, behaviors, thoughts, or feelings (Carter, 2007). Racial harassment is found in institutional policies or protocols that implicitly or explicitly omit protocols for reporting and managing harassment (Carter, 2007). In exchange for maintaining a job (i.e., quid quo pro), a POC may remain silent about experiencing racial discrimination. Moreover, Carter and Scheuermann (2020) stated being followed around in a store or microaggressions (e.g., verbal or non-verbal derogatory messages conveying racism or discrimination (Sue et al., 2007) are categorized as forms of racial harassment (p. 125). Targets of racial harassment report emotional responses ranging from shame, guilt, helplessness, rage, or distrust (Carter & Schuermann, 2020, p. 126).

Discriminatory Harassment

Discriminatory harassment, or aversive hostility, is the third form of racism discovered through two research initiatives in 2005 and 2007 (Carter & Schuermann, 2020). Carter (2007)

characterizes discriminatory harassment as a synthesis between racial discrimination and racial harassment. It also encompasses behaviors, thoughts, or policies intended to create space for POCs in environments from which they were previously excluded (Carter, 2007). Carter and Schuerman (2020) suggested a connection between aversive hostility and color-blindness (i.e., disregarding racial membership and racial differences while making decisions) (Apfelbaum et al., 2012) in addition to ambivalence (e.g., an individual or company inconsistently discriminates against POCs (Carter & Schuerman, 2020). Aversive hostility also occurs when a POC is treated poorly by colleagues while also being avoided by them, followed by an inadequate job performance review (Carter, 2007).

Race-related stress and Historical/Generational Trauma. Historical trauma is defined as the multigenerational and communal psychological traumas experienced by oppressed groups (Mohatt et al., 2014). The repercussions of historical trauma are damaging; oppressed racial and ethnic groups are forced to live concurrently in the past and present with the pains of their ancestors (Brave Heart, 1998, as cited by Avalos, 2021). These wounds are buried intrapsychically and subsequently transferred intergenerationally (Rogers & Bryant-Davis, 2020). As a form of cultural destructiveness, historical trauma eradicates the vestiges of a specific culture through policies and practices (National Center for Cultural Competence, 2004) through power and control techniques reflecting White supremacy (Rogers & Bryant-Davis, 2020). Oppressed racial and ethnic groups are subjected to historical trauma through physical violence (e.g., slavery), sexual violence (e.g., women as sexual objects), denial of resources (e.g., rejecting educational rights), economic abuse (e.g., restricting means to advancement), psychological abuse (e.g., microaggressions), spiritual abuse (e.g., twisting one's spiritual views), cultural appropriation (e.g., having to change a style of dress or hairstyle), and racial

socialization (e.g. colorism). Consequently, historical trauma increases PTSD susceptibility through "subjective re-experiencing" (Phipps & Deggs-White, 2014, p. 177), which is a reaction to race-based traumatic stress (Carter, 2007) leading to PTSD. Among racial and ethnic groups, the rate of PTSD following trauma is higher in the African American community (Roberts et al., 2011).

Occupational Race-Related Stressors

Racial microaggressions are daily verbal or non-verbal derogatory messages that overtly or covertly convey racial bias and discrimination (Sue, 2010; Sue et al., 2007; Torino et al., 2019). The dominant group uses racial microaggressions to insult, invalidate, or explicitly dehumanize marginalized groups based on social characteristics like race or gender (Sue et al., 2019). Microaggressions are not physical acts of harm but forms of deplorable social hostilities (Williams, 2021), mainly directed towards POC. Racial microaggressions are toxic, ambiguous, and psychologically harmful, producing higher ALs and stress (Hall & Fields, 2015) even when coping skills like racial vigilance are used to protect oneself against daily discriminatory practices (Hill & Hoggard, 2018). Though, individual differences and social-cultural demographics moderate perceived racism (Chapman-Hilliard et al., 2020). Sue (2017) contributed microaggressions reflect one's reality. However, Lilienfield (2017), as cited by Cantu and Jussism (n.d.), argued there is inadequate research to support that microaggressions are related to negative messages despite the studies linking microaggressions to distress and confusion among college students (Williams et al., 2020), stress, anxiety, powerlessness (Brown, 2019) and occupational stress (Pizzaro & Kohli, 2018; Williams, 2004, as cited in Chancellor, 2019) in African American teachers. Moreover, the Inventory of Microaggressions Against Black Individuals (IMABI) (Mercer et al., 2011), Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions (REMA),

and Racial Microaggressions Scale (RMAS) (Torres-Harding, 2012) are described as both reliable and valid measures for capturing microassaults, microinvalidations, and microinsults, which are forms of microaggressions (Sue et al., 2007).

Microassaults are blatantly discriminatory and derogatory statements or inappropriate jokes (Torino et al., 2019). Sue et al. (2007) proposed referring to an Asian American as Oriental or an African American as colored are examples of microassaults. Microinvalidations seek to deny or contest a marginalized individual's feelings (Sue et al., 2019). Microinvalidations are statements with hidden meanings to invalidate one's experiences (Helms, 1992, as cited by Sue et al., 2007). When someone states, "I do not see color," or denies being a racist because one's best friend is Black fosters what is referred to as denial of individual racism (i.e., White Americans denying racial biases) (Wing et al., 2007, p. 1). Microinsults are rude or insensitive messages either articulated or demonstrated through paralanguage (National Institutes of Health, 2016). Microinsults are slights used to insult a POC (Sue et al., 2007). Microinsults are commonly used when African Americans are questioned about how they obtained a particular position. It is the assumption that it was because of affirmative action or that POCs are less qualified than Whites (Sue et al., 2007).

Black Identity and Racial Socialization

Racial socialization, referred to as racial/ethnic socialization (RE/S; Hughley et al., 2019; Osborne et al., 2022; Tang et al., 2016), is a significant factor influencing Black identity development. In 1971, William Cross introduced the Nigrescence theory, or the Negro-to-Black Conversion Experience (Cross, 1978), which conceptualizes the process of becoming Black through five stages (Cross, 1971). In 1991, Cross adapted his seminal work to represent the multidimensionality of the Black identity (Worrell et al., 2001). Nigrescence is

compartmentalized into six levels: structure of the self, identity multiplicity, socialization, identity-related discussions or resocialization experiences, identity recycling, and identity enactments (Cross & Vandiver, 2001, p. 385).

Nigrescence Level I

The first level of Nigrescence theory focuses on structuring the self. Cross (1981) posited African Americans experience multiple identities which are restructured by personality or personal characteristics and reference group orientation or worldview (Cross, 1981; Cross & Vandiver, 2001). The Black identity is a social identity (Cross & Vandiver, 2001, p.384) and changes depending on one's cognition, affect, and behavior in terms of sexual orientation, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, gender, and other factors (Cross & Vandiver, 2001).

Nigrescence Level II

The second level of Nigrescence is an intricate process (Cross & Vandiver, 2001). The African American identity is influenced by two separate cultures (Cross & Vandiver, 2001). The Black racial identity is categorized into three identity statuses: pre-encounter, immersion/emersion, and internalization. Black racial identity is an essential feature of RS (Sellers & Shelton, 2003, as cited by Carter, 2007), particularly in examining reactions to RRS (Carter, 2007). However, at inception, African Americans' racial identity ego status is underdeveloped, and reactions to RRS differ as they transition through each status.

Pre-encounter. The pre-encounter status is the initial stage in level two. The pre-encounter status is characterized by low awareness (Cross, 1991), non-engagement, or internalization process about one's race (Cross & Vandiver, 2001). It is ordinary to identify with other identities (e.g., sexual orientation, gender) (Gooden, 2014), demonstrate preference towards the dominant race (Carter, 2007), or reject the Black culture (Gooden, 2014). Potential

reactions to RRS include endorsing that race is insignificant in life or struggles that occur because of taking on a lackadaisical approach (Carter, 2007). Race-related experiences become internalized (Carter, 2007; Carter & Vandiver, 2001), manifesting into assimilation, miseducation, or self-hatred.

Pre-encounter assimilation is organizing one's social identity as an only American; constraints are placed on one's racial identity (Cross & Vandiver, 2001, p. 388). Pointedly, low emphasis or disgust is exhibited towards the collective Black culture (Cross & Vandiver, 2001). Thus, pre-encounter miseducation depicts a social identity construed around conceptualizing Black stereotypes (Cross & Vandiver, 2001). An example of miseducation is agreeing that Black people are loud (i.e., stereotype) while negating that s/he is not loud (i.e., compartmentalization). Lastly, racial self-hatred is repulsion towards the Black identity through self-loathing (Cross & Vandiver, 2001). The individual identifies with or is attracted to the privileges linked to the White culture (Pettigrew, 1964). Thus, RS practices and racial identity formation are crucial during the pre-encounter stage. For example, Thompson et al. (2000) found a positive association between RS and the pre-encounter stage in African American college students, though racial socialization was also found to be negatively related to all pre-encounter types.

Immersion/Emersion. The immersion/emersion phase is divided into anti-White or intense Black involvement (Cross & Vandiver, 2001). Blacks demonstrating an anti-White identity are viewed as unpredictable and violent. They will concurrently foster hate towards White people and society and involve themselves in the Black culture and issues. In comparison, intense Black involvement is illustrated as obsessed with being Black. Cross and Vandiver describe acting as "Blacker-than-thou."

Internalization. Cross and Vandiver (2001) explained one's identity is either an internalization nationalist (e.g., endorsing Afrocentric ideas; active engagement in Black issues) or biculturalist (e.g., maintaining a balance between cultures; integration of the Black and dominant culture) or multiculturalist (e.g., manipulating three or social identities).

The pre-encounter, immersion/emersion, and internalization phases are the central components of Nigrescence Theory. Lastly, Cross and Vandiver (2001) discussed newer dimensions of Black identity development as the following:

Level III: The identities previously mentioned are largely mediated through childhood and adolescent development; family upbringing influences Black social identity development. Conversion strategies are warranted for those who adopt a bicultural or national social identity.

Level IV: Cross and Vandiver (2001) warned adolescents who present are still operating at the pre-encounter stage (any category) are at-risk and require conversion to address self-hate, internalized racism, or low race salience (p. 391).

Level V: The process of recycling occurs during level five. Specifically, recycling is a mechanism where the individual strengthens his/her social identity.

Level VI: Buffering, code-switching, bridging, and individualism are the core functions or the social enactments or exchanges between Black and White persons. Cross and Vandiver (2001) conveyed buffering constitutes an act of protecting the self while experiencing racism. Code-switching is a form of communication where Black individuals alter expressions or gestures when interacting with White people for them to feel comfortable. A classic example is Barak Obama shaking hands with White officials, but when approaching the Black official, he "dapped him up," which means slapping hands, holding the hand, pulling the fingers back, and releasing with a snap (Urban Dictionary, 2015). Bridging is a psychological process that occurs,

for example, when two people accept the other's cultural-racial differences to establish a friendship or relationship. Lastly, individualism is described as seeing oneself as an individual rather than a social identity. Thus, Cross and Vandiver warned this thinking process can lead to cultural blindness.

Summary

Chapter Two presented the theoretical framework of Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) transactional model of stress and coping. The transactional model of stress and coping analyzed the impact of stress. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) proposed stress is a relationship between the person and the environment (p. 19). After exposure to a possible stressor, one uses a cognitive appraisal to determine if the stress is harmful, threatening, or challenging. Following, one uses a secondary appraisal to determine the availability of internal or external resources required to cope using either problem-focused or emotion-focused coping skills (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The transactional model of stress and coping is vital to this study's focus, as RRS is predicated in one's appraisal of the experience (Anderson & Stevenson, 2019; Carter, 2007).

Chapter Two highlighted the research gap in the current literature. The existing studies reflect a dearth of research on the implications of RRS, RS, collegiate experiences, and burnout experienced by African American teachers. The related literature section began with a discussion on African Americans' struggle for educational equality emerging from the Transatlantic slave trade. The literature shows that RRS is a recurring problem for K-12 African American teachers (Pizzaro & Kohli, 2020) and college students (Bravo et al., 2021; Gasman & Abiola, 2016). Next, there was a discussion on the neurobiology of stress, beginning with an overview of General Adaptation Syndrome. The review of the literature revealed stress is the body's physiological response to positive or negative stressors (Selye, 1950) due to anticipation

(Salpolsky, 2004). Thus, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) elaborated on Selye's theory by proposing stress also elicits emotional cognitive and emotional responses. Considering peri, pre-, and post-traumatic factors (Sayed et al., 2016), prolonged stress becomes trauma preceding a life-threatening or altering event (i.e., trauma) (Schupp, 2015, p. 3), leading to the possibility of developing PTSD (Maeng & Milad, 2017). However, some researchers debate that susceptibility to trauma or PTSD is contingent on genetic inheritability (Ryan et al., 2016), associative and non-associative learning (Lissek, 2015), or schemas (Ford & Greene, 2018). Next, there was a discussion on PTSD as a prolonged stress response and its implications on African Americans. The final discussion elaborated on the influence of traumatic stress in teachers. The literature shows there are limited studies exploring PTSD in teachers. However, teachers experience STS (Figley, 1995) and VT (Izzo & Miller, 2010) that generate symptoms closely aligned with PTSD and burnout (Devilly et al., 2009). Burnout is a growing concern among educators, particularly in African American teachers (Doan et al., 2023).

Additionally, the review of literature explored RRS. The discussion identified three types of RRS: racial discrimination, racial harassment, and discriminatory harassment that can produce psychological injury (Carter, 2007). African Americans are more susceptible to the adverse effects of RRS because of historical or generational trauma, which increases the likelihood of developing PTSD (Phipps & Deggs-White, 2014). There was also a discussion on microaggressions that create psychological injury generally in occupational settings. The literature found that microaggressions, which are derogatory statements that communicate racial bias or discrimination (Sue et al., 2007), shapeshift into microassaults (Torino et al., 2019), microinvalidations (Sue et al., 2019), or microinsults (Sue et al., 2007). Chapter Two concluded with a discussion on Black identity development and RS which are concepts integrated into

Cross' Nigrescence Theory. Cross (1991) captured the psychological evolution of the Black identity. Cross and Vandiver (2001) emphasized the influence of RS in becoming Black. RS influences reactions to RRS (Carter, 2007) when transitioning from stage to stage.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

The purpose of Chapter Three is to present the research methodology for this quantitative, non-experimental, cross-sectional survey study on the effects of RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences on burnout in African American teachers. The results of the study may offer governance for certification boards to explore race evasiveness (i.e., the avoidance of race-related discussions) (Civitillo et al., 2021, as cited by Carmen & Anderson, 2023) in educator preparation programs affecting African American teacher retention and recruitment (Kohli, 2019). The study's results may also encourage conversations about RRS due to the discrepancies in racial (and ethnic) socialization in African Americans (Umana-Taylor & Hill, 2020) in addition to divergent race-related experiences in African American students at PWIs (e.g., microaggressions) (Campbell et al., 2019; Mills, 2020) and HBCUs (e.g., interpersonal racism) (Polishchuk, 2022). This chapter discusses the predictor and outcome variables. In this research study, RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences are predictor variables, and burnout is the response variable using multiple regression analysis.

This study also examines racial protection and bicultural coping of RS (predictor variables) and RRS (outcome variable) using simple regression analysis. RRS is assessed using TSDS (Williams et al., 2018). RS is measured by using the CARES (Bentley-Edwards & Stevenson, 2016). Burnout is evaluated by using the Maslach Burnout Educators Survey (MBI-ES). Collegiate experiences are categorized as PWI or HBCU. Chapter Three offers an explanation on survey research design, the justification for the methodological approach, research questions and hypotheses, variables, participant selection, inclusion and exclusion criteria, instrumentation, procedures, and data analysis.

Design

Research procedures, located in Appendix C, were approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Liberty University. This research study uses a quantitative, non-experimental online survey research design to examine the effects of RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences on burnout in African American teachers. Quantitative research is a form of scientific inquiry that relies on numerical data and statistical analyses to scrutinize variables in a sample or population (Gall et al., 2010). Quantitative investigations sanction objectivity in research (Mertler, 2016) to ascertain if obtained scores are "statistically related" (Warner, 2021, p. 19). Quantitative research methods generalize findings in a study (Mertler, 2016, p. 108). Furthermore, quantitative research is conducted either through experimental (e.g., testing a hypothesis by manipulating variables (Mertler, 2016) or non-experimental designs (e.g., lack of manipulation to variables) (Kelly, 2003; Mertler, 2016, p.111), which can be further deconstructed into descriptive, correlational, or causal-comparative research studies (Mertler, 2016).

