# Teaching Diversity: An Exploration of the Experience of Instructors Teaching Diversity Courses to Mental Health Professionals

by

Mary Anne Messer

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of
Auburn University
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Auburn, Alabama
August 6, 2022

Keywords: diversity, multiculturalism, self-care, student incivility, supervisor support, burnout



Approved by

Marilyn Cornish, Chair, Associate Professor of Counseling Psychology, Special Education, Rehabilitation, and Counseling
Jamie Carney, Professor of Counselor Education, Special Education, Rehabilitation, and Counseling
Alfredo Palacios, PhD, Assistant Professor of Counselor Education, Counseling and Human Services, University of Colorado
Hannah Baggett, PhD, Associate Professor of Research Methods, Educational, Foundations, Leadership, and Technology

Abstract

The current study explored the experiences of instructors who teach diversity/multiculturism classes to students training to become a mental health professional. More specifically, the current study examined the reported experiences of student incivility, reported engagement in self-care, reported perceived supervisor support, and subsequent reported experience of burnout. The current study sought to understand these relationships and how they might differ across race and ethnicity at the group level.

Participants were recruited from accredited counseling, psychology, and social work program directors via email and through various email-based listservs that are specific to those teaching or interested in diversity and inclusion (e.g., DIVERSGRAD). A demographics questionnaire was used to assess important information about the sample and was used to account for demographic variables in the analysis. The measure for student incivility was the Perceived Supervisor Support (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). The measure for self-care was a measure created specifically for this study with the purpose of being culturally responsive to the construct of self-care. The measure for supervisor support was the Perceived Supervisor Support (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). Finally, the measure for burnout was Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey (MBI-ES; Maslach et al.,1996).

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to conduct the analyses. A hierarchical linear regression analysis was used in the current study to test the hypotheses. The results suggest that experiencing greater student incivility statistically predicted greater reported levels of burnout. Receiving more reported supervisor support statistically predicted less reported burnout. Engaging in more self-care predicted less burnout, however, incivility moderated the

relationship between self-care and burnout. Specifically, this relationship was only found for instructors in low incivility classrooms. For instructors in high incivility classrooms, greater engagement in self-care was not significantly associated with reported burnout. It was also true that instructors of Color reported higher levels of burnout than instructors that did not identify as people of Color. These results provide descriptive information to individuals in higher education regarding experiences with burnout and highlight the importance of structural support for those instructors teaching courses on diversity.

Acknowledgments

So many people helped me directly and indirectly to my working toward this milestone and I'd like to thank some of them now. Dr. Baggett, Dr. Carney, Dr. Palacios, thank you for your guidance and support throughout this process. I appreciate your willingness to spend your time and energy helping me improve not only this manuscript but my understanding of research. Dr. Bannon, thank you for your guidance in making this manuscript stronger. To my chair, Dr. Cornish, thank you for your work mentoring me. Your patience and encouragement (along with some laughs) made this process achievable. I'd like to thank the department of Special Education, Rehabilitation, and Counseling for funding my dissertation through the SERC seed grant. I'd also like to thank Dr. Kluck for helping me find a research area that I am passionate about. Dr. Pipes, thank you for your friendship. I am unable to articulate what having you in my life has meant for me.

I'd like to thank my friends who have offered me kindness and companionship. To Christine, thank you for holding my hand at every stage of degree progression. To my brother, Winston, thank you for being my guidepost and for believing in me even when my own belief wavered. I love you. To my parents, Tom and Carol Messer, thank you for your love, support, and most especially for growing with me. I'd like to thank all the people who helped shape me in small and large ways who have passed away, specifically my grandparents Bobby and Ophelia Harmon. Finally, I'd like to thank those who took the time to participate in my study. I am so grateful that you offered up your time, energy, and insights.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Abbreviations

| | |
|---|---|
| APA | American Psychological Association |
| CACAREP | Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs |
| COAMFTE | Commission on Accreditation for Marriage and Family Therapy Education |
| MBI | Maslach Burnout Inventory |
| MPCAC | Masters in Psychology and Counseling Accreditation Council |

