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Organizational Readiness, Resistance and Race: Examining Faculty Attitudes toward Faculty Diversification in Higher Education

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Approval of the Dissertation Committee

This dissertation has been duly read, reviewed, and critiqued by the Committee listed below, which hereby approves the manuscript of Krystal Denise Miguel Rawls as fulfilling the scope and quality requirements for meriting the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education: Higher Education.

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Abstract

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The national demographic is changing, and institutions of higher education must prepare to change if they are to meet the needs of their new population. Identifying change readiness and potential resistance factors are primary steps in motivating organizational change. This study was a means to investigate the academy's organizational readiness for change using historical analysis to ascertain: (a) does the demographic mismatch require a change? and (b) is faculty diversification the best solution to the demographic mismatch? as well as statistical analyses to determine (c) the extent to which faculty feel they benefit or are harmed by faculty diversification, (d) does administration tangibly support the development of a diverse faculty? and (e) do faculty stakeholders believe faculty diversification is possible?

An examination of historical data yielded a partial picture of organizational readiness; however, to understand how stakeholders perceive harm or benefit, a survey of institutional actors/gatekeepers was necessary to investigate potential areas of resistance toward successful faculty diversification efforts. Analysis revealed that more non-White faculty perceived a benefit to faculty diversification than did White faculty members, and more non-White faculty believe the academy can diversify than White faculty members.

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated…

 …to my ancestors, who were excluded from the process of integration yet taught and supported students of color in the years where our learning was/is not considered a valued asset in the United States: I remember you.

 …to the faculty and staff of color who support students in an academy that promises diversity and practices maintenance of the status quo: I see you.

 …to the families of scholars of color for their continued support, especially when they, themselves, do not understand the importance of our aspirations: I appreciate you.

 …to the scholars of color embarking upon this process with the full knowledge that it is inherently prejudiced against our collective experience and existence: I commend you.

 …to my family, friends, and students who have cheered me on and encouraged me to continue through a process that often-caused frustration: I love you, eternally.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Organizational Readiness, Resistance and Race: Examining Faculty Attitudes Toward Faculty Diversification in Higher Education

Chapter 1: Introduction

"Weak institutions are those that expect students to engage themselves. ...A clear signal of institutional deficiency is when there are few ramifications for those who either blatantly refuse or unintentionally neglect to enact the practices known to produce rich outcomes for students."
~Shaun Harper and Stephen John Quaye, Student Engagement in Higher Education (2009, p. 6)

Education is a field of multiple purposes. Some students enter to increase the breadth of knowledge in the world by pursuing doctorate goals, many attend to improve career opportunities, and perhaps most enter the academy because education has long been the vehicle of social and economic mobility. Regardless of the reason for pursuing higher education, students come with a perspective and worldview that the academic experience will alter. The academy has also changed from the diversity of perspectives that have become a part of the U.S. education system as the population demographics have changed (Nellis, Nellis, & Slattery, 2013). Women and ethnic minorities often attend schools traditionally designed to meet the needs of affluent White males. With increased student diversity, schools have, by necessity, instituted a shift in practice to meet the needs of the new constituents.

Previous shifts in the demography of the academy, and the nation itself, have often met violent resistance against change. In making a change, an organization must follow specific steps to improve the potential for the success of the change initiative. One essential step is assessing stakeholder interests and influence, which minimizes the chance that an individual's resistance to change will impede organizational goals. To advance the current knowledge regarding change in higher education to increase diversity, this study was an assessment of how faculty members feel about diversification, examining their roles in implementing changes that support the new

demographics. Assessing faculty influence and interest will facilitate understanding change to practice in the academy.

Statement of the Problem

There is a discrepancy between the faculty demographic needed to support current and future student demographics and the faculty demographic in institutions of higher education today. According to U.S. Census (2014) projections, the non-Hispanic White population will no longer be the dominant race in America in 40 years, dropping from 62% in 2014 to 44% in 2060. This shift will have resounding implications in higher education, as colleges and universities must learn to navigate the needs of a new demographic (Colby & Ortman, 2015). The move to a more diverse student base necessitates a more diverse faculty.

The National Center for Educational Statistics (McFarland et al., 2018) reported an aggregate ethnic and female population of higher education attendees of 42% and 56%, respectively (see Table 1). These numbers are distinctly different from 1976, at which time 84% of the population was White, with the last male student majority at 52% (McFarland et al., 2018). Although the shift is both gender- and race/ethnicity-based, this research focuses on the ethnic and racial diversification of higher education faculty and its relationship to the student outcomes of degree attainment and retention.

Table 1

Percentage of Population of Higher Education Attendees as Reported by Ethnicity/Race

Ethnicity/race	1976	2014	2060
White	84%	62%	44%
Asian/Pacific Islander	2%	7%	9%
Black	10%	14%	15%
Hispanic	4%	17%	25%
Other	NR	NR	7%
Total	100%	100%	100%

The shifting demographic shows a shift in student needs. The mismatch in demographics is salient in the work of Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997), who suggested, "Mentors will perceive that there are greater rewards to providing mentorship to protégés who are perceived to be similar to themselves than protégés perceived to be dissimilar to themselves" (p. 86). Accordingly, faculty members may prefer working with students having similar gender, racial/ethnic, or economic backgrounds. The perception of entitativity, or groupness, is usually tied to common fate, proximity, and similarity (Campbell, 1958; Forsythe, 2010). Leading education researchers have shown that several student-of-color groups seek out faculty of color for advising, support, and guidance on issues related to their personal and professional development (Harrington & Pavel, 2013; Ladson-Billings, 2014; Lee, 1999; Meneges & Exum 1983; Plata 1996; Tierney & Bensimon 1996). Students of color have a heightened need for validation in academia if they are going to succeed on par with other ethnic groups (Astin, 1993; Feagin, Vera, & Imani, 1996; Gilkes Borr, 2019; Sidanius & Pratto, 2004).

Often thought to be of inferior intellect, students of color receive neither rigor nor consistent respect by the dominant academic society with regard to faculty perceptions of minority students' intellectual abilities. Professor George D. Kuh (2008) of Indiana University documented the relationship between faculty member feedback on student performance and student success, identifying high-impact educational practices such as a professor's feedback enriching the student worldview. Research focused on the minority student experience indicates that professors who understand the students' experience can better assist students in accessing previous knowledge, having a large impact on student comprehension applicable to new settings (Harper & Quaye, 2009). Despite extensive research on the need for intentional student engagement (e.g., Kuh et al., 2006a; Harper & Quaye, 2009; Pascarella & Terenzini 2016), the

benefits related to using faculty engagement opportunities to validate racially or ethnically minority students in institutions where they are underrepresented has been less forthcoming, yet the benefits are present (Acevedo-Gil, Santos, Alonso, & Solorzano, 2015; Cole, 2010; Hurtado, Ruiz Alvarado, & Guillermo-Wann, 2015; Rendon, 1994; Tovar, 2015).

External change factors like a demographic shift can create a hostile learning environment, especially for students of color. In *Teaching to Transgress*, feminist of color and author/educator bell hooks (1994) recalled court-mandated integration as a period of navigating racial hostilities in school more than academic challenges. As integration of the U.S. public school system did not include integrating faculty or staff of color, students found themselves in an intimidating environment without a community to support them (Bernal, 2002; Boyd-Franklyn, 2003; Savas, 2014).

Historically, the desegregation effort in education is rife with negative outcomes for students of color. Changes in constituency can and have caused extreme tension and violence in academic communities whose purpose, according to renowned economist and educator Howard Bowen (1996) and educational historian John Thelin (2004), was to promote learning and betterment of the general welfare. Two disparate but complementary examples of brutal violence against ethnic students are the assimilation schools in the 1800s and the legal mandate of desegregation in the late 1950s/early 1960s. More recently, higher education campuses have made national headlines as students report incidents of hostile messages suggesting hanging or racially exclusionary chants such as "build that wall"; in addition, other students of color have endured physical attacks at universities across the nation (Dupuy, 2017; Mangan, 2017). In 2018, students of color continue to face the brutality of the academic experience due to a shift in student body demographics, as documented in scholarly publications. The racial incident page on

4

the *Journal of Blacks in Higher Education* website shows 22 reports of racial violence against students of color over 11 months in 2018 ("Campus Racial Incidents," 2020).

In contrast to the changes in the student demographic, there has been less diversification in the faculty ranks. In 1976, 97% of higher education faculty were White (USDOE, 1999), which has contributed and will continue to contribute to racialized experiences for students of color. In fall 2016, 53% of the 1.5 million faculty in degree-granting postsecondary institutions were full-time (Sydney et al., 2019). For this study, the term *faculty* incorporates professors, associate professors, assistant professors, instructors, lecturers, assisting professors, adjunct professors, and interim professors. In 2016, the demographic breakdown was 76% White, 10% Asian or Pacific Islander, 6% Black, and 5% Hispanic (see Table 2). The population under study is a subset of the national faculty, which consists of full-time professors at institutions of higher education. The racial demographics of this population are 82% White, 10% Asian Pacific Islander, 4% Black, and 3% Hispanic (Sydney et al., 2019).

Table 2

Percentage of Full-Time Faculty Reported by Race/Ethnicity

Race/ethnicity	1976	2016
White	97	76
Asian/Pacific Islander	1	10
Black	1	6
Hispanic	0.5	5
Other	NR	0.5

Among associate professors in 2016, 80% are White, 12% Asian Pacific Islander, 4% Black, and 3% Hispanic. Among assistant professors, 73% are White, 13% Asian Pacific Islander, 7% Black, and 6% Hispanic (see Table 3; NCES, 2018). In state universities, the

faculty eligible to participate in faculty hiring committees generally consist of tenure track faculty members. Faculty diversity has increased approximately 21% nationally in the last 46 years, whereas national student diversity has increased 42% (Sydney et al., 2019). In 2060, the projected student ethnic diversity will be 56% of the student population. These figures indicate that the demographics of students in public higher education institutions have shifted and will continue to shift more rapidly than the demographic of the faculty, leaving the new student demographic without adequate representation or support in the academy.

Table 3

Percentage of Tenure-Track Faculty by Rank and Race/Ethnicity in 2016

Race/ethnicity	Full professor	Associate professor	Assistant professor
White	82	80	73
Asian/Pacific Islander	10	12	13
Black	4	4	7
Hispanic	3	3	6
Other	1	1	1

Purpose of the Study

The most successful organizational initiatives involve planned change management strategies, which begin with assessing stakeholder readiness for change to ascertain potential areas of resistance to a change initiative (Argyis, 1985; Burnes, 2015; Kotter, 1995; Schein, 2010). The purpose of the study was to examine faculty attitudes toward faculty diversity initiatives. Faculty members are the focus of this study, as they are key stakeholders who may perceive motive and have the opportunity to impede diversification outcomes.

Change in constituent demographic of the academy has a history of adverse outcomes for students and faculty of color, ranging from violence against students (Dupuy, 2017; hooks, 1994;

Mangan, 2017) to disparities in resources and promotion and tenure opportunities for faculty at predominantly White institutions (Fulwood, 2016; Gasman, 2009). How leaders manage change determines the level of success or lack thereof in any change initiative (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Armenakis & Harris, 2009; Drucker, 1980; Kotter, 1995; Lines, 2005; Oreg, Vakola, & Armenakis, 2011). If an institution wants a successful faculty diversification program, then it will have to begin the change initiative with a plan.

According to the Armenakis and Bedeian (1999) model of successful change management/organizational change readiness, the first step in an effective change initiative is assessing motivation for change. Armenakis and Bedeian's model extends and supports Drucker's (2006) theory of change management, which indicates that successful change requires both cognitive and behavioral changes to address the hearts and minds of stakeholders. Current diversification efforts occur through diversity, equity, and inclusion programming, with departments often understaffed, underfunded, or without the administrative support necessary to adequately address resistance to diversification efforts (Ladson-Billings, 2014). Bastions of these programming efforts center on a variety of diversity best practices, such as targeted hiring (Bilimoria & Buch, 2010; Opp & Smith, 2004) and faculty mentoring (Harawa et al., 2017; Turner et al., 2008).

According to a 1997 declaration by the Association of American University Professors (AAUP), the central mission of academic institutions should be to promote diversity; research indicates that diverse groups perform better at challenging tasks (Page, 2007). In addition, diversity has beneficial effects on a student's cognitive and affective development (Astin, 1993; Denson & Chang, 2009; Kuh, et al., 2006b). Leaders of educational institutions must consider issues such as the perceived need and urgency for change, as well as the ability of the

7

organization to effectively implement change or, at minimum, the desire of a key stakeholder group—the faculty—to participate in moving faculty diversification forward. Change resistance literature shows the propensity for resistance to a change initiative from those who may least benefit from the change (Mathews & Linski, 2016). Comprised primarily of a demographic that would essentially be decreasing its numbers to increase diversity, faculty hiring committees would be acting against their own interests by increasing diversity (Harper, 2015; Smith, Yosso, & Solórzano, 2004). Although faculty members may intellectually understand and even recognize the benefit of diversity, attitude theories allude to first social, then economic concerns taking precedence over ethical concerns (Lines, 2005).

Armenakis and Bedeian's (1999) change readiness model centers on cognitive and behavioral elements of readiness and may thus show the locus of possible resistance to diversity initiatives within the faculty hiring process. This study was an examination of the attitudes of faculty hiring committee members as a potential source of resistance that would impede the organizational mission of increased faculty diversification. This focused view might allow administrators and human resources personnel to refine organizational processes for improving hiring outcomes.

Significance of the Study

The body of research on student engagement, identity validation, and diverse faculty outcomes is extensive, yet with a focus on the problem and not the solution. Well established are that racial and ethnic minorities are underrepresented as higher education faculty (Antonio, 2002/2013; Turner et al., 2008), that the percentage of students who identify as racial or ethnic minorities is increasing (Sydney et al., 2019), and that these students benefit from instruction and mentorship from faculty (Smith, 2009; Umbach & Kuh, 2006). However, there is less

scholarship about who is responsible for diversifying the faculty and if they are resistant to the very task they are set to perform. This work advances literature focused on a potential solution to hiring bias by examining attitudes that may impede faculty diversification. The only way to increase faculty diversity is to improve the process of hiring faculty of color. Conducting a stakeholder analysis is a principal step in ascertaining the readiness of an organization to embark upon an initiative that ensures successful change.

Without research addressing the demographic mismatch, students will continue to be more concerned with surviving the institution than they are with successful completion of their academic goals. The history of integrating higher education indicates that resistance to demographic shifts can result in violence against students, which may call into question the commitment to diversity and student success claimed by academic organizations. Students embroiled in survival issues are less able to address higher-order needs, like learning (Harper & Quaye, 2009; hooks, 1994). Business researchers have considered the processes involved in managing a successful change as well as the need to change based on shifting constituency needs. Higher education enrollment and human resources statistics clearly show the discrepancy between diverse student demographics and the relatively stagnant demographics of faculty over the last 50 years (NCES, 2016/2018).

As the national student demographic has changed, it is unknown why is the faculty demographic is not changing, as well, because the failure of organizations to adapt to a changing environment yields organizational failure (Agboola & Salawu, 2011; Bovey & Hede, 2001; Kotter, 1995; Mariana & Violeta, 2011). In this case, organizational failure yields negative academic experiences that affect student outcomes, impede promotion and tenure advancement for faculty of color, and promote a historical status quo, resulting in an overall decline in the

efficacy of an intuition. Using Holt, Armenakis, Field, and Harris's (2007) organizational

readiness for change model and assessment and Organizational Change Recipients' Belief Scale

(OCBRS) as tools, this study was an examination of the process of faculty diversification at

higher education institutions to illuminate potential reasons faculty diversification efforts have

not been more successful in light of institutional missions of diversity and student need for

diverse faculty. Agboola and Salawu (2011) argued that employee resistance to change is

deviant. Resistance is not just a hindrance to change, but the antithesis of sociability (Agboola &

Salawu, 2011). The educational institution or its representatives must embrace and promote

change and serve students of color.

Academic institutions serve a wide variety of students, and not meeting the needs of the

population is detrimental to the organization's desired outcomes. Student and faculty

demographic data and projections from 1976 to 2060 are indicative of a need for change in

faculty demographic as the student support needs for faculty mentoring/representation shift

(Nellis et al., 2013; McFarland et al., 2018). Organizational readiness for change literature

indicates that, upon the identification of a need, the organization must also look at the

appropriateness of a change initiative (Armenakis, 1999; Kotter, 1995; Oreg et al., 2011). When

addressing the appropriateness of faculty diversification as a solution to the demographic

mismatch, the person responsible for the change initiative must ask: "Is faculty mentoring via

representation *necessary* for student degree attainment and persistence?" This question appears

in existing mentorship, identity validation, and homophily literature. Researchers from a range of

disciplines—business (Chandland & Murphy, 2017; Scandura, 1992), psychology (Aksoy, 2015;

Civettini, 2007; Jost, Banaji, & Nosek, 2004; Sidanius & Pratto, 2004), and education (Gilkes

Borr, 2019; Harper, 2015; Ladson-Billings, 2014; McKenzie, 2009; Washington, 2019)—have

addressed the need for students to have an advocate or mentor with some understanding of their worldview. A worldview refers to ideas and beliefs forming a cultural mindset through which an individual interprets and interacts with the world (Underhill, 2011). Although a worldview is not exclusive to racial identity, it is inclusive of racial identity.