This quantitative study uses a descriptive, non-experimental, cross-sectional design. Descriptive research explores natural characteristics or problems in a population (Siedlecki, 2020) through observational research or survey research (Mertler, 2016, p. 111). This study uses survey research to explore RRS, RS, collegiate experiences, and burnout in African American teachers. Survey research is a form of descriptive research used for non-experimental designs (Mertler, 2016). By administering surveys, data is collected from a sample of a population to explain a particular phenomenon or relationships between variables (Fraenkel et al., 2012; McMillian, 2012, as cited by Mertler, 2016, p.112). Survey research is divided into descriptive, longitudinal, and cross-sectional surveys (Mertler, 2016). Longitudinal surveys are appropriate

for examining respondents over an extended amount of time (Mertler, 2016), whereas cross-sectional surveys are useful in comparing differences (Mertler, 2016) or capturing the prevalence of a problem among respondents at a single point in time (Wang & Cheng, 2020). The advantages of survey research include capturing a large sample size, which provides higher statistical power (Jones et al., 2013). Higher statistical power lowers the possibility of running a Type II error (i.e., failing to reject a false hypothesis) (Banjeree, 2009) and increases the likelihood of rejecting the null hypothesis (Schreffler & Huecker, 2023). This study uses a cross-sectional survey approach to explore RRS, RS, and burnout in African American teachers based on their collegiate experiences at PWIs and HBCUs.

In cross-sectional surveys, data was collected using questionnaires (Ponto, 2015) through mail, email, telephone, face-to-face interviews, or through the internet (Mertler, 2016). This study's questionnaires were presented in a Likert scale format published on social media. Likert scales are regularly used in survey research (Warner, 2021). Likert scale surveys consist of several statements about a problem that are assigned a point value (Warner, 2021). Study respondents read each statement and indicate a number representing the degree of agreement (Warner, 2021, p. 18). For this study, Likert scale data was collected using the TSDS, racial protection and bicultural sub-scales of RS, and MBI-ES. The TSDS is a 4-point Likert scale that measures discrimination. Respondents read each statement about discriminatory experiences and indicate *never, rarely, sometimes,* and *often.* The CARES is a 3-point Likert scale that measures the frequency of RS experiences that is compartmentalized into five sub-scales. Respondents read each statement and indicate the frequency of hearing RS messages (*1=never, 2=a few times, 3=never*) and who they heard the message from (e.g., *mother/guardian, father/guardian, grandparent, sibling, teacher, other adult, peer, media,* or *no one told me*). For example,

respondents indicated how often they heard racial protection of RS messages like "*don't forget who your people are because you may need them someday*'' and bicultural coping of RS messages like "*since the world has become so multicultural, it's wrong to only focus on Black issues"* (Bentley-Edwards & Stevenson, 2016).

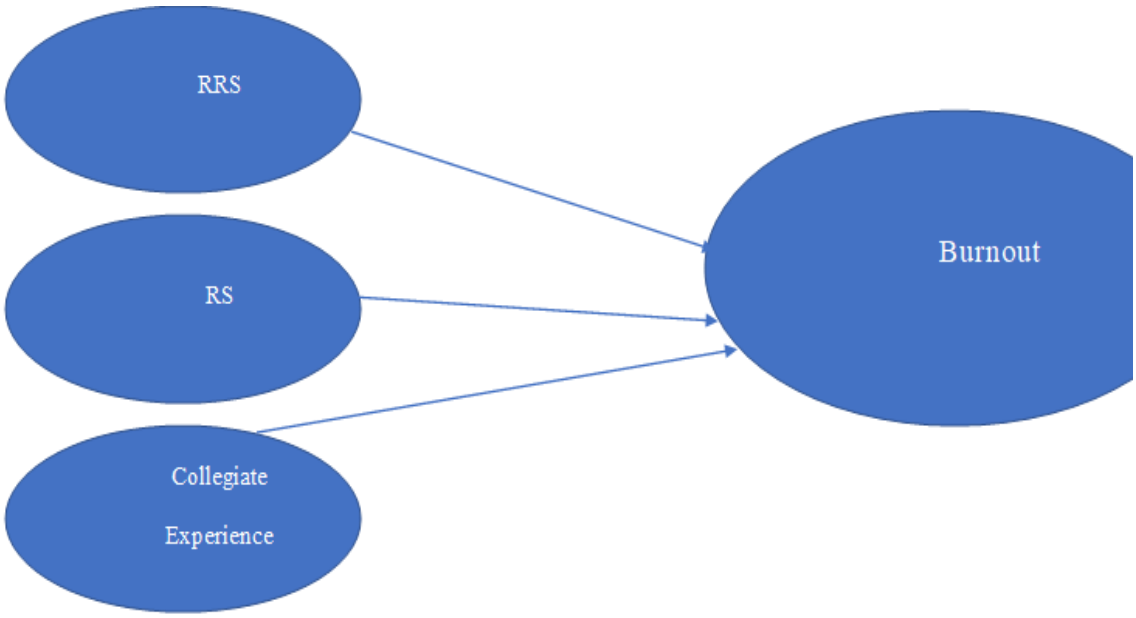
Research Questions

The research questions for this study were as follows:

RQ1: Are RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences predictors of burnout in African American teachers? (See Figure 1)

Figure 1

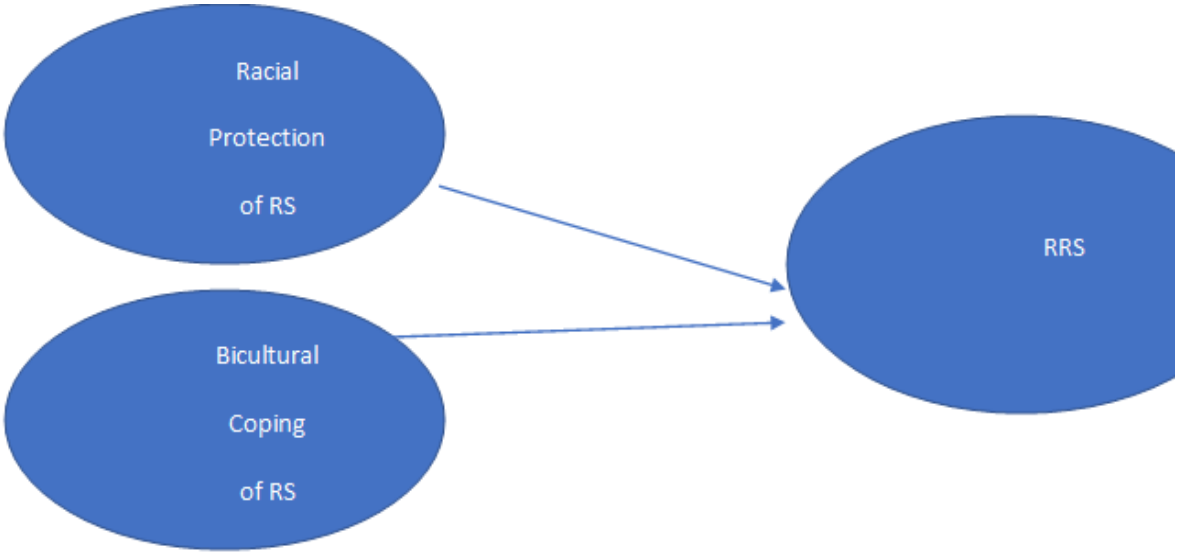
RRS, RS, Collegiate Experience (IVs), Burnout (DV)



RQ2: Does racial protection and bicultural coping of RS predict RRS in African American teachers? (See Figure 2)

Figure 2

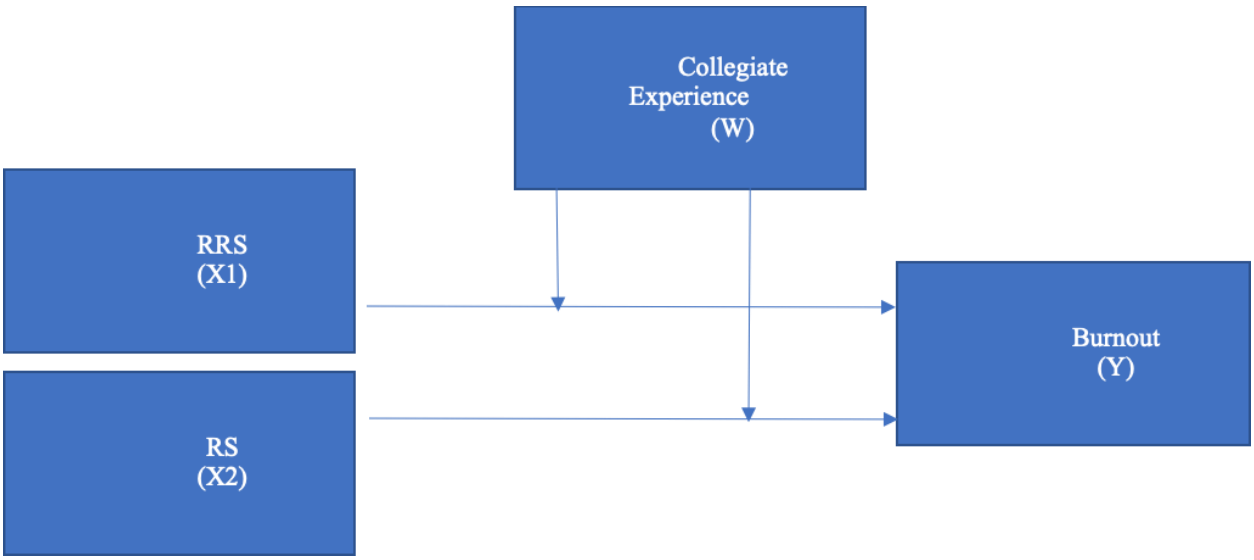
Racial Protection and Bicultural Coping of RS (IVs) RRS (DV)



RQ3: Does collegiate experience moderate the effect of RRS and RS on burnout in African American teachers? (See Figure 3).

Figure 3

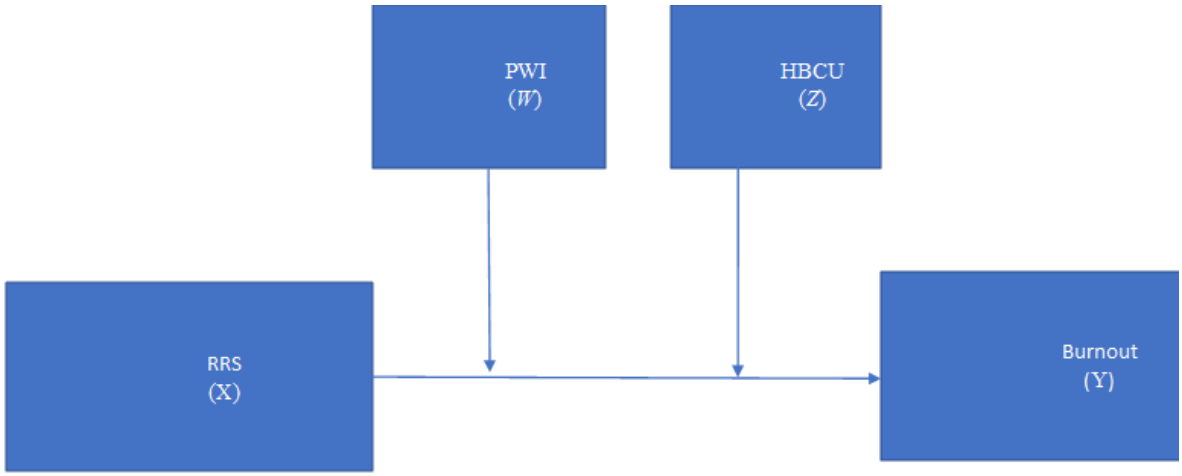
RRS and RS (IVs) Collegiate Experience (W) Burnout (DV)



RQ4: When RS is "high," do African American teachers who attended a PWI have a reduced effect of RRS on burnout than African American teachers who attended an HBCU? (See Figure 4).

Figure 4

IV (RRS) PWI/HBCU (W) Burnout (DV)



Hypotheses

The research hypotheses for this study were as follows:

Ha1: RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences are predictors of burnout in African American teachers.

Ha2: Racial protection and bicultural coping of RS predict RRS in African American teachers.

Ha3: The PWI collegiate experience will reduce the effect of RRS on burnout and will enhance the effect of RS on burnout in African American teachers.

Ha4: African American teachers who attended a PWI will experience less burnout than African American teachers who attended an HBCU when RS is "high."

Participants and Setting

This researcher recruited respondents on social media platforms (e.g., Facebook and Instagram) with a projected sample of N=87 for multiple linear regression and N=113 for moderation of African American school teachers located in the United States or U.S. Territory. The final sample was comprised of 20 African American teachers whose ages ranged from 31 to 50+ (*M* =2.20, *SD* = .834). Most of the respondents were females (60%), lived in the U.S. Southeast (80%), taught in a rural school (50%), had a master's degree (45%), and attended an HBCU (60%).

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Inclusion and exclusion criteria are standard protocols for research. Patino and Ferreira (2018) stated researchers should clearly define inclusion and exclusion criteria; failure to assess those measures can impact the study's external validity or if the study's findings can be generalized or applied to other contexts (Andrade, 2018). For this study, the inclusionary criteria are as follows: respondents must identify as Black/African American, Bi-racial Black (e.g., one Black parent/one non-Black parent) or Hispanic Black (e.g., ethnicity-Cuban, race-Black), eighteen years old and older, live in the U.S. or U.S. territory, teach general or special education, earned an undergraduate degree at an HBCU or PWI, and agreed to participate in the research.

Instrumentation

Trauma Symptoms of Discrimination Scale

The TSDS is a 21-item self-report, a two-part assessment that examines discriminatory stress by targeting any accompanying anxiety symptoms (Williams et al., 2018; Williams et al., 2023, p. 2). The TSDS Part I asks respondents to rate the frequency of discriminatory stress using a 4-point scale ranging from *1=never to 4=often* (TSDS, n.d., p. 1; Williams & Zare, 2022). TSDS Part II asks respondents to identify each type of discrimination experienced

(*racial/ethnic, gender, sexual orientation, social class, religion, age, disability, and other*), then assigns a percentage of how much they experienced in a lifetime (e.g., social class=30%; gender=30%, racial/ethnic=40%).

The TSDS was developed in response to the diagnostic errors and complicated scoring process found in Carter's (RBTSSS) (Williams et al., 2021). In 2018, Williams et al. administered the TSDS to African American undergraduate students (N=123). Assuming a linear relationship between the TSDS and discrimination, Williams et al. (2018) uncovered hyperarousal, feeling alienated, perceiving others as dangerous, and worries about the future as race-related stress reactions. Williams et al. (2018) found the TSDS to have reliability (i.e., consistency in responses each time a test is administered) (Heale & Twycross, 2015). The TSDS is also reported to have concurrent validity (i.e., positive correlation between test scores and criterion scores) (Lin & Yao, 2014) and predictive validity (i.e., early test scores predict later scores) (Lin & Yao, 2014). Bivariate statistical analyses show the TSDS captures lifetime discrimination (r=0.71), the amount of stress experienced due to discrimination (r=0.67), and race-related stress symptoms (r=0.69) (Williams et al., 2023).

The TSDS scoring instructions define discrimination as "being unfairly treated due to an individual characteristic of yourself" (TSDS, n.d., p. 1). Given African American teachers' experiences with discrimination (Boyd-Swan & Herbst, 2019; D'Amico et al., 2017), respondents answered TSDS statements about discrimination and completed TSDS Part II by indicating the types of discrimination experienced over a lifetime. Permission to administer the TSDS is in Appendix __.

Cultural and Racial Experiences of Socialization (CARES)

This study explored RS and racial protection and bicultural coping subscales of the CARE (Bentley-Edwards & Stevenson, 2016). The CARES is a 35-item survey that expands on the Scale of Racial Socialization in Adolescents (SORS-A) (Stevenson, 1994) and the Teenager Experience of Racial Socialization Scale (TERS) (Stevenson et al., 2002). Prior to the scale's construction, RS focused on adolescent experiences with race-related problems (Stevenson, 1994; Stevenson et al., 2002). Bentley-Edwards and Stevenson (2016) postulated cultural and racial socialization should be reflective of the positive, negative, and ambiguous nature of messages received from parents (p. 98). The CARES is comprised of five subscales: racial protection (10 items; α=.82; e.g., "y*ou should be proud to be black*"), racial stereotyping (10 items*;* α=.79; e.g., "*Black women just want money*"), old school cultural thinking (6 items; α=.68; e.g., "r*acism is not as bad as it used to be*"), bicultural coping (5 items; α=.66; e.g., "*racism is not as bad as it used to be*"), and cultural insights (4 items; α=.64; e.g., "*Black children should be taught early that God can protect them from racial hatred*"). Respondents respond to each statement (*Never*, *A Few Times*, or *Lots of Times*), then identify where they heard the statement (*Mother/Guardian*, *Father/Guardian*, *Grandparent*, *Sibling*, *Teacher*, *Other Adult*, *Friend/Peer*, *Media*, or *Other*) (Laurent, 2016, p. 107). For this study, respondents answered racial protection and bicultural coping of RS statements. Permission to administer the racial protection and bicultural coping subscales of RS is in Appendix __.