# Chapter I

# Introduction

## Statement of the Problem

### *Diversity Courses*

In higher education, diversity courses exist that focus on learning about different social groups, understanding privilege and oppression, and facilitating self-reflection (Adams & Bell, 2016; Brown, 2016; Sue, 2015). At the graduate level, diversity courses are especially relevant to those training to become mental health professionals due to the need for such individuals to have the knowledge, awareness, and skills to work with diverse populations (Sue & Sue, 2016). The need for such a skill set pervades across different work settings mental health professionals can find themselves in (e.g., counseling, teaching, consulting, supervising). Taking a diversity course is one small step in this journey (Shallcross, 2013). Additionally, engaging in education around diversity and multiculturalism is typically required by training programs for mental health professionals.

Taking a course on diversity allows students to face their worldview (Watt, 2007) and privilege (Marger, 2015), engage with others' stories (Rupert & Falk, 2018), and—specific to race and ethnicity—engage in race talk (Sue, 2015). The myriad of goals for diversity courses occurs through discussion (Rupert & Falk, 2018; Sue, 2015), experiential learning (Pugh, 2014), and critical thinking (Scheid & Vasko, 2014). There are also a number of barriers standing in the way of successful diversity courses. Such topics can become emotional for both students and instructors (Miller, 2019). Many people in the United States have been raised to see such topics as inappropriate or impolite to discuss (Sue, 2015; Tummala-Nara, 2009). Students often experience fear of judgement both from the instructor and each other (Barnett, 2010; Tummala-

Nara, 2009). These experiences of fear likely differ across race and ethnicity (Sue et al., 2011; Sue, 2015) and may differ across other marginalized identities. For example, white students might be afraid of facing their own implicit bias (Schied & Vasko, 2014) or guilt (Sue, 2015), while students of Color may be afraid of sharing their experiences in the presence of white students, who may be considered untrustworthy (Sue, 2015). Despite the challenging nature of creating a safe classroom climate for diversity courses, it is necessary for the growth promoting activities (Sue et al., 2011).

### *Instructor Experiences*

Given the arduous nature of teaching diversity courses, a complicated relationship with facilitating these courses makes sense. Although diversity courses are of high importance, expertise and interest are not always givens (Varghese, 2016). Thus, already, some instructors may be struggling to keep up; however, diversity courses in particular also require a level of emotional labor that is not present in most other courses (Miller, 2019). Instructors of diversity courses frequently find themselves tending to emotional wounds both inside and outside of the classroom (Miller, 2019). Furthermore, instructors may feel the burden of their responsibility as gatekeepers in their respective professions while teaching (Brown-Rice & Furr, 2015; Rapp, Moody, Stewart, n.d.). Students in diversity courses may reveal problematic attitudes or behaviors, which may indicate concern for their fit with the mental health profession (Brown-Rice & Furr, 2015).

An additional element to teaching diversity courses for instructors of Color is the racism they experience in higher education. Instructors of Color are less likely to be seen as competent experts in their field (Turner et al. 2008) and more likely to have the content they teach be attributed to bias (Garner, 2008). More specifically, Black instructors fear being seen as

intimidating and mean and worry that students will discredit their success by assuming their marginalized identity is the reason they were hired (Sue, 2015). Managing the range of emotions in the room can be more challenging when an instructor is part of a marginalized community, due to such internal experiences (Garner, 2008; Sue et al., 2011). Given that teaching in all forms can result in burnout (Jiang et al.2016) and that instructors in higher education appear to be particularly vulnerable already (Malesic, 2016), the added complex elements of teaching a diversity course at the graduate level amplify a task that is already fraught with difficulties.

