

Arkansas Tech University

Online Research Commons @ ATU

ATU Theses and Dissertations

Student Research and Publications

Spring 5-6-2022

Students of Color Perceptions of Their Relationship with White Teachers

Shawn T. Hinkle
Arkansas Tech University

Follow this and additional works at: https://orc.library.atu.edu/etds_2021



Part of the [Arts and Humanities Commons](#), [Education Commons](#), and the [Social and Behavioral Sciences Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Hinkle, Shawn T., "Students of Color Perceptions of Their Relationship with White Teachers" (2022). *ATU Theses and Dissertations*. 29.
https://orc.library.atu.edu/etds_2021/29

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Student Research and Publications at Online Research Commons @ ATU. It has been accepted for inclusion in ATU Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Online Research Commons @ ATU. For more information, please contact cpark@atu.edu.

STUDENTS OF COLOR PERCEPCIONS OF THEIR RELATIONSHIPS
WITH WHITE TEACHERS

A Dissertation Submitted
to the Graduate College
Arkansas Tech University

in partial fulfillment of requirements
for the degree of

DOCTORATE OF EDUCATION

in Educational Leadership

in the Center for Leadership and Learning
of the College of Education

May 2022

Shawn Timothy Hinkle

Bachelor of Science in Math Education, Arkansas Tech University, 2000
Master of Education Leadership, Arkansas Tech University, 2014
Educational Specialist, Arkansas Tech University, 2020

© 2022 Shawn Timothy Hinkle

Dedication

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to Virginia Hinkle my mother and the late Gary Hinkle Sr. my father. My mom has a nickname that was given to her by my dad. My dad would call her his “anchor”. My mom is and has always been the anchor to our family. She always told her children that in whatever you do, be the best at what you do. She went on to say, that she didn’t care if we were a floor sweeper. We should pride ourselves of being the best floor sweeper we can be. With the passing of my father in 2017, my mom has continued to be the anchor for our family. She is strong woman of God that believes in the power of prayer. One of my mom’s favorite scripture is 2 Corinthians 5:7, *for we walk by faith, and not by sight*. My mom lives this scripture on a daily basis.

Lastly, I would like to dedicate this to my friends and family whom have supported me along the way, who believed in me when I didn’t even believe in myself. Thank you for your prayers, support, encouragement, and most of all your love.

Acknowledgments

I want to thank my professors at Arkansas Tech University: Dr. Sarah Gordon, Dr. John Freeman, Dr. Tennille Lasker-Scott, and Dr. Steve Bounds. Thank you for your patience with me and supporting me throughout this entire process. I appreciate each and every one of you!

Dr. Sarah Gordon thank you for being my Dissertation Chair! Dr. Gordon I appreciate you giving of your time both day and night to answer my emails, phone calls, text messages and more. You never failed to meet with me to help and encourage me along the way. Thank you for believing in me, even when I didn't believe in myself. Your encouragement and support gave me the confidence I needed to complete this doctoral journey. I would also like to thank Dr. Pam Dixon and Dr. Tony Jones, my committee members for your time and knowledge and insight you provided to me at the proposal to help guide my study.

A final thank you to my cohort buddies Tricia D. Tice and Katina L. Ray! Who would have imagined that we would have become the best of friends throughout this journey? Thank you both for your love, support, encouragement and the laughter. In life it's very important to have a circle of people that can provide you with what you need when you need it. I am glad that I have found you!

Proverbs 16:9 states "*The heart of man plans his way, but the LORD establishes his steps.*" It is my prayer that I will always seek the Lord to establish my steps regardless of my desires.

Abstract

STUDENTS OF COLOR PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR RELATIONSHIPS WITH WHITE TEACHERS

As the student population across the country becomes more diverse (Bryant et al., 2017) and the teacher population remains relatively consistent with little diversity (NCES, 2013), a better understanding of how male students of color are perceived, interact and relate with their White teachers become necessary to ensure their academic success. The purpose of this study is to study the perceptions male students of color have of their White teachers. The following research questions are utilized to explore the lived experiences of 10 high school male students of color in Northwest Arkansas: (1) How do high school male students of color describe their relationships with their White teachers? (2) How do high school male students of color describe their experiences with their White teachers? (3) According to high school male students of color, how can White teachers best serve them? The purpose of the qualitative methods approach is to reveal and comprehend occurrences in a given context without attempting to infer causality (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013). The 10 participants were interviewed and each were asked to share an artifact that relates to their lived experiences as a high school male student of color. The findings of this study are noteworthy because they have the potential to affect teacher education and training, as well as teacher recruitment, as well as increasing of intrinsic motivation and functionality in students.

Keywords: White teachers, male students of color

Table of Contents

	Page
DEDICATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
LIST OF TABLES	ix
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Background of the Problem	1
Statement of the Problem.....	2
Purpose of the Study	3
Definition of Terms.....	2
Significance of the Study	4
Assumptions.....	4
Limitations	5
Delimitations.....	5
Organization of the Study	5
II. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	7
History of Education in the United States.....	7
Colonial America	8
Late 1700's – 1800's.....	9
After Slavery Through the Mid 1900s	11

Civil Rights Movement (1954-1968).....	13
1974 – Modern Day	15
History of Teacher Diversity in the United States	16
Importance of Teacher Representation for Students.....	17
Early Teachers	19
Teachers During Segregation.....	20
Effects of Integration on Teachers	21
Modern Day Teachers.....	23
Teacher-Student Relationships	24
Importance of Teacher-Student Relationships.....	24
Student Outcomes	25
Teacher Perceptions of Students Affect Teacher-Student Relationships	26
Experiences of Students of Color in Schools.....	27
Different Expectations From and Relationships with Teachers	28
Academic Achievement	29
Discipline and Behavior.....	30
Experiences of Male Students of Color Specifically	31
Northwest Arkansas	32
NWA Teacher and Student Demographics.....	33
Need for this Study and Research Questions	34
Theoretical Perspective	35
Chapter Summary	36
III. METHODOLOGY	38

Research Design.....	38
Sample and Sampling Method	39
Sampling Method.....	40
Data Collection	42
Interviews.....	42
Interview Questions	44
Artifacts.....	44
Credibility	45
Triangulation.....	45
Member Checking.....	45
Reflexivity.....	46
Data Analysis	48
Summary	49
IV. RESULTS	50
Participants.....	50
Analysis.....	52
Findings.....	53
RQ 1 Description of Relationships with White Teachers	54
RQ 2 Experiences of the High School Male Student of Color	54
Not Valued as a Person	55
Misconceived Perceptions Due to Skin Color	56
Experiences of Disrespect.....	57
RQ 3 How Can White Teachers Best Serve Male Students of Color.....	59

Give Us a Chance.....	60
Treat Us the Same.....	61
Summary.....	63
V. CONCLUSION.....	65
Summary of Findings.....	66
Discussion.....	66
“Good” Relationships, but Not All Experiences Were Good.....	67
The Early Years Matter.....	68
Cry For Inclusion.....	69
Connection to Self Determination Theory.....	71
Implications.....	72
Implications for Practice.....	72
Professional Development for Teachers.....	73
Recruitment Strategies to Attract More People of Color to the Education Profession.....	73
Teach High School Male Students of Color to be Intrinsically Motivated.....	74
Implications for Future Research.....	74
Chapter Summary.....	75
REFERENCES.....	76
APPENDIX.....	88
Appendix A. IRB Letter of Approval.....	88

List of Tables

Table 1: Participant Information: Age, Grade, and Race.....	51
Table 2: Research Questions and Corresponding Themes	53

I. Introduction

This study explored how male students of color describe their relationships and experiences with their White teachers. This chapter addressed the background of the problem, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, key definitions and significance of the study, assumptions, limitations, delimitations, and organization of the study.

Background of the Problem

Historically, students of color have not had access to the American educational system in the same ways as White students (Sass, 2021). Further, teachers of color have also been marginalized in the American school system (Griffin, 2017); even though teacher representation matters—especially for students of color (Cherng, 2017)—teachers in the US are still majority White and female (Guarino, Santibañez, & Daley, 2006). In Northwest Arkansas specifically, the minority population is growing rapidly (NWA Council, 2021), but most teachers in the region are White (NWA Council, 2021). In addition to these historical and current demographic differences, research has shown that the teacher-student relationship is significant for student success (McCombs, 2014; Roorda et al., 2011; Wang, Brinkworth, & Eccles, 2013). However, relationships between students of color and White teachers can be strained because teachers may already have a different outlook on these students and assume just because of their race that the student is not at the level of all the other students in the class (Goings & Bianco, 2016). This issue is crucial for male students of color, who also have unique and often negative experiences in school (Skiba, Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002).

Statement of the Problem and Purpose of the Study

The minority population in Northwest Arkansas is fast increasing (NWA Council, 2021), and the majority of teachers in the region are White (NWA Council, 2021). Aside from historical and contemporary demographic inequalities, research has demonstrated that teacher-student interaction is critical to student achievement (McCombs, 2014; Roorda et al., 2011; Wang, Brinkworth, & Eccles, 2013). More research is needed to discover how white teachers can better serve students of color in Northwest Arkansas. Thus, the purpose of this qualitative study is threefold. The first purpose is to examine how high school male students of color in Northwest Arkansas describe their relationship with their White teachers. Secondly, this study aims to determine how high school male students of color in Northwest Arkansas describe their experiences with their White teachers. Thirdly, the purpose of this study is learn what male students of color believe White teachers can do to best serve them.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this qualitative study, key terms have been defined.

- Asian American- include persons having origins in any of the original peoples of the Far East, Southeast Asia, or the Indian subcontinent.
- Black/African American – identifying as a descendent of African lineage (Lasker-Scott, 2015). For purposes of this study, the term Black is used.
- High School Student – A student currently enrolled in grades 9, 10, 11, or 12 in an Arkansas public high school.
- Hispanic-Refers to people who speak Spanish or who have a background in a Spanish-speaking country.

- Latino/a/x – Refers to the geographical location of people from Latin America, including Central America, South America, and the Caribbean (Pew Research Center, 2021). Latinx is the gender-neutral or non-binary term used as an alternative to Latino or Latina (Steinmetz, 2018).
- Native American-approximate legal definition for Native Americans or American Indians in the United States is that they are the indigenous peoples in North America within the boundaries of the present-day continental United States, Alaska, and the island state of Hawaii (Oxendine, 2019).
- Northwest Arkansas- officially designated by the United States Census Bureau as the Fayetteville–Springdale–Rogers Metropolitan Statistical Area) includes Fayetteville, Springdale, Rogers, and Bentonville, the third, fourth, eighth, and tenth largest cities in Arkansas. According to the Census Bureau definition, these cities are located within Benton and Washington counties; NWA also includes Madison County in Arkansas and McDonald County, Missouri.
- Pacific Islander – Refers to individuals whose origins are from one of the many islands in the Pacific, such as Melanesia, Micronesia, or Polynesia
- Self-Determination Theory (SDT) – Theoretically, intrinsic motivation and satisfaction are influenced by satisfying requirements for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2017).
- Students of Color- Refers to minority individuals including, but not limited to, Black, African American, Native American, Hispanic, Latina/o/x, Asian, Pacific Islander.

- White Teachers-A teacher having origins in any of the original peoples of Europe, the Middle East, or North Africa. It includes people who indicate their race as "White" or report entries such as Irish, German, Italian, Lebanese, Arab, Moroccan, or Caucasian.

Significance of the Study

As the student population across the country becomes more diverse (Bryant et al., 2017) and the teacher population remains relatively consistent with little diversity (NCES, 2013), a better understanding of how male students of color interact and relate with their teachers becomes even more critical. This study contributes to the body of knowledge pertaining to the described feelings and experiences of male students of color and student-teacher relationships. More specifically, how White teachers can better serve them. These new ideas are likely to influence excellent educational techniques and lead teachers to take specific actions to establish and improve healthy relationships with students. Teachers will be able to use the information collected from this study to improve their methods and develop stronger relationships with all of their students. Strong student-teacher relationships have been shown to promote student academic success and school engagement (Roorda et al., 2011); hence the findings of this study have significance for male students of color in Northwest Arkansas' achievement and engagement.

Assumptions

This research is based on two key assumptions. First, the students in the participating high schools will be honest about their racial identities in order to ensure that the study only includes students who identify as male students of color. Second,

students taking part in the study will speak openly and honestly about their experiences forming connections with instructors, allowing the study to benefit from their unique perspectives.

Limitations

Participants were chosen based on their enrollment as a student at a high school male students of color that met the criteria in Northwest Arkansas and their willingness to participate in the study. As a result, the findings of this study may be limited to this region and student population. This study was conducted at multiple high schools in Northwest Arkansas, none of which the researcher has a personal connection to or direct involvement with. As a result, local school administrators were in charge of recruiting participants, communicating information, and organizing meetings, which may impact how students at each school perceive and respond to the study.

Delimitations

Participants eligible for the study were limited to male students of color currently enrolled in 9th, 10th, 11th, or 12th grade at a Northwest Arkansas public high school to understand better their perceptions and described feelings and experiences, which will lead to the development of student-teacher relationships.

Organization of the Study

This research is divided into five chapters, each having its own goal. Chapter One provides the backdrop and explanation of the problem, the objective of the study, its relevance, definitions of words, limits, and delimitations. Academic achievement, student engagement, experiences, the importance of student-teacher relationships, traits of effective student-teacher relationships, history of American education and teachers, and

male students of color perceptions of their student-teacher relationships are all covered in Chapter Two. Chapter Three outlines the study's methodology, with specific information about the research design, population and sample selection, sampling method, data collection, data analysis, and credibility. Chapter Four relays the findings of the study, which highlights the data collected through focus group meetings, interviews, and artifacts. Chapter Five concludes the study by presenting the results, conclusions, implications for practice, and implications for future research.

Chapter II Literature Review

The purpose of this qualitative study is threefold: 1) to examine how high school male students of color in Northwest Arkansas describe their relationship with their White teachers; 2) to determine how high school male students of color in Northwest Arkansas describe their experiences with their White teachers; 3) to learn what male students of color believe White teachers can do to best serve them. The literature was chosen and reviewed based on its relevance to the history of education as it relates to people of color, as well as other variables that determine the impact teacher perceptions have on male students of color in education. This literature review also shows the progression of people of color as teachers in the U.S. public school system. Through this literature review, the reader will acquire a better understanding of male students of color's perceptions of their teachers based on their lived experiences. This literature review will provide an overview regarding the history of education and the right to be educated in the United States; policy and programs regarding students of color; educational experiences and outcomes for students of color; inclusion and teacher perception of educating students of color.