Students of color have better outcomes when mentored by staff and faculty of color because of the similarities in worldview and experiences (Acevedo-Gil et al., 2015; Cole, 2010; Harper & Quaye, 2009; Hurtado et al., 2015; McKenzie, 2009; Rendon, 1994; Tovar, 2015). There are not enough faculty and staff of color to support students of color (Antonio, 2002; Turner et al., 2009), especially given the general hostility toward students of color in the higher education setting (Dupuy, 2017; hooks, 1994; JBHE, 2019; Mangan, 2017). Because of the direct role faculty play in high impact learning practices, this work focused on the presence of faculty of color and not staff. Improvement in this process could have practical impacts on retention, promotion and tenure, and job satisfaction for faculty of color, as well as decrease the achievement gaps through increases in retention, engagement, and degree attainment of students of color.

The discrepancy in the demographic mismatch and the appropriateness of faculty of color mentorship for students of color based on historic mistreatment in academia are concepts reviewed through data and historical literature. The step that requires further examination is in identifying elements of valence for key stakeholders who act as gatekeepers in the process of faculty hiring and current tenure-track faculty members. Valence pertains to the perceived harm or benefit of enacting a specific change initiative. In the faculty diversification initiative, valence is a meaningful but often overlooked step in the change readiness process. Oreg et al. (2011) conducted a meta-analysis of 79 studies investigating the relationship between individual

characteristics and reactions to change efforts. The researchers found a large percentage of studies focused on individuals' characteristics as predictors of reaction to change, the one most notable for this study being demographics. Oreg et al. also established that "a key determinant of whether change recipients will accept or resist change is the extent to which the change is perceived as personally beneficial or harmful" (p. 493). Valence is thus a fundamental area of stakeholder resistance.

With nonethnic faculty responsible for the hiring of future faculty, assessing perceived harm or benefit to faculty diversification may be necessary to omit if an organization seeks to assess its readiness for change. Should diverse faculty hiring increase, there will be less of an advising and mentorship burden on existing faculty of color. Lifting this burden has the potential for better promotion and tenure outcomes for faculty of color who are less competitive because they overproduce in service hours while underproducing in scholarship (Antonio, 2009; Turner et al., 2008). Increased faculty diversity will provide the new student demographic with mentors who can relate to their experience and increase the student worldview from a place of cultural respect. To promote positive outcomes for students and faculty of color, institutions must review their hiring practices for potential resistance within the units that hire faculty.

The importance of this work is the examination of stakeholder valence in the organizational change readiness process to help institutions identify potential areas of stakeholder resistance to their diversification of faculty goals by examining any processes in place for assessing faculty attitudes toward faculty diversification before, during, or after placement on a faculty hiring committee. Assessing the attitudes of stakeholders could indicate potential resistance to faculty diversification; nonethnic faculty hiring committee members could

perceive faculty diversification negatively and impede institutional objectives met by serving the needs of the student body.

Equally important are the attitudes of human resources and the institutional diversity officers required to oversee the faculty hiring process. Interviews and a review of the documents used in faculty hiring could illuminate process concerns; however, those attitudes are perhaps more related to institutional policies and support than to gatekeeper attitudes. Although those process concerns merit investigation to provide a thorough picture of organizational readiness for faculty diversification efforts, this research was a means to address valence as an elemental concern in faculty diversification initiatives. The following research questions guided empirical investigation of this topic.

RQ1: Valence: To what extent do faculty members perceive benefit or harm in faculty diversification efforts?

RQ2: Principal support: To what extent do faculty members believe the administration tangibly supports faculty diversity efforts?

RQ3: Efficacy: To what extent do faculty members believe faculty diversification is possible?

Chapter 2 will present foundational literature regarding the importance of the change management process, the historical relationship between the academy and its constituents of color, and the importance of faculty mentoring to the success of ethnically diverse students. Also included will be an in-depth look at the conceptual framework used to investigate the phenomenon. Chapter 3 presents insight into the research methods, as well as the means of participant selection and data analysis. The results of the study appear in Chapter 4, followed by

a literature-illuminated discussion of the results in Chapter 5. Chapter 5 will conclude with study

limitations as well as suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

If we examine critically the traditional role of the university in the pursuit of truth and the sharing of knowledge and information, it is painfully clear that biases that uphold and maintain white supremacy, imperialism sexism, and racism have distorted education so that it is no longer about the practice of freedom. ~bell hooks (Teaching to Transgress, 1994, p. 29)

The primary lens guiding this conversation was organizational change readiness, which consists of assessing the urgency of a need, the appropriateness of a response, the beliefs and ideas of those affected by or responsible for the change, support for the change by leadership, and a belief that the change is possible. Literature is prevalent regarding the first two steps of ascertaining organizational readiness for faculty diversification in the academy; the last three points were a matter for this study, because without addressing stakeholder valence, statistics indicate a 52% likelihood of change initiative failure (Kotter, 1995). This primary lens filters through an additional perspective: the history and culture of the academy.

Chapter 2 presents three points that underlie the conversation about faculty diversification: the needs of the current and future constituents (need), the tumultuous relationship between the academy and people of color (appropriateness), and the perceived benefit or harm of diversifying the faculty (valence). The main topic under discussion is organizational readiness for change; at its core is a critical conversation about valence, or the perception of benefit or harm in relation to the diversification of faculty by faculty hiring committee members.

In addition to change management literature, this chapter includes a review of the relationship between the organization and its constituents of color, with an historic overview of the culture of the academy as it seeks to implement diversification initiatives. Change has both cognitive and affective aspects; thus, the thought processes and feelings of individuals charged with implementing a change take on additional meaning. The history of the academy and both

faculty and students of color is important because resistance to change may have roots in a desire to maintain a status quo or to keep things the way they are or were (Holt et al., 2007). NCES (2018) tracks historical trends and provides projections about future student demographics. NCES findings show that trends are rapidly changing, thus indicating a need for the institution to adapt its approach to meeting the needs of students of color. Although individuals might question the need for faculty diversification as an appropriate response to increased student diversity, the research and literature present a wealth of information supporting the logic behind the need for increasing faculty of color.

Among the needs of students of color are validation and representation (Gilkes Borr, 2019; Savas, 2014). This chapter includes an overview of faculty–student mentoring as a determinant for student persistence and degree attainment considering the increased diversity of the study population (Chandland & Murphy, 2017). Although faculty–student mentoring at its base is beneficial for all students, students of color require additional support to combat the hostile environment apparent in the history of their relationship with the academy. Validation and representation literature indicates the homophilious need to connect with those having similar experiences to navigate new or foreign concepts or spaces. These experiences are not only social and cultural, but also socioeconomic, gender based, and generationally based; however, for students of color, the sociocultural support is the most beneficial (Washington, 2019).

Interviewing men of color enrolled in higher education programs, scholar Michael Washington (2019) found the need for sociocultural support as a key factor in persistence and degree attainment. This literature review shows the need to address valence in a successful change initiative, illuminating a history that indicates a specific need to focus on stakeholder

relationships to the academy. There is a gap between the achievement levels of students of color and the traditional student demographic.

Researchers have suggested one factor that may make a difference in success is related to the experience of the student in the academy (Astin, 1993; Rendon, 1994). Denson and Chang (2009) found that diversity-related efforts positively impacted students' sense of self-efficacy, general academic outcomes, and racial-cultural engagement. The stakeholders examined in this literature review are an institution committed to education and, more recently, to diversity; faculty members on committees designated to hire new faculty; and students of color in need of mentoring. An institution that desires to serve its students must recognize that students need faculty representation; therefore, the faculty body needs to diversify, which may impact the culture of the academy. In consideration of the need to implement a change of any nature, particularly one that involves an organizational culture with an adverse relationship history, an examination of organizational change literature indicates how the academy, desiring sustainable change, might embark upon that process.

Organizational Change Management Theory

There are as many definitions for change management as there are theorists; however, the most-encompassing definition pertains to implementation practices and problems involved in the management of change in an organization's "formal structure, systems, processes, and product-market domain intended to improve one or more organizational objectives" (Lines, 2005, p. 12). In a review of a 1990s theory and research on organizational change, Armenakis and Bedeian (1999) identified four themes: content issues, contextual issues, process issues, and criterion issues. Previous researchers also investigated how change theory applies in international arenas and social movements (Woodman, 1989).

Organizational change is a growing field, but not one new to organizational studies. Early change management theorist and organizational psychologist Kurt Lewin (1947, 1951) identified the basic process of change management as unfreeze, change, and refreeze. There is a need to first identify the purpose and problem under investigation by examining the elements of the organization that either support or impede the change (unfreeze); this stage involves identifying the need for change and the urgency of the need. According to Lewin, changing beliefs is most possible during this stage. Theoretically, Lewin proposed a process by which managers can begin to address the need for a change initiative and the level of resistance or support the initiative might encounter.

There are many aspects of the change process and previous research that would lend insight into faculty diversification processes. Organizational strategist Peter Drucker (1980/2006) explicated the complex and ever-evolving nature of change and the challenges of initiating cultural change. Drucker identified organizational culture as an aspect of an organization that is highly resistant to change. Bullock and Batten (1985) stressed exploration, planning, action, and integration as change steps to consider, with exploration incorporating consideration for the urgency of the need and assessment of the resources required to enact the change; these content issues (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999) focus on the substance of organizational changes. Harris and Beckhard (1987) introduced a formula whereby change is equal to the level of dissatisfaction multiplied by desirability and practicality of the change if the perception of that outcome is as greater than the cost of changing.

Psychological considerations of change include grief (Kübler-Ross, 1969), transition (Bridges, 1991; Schlossberg, 1981), and attitudes and perceptions (Lines, 2005). With the systemic model, Senge (1999) approached change from a biological perspective, as a system

18

interrelated and interacting systems bound to one another, much like a domino chain. Change theorists with a behavioral perspective consider the affective and cognitive aspects of championing or resisting a change initiative. Holt et al. (2007) refined Lewin's unfreeze concept by defining specific steps that indicate if an organization is even ready to implement a change. These areas—discrepancy, appropriateness, valence, principal support, and efficacy— require consideration before initiating a change program to identify areas in which action may necessary to ensure the successful outcome of the initiative. A successful change initiative is one that ultimately becomes a sustainable part of the organizational culture; commonly assessed outcomes in organizational change efforts are considered criterion issues (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999).

Changing an entrenched organizational practice requires planning or faces resistance in its production, which usually results in stress on the organizational actions and potentially increases practices of resistance that doom the initiative. Change management theory is appropriate for addressing issues such as the need for change, the support and resistance to change, and establishing practices to maintain the change, as well as altering practices as internal or external pressures emerge (Holt et al., 2007; Kotter, 1995; Lewin, 1947). Change readiness theories focus more on the early stages of change by providing steps for evaluating the potential for a successful change initiative (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Burke, 1994; Damanpour, 1991; Holt et al., 2007).

There are many models or perspectives by which to examine faculty diversification efforts. However, in all iterations of change management theory, clear communication with stakeholders is necessary to identify potential areas of support or resistance because failure to assess stakeholder interest can effectively end a change initiative before it starts (Kotter, 1995;

19

Lewin, 1947). Most change models indicate that change begins with evaluating the circumstances that warrant the change, the context (the environment hosting the change; Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999), and the reaction of the stakeholders, or unfreezing.

Preliminary examination of one contextual issue, experience with previous change, also requires a review of the organization's overall character, mission, and direction. Through an examination of the historical relationship between the academy and its constituents of color, the organizational culture embedded within the institution is subject to scrutiny. Change can involve loss; a loss of familiarity creates uncertainty and a host of other feelings within the five stages of grief identified by psychiatrist Kübler-Ross (1969). Grief is not just sadness, but can also manifest as shock, anger, and denial. Losing a way of life may be like losing a cherished family member. Feelings of anger and denial can manifest as resistance in response to a change initiative, as well (Drucker, 1999; Lines, 2005).

There is a need for faculty diversification to mentor a growing ethnic demographic, thereby increasing the potential for degree attainment by students of color. Faculty diversification will create a cultural change in the institution. The historical responses to similar shifts in the status quo have been violent. When demographic changes become necessary in higher education institutions, uncertainty often leads to fear and anger, byproducts of uncertainty. For example, race relations in the United States has had a profoundly violent history and effect on the experience of learning for students of color (Harrington & Pavel, 2013; Harper, 2015; hooks, 1994), resulting in underrepresentation in institutions of higher education, overrepresentation in disciplinary actions, and diminished faculty support for students of color.

Social and Economic Environmental Context

Education is a right in the United States, albeit one inequitably accessed among the citizenry. The disparities in educational opportunities for the haves and have-nots are akin to the culture shock experienced by the lucky have-nots who can attend a well-supplied school (Astin, 1993; Cohen, et al., 2014; Rudolph, 1977). For example, some schools in the poorest neighborhoods have minimal school supplies and books that are years out of date. In contrast, schools in other districts purchase new books annually and present students with all the school supplies they may need, in addition to offering music, art, and physical education classes rarely available in poor schools.

Poverty is only one of three factors that make equitable opportunities in education difficult (Cohen, et al., 2014; Thelin, 2004). If these students make it to college, they face additional challenges to their credibility. In support of the idea that college is for the privileged, the marginalized face what amounts to bullying and terrorism (Du Bois, 1973; Harper & Quaye, 2009; hooks, 1994; Mangan, 2017), as elaborated later in this paper.

The impact of formal education for the marginalized is not just about learning technical material, but about the power of elite White males to degrade and dismiss the value of a heterogeneous academic community in pursuit of maintaining the status quo. The elitist model of education promotes obedience and conformity to a social climate that ensured the marginalized would never take part in what hooks (1994) called "engaged pedagogy" (p. 6). Education and identity authors reflect on the value of education as a liberating or even uplifting experience that may become disappointing, terrifying, or frustrating when students face the reality of societal structures. For individuals to go beyond the bounds of the generally accepted rules of their respective societies was to make trouble, transgress, or sin against the social norms of the day.

21

To engage pedagogy is to take the academic lessons and apply them to the lives and needs of the students and faculty, thus making the lessons relevant and empowering (Acevedo-Gil et al., 2015; Cole, 2010; Harper & Quaye, 2009; Hurtado et al., 2015; McKenzie, 2009; Rendon, 1994; Tovar, 2015). The perception of inferiority greatly hinders these marginalized groups in the history of the university and, unfortunately, today.

A critical examination of the traditional and modern role of the university provides context regarding yesteryear biases that impede access to education providing cognitive learning, emotional and moral development, and practical competence (Bowen, 1996). Scholars extoll the virtues of higher education; for example, Du Bois (1973) stated, "Attending university stands for freedom of spirit, knowledge of self, and truth. It develops in the individual moderation, an avoidance of luxury, a concern for courtesy, a capacity to endure, a nurturing love for beauty" (pp. 64–70). These goals have not always applied to all people. There was a time when simply teaching someone to read could mean death for the teacher and the student.

Marginalized populations have histories different from their elite White male counterparts; as such, they have a dissimilar view of the purpose of education (Bowen, 1996; Cohen, et al., 2014; Thelin, 2004). For the marginalized, education is about uplift, changing the limitations of the status quo (Du Bois, 1973; hooks, 1994). For the elite, education is a matter of entitlement, superiority, and power (Jencks & Reisman, 1968). Between both groups, education could appear as "fundamentally subversive" because it makes the minority aware of opportunities they may not have previously considered; in turn, the elite are aware of the potential loss of power because the minority, the oppressed and marginalized, are aware of their potential and may object to such treatment (Du Bois, 1973).

The Academy

The purpose of higher education. At one time, education was just a vehicle for White men of means to prepare themselves for elite lives. The view of education for women and persons of color was as a waste of time except to prepare them for service and labor jobs (e.g., nurse, teacher, bookkeeper). Economist Howard Bowen (1996) provided substantial evidence that the value of education extends beyond technical skill and provides the populace with individual and social benefits. Education is more than an opportunity for a better job, but a framework for reasoning through unknown situations as well as an appreciation for certain aspects of culture (Bowen, 1996).

Bowen (1996) identified the consequences of a lack of educational opportunity for both individuals and society. Of the three benefits to the individual—cognitive learning, emotional and moral development, and practical competence—the latter is most closely linked to the perceived purpose of learning in the colonial days. Practical competence for citizenship and economic productivity is different from the practical competence for family life, consumer behavior, and health. Practical competence in universities' early days centered on citizenship and economic productivity to prepare future businessmen (Cohen, et al., 2014; Thelin, 2004). The focus of education has changed somewhat from social prestige to learning technical knowledge, yet remnants of colonial segregation remain.

The history of higher education. Thelin (2004) offered a comprehensive view of the acquisitive beginnings of the higher education system. For example, student listings were by family rank rather than name, because higher-ranking families could potentially provide endowments to the institution (Thelin, 2004). In addition to being able to fund the institution, these students participated in grooming to be leaders. The architecture and student body reflected

a desire to imitate the affluent landholders in England; the more ostentatious the building, the more the wealthy patrons would want to be associated with the institution (Thelin, 2004). These colleges were the epitome of prestige and, thus, high social status. Minorities and women were not a part of the conversation; at this early point, the primary division was the haves and the have-nots. Although the representation of financial privilege was pervasive in the early days of higher education institutions, some students did have funding from estate wealth (Cohen, et al., 2014; Thelin, 2004).