Maslach Burnout Inventory: Educators Survey

The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) is an empirically validated burnout measure evidenced by over 6,000 citations in research studies (Michel, 2016). In 1981, Christina Maslach and Susan E. Jackson developed the MBI scale with a focus on burnout in helping professionals. To date, burnout is a medical condition characterized by emotional exhaustion,

depersonalization, and a sense of personal accomplishment (Michel, 2016). The MBI is designed to assess burnout in other professions beyond helping professionals. The MBI-ES captures burnout in teachers, administrators, or any professionals employed within the educational context. The MBI-ES is a replica of the MBI with differences in wording (i.e., *student* replaces *recipient*) (Maslach et al., 1996).

The MBI-ES is a 22-item, empirically supported self-report measure of burnout that uses a 7-point Likert scale ranging from (*0=never) to (6 = every day)* (Hallmon, 2015; Mind Garden, 2023). Respondents indicated the frequency of experiencing (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) depersonalization, and (c) personal accomplishment (Sziegeti et al., 2016). The MBI-ES psychometric properties show good reliability and validity (Maslach et al., 1996) and internal consistency for all three subscales (Szigeti et al., 2016). The MBI-ES generally predicts higher scores in emotional exhaustion in younger teachers, depersonalization in males, and lower levels of personal accomplishment in secondary teachers (Maslach et al., 1996, p. 207). Previously, Maslach and colleagues used multiple regression analysis to ascertain if any organizational characteristics cause burnout. The AWS is a supplementary measure used to determine what environmental factors cause burnout pertaining to workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values (Mind Garden, 2018, p. 1).

Procedures

This study was approved by the IRB at Liberty University (See Appendix C). Per Liberty University's IRB, all requirements were satisfied regarding consent, recruitment, participation, and data transfers (Liberty University, 2023). A Google form was created that included a pre-screening survey, consent, demographic survey, and the TSDS, CARES, and MBI-ES scales. The TSDS is available online for public use. However, permission was requested to administer

components of the scale (Appendix__). Permission was also requested to use the racial protection and bicultural coping subscales of RS (Appendix A). The MBI-ES scale and survey manual were purchased on the Mind Garden website (Appendix D). After obtaining the required permissions, the study's recruitment flyer was posted on social media platforms (e.g., Facebook & Instagram). Respondents who were interested in participating in the study accessed a secure external Google link. The form did not capture respondent's email addresses to ensure anonymity. After clicking on the link, the respondents answered a pre-screening survey located in Appendix ___that asked if they were 18 years or older, an African American or Black general or special education teacher in a U.S. or U.S. territory who attended an HBCU or PWI. Ineligible respondents were redirected and received the following statement: "Thank you for your interest in this study" and received a disqualification explanation. Respondents who met the study's inclusionary criteria were informed about its purpose, risks and benefits, and voluntary participation. Respondents who met the study's criteria were directed to the study's consent form. After consenting to participation, respondents completed the demographic survey, and the TSDS, CARES, and MBI-ES scales.

Data Analysis

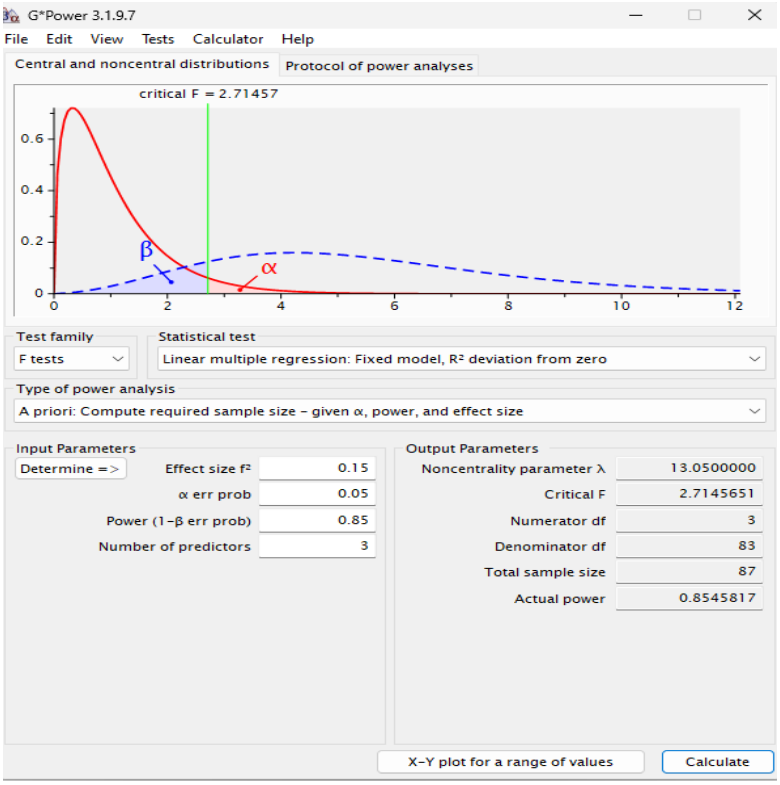
Multiple linear regression is a statistical analysis useful for examining relationships between variables. Multiple linear regression models are useful in determining the significance or effect between an outcome variable or dependent variable (DV) and one or more predictor or independent variables (IV) (Kiernan, 2014; Warner, 2021). The benefit of using two or more predictor variables is to ascertain better predictions of scores on the response variable (Bider, 2011), which supports the possibility of causality (Hayes, 2018). Multiple regression analyses assume the dependent variable is normally distributed for the value of each independent variable

(i.e., normality), the variance of the dependent variable is constant (i.e., homoscedasticity), the independent and dependent variables are linear (i.e., linearity), and observations are independent of each other (i.e., independence) (Alexopoulos, 2010).

For RQ1, this study used multiple regression analysis to test the null hypothesis that predictor variables RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences predict the criterion variable, burnout (Y). For RQ2, multiple regression was used to determine if racial protection and bicultural coping of RS (*Y*) predict RRS (*X*) in African American teachers. For this study, the minimum sample (n=87) was obtained using G*Power for 85% (See Figure 1) with a .15 effect size. If an alpha level is set at .05, if the p-value (or the probability of an association between variables; Hayes, 2018) exceeds the alpha level, the researcher fails to reject the null hypothesis, meaning it is questionable if the explanatory variables affect the response variable. The statistical model for RQ3 and RQ4 is a moderation analysis. A moderation analysis was used to test the interaction of a third variable on two predictor variables (X_1 and X_2) on *Y*, the outcome variable (Jose, 2013). For RQ3, a moderation analysis was used to determine if collegiate experience (*W*) strengthens the effect of RRS (X_1) and RS (X_2) on burnout (*Y*) in African American teachers. The minimum sample size (n=133) was obtained G*Power for 85% with an effect size of .39 (Preacher et al., 2007). For RQ4, a moderation analysis is used to determine if

Table 1

*G*Power*



Summary

Chapter Three discussed the research methodology and data analysis for this study. This study was conducted because of the dearth of research on African American teachers' RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences. This study explored the effects of RRS, RS, and burnout in African Americans who attended HBCUs vs. PWIs. The study's results will be significant for school districts that are experiencing challenges with recruiting and retaining African American teachers. This study used a quantitative, non-experimental survey research design. The research questions were as follows:

RQ1: Are RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences predictors of burnout in African American teachers?

RQ2: Does racial protection and bicultural coping of RS predict RRS in African American teachers?

RQ3: Does collegiate experience moderate the effect of RRS and RS on burnout in African American teachers?

RQ4: When RS is "high," do African American teachers who attended a PWI have a reduced effect of RRS on burnout than African American teachers who attended an HBCU? The research hypotheses for this study were as follows:

Ha1: RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences are predictors of burnout in African American teachers.

Ha2: Racial protection and bicultural coping of RS predict RRS in African American teachers.

Ha3: Collegiate experience moderates the effects of RRS and RS on burnout in African American teachers.

Ha4: High RS reduces RRS on burnout in African American teachers who attended PWIs.

There was a discussion of the study's procedures to include respondent recruitment and screening methods. Twenty African American teachers were recruited on social media platforms (e.g., Facebook and Instagram). The TSDS, CARES, CARES subscales, racial protection and bicultural coping of RS, and MBI-ES scales were used to capture data on respondents' RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences. The SPSS statistical test, multiple linear regression was used to analyze the data for RQ1 and RQ2 and moderation analysis for RQ3 and RQ4.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Overview

This chapter summarizes the statistical findings of the effects on RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences on burnout in African American teachers. The data was obtained by administrating online surveys on RRS (TSDS), RS, racial protection and bicultural coping (CARES), and burnout (MBI-ES). Survey data was obtained by running two multiple linear regression and two moderation model analyses. This chapter begins with a summary of the study's descriptive statistics, followed by a discussion on preliminary data screening procedures, assumption and null hypotheses testing, and statistical results. Chapter four concludes with an explanation of the data findings.

Descriptive Statistics

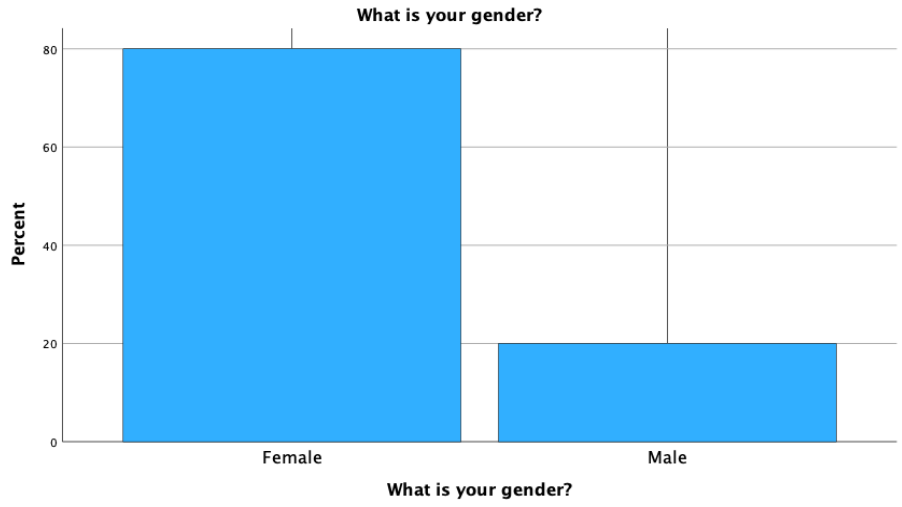
Descriptive statistics provide a comprehensive summary of the data set. The descriptive statistics included frequency tables and figures that represented the categorical variables (i.e., age, gender). Respondents interested in participating in the study were required to complete a pre-screening survey. The pre-screening survey was used to determine if they met the study's inclusionary criteria, which encompassed the following: being 18 years-old or old, Black/African American, Bi-racial Black, or Hispanic Black, and a general or special education teacher who teaches in the U.S. or U.S. Territory who earned an undergraduate degree at an HBCU or PWI. Twenty-eight respondents completed the pre-screening survey. However, eight respondents were removed for not meeting the study's inclusionary criteria. The respondents who did not meet the study's criteria either identified as a race/ethnicity other than Black/African, Bi-racial Black, or Hispanic Black (7.1)%, taught in a location outside of the U.S. or U.S. Territory (3.8%), did not teach general or special education (8%) or attended both an HBCU and PWI (13%).

Respondents who met the inclusionary criteria completed a sociodemographic form that asked about their race (e.g., Black/African American, Bi-racial Black, Hispanic Black), gender, age range (e.g., 31-40), marital status (e.g., single), U.S. location (e.g., West, Northeast), type of school district (e.g., urban), type of school (e.g., rural, charter), highest degree earned (e.g., bachelors, doctorate), type of teacher (e.g., general or special education), and college (e.g., HBCU or PWI).

The descriptive statistics showed the respondents identified as Black or African American (N=20) who were all 18 years old or older. There were not any respondents who identified as Bi-racial Black or Hispanic Black. The sociodemographic survey data was categorized by variable to obtain a clear illustration of the frequency distribution for gender, age, highest level of education, and collegiate experience (HBCU or PWI). Figure 5 shows the study was comprised of 80% females (N=16) and 40% males (N=4).

Figure 5

Gender of Survey Respondents (N=20)



As shown in Table 2, most of the respondents in the sample were between the ages of 31 and 40. The age ranges for this study were as follows: 18-21 (0%), 22-30 (20%), 31-40 (45%), 41-50 (30%), and 51+ (5%). Among the respondents, Table 3 shows 12 (60%) attended HBCUs, and eight (40%) attended PWIs shown in Table 3. Most respondents earned a master's degree. Figure 6 shows the degree attainment for the respondents was as follows: bachelor's degree (35%), master's degree (45%), specialist degree (1%), and doctorate degree (15%). Most respondents reported living in the U.S. Southeast (see Figure 7). Among the respondents, most were employed in rural schools (50%). The remaining sample taught in urban (25%) and suburban (25%) schools. (See Figure 8).

Table 2

Age of Survey Respondents (N = 20)

Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
18-21	0	00.0	20.0	20.0
22-30	4	20.0	20.0	20.0
31-40	9	45.0	45.0	65.0
41-50	6	40.0	30.0	95.0
51-60	1	5.0	5.0	100.0
61+	0	0	0	0

Table 3

Frequency Distribution for Collegiate Experience

College Experience	Frequency	Percentage
HBCU	12	60.0
PWI	8	40.0

Figure 6

Bar Chart of Respondent Educational Level

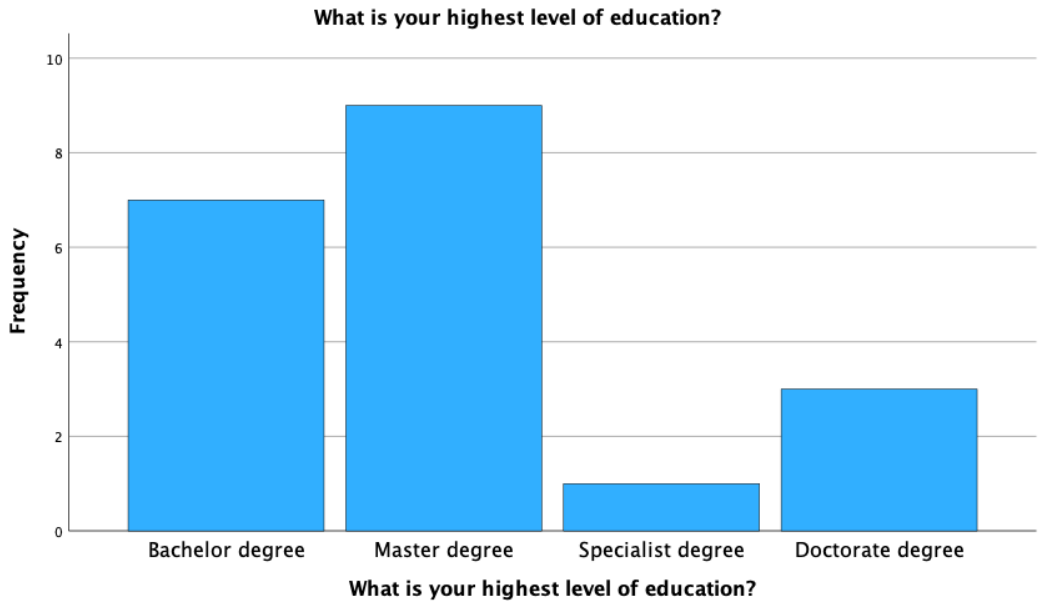


Figure 7

Histogram of Geographic Location

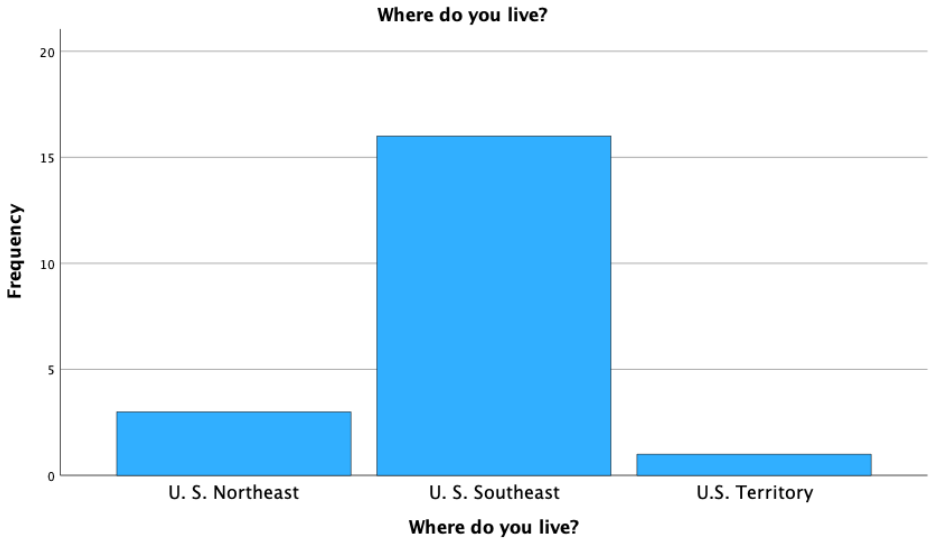
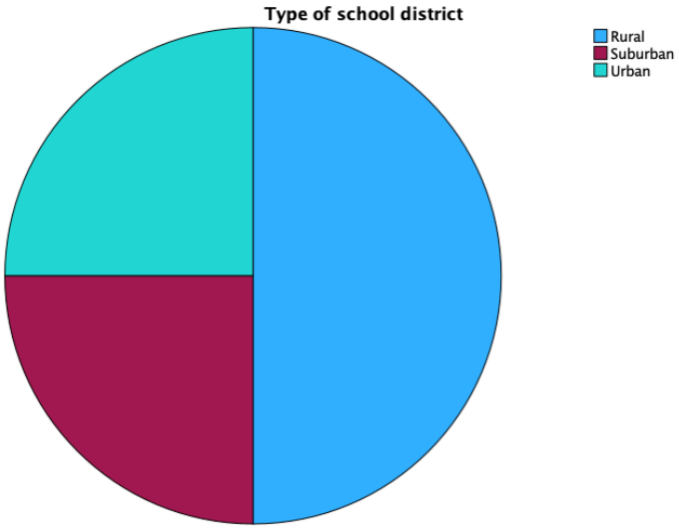


Figure 8

Pie Chart of School District



Results

Data Screening

Prior to the linear regression analyses, preliminary data screening was conducted to examine the study's variables, RRS, RS, collegiate experience, and burnout. The purpose of data screening is to check underlying assumptions (Patino & Ferreira, 2018), identify outliers, errors, or missing values (Roni & Djajadikerta, 2020; Warner, 2021), and assess for reliability or internal consistency (Tavakol, 2011) of survey instruments. The data was entered into IBM SPSS Version 29 and inspected for errors and inconsistencies. There was one data entry error found with the racial protection subscale of RS. There were a total of 10 items for the subscale; however, "you can learn a lot from being around important White people" was not entered into the dataset.