History of Education in the United States

Historically, people of color have had limited access to education, equity in education, and high-quality education in the United States of America (Sass, 2021). In America, minorities have a higher level of skepticism for White Americans and their institutions than immigrants, who appear to accept and rationalize bias and discrimination aimed at them (Ogbu, 1990). In fact, some minorities, Black and Native Americans in particular, have witnessed many events in their history that have left them feeling that they simply cannot trust White Americans and their institutions (Ogbu, 1990). Many

communities did not have high schools for African Americans, Mexican Americans, or American Indian children until the 1960s, and those that did had significantly underfunded segregated high schools (Carter & Welner, 2013). When Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders (APIs) are mentioned in a race conversation about educational access and fairness, they are reduced to a stubbornly persistent narrative. They are frequently characterized as a “model minority,” a group of students who excel in school (Teranishi, 2010, p. 2). It is important to understand the history that has contributed to the current reality of education in America and the perception of male students of color. The following sections provide a summary of education in America from colonial times to now.

Colonial America

The history of education in the United States can be traced back to 1635 when the Boston Latin School was founded for the sons of White upper-class families (Sass, 2021). The boys who attended this school were destined for positions of authority in the church, state, and courts (Sass, 2021). The first such school, which started in Boston in 1635, mainly catered to young men in their teens from upper-class White families (Roth & Roth, 2015). In 1647, the Old Deluder Satan Act, also known as the Massachusetts Law of 1647, was passed (Sass, 2021). This law mandated that every town with at least 50 families hires a schoolmaster to teach the town’s children to read and write, as well as that every town with at least 100 families hires a Latin grammar schoolmaster to prepare students for Harvard College (Sass, 2021). These Enlightenment intellectuals thought that all citizens, regardless of social status, should have a say in government policies and decisions (Roth & Roth, 2015). However, in order to do so wisely, they needed access to

education (Roth & Roth, 2015). In colonial America, educational opportunities were neither fair nor equitable.

This educational opportunity at this time was primarily available to White, wealthy young men. Although there was no official education for enslaved people, the New York African Free School was founded in 1787 as the first school for freed Blacks (Rury, 1983). The northern United States provided particular educational possibilities for Black people, but the southern United States remained adamant in their opposition to any sort of education for slaves (Woodson, 1915).

Late 1700's-1800s

Slavery in America began in the 1600s and persisted until Congress passed the 13th Amendment in 1865. Enslaved people were prohibited from receiving an education (Williams, 2005). The enslaved Africans had no access to formal education, but learning to read English was a symbol of hope and freedom (Williams, 2005). Despite laws and customs in slave states prohibiting enslaved people from learning to read and write, a small percentage of enslaved people managed to acquire a degree of literacy through ingenuity and willpower (Williams, 2005). The Plessy v. Ferguson (1896) Supreme Court decision, which permitted Louisiana to offer separate accommodations for Black passengers on trains, laid the groundwork for Southern states to establish Jim Crow laws that separated most facilities and services. The separate but equal doctrine, which enabled segregation of White and Black pupils despite the poor quality of facilities and resources in Black schools, was a fundamental component of Jim Crow laws (Plessy v. Ferguson, 1896). Jim Crow laws in the South served to oppress African-Americans further and hinder them from achieving social mobility (Kennedy, 1990).

The US Congress passed the Northwest Ordinance in 1787 (Sass, 2021). This ordinance laid out a strategy for western expansion and prohibited the practice of slavery in new states (Sass, 2021). Act 3 of the document begins, Religion, morality, and knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of humankind, schools, and the means of education shall forever be encouraged, emphasizing the importance of education in early America (Garris, 2019). Perhaps more importantly, it mandated that a portion of land in each township of each new state be set aside for educational purposes (Sass, 2021). The passing of the Bill of Rights in 1791 gave the function of education to the state. The first Congress of the new United States passed the Bill of Rights (Sass, 2021). In this Bill of Rights, Congress did not mention education in any amendments. The Tenth Amendment to the United States Constitution, on the other hand, states that powers not delegated to the federal government “are reserved to the States, respectively, or the people (Sass, 2021, p.3).” This means that control, power, and functionality of education became the responsibility of each state.

In 1821, Boston English High School opened as one of the first public high schools in the United States (Sass, 2017). In 1849, the Massachusetts Supreme Court ruled in *Roberts v. City of Boston* that Boston Public Schools could refuse to admit African American children to segregated “Whites-only” schools (Sass, 2017). In 1865, the 13th Amendment was passed, abolishing slavery (Sass, 2021). The passage of the 13th Amendment initiated the path toward equality for all, especially in the South, where slavery was most common. During slavery, African Americans were prohibited to read and write (Pernell, 2021). The abolishing of slavery allowed African Americans to learn out in the open instead of hiding in the fields to learn to read (Pernell, 2021). One of the

most significant enactments of freedom for Black Americans was, among other things, the ability to receive an education (Pernell, 2021). Black Americans knew that since they were free, they would need education even more, to survive since fundamental rights at the heart of civil liberties are difficult to utilize if one cannot read or write.

Also, during this same time period, tens of thousands of Native American students were housed and taught in federally funded and supervised boarding schools from the foundation of the Carlisle Indian School in 1879 and continuing into the 21st century (Hoerig, 2002). The boarding school experience, particularly in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, was sometimes harsh and often deadly (Hoerig, 2002). Education for Native American Indians was viewed as a way to ‘civilize’ them or as an assimilation instead of traditional educational process in which non-reservation boarding schools forced Indian children to accept White men’s beliefs and value systems regardless of how the children and their parents felt (American Indian Education Foundation, 2006; Hoerig, 2002; Sanchez & Stuckey, 1999).

After Slavery Through the Mid 1900s

Bowman (2001) reports that Civil rights and school integration have typically been seen through the lens of a Black/White divide, which is problematic since it ignores the history of intolerance and racism directed against Latinos and other people of color. Latinos, unlike African-Americans, were not systematically enslaved. Mexican-Americans were typically seen as immigrants because of their historical, linguistic, and cultural links to Mexico (Rosales, 2000). Separate educational facilities for Mexican children and children of Mexican origin were the norm in cities such as Pasadena, Santa Ana, Ontario, Riverside, and Los Angeles (Bowman, 2001). Many people believe Brown

v. The Board of Education was the first case to label segregation as unconstitutional in the United States; however, *Roberto Alvarez v. the Board of Trustees of the Lemon Grove School District of 1931* was the first successful school desegregation court decision (Alvarez,1986). In 1931, a group of courageous Mexican and Mexican-American parents and their children in the Southern California community of Lemon Grove won a significant victory in the battle against school segregation and the perfidious notion of separate but equal facilities (Madrid, 2008, p.15). It is significant in San Diego and American history because the community took legal action and won (Alvarez, 1986). It was establishing their children’s rights to equal education, despite local, regional, and national sentiment favoring not only segregation but also deportation of the Mexican population in the United States (Alvarez, 1986). It is often forgotten that Mexican Americans were subjected to Jim Crow and the separate-but-equal clause in schools throughout the Southwest (Alvarez, 1986). Mexican Americans, like African Americans, fought segregation in the same way (Alvarez, 1986).

In 1946, the United States District Court in Los Angeles ruled in *Mendez vs. Westminster* and the California Board of Education, that segregating children of Mexican descent in separate facilities is unconstitutional, effectively prohibiting segregation in California schools (Sass, 2021). *Mendez v. Westminster* is perhaps the most well-known educational case in California (Alvarez, 1986). Despite the fact that this case occurred only years after the Lemon Grove decision in 1931 (Alvarez, 1986).

Further, education for Native American Indians did not begin to change until the 1930s. A unique Indian Civilian Conservation Corps and an Indian Emergency Conservation Work program were established as part of John Collier’s “Indian New

Deal,” which provided possibilities for vocational training, jobs, and job training (American Indian Education Foundation, 2006).

Civil Rights Movement (1954-1968)

The American civil rights movement was a large protest movement in the southern United States against racial segregation and discrimination that gained national attention in the mid-1950s (Carson, 2021). This movement helped bring to light the unfair treatment of Blacks in education. The United States Supreme Court issued its judgment in *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka* on May 17, 1954 (Sass, 2021). The Supreme Court’s decision in *Brown* ended the issue of whether racially segregated schools were fundamentally unequal, laying the legal framework for a more equitable educational system (Jordan, Brown & Gutierrez, 2010). *Brown v. Board of Education* is essentially a combination of five specific cases throughout the country (Sass, 2021). *Brown v. Board of Education* was a major turning point in the long and yet incomplete path toward educational equality in the United States (Sass, 2021). Though the Supreme Court made its judgment in 1957, Federal Troops had to enforce the integration judgment in Little Rock, Arkansas, as the Little Rock 9 enrolled at Central High School (Sass, 2021).

Before 1960, modern societies did not provide immigrant or involuntary minorities with equal educational opportunities (Ogbu, 1990). Minority children receiving inferior education cannot learn as much or test as well as children of the dominant group who have access to superior education (Ogbu, 1990). In 1964, the Civil Rights Act became law (Sass, 2021). This law continued to open the door for many students of different backgrounds to enter the educational system. The Federal Civil

Rights Act of 1964 and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 greatly facilitated the advances in equal educational opportunities; this is particularly true for ESEA because it promised financial support to the states (Standerfer, 2006; West & Daniel, 1965; Wilkerson, 1965). Under ESEA, all students, regardless of race, color, national origin, religion, and sex, had equal access to free and equitable education. The redistribution of government finances throughout the public education sector was the most essential aspect of this act (Roth & Roth, 2015). In order to get these monies or keep receiving them, institutions had to stop discriminating against students (Roth & Roth, 2015). The democratic goal for which both the educational profession and the civil rights movement strived is an equal educational opportunity in integrated schools that function on a high level of quality (Wilkerson, 1965).

In 1968, Title VII became law, popularly known as the Bilingual Education Act (Sass, 2021). Although special assistance programs differ from one district or school to the next, Title VII requires all special assistance programs to provide language education to minority (non-native English speaking) children, including meaningful access to the learning environment, curriculum, special services, and evaluation (Schugurensky, 2002). Programs for equalizing educational opportunity in the South began to proceed similarly to the other parts of the nation (West & Daniel, 1965). In addition to these programs, it is important to note that provisions of compensatory opportunities to alleviate the ill effects of segregation and deprivation were already in the works (West & Daniel, 1965). Though progress was made during this time period and gradual desegregation took place, people of color knew that they were a long way from true educational equality.

1974 – Modern Day

Before *Brown*, structural inequality in education based on race and class was overt and legally sanctioned (Jordan, Brown & Gutierrez, 2010). Since then, the demographic landscape in public schools has gotten more complicated, and structural inequality in education based on race and class has become murkier (Jordan, Brown & Gutierrez, 2010). In 1974, The Equal Educational Opportunity Act was signed into law (Sass, 2021). It outlawed discrimination and compelled schools to take steps to remove impediments that hinder students from receiving equal protection (Sass, 2021). The law has been very beneficial in defending the rights of students with limited English skills (Sass, 2021).

After *Brown v. Board*, the number of integrated schools began to increase throughout the South in the United States. Even though many continue to celebrate this historic triumph over structural inequality, schools across the country are facing growing racial, ethnic, and social class segregation (Roscigno, 2000). As a result of the ongoing demographic shifts, the American cultural tapestry has evolved to make racial politics no longer simply Black and White, or Black, Hispanic and White (Jordan, Brown, & Gutierrez, 2010). In an effort to ensure all students were afforded the same educational opportunities, in 2001, Congress overwhelmingly elected to overhaul ESEA into the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB; Rosenthal, 2002). NCLB represented perhaps the most recent significant policy initiative to redress inequity at a national level and was a modern acknowledgment that America was becoming more diverse (Jordan, Brown, & Gutierrez, 2010). As K-12 public school classrooms opened in the fall of 2014, a demographic milestone was reached: minority students outnumbered non-Hispanic Caucasians (Sass,

2021). These educational milestones have not only changed the institutional learning frameworks it has also guided and shaped the history of teaching in the United States. Congress once again reauthorized ESEA in 2015, renaming it the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA). With ESSA, President Barack Obama chose a new approach to school reform and improvement for all students (Black, 2017). Rather than having federal criteria that all schools must follow across the country, ESSA returned sovereignty to the states, allowing them to make judgments that were best for their individual circumstances (Koretz, 2009). By returning responsibility to the state department of education, local school districts were able to adopt practical innovations established by educators and leaders that would allow all students to prepare for society's unique requirements (Heise, 2017).

History of Teacher Diversity in the United States

The role of teaching has changed tremendously since education began. Teachers are role models to their pupils who play an essential role in the lives of their students (Lowery & Hayes, 2014). Given that this study explores the experiences male students of color have with their White teachers, it is essential to examine the history of diversity in the teacher workforce. This section provides information about the importance of teacher representation for students, along with the progression of diversity in the teacher workforce and how segregation and desegregation affected the diversity of the teacher workforce.

Importance of Teacher Representation for Students

Teacher representation is the inclusion of teachers of color in the teaching workforce. Teachers of color are more than just mere role models. Teachers of color are

cultural translators and intercessors for students of color, thereby directly contributing to their school achievement (Irvine, 2009). Teacher representation is important because teachers' gender, race/ethnicity, age, and teaching experience may all impact how they can build relationships with their students (Cherng, 2017).

Because this study focuses on teacher-student relationships between White teachers and students of color, the ramifications of teacher representation are especially important to understand.

At times, students of color find it difficult to bond with teachers they perceive do not like them based on past experiences or stereotypes. Studies indicate that most teachers bring minimal cross-cultural experience to the classroom and use color blindness as a way to cope with fear and ignorance (Valli, 1995). White teachers' lack of culturally relevant practices may result from their low expectations for students of color (Chapman, 2014). In two different studies, White instructors concluded that Black families are more dysfunctional than White families, which has implications for how teachers interact with students in the classroom (Heinze, 2008; Laughter, 2011). In Markowitz and Puchner's (2014) study, White teachers agreed that diversity in the classroom was beneficial because Black pupils may be exposed to good role models they didn't have at home.

According to Cherng (2017), strong evidence is that teacher-student relationships can inspire students to have high academic ambitions, but such relationships are not uniformly enjoyed by all racial/ethnic and generation groups (p.93). Teachers may be unfamiliar with the lives of all of their students, which can make relationships difficult (Cherng, 2017). Because this is such a crucial issue, it is imperative that all teachers be trained in cultural awareness to help all teachers successfully interact with an increasingly

diverse student population (Cherng, 2017), especially when teachers and students do not come from the same background, culture, and race. Teachers in mostly White suburban settings are less likely to comprehend or sympathize with the external factors that influence students' lives (Chapman, 2014). According to the study, Siegel-Hawley and Frankenberg (2012) also added that White instructors at multiracial schools are more comfortable forming relationships with White families than they are with families of color. Ultimately the inability to cultivate relationships with the parents further prevents teachers from connecting with students of color (Chapman, 2014). These findings of interactions and relationships are especially important to understand in the context of this dissertation study.