American colonial colleges were the prototypes for today's liberal arts colleges. Therefore, it is prudent to briefly review their origin and contribution to U.S. higher education specific to its Christian influences. Upon landing in New England, the Puritan settlers desired to erect an institution of higher learning. As quoted in Lucas (2016):

> After God had carried us safe to New England," reported New England's First Fruits, a pamphlet first printed in 1643, "and we had builded [*sic*] our houses, provided necessaries for our livelihood, reared convenient places for God's worship, and settled the civil government: one of the next things we longed for, and looked after was to advance learning and perpetuate it to posterity." (qtd. in Lucas, 2016, pp. 103–104)

Certainly, there was more than a little influence of the Oxbridge model on Harvard University. Additionally, Harvard's chief aim was, "Everyone shall consider the main end of his life and studies to know God and Jesus Christ, which is eternal life…and therefore to lay Christ in the bottom, as the only foundation of all sound knowledge and learning" (qtd. in Lucas, 2016, p. 104). The purpose was not exclusively one of preparing men for the ministry, but that was at the forefront. The college desired to improve men's character and develop in them a civic virtue that would trump private advantage.

Yale College's purpose was, "Every student shall consider the main end of his study to wit to know God in Jesus Christ and answerably to lead a Godly sober life" (qtd. in Rudolph, 1977, p. 17). Additionally, between 1861 and 1875 was the founding of Vassar University, Smith University, and Wellesley College, with varying degrees of Christian emphasis (Marsden, 1994). Wellesley's founder, Henry Durant, proclaimed, "The institution will be Christian in its influence, discipline, and course of instruction" (qtd. in Marsden, 1994, p. 22). It is clear, then, that the very character and nature of the early colleges had a distinctly Christian Protestant emphasis.

There were nine colonial colleges, including Harvard, founded prior to the American Revolution. Although each had distinct denominational affiliations, the institutions shared the same broad purpose as Harvard. The founders of the College of Rhode Island proclaimed:

> Institutions for liberal education are highly beneficial to society by forming the rising generation to virtue, knowledge, and useful literature and thus preserving in the community a succession of men duly qualified for discharging the offices of life with usefulness and reputation." (qtd. in Lucas, 2016, p. 106)

In a review of surviving records of Harvard students between 1677 and 1703, Lucas (2016) found the sons of clergymen comprised the majority of those who attended the college, followed by the sons of merchants, shopkeepers, master mariners, magistrates and attorneys, militia officers, and wealthy farmers; included in that roster were also sons of artisans, ordinary seamen, servants, and poor farmers. Jencks and Riesman (1968) reported, "Only the second and third generation rich, who expected to preside over already established corporate empires, habitually turned to the colleges for socio-intellectual preparation" (p. 93).

Well into the 18th century, college costs began to rise, further restricting attendance to the affluent. Not many students attended college because society did not see it as a need. The apprenticeship model worked for the colonists, even though they wanted their clergy to be educated. Young men, especially those from the lower and middle classes, stayed home to farm or went out West. As this era ended, the aftermath of the revolution brought about other significant changes in higher education.

U.S. higher education experienced significant growth from 1890 to 1920; the age of university-building also was the booming stage of the college. College-going was rising in popularity for two primary reasons: (a) it was a means of socioeconomic mobility and hence an experience coveted by an increasing number of adolescents, and (b) the perception of a bachelor's degree was as a way for a nouveau riche family to gain social standing through increasing earning power. The "college man" and, eventually, the "college woman," became imposing figures in U.S. commercial culture. By the end of the 19th century, college-going had become fashionable and prestigious.

Following World War II, U.S. higher education enjoyed a quarter-century of support marked by the three Ps of prosperity, prestige, and popularity. American higher education changed in two ways. First, its base expanded to move significantly closer to providing mass access to higher education. Second, U.S. colleges and universities increased capacity to add advanced, academically selective programs from the undergraduate level on up.

Introduced during this time was the GI Bill, a government subsidy for education provided to soldiers, however inequitably. As college applications increased among this population, although the backgrounds of the GIs differed greatly, the Bill was a blueprint for ideas such as modern federal financial aid. Also around this time came the rise of "big science," the expansion

of graduate programs, and the need for external funding. The growing population of women and minority students met this need to some extent.

One of the most important pieces of legislation related to higher education was the passage of the Morrill Land Grant Act of 1862. At the time, however, few took note of its passage or ascribed to it much importance (Lucas, 2016). The bill provided support for every state to have at least one college "where the leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts" (qtd. in Thelin, 2004, p. 77). One of the Act's primary goals was to make college more affordable and accessible. Every state received public land of 30,000 acres for each senator and representative, encouraging new institutions to focus on disciplines critical to westward expansion, including agriculture, engineering, mechanics, and mining (Bok, 2013).

A second Morrill Act passed in 1890 stipulated that no appropriations would go to states that denied admission to colleges based on race unless they also established equal facilities. Rudolph (1977) reported that 17 states were so moved. The land expansion, population growth, and industry created an opportunity for all businesses, including institutions of higher education. Between 1870 and 1944, the number of colleges quintupled and enrollments increased by 7000% (Cohen, et al., 2014). Additionally, several colleges were emerging as "universities," with graduate and professional programs growing alongside undergraduate programs.

The Morrill Act clearly changed the way Americans viewed colleges. Before the Civil War, the view of college was as unnecessary and having little to offer by way of practical application (old classical model); a new model gave legitimacy to vocational and technical education. Rudolph (1977) stated, "Everywhere the idea of going to college was being liberated from the class-bound, classical-bound traditions which for so long had defined the American

collegiate experience" (p. 263). Ingrained in the land grant idea was the concept of collegiate education for everyone at public expense (Rudolph, 1977).

From 1945 to 1980, higher education underwent fundamental changes, helping to create the university of today. The expansion in college enrollment unintentionally contributed to the secularization of higher education from 1945 forward. Consequently, introducing a new, secularized curriculum—the study and research of the sciences and technical training—overshadowed the Christian Protestant framework of learning (Rudolph, 1977). Views of science as the path to employment for technical jobs to defend the nation in a postwar environment changed the relationship between political and secular identities in the United States (Cohen, et al., 2014), as a secular view for the nation's defense held a greater significance. The focus on higher education in the 1940s became a push toward defense. Government policy, especially research funding on science and technical training, secularized higher education (Gilbert & Heller, 2013).

Two postwar developments that contributed to the large growth of the new secularized curriculum of science and the technical fields were the GI Bill and the Truman Report. By the end of World War II, the demand for science in higher education changed the composition of the college student population. Despite the establishment of colleges for women and minorities, higher education before World War II remained solely for upper-class White males. Prior to World War II, many Americans did not go to college. According to the 1940 U.S. Census, 10 million people had less than a fourth-grade education; by 1947, 41 million adults had more than an eighth-grade education (U.S. Census, 2000). As soldiers began to return from the war, the GI Bill provided them with money to attend college.

In 1948, President Truman appointed a commission to report on higher education. The commission urged a vast expansion of higher education to serve a much larger and more diverse segment of the U.S. population, including soldiers returning from World War II. In a six-volume report published in 1948, the commission addressed the goals, methods, and resources of the educational system. The commission recommended making available a minimum of 14 years of education to all Americans, estimating that nearly half of the population was capable of and would benefit from completing 2 years of postsecondary schooling.

The commission's proclamation led to the widespread emergence of community colleges across the country. An extension of the K-12 system, community colleges were a means to provide accessible, free, or low-cost education to the public to include both technical training and preparation for more advanced degrees. U.S. higher education became known as a key engine of social mobility, economic progress, and national defense. Essentially, religious sentiment translated into secularism and a commitment to public service, training for democracy, and the promotion of character.

The Truman Report recommended a system of higher education to better suit the various needs of different students, with a curriculum to promote a sense of common culture and citizenship. The report specified policies for broader participation in higher education. Merit-based college admissions removed obstacles for less-wealthy students, yet minorities continued to endure discrimination (Gilbert & Heller, 2013). Leading postwar universities became the premier sites of knowledge production; accordingly, for the United States to maintain superiority as a world leader, higher education needed to be accessible to anyone who wanted to attend. The Truman Report led to accessibility with the growth of community colleges and federal assistance to make college affordable.

With the federal government involved, a public debate ensued over public and private-religious institutions over government financing. Private-religious institutions' argument that the federal government was taking over the entire system of education became the "Statement of Dissent" on the Truman Report, with two committee members dissenting on financial assistance by the federal government. These committee members argued that the commission's recommendation was inconsistent with other policies and proposals and would thus make public colleges and universities a priority for federal funds, with private religious institutions subject to government control.

The Truman Report directed the determination of financial expenditure based on the quantity and quality of the educational program, indicating the need to expand the capacity of higher education. At first, colleges and universities needed to absorb the millions of veterans who enrolled on the GI Bill. Within 2 decades, expansion was necessary to accommodate the baby boomer generation. Finally, there was a need to educate a broader array of students in the sense of backgrounds, academic interests, and skills. By 1960, institutions of higher learning had moved into the center of U.S. society.

Academic knowledge became the engine of economic development, and in that process, universities assumed a unique role. U.S. research universities earned recognition as world leaders in a national system. Universities began to actively commercialize their research capacity by partnering with the private sector (Gilbert & Heller, 2013). Since the publication of the Truman Report, higher education in the United States has become more secular and racially and economically divisive (Karabel, 1972). The shifting demographic of the U.S. population, combined with the availability of aid and the goal of open admissions, allowed for greater access yet placed poorer and minority students at the bottom of the educational ladder.

The expansion of community colleges led to a system of tracks, or pathways to jobs and career, shaped by economics (Karabel, 1972). As a result, low-socioeconomic students, especially those who are first generation, funnel into technical programs as opposed to academic programs. In addition to providing pathways for low-income students into labor-intensive jobs, tracks guide elite students into higher-paying executive positions.

There is a significant difference in collegiate attainment between students accepted to elite universities and students not accepted. The significance reflects that some colleges, including Harvard, have a history of enrollment that restricted admissions to specific religions and the upper echelons of society, maintaining an elitist structure. Harvard also has a history of discriminating against Jewish applicants (Karabel, 1972). As noted by Chen (2012), Harvard introduced the vague qualities of character, vigor, manliness, and leadership to cap Jewish enrollment. According to the Truman Report, private institutions of higher education created obstacles by implementing quota systems. Asking students for their religion on applications for admission created a barrier for Jewish students, as universities could and did find ways to restrict enrollment.

The Truman Report claimed it was the responsibility of all levels of higher education to provide equal opportunity and prevent discrimination of qualified applicants (Thelin, 2004). Even so, Asian applicants have faced discrimination through the application process at Harvard (Chen, 2012), with research showing that Harvard continues to select White students with money. Of the more than 9,000 students who applied to selective universities, Espenshade and Radford (2013) found White students were three times more likely to be admitted than were Asian applicants with the same academic record. Despite the roles of the Truman Report and the GI Bill in secularizing universities and colleges and expanding students' access to college,

constraints remain for ethnic, low socioeconomic students—namely, poverty and discrimination. The history of higher education affirms the pursuit and maintenance of a standard in institutions that privilege an elite, White male presence and actively resist the admission of individuals not meeting that description.

Conceptual Framework: Organizational Change Recipients' Beliefs Toward Faculty Diversification

The external impetus for change in the academy's human resources structure directly lies with the demographic shift in the ethnicity/race of society at large and the academy's constituent base. The need for change in the composition of higher education faculty is apparent in the research on student support and historically violent responses to demographic shifts. Education scholars articulate the importance of validation and support for students who are part of historically oppressed populations, as well as acknowledge the prevalence of homophily and its relationship to student outcomes (Gilkes Borr, 2019; Harper, 2015; Hurtado et al., 2015; Ladson-Billings, 2014; Washington, 2019).

Management theorists have provided guidelines on navigating successful change initiatives in consideration of both affective and cognitive stakeholder responses. However, universities task faculty diversification duties to individuals without assessing their attitudes toward the change with regard to their worldview, the institution, or their source of income (Chandland & Marcinus, 2017; Mathews & Linksi, 2016). Organizational readiness for change literature indicates the need for assessing the organizational change, as recipients' beliefs and attitudes continue to be a vital step in ensuring a fair and equitable hiring practice in the pursuit of a diversified faculty (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; de la Luz Reyes & Halcon, 1991; Lines, 2005; Oreg et al., 2011).

"Discrepancy" meets "need." Organizational efforts to meet the needs of newer

constituents may affect the survival of the institution itself (Nellis et al., 2013). Citing a 2007

United Nations report, Nellis et al. (2013) tracked international population demography and its

impact on higher education in developed nations. Findings showed a drop in the annual

population growth rate, from .91 million in the 2005–2010 period to a projected .38 million in the

2045–2050 time frame. Thus, whom the academy serves and how it serves them will become

even more important as competition for students is likely to increase. The U.S. Census (2018)

predicted that, by 2060, the Hispanic (14%), Black (2%), Asian (3.1%), and Native (.3%)

populations will increase, whereas the White non-Hispanic (20%) population will decrease. The

demographic trend indicates the potential impact of the demography change in terms of

technological, language, and cultural competency, as well as what adjusting to the changes means

for global competition (Bowman, 2010; Nellis et al., 2013).

The demography of the developed world may be declining; however, immigration

accounts for nearly all population growth in developed countries (Nellis et al., 2013). Clearly, the

implication for U.S. higher education is that change is necessary to compete with international

expectations. According to Kotter (1995), poorly managed or unplanned changes have a 57%

failure rate. The need for student representation and support is well documented, as is the

importance of faculty–student interaction within these sensitive populations.

Diversification appropriateness. In a study of the relevance of diversity in higher

education, Denson and Chang (2009) of the University of California, Los Angeles, attempted to

measure the practical significance of diversity regarding social and personal outcomes for 19,794

students across 236 institutions. Using data from the Cooperative Institutional Research Program

and Higher Education Research Institute, Denson and Chang defined social outcomes as racial

and cultural engagement, with personal outcomes defined as skill or competence based. The researchers found:

> 28.8% of the total between-institution variance, compared to 30.8% by all other institution-level variables significant, it can be said that both student- and institution-level diversity engagement have practical significance for promoting students' self-change in their knowledge of and ability to get along with people from different races and culture. (Denson & Chang, 2009, p. 329)

Beyond the need for mentoring of students of color, creating students who are culturally competent necessitates exposing them to people of different races and cultures. Faculty diversity has multiple organizational benefits. The question, therefore, is not whether organizational diversity is beneficial for both students and the organization, but if faculty members believe increased faculty diversity is beneficial for themselves and the institution.

For students. Allen et al. (1997) stated, "Mentors will perceive that there are greater rewards to providing mentorship to protégés who are perceived to be similar to themselves than protégés perceived to be dissimilar to themselves" (p. 86). Approximation selection bias distinctiveness theory, or homophily, is a culture mindset and a support in the face of continued aggression (McKenzie, 2009; Rendon, 1994; Underhill, 2011). Students rely on cultural networks to decrease the sense of social distance and combat microaggressions (Acevedo-Gil et al., 2015; Aksoy, 2015; Cole, 2010; Danbold & Huo, 2015; Harper & Quaye, 2009; Hurtado et al., 2015; Tovar, 2015; Washington, 2019).

Students of color seek out faculty of color for advising, support, and guidance on issues related to their personal and professional development (Lee, 1999; Meneges & Exum 1983; Plata 1996; Tierney & Bensimon 1996). In a study of student–faculty interaction, Cole and Griffin

(2013) found that 50% of African American participants had same-race mentors and 18% said it was important for their role models' race to match their own. The need for ethnic homophily may be rooted in historical levels of racial aggression from faculty and peers alike (Acevedo-Gil et al., 2015; Cole, 2010; Du Bois, 1973; Dupuy, 2017; Harper & Quaye, 2009; hooks, 1994; Loo & Rolison, 1986). Without support, students have lower levels of persistence and graduation rates. Studies of African American students (Baker, 2013; Bartee & Brown, 2007; D'Augelli & Hershberger, 1993; Thomas, 2000; Washington, 2019) and Latino students (Acevedo-Gil et al., 2015; Baker, 2013) clearly indicate the importance of support for students' racialized experiences.

For faculty. Faculty of color have disproportionate tenure rates and higher rates of pretenure departure, according to U.S. education researchers (Antonio, 2002; Finkelstein, 1984; Menges & Exum, 1983; Turner et al., 2008). Reasons include disproportionate advising and service loads stemming from frequently being the only faculty member of color in a department, an isolating work environment, and the lack of scholarly recognition given to research focusing on ethnic minority populations (de la Luz Reyes & Halcon, 1991). In early research on minority mentor load, Brown et al. (1999) found the ratio of students to faculty of color was 58:1, whereas the ratio of students to White faculty was 28:1. Almost 10 years later, the American Council on Education's annual *Race and Ethnicity in Higher Education: A Status Report* (2008) reported a 45:1 ratio of students to faculty of color, with the ratio of students to White faculty at 20:1. de la Luz Reyes and Halcon (1991) identified the persistence of racist perceptions on institutional and individual levels that restrict access and impede the professional progress of faculty of color.

The history of race relations within the academy indicates the potential for negative responses to change in the institutional demographic within seats of power. The distant and recent past indicate there are still complex areas of resistance regarding the shifting demographic of the

constituency. If an institution seeks change, then ascertaining the organization's readiness to implement that change must be a part of the process.