Table 4 depicts a summary of the study's variables, including the instrument, means, the number of respondents (*N*), standard deviations, skewness, kurtosis, standard error of kurtosis, and minimum and maximum values. A frequency table (See Table 4) was created to show there were not any missing errors or values. Any missing values would be represented as a blank cell (Warner, 2021). Boxplots were created (Figures 9, 10, 11, 12, and 13) and screened for outliers (i.e., extreme scores) (Warner, 2021). The box plots do not have any dots above or below the whiskers, which indicates there were no extreme values. The data was screened for internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha measures an instrument's reliability (i.e., internal consistency) (Tavakol, 2011). The Cronbach's alpha scale ranges from 0 to 1, with a score of .70 and above as an acceptable benchmark (Warner, 2021). The 20 respondents were administered surveys that examined (a) RRS as measured by the TSDS (21 items; α=.96); (b) RS as measured by CARES (35items; α=.87); (c) racial protection of RS as measured by CARES(9 items; α=.09*); (d) bicultural coping as measured by CARES (5 items; α=.65); and (e) burnout as measured by MBI-ES (22 items; α=.81; See Table 5).

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Study Instruments

		TSDS	CARES	Racial Protection	Bicultural Coping	MBI-ES
N	Valid	20	20	20	20	20
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		46.15	1.836	1.800	2.010	43.84
Median		47.50	1.800	1.778	2.100	3.205
Std. Deviation		14.51	.3296	.1928	.5712	.6906
Skewness		-.084	1.041	-.207	-.086	.089
Kurtosis		-1.359	.915	-.391	-.603	-.933
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.992	.992	.922	.922	.922

	TSDS	CARES	Racial Protection	Bicultural Coping	MBI-ES
Minimum	24.00	1.43	1.44	1.00	2.14
Maximum	70.00	2.16	2.11	3.00	4.50

Figure 9

Boxplot of RRS

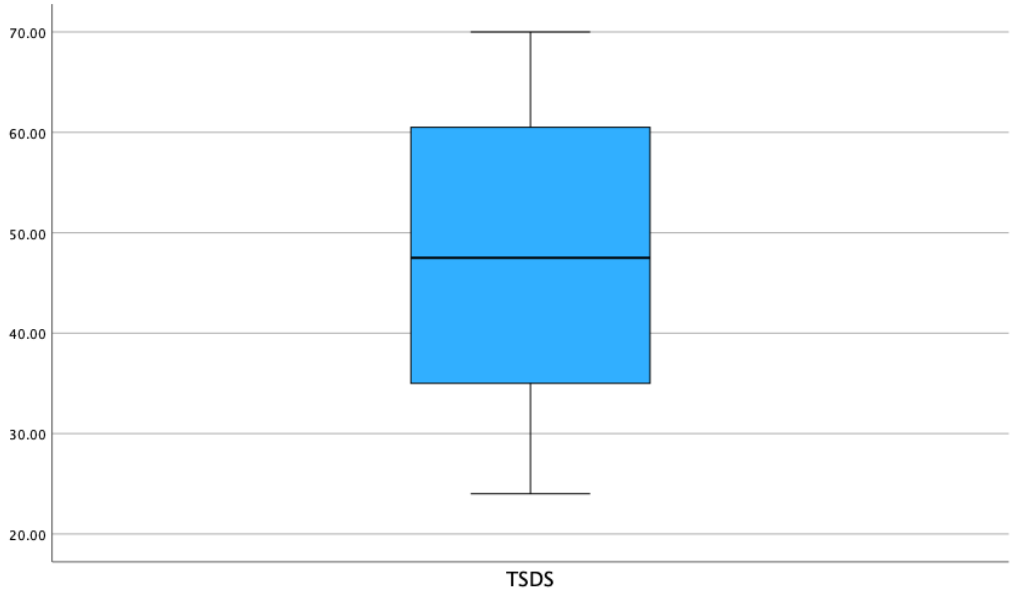


Figure 10

Boxplot of RS

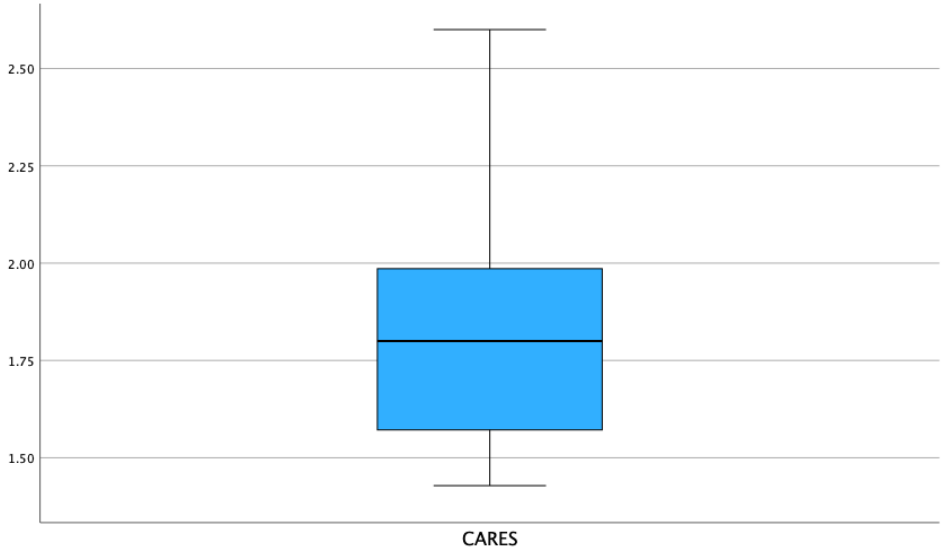


Figure 11

Boxplot of Racial Protection

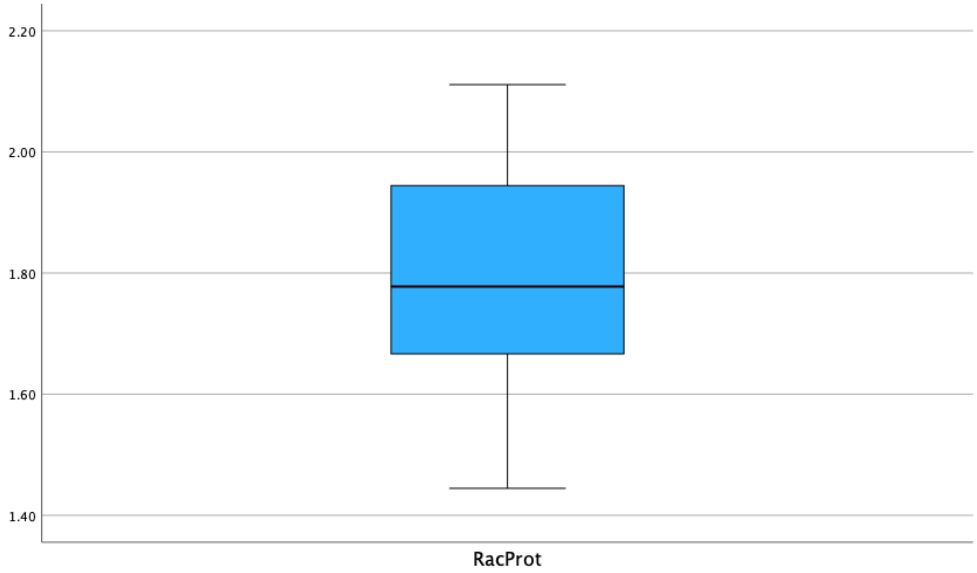


Figure 12

Boxplot of Bicultural Coping

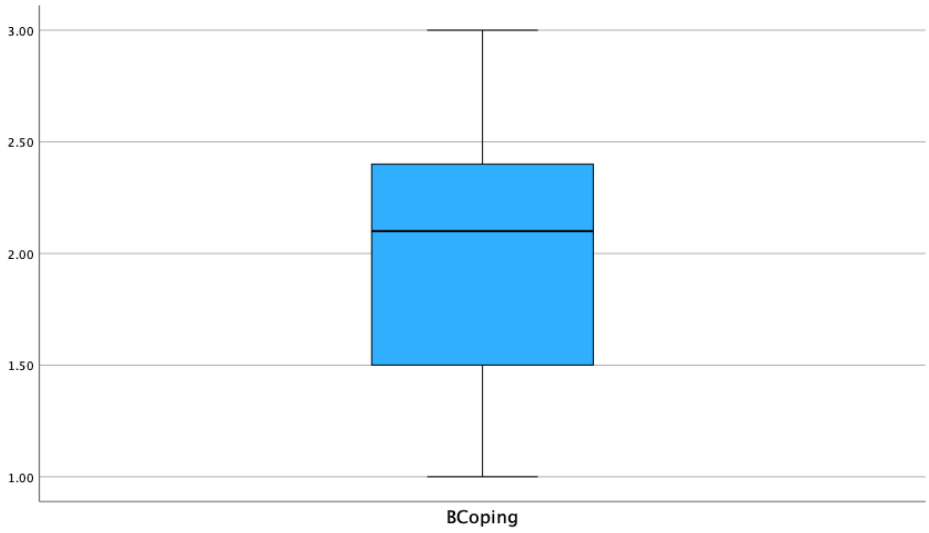


Figure 13

Boxplot of Burnout

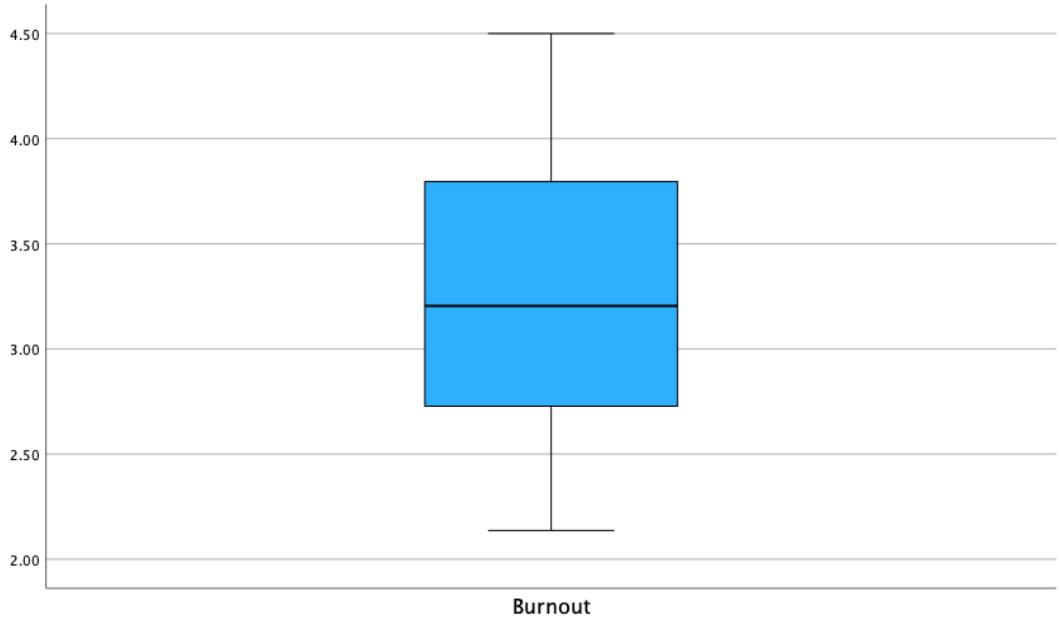


Table 5

Cronbach's Alpha Scores of Survey Instruments

Instrument	Number of Items	Threshold	Cronbach's alpha
TSDS	21	.70	.96
CARES	35	.70	.87
Racial Protection	9	.70	.09
Bicultural Coping	5	.70	.65
MBI-ES	22	.70	.81

Research Questions

RQ1: Are RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences predictors of burnout in African American teachers?

RQ2: Does racial protection and bicultural coping of RS predict RRS in African American teachers?

RQ3: Does collegiate experience moderate the effect of RRS and RS on burnout in African American teachers?

RQ4: When RS is "high," do African American teachers who attended a PWI have a reduced effect of RRS on burnout than African American teachers who attended an HBCU?

Hypotheses One

$H_0$1: RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences will have no effect on burnout in African American teachers.

H_a1: RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences are predictors of burnout in African American teachers.

Multiple Linear Regression Assumption Testing

Linear regression models examine relationships between predictor (*X*) and outcome (*Y*) variables (Vermas & Abdel-Salem, 2019). The results of regression analysis do not imply

causation; rather, the results suggest a causal association between the variables (Zdanuik, 2008). This study uses multiple linear regression to examine if RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences predict burnout in African American teachers. For multiple regression models, Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) is an estimator used to examine which predictor variables are more useful in projecting the outcome variable or how the predictor variables are associated to the outcome variable (Zdanuik, 2008**)**. Before proceeding to the multiple regression data analysis, OLS assumptions must met prior to running the analysis. OLS assumptions define the parameters of the regression model. OLS estimates the parameters by using least squares regression (AL-Noor & Muhammad, 2013). The premise of least squares in regression models is to reduce the sum of squares of vertical deviations or errors between observed and predicted values (AL-Noor & Muhammad, 2013). Meaning, that researchers want to identify the best line that aligns with the data (Wilson et al., 2016).

The first OLS assumption is the assumption of linearity. This assumption explores if a linear relationship exists between predictor and outcome variables (Vermas & Abdel-Salem, 2019). Namely, as the predictor variables change, the outcome variable changes (Wilson et al., 2019). In IBM SPSS, a scatterplot was constructed to visually scrutinize if a linear association existed between predictor variables, RRS, RS, and collegiate experience and outcome variable, burnout. Figures 14, 15, and 16 show the residuals of the outcome variable, burnout. The visual inspection of the scatterplots showed a straight regression line extending from left to right in a positive or upward direction (Warner, 2021), confirming the regression analysis met the assumption of linearity.