While research has demonstrated that there can be barriers to relationship building between White teachers and students of color, studies have also shown that minority teachers are able to relate more easily with minority students by drawing from their own experiences of navigating society as non-dominant persons (Cherng & Halpin, 2016). Griffin and Tackie (2017) found that Black teachers and Black students feel a sense of connection with one another that encourages them to be more engaged in the learning (Griffin & Tackie, 2017). The presence of teachers of color in the classroom validates and promotes the possibility of academic success for Black, Hispanic, Asian, and Native American students (Dilworth, 1990). Black teachers' abilities frequently extend well beyond their responsibilities as subject matter specialists (Griffin, 2017). They tend to develop relationships with students of color as role models, parents, and advocates, which helps those students feel connected to their schools (Griffin, 2017). Increased parental involvement has the ability to improve communication between parents and school

personnel, as well as affect the child's receipt of other valuable school services, such as special education screening or participation in the gifted program (Abrams & Gibbs, 2002; Harackiewicz, Rozek, Hulleman, & Hyde, 2012; Lareau & Horvat, 1999). The abundance of material describing the underachievement of children of color makes it more critical that these youngsters see and know something different about themselves so that they do not pursue self-defeating prophecies.

Because teacher representation is so important for students' experience and the development of teacher-student relationships (the focus of this dissertation study), understanding the history of race in the American education system as it relates to teacher employment is critical. The following sections address the progression of teacher diversity from the almost exclusively White teachers at the start of the American education system to the more diverse teacher workforce we have now.

Early Teachers

In colonial America, the teaching of children was left up to the parents in the home (Johnson, 2017). The wealthier families often hired tutors or sent their children to private schools (Johnson, 2017). Prior to 1850, teaching was mainly a male-dominated profession (LeQuire, 2016). Boys were educated, while girls were taught how to take care of the home. Some form of self-directed inquiry was considered the method of teaching in Colonial America. According to a longer historical perspective, the self-directed inquiry was widely performed by American colonists, whose cultural context gave only limited options for school-directed research (Long & Ashford, 1976). Industrialization altered the economy of America by directing men on new paths, including business and

more money (LeQuire, 2016). Thousands of unfilled teaching posts arose as a result of the abrupt change in economic opportunities (LeQuire, 2016).

Educators in the nineteenth century used this occasion to proclaim that women were “natural” instructors and that they should replace males in elementary schools (LeQuire, 2016). There is not much literature that describes Black teachers during slavery because Blacks were not allowed to be taught. Any teaching that was provided to the slaves was done in secret.

The Native-American teacher is largely excluded from the teaching profession in the United States (Gere, 2005). Native American teachers have never represented a majority in schools educating children of their race, and Native-American parents have never had the political influence that Blacks had, who have succeeded in having “only Black teachers in Black Schools” in several districts (Gere, 2005). Still, Native-American teachers were a force to be reckoned with, both in terms of numbers and their influence inside and beyond the classroom (Gere, 2005).

Teachers During Segregation

The White-dominated political system at the time slavery ended declared that Black student’s educational needs were different from those of White students; this decision was arrived at both due to racism and because the economy was still dominated by agriculture and ex-slaves were needed in the fields (Roth & Roth, 2015). Because of these politics, Black leaders agreed that Black students should be enrolled in schools with a less demanding curriculum, teaching them the basics of the menial-type work they would be doing. (Roth & Roth, 2015). As a result, the segregated White–Black public school system was established (Roth & Roth, 2015). The system was not just segregated

for students but also for teachers. The crucibles of slavery, the Civil War, and Reconstruction developed the first generation of Black teachers in the South (Fairclough, 2007). Fairclough (2007) also stated that though some Black teachers had previously taught in public schools in the North or “hidden schools” in the South. The majority of Black teachers had no prior classroom experience since they had been prohibited from the mainstream American educational system (as students or teachers) since its existence (Fairclough, 2007). Many Black teachers during segregation were barely literate (Fairclough, 2007).

Fairclough (2007) reports that as a consequence, Black teachers suffered the condescension of their White counterparts and leaders from the North, who branded them as illiterate and inept. For Black people, the link between education and freedom was so strong that Black teachers were seen as motivators, preachers, community builders, and political figures (Fairclough, 2007). Like all freedmen’s teachers, Black teachers had to deal with a slew of challenges (Fairclough, 2007). Teachers who were reliant on tuition fees went through much hardship and often gave up because enrollment decreased because Black families could not afford the tuition, and many of the kids started to work (Fairclough, 2007).

Effects of Integration on Teachers

Many African Americans had mixed emotions about integrating schools. According to Lutz (2017), while *Brown v. Board of Education* enabled children of all races and backgrounds to have equal opportunity and access to education, poor integration implementation policies and widespread White backlash presented problems for many Black students and teachers. In 1970, more than 90% of African American

students in the 11 states of the former Confederacy attended integrated schools, compared with fewer than 5% in 1964 (Maas, 2010). Many students of color were (appropriately) skeptical that their White teachers could relate to them or fulfill a role in their lives beyond a classroom instructor (Chapman, 2014).

Though integration was (and is) pushed as a change in the right direction for American schools, it had profound effects on Black students and Black teachers. Before the *Brown v. Board* case, the national teaching force had many talented and experienced Black teachers (Lutz, 2017). However, a result of the 1954 *Brown v. Board* ruling was that as Black students integrated into White schools, over 38,000 Black teachers in the South and border states lost their jobs (Logan & Oakley, 2009). In addition to firing Black teachers, school boards demoted Black teachers for reasons of incompetence (Fultz, 2004). The school boards accomplished this by assigning Black teachers to different subject areas and then claiming that these teachers could not adequately fulfill the curriculum requirements (Fultz, 2004).

Whether or not Black educators and administrators could have predicted both the positive and negative consequences of the *Brown v. Board* case, it is clear they had well-founded reservations about desegregation (Logan & Oakely, 2009). Lutz (2017) states that along with their jobs. Many Black teachers lost their prestige and status in their communities. Many Black teachers shied away from desegregation for multiple reasons. According to Rosenthal (1957), Black teachers believed that it would discourage racial pride, White teachers would not understand Black children and loss of incentive for Black students who wanted to become teachers. It wasn't just their jobs that Black teachers feared losing. Lutz (2017) states that Black teachers felt that Black students

would not receive the best possible education from White teachers in an integrated school system.

Modern Day Teachers

Today, in America, a primary goal of education is to prepare students for success in adult life (Kahlan, 2021). In 1996, public elementary and secondary schools enrollment was 64% White, 17% Black, 14% Hispanic, 4% Asian/Pacific Islander, and 1% American Indian/Alaskan Native (National Center for Education Statistics, 1999). In 1994—just two years earlier- the teaching demographics were 87% White, 7% Black, 4% Hispanic, 1% Asian/Pacific Islander, and 1% American Indian/Alaskan Native (National Center for Education Statistics, 1999). The latest recorded demographics show that in 2021, the enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools was 60% White, 20% Black, 14% Hispanic, and the other minority groups make up about 6% (Office for Educational Policy, 2021). The most current teacher demographics in 2021 are 88% White, 9% Black, 1.5 % Hispanic, and the other minority groups make up less than 1% (ADE Data Center, 2021). Students of color make up 40% of the demographic population here in Arkansas. In stark contrast, certified teachers of color only make up 12% of the teaching workforce. Despite the importance of representation for underserved as well as other student populations (Grissom, Kern, & Rodriguez, 2015; Irvine, 1989; Quiocho & Rios, 2000; Villegas & Irvine, 2010; Zeichner, 2003), teaching remains a predominantly White and female profession (Guarino, Santibañez, & Daley, 2006). This is particularly important to understand, given that this dissertation study focuses on the experiences of the male student of color and their relationships with their White teachers.

Teacher-Student Relationships

A major focus of this dissertation study is the relationship between teachers and their students—specifically, White teachers and students of color. The literature review up to this point has provided a history of students of color’s access to the American education system as well as a record of how the teacher workforce went from predominately White to more diverse. These issues are important to understand and contextualize why it is important to study the relationship between students of color and White teachers. The following sections will outline why the teacher-student relationship is essential, how teacher-student relationships affect student outcomes, and how teacher perceptions of students affect teacher-student relationships.

Importance of Teacher-Student Relationships

Student-teacher relationships truly matter with regard to students’ academic and personal well-being (Phillippo, 2012). Learning happens as a result of relationships (Rogoff et al., 2014). Students’ positive and negative experiences with their teachers are referred to as teacher-student relationship quality (Baysu et al., 2021). A large amount of evidence supports the relevance of student-teacher relationships on academic performance, school engagement, psychological health, and human development in students (McCombs, 2014; Roorda et al., 2011; Wang, Brinkworth, & Eccles, 2013). Some researchers believe that the most crucial aspect of effective schools is the relationship between students and teachers (Nieto, 2010). The relational factor promoting school success among immigrant minorities involves their degree of acceptance and trust in the schools and school personnel (Ogbu, 1990). Education is a human experience (Fenton, 2013). According to Fenton (2013), education is about enabling, not instructing.

At its finest, education is a collaborative effort (Fenton, 2013). Teaching is a dance between two partners, not a solitary endeavor (Fenton, 2013). Student-teacher interactions are clearly important for student, teacher, and school success (Baysu et al., 2021). Their relevance necessitates more investigation and exploration of student-teacher dynamics that may create beneficial connections for all students with all teachers. While supportive relationships help achievement and growth, rejection or prejudice can sabotage these goals (Baysu et al., 2021). Chapman (2014) mentions, “the lack of strong teacher-student relationships creates barriers for students of color with an array of teachers.” There is an abundance of evidence that suggests that teacher-student relationships matter, whether positive or negative, across numerous outcomes, and they matter for students of all ages (Gehlback, Brinkworth & Harris, 2012).

Student Outcomes

According to Hattie (2008), there are a variety of factors that influence student academic success, both within and outside of school, to varying degrees. Still, engagement is one aspect that has been shown to impact student achievement significantly. Student engagement repeatedly surfaces in the literature as an outcome of positive student-teacher relationships (Conner & Pope, 2013). Positive student-teacher relationships have been linked to a variety of outcomes for students at all levels of education, including academic success, psychological well-being, and school engagement (Cornelius-White, 2007; Schussler, 2009).

Teacher Perceptions of Students Affect Teacher-Student Relationships

Because the relationship between students and teachers can substantially impact students’ academic outcomes and the classroom environment, it is also essential to

explore how teachers' perceptions of their students can affect their relationships. This is because students frequently perform at the academic level that their teacher believes they are capable of; teacher perception can either encourage or hinder student success (IRIS Center, 2012). Whether they are consciously aware of it or not, teachers belong to cultural communities that define their cultural identities, form their beliefs and attitudes, and guide their behavior (Kumar, Burgoon & Karabenick, 2015).

According to Sainn and Ugwuegbu (1980), perception is defined as “the process by which we extract meaningful information from physical stimulation. It is the way we interpret our sensations” (p.90). Teachers have shared their perspectives on how to effectively create relationships with students of color and their concerns and limits. Teachers have a significant impact on student achievements as well as students' beliefs of their capabilities, and because 82% of the teaching workforce is White, teachers' perceptions of students of color are important to understanding how student-teacher relationships evolve and grow (Burgess & Greaves, 2013; Dee, 2015; NCES, 2013). A study conducted by Rubie-Davies (2006) notes that compared to low achievers, students perceived that teachers interacted more positively with high-achieving students and had higher expectations. Horwitz (1989), in her article about student perceptions and language learning, cautioned that it is crucial for teachers to consider how their students perceive them in the classroom as this can conflict with personal philosophies and attitudes towards teaching.

According to Skinner and Belmont (1993), there is a reciprocal association between teacher perceptions and student motivation, and genuinely driven students who were cognitively engaged in classwork were more likely to be more extraordinary

performers than less motivated and less engaged students. During the year, when teacher views of motivation improved, so did students' cognitive engagement; conversely, as students' cognitive and behavioral engagement improved, so did teacher perceptions of student motivation (Guthrie, Ng & Sweet, 1998). Some research has emphasized teacher perceptions as they influence student performance in males of color. Thomas, Coard, Stevenson, Bentley, and Zamel (2008) investigated factors that increased behavioral risks in African American males in a classroom-based on teacher perceptions of classroom behavior. A total of 148 African American guys from a secondary school participated in the study. Teacher perceptions of student conduct in diverse classroom settings were among the findings, which suggested that racial socialization and different forms of emotional coping are drivers for teachers' perceptions of classroom behavior

Experiences of Students of Color in Schools

Over the past 50 years, the United States has seen a dramatic racial and ethnic demographic shift (Goings & Bianco, 2016). In a study conducted by Goings and Bianco (2016), one of the participants stated that "Black kids are given the option to fail, and White kids are not by teachers" (p.635). The student's experience is that a teacher may allow a Black student to be off track, but when a White student does the same, he is usually redirected (Goings & Bianco, 2016). Roorda et al. (2011) looked at numerous variables of student-teacher interactions and concluded that student ethnicity substantially influenced the link between positive relationships and achievement. Students reported that teachers did endeavor to display warmth and emotional support to low-expectation students; however, the students were able to determine that such displays were not genuine because they were exaggerated (Rubie-Davies, 2006). The following sections

outline the areas where the literature demonstrates that students of color have different experiences than their White peers, including different expectations from teachers and relationships with teachers, academic achievement and motivation, and discipline and behavior.

Different Expectations From and Relationships with Teachers

As mentioned already in this literature review, students of color have different relationships with their teachers than White students, and teachers also tend to have different expectations for students of color compared to White students. Tenenbaum and Ruck (2007) found that teachers held more negative expectations for Latino adolescents than for Asian and African American adolescents in their metanalysis of the literature. African Americans and Latino adolescents often perceive race-based differential teacher treatment (Tenenbaum & Ruck, 2007). Goings and Bianco (2016) also studied Black students who discussed their experiences with racial discrimination and how both students and teachers racially stereotyped them. The participants in the study stated that microaggressions were a recurring theme that represented classmates' and teachers' low expectations for Black students (Goings & Bianco, 2016). Sue et al. (2007) describe racial microaggressions as brief and ubiquitous everyday, verbal, behavioral, and environmental indignities, whether deliberate or accidental, that express hostile, degrading, or negative racial slights or insults to the target individual or group. Tenenbaum and Ruck (2007) found statistically significant results suggesting that teachers hold lower expectations for African American and Latino students than for European American students. Teacher expectations may lead to differential academic performance for students and will likely contribute to a less than fair classroom climate

and limited educational opportunities for students of color (Tenenbaum & Ruck, 2007). In Goings and Bianco's (2016) study, the young men interviewed discussed being adversely impacted by these low expectations (Goings & Bianco, 2016, p.634).