Principal support and efficacy. Principal support is executive or administrative support and promotion of the change initiative. Principal support is apparent in institutional endeavors, such as providing adequate resources and professional opportunities to hire and retain professors of color. Although many universities include language-lauding diversity as a mission, there is little evidence to indicate that practical support is consistently available. Management literature connects the attitudes of employees toward a change initiative with the support and positive promotion of the change from top organizational leadership, leading to the question: Do the leadership support faculty diversification with clear communication and resource allocation to ensure successful outcomes? A review of the institutional mission, as well as funding and human resources allocation, can help scholars ascertain to what degree an institution is willing to support faculty diversification.

The collective reasoning of an educated society reflects the institutions' readiness for change at multiple levels. Reflections of principal support should be evident in existing organization documentation; however, members' perceptions of principal support may be more important than evidence of principal support. In an organization such as the academy with a history of the dominant demographic's viewpoint as relatively negative toward the ethnic population, do dominant-group faculty believe that diversifying the faculty is possible in the model of education that exists today? Even if principal support exists, if there are resistors in the rank of the key stakeholders who act as de facto gatekeepers, the change initiative is unlikely to succeed. If most stakeholders believe there is a potential for the change initiative to succeed but gatekeepers are also resistors, the change initiative is unlikely to succeed.

Data from state and federal databases indicate growth in ethnic populations in institutions that have traditionally served a different population. Research shows faculty diversification is a worthwhile and valuable step to serve the new constituents while providing the support needed by the student demographic. Although faculty diversification is a viable option, the process of hiring diverse faculty members has been considerably slower than the increase in student diversity. A stakeholder analysis is needed to understand the potential impediments to faculty diversification, and it makes theoretical sense to begin the assessment with stakeholders who play a pivotal role in faculty hiring processes: faculty members. The perceived benefit or harm of the diversification issue has a direct bearing on the support or resistance to diversification efforts. Faculty members serve as gatekeepers because they have the power to enable or block access to the profession; therefore, their perceptions of the need and urgency to diversify—as well as the appropriateness of diversification as a potential response to the mismatch between student needs, organizational goals, and human resources realities—are fundamental to any serious attempt to increase faculty diversity.

The narratives describing the relationship between the academy and its constituents of color, combined with the demographic realities that demand stakeholder support for successful organizational outcomes, are compelling reasons to review hiring practices if they stand alone; however, the realities are nestled in the context of social and economic perceptions that can alter the behavior of individuals charged with working toward organizational needs and goals.

Researchers of empirical studies (c.f., Chang, 2001; Gurin, 1999; Hu & Kuh, 2003; Umbach & Kuh, 2006) have validated the achievement and access gaps for students of color, the mentorship preferences for students and faculty, and the relationship between representation, validation, and graduation; however, institutions of higher education have not adjusted their

faculty demographic to accommodate the new constituents (Denson & Chang, 2009). One must look deeply into hiring practices that may uphold sociocultural ideas rather than organizational ideals (Gasman, 2016; Harper, 2015). Faculty are generally responsible for hiring faculty; therefore, assessing the attitudes of faculty members is imperative. The most direct way to ascertain this information is to ask the stakeholders how they feel about the initiative.

Chapter 3 will present the methods for investigating and answering this study's guiding research questions within the context of an organizational change assessment focused on perceptions of benefit or harm, which may impact a stakeholder's behavior during faculty hiring situations. A description of the research design appears, including information about the study sample as well as the instrument and items used to collect participants' perceptions. Details about the data collection process and analyses will follow.

Chapter 3: Methods

The purpose of this quantitative, descriptive, comparative study was to explore faculty attitudes toward faculty diversity initiatives relative to faculty race/ethnicity and rank. Faculty members were the focus of this study, as they are key stakeholders who may perceive motive and opportunity to impede diversification outcomes. Change in constituent demographics of the academy has a history of negative outcomes for students and faculty of color (Dupuy, 2017; hooks, 1994; Mangan, 2017). The means of managing change determines the level of success or lack thereof in any change initiative (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Armenakis & Harris, 2009; Drucker, 1980/2006; Kotter, 1995; Lines, 2005; Oreg et al., 2011). If an institution wants a successful faculty diversification program, then it will have to begin the change initiative with a plan. The Armenakis and Bedeian (1999) model of successful change management/ organizational change readiness indicates that the first step in an effective change initiative is assessing motivation for change.

Participants

With the many institution types across the nation, this study was restricted to full-time faculty at 2- or 4-year public institutions, as they most closely reflect the national population. Although institutions may utilize a variety of faculty hiring committee models to include staff, students, and part-time faculty in hiring decisions, only full-time faculty merited consideration in this study due to the contractually committed relationship that usually governs their employment status. Full-time faculty are the institutional stakeholders with the most economic and social interest, although their committee positions allow various levels of influence on hiring outcomes (Iverson, 1996).

Measure

The guiding instrument, the OCRBS, is a psychometrically sound, self-report instrument comprised of 24 items to evaluate the progress of organizational change (see Appendix A). In a systematic review of organizational change assessment instruments, Gagnon et al. (2014) identified 18 organizational change assessment instruments that presented both reliability and validity. Although Gagnon et al.'s focus was specific to instruments that included health care implementation, the scholars included non–health care assessments in their review. Gagnon et al. examined the assessments based on the standards of the American Education Research Association, the American Psychological Association, the National Council for Measurement in Education, and SEPT. Modifying the items enabled the researchers to focus the respondent's attention on a specific change initiative—faculty diversity—instead of using the original language that vaguely refers to a change.

Use of the modified items on the OCRBS's (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999) eight demographic variables (see Appendix 2A) facilitated understanding the individual contexts (Oreg et al., 2011) that may underlie responses: academic rank (Giacquinta, 1975), age (Caldwell et al., 2004), and gender (Armstrong-Stassen, 1998). The historical analysis of the U.S. academy indicates the need to include variables of ethnicity/race and region of employment to understand the potential for racial/ethnic biases.

Among the 18 available assessments, Armenakis and Bedeian's (1999) work on the perceived readiness for organizational change model ranked sixth as an empirical study of organizational readiness and first in terms of non–health care–focused assessments. The assessments based on this early work of Armenakis and Bedeian (1999) informed the development of the scale used to ascertain faculty organizational readiness for change at both the

individual and organizational levels. Oreg et al. (2011) examined approximately 700 quantitative studies assessing response change factors between 1948 and 2007, with the majority published in the *Annual Review of Psychology* and the *Journal of Management*. Although there is no support for use in higher education specifically, the model of change readiness that informs this assessment is well tested and is appropriate for use in the social and behavioral sciences (Gagnon et al., 2014).

Reliability and Validity

OCRBS. Assessment of content validity, internal consistency, and criterion-related validity was in line with American Psychological Association standards for quantitative survey instruments. Cohen's kappa coefficient of .86 ($p < .05$) exceeded the .70 content validity benchmark generally considered acceptable, indicating the survey items represent the described construct significantly. Of the original 26 items, only 24 met the criteria for intercorrelations above the .40 benchmark (Kim & Mueller, 1978), leading the omission of two items specific to the personal valence domain. The exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis showed all five constructs loading in their respective model areas. All coefficient alphas were above the .70 benchmark, indicating internal consistency reliability.

The OCRBS contains five discrepancy items, five appropriateness items, four valence items, five efficacy items, and five principal support items, as does the modified version. Convergent validity compares factor loadings with loadings that are theory supported. Criterion-related validity evaluates the level at which the assessment predicts outcomes consistent with theory and research. Organizational change recipients' beliefs predicted a significant amount of variance in procedural justice, distributive justice, affective change commitment, normative change commitment, and organizational cynicism theories.

Alpha Level

The alpha level in the study is the value at which the null hypothesis will be rejected under the assumption that the null hypothesis is true. Researchers establish the alpha level before data collection. In social sciences, the alpha level is $p < .05$ (Brace, Kemp, & Snelgar, 2013).

Power Analysis

An a priori power analysis was conducted with G*Power 3.1.9.4 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). A power analysis is necessary to maximize resources such as time and money when conducting research. In addition, when a study produces no significant results, without a power analysis, researchers are unable to determine whether the nonsignificant results were due to an insufficient sample size (Brace et al., 2013).

G*Power calculates the required sample size based on the type of proposed statistical test in addition to other parameters (Faul et al., 2007). Selecting the statistical test precedes determination of the effect size. The effect size is a standardized way of quantifying a difference. Effect size classifications are small, medium, or large (Cohen, 1977). The medium effect size ($f = .25$) is the default value in G*Power; accordingly, a medium effect size was appropriate for this study.

Another parameter is the alpha level, which for the present study was $p < .05$. Also required is the power level, which refers to the degree of confidence one can have in the results. The default power level for G*Power is .95, which was the power level selected for this study. The numerator degrees of freedom (*df*) is another required parameter. For an analysis of variance (ANOVA), calculating the degrees of freedom is by subtracting one from each group and then multiplying the difference. Thus, for a 2x2 ANOVA, the resulting degrees of freedom is 1[(2-1) * (2-1)]. The anticipated number of groups was four, which is the last required parameter. Based

on previous values, the required sample size was 210 (see Figure 1). Due to funding and time limitations, the study closed with 173 respondents, with 155 completing surveys for a 90% response rate.
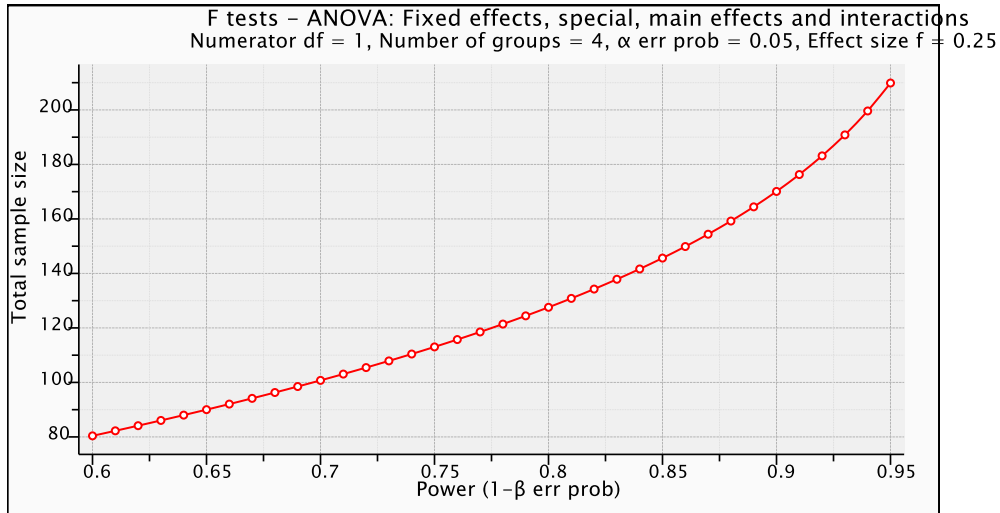
Figure 1. Required sample size.

Research Design

This quantitative study incorporated two designs. The first three research questions were descriptive, with the remaining nine comparative. Significant mean differences were tested between two independent variables (preexisting groups) relative to a dependent variable using three two-way ANOVAs. Examination of the open-ended items was by frequency of similar responses, with subsequent hand coding. There was no treatment or random assignment; therefore, the research design was descriptive, comparative.

Procedures

Study participants included full-time faculty at two 4-year public institutions. The survey instrument underwent modification for higher education using the OCRBS (Armenakis & Bedeian, 2007) as a foundational assessment. The data collection procedure was the implementation of a web-based survey posted to the participant database. Participants received a brief overview of the study to provide the appropriate context for answering the questions on the survey.

To address the potential issue of participants responding in a way they believed was desirable to society rather than accurate, participant identification was via a unique identification code assigned to each survey, enabling the analysis of demographic and other characteristics without identifying individual information. After giving their consent to take part in this study, participants completed the survey. Directions indicated that respondents should first complete the demographic section by selecting the response for each item that best described their status. Following completion of this section, respondents rated each survey item on scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Once the respondents completed all items, they clicked the "submit" button to record their answers

Data Collection and Analysis

Data collected occurred using a paid respondent panel to ensure the timeliness and completeness of responses. Study participants were full-time faculty at two 4-year public institutions. Modification of the survey instrument for higher education was by using the OCRBS (Armenakis & Bedeian, 2007) as a foundational assessment. With every effort taken to protect the identity of respondents, the compiled respondent digital files are biometrically protected, with all document files retained without identifying information in a locked computer in a key-

secured location. The Institutional Review Board (IRB 3561) reviewed this study, determining it to be exempt due to minimal risk to the participants. Despite exemption from certain federal regulations, there was consideration of all institutional and ethical guidelines to protect participants.

The general approach used in this study involved data collection and analytic methods encompassing those developed by contemporary organizational change theorists that underscore the affective component of the change process (see Armenakis et al., 2011). Attitudes inform behaviors; therefore, the perceptions of either harm or benefit to individuals expected to participate and implement the change are critically important to the success of the change. The difference, rather, is in the methodology.

The study had a quantitative research approach employing a survey to ascertain the attitudes of faculty members toward faculty diversification organizational initiatives. Evaluating the personal and organizational valence (perception of benefit or harm) of faculty members at institutions of higher education using a variation of the OCRBS (Armenakis et al., 2007) enables researchers to ascertain faculty readiness and perceptions of organizational readiness for faculty diversification in higher education. Supplementing the OCRBS were three open-ended items to allow respondents an opportunity to expound upon their knowledge in or of critical areas relevant to the conversation: programs and policies that promote faculty diversity, student impact of faculty diversification, and the impact of faculty diversification on institutional reputation.

Chapter 4 presents the results of this quantitative descriptive, comparative study. Statistical analyses of participants' survey responses and perceptions appear, along with an analysis of findings. Also included is whether the hypotheses were able to be rejected.

Chapter 4: Results

"Under conditions of colonialization, poverty, racism, gender or sexual subordination, dominated populations are often held away from the comforts of the dominant ideology or ripped out of legitimized social narratives, in a process of power that places such constituencies in a very different position from which to view objects-in-reality than other kinds of citizen-subjects."
~Chela Sandoval, Methodology of the Oppressed (2000, p. 104)

Chapter 4 begins with a discussion of the sample demographics followed by qualitative analysis, reliability analysis, descriptive statistics, data screening, research question/hypothesis testing, and a summary of the results. Data analysis was with SPSS 23 for Windows. The following section details the sample demographics.

Participant Demographics

Of the 173 individuals who started the survey, 18 submitted incomplete survey responses, leaving a final sample size of 155. Respondent employment ranks consisted of lecturers/adjuncts, assistant professors, associate professors, and professors. A breakdown of employment rank by number and percentage appears in Table 4.

Table 4

Employment Rank

Rank	n	%
Lecturer/adjunct	52	33.5
Assistant professor	39	25.2
Associate professor	26	16.8
Professor	38	24.5
Total	155	100.0

Most participants (72.9%, $n = 113$) taught at 4-year public institutions, whereas a minority (27.1%, $n = 42$) taught at 2-year public institutions. Educational attainment among

participants included bachelor, Master's, professional, and doctoral degrees. Table 5 presents the educational attainment of participants.

Table 5

Educational Attainment

Highest degree	*n*	%
Bachelor's degree	24	15.5
Master's degree	57	36.8
Professional degree (e.g., JD, MD, EdD, PsyD, etc.)	24	15.5
Research degree (PhD)	50	32.3
Total	155	100.0

The primary fields of employment in higher education among participants were applied sciences, humanities, and social sciences; the field of formal sciences had the fewest participants. Table 6 presents details of participants' field of employment in higher education.

Table 6

Field of Employment in Higher Education

Employment field	*n*	%
Humanities/arts (e.g., religion, philosophy, linguistics, theater arts, literature, history, music)	40	25.8
Social sciences (e.g., economics, political science, sociology, anthropology, geography, psychology, gender, ethnic or cultural studies)	37	23.9
Natural sciences (e.g., physics, chemistry, biology, earth or space science)	24	15.5
Applied sciences (e.g., business, education, agriculture, social work, public administration, transportation, law, religion, engineering, technology, medicine)	47	30.3
Formal sciences (e.g., mathematics, computer science, logic, statistics, and systems science)	7	4.5
Total	155	100.0

Slightly more than half of the participants primarily employed in higher education worked in one of 10 states. The top 10 states were California, Texas, Florida, Maryland, New York, Illinois, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Ohio, and Michigan. Table 7 presents a detailed list of participants' higher education employment by state.

Table 7

State of Primary Employment as a Faculty Member in Higher Education

State of primary employment	*n*	%
Alabama	3	1.9
Arizona	4	2.6
Arkansas	3	1.9
California	15	9.7
Colorado	1	0.6
Connecticut	2	1.3
Florida	8	5.2
Georgia	4	2.6
Hawaii	1	0.6
Illinois	7	4.5
Indiana	4	2.6
Kansas	3	1.9
Kentucky	2	1.3
Louisiana	2	1.3
Maryland	8	5.2
Massachusetts	4	2.6
Michigan	5	3.2
Minnesota	4	2.6
Mississippi	5	3.2
Missouri	4	2.6
Nebraska	1	0.6
Nevada	1	0.6
New Hampshire	2	1.3
New Jersey	5	3.2
New York	8	5.2
North Carolina	3	1.9
Ohio	6	3.9
Oklahoma	2	1.3
Oregon	2	1.3
Pennsylvania	7	4.5
South Carolina	2	1.3
Tennessee	1	0.6
Texas	10	6.5
Utah	1	0.6
Virginia	7	4.5
Washington	5	3.2
West Virginia	2	1.3
Wisconsin	1	0.6
Total	155	100.0

Regarding race/ethnicity, just over half of participating faculty were White, with other

represented races including Black or African Americans, Asian, Middle Eastern, and "other."