### *Burnout*

Burnout is the body's reaction to enduring chronic stressors at work (Maslach & Leiter, 2017). The three themes that summarize burnout are: imbalanced work, the problem is chronic, and conflict exists (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998). Teaching, regardless of the course, can result in burnout that impacts student outcomes (Jiang et al., 2016). Not only does burnout result in poor student outcomes, but it also results in poor personal outcomes, such as physical and emotional health (Albieri et al., 2017). More specifically, burnout can lead to various maladaptive coping strategies, such as smoking and drinking, which impact health (Maslach, 2001). Burnout can also impact the personal relationships of those experiencing it, both at work and at home (Maslach, 2017). Experiencing burnout may cause an instructor to only do the bare minimum and think poorly of their students (Maslach et al., 1996).

## Variables Impacting Burnout

### *Student Incivility*

Although not studied specifically within diversity courses, instructor burnout is associated with experiences of student incivility (Jiang et al., 2016). Student incivility can be difficult to define due to the subjective nature of the construct (Rowland, 2009), as what one

instructor considers an uncivil behavior another instructor might not. Additionally, what may seem uncivil in one classroom may not seem uncivil in another classroom. For example, when confronted with race talk in the classroom, white students may display their defensiveness by leaving the room (Sue, 2015) which in another class, may be seen as a student getting bodily needs met (e.g., going to the bathroom, getting water). However, it is clear that student incivility exists on a spectrum ranging from less serious behaviors (e.g., tardiness) to extremely serious behaviors (e.g., harassment).

While some argue the changing in generational values can be attributed to the rise in incivility (Twenge et al.,2008), others argue for the role instructors play (Goodboy & Bolkan, 2009; Sterner et al.,2015). Instructors lacking competence or displaying apathy or perceived laziness may contribute to incivility (Goodboy & Bolkan, 2009). Moreover, these behaviors could be the result of experiencing burnout.

Less research exists studying graduate student incivility, although some does exist. Within a counselor education graduate student population, behaviors such as coming late to class, coming unprepared, eating during class, and having side conversations were the most common (Sterner et al., 2015). When considering the more serious end of the student incivility spectrum, the more common behaviors among this population were engaging with the faculty in an aggressive manner, making vulgar statements, coming to class under the influence of substances, harassing faculty and students both inside and outside the classroom, and belittling other students (Sterner et al., 2015).

### *Self-Care*

One construct that can act as a buffer against the experience of burnout is self-care. Self-care refers to an engagement in a practice that allows individuals to take stock of their needs, the

demands placed on them by outside parties, and then to engage in behaviors to help them meet their own needs and the needs of others (Sünbül et al.,2018). Although self-care may have fallen a buzzword worthy fate (Boyle, 2017), the construct has roots in social justice and activism (Kisner, 2017; Mirk, 2016; Som, 2019). For example, two prominent social justice activists, Angela Davis and Audre Lorde, both spoke about the importance of self-care and how it relates to activism (Berglund Center, 2014; Kisner, 2017 Lorde, 1988).

Engaging in self-care is an ethical imperative in the mental health profession (Barnett & Cooper, 2009). People in the mental health field may already be vulnerable to burnout given what characteristics drew them to the field (Barnett et al.,2007) and through the work they do, face additional vulnerabilities such as vicarious trauma and compassion fatigue (Baker, 2003). Self-care and burnout are negatively correlated (Santana & Fouad, 2017). Engagement in self-care is associated with less stress, negative affect, anxiety, and more self-compassion and positive affect (Shapiro et al.,2007).

***Supervisor Support***

Both faculty who are women and faculty who are people of Color report experiencing discrimination on campus (Stolzenberg et al., 2019). Faculty of Color report feeling less supported by their institution than white faculty and report that having some level of backing from their institution would be helpful in navigating their experiences (Sue et al., 2011). Perceived supervisor support, a construct that exists in the organizational literature, contributes to employee behavior and satisfaction (Eisenberger et al.,2002). Perceived supervisor support is associated with less withdrawal behaviors (e.g., turnover, absenteeism; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Kottke & Sharafinksi, 1988). Researchers found that supported employees can be more innovative and creative—which would serve a diversity instructor well—and that they can be

more attentive and effortful (Huhtala & Parzefall, 2007). Perceived supervisor support is associated with all three dimensions of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment (Campbell et al.,2013). In other words, those who are supported are less likely to be experiencing burnout.