Academic Achievement

Academic achievement, such as grade point averages and scholarship awards, is a result that reflects the quality of a student's academic performance (McCoy et al., n.d.). It refers to a student's extent of progress in subject knowledge and abilities (McCoy et al., n.d.). This is important because we now know that self-esteem, language competence, success drive, and locus of control are all linked to students of color achievement (Holliday, 1985). We also know that instructors' expectations, attitudes, behavioral patterns, and the type and frequency of their contact with students have an impact on students of color as well (Holliday, 1985). Students of color believed that they were constantly learning dumb down material because teachers assumed that they were not at the level of the other students (Goings & Bianco, 2016). This meant that students of color were held to a lower standard than their White counterparts. It's important to note that students' grade point averages, attendance, and graduation rates improve in comparison to their classmates when they perceive their teachers to be encouraging (Crosnoe et al., 2004). In fact, Hamre and Pianta (2005) discovered that their performance increased when students with weak academic performance engaged with a supportive teacher.

Discipline and Behavior

Behavioral difficulties or perceived problems that occur both inside and outside the classroom in a school setting are referred to as discipline issues (Monroe, 2006). In school, discipline and behavioral issues are important, particularly for students of color,

because social scientists have found that minority students get more frequent office referrals and harsher disciplinary sanctions than White students (Monroe, 2006; Irvine, 1990; Skiba, 2001; Skiba et al., 2000). McNeeley (2005) looked at many aspects of school connection and discovered that student-teacher relationships are the most critical predictor of at-risk behavior reduction. At-risk behavior is defined as behavior likely to cause a student to fail school (Kaufman & Bradbury, 1992). This includes, among other things, lack of attendance, drug use, misbehavior, and dropping out. New federal civil rights data reveal that students of color and those with disabilities experience more significant inequalities in both school discipline and academic achievement at a time when the Trump administration is considering taking back punishment recommendations with protections for vulnerable populations (Sparks & Klein, 2018). Research has demonstrated that student problem behaviors can be reduced and overall classroom climate enhanced when a focus is placed on increasing positive student-teacher relationships (Hamre & Pianta, 2005). While questionable discipline tactics that keep students out of school are utilized with students of all ethnic groups, they are particularly troublesome for Black students, who continue to be disproportionately exposed to physical punishment, suspension, and expulsion (Townsend, 2000). Relationship-building is a crucial piece of early academic success and a substantial mediator in reducing behavioral concerns in the classroom (Yassine, Tipton-fisler & Katic, 2020).

Experiences of Male Students of Color Specifically

Male students of color have their own experiences in school. Students of color have been shown to be suspended at two to three times the rate of other students in national, state, district, and building-level data for over 25 years and to be

correspondingly overrepresented in office referrals, harsh discipline, and school expulsion (Skiba, Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002). Students who identify as American Indian/Alaska Native (AIAN) have historically been underrepresented in educational studies and overrepresented in low academic performance (Gion et al., 2018). Discriminatory treatment of Latino male students is frequent, both in schools and in other public places (Edwards & Romero, 2008; Martinez, DeGarmo, & Eddy, 2004; Rosenbloom & Way, 2004). Academic tracking, retention in grades, and teacher expectations are all examples of subtle discrimination in the educational context (Farkas, 2003). Research suggests that Latino students recognize these cues, as they are more likely than White students to believe they were discouraged from taking advanced academic courses and wrongly disciplined due to race and ethnicity (Fisher, Wallace, & Fenton, 2000).

Black students, too have experiences of their own. With a primarily White and female teaching force in most school districts across the country (Zumwalt & Craig, 2005). Society cannot throw aside the idea of cultural mismatch or racial stereotyping as a contributing factor in disproportionate office referral aside(Zumwalt & Craig, 2005). According to Townsend (2000), White teachers may misinterpret passionate or emotive encounters as aggressive or confrontational because they are unfamiliar with the interactional patterns that define many African American males. Ferguson (2001) documented how racial preconceptions may contribute to greater rates of school punishment for adolescent Black males.

Northwest Arkansas

Because this dissertation study is being conducted in Northwest Arkansas, an overview of the region's demographics, including teacher and student demographics in this area, is vital for this review. The state of Arkansas is evolving and growing. Northwest Arkansas consist of three counties (Finding NWA, 2021). The major cities in these three counties are Fayetteville, Springdale, Rogers, and Bentonville (Finding NWA, 2021). The largest school districts in Northwest Arkansas are majority students of color, and students in Northwest Arkansas school systems come from more than 90 countries and speak more than 87 languages (Finding NWA, 2021). The region continues to develop, becoming younger and more diverse, fueled by economic opportunity and a low cost of living (NWA Council, 2021).

According to the Northwest Arkansas Council's 2021 Diversity Report, in 1990, the population of Northwest Arkansas was 239,464; the combined population of people of Color in Northwest Arkansas was 10,069 in 1990, accounting for around 4.2% of the total population. These minority groups included Hispanic/Latino, Asian, African American, Native American, and others (NWA Council, 2021). The Pacific Islander population was so small that it was included in the "other" category.

Northwest Arkansas is evolving on a daily basis. In 2022, the minority population in Northwest Arkansas is projected to reach 177,701, accounting for 30.56% of the total population. This minority group now includes Pacific Islanders as a subgroup, making up 1.75% of the projected population (in the previous report, Pacific Islanders were not even mentioned as a category; NWA Council, 2021). The projected population in Northwest Arkansas in 2022 is 581,621(NWA Council, 2021). According to these forecasts, the

Hispanic/Latina race will add the most people to the population every year between now and 2050. In fact, after 2021, the Hispanic race is predicted to contribute more people to the US than all other racial and ethnic groups combined (NWA Council, 2021).

NWA Teacher and Student Demographics

The ADE Data Center's statewide demographic percentage report for the 2021-2022 school year indicates the following demographic representation among certified teachers in the main Northwest Arkansas school districts of Fayetteville, Springdale, Rogers, and Bentonville. The Fayetteville school district has 665 certified teachers, of which 10.37 % make up the minority teachers, and 89.7% are White teachers. The Springdale school district has 1,490 certified teachers, of which 8.03% make up the minority teachers, and 91.9% are White teachers. The Rogers school district has 1,005 certified teachers, of which 8.38% are minority teachers, and 91.2% are White teachers. The Bentonville school district has 1,237 certified teachers, of which 4.38% are minority teachers, and 95.5% are White teachers.

The student demographic report for the 2021-2022 school year indicates that the minority population is continuing to grow in Northwest Arkansas (ADE Center, 2021). According to the ADE Center, the following represents the demographic representation of the students in the four largest school districts in Northwest Arkansas Fayetteville, Springdale, Rogers, and Bentonville. The Fayetteville school district has an enrollment of 10,151 students, of which 34.6% are students of color and 64.5% are White. The Springdale school district has an enrollment of 21,796, of which 68.1% are students of color and 31.9% are White. The Rogers school district has an enrollment of 15,603 students, of which 47.8% are students of color and 57.2% are White. The Bentonville

school district has an enrollment of 18536, of which 29.5% are students of color and 70.5% are White.

Need for this Study and Research Questions

This literature review has demonstrated that, historically, students of color have not had access to the American educational system in the same ways as White students (Sass, 2021). Further, teachers of color have also been marginalized in the American school system (Griffin, 2017); even though teacher representation matters—especially for students of color (Cherng, 2017)—teachers in the US are still majority White and female (Guarino, Santibañez, & Daley, 2006). In Northwest Arkansas specifically, the minority population is proliferating (NWA Council, 2021), but most teachers in the region are White (NWA Council, 2021). In addition to these historical and current demographic differences, research has shown that the teacher-student relationship is very important for student success (McCombs, 2014; Roorda et al., 2011; Wang, Brinkworth, & Eccles, 2013). However, relationships between students of color and White teachers can be strained because teachers may already have a different outlook on these students and assume just because of their race that the student is not at the level of all the other students in the class (Goings & Bianco, 2016). This issue is significant for male students of color, who also have unique and often negative experiences in school (Skiba, Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002). Thus, this study will explore the following research questions:

1. How do Northwest Arkansas high school students of color describe their relationship with their White teachers?
2. How do Northwest Arkansas high school male students of color describe their experiences with their White teachers?

3. According to male students of color, how can White teacher's best serve them?

Theoretical Perspective

Self Determination Theory guides this study. Because there are so many factors that influence student achievement, engagement, and relationships, no single theory can provide a complete framework for understanding student-teacher relationships. Self-determination theory is one way of looking at the psychology of motivation, engagement, and relationships to present a more holistic picture of how students perceive learning, school, and the world around them (Ryan & Deci, 2019). Self-determination theory is not specific to any race, age, or gender; instead, it is universal to all individuals as they traverse the environment in order to achieve three essential human needs: competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Deci et al., 1991). Competence, autonomy, and relatedness are all necessary for students to become intrinsically driven and engage in a healthy internalization process, which focuses on an individual's capacity to "assimilate, coordinate, and control inputs from both external and internal settings" (Ryan & Deci, 2019, p. 8).

The three recognized demands of self-determination theory are competence, relatedness, and autonomy. Competence illustrates how people desire to learn new skills and grasp new responsibilities. People are more likely to engage in activities that will assist them in achieving their goals if they think they possess the requisite skills (Cherry, 2021; Deci & Ryan, 2017). Competence is evident in positive academic outcomes, such as increasing graduation rates within the minority student group (NCES, 2016; Krupnick, 2019). The term "relatedness" refers to people's need to feel like they belong and are connected to others (Cherry, 2021; Deci & Ryan, 2017). Self-determination states that

through autonomy, people need to feel in control of their own feelings, behaviors, and objectives (Cherry, 2021; Deci & Ryan, 2017). Autonomy is met when male students of color are able to succeed in learning, despite the perceptions of the teacher.

Students' motivation, engagement, and accomplishment are influenced by how they perceive the dynamics of the teacher-student relationship and how it connects to their requirements for competence, relatedness, and autonomy. Self-determination theory considers a variety of elements that may impact the establishment of student-teacher relationships and the effectiveness of such connections in terms of increasing motivation, engagement, and accomplishment (Cherry, 2021; Deci & Ryan, 2017).

Self-determination theory flourishes in an educational atmosphere. Students' motivation explains why they achieve high levels of achievement, enjoy school, produce high-quality work, and embrace challenges (Reeve, 2002; Deci & Ryan, 2002). The purpose of this research is to learn more about the experiences and circumstances that affect high school male students of color in Northwest Arkansas. Self-Determination Theory provides support to understanding the importance of identifying experiences and factors that influence male students of color experiences in school, as the theory suggests that relationships are connected to educational success, a sense of belonging, and positive outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2017).

Chapter Summary

This study intends to examine how male students of color describe their experiences and their relationships with their White teachers to see how these teachers can best serve them. This literature review was designed to address the topics relevant to the larger concepts of student-teacher relationships and male students of color. This

chapter began with an overview of the history of education, and moved into the history of teachers in education. The rest of this chapter highlighted how student-teacher relationships are impacted by teacher perception. Teacher-student relationships are critical because they enhance student progress and acceptance in the classroom and across the school (Pianta et al., 2002; Hattie, 2009). Students who have supportive and loving relationships with their teachers feel safer and more secure in the classroom and more knowledgeable, have more positive interactions with their peers, and achieve more academic achievement (Hamre & Pianta, 2006). A brief description of the rapidly changing demographics in Northwest Arkansas. In addition to these historical and current demographic differences, research has shown that the teacher-student relationship is very important for student success (McCombs, 2014; Roorda et al., 2011; Wang, Brinkworth, & Eccles, 2013). The literature review offered evidence and support for the necessity for this study and the determination of the research questions that would guide the research. Finally, the literature review concluded with a detailed explanation of Self-Determination Theory and why it was used as the foundation for this qualitative study (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

Chapter III: Methodology

The purpose of this qualitative study is threefold. The first purpose is to examine how high school male students of color in Northwest Arkansas describe their relationship with their White teachers. Secondly, the purpose of this study is to determine how high school male students of color in Northwest Arkansas describe their experiences with their White teachers. Thirdly, the purpose of this study is to learn what male students of color believe White teachers can do to best serve them.

The three purposes of this chapter are to (1) describe the research methodology of this study, (2) explain the design and the rationale, (3) and describe the population from which the sampling was derived, and the reasoning for the selection.

This qualitative study was conducted using the following research questions as a guide:

1. How do Northwest Arkansas high school students of color describe their relationship with their White teachers?
2. How do Northwest Arkansas high school male students of color describe their experiences with their White teachers?
3. According to male students of color, how can White teachers best serve them?

Research Design

This qualitative phenomenological study explored male students of color and their experiences with their White teachers. The “how” and “why” of systems and human behavior, as well as what regulates these behaviors, are frequently investigated using qualitative research methods (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013). Qualitative methods aim to

expose and comprehend events within a specific context without seeking to infer any sort of causality (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013). A qualitative approach was chosen for this study because qualitative research is unstructured and qualitative designs are “emergent” rather than fixed (De Chesnay, 2014). This is in line with the purpose of this study—to better understand the experienced interactions between male students of color and their White teachers. This research method was used to gain insight into the minds of Northwest Arkansas high school male students of color.

Phenomenology is defined as an exploration of what people experience and how they experience what they experience (Patton, 2002). According to De Chesnay (2014), “descriptive phenomenology research can be a beneficial approach to learn about, better understand, and describe phenomena important to the human experience” (p.146).

Phenomenology aims at gaining a deeper understanding of the nature or meaning of our everyday experiences (Patton, 2002). The phenomenological approach is appropriate for this qualitative study because the researcher seeks to be able to describe the lived experiences of male students of color participants (Creswell, 2018) and their perceptions and feelings about their interactions with White teachers. This study used interviews and artifacts to aid the researcher in understanding the experiences of male students of color. The phenomenological approach will also guide the researcher’s thinking while analyzing the data.

Sample and Sampling Method

This study explored the lived experiences of a small convenience sample of approximately 10-12 High School male students of color in a Northwest Arkansas high

school. Only male students of color were interviewed during this study. Female students of color and other students who are not male students of color were excluded from this study. The qualifiers to participate in this study are the following (a) to identify as a male High School student in grades 9-12, (b) to identify as being in a public high school in Northwest Arkansas, (c) to identify with being a student of color.