Table 8 presents the race/ethnicity of participants by number and percentage.

Table 8

Race/Ethnicity

Race/ethnicity	*n*	%
White	86	55.5
Black or African American	34	21.9
Asian	25	16.1
Hispanic	5	3.2
Other	5	3.2
Total	155	100.0

Participants indicated with which gender spectrum they most closely identified.

Responses included male (51.0%, $n = 79$), female (48.4%, $n = 75$), and nonbinary (0.6%, $n = 1$).

The largest age group of participants was the millennials, followed by Generation X and baby

boomers. Table 9 presents participants' years of birth.

Table 9

Year of Birth

Year of birth	*n*	%
2000 to present (Generation Z)	1	0.6
1980 to 1999 (millennials)	68	43.9
1965 to 1979 (Generation X)	59	38.1
1946 to 1964 (baby boomers)	26	16.8
1945 or prior (traditionalists)	1	0.6
Total	155	100.0

Participants responded to the survey question, "To what extent do you feel your department administrators value diversity?" They responded on a Likert scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Thus, responses ranged from 1 to 7 ($M = 5.46$, $SD = 1.28$). A mean of 5.46 corresponds to a rating of *somewhat agree*. Therefore, participants somewhat agreed that their department administrators valued diversity.

Preliminary Analysis

Qualitative analysis. Participants answered three open-ended questions, with their responses subsequently analyzed using a description-focused coding strategy (see Adu, 2019). Summarized data appear in words or short phrases. The summary of relevant information does not include interpretations into the construction of the codes.

Open-Ended Question 1: What steps has your institution taken to show support for diverse faculty recruitment and retention? Fifty participants responded that their institutions had incorporated diversity in the hiring practice. Specific strategies consisted of advertising, recruitment, and implementing policies. Twelve participants mentioned some form of training or meetings that their institutions have implemented. Examples of these included workshops and seminars for faculty diversity, regular lab lunches, and potluck events. Faculty also identified diverse clubs for all religions and cultures, along with groups supporting faculty development for staff of color as diversity initiatives. Three participants reported mentor groups for diversity-specific faculty such as LGBTQ, Black women, and others. Seven participants remarked that their institutions were already diversified, and 37 disclosed that either they did not know whether their institutions had taken any steps toward supporting diverse faculty recruitment and retention or that their institutions had taken no steps (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. Steps taken to show support for diverse faculty recruitment and retention.

Open-Ended Question 2: Please describe how you think increased faculty diversification would impact your organization's reputation. Approximately 35 faculty opined that faculty diversification would improve or have a positive impact on their organizations' reputations in various ways. Faculty diversification would make their institutions appear more progressive and foster a culture of inclusivity. Approximately 27 faculty members indicated that diversification would attract more minority students. Eighteen participants either did not know or did not think that diversification would have an impact on their organizations' reputations. Fourteen participants stated that diversification would result in new ideas relative to more diverse research and more input and variety in decision-making; two participants expressed that faculty diversification would make faculty more relatable. One respondent wrote:

> I believe students are drawn to instructors that they can see themselves in and to whom they can relate. While it is great to have a new perspective on occasion and see things

through another person's experiences, I think students are going to be more easily

recruited by faculty that they can literally understand more easily and with whom they

feel more in tune.

A summary of responses appears as a word cloud in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Impact of faculty diversification on organizations' reputations.

Open-Ended Question 3: In your opinion, how would increased faculty diversification

impact student outcomes at your institution? Fifty-seven participants disclosed that faculty

diversification would lead to increased student retention, enrollment, academic performance, or

graduation rates. One participant stated that it was not just an opinion, but that research shows

students do better with diversified faculty. Twenty-eight participants commented that increased

faculty diversification would lead to students feeling more accepted and connected, otherwise

described as relatedness. One participant wrote:

We have a very diverse student population. If our school would have a faculty that is not diverse in race, gender, sexual orientation and in socioeconomic status, it would be very difficult for our diverse student population to feel welcome at our school and understood by our faculty.

Twenty-one respondents indicated that faculty diversification would result in increased student diversification. Students will more likely consider a particular institution if they see diversity valued by faculty at the institution. Twenty-three faculty members did not believe increased faculty diversification would result in any changes in student outcomes; indeed, some were quite passionate in this view. One participant responded, "They wouldn't, diversifying doesn't impact results, qualifications do—doesn't matter what people group someone is, as long as they are the most qualified, they should get the job." Another participant also demurred, writing, "It would not. It would be incidental if it had any impact. Simply hiring faculty based on desired characteristics does nothing to improve quality of student outcomes." Figure 4 presents a summary of responses in a word cloud.

Figure 4. Impact of faculty diversity on student outcomes.

Some of the themes that emerged from the three open-ended questions overlapped. A few recurring themes included attracting more diverse students, improving student relatedness to faculty, and improving the institutions' reputations; some participants either did not think faculty diversification would result in any changes or did not know if it would. Figure 5 shows these themes.
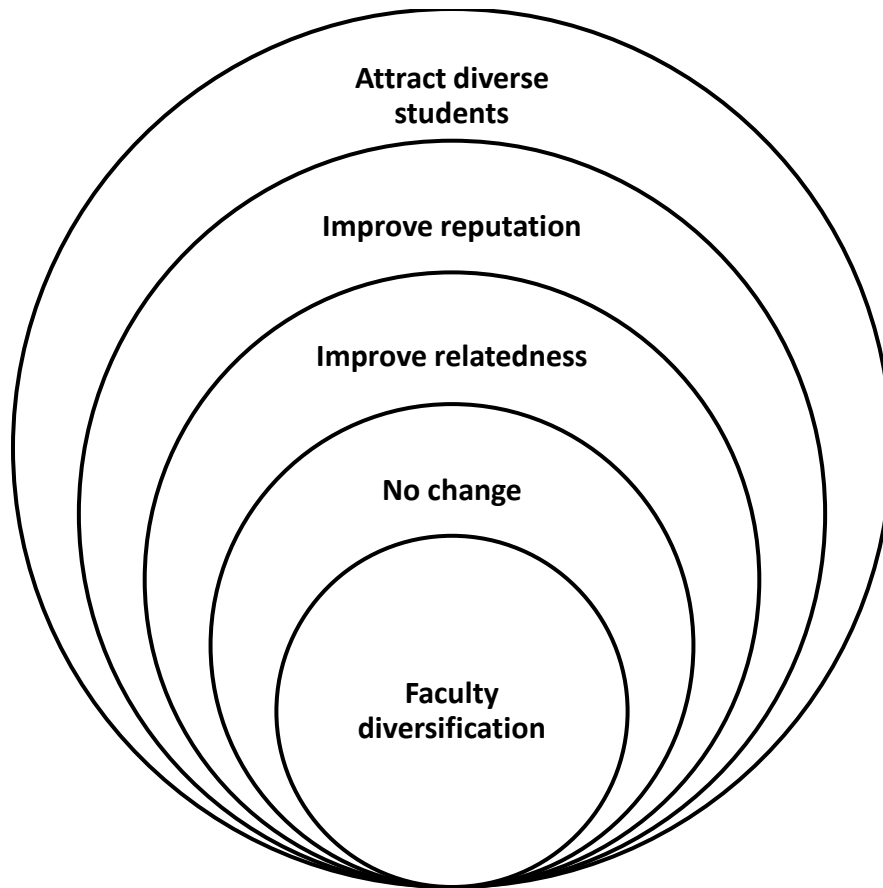
Figure 5. Overlapping themes.

Instrument Reliability for Sample

Cronbach's alpha was a means to test the reliability of the OCRBS. The internal consistency of the variables of interest ranged from .63 to .84. Reliability coefficients in the range of .60 to .69 are considered questionable (DeVellis, 2012); reliability coefficients ranging from .80 to .89 are considered good. Therefore, the reliability ranged from questionable to good. Table 10 presents the reliability coefficients.

Table 10

Reliability Coefficients

Variable	*N* of items	Cronbach's alpha	Interpretation
Valence	4	.840	Good
Efficacy	5	.629	Questionable
Principal support	6	.840	Good

Descriptive Statistics and Data Screening

Computation of the scores for the continuous variables of interest was by calculating the mean responses for each construct. Valence scores ranged from 1.00 to 7.00, efficacy scores ranged from 1.60 to 7.00, and principal support scores ranged from 2.17 to 7.00. Table 11 presents descriptive statistics, as discussed in subsequent paragraphs.

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	*M*	*SD*
Valence	1.00	7.00	4.80	1.23
Efficacy	1.60	7.00	5.37	0.83
Principal support	2.17	7.00	5.36	0.97

The data were screened for normality with skewness and kurtosis statistics and the Shapiro–Wilk test of normality, illustrated with histograms. In SPSS, distributions are considered normal when their absolute values are less than two times their standard errors (George & Mallery, 2010). The distributions for the three variables of interest were not normal based on their skewness and kurtosis coefficients, as presented in Table 12.

Table 12

Skewness and Kurtosis Coefficients

Variable	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Std. error	Statistic	Std. error
Valence	-.868	.195	.851	.387
Efficacy	-.658	.195	1.70	.387
Principal support	-.732	.195	.478	.387

The Shapiro-Wilk test of normality also showed that the distributions were not normal, with nonnormality indicated when $p < .05$. Shapiro-Wilk test results follow in Table 13.

Table 13

Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality

Variable	Statistic	*df*	*p*
Valence	.947	155	.000
Efficacy	.964	155	.000
Principal support	.958	155	.000

For valence, the skewness for the distribution of scores was 4.45 times the standard error. The kurtosis was 2.19 times the standard error. The Shapiro-Wilk test of normality also indicated that the distribution for valence was not normal ($p < .001$); however, the histogram of valence did not appear to deviate substantially from normality. Figure 6 presents the histogram of valence.
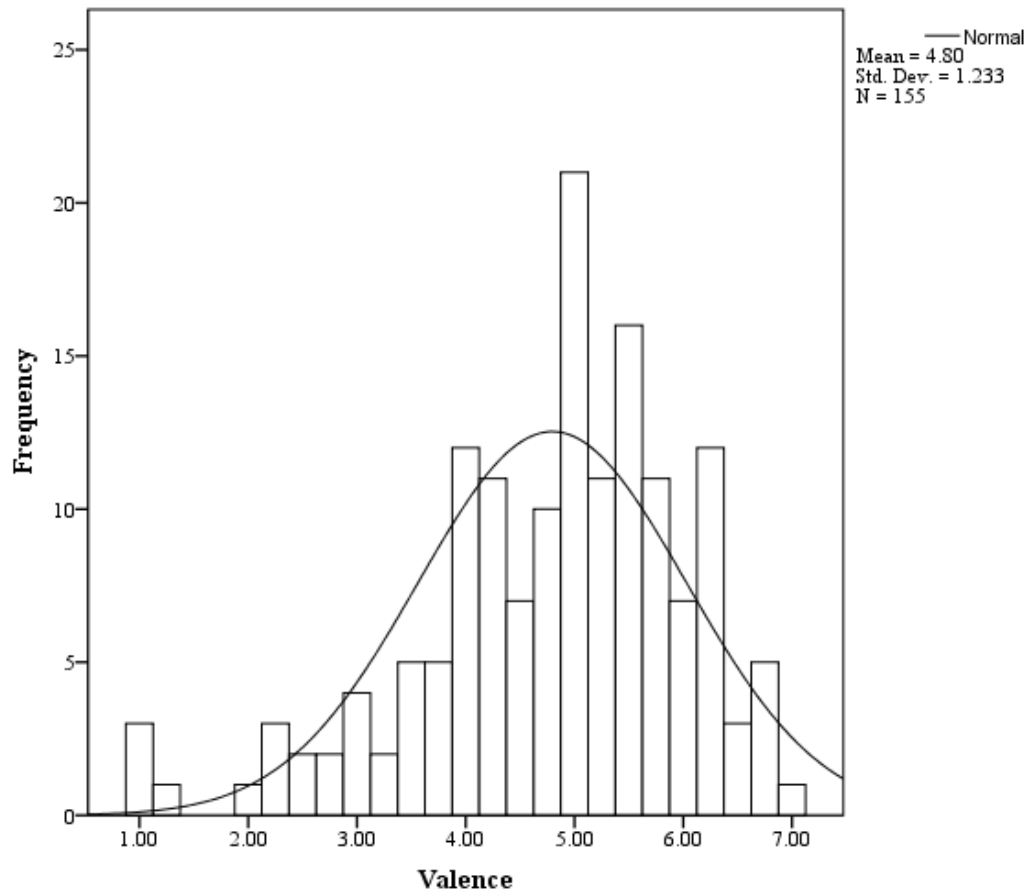
Figure 6. Histogram of valence.

The distribution of scores for valence underwent examination for the presence of statistical outliers using both a stem-and-leaf plot and a box-and-whisker plot. A statistical outlier is one that falls beyond the whiskers in the box-and-whisker plot. Mathematically defined, a statistical outlier is any point above or below 1.5 x the interquartile range (IQR). The IQR is the difference between the range of the third quarter minus the range of the first quarter. For valence, there were four outliers (≤ 1.3). The median was 5.00, the range was 6.00, and the IQR = 1.75. The box-and-whisker plot for valance is in Figure 7.
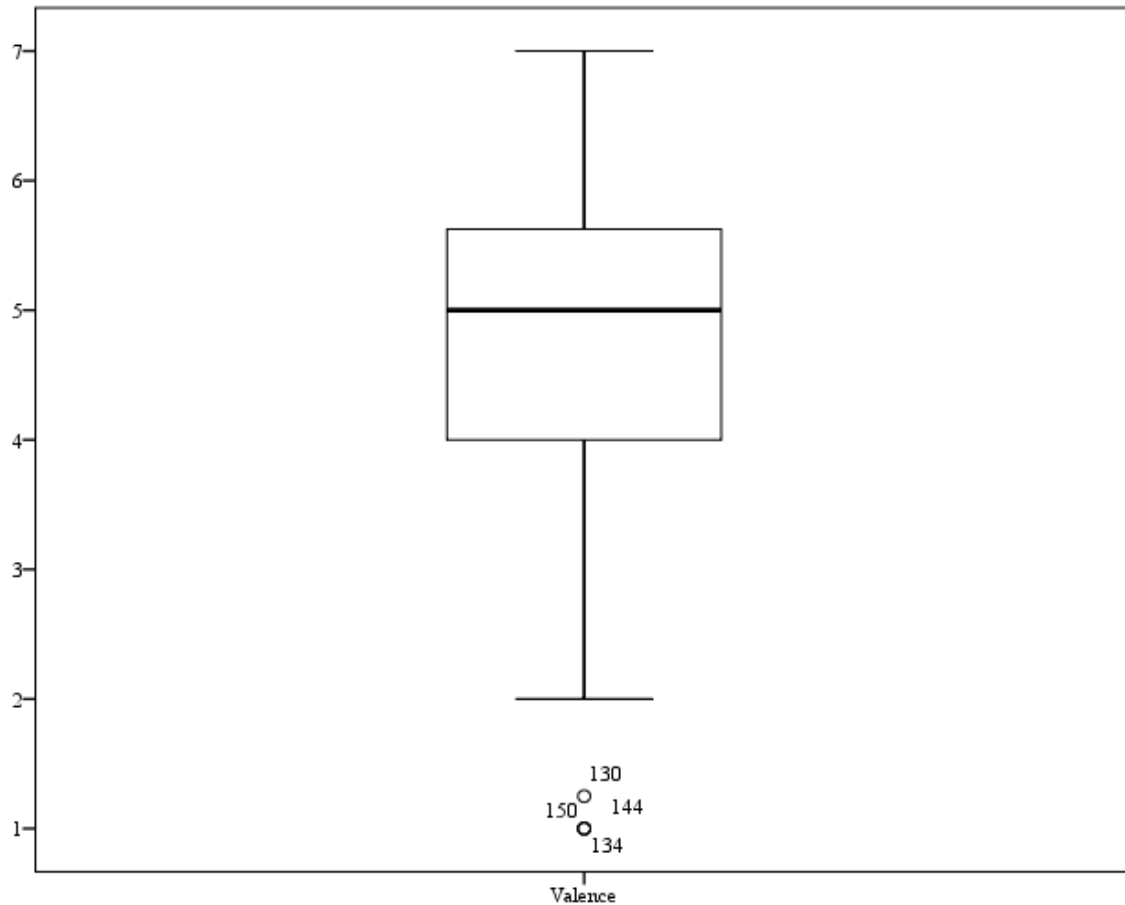
Figure 7. Box-and-whisker plot for valence.