**Utility of Study**

The author was unable to find any study to date that examined the experiences of instructors of diversity courses in relation to burnout and the stressors (i.e., student incivility) and protective factors (i.e., self-care, supervisor support) impacting burnout. The current study seeks to do that while also exploring how these relationships might vary across race and ethnicity, given that instructors of Color may be carrying more burden in diversity classrooms (Miller, 2019). The results of this study could directly inform instructors on how they can better protect themselves through self-care and universities on how they can better support their instructors. Given that a better understanding could lead to prevention of burnout among instructors, the possible benefits include improved health of instructors, better quality instruction and better student outcomes (Hoglund et al.,2015), which has positive ramifications for those training to become mental health professionals. Following this logic, graduate students would be better equipped to enter the helping profession with more multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills.

**Hypotheses**

It was hypothesized that after accounting for several demographic variables (gender, type of institution, type of teaching position, hours worked, and course format), instructors of Color would report a greater degree of burnout than would white instructors. It was hypothesized that student incivility would be a unique positive predictor of burnout, after accounting demographic

variables. It was hypothesized that both supervisor support and self-care would be unique negative predictors of burnout, after accounting for demographic variables and student incivility. It was hypothesized that after accounting for the main effects and relevant two-way interactions, student incivility, instructor ethnicity, and supervisor support would interact to predict burnout. Finally, it was hypothesized that after accounting for the main effects and relevant two-way interactions, student incivility, ethnicity, and self-care would interact to predict burnout.

## Definitions

### *Burnout*

For the current study, burnout referred a "psychological syndrome that involves a prolonged response to chronic interpersonal stressors on the job" (Maslach & Leiter, 2017, p. 160). Burnout was measured through the use of the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey (MBI-ES; Maslach, 1976). The MBI-ES is a revised version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory—the gold standard for assessing burnout—that is used specifically for educators. A continuous total score was used where higher scores indicate more reported burnout.

### *Self-Care*

For the current study, self-care referred to a process of assessing one's needs and engaging in specific strategies to meet those needs, resulting in improved well-being (Baker, 2003; Cook-Cottone & Guyker, 2017; Dorociak et al., 2017). A six-item measure created by the author was used. Participants were asked to provide information on what activities they consider to be self-care and then answer questions using a Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (not true at all) to 6 (completely true) regarding their utilization of self-care (e.g., "I am satisfied with my level of self-care; I engage in regular self-care behaviors").

### *Student Incivility*

For the current study, student incivility referred to "any action that interferes with a harmonious and cooperative learning atmosphere in the classroom (Feldmann, 2001, p. 137). This was measured through the Faculty Perceptions of Classroom Incivility (FPCI; McKinne & Martin, 2010). For the purposes of the current study, only the portion assessing the frequency of 20 of the listed behaviors was used. Additionally, due to the COVID-19 Pandemic, an option of "N/A due to course format was added and two write-in options were provided. Mean score calculation was used, where higher scores indicated more reported experiences with student incivility.

***Supervisor Support***

For the current study, supervisor support referred to "general views concerning the degree to which supervisors value [the instructors'] contributions and care about [the instructors'] well being" (Eisenberger et al., 2002, p. 565). Supervisor support was measured through Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS; Kottke & Sharafinksi, 1988) self-report measure, using the total score as an indication of supervisor support. Higher scores indicate more reported support.

***Racial and Ethnic Identity at Two Levels***

Participants were asked if they identify as a person of Color. This self-identification was used in the regression model so the researchers can explore group level differences between instructors who identified as people of Color and instructors who did not identify as people of Color. Collapsing nuanced heterogenous information into just two categories has limitations (Strunk & Hoover, 2019), as it requires a diverse group of individuals to fall into only one of two categories, thereby flattening important variance. However, this technique is used at times to write about and conduct research on important "dynamics that occur at the group level" (Sensoy

& DiAngelo, 2012, p. 97). Mayorga-Gallo remarks that "it is well-established by sociologists that race is a social system that shapes group-level outcomes" (Mayorga-Gallo, 2019, p. 1791). This variable should not be confused for examining differences across race and ethnicity nor used to imply that race or ethnicity causes any of the outcomes explored. Additional studies are needed to explore the root of any differences (e.g., racism, racial microaggressions, etc…).