Sampling Method

Convenience and snowball sampling methods were used to acquire participants for this study. First, convenience sampling was used. Convenience sampling is defined as a technique in which participants are selected on the basis of availability (Gliner et al., 2017). Convenience sampling is a kind of non-probability sampling in which members of the target population are selected for the study if they meet specific practical criteria and the willingness to volunteer (Farrokhi & Mahmoudi-Hamidabad, 2012). Convenience sampling is ideal for this study because participants can be recruited from various high schools in Northwest Arkansas, where the researcher has professional relationships that allow him to reach out to possible participants. The researcher used convenience sampling to select a small group of male high school students of color from the larger group of male high school students in Northwest Arkansas (Gliner et al., 2017).

Snowball sampling was also used in this study. Snowball sampling is a modification of convenience sampling that is used when the participants of interest are unknown to the researcher (Gliner et al., 2017). Once a few participants are obtained using convenience sampling, they will be asked to refer additional potential participants who also fit the criteria for the study (Gliner et al., 2017). Because the researcher will need to recruit more high school male students of color as participants, snowball

sampling is appropriate for this study. Snowballing is an effective way to recruit participants because the male students of color being in the same school, potentially would have already developed entrusted interpersonal relationships which will aid in the willingness to participate in the study (Sheu et al., 2009).

The researcher sought the assistance of a teacher and administrator in a Northwest Arkansas high school to help recruit participants. For this study, the researcher looked for diversity in both grade level and ethnicity. The researcher provided the teacher and administrator with a flyer to place throughout the school containing a QR code that interested students can scan and complete a survey form notifying the researcher that they are interested in the study. The researcher looked for 10 to 12 high school male students of color to participate in the study. Because the researcher was looking for diversity in grade level and ethnicity, participants were selected on a first-come, first-served basis, depending on the grade level or ethnicity needed to fulfill the diversity sought by the researcher.

The QR code contained a series of questions that provided the researcher with the name, grade level, how they prefer to be contacted if selected, and ethnicity. The responses from the students were time-stamped upon completion. The researcher used this information to select the participants according to the need of the study. Those who showed interest and were selected by the researcher were contacted, and an established time was created to conduct virtual interviews. The researcher explained both verbally and in writing that the interview would be recorded, transcribed, and analyzed for inclusion in the study.

Data Collection

For this study, data collection occurred through interviews and artifacts. Before beginning the data collection process, the researcher obtained signed assent forms from the students and signed consent forms from their parents. The researcher informed each participant, both in writing and verbally, that the interview would be recorded, transcribed, and analyzed for thematic patterns that reflected the study's objectives. The data collection techniques used in this study are described below.

Interviews

The interview is the primary source of data collection for this study. We interview people to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe (Patton, 2002). We cannot observe feelings, thoughts, and intentions (Patton, 2002). Interviewing is a great instrument to use because it allows us to enter into another person's perspective (Patton, 2002).

The male students in the study had the opportunity to explain and narrate their lived experiences as they navigated through their high school years during the interview process. Interviews for this study were conducted one-on-one virtually via a web-based platform such as Google Meet or WebEx. The 30-45 minute interviews were recorded and then transcribed verbatim.

Interview questions. The standardized open-ended interview question style was used during the interviewing process. The standardized open-ended interview consists of a set of questions carefully worded and arranged with the intention of taking each student through the same sequence and asking each student the same question (Patton, 2002).

This interview strategy simplifies data analysis by allowing the researcher to track each student's answer to the same question and organize similar questions and answers (Patton, 2002). The interview is also very structured, and time is utilized efficiently due to the standardized open-ended approach (Patton, 2002). The interview questions used in this study were developed based on the literature and the researchers' lived experiences. The interview questions for this study are:

1. Tell me about yourself and your family.
2. In your opinion, what are things teachers could do to help students of color feel better about being at school?
3. Explain a time when you have felt not valued as a student of color in the classroom?
4. Explain a time when you have felt valued as a student of color in the classroom?
5. If you wanted teachers to know one thing about you as a student, what would you tell them?
6. Have you ever felt like your voice as a student of color had been silenced in the classroom? Explain.
7. Do you think your silence in the classroom would change if you were in the racial majority in your class? Explain.
8. Do you feel that all students receive equal attention from the faculty of your school regardless of race? If yes, why? If no, why not?
9. Do you believe that your race gives you an advantage or a disadvantage in the classroom? Why do you feel that way?

10. When you walk into a classroom and you are of the racial minority, how does that make you feel?
11. When you walk into a classroom and you are of the racial majority, how does that make you feel?
12. Will you describe your relationships with your teachers?
13. What have you experienced in a classroom that has made you feel respected and appreciated?
14. What have you experienced in a classroom that has made you feel disrespected and underappreciated?
15. How do you feel that you are perceived by your teachers?
16. I asked you to bring an artifact with you that represents your high school experiences, would you please describe your artifact to me?
17. Is there anything you would like to share with me that I did not ask about?

Artifacts

According to Norum (2008), A personal artifact is anything that can provide physical evidence of historical or personal information about a culture, society, or people. Artifacts can enhance the other types of data collected about the student (Saldaña, 2011). Visual products such as artifacts are extensions of the participant's self and ethos (Saldaña, 2011). During the interview, each participant in this study was asked to share an artifact (such as objects, notes, assignments, photos, or books) they feel reflects their lived experiences through high school.

Credibility

The faith that can be placed in the accuracy of the research is referred to as credibility (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). Credibility is concerned with the aspect of truth-value (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). A qualitative investigation's credibility is determined by the researcher's credibility and philosophical belief in the importance of qualitative research (Patton, 2002). The researcher used triangulation, member checking, and reflexivity to establish credibility for this qualitative study.

Triangulation

Triangulation aims to enhance the process of qualitative research by using multiple approaches (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). Data triangulation is significant because it enriches a study by including several data sources and ensuring that they are consistent (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). For this study, triangulation was achieved by collecting data in two ways--via interviews and artifacts.

Member Checking

Another strategy to ensure trustworthiness in a qualitative research study is member checking (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). Member checking is when the researcher takes back parts of the polished product, such as the major findings, themes, analysis, and interpretations, back to the groups from whom the data was initially obtained (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Member checking is used to determine the accuracy of the qualitative findings (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). In this study, member checking was used by providing transcripts of individual interviews to students so that they could offer constructive criticism regarding the interview content (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). The

researcher had each interview translated verbatim. Each participant was given the transcripts of their individual transcripts. The transcripts of the interview were emailed to each participant. This email had the researcher's contact information, including his cell number. Each participant was asked to look over the transcript to ensure no false impressions or misinterpretations were given. Each participant can contact the researcher via email or by phone to provide correction or constructive feedback.

Reflexivity

Reflexivity is a way for qualitative researchers to ensure the credibility of their research (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). Reflexivity is defined as understanding how one's own experiences and background affect what one understands and how one acts in the world, including acts of inquiry (Patton, 2002). A qualitative researcher must recognize the necessity of being self-aware and reflective about his or her own participation in the data collection, analysis, and interpretation process and the assumptions you bring to the study (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). Because qualitative research is based on the researcher's interpretation of the data, reflexivity is essential for establishing legitimacy (Patton, 2002).

The qualitative analyst owns and is reflective about her or his own voice and perspective; a credible voice conveys authenticity and trustworthiness (Patton, 2002). In any qualitative study, self-authenticity is extremely important. Reflexivity is the process of examining both oneself as a researcher and the research relationship (Hsiung, 2010). Self-searching involves examining one's conceptual baggage, assumptions, and preconceptions and how these affect research decisions, particularly the selection and wording of questions (Hsiung, 2010). Reflexivity is essential in qualitative research

because there are so many ways in which researcher bias could affect the study, from the creation of data gathering tools, to collecting the data, analyzing it, and reporting it (Dixon, 2020). In the following few paragraphs, I am going to share with you my perceptions and background regarding this topic.

I am African American, a male, and an educator. I identify as being a member of the Black race and a former high school male student of color. I am quite aware that my identity is linked to my participants in the study since Blackness is perceived as the channel connecting me to individuals who look like me. Because I once was a minority student of color, I expect to have a connection with my participants. As the qualitative inquirer, I cannot separate my identity from the research because I am the instrument of qualitative inquiry and analysis (Patton, 2015). However, I'm revealing my true identity so that I can execute a responsible qualitative study.

I grew up in Fort Smith, Arkansas. Growing up in the FSPS district, the experiences I've had with my teachers have been both positive and negative. Growing up, my parents taught me how to succeed despite my experiences with my teachers. My father was a pastor for 34 years. His motto was, "We Are Family." My father believed and knew the importance of meaningful relationships and valuing everyone's uniqueness. Almost subconsciously, I have acquired his beliefs and mannerisms. As a result of my own lived experiences both as a student and a teacher, I have always been interested in knowing how other male students of color are perceived and how I have been perceived as a teacher of color.

I spent the first 15 years of my career as a mathematics educator. I've had inclusion classes, both special education, and ELL inclusion. When I began my teaching

career, I was teaching Algebra part one, which moved at a slower pace than the traditional algebra class. My experience as an algebra teacher has created many assumptions. As a teacher, I often taught my classes in the traditional format; I do, we do, you do. It was my assumption that students wanted the teacher to show them how it was done, then allow them to do the work. This assumption has also constructed my lens as an administrator regarding what I looked for in the classroom.

Self-awareness, even a certain degree of self-analysis, has become a requirement of qualitative inquiry (Patton, 2002). Reflexivity involves making the research process itself a focus of inquiry, laying open preconceptions, and becoming aware of situational dynamics in which the interviewer and respondent are jointly involved in knowledge production (Hsiung, 2010). Using reflexivity, I am able to convey my background and my experiences to ensure the audience knows my history so that I may portray credibility and trustworthiness.

Data Analysis

To prevent concerns of misinterpreting the intended meaning of the male students of color, the researcher carefully assessed the data acquired in this study (Patton, 2002). For this phenomenological study, the researcher used the constant comparative technique to analyze the data collected from the male students. The constant comparison approach is defined as a technique for examining collected data to identify emerging themes (Hewitt-Taylor, 2001). Hewitt-Taylor (2001) further indicates that when the researcher codes the data for the first time, he should assess the data to ensure no new themes arise. According to Hewitt-Taylor (2001), this practice of regularly examining and associating

the gathered data can be done using a single data gathering method or in studies that use many data collection methods.

The challenge of qualitative analysis lies in making sense of massive amounts of data (Patton, 2002). This involves reducing the volume of raw information, sifting trivia from significance, identifying significant patterns, and constructing a framework for communicating the data's essence (Patton, 2002). Although the term 'constant' may be a stretch, the comparison is at the heart of the analysis process, as Glaser and Strauss noted in their discovery of and subsequent elaborations on the grounded theory approach (Boeije, 2002). With data from the small group of 10-12 high school males of color involved in this research study, the researcher created thematic codes of the young men's shared experiences of how they perceive their relationships with their White teachers (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). The codes were then sorted and resorted until categories of data were mutually exclusive.

Summary

This chapter explains the approach that was utilized to address the research questions on the lived experiences and perceptions of high school male students of color in Northwest Arkansas. In this chapter, the interview questions and research questions are presented. This chapter describes the data gathering techniques that were used and how the data was examined using the comparative analysis method. This chapter also includes aspects of the study's credibility, such as triangulation, member checking, and reflexivity.

Chapter IV: Results

The purpose of this phenomenological qualitative study was threefold: 1) to examine how high school male students of color in Northwest Arkansas describe their relationship with their White teachers; 2) to determine how high school male students of color in Northwest Arkansas describe their experiences with their White teachers; 3) to learn what male students of color believe White teachers can do to best serve them. The literature was chosen and reviewed based on its relevance to the history of education as it relates to people of color, as well as other variables that determine the impact teacher perceptions have on male students of color in education. The data for this study was gathered in a deliberate manner with the objective of hearing the lived experiences of high school male students of color according to their own words. The researcher collected data through open-ended interview questions and artifacts chosen by participants that symbolize their high school experience. The data was examined using the constant comparative method to code and identify patterns and themes (Patton, 2015). This qualitative study was conducted using the following research questions as the guide:

1. How do Northwest Arkansas high school students of color describe their relationship with their White teachers?
2. How do Northwest Arkansas high school male students of color describe their experiences with their White teachers?
3. According to male students of color, how can White teacher's best serve them?

Participants

Ten high school male students of color participated in this study. The males in this study ranged from 9th – 12th grade. They were recruited and selected for this study by using convenience and snowball sampling, as discussed in Chapter 3. The researcher

also had some assistance for a Northwest Arkansas teacher and administrator to help recruit participants for the study. All of the participants either completed the invitation interest survey on their own or were recommended by a teacher, administrator, or other participants in the study. All of the participants were representative of the target population. They made up a small group of male high school students of color from the larger group of male high school students in Northwest Arkansas (Gliner et al., 2017).

Table 1

Participant Information: Age, Grade, and Race

Participant	Age	Grade	Race
Participant 1	18	12 th Grade	African American
Participant 2	17	12 th Grade	African American
Participant 3	17	11 th Grade	Mexican
Participant 4	16	11 th Grade	Mexican
Participant 5	16	10 th Grade	Mexican
Participant 6	17	11 th Grade	Mexican
Participant 7	18	12 th Grade	African American
Participant 8	15	9 th Grade	African American
Participant 9	16	11 th Grade	African American
Participant 10	17	12 th Grade	African American

The participants were all males who self-identified as Mexican and African American, or Black. There were six African American or Black participants and four Mexican participants. The participants were all high school students in Northwest

Arkansas, ranging from grades 9-12. Four of the participants were 12th graders, four were 11th graders, one was a 10th grader, and the final participant was a ninth-grader. The participants in this study ranged in age from 15 – 18. Table 1 shown above details the participant's information.

Analysis

The recordings from interviews were transcribed verbatim using the online transcription service Scribie. Participants were given pseudonyms (Participant 1, Participant 2, etc.) in the transcription process. This assured that each participant remained anonymous, which was communicated to them verbally and through the consent document signed by the participants (Appendix A) and the assent document (Appendix B) signed by their parents.

The researcher used the constant comparative approach to code the participants' responses to all interview questions. This strategy was an efficient way for the researcher to uncover trends in the participants' words without compromising their intent (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). It is important to note that the researcher began this method with an inquiry focus rather than a hypothesis, in accordance with the questions posed throughout the data collecting phase (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

The researcher began the data analysis procedure by reading each interview one by one. The researcher then created a set of themes to summarize each interview (Boeije, 2002). These sets of themes were the beginning of the researcher's process of conceptualizing the data (Boeije, 2002). One purpose for the researcher studying the individual interviews was to examine the consistency of what each participant said throughout his interview (Boeije, 2002). After close examination, the researcher was then

able to code passages the participants shared with an appropriate theme (Boeje, 2002).