For efficacy, the skewness for the distribution of scores was 3.37 times the standard error and the kurtosis was 4.39 times the standard error. The Shapiro-Wilk test of normality indicated that the distribution for efficacy was not normal ($p < .001$); however, the histogram of efficacy did not appear to deviate substantially from normality. Figure 8 presents the histogram of efficacy.
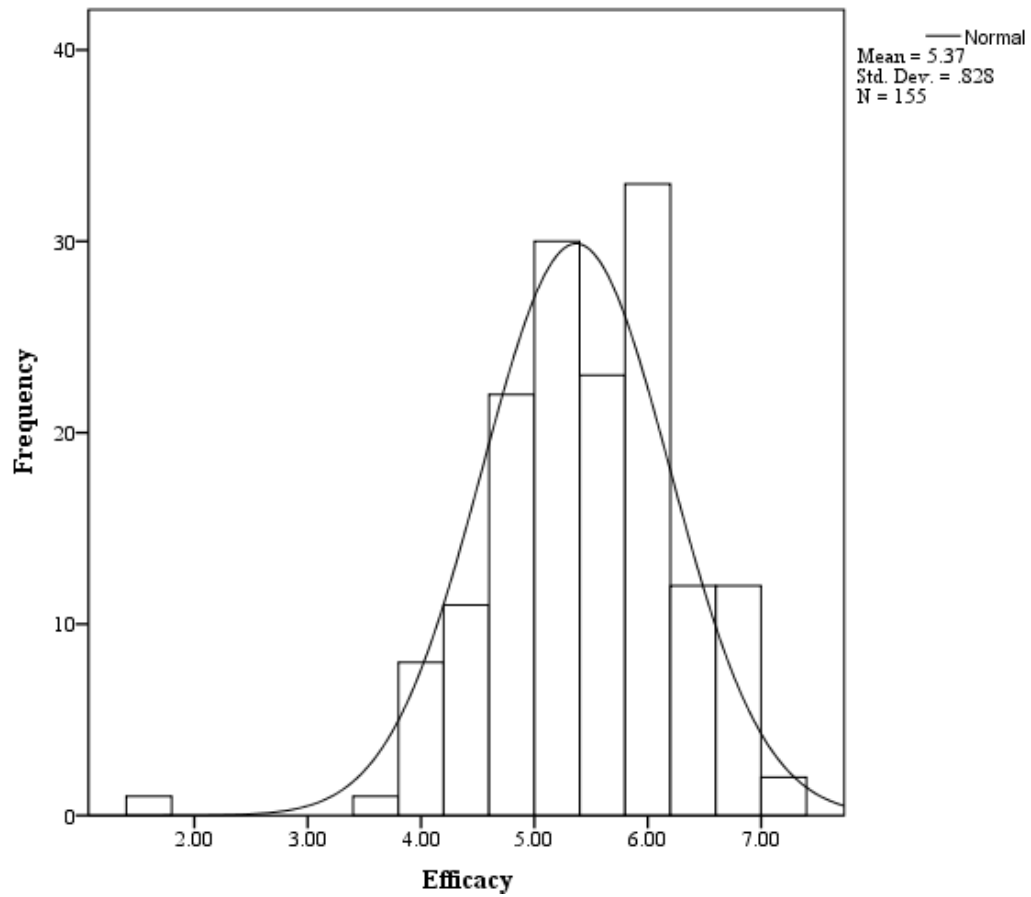
Figure 8. Histogram of efficacy.

For efficacy, there was one outlier (≤ 1.6). The median was 5.40, the range was 5.40, and the IQR = 1.20. Figure 9 presents the box-and-whisker plot for efficacy.

Figure 9. Box-and-whisker plot for efficacy.

For principal support, the skewness for the distribution of scores was 3.75 times the standard error and the kurtosis was 1.24 times the standard error. The Shapiro-Wilk test of normality also indicated that the distribution for principal support was not normal ($p < .001$). However, the histogram of principal support did not appear to deviate substantially from normality. Figure 10 shows the histogram of principal support.
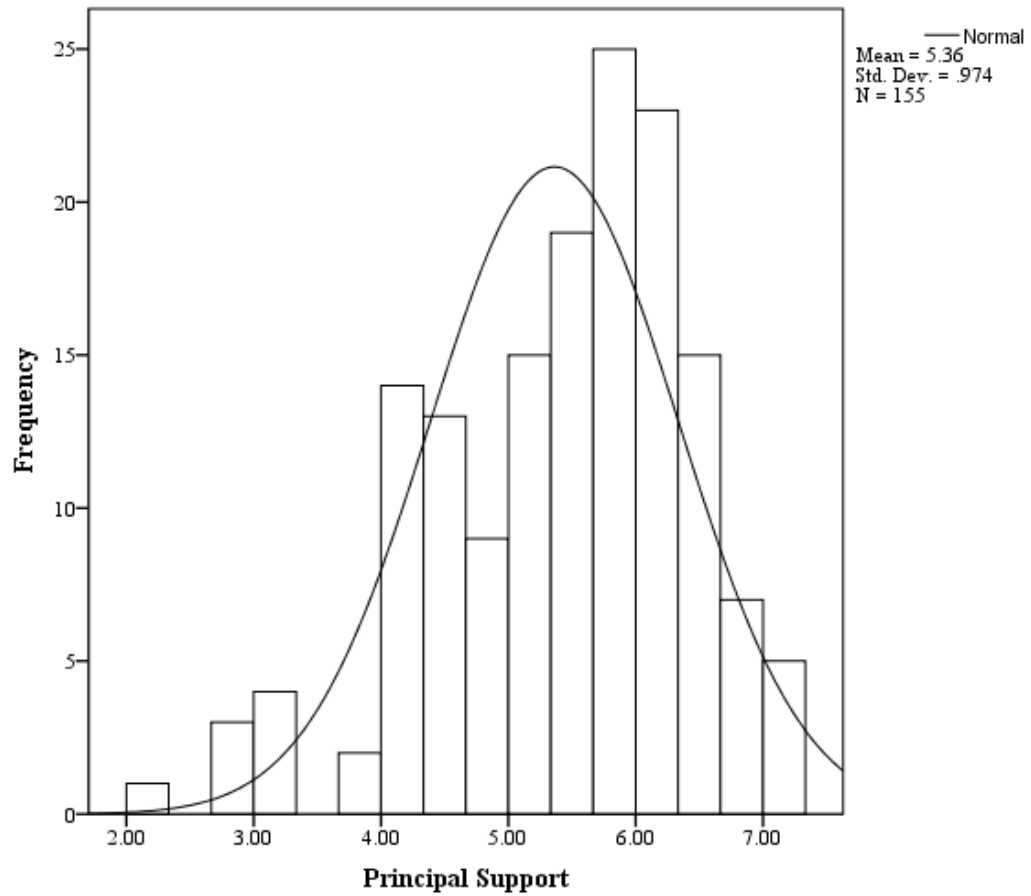
Figure 10. Histogram of principal support.

For principal support, there were three outliers (≤ 2.7). The median was 5.50, the range

was 4.83, and the IQR = 1.33. The box-and-whisker plot for principal support is in Figure 11.
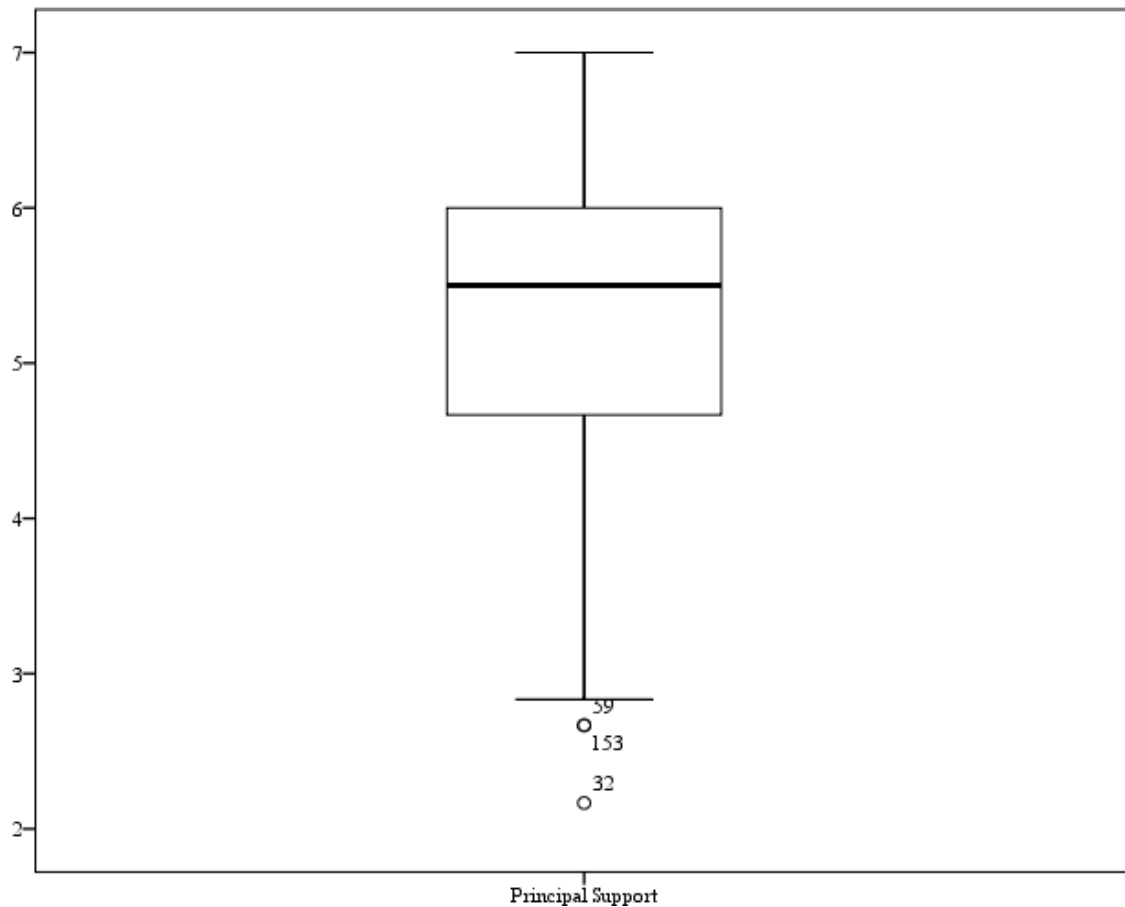
Figure 11. Box-and-whisker plot for principal support.

To summarize the preliminary data screening results, each distribution was nonnormal based on the skewness and kurtosis statistics and the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality. Each distribution had one or more statistical outliers; however, the histograms for each distribution appeared to approximate normality. When distributions appear to approximate normality based on the histograms and the sample size is large, proposed analyses can proceed as planned with no data transformations (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). According to SPSS, acceptable skewness and kurtosis values are +/-1 to +/-2 (Cutti, n.d.).

Research Questions and Hypothesis Testing

Research Question 1: Valence. To what extent do faculty members perceive benefit or harm in faculty diversification efforts? For valence, scores ranged from 1.00 to 7.00 ($M = 4.80$, $SD = 1.23$). A mean of 4.80 can round up to 5.00, which corresponds to participants somewhat agreeing with the perceived benefit in faculty diversification efforts.

Research Question 2: Principal support. To what extent do faculty members believe the administration tangibly supports faculty diversity efforts? For principal support, scores ranged from 2.17 to 7.00 ($M = 5.36$, $SD = 0.97$). A mean of 5.36 can round down to 5.00, which corresponds to participants somewhat agreeing that the administration tangibly supports faculty diversity efforts.

Research Question 3: Efficacy. To what extent do faculty members believe faculty diversification is possible? For efficacy, scores ranged from 1.60 to 7.00 ($M = 5.37$, $SD = 0.83$). A mean of 5.37 can round down to 5.00, which corresponds to participants somewhat agreeing that faculty diversification is possible.

The standard deviations were 1.23 (RQ1), .97 (RQ2), and .83 (RQ3). Thus, the individual responses for RQ1 were, on average, a little over one scale point away from the mean and individual responses for RQ2 and RQ3 were, on average, a little less than one scale point away from the mean. These standard deviations indicate that responses to RQ1 had the most variation and RQ3 responses had the least variation.

Nonsignificant Results

There was no significant difference in faculty rank relative to faculty members' perceived benefit or harm in faculty diversification efforts. There was no significant interaction between faculty race and academic rank relative to their perceived benefit or harm in faculty

diversification efforts. There was no significant racial/ethnic difference in faculty members'

beliefs that the administration tangibly supports faculty diversity efforts. There was no

significant racial/ethnic difference in faculty rank relative to faculty members' beliefs that the

administration tangibly supports faculty diversity efforts. There was no significant interaction

between faculty race and academic rank relative to faculty members' beliefs that the

administration tangibly supports faculty diversity efforts. There was no significant difference in

faculty rank relative to faculty members' beliefs that faculty diversification is possible. There

was no significant interaction between faculty race and academic rank relative to faculty

members' beliefs that faculty diversification is possible.

Significant Results

Two significant results emerged. First, there was a significant racial/ethnic difference in

faculty members' perceived benefit in faculty diversification efforts. Non-White faculty

members had significantly higher scores relative to the perceived benefit of faculty

diversification than did White faculty members. There was also a significant racial/ethnic

difference in faculty members' beliefs that faculty diversification was possible. Non-White

faculty members had significantly higher scores relative to faculty members' beliefs that faculty

diversification was possible compared to White faculty members.

Answering Research Questions 4 through 6 and Hypotheses 1 through 3 was possible

with a 2x4 ANOVA. The independent variables were race/ethnicity and academic rank. The

dependent variable was valence, as measured by the OCRBS. Table 14 presents group means for

race/ethnicity by valence.

Table 14

Group Means for Race/Ethnicity and Employment Rank by Valence

Race	Employment rank	*M*	*SD*	*n*
White	Lecturer/adjunct	4.81	1.14	32
	Assistant professor	4.93	1.10	19
	Associate professor	3.84	1.65	14
	Professor	4.19	1.54	21
	Total	4.53	1.37	86
Non-White	Lecturer/adjunct	4.97	0.79	20
	Assistant professor	5.23	0.97	20
	Associate professor	5.19	1.07	12
	Professor	5.15	1.05	17
	Total	5.13	0.94	69
Total	Lecturer/adjunct	4.88	1.01	52
	Assistant professor	5.08	1.03	39
	Associate professor	4.46	1.55	26
	Professor	4.62	1.41	38
	Total	4.80	1.23	155

The ANOVA summary table for race and employment rank by valence is in Table 15.

Table 15

ANOVA Summary Table for Valence

Source	*df*	*F*	*p*	Partial η^2	Observed power
Race	1	12.25	.001	.08	.94
Employment	3	1.48	.223	.03	.38
Race * employment	3	1.93	.127	.04	.49
Error	147	(1.40)			
Total	154				

Note. Value in parentheses = mean square error; dependent variable = valence.

Research Question 4/Hypothesis 1

To what extent is there a racial/ethnic/ethnic difference in faculty members'

perceived benefit or harm in faculty diversification efforts? There was a significant

racial/ethnic difference in faculty members' perceived benefit in faculty diversification efforts,

$F(1, 147) = 12.25$, $p = .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .08$, observed power = .94. Non-White faculty members

($M = 5.13$, $SD = 0.94$) had significantly higher scores relative to the perceived benefit in faculty

diversification than did White faculty members ($M = 4.53$, $SD = 1.37$; see Figure 12).
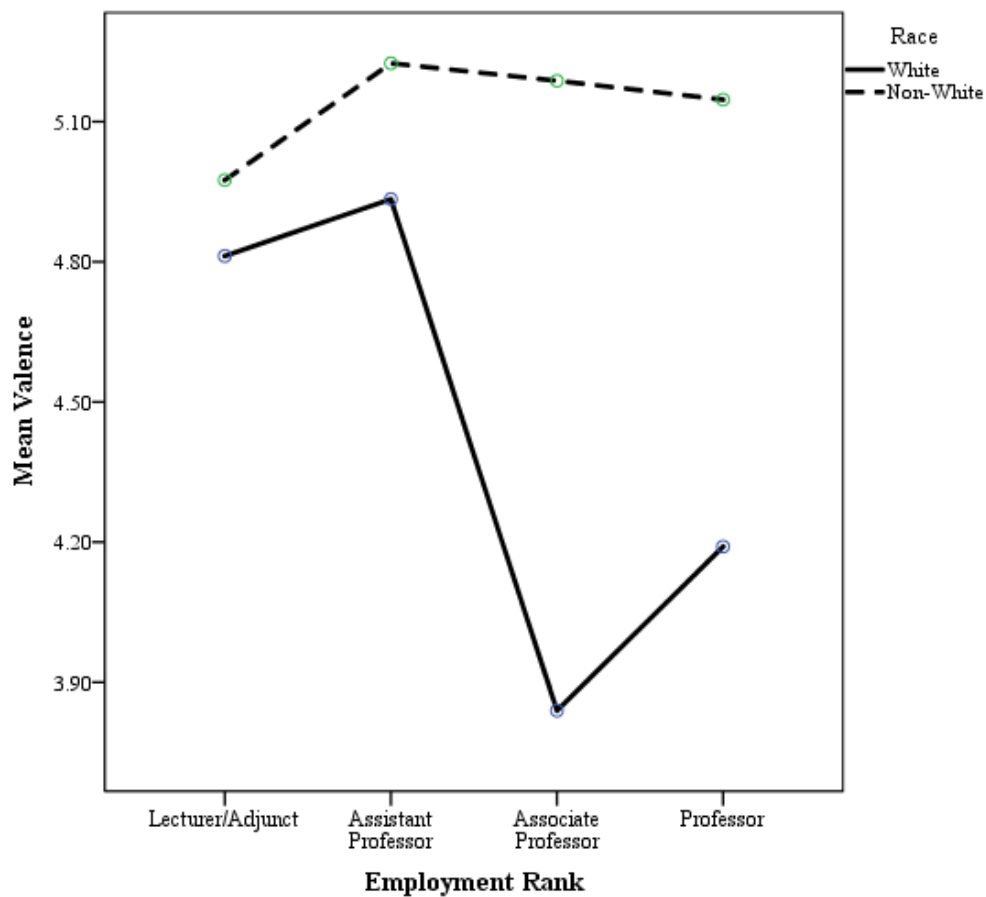

Figure 12. Valence by employment rank and race.