Figure 14

Q-Q Plot of RRS

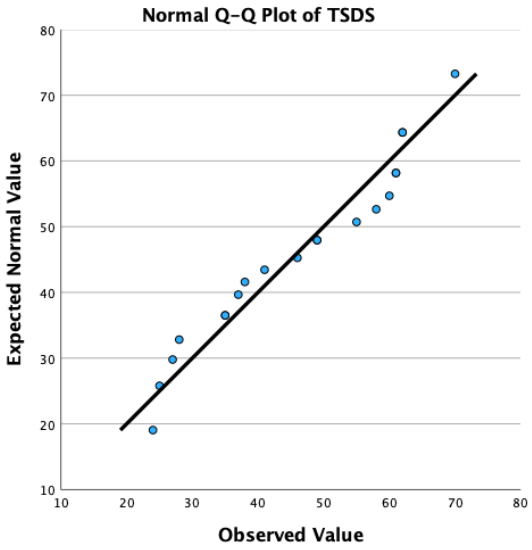


Figure 15

Q-Q Plot of RS

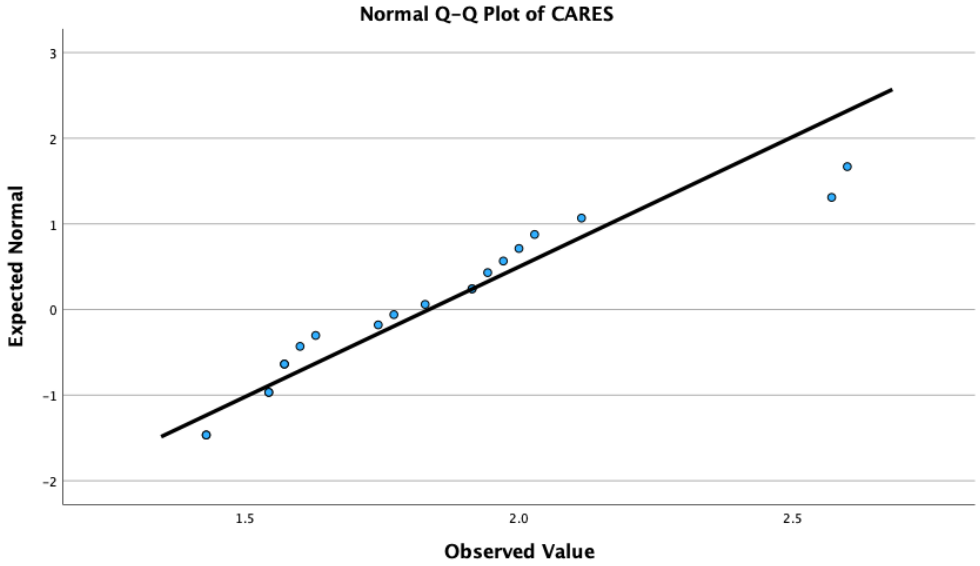
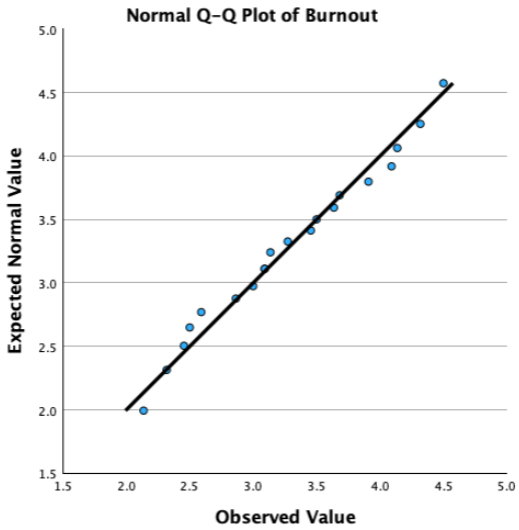


Figure 16

Q-Q Plot of Burnout



The second OLS assumption examines normality or if the variables are normally distributed within the model. Normality involves scrutinizing the data to determine if values are situated on or close by the regression line (Vermas & Abdel-Salem, 2019, p. 71). Scatterplots were created to demonstrate that RRS, RS, and burnout scores were normally distributed as Figures 17 and 18 show the variables have a normal distribution. Both figures have a positive incline, moving from left to right (Warner, 2021). The Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality for collegiate experience was also conducted to test the assumption of normality (See Table 6). The results indicated normal distribution within the model. The *p* values for both groups exceed the .05 significance level for burnout in the HBCU $t(12)$, $p = .934 > .05$, and PWI, $t(8)$, $p = .893 > .05$ groups (See Table 6).

Figure 17

Scatterplot of DV Burnout and IV RRS

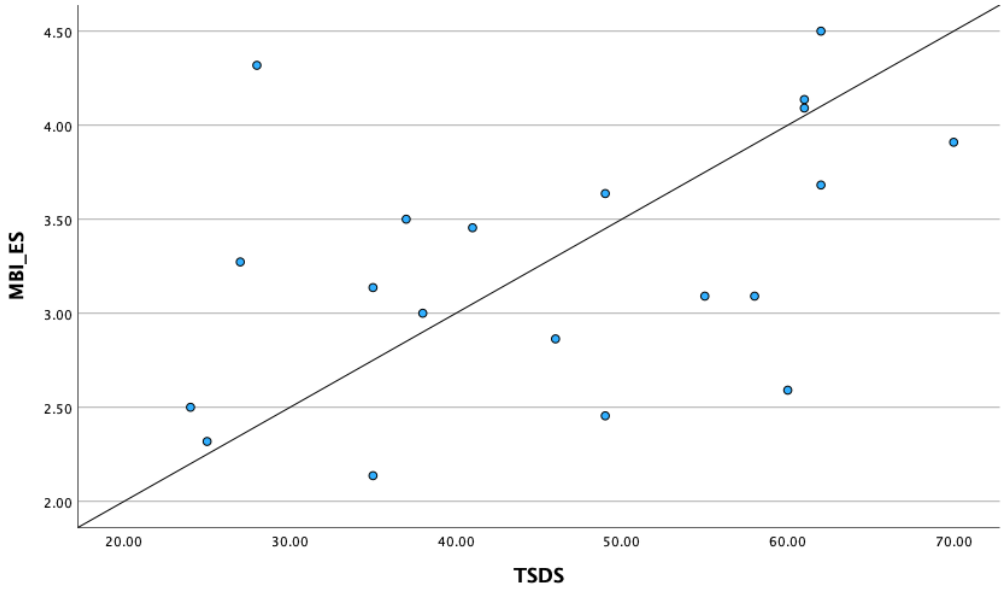


Figure 18

Scatterplot of DV Burnout and IV RS

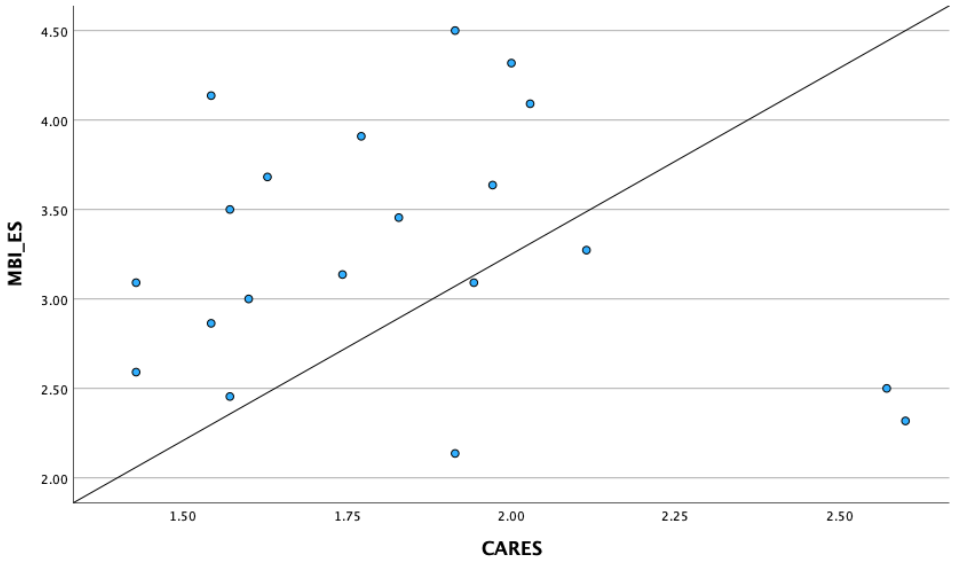


Table 6

Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality

College		Statistic	Shapiro-Wilk df	Sig
Burnout	HBCU	.934	12	.430
	PWI	.893	8	.248

Table 7

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances of Burnout Between Collegiate Groups

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				t-test for Equality of Means				95% Confidence of the Interval	
		F	Sig	t	df	Sig (2-Tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Burnout	Equal variance assumed	.057	.814	-1.46	18	.885	-.0474	.3234	-.7273	.6326
	Equal variance not assumed			-1.44	14.2	.888	-0.474	.3299	-.7543	.6596

The third OLS assumption, homogeneity of variance, or homoscedasticity, assumes equal variance (*Y* scores) in the sample populations (Warner, 2021). Levene's Test for Equality of Variances was conducted to test the assumption. An independent sample t-test was also conducted to assess the homogeneity of variance between the two collegiate experience groups (i.e., HBCU and PWI) on the continuous outcome variable, burnout. An independent t-test is used when (a) the DV, or outcome variable, is continuous, (b) the IV or predictor variable is one, (c) the sample of two groups, (d) groups are independent, (e) zero covariates (Roni &

Djajadikerta, 2021). Due to the unequal sample size of respondents in the HBCU and PWI groups, Levene's Test for the Equality of Variance was used to determine if the assumption of homogeneity was met for this study. As shown in Table 7, the Levene's test result, F (1,18) = .057, p = .814, suggested homogeneity between HBCU group (M = 3.27, SD = .6830) and PWI group (M = 3.33, SD = .7483).

The fourth OLS assumption involves multicollinearity. Violation of this assumption occurs when predictor variables are correlated with each other (Vermas & Abdel-Salem, 2019). Table 8 shows the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) that tests for multicollinearity. The VIF for the RRS =1.52, RS =1. 48, and collegiate experience = 1.03 are small. The VIF results suggested that RRS and RS (predictor variables) are moderately associated and do not show any signs of multicollinearity.

Table 8

Collinearity Statistics of RRS, RS, and Collegiate Experience

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
Model	B	Std Error	Beta	t	Sig	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	1.415	1.463		.967	.348		
RRS	.026	.013	.553	2.037	.059	.659	1.52
RS	.356	.562	.170	.634	.535	.676	1.48

Data Analysis Multiple Linear Regression

The survey data for this study was collected and stored on Google Forms. After closing the submission for study participation, the responses were extracted from Google Forms, then exported to Microsoft Excel then uploaded to the statistical software IBM SPSS Version 29. Next, Hayes Process Macro was downloaded for OLS regression analyses. Table 10 shows the model summary. Table 9 shows the model had three predictor variables (RRS, RS, and collegiate experience and one outcome variable, burnout, that were statistically nonsignificant, $R = .472$, $R^2 = .22$, $F\ (3,16) = 1.53$, $p = .25$.

The overall model shows that R-squared (R^2) or the coefficient of determination (Warner, 2021) for the outcome variable burnout, is .22 (See Table 9). R^2 does not imply causality; rather, it is used to determine the proportion of variance in the outcome variable, (Y) projected from the predictor variable (X; Warner, 2021) with values ranging between 0 and 1. When $R^2 = .30$, it suggests a potential relationship between variables. A low R^2 score of .22 suggested the predictor variables in the regression model did not statistically support the proportion of variance in burnout. The overall variance between the predictor variables was 22%. Wilson et al. (2016) suggested examining the adjusted R^2 when running multiple regression. Namely, R^2 increases each time a predictor variable is added to the regression model (Wilson et al., 2019). Wilson and colleagues explained when the sample size or number of observations, (n) is sizeable compared to the number of predictor variables (k), then there will be little difference between R^2 and adjusted R^2. However, it cannot be assumed the adjusted R^2 will increase as predictor variables are added to the regression model (Wilson et al., 2016).

Due to this study's relatively small sample size, the adjusted R^2 was analyzed to determine the statistical power of the regression model. The results show adjusted $R^2 = .077$,

which means only 8% of the variation in burnout is explained by RRS, RS, and collegiate experience, and the adjusted R^2 was also nonsignificant. Table 10 shows the predictor variables, RRS *(b* = 0.03, *t* =2.04, *p* **=.** 06**)**, RS, (*b* = 0.36, *t* =.63, *p* = .54) and collegiate experience (*b* = 0.17, *t* =.54, *p* = .60) did not contribute to the regression model. Table 10 also shows the predicted variance in burnout (i.e., zero-order, partial and part correlations). The zero-order or Pearson's r results show a moderate statistical association between RRS and burnout (*r* = .44) and a small statistical association between RS and burnout (*r* = -.14). The effect sizes for RRS and RS were calculated by squaring the part correlations (Warner, 2021; see Table 10). The calculations suggested small effect sizes for predictor variables RRS (r^2 =. 19) and RS (r^2 = .02).

Table 9

RQ 1Model Summary

Model	R	R Squared	Adjusted R Squared	Std. Error of the Estimate	F Change	Change df 1	Statistics df 2	Sig F Change
1	.472	.223	.077	.6635	1.53	3	16	**.**246

Table 10

RQ1 Coefficient Statistics

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations Zero-order	Partial	Part
	b	Std. Error	B					
(Constant)	1.18	1.59		0.75	0.47			

							.439	.434
RRS	0.03	0.01	0.55	2.04	0.06	.438		
RS	0.36	0.56	0.17	0.63	0.53	-.140	.143	.129
PWI/HBCU	0.17	0.31	0.12	0.54	0.60			

To test for the null hypothesis, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to either reject the null hypothesis or accept the alternative hypothesis. The purpose of an ANOVA test is to estimate the statistical significance or nonsignificance between groups (Adu & Miles, 2023). ANOVA uses the *F* statistic to reject or accept the research hypotheses (Rasch et al., 2020). The study's *F* distribution was comprised of three groups (RRS, RS, and collegiate experience) with 19 degrees of freedom (*df)*. The ANOVA test results indicated F (3, 16) = 1.52, p = 0.25 (See Table 11). The critical value of *F*, (found in the critical values of *F* chart; Warner, 2021), for α = .05 is 3.13. The computed *F* statistic did not exceed the critical value of 3.13 with a *p*-value of 0.25. It was concluded the model was nonsignificant and the null hypothesis was accepted for the regression model.

Table 11

RQ 1 ANOVA Results

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
1						
	Regression	2.017	3	.672	1.527	.246
	Residual	7.044	16	.440		
	Total	9.061	19			

a. Dependent Variable: Burnout

b. Predictors: Collegiate experience, RS, RRS

Hypothesis Two

$H_0$2: Racial protection and bicultural coping of RS will not predict RRS in African American teachers.

H_a2: Racial protection and bicultural coping will predict RRS in African American teachers.

Multiple Linear Regression Assumption Testing

As previously mentioned in Hypothesis One, the assumptions for regression models are linearity, homogeneity of variance, and normality, which must be met for the regression analysis. Scatterplots (Figures 18 and 19) were created to test the assumptions of linearity and homogeneity of variance for racial protection of RS and bicultural coping of RS. The scatterplots for Figures 18 and 19 demonstrated a linearity. A histogram (Figure 20) and P-Plot (Figure 21) were created to test the assumption of normality. The assumption of multicollinearity was tested, and the results are shown in Table 12. The VIF for racial protection =1.218, bicultural coping =1. 218, and are small and suggest the variables do not demonstrate signs of multicollinearity. The assumptions were met for the regression analysis.