The researcher repeated this process with the artifacts.

Findings

Findings for the study were organized by themes relating to each of the study's three research questions. The principal themes are illustrated through the perspectives of the high school male students of color who participated in this phenomenological study. Table 2 below displays the themes and sub-themes in relation to the research questions.

Table 2

Research Questions and Corresponding Themes

Themes & Research Question	Sub-Themes
Descriptions of Relationships With White Teachers	Good
1. How do Northwest Arkansas high school male students of color describe their relationships with their white teachers?	Bad Non existent
Experiences of the high school male student of color	
2. How do Northwest Arkansas high school students of color describe their experiences with their white teachers?	Not Valued as a Person Misconceived Perceptions Disrespect
How can White teachers best serve them?	
3. According to male students of color, how can White teachers best serve them?	Give us a Chance Treat us the same

RQ1: Descriptions of Relationships with White Teachers

Research Question 1 was, “How do Northwest Arkansas high school male students of color describe their relationships with their white teachers?” The purpose of this question is to better understand how high school male students of color describe their relationships with their White teacher in their own words through their lived experiences. Interview question 12 seemed to bring insight to this research question along with some artifacts. When the participants were asked to describe their relationships with their White teachers, eight of the ten participants described their relationships as “good.” The participants did not expound on what they meant by “good”; they just replied with “good.” Participant 4 responded with a simple, “good; they’re cool.” Participant 10 replied to question 12, saying, “I have a pretty good relationship with every single one of my teachers. I think they all like me, and I like all of them, so uh, it’s pretty good.” Participant 8 was the only other participant in addition to participant 10, that provided some type of description when asked about their relationship with their teacher. Participant 8 said, “My relationship with my teachers is pretty, pretty good. I like talking to them. When I need help, I just ask them whatever I need, and yeah, I feel pretty good about my relationship with my teachers.”

Almost all of the participants described their relationships with their teachers as being good. Those participants who did not describe their relationships with their teachers as being good responded with an “I don’t know” response.

RQ2: Experiences of the High School Male Student of Color

Research Question 2 was “How do Northwest Arkansas high school students of color describe their experiences with their White teachers?” The purpose of this question

was to better understand how high school male students of color describe their experiences with their White teachers in their own words. Interview questions 4, 8, 10, 13, and 14 helped provide insight into the research question and some artifacts. When the participants described their experiences with their White teachers, four of the 10 participants described an experience from their elementary or middle school years of education. When participants talked about their experiences with their teachers, they often used words such as “appreciated” and “respected,” or phrases such as “teachers assume” or “they develop stereotypes” and “valued me as a person and made me feel like an equal,” and used words such as “valued,” “appreciated,” and “disrespect.” Of the responses related to the described experiences with their white teachers, three main themes emerged: not being valued as a person, misconceived perceptions, and experience of disrespect. Each of these are described and defined below.

Not Valued as a Person

Participants often described their relationships with their teachers in terms of how teachers made them feel. They often talked about feeling (or needing to feel) valued as a person; this could be a feeling of inclusion or a feeling of respect. This idea of feeling valued as a person is supported in the following responses. Participant 3, a Hispanic male, expressed his feelings in this manner: “They weren’t like really, you know, helping students, so I felt not valued as a student.” Participant 2 shared, “well my best relationship was with my favorite teacher. She is my library teacher; she treats us all as equals. It wasn’t that she treated us good, she just treated us fair.” Participant 1, an African American student, used his artifact to share a story about his relationship with his

teacher and how her belief in him made him feel:

This artifact is a copy of my last test. This test means a lot to me because my teacher allowed me to come in and study with her after school and to come back and retake the test. It's not a perfect score, but it is an A, but it showed me that um when somebody believes in me and values me, that I can excel.

Though participants in the study were in high school, when asked to reflect on their experiences in school, they often harkened back to things that happened in elementary or middle school. Though these experiences happened earlier in their educational journey, the participants in this study could still recall how they felt and how experiences in elementary and middle school made them feel. Participant 2 stated, "I think our teachers disrespected us more during our younger years because they believed that we wouldn't know what they were doing." Participant 1 also shared an elementary experience in the interview, noting "I felt not valued uh when, I was in 3rd grade. I remember it because I had the best short story in the school, and I got no credit for it, especially from my teacher." Many of the participants felt not valued based on how the teacher made them feel. Almost all of the participants revealed to the researcher that they believed that their teacher had developed a perception of them before they could build a relationship with them.

Misconceived Perceptions Due to Skin Color

When participants talked about misconceived perceptions, they described their teachers as already established in their minds what type of person they are, or they have developed a perceived stereotype of them based on their race. Whenever the participants began to explain their experiences with their teachers and how they were perceived,

almost all of the participants stated that the teachers based their perception of them primarily on their skin color. The following responses support how these participants describe their experiences with their White teachers. Participant 4, a Mexican male student, stated, “by the way I look, they just think that I’m bad.” Participant 10, an African American student, said, “they probably think that I’m a knucklehead and umm, umm, that things are probably going to be tough with me because of the way I look.” Participant 2, an African American student, shared his thoughts in this way:

They probably see me and think I am a thug, they see how I look and assume. But when they hear me speak, they know I can talk professional and that I am articulate kind of like I am now.

Participant 2 went further and added, “at my old high school there were a bunch of boujje teachers and kids and they see you and develop stereotypes. They look at me as a failure just because of my skin color.” Participant 10 shared his experience of misconception in this manner:

I’m not saying that all races think bad about Black people, but I think when my teachers see me they underestimate me because I am Black. I kinda like it when people underestimate me and uh, and I do better than what people think I can do, cause at the end of the day, I feel like I got more of a reward and I just feel better about myself.

Experiences of Disrespect

Participants discussed experiences of disrespect as times when teachers would show no appreciation for male students of color efforts in the classroom. The participants talked about how they would like to be recognized when they’ve done a great job in the

classroom (as any student would be). Participant 8 described how he would like to be recognized for his efforts:

When I'm working hard in the classroom doing my work and the teacher refuses to answer my questions. I would just like teachers to show respect and like appreciate me when I'm at least making an effort to learn by asking questions.

Participant 1 also described an experience where he too felt disrespected in the classroom:

I feel disrespected when the teachers ask a question and I raise my hand first and they be telling me to put my hand down. I feel disrespected, because I believed that I had something of value to add to the class, yet I was shut out by my teacher.

Participant 2 stated, "I think our teachers disrespected us more during our younger years, because they believe that we wouldn't know what they were doing." Participant 2 shared the following scenario,

One time when I was in 4th grade Art class, doing a presentation my teacher was just trying to get me up and out of the way, he kind of has a nasty attitude, it kind of made me feel unvalued, because it seemed like he just wanted me out of the way.

Participant 5 described his greatest experience of disrespect when asked about how he feels when he is in the racial minority in his class.

I remember one time when the teacher got on to me because, I was not understanding how to do the assignment because of my language. It is sometimes hard for me to understand English because I don't speak English very well. I am learning though. But this teacher, told me that if I was going to live in America, I

need to learn to speak English. After this, I really didn't care what else the teacher had to say.

Though this next exemplar is not an example of disrespect, Participant 10 shared an experience where he felt respected and appreciated by a teacher:

I feel respected whenever I am recognized by the teacher. When the teacher acknowledges that you are the only student that got the answer right and tells the class, like maybe y'all should listen more like his or this and that, just something like that, basically I feel respected and appreciated when they recognize the good I do.

The researcher believes that it is crucial to provide the above-mentioned exemplar to show that not all participants were negative in their responses concerning classroom experiences.

RQ3: How Can White Teachers Best Serve Male Students of Color?

Research Question 3 was "According to male students of color, how can White teachers best serve them?" The purpose of this question is to better understand what White teachers can do to best support male students of color. Interview questions 2, 5, and 16 seemed to bring the most insight and revelation to what high school male students of color believe that White teachers can do to best support them on their educational journey. When the participants were asked questions regarding how White teachers can best serve them, phrases such as, "give us a chance and treat us as equals" were mentioned throughout the interview process. Of the responses that related to the how

White teachers can best serve high school male students of color two main themes emerged: “give us a chance,” and “treat us as the same;” each are explained below.

Give Us a Chance

When participants talked about “giving us a chance,” they spoke about teachers giving male high school students of color the same opportunities that White students are given. Participant 9, an African American 11th grade student, mentioned the following when asked if he felt that all students receive equal attention from the faculty of the school regardless of race:

It seems to me that my many times my White teachers will go out of their way to help the White students. Really, it seems like most of the time they are gearing more towards the people that don’t look like me. We really just want them to give us a chance too.

Participant 9 also stated, “I feel like they can include us more, like I guess talk to us more directly when we are having classroom discussions.” Participant 6, a Hispanic student, explained how he believed that a lot of his classroom discipline issues occur because he did not feel included in the learning. Participant 6 stated:

Because I didn’t feel included in the discussion, I just took that opportunity to misbehave in class, because I really felt as if the teacher did not want to include me in the discussion, and in a way that is kind of messed up, because it almost seemed like she didn’t want me to learn, because she never would give me an opportunity to contribute to the discussion.

Participant 2 described himself when he explains his live experiences in this manner:

I want teachers to know that I am a very curious student, and I want to learn. I am a hands on person and I don't like the google classroom and all of the other virtual learning stuff. Just give me a chance to be a part of the learning and explore using my hands.

Treat Us the Same

High school male students of color in this study wanted to be recognized as individuals, and they also wanted to be treated the same as any other student in the school. Throughout the interview process in one way or another the participants mentioned about being treated as equals and respected for who they are. When asked about what he experienced in the classroom when he is in the racial minority, Participant 2 described his experiences in this manner:

When I walk into a classroom and I am the racial minority, I be feeling alone. Uh that's just how I be feeling. Is the way the White teachers treat us, it's just different from how they treat the White kids. Especially in my younger years. I felt like those teachers really thought we didn't understand what they were doing.

Participant 8, an African American student (and the only freshman in the study) added, "me personally, I've had a teacher, in fact a couple of teachers, like been, like treating students of color different from students that are White." Though the participants did not use the exact same words when describing their experiences, the theme of being treated the same and given an equal opportunity was clear. Participant 7, one of the four seniors in the study, shared his thoughts of inclusion and being treated the same as he described

his artifact:

This artifact is basically just my basketball. Honestly, most of the time this is the only reason I come to school. I feel as if sometimes, the only time I am relevant to the majority of the teachers here is when I am on the court or have this ball in my hand. I just wish sometimes I was seen as an equal regardless of my skin or whether or not I can play basketball.

Participant 7, an African American male, also shared a memorable experience that occurred in middle school. He described his experience in this manner:

It seems like to me, that when we are in the classroom, most White teachers always single out the Black students when we are talking in class, but they never say anything to the White kids. It seems like, they would never say anything to them unless we mention to them how unfair it was for them to get on to us, but not say anything to the White kids.

During the interview, all participants were asked if they had anything they would like to share with the researcher that the researcher did not ask about. Participant 9 said this:

I just want you to know that in my high school experience, I have not had any Black teachers, they've all been White. I would like to see more Black teachers teaching in education, not only at my school but throughout everywhere.

This response led to a follow-up question from the researcher—"What do you think a Black teacher that looks like you brings to the table?" Participant 9 responded, "uh, they

can be like more understanding and they can take the relationship to a personal level, cause they understand like what we go through and just day-by-day stuff.”

Summary

Chapter four outlined the findings resulting from the analysis of the data collected from the interviews and the participant’s description of their artifacts. The findings were organized by each of the following research questions:

1. How do Northwest Arkansas high school students of color describe their relationship with their White teachers?
2. How do Northwest Arkansas high school male students of color describe their experiences with their White teachers?
3. According to male students of color, how can White teacher’s best serve them?

RQ1 data analysis revealed that the participants’ responses to the interview question indicated that almost all of them described their relationships with their teachers as being “good.” RQ 2 data analysis highlighted three emerging themes that described how high school male students of color describe their experiences with their White teachers: (a) Not Valued as a Person, (b) Misconceived Perceptions Due to Skin Color, and (c) Experiences of Disrespect. A few of the participant’s responses to the interview questions in reference to classroom experience were that of the norm, whereas four of the 10 participants described elementary or middle schools experiences that still impact their thinking and behavior in high school. In addition to the early year descriptions, the experiences of disrespect were shared by the majority of the participants.

Data analysis for Research Question 3 revealed two final additional themes in the study. These themes emerged around what White teachers can do to best serve high

school males students of color: (a) Give Us A Chance. and (b) Treat Us As Equal. The participants interviewed shared that they really want their White teachers to get to know them for who they are and just to treat them as equals.

Chapter V: Conclusion

The purpose of this phenomenological qualitative study was to determine and understand the experiences of high school male students of color. The researcher wanted to understand the phenomenon surrounding the experiences of high school male students of color regarding teacher perceptions and relationships. The researcher sought insight on this topic from a selection of high school male students of color in Northwest Arkansas. In Northwest Arkansas specifically, the minority population is growing rapidly (NWA Council, 2021), but most teachers in the region are White (NWA Council, 2021). In addition to these historical and current demographic differences, research has shown that the teacher-student relationship is significant for student success (McCombs, 2014; Roorda et al., 2011; Wang, Brinkworth, & Eccles, 2013). However, relationships between students of color and White teachers can be strained because teachers may already have a different outlook on these students and assume just because of their race that the student is not at the level of all the other students in the class (Goings & Bianco, 2016).

The data for this study was gathered in a deliberate manner with the objective of hearing the lived experiences of high school male students of color according to their own words. This qualitative study was conducted using the following research questions as the guide:

1. How do Northwest Arkansas high school students of color describe their relationship with their White teachers?
2. How do Northwest Arkansas high school male students of color describe their experiences with their White teachers?
3. According to male students of color, how can White teacher's best serve them?

Summary of Findings

The researcher gathered data informing the research findings in this study from ten individual interviews and artifact descriptions. Ten high school male students of color participated in this study. The males in this study ranged from 9th – 12th grade. Topics discussed and explored through the interviews and artifact descriptions include (a) opinions about teacher motivation; (b) experiences of value in the classroom; (c) description of self-worth; (d) feelings of a silenced voice; (e) perceived attention from faculty regardless of race; (f) race as an advantage or disadvantage in the classroom; (g) experience as a racial minority or majority in the classroom; (h) described relationships with teachers; (i) experiences of respect and disrespect; (j) experiences of appreciation and lack of appreciation; (k) opinions of teacher perceptions.