# Chapter II

## Literature Review

Interest in a commitment to diversity and inclusion within higher education fluctuates, at least in part due to the demand it places on individuals to do the difficult work associated with such a commitment (Lam, 2018). Bell (2016) defines diversity as "differences among social groups such as ethnic heritage, class, age, gender, sexuality, ability, religion, and nationality" (p. 3). Some take issue with the term "diversity," offering the perspective that it puts the focus on individuals rather than necessary institutional change (Ahmed, 2012). Despite the problems with the term, using "diversity" within higher education does allow changes to find a "way of getting through institutional and individual defenses" (Ahmed, 2012, p. 73). One way that higher education participates in the ebb and flow of commitment is through the offering of diversity courses (Brown, 2016). Such courses exist to challenge students' worldviews and expand their horizons (Brown, 2016). In diversity courses, a common goal is to discover, analyze, and challenge oppression (Adams & Bell, 2016). This would involve understanding the system that reinforces hierarchy across different diverse groups, such as racism, sexism, and heterosexism (Adams & Bell, 2016), which brings the constructs of privilege and oppression into the discussion.

Although frequently the focus of diversity courses stays at the undergraduate level, many graduate programs have a vested interest in the goal of educating students on diversity. It is especially important for those training to become mental health professionals to develop cultural competency, which includes gaining the knowledge, awareness, and skills necessary to work with marginalized communities (Sue & Sue, 2016). Mental health professionals from a variety of programs enter the workforce and must be prepared to work with individuals from a wide variety

of backgrounds. Regardless of the type of career the students decide to pursue, the ability to work with clients, students, colleagues, and supervisees from marginalized backgrounds is vital. Hopefully, for those entering the mental health profession, this journey has already begun and can continue through the engagement in higher education courses. Although the focus of this study will be exploring multicultural classes in applied psychology, counseling programs, and social work programs, it is important to remember that taking a formal course on diversity is only a small part of the journey toward cultural competency (Shallcross, 2013).

Not only is it a good idea for mental health professionals to pursue this level of education, but it is also typically required. The American Psychological Association (APA), the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP), Master's in Psychology and Counseling Accreditation Council (MPCAC) and the Commission on Accreditation for Marriage and Family Therapy Education (COAMFTE) require curricular experience related to diversity and inclusion (APA, 2015; CACREP, 2016; COAMFTE, 2017; MPCAC, 2017). These accrediting bodies are the associations responsible for regulating a wide variety of higher education programs that provide doctoral and master's degrees in applied psychology and counseling. Along with these requirements comes the belief that mental health professionals must retain a minimum level of multicultural competency (APA, 2017) to provide ethical mental health services to their clients. Thus, professors and instructors in programs that educate mental health professionals must offer sufficient educational opportunities for students to meet the minimum level of competency in an attempt to satisfy the standards of the field and prepare their students for careers as mental health professionals. In fact, many undergraduate degree programs are even starting to require diversity courses (Miller, 2019). For example, in the 2013 revised guidelines for undergraduate psychology, APA stipulates that undergraduate

education should integrate an emphasis on diversity into the curriculum in such a way that fosters a rich understanding and appreciation (APA, 2013).

## Goals, Objectives, and Processes of Diversity Courses

Teaching a course related to diversity and inclusion requires an additional set of skills beyond knowing the subject matter. To be effective in a role of facilitator in diversity courses, instructors must be aware of their own biases and have a thorough understanding of their own worldview (Pope et al., 2004). This also requires the instructor to understand possible interventions and when to use them. To be an effective facilitator in diversity courses, an instructor must be able to "sit with discomfort, to continually seek critical consciousness, and to engage in difficult dialogues" (Watt, 2007, p. 116). Difficult dialogues are conversations around diversity that spark strong emotional experiences, cause participants to face (and challenge) their worldviews and put them at risk of exposing personal beliefs that may be biased (Sue, 2015). Watt (2007) states that having difficult dialogues can lead to individuals feeling attacked and at the very least can be uncomfortable. Students may feel the need to defend their worldview instead of being open to new perspectives. Several researchers and authors provide tips on how to handle these conversations both inside and outside of diversity courses. For example, Sue (2015) provides effective strategies to use and important strategies to avoid—the first effective strategy being having an awareness of one's own identity. The nature of these tips highlights the arduous nature of the work required to be an adept facilitator of diversity courses.