Table 12

Collinearity Statistics of Racial Protection and Bicultural Coping

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
Model	B	Std Error	Beta	t	Sig	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	67.46	29.92		2.254	.038		

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Collinearity Statistics		
Racial Protection	.285	18.22	.004	.016	.988	.821	1.218
Bicultural Coping	-10.86	6.151	-.427	-1.765	.096	.821	1.218

Figure 19

Scatterplot of Regression RRS (DV) and Racial Protection (IV)

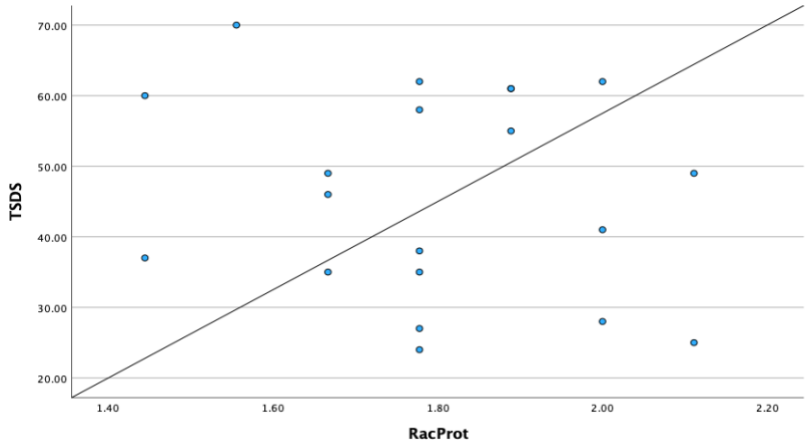


Figure 20

Scatterplot of Regression RRS (DV) and Bicultural Coping (IV)

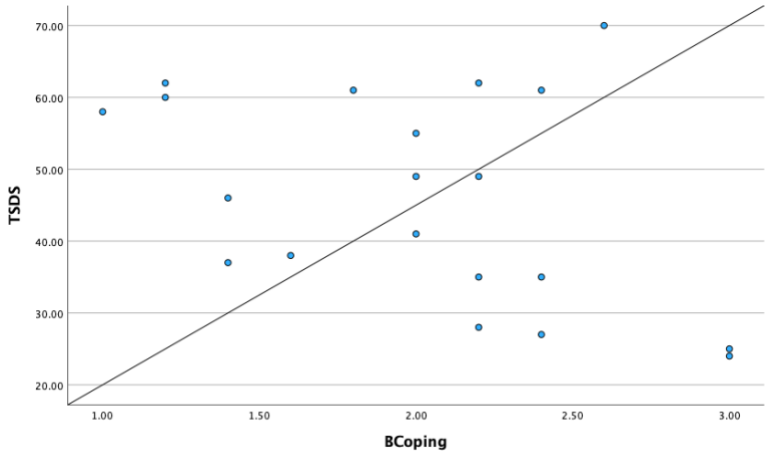


Figure 21

Histogram of DV RRS and IVs Racial Protection and Bicultural Coping of RS

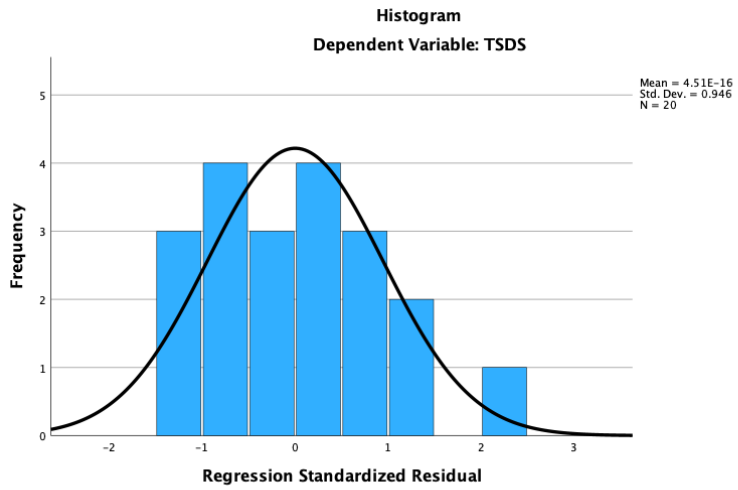
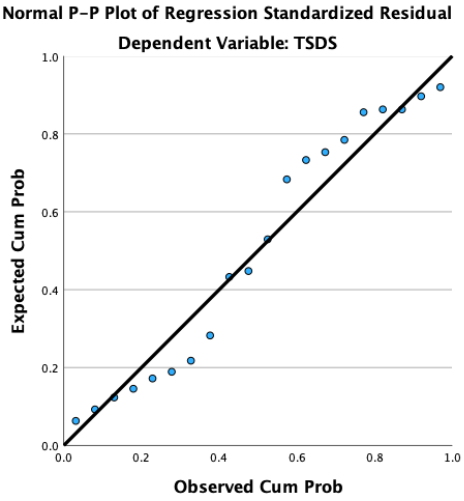


Figure 22

P-Plot of Regression Residual of DV RRS and IV Racial Protection of RS



Data Analysis Multiple Linear Regression

A multiple linear regression was used to test the hypothesis if racial protection of RS and bicultural coping of RS predicted RRS in African American teachers. Table 13 shows racial protection and bicultural coping did not explain a significant proportion of variance in burnout, nor did the subscales predict RRS (R^2 = .18, $F(2, 19)$ = 1.88, p = .18). The model shows R^2 = .18 which suggested only 18% of the variation in RRS is explained by racial protection and bicultural coping. Individual predictor variables were examined, and the results revealed bicultural coping of RS (b = -10.86, t =-1.77, p = .10) and racial protection (b = .285, t = .016, p = .99) subscales of RS were not predictors of RRS in African American teachers (See Table 14).

An ANOVA test was run to test the null hypothesis that racial protection and bicultural coping would predict RRS (See Table 15). The F statistic was used to either reject the null hypothesis or accept the alternate hypothesis. Using the F distribution table, the critical value for the F ratio at the significance level (α = .05) was 3.52. This ratio exceeds the obtained F-ratio of 1.88, and the null hypothesis was accepted for this research question.

Table 13

RQ2 Model Summary

Model	R	R Squared	Adjusted R Squared	Std. Error of the Estimate	F Change	Change df 1	Statistics df 2	Sig F Change
1	.426	.181	.085	13.88	.181	2	17	.183

Table 14

RQ 2 Coefficient Statistics

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	b	Std. Error	B		
(Constant)	67.46	29.92		2.25	.038
Racial Protection	.285	18.22	0.04	0.16	0.99
Bicultural Coping	-10.86	6.15	-4.27	-1.77	0.10

Table 15

RQ2 ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
1	Regression	724.96	2	362.48	1.88	.183
	Residual	3273.59	17	192.56		
	Total	3998.55	19			

Hypothesis Three

$H_0$3: Collegiate experience does not moderate the effects of RRS and RS on burnout in African American teachers.

H_a3: Collegiate experience moderates the effects of RRS and RS on burnout.

Multiple Linear Regression Assumption Testing

Hypothesis Two indicated the assumptions for regression analysis include homogeneity of variance, linearity, and normality. Figures 14, 15, and 16 show the model met the assumption for linearity. The assumption of normality was tested and depicted in Figures 17 and 18 and Table 6. Table 7 shows the model met the assumption of the homogeneity of variance. The model also met the multicollinearity assumption (See Table 8).

Data Analysis Multiple Linear Regression

Moderation analysis is a type of regression that investigates the impact of *X* on *Y* when moderated by *W* (Hayes, 2018) or examines how the moderator (*W*) and predictor variable (*X*) influence the outcome variable (*Y*) (Hayes, 2018). A simple moderation regression (Model 1) in PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2018), an extension installed on SPSS, was conducted to test the interaction between RS (*X*), RRS (co-variate), and collegiate experience (*W*) on burnout (*Y*) in African American teachers. The overall model, shown in Table 16 and Figure 23, suggested collegiate experiences did not moderate the effects of RRS or RS on burnout among the respondents ($R = .48$, $R^2 = .23$, $F(4,15) = 1.88$, $p = .38$ explaining 23% of the variance in the outcome variable, burnout. Table 17 showed a positive, insignificant moderating influence of collegiate experience on the relationships between RS, RRS, and burnout (b = .2062, t = .4279, p = .67). Each predictor variable was scrutinized to ascertain a better conceptualization of the moderating effect of collegiate experience. RS ($b = .32$, $t = .56$, $p = .58$) and RRS ($b = .03$, $t = 1.93$, $p = .07$) were statistically insignificant predictors. The interaction (Int_1) term ($b = .2062$, $t = 42.79$, $p = .68$) was statistically nonsignificant, which suggested collegiate experience did not moderate the relationship between RS and burnout (See Table 17). The model's results revealed the overall p-value of .38 exceeded the alpha level ($\alpha = .05$). The results indicated that RS and

RRS were not predictors of burnout when moderated by collegiate experience, and the null hypothesis is accepted for this research question.

Table 16

RQ3 Model Summary

Model	R	R Squared	Std. Error of the Estimate	F Change	Change Statistics df 1	df 2	Sig F Change
1	.481	.232	.464	1.13	4	15	.378

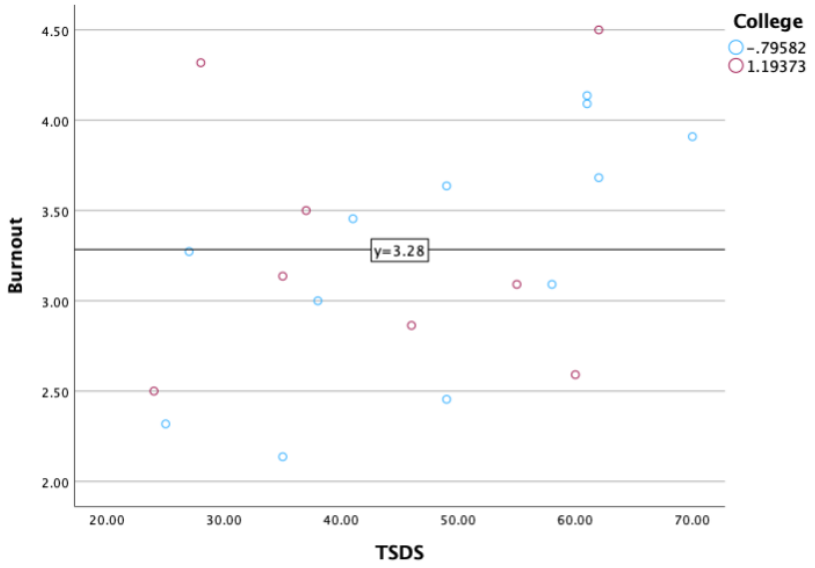
Table 17

RQ 3 Coefficient Statistics

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	
Model		*b*	Std Error	t	Sig
1	Constant	1.497	1.514	.9887	.336
	RS	.3248	.5812	.5588	.585
	RRS	.0258	.0133	1.935	.072
	College Experience	-.2960	.9021	-.3281	.747
	Int_1	.2062	.4819	.4279	.675

Figure 23

Moderating Effect of Collegiate Experience of IVs RRS and RS on DV Burnout



Hypothesis Four

$H_0$4: High RS has no effect on RRS on burnout in African American teachers who attended PWIs.

H_a4: High RS reduces RRS on burnout in African American teachers who attended PWIs.

Multiple Linear Regression Assumption Testing

Hypothesis Three revealed the model met the assumptions for multiple linear regression. The assumptions for multiple linear regression analysis revealed the analysis met the assumption for linearity (See Figures 14, 15, and 16). Figures 17 and 18 and Table 7 show the regression met the assumption of normality. Table 8 provided a visual representation of homoscedasticity and met the assumption of homogeneity of variance. Also, as shown in Table 8, the regression met the multicollinearity assumption.

Data Analysis Multiple Linear Regression

A moderation analysis (Model 2) was conducted using PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2018) to test two conditional effects of RRS (*X*), high RS (*W*), and collegiate experience (*Z*) on burnout (*Y*) in African American teachers. To test the interaction, Hayes (2018) indicated *contrast* is added to the syntax in SPSS. In this model, the PROCESS syntax read: **process y=burnout/x=RRS/w=RS/z=college/model=2/contrast=5,0;5,1** where low RS = 0 and high RS = 5. The overall model, shown in Table 18 and Figure 24, suggested collegiate experience and high RS did not moderate the effects of RRS on burnout among the respondents (R = .68, R^2 = .46, $F(5,14) = 2.38$, p = .38 explaining 46% of the variance in the outcome variable, burnout.

Table 19 shows the interaction terms for high RS and collegiate experience. RS and its interaction with RRS (Int_1) showed a positive nonsignificant interaction (b = .0654, t = 2.029 p = .06). The interaction term suggests that RS does not moderate the relationship between RRS and burnout. The results also show collegiate experience and its interaction with RRS (Int_2) showed a negative nonsignificant interaction (b = -.0157, t = -1.592, p = .13). The interaction terms suggest that collegiate experience does not moderate the relationship between RRS and burnout (See Table 19).

Table 18

RQ4 Model Summary

Model	R	R Squared	Std. Error of the Estimate	F Change	Change df 1	Statistics df 2	Sig F Change
2	.677	.459	.350	2.38	5	14	.378

Table 19

RQ 4 Coefficient Statistics

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	
		b	Std Error	t	Sig
2	Constant	6.154	2.686	2.292	.038
	RRS	-.0968	.0616	-1.572	.138
	RS	-2.076	1.302	-1.594	.133
	Int_1	.0654	.0322	2.029	.0619
	College	.7754	.4649	1.668	.1175
	Int_2	-.0157	.0098	-1.592	.1337

Summary

This chapter presents the statistical results of the study. The data was analyzed using IBM SPSS version 29 in addition to Hayes's (2018) PROCESSS macro. This chapter provided an overview of the descriptive statistics and inferential statistics (e.g., multiple linear regression and moderation analyses). RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences (predictor variables) were explored to examine the effect on burnout (outcome variable) in African American teachers. The analyses for the four null hypotheses showed that RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences were not statistically significant predictors of burnout in African American teachers. Also, the results showed neither collegiate experience nor RS moderated the effect of RRS on burnout.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a summary of the study's findings. The principal aim of this quantitative online, survey-based study was to fill the gap in research on RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences on burnout in African American teachers. The results of the study were developed based on four research questions: (a) Are RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences predictors of burnout in African American teachers; (b) Does racial protection and bicultural coping of RS predict RRS in African American teachers; (c) Does collegiate experience moderate the effect of RRS and RS on burnout in African American teachers; and (d) When RS is "high," do African American teachers who attended a PWI have a reduced effect of RRS on burnout than African American teachers who attended a HBCU? This chapter's following subsections will discuss the implications, limitations and recommendations for future research.

Discussion

The quantitative online study explored the statistical significance of how RRS and RS influence burnout in African American teachers who attended HBCUs and PWI. Scholars have studied RRS (Doan et al., 2023; Kohli & Pizzaro, 2020) and RS (Bentley-Edwards, 2020), collegiate experiences at HBCUs (Genera, 2004) vs PWIs (Robinson, 2018), and the impact of occupational burnout (Solomon et al., 2022) as separate constructs. Researchers have found African American teachers experience more stress (Steiner & Woo, 2021), racial discrimination, and burnout (Doan et al., 2023) compared to their White colleagues. However, few have considered how teachers perceive stress and burnout within the context of RRS, RS, and divergent RS experiences at HBCUs and PWIs. This study investigated the effects of RRS, measured by the TSDS, RS, racial protection of RS, and bicultural coping of RS, all measured by

the CARES (Bentley-Edwards & Stevenson, 2016), and collegiate experiences (HBCU vs. PWI) on burnout (as measured by the MBI-ES) (Maslach et al., 2016; Szigeti et al., 2016). This study also used collegiate experience as a moderating variable between RRS and RS on burnout.

Research Question One

For research question one, no statistical support emerged in testing of the null hypothesis for RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences (HBCU vs. PWI) as predictors of burnout in African American teachers. However, Edelsbrunner and Thurn (2024) provided an explanation regarding the occurrence of nonsignificant statistical results. Edelsbrunner and Thurn (2024) found non-significant results neither imply no effect nor variate from a significant effect without further analyses. Moreover, a researcher's hypothesis may be simply inaccurate due to context-dependent questions (Edelsbrunner & Thurn, 2024). RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences would be categorized as context-dependent variables. For example, RRS may have been a valid experience if respondents were specifically probed about interacting with race-evasive co-workers (Kohli, 2018), working in racialized conditions (Grooms et al., 2021), and experiencing microaggressions (Brown, 2019). Considering the issue of context-dependence, the study's theoretical framework, the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), and current literature may offer reasons why RRS, RS, and collegiate experience provided no support for the null hypothesis.

The Transactional Model of Stress and Coping presumes stress is a transaction between an individual and the environment appraised as either exceeding one's resources for coping or burdensome (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Stressors, or daily hassles, are initially evaluated through primary appraisals, and then an individual copes or attempts to manage the stressor through secondary appraisals (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Microaggressions are daily hassles

experienced by African Americans and other ethnic minorities (Sue, 2007) that can precipitate RRS. The results of the current study revealed that RRS did not predict burnout in African American teachers. Slavin et al. (1991) criticized Lazarus and Folkman's theory for the absence of racial/cultural relevancy. Comparably, Berjot and Gillet (2011) suggested Lazarus and Folkman's theory was too exhaustive, failing to consider that individuals possess both social and personal identities. Cross (1991) conjectured African Americans possess several identities. Hence, being 'Black' is a social identity that can shapeshift depending on social factors (e.g., socio-economic status) and RS experiences (Sellers & Shelton, 2003). However, the Racial Encounter Coping Appraisal and Socialization Theory (RECAST), the racial complement to Lazarus and Folkman's theory (Anderson & Stevenson, 2019, p. 66), offered guidance for no support of the null hypothesis.

Anderson and Stevenson (2019) found RS was the hallmark in reducing or buffering discriminatory distress. Other scholars have indicated RS prepares individuals for (a) racial bias (Simon, 2021), (b) cultural socialization (Hughes et al., 2006), and (c) racism (Osborne et al., 2020). In higher educational settings, Stanley (2014) found social identity is mediated by RS (Stanley, 2014). RS helps young adults cope with adverse collegiate experiences (Bynum et al., 2007) and is linked to positive educational outcomes (Wang et al., 2020). RS is a coping strategy for managing RRS (Butler-Barnes et al., 2019; Sue et al., 2019) and an imperative process in racial identity development (Blackmon et al., 2016). According to RECAST, when exposed to a discriminatory racial encounter (DRE), it is primarily appraised, followed by an RS dialogue/message, and then secondarily appraised. (Anderson & Stevenson, 2019). An example of RECAST can be seen in Bentley-Edwards et al.'s (2016) study on RS, racial stress, and classroom management among urban pre-service teachers. They found teachers who felt racially

threatened experienced less RS and consequently experienced greater classroom discord. Bentley-Edwards et al.'s (2020) findings also suggested teachers of color with substantial RS (and racial conflict) experiences did not perceive classroom behaviors as threatening compared to White participants. In short, the principal implication communicated by Anderson and Stevenson (2019) was more exposure to R/ES (racial and ethnic) suggests possessing more self-efficacy in navigating RRS.