Data informing the first research question, “How do Northwest Arkansas high school male students of color describe their relationships with their White teachers?” indicated teacher relationships were either (a) good or (b) nonexistent. The findings from the second research question, “How do Northwest Arkansas high school students of color describe their experiences with their White teachers?” suggested students described their experiences related to being (a) not valued as a person, (b) misconceived perceptions due to skin color, and (c) experiences of disrespect. Data from the third research question, “According to male students of color, how can White teachers best serve them?” indicated participants wanted teachers to (a) give us a chance and (b) treat us the same.

Discussion

This phenomenological research study took a glimpse into the lived experiences of a small group of high school male students of color in Northwest Arkansas. The study

offers conclusions that can give insight into this particular demographic who share identities and similar high school experiences. Minority students have a variety of experiences in school, as evidenced by the perceptions and lived experiences described by the students in this study. This section highlights the four key findings of this study: (a) “Good” relationships, but Not all Experiences Were Good; (b) The Early Years Matter; (c) A Cry For Inclusion; and (d) Connections to Self-Determination Theory.

“Good” Relationships, but Not All Experiences Were Good

Students’ positive and negative experiences with their teachers are referred to as teacher-student relationship quality (Baysu et al., 2021). When the participants in this study were asked to describe their relationships with their White teachers, almost all of them responded with “good” without giving an explanation. Only two of the participants responded with “I don’t know.” Despite many students in this study indicating relationships with teachers were “good,” several participants described experiences where they felt disrespected, not valued, or underappreciated. This discrepancy seemed to be shared among participants. This is important because student-teacher relationships truly matter with regard to students’ academic and personal well-being (Phillippo, 2012). Learning happens as a result of relationships (Rogoff et al., 2014). This is important when considering that students in this study reported experiences that did not always reflect “good” relationships with teachers.

Chapman (2014) also described “the lack of strong teacher-student relationships with an array of teachers creates barriers for students of color.” There is an abundance of evidence that suggests that teacher-student relationships matter, whether positive or negative, across numerous outcomes, and they matter for students of all ages (Gehlback,

Brinkworth & Harris, 2012). This is supported by Participant 5's explanation of his classroom experience where his teacher disrespected him for not being able to speak English well. Yet, he still described his relationships with his teachers as good. Previous studies have shown that when positive teacher-student relationships are formed, students can look past negative experiences and still give teachers, in general, a favorable nod. Several participants in this study also described a negative experience yet said their relationship with their teacher was good. A study conducted by Rubie-Davies (2006) noted that compared to low achievers, students perceived that teachers interacted more positively with high-achieving students and had higher expectations. This corresponded with the experiences of Participant 2 when he acknowledged teachers had a lower expectation of him just because of how he looked, assumed he was a thug and believed he was incapable of being articulate.

The Early Years Matter

Though this study interviewed high school male students of color in grades 9 -12, the researcher was intrigued by the number of participants who referenced a memorable experience that occurred prior to their high school experiences. During the interview, when Participant 2 was to describe a time when he felt disrespected in the classroom, it took him a minute—he began to rub his head and think, and he recalled a 4th grade experience where he perceived that his teacher did not respect him or cared about what he had to say. Participant 2 believed that his teacher just wanted to get him out of the way. Participant 2 was a high school senior, and he could recall this incident as it had just happened. Participant 2 and others' responses to the interview questions validated the finding that the early years of education matter and students of color have experiences of

being treated differently even at very young ages. This is in line with what is already known in the literature—the quality of elementary and middle school experiences that students have had will impact their high school experiences (Thompson, 2002). Further, elementary and middle school teachers significantly impact students' school experiences (Hamre & Pianta, 2001).

When Participant 1 described his 3rd grade experience where his teacher failed to recognize him for his excellent work, it gives a personal story to the research that has found that White teachers' lack of culturally relevant practices may be a result of their low expectations for students of color (Chapman, 2014). In this case, Participant 1's teacher failed to understand that culturally when a student of color (in this case, an African American) puts forth an effort to complete a task and does it well, he would have liked to be recognized or appreciated for his work.

Cry For Inclusion

The Federal Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 greatly facilitated the advances in equal educational opportunities; this is particularly true for ESEA because it promised financial support to the states (Standerfer, 2006; West & Daniel, 1965; Wilkerson, 1965). Under ESEA, all students, regardless of race, color, national origin, religion, and sex, had equal access to free and equitable education. Though laws and mandates have been passed throughout history to ensure inclusion and equal educational opportunities, it's ironic that the participants in this study mentioned on multiple occasions phrases such as “give us a chance” or “treat us the same .”It was clear that for the participants in this study, their feelings of wanting to be seen as individuals yet treated the same as others was a cry for

inclusion. For the high school male students of color in this study, inclusion meant feeling valued for who they are, being given the same opportunities as any other student, and being respected enough to be treated fairly. For example, Participant 9 mentioned his experience of his White teacher providing help to the White students in class while letting students who look like him struggle. He went on to say that White teachers should include him more in the classroom discussion by talking to him directly. The feeling of being excluded and left out is supported in the literature where White teachers tend not to include students of color because they find them more difficult to work with. Some White instructors have concluded that Black families are more dysfunctional than White families, which has implications for how teachers interact with students in the classroom (Heinze, 2008; Laughter, 2011).

Relationships between students of color and White teachers can also be strained because teachers may already have a different outlook on these students and assume just because of their race that the student is not at the level of all the other students in the class (Goings & Bianco, 2016). The findings in this study support this because many of the participants stated they felt that teachers had already established misconceived perceptions of them based on their skin color. For example, Participant 4, a Mexican student, shared his experience that teachers assume he is bad just because of how he looks, and Participant 10, an African American student, added that teachers “look at me and think I’m a knucklehead.” African Americans and Latino adolescents often perceive race-based differential treatment from teachers (Tenenbaum & Ruck, 2007). This study's experiences agree with the existing research on African American and Latino adolescents perceiving differential treatment based on their race.

According to Skinner and Belmont (1993), there is a reciprocal association between teacher perceptions and student motivation, and genuinely driven students who were cognitively engaged in classwork were more likely to be greater performers than less motivated and less engaged students. This finding was replicated in this study when Participant 1 described his artifact and how hard he tried on the test because the teacher genuinely believed in him and took the time to value him as a student.

Connections to Self Determination Theory

Self-determination theory (SDT) looks at the psychology of motivation, engagement, and relationships to present a more holistic picture of how students perceive learning, school, and the world around them (Ryan & Deci, 2019). This theory is an appropriate lens to view this study because the outcomes of the study provide a more holistic view of how high school male students of color perceive learning and school. It's also important to understand that though the study consisted of high school male students of color, self-determination theory is not specific to any race, age, or gender; instead, it is universal to all individuals as they traverse the environment in order to achieve three essential human needs: competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Deci et al., 1991).

Participant 7 shared in the study that his motivation for coming to school was his love for basketball, and Participant 2 shared that he is motivated by hands-on activities and is a curious student who really wants to learn. These experiences and others are all examples of the essential human need for competence, which are components of SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2019). SDT states that through autonomy, people need to feel in control of their own feelings, behaviors, and objectives (Cherry, 2021; Deci & Ryan, 2017). Participant 10's response to being treated differently because of his skin color

exemplifies participants in this study exhibiting the essential human need for autonomy. Participant 10 likes when he is underestimated because of his skin color. He uses this to his advantage and exceeds all expectations, not for anyone else but himself.

Further, in SDT, the term “relatedness” refers to people’s need to feel like they belong and are connected to others (Cherry, 2021; Deci & Ryan, 2017). Every participant in this study experienced relatedness, the essential human need, one of the three components. In one way or another, every participant mentioned wanting to be given an opportunity to be included and connected. SDT provided an appropriate lens for why high school male students of color were affected by the themes identified in this study.

Implications

The implications of this research could inform and potentially impact teacher professional development, hiring practices, and recruiting techniques for school districts in Northwest Arkansas that have educators that do not provide adequate representation of their school population. This research could be used by school districts across Arkansas that struggle to meet the needs of high school male students of color. Findings also implicated the need for future research. These implications are each detailed below.

Implications for Practice

The findings of this research study indicated implications for practice in three areas: (a) professional development for teachers in relationship building and unconscious bias; (b) developing a recruitment strategy to get more people of color in the education profession; (c) teach high school male students of color to be intrinsically motivated.

Professional Development for Teachers

This study found that high school male students of color believe many of their teachers have developed an opinion of them before a relationship is even attempted. The participants in this study also mentioned White teachers' inability or desire to include students of color in the learning process and their failure to exhibit the same care and concern they show for White students. Professional development regarding relationship building with students of color and unconscious bias is vital for teachers to help combat these issues. Training in understanding and acknowledging unconscious bias and relationship building will lessen the likelihood that teachers will develop perceptions of male students of color before building a relationship. Further, all teachers must be trained in cultural awareness to help all teachers successfully interact with an increasingly diverse student population (Cherng, 2017), especially when teachers and students do not come from the same background, culture, and race.

Recruitment Strategies to Attract More People of Color to the Education Profession

This study showed that White women still dominate the teacher workforce. This study presented findings of interactions between high school male students of color and their White teachers. District administrators should develop a strategy to recruit more people of color into their districts. Teachers of color are more than just mere role models. Teachers of color are cultural translators and intercessors for students of color, thereby directly contributing to their school achievement (Irvine, 2009). Teacher representation is essential because teachers' gender, race/ethnicity, age, and teaching experience may all impact how they can build relationships with their students (Cherng, 2017).

Teach High School Male Students of Color to be Intrinsically Motivated

The findings in this study highlight the truth that White teachers often develop misconceived perceptions of high school male students of color. Knowing this, male students of color should be taught the skills needed to become intrinsically motivated to meet or exceed all expectations. Self-determination theory provides evidence that intrinsic motivation can help these students succeed despite the (unfortunate and unfair) adverse experiences they will have in school.

Implications for Future Research

More research is needed on this important topic. Researchers should replicate this study to allow for a deeper understanding of the issues and findings outlined above. In order to replicate this study for future research, the scope of the study should be extended to a broader range of participant demographics. For example, this study could be replicated using high school female students of color. The researcher should also replicate it with a younger demographic. Another way to expand the scope of this study is to replicate the study using more data collection methods, such as surveys or focus groups. This study could also be replicated across other districts across the state, region, and country. Researchers who explore this topic and expand on this study should also consider modifying the interview questions to allow for more depth in the participants' responses. More specificity in the questions and asking more clarifying questions within the interviewing process would enable the researcher to obtain greater depth in responses, especially given the age (teens) of the participants in the study.

Chapter Summary

The purpose of this phenomenological qualitative study was to determine and understand the experiences of high school male students of color and their White teachers. The findings of this research are significant because they have the potential to influence teacher education and training, as well as teacher recruitment, increase student intrinsic motivation and functionality. As acknowledged within this chapter, the findings of the study offer conclusions that can give insight into this particular demographic who share identities and similar high school experiences. This phenomenon has impacted minority students in a variety of ways, as evidenced by the perceptions and lived experiences of the students in this study. The most impactful part of this chapter is the four key findings of this study: (a) “Good” relationships, but Not all Experiences Were Good; (b) The Early Years Matter; (c) A Cry For Inclusion; and (d) Self-Determination Theory.

Implications for practice were identified in three areas: (a) professional development for teachers in relationship building and unconscious bias; (b) developing a recruitment strategy to get more people of color in the education profession; (c) teaching high school male students of color to be intrinsically motivated. Finally, there were recommendations for future implications and implementations: (a) expanding the scope of study to address a more significant representation; (b) changing questions to allow for deeper inquiry; (c) expanding the data collection tools to include surveys and focus groups. This study should be replicated for use in school districts where teacher representation does not align with student demographics.

References

- Alvarez, R. (1986). *The lemon grove incident - san diego history center*. San Diego History Center | San Diego, CA | Our City, Our Story.
<https://sandieghistory.org/journal/1986/april/lemongrove/>
- Anderson, J. D., & Span, C. M. (2016). History of education in the news: The legacy of slavery, racism, and contemporary black activism on campus. *History of Education Quarterly*, 56(4), 646-656. <https://10.1111/hoeq.12214>
- Baysu, G., Hillekens, J., Phalet, K., & Deaux, K. (2020). How diversity approaches affect ethnic minority and majority adolescents: Teacher–student relationship trajectories and school outcomes. *Child Development*, 92(1), 367–387.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/cdev.13417>
- Bowman, K. L. (2001). The new face of school desegregation. *Duke Law Journal*, 50(6), 1751–1808. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1373047>
- Bryant, A.C., Triplett, N.P., Watson, M.J., & Lewis, C.W. (2017). The browning of american public schools: Evidence of increasing racial diversity and the implications for policy, practice, and study outcomes. *The Urban Review*, 49, 263-278. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11256-017-0400-6>
- Burgess, S. & Greaves, E. (2013). Test scores, subjective assessment, and stereotyping of ethnic minorities. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 31(3), 535-576.
<https://doi.org/10.1086/669340>
- Carter, P. L. (2013). In Welner K. G. (Ed.), *Closing the opportunity gap what america must do to give every child an even chance*. Cary : Oxford University Press, USA.