H$_{01}$ stated that there is no significant racial/ethnic difference in faculty members'

perceived benefit or harm in faculty diversification efforts. There was a significant racial/ethnic

difference in faculty members' perceived benefit in faculty diversification efforts, $F(1, 147) =$ 12.25, $p = .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .08$, observed power = .94. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. Non-White faculty members ($M = 5.13$, $SD = 0.94$) had significantly higher scores relative to the perceived benefit or harm in faculty diversification than did White faculty members ($M = 4.53$, $SD = 1.37$).

A 2x4 ANOVA served to answer Research Questions 7–9/Hypotheses 4–6. The independent variables were race/ethnicity and academic rank. The dependent variable was principal support, as measured by the OCRBS. Table 16 presents group means for race/ethnicity by principal support.

Table 16

Group Means for Race/Ethnicity and Employment Rank by Principal Support

Race	Employment rank	*M*	*SD*	*n*
White	Lecturer/adjunct	5.46	0.85	32
	Assistant professor	5.68	0.75	19
	Associate professor	5.21	0.76	14
	Professor	5.27	1.04	21
	Total	5.42	0.87	86
Non-White	Lecturer/adjunct	4.98	1.16	20
	Assistant professor	5.43	1.09	20
	Associate professor	5.14	1.20	12
	Professor	5.59	0.91	17
	Total	5.29	1.09	69
Total	Lecturer/adjunct	5.27	1.00	52
	Assistant professor	5.55	0.94	39
	Associate professor	5.18	0.97	26
	Professor	5.41	0.98	38
	Total	5.36	0.97	155

Table 17 shows the ANOVA summary table for race and employment rank by principal support.

Table 17

ANOVA Summary Table for Principal Support

Source	*df*	*F*	*p*	Partial η^2	Observed power
Race	1	0.55	.458	.00	.11
Employment	3	1.24	.298	.02	.33
Race * employment	3	1.25	.294	.02	.33
Error	147	(0.95)			
Total	154				

Note. Value in parentheses = mean square error; dependent variable = principal support.

Conducting a 2x4 ANOVA was a means to answer Research Questions 10–12/Hypotheses 7–9. The independent variables were race/ethnicity and academic rank. The dependent variable was efficacy, as measured by the OCRBS. Table 18 presents group means for race/ethnicity by efficacy.

Table 18

Group Means for Race/Ethnicity and Employment Rank by Efficacy

Race	Employment rank	*M*	*SD*	*n*
White	Lecturer/adjunct	5.33	0.78	32
	Assistant professor	5.46	0.87	19
	Associate professor	4.83	1.00	14
	Professor	5.07	0.86	21
	Total	5.21	0.87	86
Non-White	Lecturer/adjunct	5.58	0.74	20
	Assistant professor	5.45	0.79	20
	Associate professor	5.22	0.73	12
	Professor	5.91	0.54	17
	Total	5.56	0.73	69
Total	Lecturer/adjunct	5.43	0.77	52
	Assistant professor	5.46	0.82	39
	Associate professor	5.01	0.89	26
	Professor	5.44	0.84	38
	Total	5.37	0.83	155

The ANOVA summary table for race and employment rank by efficacy follows in Table 19.

Table 19

ANOVA Summary Table for Efficacy

Source	*df*	*F*	*p*	Partial η^2	Observed power
Race	1	7.60	.007	.05	.78
Employment	3	2.22	.088	.04	.55
Race * employment	3	1.93	.127	.04	.49
Error	147	(0.63)			
Total	154				

Note. Value in parentheses = mean square error; dependent variable = efficacy.

Research Question 10/Hypothesis 7

To what extent is there a racial/ethnic difference in faculty members' beliefs that faculty diversification is possible? There was a significant racial/ethnic difference in faculty members' beliefs that faculty diversification is possible, $F(1, 147) = 7.60$, $p = .007$; partial $\eta^2 = .05$, observed power = .78. Non-White faculty members ($M = 5.56$, $SD = 0.73$) had significantly higher scores relative to faculty members' beliefs that faculty diversification is possible ($M = 5.21$, $SD = 0.87$) than White faculty members (see Figure 13).

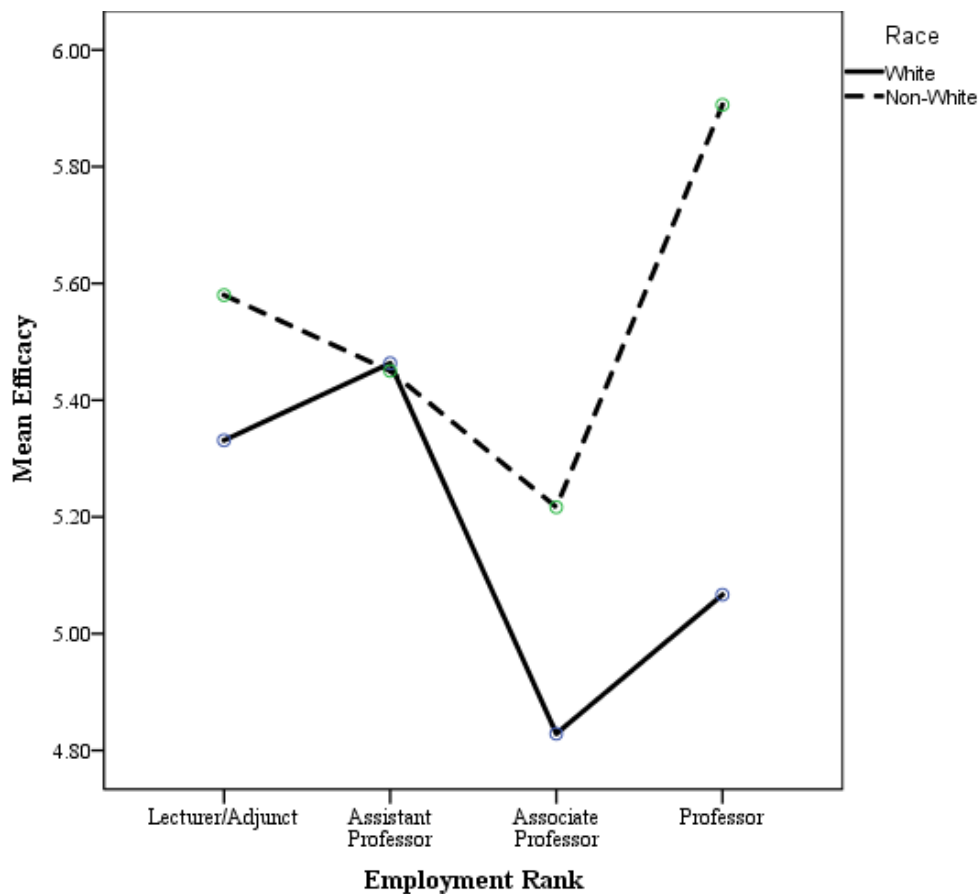*Figure 13*. Efficacy by employment rank and race.

H_{07} stated that there is no significant racial/ethnic difference in faculty members' beliefs that faculty diversification is possible. There was a significant racial/ethnic difference in faculty

members' beliefs that faculty diversification is possible, $F(1, 147) = 7.60$, $p = .007$; partial $\eta^2 = .05$, observed power $= .78$; therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 20

Hypothesis Summary and Outcomes

Hypothesis	Significance	Outcome
H_{01}: There is no significant racial/ethnic difference in faculty members' perceived benefit or harm in faculty diversification efforts.	$p = .001$	Null rejected
H_{02}: There is no significant difference in faculty rank relative to faculty members' perceived benefit or harm in faculty diversification efforts.	$p = .223$	Null not rejected
H_{03}: There is no significant interaction between faculty race and academic rank relative to their perceived benefit or harm in faculty diversification efforts.	$p = .127$	Null not rejected
H_{04}: There is no significant racial/ethnic difference in faculty members' beliefs that the administration tangibly supports faculty diversity efforts.	$p = .458$	Null not rejected
H_{05}: There is no significant racial/ethnic difference in faculty rank relative to faculty members' beliefs that the administration tangibly supports faculty diversity efforts.	$p = .298$	Null not rejected
H_{06}: There is no significant interaction between faculty race and academic rank relative to faculty members' beliefs that the administration tangibly supports faculty diversity efforts.	$p = .294$	Null not rejected
H_{07}: There is no significant racial/ethnic difference in faculty members' beliefs that faculty diversification is possible.	$p = .007$	Null rejected
H_{08}: There is no significant difference in faculty rank relative to faculty members' beliefs that faculty diversification is possible.	$p = .088$	Null not rejected
H_{09}: There is no significant interaction between faculty race and academic rank relative to faculty members' beliefs that faculty diversification is possible.	$p = .127$	Null not rejected

Table 20 presents a summary of each of the hypotheses based on the outlined research questions, as well as the resulting statistical decision. The statistically significant results provide

a starting point for investigating potential reasons for growth in faculty diversity not progressing on par with growth in student diversity. Change initiatives require stakeholders to believe the initiative is necessary, appropriate, more beneficial than harmful, and doable with significant organizational support. Chapter 5 includes discussions of the significance of the results and limitations, as well as the implications for practice.

Chapter 5: Discussion

"Either they don't know, don't show, or don't care about what's going on in the hood."
~Doughboy (Boyz n the Hood, 1991)

This study was an assessment of faculty members' attitudes toward faculty diversification efforts, exploring potential impediments to faculty's role in implementing changes that support the new student demographic. Assessing faculty influence and interest is an important step in understanding change to practice in the academy. Participants completed a 35-item survey (24 construct items, eight demographic items, and three open-ended items) about their attitudes toward faculty diversification. The responses revealed that non-White faculty perceive faculty diversification as viable and beneficial more than their White counterparts do. As faculty are usually responsible for hiring new faculty members, if the majority demographic of U.S. faculty—i.e., White faculty—does not understand or believe in the benefit or achievability of diversity initiatives, there is a high likelihood the initiatives will not succeed.

Results showed three main responses that suggest the potential for racial bias in perceptions toward faculty diversification initiatives among faculty: faculty were unaware, moderately aware, or did not believe in faculty diversity benefit and achievability. All three responses share elements that could be problematic, as organizations that fail to change to meet the needs of their constituents usually fail to thrive (Kotter, 1995). This failure to thrive is evident in student outcomes. Student achievement is a "rich outcome" neglected by "weak institutions," as described by Harper and Quaye (2009, p. 6) in an article on student engagement in higher education. The student achievement gap, as articulated, indicates that non-White students do not achieve academically on par with White students. However, it is the institution that should be at the center of the conversation, not the students; constituent inequity is problem for weak institutions.

Some faculty participants indicated they did not know if faculty diversification would result in any changes to student outcomes or institutional reputation. Faculty who are unaware of student needs cannot take part in improving student outcomes. One element of principal support is communicating the importance of a change initiative to the organization's stakeholders (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Holt et al., 2007; Schien, 1993; Senge, 1990). The institution's faculty members should be aware of the demographic changes that shape the landscape of the academic community.

Many respondents were able to list specific positive institutional outcomes to include attracting more diverse students, improving student relatedness to faculty, and improving the institutions' reputation. These outcomes represent awareness of the need and the appropriateness of faculty diversification as a necessary institutional change. Although faculty awareness is a positive outcome, the perception of benefit for the institution may not be enough to overcome fears tied to the perception of harm from diversifying faculty. This group would have to show active support for faculty diversification efforts to advance diversification efforts and initiatives. Faculty who are aware of the need for diversity are the largest and most concerning group tasked with operating in the best interest of students or potentially acting against their own interests.

Some participants did not think faculty diversification resulted in beneficial student outcomes; others reported they thought it would not make a difference to organizational reputation. Despite readily available research that refutes this viewpoint, the perception persists in areas where people have no ramifications for unintentionally neglecting the needs of the current student body (Denson & Chang, 2009; Gasman, 2016). Faculty who do not believe in the benefit or achievability of diversification are unlikely to act toward the success of faculty diversity initiatives and may deliberately resist faculty diversification efforts.

76

A few respondents strongly rejected the idea of race as a factor to consider in faculty hiring, alluding to the need for qualifications as a more appropriate concern. The discussion of qualifications is in line with past perceptions that faculty of color are less qualified than their White counterparts, maintaining the concept of White superiority that has historically inhabited the halls of the academy (de la Luz Reyes & Halcon, 1991). Human resources should review the qualifications of all applicants prior to scheduling an interview, thus ensuring that any candidate advanced beyond the application period would have suitable credentials. Yet, this is not actually a conversation about qualification; it reflects a history of racist beliefs in the academy. The results are not surprising based on the historical context.

Some faculty members neither believe nor support what the research says, instead viewing faculty of color as less competent than White faculty members. The findings of this study are not so much about truth but about bias, which must be mitigated if the academy is to serve its current and future constituents. According to early change scholar Paul Lawrence (1969), the key to the problem is to understand the true reason one might resist the change. What employees resist is usually not technical change but social change: the change in their human relationships that generally accompanies the actual change.

Examining this topic entailed answering three research questions and nine related hypotheses. Participants somewhat agreed with the perceived benefit in faculty diversification efforts, that the administration tangibly supported faculty diversity efforts, and that faculty diversification was possible. Clearly, the members of the population who neither know nor care about student outcomes impact the general agreement that there is a benefit to faculty diversification efforts and that faculty diversification is possible. The other group of participants—those who know about the relationship between faculty diversification and student

outcomes or institutional reputation—would need to be sufficiently invested in the outcomes to show active support for faculty diversification initiatives, despite any negative impact to their personal economic outcomes.

What They Don't Know Hurts

Almost 27% of respondents did not know or were unsure what steps their institution had taken toward the recruitment and retention of diverse faculty. Researchers such as Armenakis et al. (2007) and Holt et al. (2007) have identified supports such as policies, mentoring, communication structures, and prevailing culture. Holt et al. further noted human and material resources as necessary to support successful change initiatives. If stakeholders are unaware of the activities designed to support a change initiative, then they are unable to participate in its implementation or take advantage of it. Over half of respondents were able to identify some level of support as broad policies mandated by law or articulated by administration, although several noted that policies were in place yet lacking in resources or enforcement. For instance, one respondent noted, "We have diversity policies, but we are woefully lacking diversity in our organization." Others commented on specific positions created to enforce or guide diversity initiatives but were not able to identify any specific initiatives.

Being unaware of opportunities to support an initiative or lacking the appropriate funding and human resources significantly handicaps a change initiative; yet, according to Oreg et al. (2011), structural factors like the context or environment of the initiative are critical to the outcome. Although only small segments of the participants reported a lack of knowledge, 15% of respondents did not know if faculty diversity impacted students and 11.6% were unaware of whether faculty diversification would affect the organizations' reputation. Clearly, faculty members cannot support an initiative if they are unaware of its impact, leading to the question:

78

How do hiring committees make sure all participating faculty are aware of the importance of diversifying faculty? Faculty cannot feel capable of making a change initiative successful and effective if they lack the information necessary to create a personal commitment to change.

Knowing Is Half the Battle: Showing Support for Diversification

Understanding the need and appropriateness of a change initiative increases the potential for the initiative to be successful; however, knowledge alone does not guarantee successful outcomes. Although 36.7% of faculty reported an awareness of the positive benefits of faculty diversification initiatives, 4.5% indicated their institutions were already sufficiently diversified. Two respondents elaborated that further diversification was not necessary because the student population was "90% White" or they worked on a "mostly White campus." Such observations lack consideration into the overwhelming response reporting an "improved world view" through exposure to diverse persons and ideas. Some respondents (13.5%) reported the potential for increased enrollment of minority students as a positive outcome associated with faculty diversity, indicating these faculty members recognize the attractiveness of diversifying the faculty to the incoming student demographic. Gasman (2016), identified as an Ivy League scholar, explained the need for educational diversity:

> Having a diverse faculty—in terms of race, ethnicity, gender, sexuality, religion—adds greatly to the experiences of students in the classroom. It challenges them—given that they are likely not to have had diversity in their K-12 classroom teachers—to think differently about who produces knowledge. It also challenges them to move away from a "White-centered" approach to one that is inclusive of many different voices and perspectives. (Gasman, 2016, February 6, 2019)

These beneficial student outcomes are apparent in the perceptions of 18% of respondents who stated that faculty diversification could improve student retention and satisfaction by supporting a student's sense of belonging.

The high percentage of faculty members aware of the benefits of faculty diversity, both to the student and the institution, led to the question of why there are not more diverse faculty. Awareness of a problem does not necessarily mean faculty will actively support faculty diversification. Mathews and Linski (2016) and Lines (2005) indicated an expectation for resistance from individuals least expected to benefit. Being aware of the social context, or even the historical context, does not mean faculty will act to support an initiative meant to address or redress current and prior experiences.