Research Question Two

For research question two, no statistical support emerged in testing of the null hypothesis for racial protection of RS and bicultural coping of RS as predictors of RRS in African American teachers. Lesane-Brown (2005) found discrepancies in RS research, which may support a lack of statistical significance. In 2005, Lesane-Brown and colleagues created the Comprehensive Racial Socialization Inventory (CRSI) because RS inventories were outdated (i.e., created between 1985 to 2002) and focused on the following elements: (as) prevalence, (b) content, and (c) frequency. In their review of research on RS inventories, they found statistical nonsignificance was due to discrepancies between the RS scale's intended measure compared to the predicted outcome.

In this present study, respondents answered statements regarding racial protection and bicultural coping. For example, they rated the frequency of hearing, "*You can't trust Black people who act too friendly with White people"* (Bentley-Edwards & Stevenson, 2016, p. 102). A discrepancy may have existed between the intended measure (e.g., bicultural coping) and the predicted outcome (nonsignificance). Romero and Romero (2003) indicated bicultural stress is daily stress caused by managing more than one cultural identity. Romero and Pina-Watson (2017) elaborated that bicultural stress also includes intergroup and intragroup discrimination. However, both types involve how racial/ethnic minorities are based on treatment, not perception.

Lesane-Brown et al. (2005) also conveyed (a) onset and recency, (b) usefulness of the socialization message, (c) other socialization sources (e.g., messages from others beyond parents/caregivers), (d) socialization from non-group members (i.e., anticipatory messages), and (e) socializing behaviors were missing components in RS inventories. Based on their list, the onset and recency component was presumably absent in racial protection of RS and bicultural coping of RS sub-scales. In the present study, the respondents read statements and then rated the number of times they heard the statement, not when they first (i.e., onset) and last (i.e., recency) heard the statement. For instance, respondents specified the number of times (*1 = Never, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = All the time*) they heard, "*You can learn a lot being around important White people"* (Bentley-Edwards & Stevenson, 2016, p. 102) and who communicated the message. Lesane-Brown et al. (2005) asserted when an individual first and last heard that statement could provide further insights about duration (e.g., length of time) and temporality (i.e., historical events, metaphysics, generational effects) (Rivas-Koehl & Smith, 2023) in the socialization process (Lesane-Brown et al., 2005, p. 168). Another example that supported Lesane and colleagues' work was the bicultural coping statement, "*You can't trust Black people who act too friendly with White people"* (Bentley-Edwards & Stevenson, 2016, p. 102). This statement is an anticipatory message that could be open to interpretation, considering generational differences. Lesane-Brown et al. (2005) explained an anticipatory message occurs when an individual disagrees with an RS message and then chooses to express a different message to one's children.

In this present study, most respondents were between the ages of 31 to 40 (i.e., millennials). Survey data has shown millennials are the most racially diverse and more optimistic, liberal, and educated compared to other generations (Pew Research Center, 2014). This present study was also comprised of single-race African American/Black teachers. Among

single-race African Americans, only 27% reported not having any close White friends (Pew Research Center, 2015). Recent data has shown a little over 50% of African American college students attend PWIs (National Association of Colleges and Employers [NACE], 2023). This is a drastic difference in enrollment compared to the total number of Black students (33%) enrolled in college during the 1980s (Bucknor, 2015). It can be inferred, due to generational differences, that distrusting Black individuals who are friendly toward White people is a potentially obsolete, old-school way of thinking.

Given these points, Mehler et al. (2019) suggested statistical nonsignificance refines the creditability of scientific research. Mehler et al. (2019) conveyed nonsignificance can empower researchers to counter a particular theory. The current research study's design was developed using Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) Transactional Model of Stress and Coping. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) theorized stress is a transaction between the person and the environment. Though, in situations mediated by racism, RECAST posited racial minorities cognitively appraise (i.e., primary appraisals of the events, apply an RS message previously communicated by a parent/other adult, then use secondary appraisal to cope or adapt) (Anderson & Stevenson, 2019). Anderson and Stevenson (2019) suggested secondary appraisals are coping skills that occur through self-efficacy. Their perspective on secondary appraisals may suggest racial protection and bicultural coping function as secondary appraisals.

Research Question Three

For research question three, no statistical support emerged in testing the null hypothesis for collegiate experiences moderating the effects of RRS and RS on burnout. In this study, collegiate experience was defined as either attending an HBCU or PWI. Higher education studies have linked both RS and RRS to the collegiate experience. For instance, Chapman et al. (2018)

found parental RS had a significant impact on college choice. Prior to Chapman and colleagues, Anglin and Wade (2007) found RS is linked to positive academic adjustment among Black students at PWIs, while during the same year, Bynum et al. (2007) found RS was useful for coping with negative collegiate experiences like RRS. Nevertheless, studies have shown that African American students at both PWIs and HBCUs encounter on-campus RRS. As an example, racial microaggressions were a commonly reported problem at PWIs (Campbell et al., 2019; Mills, 2020). Researchers have discovered HBCU students experience sexual minority stress (Polischuck, 2022) and in-group race-related stress (Gasman & Abiola, 2016). Divergent coping mechanisms may potentially exist between groups due to RS or on-campus access to resources. For example, Greer and Chwalisz (2007) sampled undergraduate HBCU and PWCU students and examined if their scholastic scores (as measured by grade point average; G.P.A.) predicted stress and were affected (i.e., mediated) by their coping mechanisms. Gree and Chwalisz (2007) found no statistical support in differences in perceived stress between the groups. However, students enrolled at predominantly White institutions experienced more minority stress and used more avoidant-type coping skills. More recently, Jacob et al. (2022) found African Americans cope with racism through social support (e.g., friends and support groups), religion (e.g., prayer), avoidance, and problem-focused strategies.

A long-standing debate in the African American community exists regarding the benefits of attending an HBCU vs. PWI. HBCUs were established "to fill the gap" (Genera, 2004, p. 41) because of Jim Crow laws and subsequent barriers to educational access post *Brown vs. The Board of Education* (Genera, 2004). Therefore, HBCUs are consistently African Americans' primary choice because of legacy (i.e., parent or grandparent alumnus) (Genera, 2004). Proponents of HBCUs have indicated HBCUs increase racial identity development (Van Camp

et al., 2009), improve academic confidence (Cokley, 2002), and foster social mobility (Hardy et al., 2019). In contrast, advocates for PWIs suggest these institutions prepare African American students for the real world (Randall, 2018). At PWIs, African Americans are forced to reflect on what it means to be a 'Black' person (Robinson, 2018). This internal dialogue is related to what Cross (1991) described as becoming Black. Cross' Nigrescence Theory proposes that the Black identity is a social identity and "becoming Black" is a nonlinear process (Cross, 1991; Cross & Vandiver, 2001). Meaning, African-American students at an HBCU or PWI may share the same race; however, their Black identities, as social identities, can be modified depending on cognitive, affective, and behavioral factors related to their social class, sexual orientation, gender, etc. (Cross & Vandiver, 2001). Originally introduced by Parham (1985), recycling is a process likely to occur during emerging adulthood. African American adults experience events that may force them to doubt their Black identity. Therefore, to reiterate the importance of statistical non-significance, Edelsbrunner and Thurn (2024) reported non-significant results do not imply no effect.

Research Question Four

For research question four, no statistical support emerged in testing of the null hypothesis that high RS has no effect on RRS on burnout in African American teachers who attended PWIs. Researchers have reported RS buffers or safeguards against the adverse impact of discrimination (Neblett et al., 2008). Neblett et al. (2008) also found that RS, including having high racial pride and socialization behaviors, shielded adolescents from race-related stress (e.g., racial discrimination). Among African American collegiate students, Bynum et al. (2007) found RS safeguarded against racial discrimination. However, Bynum et al. (2007) described the complexity of RS messages which further suggests RS is a content-dependent variable.

In a systematic review of R/ES practices, Priest et al. (2014) found other adults (e.g., family, teachers, mentors) are agents of RS messages. Priest and colleagues conveyed RS messages communicated by family members were more impactful compared to the messages received by parents/caregivers. Priest et at. (2014) found there are different types of RS messages communicated depending on age. Priest et al. (2017) also suggested RS messages that focus on cultural socialization and preparation for bias were communicated during the early years of life whereas egalitarianism was a common RS theme among young adults. For example, Lesane-Brown et al. (2005) reported the significance of egalitarian and R/E pride messages among African American college students. Similarly, Banerjee et al. (2023) found egalitarianism was related to higher self-concept and increased academic engagement in African American students at PWIs.

Implications

Race-related Stress

The current findings did not support previous research on RRS and RS. African American teachers experience RRS because of interacting with race-evasive colleagues (Kohli, 2018) and working in racialized climates (Grooms et al., 2021). RRS may metamorphize into what is referred to as RBF as a consequence of microaggressions (Huber & Solorzano, 2015, p. 302; Kohli, 2018; Pizarro & Kohli, 2020), color blindness (Ferlazzo, 2020; Kohli, 2018) or interacting with individuals who reject racism exists (Mekawi et al., 2020). Although the results differ from previous investigations, it could be argued that RRS operates as a context-dependent variable. RRS has been defined as a stressful interaction between an individual and his/her environment caused by racism (Harrell, 2000). Prior studies found RRS predicted burnout (Miu & Moore, 2021; Shell et al., 2021a; Shell et al., 2022b; Solomon et al., 2022; Velez et al., 2018).

This discrepancy in the results compared to previous literature has suggested different experiences perpetuated by racism generate different reactions (Carter et al., 2005). Correspondingly, Harrell et al. (2003) proposed ameliorating studies that explore reactions to racism contingent on individual differences. The findings also supported current research on RS. Among collegiate learners, RS buffers RRS (Causey et al., 2022; Jimínez & Glover, 2023). In pre-service teachers, higher RS and racial conflict experiences were associated with less classroom discord (Bentley-Edwards et al., 2020).

Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

The study's findings also contradict the study's theoretical and conceptual frameworks. Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) Transactional Model on Stress and Coping has emerged as a guiding theoretical framework. Lazarus and Folkman proposed stress is evaluated through primary and secondary appraisals. Utsey (2001) indicated RRS is also assessed through primary and secondary appraisals. However, the model lacks cultural relevancy (Slavin et al., 1991). Particularly, Slavin et al. (1991) indicated Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) theory reflects Eurocentric thought. A culturally relevant stress appraisal would probe, "*How does belonging in this cultural group affect the nature and frequency of potentially stressful life events that one experiences?*" (Slavin et al., 1991, p. 157). Meaning, non-dominant cultural groups have fewer members, which increases the trajectory of experiencing minority stress (Slavin et al., 1991). As an example, in African Americans, offering the "Black perspective" (Slavin et al., 1991) in predominantly White spaces can possibly induce minority stress. African Americans also are subjected to stress because of being the visible minority (Slavin et al., 1991, p. 157) or guilt-induce stress, which is experienced by behaviors like passing (i.e., a bi-racial person passing as a single race to evade racial injustice) (Krishnamurthy, 2022). Slavin and colleagues shared it is

conceivable that minorities endure repeated acts of discrimination. By this means, Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) model neglects to explain the interplay between ongoing discriminatory stressors and the environment. Also, consistent with Conversation of Resources (CoR) (Hobfoll, 1991), an intermittent stressful event can give rise to other stressors among minorities who have few resources, which is not fully explained by Lazarus and Foklman's (1984) theory.

In African Americans, RRS is associated with trauma (Carter, 2007). This implies that African Americans may appraise and cope with both RRS and the accompanying trauma. As an added layer, Anderson and Stevenson (2019) noted an individual relies on previously taught RS messages before moving to the secondary appraisal stage. Another implication is identifying what type of RS messages (e.g., racial pride, racial barrier, self-worth, negative, egalitarian) (Lesane-Brown, 2006) an individual uses to cope with the experience. Tinsely (2018) suggested that teacher preparation programs should invest in opportunities for teachers to communicate their early childhood experiences to circumvent (a) racial activism stress and racial vicarious stress (Grooms et al., 2021). Early race-related experiences reflect coping and emotional regulation (Gaylord-Harden & Cunningham, 2009).

Christian Worldview

John 14: 26 reads, But the Helper, the Holy Spirit, whom the Father will send in my name, he will teach you all things and bring to your remembrance all that I have said to you." RRS has been described as an ambiguous and toxic experience that can lead to psychopathology, including Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (Carter, 2006). Though, the Scripture of John reminds that God lives inside of his followers despite feeling abandoned or hurt during times of racial distress. African American teachers show up for students and their respective families not for financial reward but for the grace, mercy, and love of God, our Savior.

Limitations

The results of the study did not explain how RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences impact burnout in African American teachers. There were limitations that should be examined in explicating the findings. The option to measure one category of RRS can be considered a limitation. Race-related encounters should be explicitly defined, considering racism occurs at the individual, cultural, and institutional levels (Carter, 2016). Avoidant racism, hostile racism, and aversive-hostile racism are the core classes of racism (Carter, 2006) that can potentially segue to RRS. Avoidant racism is closely aligned with racial discrimination as dominant individuals create barriers to limit non-dominant access, advancement, etc. (Carter, 2002). Hostile and aversive-hostile race-related events were not considered for the current study. This decision was largely due to the potential risk of inducing or triggering psychological or emotional harm. For example, hostile, racist events (e.g., the killing of George Floyd) (Carter, 2002) have been linked to African Americans experiencing intrusive symptoms and anger (Carter et al., 2016). Comparatively, while aversive-hostile events were reportedly more prevalent in school or work settings, the reactions to these events were more intense, uncontrollable, or visceral reactions (Carter, 2016).

An additional limitation of this current study was the small sample size. Smaller sample sizes create barriers to interpretation and increase the risk of committing a Type II error or accepting there are no differences between the two groups (Nayak, 2010). G-power was used to determine the suggested sample sizes for multiple regression and moderation, however, Jenkins and Quintana-Ascencio (2020) argued power analyses become problematic when estimating the minimum sample size. They described four reciprocal components for regression analyses, including the sample size, power level, effect size, and alpha level, with the effect size

interceding as the focus of the study. Though, the effect of RRS on burnout was close to .20, which suggested a small effect. Not only was the sample size a limitation, but the incongruence between HBCU and PWI respondents elicited an additional limitation. Hayes (2018) clarified direct or indirect effects will vary because of unequal sample sizes in groups.

A final limitation of the study's results was the incongruence of teachers who attended HBCUs and PWIs. Among the respondents, only 40% of the teachers attended PWIs, whereas 60% indicated attending an HBCU. As previously indicated in the review of literature, experiences at predominantly White colleges and universities may alter one's worldview. For example, Wei et al. (2010) found minority students at PWIs who demonstrated high bicultural competence were least likely to experience minority stress, minimizing the risk of developing psychopathology (e.g., depression) despite the potential trajectory of developing chronic mental and physical health problems (Carter, 2006). Another explanation is related to code-switching, a type of bicultural coping strategy. Among African American college graduates under age 50, a little over 50% report frequently code-switching (Dunn, 2019), and therefore, changing one's expression may not be viewed as a form of bicultural distress.

Recommendations for Future Research

Research on RRS is a highly studied concept among scholars (Carter, 2006; Harrell, 2000; Milner & Hoy, 2003; Williams et al., 2018). RRS is considered an objective and subjective experience (Carter, 2007). RRS has been extensively studied; however, within the last five years, there have been minimal studies targeting RRS, particularly microaggressions (e.g., racial bias and discrimination) (Sue et al., 2007) in African American teachers. Racial microaggressions are ambiguous and harmful (Hall & Fields, 2015) and convey racial bias and discrimination (Torino et al., 2019). The present study could be replicated by administering the IMABI (Mercer et al.,

2011), REMA, and RMAS (Torres-Harding, 2012), which have been described as valid and reliable instruments in capturing the sub-categories of microaggressions (e.g., microassaults, microinvalidations, and microinsults) (Sue et al., 2007). Also, the study could focus on African American teachers who attended PWIs, HBCUs, or who attended both (e.g., HBCU-undergraduate and PWI-graduate).