- Chapman, T. K. (2014). Is integration a dream deferred? students of color in majority white suburban schools. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 83(3), 311-326.
<https://10.7709/jnegroeducation.83.3.0311>
- Cherng, H.-Y. (2017). If they think i can: Teacher bias and youth of color expectations and achievement. *Social Science Research*, 66, 170–186.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssresearch.2017.04.001>
- Cherng, H. S., & Halpin, P. F. (2016). The importance of minority teachers: Student perceptions of minority versus white teachers. *Educational Researcher*, 45(7), 407-420. <https://10.3102/0013189X16671718>
- Conner, J.O. & Pope, D.C. (2013). Not just robo-students: Why full engagement matters and how schools can promote it. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 42, 1426-1442. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-013-9948-y>
- Cornelius-White, J. (2007). Learner-centered teacher-student relationships are effective: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 77(1), 113-143.
<https://doi.org/10.3102/003465430298563>
- Crosnoe, R., Johnson, M.K., & Elder, G.H., Jr. (2004). Intergenerational bonding in school: The behavioral and contextual correlates of student-teacher relationships. *Sociology of Education*, 77(1), 60-81.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/003804070407700103>
- Dee, T.S. (2015). Social identity and achievement gaps: Evidence from an affirmation intervention. *Journal of Research on Educational Effectiveness*, 8, 149-168.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/19345747.2014.906009>
- Deci, E.L., Vallerand, R.J., Pelletier, L.G., & Ryan, R.M. (1991). Motivation and

- education: The self-determination perspective. *Educational Psychologist*, 26(3 & 4), 325-346. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep2603&4_6
- Education for our times. (n.d.). The Human Journey. <https://humanjourney.us/health-and-education-in-the-modern-world/education-in-the-modern-world-solving-for-the-future/>
- Fairclough, A. (2004). The costs of brown: Black teachers and school integration. *Journal of American History*, 91(1), 43. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3659612>
- Fairclough, A. (2007). *A class of their own black teachers in the segregated south*. Cambridge, Mass. : Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.
- Farrokhhi, F., & Mahmoudi-Hamidabad, A. (2012). Rethinking convenience sampling: Defining quality criteria. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(4). <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.2.4.784-792>
- Fenton, S. (2013). “Great teaching in the 21st century?: - It’s a partnership ... a shared journey of growth and learning’. *Ethos*, 21(3), 13–17. <https://search.informit.org/doi/10.3316/informit.631455318984016>
- Frankenberg, E., & Debray, E. H. (2011). *Integrating schools in a changing society new policies and legal options for a multiracial generation*. Chapel Hill : University of North Carolina Press.
- Gehlbach, H., Brinkworth, M. E., & Harris, A. D. (2012). Changes in teacher–student relationships. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82(4), 690-704.
- Given, L. M. (2008). *The sage encyclopedia of qualitative research methods* (1st ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for*

- qualitative research. New York, NY: Aldine De Gruyter.
- Gliner, J. A., Morgan, G. A., & Leech, N. L. (2017). *Research methods in applied settings: An integrated approach to design and analysis, third edition* (3rd ed.). Routledge.
- Goings, R. B., & Bianco, M. (2016). It's hard to be who you don't see: An exploration of black male high school students' perspectives on becoming teachers. *The Urban Review*, 48(4), 628-646. <https://10.1007/s11256-016-0371-z>
- Griffin, A., & Tackie, H. (2017). Through our eyes: Perspectives from black teachers. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 98(5), 36-40. <https://10.1177/0031721717690363>
- Guba, G.G. & Lincoln, Y.S. (1998). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.), *The landscape of qualitative research: Theories and issues* (1st ed., pp.195-219). Sage Publications, Inc.
- Hamre, B. K., & Pianta, R. C. (2001). Early teacher-child relationships and the trajectory of children's school outcomes through eighth grade. *Child Development*, 72(2), 625-638. <https://libcatalog.atu.edu:443/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=EJ635749&site=ehost-live&scope=site>
- Hamre, B.K. & Pianta, R.C. (2005). Can instructional and emotional support in the first-grade classroom make a difference for children at risk of school failure? *Child Development*, 76(5), 949-967. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2005.00889.x>
- Hattie, J. (2008). *Visible Learning: A Synthesis of Over 800 Meta-Analyses Relating to Achievement*. New York: Routledge.
- Heinze, P. (2008). Let's talk about race, baby. How a White professor teaches White

- students about White privilege and racism. *Multicultural Education*, 16(1), 2-13.
<http://www.caddogap.com/periodicals.shtml>
- Hewitt-Taylor, J. (2001). Use of constant comparative analysis in qualitative research. *Nursing Standard*, 15(42), 39–42. <https://doi.org/10.7748/ns2001.07.15.42.39.c3052>
- Irvine, J. J. (1989). Beyond role models: An examination of cultural influences on the pedagogical perspectives of black teachers. *Null*, 66(4), 51-63.
<https://10.1080/01619568909538662>
- Jeffrey Cornelius-White. (2007). Learner-centered teacher-student relationships are effective: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 77(1), 113-143.
<https://10.3102/003465430298563>
- Jordan, W. J. (2010). Defining equity: Multiple perspectives to analyzing the performance of diverse learners. *Review of Research in Education*, 34(1), 142-178.
<https://10.3102/0091732X09352898>
- Kamenetz, A. (2016). *The test: Why our schools are obsessed with standardized testing – but you don't have to be*. New York, NY: Public Affairs.
- Kaufman, P. & Bradbury, D. (1992). Characteristics of at-risk students in NELS:88. *National Center for Educational Statistics*, Statistical Analysis Report, August 1992. <https://nces.ed.gov/pubs92/92042.pdf>
- Kennedy, S. (1959/1990). *Jim Crow guide: The way it was*. Boca Raton, FL: Florida Atlantic University Press.
- Korstjens, I., & Moser, A. (2018). Series: Practical guidance to qualitative research. part 4: Trustworthiness and publishing. *The European Journal of General Practice*, 24(1), 120-124. <https://10.1080/13814788.2017.1375092>

- Kumar, R., Karabenick, S. A., & Burgoon, J. N. (2015). Teachers' implicit attitudes, explicit beliefs, and the mediating role of respect and cultural responsibility on mastery and performance-focused Instructional practices. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 107*(2), 533–545. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0037471>
- Lasker-Scott, T. (2015). *The hard road: The educational pursuits and participation of socioeconomically disadvantaged African American adults*. [Doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia].
- Laughter, J. (2011). Rethinking assumptions of demographic privilege: Diversity among White pre-service teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 27*(1), 43-50. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2010.07.001>
- Long, H. B., & Ashford, M. L. (1976). Self-directed inquiry as a method of continuing education in colonial america. *The Journal of General Education (University Park, Pa.)*, 28(3), 245-255.
- Lutz, M. (2017). The hidden cost of brown v. board: African american educators' resistance to desegregating schools. *Online Journal of Rural Research & Policy*, 12(4). <https://doi.org/10.4148/1936-0487.1085>
- Madrid, E. M. (2008). The unheralded history of the lemon grove desegregation case. *Multicultural Education (San Francisco, Calif.)*, 15(3), 15.
- Markowitz, L. & Puchner, L. (2014). Racial diversity in the schools: A necessary evil? *Multicultural Perspectives, 16*(2), 72-78. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15210960.2014.889568>
- McCombs, B.L. (2014). Using a 360 degree assessment model to support learning to

- learn. In Deakin-Crick, R., Small, T., & Stringher, C. (eds.), *Learning to Learn for All: Theory, Practice and International Research: A Multidisciplinary and Lifelong Perspective*, 241-270. London: Routledge.
- McNeeley, C. (2005). Connection to school. In K.A. Moore & L.H. Lippman (Eds.), *What Do Children Need to Flourish: Conceptualizing and Measuring Indicators of Positive Development*, 289-303. New York: Springer.
- NBER. (2019). As southern schools desegregated, share of black teachers declined. National bureau of economic research.
<https://www.nber.org/digest/sep19/southern-schools-desegregated-share-black-teachers-declined>
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2013). Digest of education statistics, number and percentage distribution of teachers in public and private elementary and secondary schools, by selected teacher characteristics: Selected years, 1987-88 through 2011-12. https://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d13/tables/dt13_209.10.asp
- National Commission on Excellence in Education. (1983). A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform. *The National Commission on Excellence in Education*. Washington, D.C.: United States.
- Nieto, S. (2010). Language, culture, and teaching: Critical perspectives (2nd ed.). Routledge.
- Norum, K.E. (2008). Artifacts. In L. Givens (Ed.), *The sage encyclopedia of qualitative research methods* [Google Books Edition version] Retrieved from https://www.google.com/books/edition/_/byh1AwAAQBAJ?hl=en&gbpv=0
- Oakley, D., Stowell, J. & Logan, J.R. (2009). The impact of desegregation on Black

- teachers in the metropolis, 1970-2000. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 32(9), 1576-1598. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01419870902780997>
- Ogbu, J. U. (1990). Minority education in comparative perspective. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 59(1), 45. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2295291>
- Patton, M. Q. (2015). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods: Integrating theory and practice* (4th ed.). SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Patton, M. Q. (1987). *How to use qualitative methods in evaluation*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Patton, M.Q. (1990). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Payne, C.M. (2008). *So Much Reform, So Little Change: The Persistence of Failure in Urban Schools*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.
- Phillippo, K. (2012). “You’re trying to know me”: Students from nondominant groups respond to teacher personalism. *The Urban Review*, 44(4), 441-467. <https://10.1007/s11256-011-0195-9>
- Plessy v. Ferguson, 163 U.S. 537 (1896). <https://tile.loc.gov/storage-services/service/ll/usrep/usrep163/usrep163537/usrep163537.pdf>
- Pernell, Brence, (2021) *The Thirteenth Amendment and Equal Educational Opportunity*. NYU School of Law, Public Law Research Paper No. 20-39, <http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3539120>
- Reeve, J. (2012). A self-determination theory perspective on student engagement. In

- Christenson, S.L. et al. (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Student Engagement*, 149-172. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-2018-7_7
- Roorda, D. L. (2011). *The influence of affective teacher-student relationships on students' school engagement and achievement: A meta-analytic approach*<https://nfo:doi/>
- Roorda, D. L., Koomen, H. M. Y., Spilt, J. L., & Oort, F. J. (2011). The influence of affective teacher-student relationships on students' school engagement and achievement: A meta-analytic approach. *Review of Educational Research*, 81, 493-529.
- Rosenthal, J. O. (1957). Negro teachers' attitudes toward desegregation. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 26(1), 63–71. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2293328>
- Roth, I. M., & Roth, W. F. (2015). *Redefining U.S. education: A systematic approach to teaching*. Taylor and Francis. <https://10.1201/b18691>
- Rubie-Davies, C. M. (2006). Teacher expectations and student self-perceptions: Exploring relationships. *Psychology in the Schools*, 43(5), 537–552. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.20169>
- Rury, J. L. (1983). The New York African free school, 1827-1836: Conflict over community control of Black education. *Phylon*, 44(3), 187-197.
- Ryan, R.M., & Deci, E.L. (2019). Brick by brick: The origins, development, and future of self-determination theory. In A.J. Elliot (Ed.), *Brick by brick: The origins, development, and future of self-determination theory*. Cambridge, MA: Elsevier. <https://doi.org/10.1016/bs.adms.2019.01.001>
- Saldana, J. (2011). *Fundamentals of qualitative research (understanding qualitative research)* (1st ed.). Oxford University Press.

- Sass, E. (2021). *American Educational history: A hypertext timeline*. American Educational History Timeline. Retrieved March 8, 2022, from <https://www.eds-resources.com/educationhistorytimeline.html>
- Schutt, R. K. (2018). *Investigating the social world: The process and practice of research* (9th ed.). SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Sheu, S.-J., Wei, I.-L., Chen, C.-H., Yu, S., & Tang, F.-I. (2009). Using snowball sampling with nurses to understand medication administration errors. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, 18(4), 559–569. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2702.2007.02048.x>
- Spilt, J. L., Koomen, H. M. Y., & Thijs, J. T. (2011). Teacher wellbeing: The importance of Teacher—Student relationships. *Educational Psychology Review*, 23(4), 457-477. <https://10.1007/s10648-011-9170-y>
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques* (2nd ed.). SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Sue, D., Capodilupo, C. M., Torino, G. C., Bucceri, J. M., Holder, A. B., Nadal, K. L., & Esquilin, M. (2007). Racial microaggressions in everyday life: Implications for clinical practice. *American Psychologist*, 62(4), 271–286. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066x.62.4.271>
- Suen, L. W., Huang, H., & Lee, H. (2014). A comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *Hu Li Za Zhi*, 61(3), 105-111. <https://10.6224/JN.61.3.105>
- Tenenbaum, H. R., & Ruck, M. D. (2007). Are teachers' expectations different for racial

minority than for european american students? a meta-analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 99(2), 253–273. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.99.2.253>

Thompson, G. L. (2002). *African-american teens discuss their schooling experiences*. ABC-CLIO.

U.S. Census Bureau. (n.d.). *A century of population growth, from the first census of the United States to the twelfth, 1790-1900: XIV-statistics of slaves*. U.S. Department of Education, National Center of Education Statistics. Washington DC: U.S. Government Printing Office. Retrieved from <http://www2.census.gov/prod2/decennial/documents/00165897ch14.pdf>

U.S. Census Bureau. (2015). *Projections of the size and composition of the U.S. population: 2014 to 2060: Estimates and projections*. Washington, DC.

U.S. Census Bureau. (2019). *Quickfacts: United States*. <https://www.census.gov/quickfacts/fact/table/US/PST045219>

Valli, L. (1995). The dilemma of race: Learning to be color blind and color conscious. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 46(2), 120–129. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487195046002006>

Wang, M. T., Brinkworth, M., & Eccles, J. (2013). Moderating effects of teacher-student relationship in adolescent trajectories of emotional and behavioral adjustment. *Developmental Psychology*, 49(4), 690-705. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0027916>

Wang, M. & Eccles, J.S. (2012). Social support matters: Longitudinal effects of social

- support on three dimensions of school engagement from middle to high school. *Child Development*, 83(3), 877-895. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2012.01745.x>
- Wang, M.T. & Holcombe, R. (2010). Adolescents' perceptions of school environment, engagement, and academic achievement in middle school. *American Educational Research Journal*, 47, 633-662. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831209361209>
- West, E. H., & Daniel, W. G. (1965). Programs in the south. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 34(3), 310. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2294202>
- Wilkerson, D. A. (1965). School integration, compensatory education and the civil rights movement in the north. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 34(3), 300-309. <https://10.2307/2294201>
- Williams, H. A. (2005). *Self-taught: African american education in slavery and freedom*. Chapel Hill: Univ. of North Carolina Press. https://10.5149/9780807888971_williams
- Woodson, C. G. (1915). *The education of the Negro prior to 1861: A history of the education of the colored people of the United States from the beginning of slavery to the civil war*. New York, NY: G.P. Putnam's Sons
- Wong, C. A., Eccles, J. S., & Sameroff, A. (2003). The influence of ethnic discrimination and ethnic identification on African American adolescents' school and socioemotional adjustment. *Journal of Personality*, 71, 1197-1232. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-6494.7106012>
- Zhao, Y., & Gearin, B. (2017). *Imagining the future of global education: Dreams and nightmares*. Routledge.

Appendix

Appendix A: IRB Letter of Approval



OFFICE OF RESEARCH AND SPONSORED PROGRAMS

1509 North Boulder Avenue
Administration, Room 207
Russellville, AR 72801

☎ 479-880-4327

🌐 www.atu.edu

November 24, 2021

To Whom It May Concern:

The Arkansas Tech University Institutional Review Board has approved the IRB application for Shawn T Hinkle's proposed research, entitled "Students of Color Perceptions of Relationships with White Teachers." The Institutional Review Board used an expedited review procedure under 45 CFR 46.110 (7).

Please note that in the event that any of the parameters of the study change, the researcher may be required to submit an amended application.

Please proceed with your research. We wish you success with this endeavor.

Sincerely,

Rene Couture

Rene Couture, Ph.D.
Institutional Review Board
Arkansas Tech University