Previous research indicates the social context will supersede the economic context if a belief is deeply held; however, if the belief is not deeply held and the social context warrants support for faculty diversification, the economic context still has the power to impede active support. Although faculty members may intellectually understand and even recognize the benefits of diversity, attitude theorists have alluded to, first, social, and then economic concerns taking precedence over ethical concerns (Lines, 2005). Just because faculty members are aware of the benefit to students, their own racial concerns might inform their actual behaviors more than their concerns for student or organizational outcomes. Gasman (2016), a White faculty member who researches minority-serving institutions, argued that not having more faculty of color in colleges and universities is because "we don't want them" (Gasman, 2016, February 6, 2019). Gasman suggested the desire to maintain the prestige of the academy is indicative of the desire to maintain the Whiteness of the academy. The author challenged institutions of higher

education to "rethink hiring practices" if they are to advance diversification efforts (Gasman, 2019, February 6).

Ethnocentrism in Today's Academy: I Don't Care; Do You?

Disregarding student outcomes because they do not align with one's ethnocentric worldview is congruent with researchers who have found socially constructed beliefs about race overshadow economic outcomes when discussing the perception of benefit or harm in diversity initiatives (c.f. Gasman, 2016; Harper, 2015). For some faculty members, diversification represents a loss of standing because it allows non-White faculty, perceived to be intellectually inferior, equal standing in employment decisions. Fifteen percent of responding faculty members (all White) said there was little or no relationship between diversity and institutional reputation if applicants were qualified. Feelings of anger and denial can manifest as resistance in response to a change initiative (Drucker, 1999; Kübler-Ross, 1969; Lines, 2005).

Drucker (1999) identified organizational culture as an aspect of an organization that is highly resistant to change. Even though a landmark lawsuit *Brown v. Board of Education* (1965) legislated a shift in the student demographic, evidence of resistance is apparent in the lack of faculty and staff of color included in the integration of the academy. Legislated access has opened the doors of the academy to students without ensuring students' safety or quality of education, or even addressing the exclusion of faculty and staff of color in the integration process.

The adverse outcomes of racism are central to U.S. society, and outcomes for students of color appear not to be a concern for 9.7% of responding faculty. Psychological factors that reflect key beliefs regarding change are related to the amount of effort stakeholders will put toward or against the change initiative (Holt et al., 2007). With the disproportional racial makeup of U.S. higher education faculty, the power to impede diversification efforts based on historical concepts

of racial inferiority is concerning. The academy is not immune to these social implications; however, it can work toward learning from its historic collusion with ethnocentrism and actively addressing biases that result in the failure of its students to achieve.

Implications for Practice

The idea of successful faculty diversification initiatives rests upon an assumption that the academy values its constituents of color. To facilitate change, organizations will have to increase communication with faculty members to ensure awareness of the organizational mission and the impact for their constituents. The reputation of the organization, the needs of the students, and the actions taken in support of diversification initiatives should not be in question if an organization is serious about creating change.

The most significant implication for practice is awareness. Vigilance is required to ensure faculty are explicitly aware that there is an active contingent of people who do not consider diversity a positive outcome and who will behave in a manner that will impede organizational results. Faculty members must understand that the organization will no longer accept attitudes and behaviors that impede positive outcomes for students and faculty of color. Students of color have a different relationship with the academy, so to establish a new relationship built on educational pursuits and not acculturation will take time and trust-building; the process of assimilation is far different from the process of education. Growth requires organizational messaging that is clear and fair to all constituents. Students must know that their educational needs and safety are the focus of today's university and that individual or organizational biases will not impede their success.

Additionally, extrapolating the results of this survey should cause alarm to every institution seeking to diversify its faculty pool because even a small group of strong dissenters can

negatively impact the initiative's outcome. Institutions of higher education could conduct an assessment of beliefs or attitudes to ascertain task fit. Ethnocentric faculty members should not hold positions of authority in which they could negatively influence hiring decisions. It is essential to educate faculty members who do not know the impact of faculty diversity; it is also important to assess the potential detriment of faculty members who might deliberately act upon their own social perspectives of race/ethnicity.

Limitations

Limitations are a part of all research and this study is no different. For example, respondents may engage in prosocial bias, thinking they reflect a socially acceptable perspective so they may choose answers reflective of that position rather than relating their actual beliefs. Because of prosocial bias, it is much more difficult to identify implicit bias in survey results. The respondent pool's demographic composition, time and funding, methods of analysis, and an overabundance of relevant historical literature are a few of the limitations that impacted this study.

Demographic impact. The respondents' demographic makeup deviated significantly from the U.S. population composition with an oversampling of non-White faculty members; however, the pool more closely resembled the student demographic, with a fairly even distribution of White and non-White faculty members. As of 2018, U.S. faculty demographics showed faculty to be approximately 82% White, which varies from the 55.5% of White faculty in this study. The national demographic indicates 4% Black faculty, whereas Black faculty comprised 21.9% of respondents in this study. Nationally, 10% of faculty are Asian, yet in this study, 16.1% of participants were Asian. There was no difference in Hispanic faculty, at 3% both nationally and in the respondent pool. Faculty of color may exhibit more awareness of the needs

and challenges of students of color than White faculty due to personal experiences in the academy, accounting for the generally positive responses to the student outcomes item.

Also, the sample comprised 33.5% lecturers or non–tenure-track, full-time faculty members; the national average was 73% in 2016 (AAUP, 2018). Testing of the interaction between academic rank and efficacy yielded no statistically significant results using a .05 probability value; however, the results could be labeled marginally significant at .088, given the underrepresentation of this faculty pool. Employment ranks of White faculty showed average scores of 3.84 (associate professor) and 4.19 (professors), with the lowest results regarding the belief that diversification is beneficial; conversely non-White lecturers (4.97) had the lowest results regarding the belief that diversification is beneficial, which is greater than the highest results for White faculty, at 4.93 for assistant professors. Both non-White and White faculty at the rank of associate professor reported the lowest belief that diversification is possible. Employment rank is a variable requiring more scrutiny.

Time and funding. To complete the project, data collection needed to close due to funding and time limitations. Researchers should use a larger sample size in future projects. Additional funding streams are needed to access more faculty members. The instrument was a modified version of the OCRBS; however, there was not enough time or resources to conduct a pilot study of the instrument, resulting in a weakened assessment of faculty attitudes of the efficacy variable.

The choice to use a paid panel provided quicker access to complete responses; however, the number and type of items allowed on the survey impacted the cost to distribute. The open-ended items yielded valuable insight into how faculty respondents understood the relationship between faculty diversity and student outcomes as well as their perceptions of support for

diversification efforts in ways the statistical analysis did not. At least one open-ended item should be part of each of the five components to conduct a thorough investigation of organizational readiness.

Analysis. Often, quantitative findings are nonsignificant, which some readers could interpret as being insignificant. Practical value is not always the objective of statistical values. The findings reported as nonsignificant are based on a methodology standard (*p* value set at .05), which indicates significance if there is a 5% or less chance of the results coming from reasons other than those being studied. A larger margin of error is still valuable to investigate due to the importance of the results' impact on the organizational goal to diversify faculty. For example, the *p* value of .08 indicates an 8% chance of noise influencing the results, which is not a statistically significant outcome. However, the language of statistics does not address the practical relevance without the realization that the conversation is about the difference in faculty rank and how that impacts individuals' beliefs that diversification is possible.

Literature. Obtaining a foundational understanding of this topic required an examination of the literature across multiple fields and epistemologies. Although the focus of the study was organizational readiness to engage in faculty diversification initiatives successfully, the social and economic context merited an in-depth discussion on the purpose and history of the academy to address the work already done in the area of diversification in higher education. Additionally, it was essential to review the characteristics of faculty stakeholders who could impact the diversity initiative. The literature on both context and variables represents only a small portion of the information available today. When possible, there were references to studies that were an amalgamation of other research. In some cases, such as faculty hiring practices, there was little or no literature available, although hiring practices are an important part of this conversation. An

institution can improve practices more readily than it can improve organizational culture. The choice to focus on context was intentional because of the historical implications of racial or positional bias in hiring practices.

Recommendations for Future Research

Further research is necessary to understand the attitudes of faculty toward faculty diversification due to the importance of the topic and its impact on future generations of students. Developing the instrument, examining the attitudes of other critical stakeholders, and identifying processes that promote successful diversification programs are needed to move this important initiative forward.

The limitations of this work require additional development of the instrument, especially the efficacy variable. Additional recommendations involve reevaluating the standard used to indicate statistical significance. A stringency of $p < .05$ is not necessary because any level of truth to racial biases in hiring practices requires investigation and mitigation. Purposeful sampling could elucidate a potential relationship between race and rank, even though the findings of this study show marginal to no statistical significance at .088 and .127, respectively.

Faculty comprise three main groups that align with how literature shows stakeholders will respond to organizational change: (a) persons who will accept the proposed change, (b) persons who will be indifferent to the proposed change, and (c) persons who will not accept the proposed change. In addition to these main groups are those who initiate the change—in this study, the constituents of the organization who initiate change by a shift in the student demographic. Future researchers could consult with student stakeholders to better understand their needs and desires. Understanding the concerns of stakeholders should advance beyond those immediately affected—faculty and students—to include individuals who can significantly

impact hiring practices, such as human resources staff and administrators in the faculty hiring chain of command.

Many faculty respondents discussed program and policy practices that supported faculty diversification, although this study provided no opportunity to explore which ones they felt were beneficial toward the initiative. One participant specifically said that, although policies and programs existed, there was neither application nor adherence in the organization. Future researchers could identify practices that are effective and determine whether other institutions can replicate those results.

Conclusion

Faculty members who articulated that race has no bearing on a student's experience ignore or are unaware of research, such as findings from a 2015 study of high-achieving Black male student experiences on predominately White campuses. Education researcher Shaun Harper (2015) noted the prevalent experience of the perceived inferiority of students of color. Students reported instances in which White professors challenged their work based on the perception that people of color from assumed poor backgrounds could not possibly have earned their academic position as students. Although Harper's study is specific to White professors' perceptions of non-White students, findings also indicate a pervasive belief that scholarship of non-Whites should be suspect and subject to additional scrutiny based on the racial or ethnic make-up of the scholars instead of their academic prowess.

Washington (2019) corroborated Harper's (2015) findings from interviewing Black male students about elements of persistence. Washington reported links to programs that recognize academic achievements, accomplishments not always acknowledged in the classroom settings. Earlier findings by de la Luz Reyes and Halcon (1991) showing the persistence of racist

perceptions on institutional and individual levels that restrict access and impede the professional progress of faculty of color also indicated this deemphasis on scholarly capabilities of non-White institutional stakeholders. Faculty members interested in successful student outcomes would be wise to evaluate students based on their actual work and not their race/ethnicity.

This phenomenon is not restricted to Black male students; Hispanic males and females of color have reported the mindset of academic inferiority by White faculty as being detrimental to their psychological and academic experiences (Hurtado et al., 2015). These deeply held beliefs indicate a social context Drucker (1980/2006) would consider a prevailing culture that is difficult to change. Economic interests are insufficient to sway these beliefs, which are historically nested in the U.S. power structure that maintains the White race as supreme or superior (Bowen, 1996; Harper, 2015; Thelin, 2004). These biased beliefs of racial superiority impede student outcomes not only through negating academic prowess, but by preventing the hiring of faculty who could support the student's worldview in a positive manner.

Faculty respondents must be made aware of recent research (c.f. Dupuy, 2017; Mangan, 2017) indicating students of color are experiencing an increase in violence on college campuses reminiscent of historic racial intolerance. Chants of "You will not replace us!" and "Build that wall!" are newer taunts replacing the once-common "N****r go home!" levied at students of color to indicate they are not welcome in academic spaces. Students have also experienced implicit racial threats, such as thrown bananas and toy monkeys suspended from ropes to indicate lynching (JBHE, 2019). Such racial intolerance is not restricted to students; faculty members of color hear these taunts as well and are hard-pressed to support students during such traumatic events. These experiences could account for the larger percentage of faculty of color who believe

faculty diversification is beneficial for student outcomes. They, too, endure the impact of a lack of support from the institution in the face of vitriol and threats of violence.

Faculty members can also become targets when they attempt to address campus issues of inequity. This notion is historically supported, as evidenced by the lack of integration for faculty and staff of color, whom universities deemed unnecessary so students could integrate into White society. The history of the academy privileges a lack of cultural openness, as it shows the violation of children of racially/ethnically diverse populations: Native Americans, slave populations, interred Japanese, and Mexican repatriates punished for speaking native languages or engaging in native customs (Harper, 2015; Harrington & Pavel, 2013; hooks, 1994). Such is the history of the academy and the cultural context in which students must question whether the academy cares about improving outcomes for students of color. The academic structure that facilitates faculty indifference to practices that do not support positive outcomes for students of color is not just a matter of ignorance but a willful refusal to protect students in oppressive campus climates.

Neglecting the needs of student constituents is in direct conflict with stated organizational goals, even if it is in line with the cultural context of the academy. Ameliorating this incongruence is possible with a focused assessment examining readiness for change before allowing faculty members without diverse mindsets to sit on faculty hiring committees or any position that could impact the organizational goal of faculty diversity.

Appendices

Table 21

Hypotheses, Variables of Interest, and Scales of Measurement

Hypothesis	Independent variable/scale of measurement	Dependent variable/scale of measurement
H_{01}: There is no significant racial/ethnic difference in faculty members' perceived benefit or harm in faculty diversification efforts.[1]	Race/ethnicity: nominal	Valence/interval
H_{02}: There is no significant difference in faculty rank relative to faculty members' perceived benefit or harm in faculty diversification efforts.[1]	Academic rank: nominal	Valence/interval
H_{03}: There is no significant interaction between faculty race and academic rank relative to their perceived benefit or harm in faculty diversification efforts.[1]	Race/ethnicity: nominal Academic rank: nominal	Valence/interval
H_{04}: There is no significant racial/ethnic difference in faculty members' beliefs that the administration tangibly supports faculty diversity efforts.[2]	Race/ethnicity: nominal	Principal support/ interval
H_{05}: There is no significant racial/ethnic difference in faculty rank relative to faculty members' beliefs that the administration tangibly supports faculty diversity efforts.[2]	Academic rank: nominal	Principal support/ interval
H_{06}: There is no significant interaction between faculty race and academic rank relative to faculty members' beliefs that the administration tangibly supports faculty diversity efforts.[2]	Race/ethnicity: nominal Academic rank: nominal	Principal support/ interval
H_{07}: There is no significant racial/ethnic difference in faculty members' beliefs that faculty diversification is possible.[3]	Race/ethnicity: nominal	Efficacy/interval
H_{08}: There is no significant difference in faculty rank relative to faculty members' beliefs that faculty diversification is possible.[3]	Academic rank: nominal	Efficacy/interval
H_{09}: There is no significant interaction between faculty race and academic rank relative to faculty members' beliefs that faculty diversification is possible.[3]	Race/ethnicity: nominal Academic rank: nominal	Efficacy/interval

Note. Hypotheses with the same superscript were tested with the same 2-way ANOVA.

Organizational Change Recipients' Belief Scale Items (Armenakis et al., 2007)

1. This change will benefit me. (V)
2. Most of my respected peers embrace the proposed organizational change. (PS)
3. I believe the proposed organizational change will have a favorable effect on our operations. (A)
4. I have the capability to implement the change that is initiated. (E)
5. We need to change the way we do some things in this organization. (D)
6. With this change in my job, I will experience more self-fulfillment. (V)
7. The top leaders in this organization are "walking the talk." (PS)
8. The change in our operations will improve the performance of our organization. (A)
9. I can implement this change in my job. (E)
10. We need to improve the way we operate in this organization. (D)
11. I will earn higher pay from my job after this change. (V)
12. The top leaders support this change. (PS)
13. The change that we are implementing is correct for our situation. (A)
14. I am capable of successfully performing my job duties with the proposed organizational change. (E)
15. We need to improve our effectiveness by changing our operations. (D)
16. The change in my job assignments will increase my feelings of accomplishment. (V)
17. The majority of my respected peers are dedicated to making this change work. (PS)
18. When I think about this change, I realize it is appropriate for our organization. (A)
19. I believe we can successfully implement this change. (E)
20. A change is needed to improve our operations. (D)
21. My immediate manager is in favor of this change. (PS)
22. This organizational change will prove to be best for our situation. (A)
23. We have the capability to successfully implement this change. (E)
24. My immediate manager encourages me to support the change. (PS)

Note. D = discrepancy (4); A = appropriateness (5); E = efficacy (5); PS = principal support (6); V = valence (4).

Appendix A-2

Demographic Variables Used in Survey

1. Year of birth	2000 to present	1980 to 1999	1965 to 1979	1946 to 1964	1945 and prior		
2. Gender	Specify	Female	Male				
3. Ethnicity/race (check all that apply)	African American/ Black	White	Asian	Native Alaskan or American Indian	Hispanic/ Latino/ Spanish	Pacific Islander	Other
4. Education	Bachelors	Masters	Professional degree	PhD			
5. Rank	Lecturer	Asst. Professor	Assoc. Professor	Professor			
6. State of employment	Select one						
7. Field/ major of employment	Humanities/ arts	Social sciences	Natural sciences	Formal sciences	Applied sciences		

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