Another recommendation for future research is to repeat the study with a larger sample size. A larger sample size may demonstrate a statistically significant relationship for the relationship of RRS on burnout. A final recommendation is to consider co-variates. Jenkins and Quintana-Ascencio (2020) suggested co-variates (e.g., demographics) are important predictors in regression analyses. Meaning, in this present study, burnout could manifest differently considering gender, socioeconomic status, age, rural vs. urban teachers, or elementary vs. secondary teachers. This study could be replicated by sampling only African American females, bi-racial, sexual minority, or millennial teachers. Howard et al. (2017) found females, younger teachers, and ethnic minorities were at risk for somatization due to job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, and elevated levels of perceived stress.

Summary

RRS and RS are concepts substantially studied in the literature. However, the problem remains that few scholars have analyzed how RRS and RS impact burnout in African American teachers who attended an HBCU or PWI. This study explored if RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences predicted burnout in African American teachers, and if collegiate experiences moderated the relationship between RRS and RS on burnout. The findings indicated no statistical significance in RRS, RS, and collegiate experiences as predictors of burnout. The findings also revealed no statistical significance in collegiate experiences moderating the relationship between

RRS and RS on burnout. This study contributes to the literature in showing the need for operationally defining context-dependent variables like RRS and RS due to the different types of experiences associated with racism and socialization messages communicated by parents, peers, other adults, and media. In addition, the findings suggest future investigations that sample African American teachers who attended both an HBCU and PWI for undergraduate studies.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

CULTURAL AND RACIAL EXPERIENCES OF RACIAL SOCIALIZATION SCALE

Appendix D: Cultural and Racial Experiences of Socialization Scale

Have your parents/relatives, friends/peers, teachers/professors, other adults or the media said to you any of the following statements throughout your lifetime? Fill in the circle. Do not use an X, checkmark, or slash.		**How often?**			**Where did you hear this? (Circle all that apply)**								
		Never	**A Few Times**	**Lots of Times**	**Mother/Guardian**	**Father/Guardian**	**Grandparent**	**Sibling**	**Teacher/ Professor**	**Other Adult**	**Friend/Peer**	**Media (TV, Movies, Internet,**	**No one told me**
1	You should be proud to be Black.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
2	Schools should be required to teach all children about Black history.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
3	It's important to remember the experience of Black slavery.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
4	Living in an all Black neighborhood is no way to show that you are successful.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
5	African and Caribbean people think they are better than Black Americans.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
6	You really can't trust most White people.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
7	Poor Black people are always looking for a hand out.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
8	Fitting into school or work means swallowing your anger when you see racism.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
9	Spiritual battles that people fight are more important than the physical battles.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
10	Whites make it hard for people to get ahead in this world.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
11	Life is easier for light-skinned Black people than it is for dark-skinned Black people.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
12	Since the world has become so multicultural, it's wrong to only focus on Black issues.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
13	Black children should be taught early that God can protect them from racial hatred.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
14	Sports are the only way for Black kids to get out of the hood.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
15	Black men just want sex.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
16	Black women keep the family strong.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
17	Africans and Caribbean people get along with Black Americans.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

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18	When Black people make money, they try to forget they are Black.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
19	You can't trust Black people who act too friendly with White people.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
20	"Don't forget who your people are because you may need them someday."	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
		Never	**A Few Times**	**Lots of Times**	**Mother/Guardian**	**Father/Guardian**	**Grandparent**	**Sibling**	**Teacher/ Professor**	**Other Adult**	**Friend/Peer**	**Media (TV, Movies, Internet,**	**No one told me**	
21	You should learn more about Black history so that you can prevent people from treating you unfairly.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
22	Black children will learn more if they go to a mostly White school.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
23	You have to work twice as hard as Whites in order to get ahead in this world.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
24	Knowing your African heritage is important for the survival of Black people.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
25	Sometimes you have to correct White people when they make racist statements about Black people.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
26	You can learn a lot from being around important White people.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
27	Racism is not as bad today as it used to be.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
28	"Train up a child in the way he should go, and he will not turn away from it."	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
29	Black people have to work together in order to get ahead	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
30	More jobs would be open to African Americans if employers were not racist.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
31	Sometimes you have to make yourself less threatening to make White people around you comfortable.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
32	Light skinned Blacks think they are better than dark-skinned Black people.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
33	Racism is real, and you have to understand it or it will hurt you.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
34	Good Black men are the backbone of a strong family.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
35	Black women just want money.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	

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APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

RRS, RS, and Burnout Study

teacherprettyeyes@gmail.com Switch accoun t

Not shared

* Indicates required question

Demographic Survey Data

Which category includes your age? *

- 18-21
- 22-30
- 31-40
- 41-50
- 51-60
- 61+

What is your gender? *

- Female
- Male

What is your race? *

Black/African American

Bi-racial (e.g., Mother is Black; Father is White)

Hispanic Black (e.g., Dominican or Puerto Rican identifying as Black

What is your marital status? *

Single

Married

Divorced/Separated

Widowed

What is your highest level of education? *

Bachelor degree

Master degree

Specialist degree

Doctorate degree

Where do you live? *

U. S. Northwest

U. S. Southwest

- ○ U. S. West
- ○ U. S. Southeast
- ○ U.S. Midwest
- ○ U.S. Territory

Type of school district *

- ○ Rural
- ○ Suburban
- ○ Urban

Type of school *

- ○ Public
- ○ Private
- ○ Charter
- ○ Other

What do you teach? *

General Education

Special Education

Where did you obtain your undergraduate degree? *

- ○ HBCU
- ○ PWI

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APPENDIX C

INTERNAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

Consent

Title of the Project: The Effects of Race-Related Stress, Racial Socialization, and Collegiate Experiences on Burnout in African American Teachers

Principal Investigator: Catava Burton, Ed.S., Doctoral Student, School of Behavioral Sciences, Community Care and Counseling Department, Liberty University

Invitation to be Part of a Research Study

You are invited to participate in a research study. To participate, you must be an African American teacher aged 18 and older who completed your undergraduate studies at an HBCU or PWI. Taking part in this research project is voluntary. Your participation in this research study is anonymous.

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

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

The purpose of the study is to explore the effects of race-related stress, racial socialization, and collegiate experiences (at HBCUs or PWIs) on burnout in African American teachers.

What will happen if you take part in this study?

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

1. Complete the Demographic Data Survey via Google Forms. This survey will take approximately 1-2 minutes.
2. Complete the Trauma Symptoms of Discrimination Scale. This questionnaire will take approximately 3-5 minutes.
3. Complete the CARES racial protection and bicultural coping subscales. This questionnaire will take approximately 2-3 minutes.
4. Complete the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey (MBI-ES). This questionnaire will take approximately 2-3 minutes.

How could you or others benefit from this study?

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

Benefits to society include providing insight to stakeholders who create teacher preparation programs at HBCUs and PWIs on the effects of race-related stress, racial socialization, and burnout in African American teachers.

What risks might you experience from being in this study?

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

How will personal information be protected?

The records of this study will be kept private. Research records will be stored securely on a password protected device. Only the researcher will have access to the records.

- Any identifiable information, to include email addresses will not be collected. Published reports will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a subject. Participant responses will be anonymous.
- Electronic data will be stored on a password protected computer.
- Data will be deleted after three years.

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

Participants will be compensated for participating in this study. At the conclusion of the survey, participants will receive a $5 gift card redeemable on the Prolific.co website.

Is study participation voluntary?

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

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

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

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

The researcher conducting this study Catava Burton. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, **you are encouraged** to contact her at

cburton23@liberty.edu. You may also contact the researcher's faculty sponsor, Dr. Pamela Moore at pmoore@liberty.edu

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

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, **you are encouraged** to contact the IRB. Our physical address is Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall Ste. 2845, Lynchburg, VA, 24515; our phone number is 434-592-5530, and our email address is irb@liberty.edu.

Disclaimer: The Institutional Review Board (IRB) is tasked with ensuring that human subjects research will be conducted in an ethical manner as defined and required by federal regulations. The topics covered and viewpoints expressed or alluded to by student and faculty researchers are those of the researchers and do not necessarily reflect the official policies or positions of Liberty University.

Your Consent

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

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

Do you agree to the above terms? By clicking Yes, you consent that you are willing to answer the questions in this survey. You must click Yes in order to participate in the survey.

APPENDIX D

PERMISSIONS

MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY-EDUCATOR SCALE

For use by [redacted] only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on December 28, 2023 **Permission for [redacted] to administer 50 copies within three years of December 28, 2023**

Maslach Burnout Inventory™

MBI Forms and Scoring Keys:

Human Services - MBI-HSS

Medical Personnel - MBI-HSS (MP)

Educators - MBI-ES

General - MBI-GS

Students - MBI-GS (S)

License to Administer

By Christina Maslach, Susan E. Jackson, Michael P. Leiter,

Wilmar B. Schaufeli & Richard L. Schwab

Published by Mind Garden, Inc.

www.mindgarden.com

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APPENDIX E

PERMISSIONS

From: [redacted] **Subject:** [External] Re: ** [redacted]

Date: December 1, 2023 at 1:42 PM **To:** [redacted]

Cc: [redacted]

You don't often get email from [redacted] why this is important

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

Hi [redacted]

My name is [redacted] an admin fo[redacted]Thank you for reaching out to her! You're more than welcome to use the TSDS for your research.

Let me know if I can be of any more assistance.

Best,

[redacted]

Associate Office Manager

Assistant to [redacted]

New England OCD Institute

Behavioral Wellness Clinic, LLC

392 E Morrow Road, Tolland, CT 06084

[redacted]

www.bewellct.com

On 2023-11-30, 10:04 AM, [redacted]

[redacted] > wrote:

Dear [redacted]

I am writing to request permission to administer the Trauma Symptoms of Discrimination Scale (TSDS) for my research. I am a doctoral student at Liberty University and working on my dissertation. I am examining the effects of race-related stress and racial socialization on burnout in African American teachers who attended HBCUs vs. PWIs. I would greatly appreciate your approval of administering the scale.

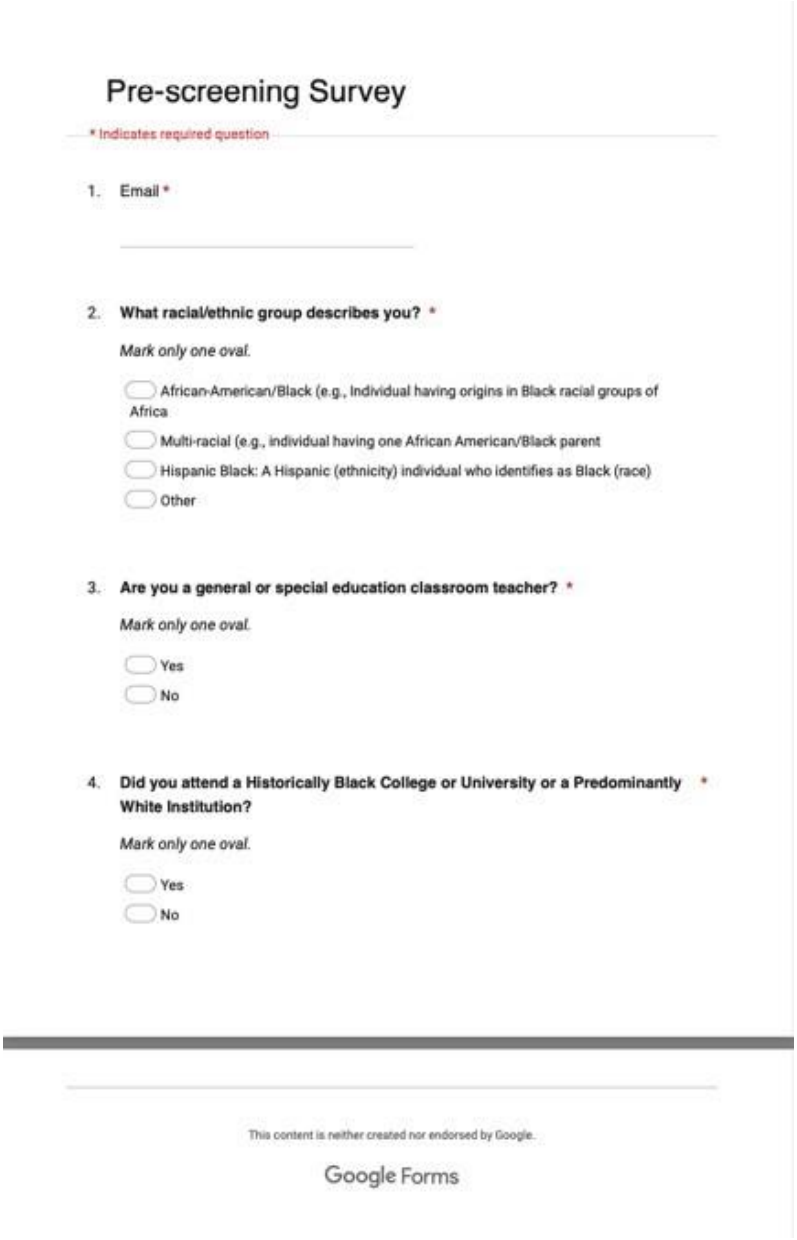
Thank you,

[redacted]

[redacted]

APPENDIX F

PRE-SCREENING SURVEY



Pre-screening Survey

* Indicates required question

1. Email *

2. **What racial/ethnic group describes you?** *

Mark only one oval.

- African-American/Black (e.g., Individual having origins in Black racial groups of Africa
- Multi-racial (e.g., individual having one African American/Black parent
- Hispanic Black: A Hispanic (ethnicity) individual who identifies as Black (race)
- Other

3. **Are you a general or special education classroom teacher?** *

Mark only one oval.

- Yes
- No

4. **Did you attend a Historically Black College or University or a Predominantly White Institution?** *

Mark only one oval.

- Yes
- No

This content is neither created nor endorsed by Google.

Google Forms

APPENDIX G

TRAUMA SYMPTOMS OF DISCRIMINATION

Trauma Symptoms of Discrimination Scale (TSDS)

When answering the following questions, keep in mind that discrimination is defined as: Being unfairly treated due to an individual characteristic of yourself (e.g., race/ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, religion).

PART 1: Frequency of Experiences

Experiencing discrimination can be very stressful, and sometimes people can feel specific types of stress due to discrimination that impact their daily lives. This can be caused by **one very** stressful experience of discrimination, or **several smaller** experiences of discrimination over the course of one's life. Based on these experiences in your life, answer the following questions. Please keep in mind that ratings should reflect whether the type of stress was **caused** by discrimination.

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
1. Due to past experiences of discrimination, I often worry too much about different things.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
2. Due to past experiences of discrimination, I often try hard not to think about it or go out of my way to avoid situations that remind me of it.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
3. Due to past experiences of discrimination, I often fear embarrassment.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
4. Due to past experiences of discrimination, I often feel nervous, anxious, or on edge, especially around certain people.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
5. Due to past experiences of discrimination, I often feel afraid as if something awful might happen.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]

6. Due to past experiences of discrimination, I often have nightmares about the past experience or think about it when I do not want to.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
7. Due to past experiences of discrimination, I often have trouble relaxing.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
8. Due to past experiences of discrimination, I often feel numb or detached from others, activities, or my surroundings.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
9. Due to past experiences of discrimination, I often avoid certain activities in which I am the center of attention (i.e., parties, meetings, answering questions in class).	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
10. Due to past experiences of discrimination, I often cannot stop or control my worrying.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
11. Due to past experiences of discrimination, I often find that being embarrassed or looking stupid are one of my worst fears.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
12. Due to past experiences of discrimination, I often become easily annoyed or irritable.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]

13. Due to past experiences of discrimination, I often feel constantly on guard, watchful, or easily startled, especially around certain people or places.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
14. Due to past experiences of discrimination, I often feel so restless that it is hard to sit still.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]

15. Due to past experiences of discrimination, I feel the world is an unsafe place.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
16. Due to past experiences of discrimination, in social situations I feel a rush of intense discomfort, and may feel my heart pounding, muscles tense up, or sweat.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
17. Due to past experiences of discrimination, I feel isolated and set apart from others.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
18. Due to past experiences of discrimination, I avoid certain situations or speaking to certain people.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
19. If I think about past experiences of discrimination, I cannot control my emotions.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
20. Due to past experiences of discrimination, I am nervous in social situations, and am afraid people will notice that I am sweating, blushing, or trembling.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
21. Due to past experiences of discrimination, fear of social situation causes me a lot of problems in my daily functioning.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]

PART 2: Types of Discrimination Experienced

Below, please indicate the **types** of discrimination you have experienced in your lifetime. Please note that you must enter a corresponding percentage to the type of discrimination experienced. For example, if you've experienced discrimination due to your racial/ethnic background **and** gender, attach a percentage indicating how much of each you have experienced (i.e., Racial/Ethnic = 70%, Gender = 30%).

___ Racial/Ethnic ___ percent

___ Gender ___ percent

___ Sexual orientation ___ percent

___ Social class ___ percent

___ Religion ___ percent

___ Age ___ percent

___ Disability ___ percent

___ Other (list): ___ percent