### *Privilege*

To have educational conversations about diversity, there must not only be an understanding of oppression but also an acknowledgement of privilege. The concepts of privilege and oppression exist across different marginalized groups. For example, although the

term white privilege existed prior to 1989, Peggy McIntosh's article exploring her consciousness raising of her own white privilege gained mainstream attention. She provides this illustrative example: "White privilege is like an invisible knapsack of special provisions, maps, passports, codebooks, visas, clothes, tools, and blank checks" (McIntosh, 1989, p. 1). Understanding privilege is a difficult task, given that by definition it is largely unconscious (Marger, 2015; McIntosh, 1989). McIntosh writes that "Whites are taught to think of their lives as morally neutral, normative, and average, and also ideal, so that when we work to benefit others, this is seen as work which will allow 'them' to be more like 'us'" (McIntosh, 1989, p. 1). Comparing this privilege to male privilege, she states that what she thought was previously just part of being a human in the United States is actually an unearned advantage. This distinction can make it hard to make privilege visible. It will not be enough to disapprove of systemic racism, or to even acknowledge one's privilege. To provide a more equitable society, it will take a complete restructuring of social systems (McIntosh, 1989). Watt (2007) writes that one cannot engage in difficult dialogues in a way that raises critical consciousness without confronting one's privilege, thus making confronting privilege an important goal for multicultural and diversity courses.

However, discussing and coming to terms with one's privileges is not the only important component in a course on diversity. Ideally, a student enrolled in a course related to diversity and inclusion would have the opportunity to reflect on personal experiences, hear others' stories, engage in "purposeful disagreement," and better understand their own identity while developing appreciation for the identity and experiences of others (Rupert & Falk, 2018, p. 167). Frequently, white students have not done the work of reflecting on their own racial identity and have instead, bought into the mythical narrative of "hard work" (Scheid & Vasko, 2014). One's allegiance to this narrative, which suggests that if someone works hard and gets an education (something this

myth purports is available to all), success can be yours. Allegiance to this myth makes it challenging for white students to confront racism and realize that no equal playing field exists (Scheid & Vasko, 2014). Furthermore, white students struggle with separating explicit and implicit racism (Applebaum, 2010). The feelings of guilt associated with racism also complicate white students' ability to confront institutional racism (Garner, 2008).

### *Student Learning and Experiences*

An important concept important to teaching diversity courses is transformational learning (Scheid & Vasko, 2014), which involves fostering critical thinking and the ability to "rethink cognitive and behavioral frameworks to become broader, more inclusive, and more self-regulated" (Glennon, 2008). One tool in teaching diversity courses is experiential learning (Pugh, 2014). Kolb founded experiential learning theory and explained it as a process where students acquire new information in the form of an abstract concept which is then followed by a real experience that demonstrates the concept, which is subsequently followed up by reflection (Kolb, 1984). This technique is commonly deployed in diversity courses and its effectiveness hinges on the student feeling safe and free from judgement (Pugh, 2014). Students need to be able to process their reflections in a way that enhances critical thinking so they can confront the systems that socialized them. Creating a space for this is challenging and doing so requires instructors to be able to manage their own emotional reactions to what is shared (Sue et al., 2012). Students at the graduate level may be cautious to engage fully in the coursework due to fears of gatekeeping. Gatekeeping refers to a process that educators and supervisors go through in an attempt to "determine who is suitable in terms of knowledge, skills, and disposition to enter the counseling profession" (Brown-Rice & Furr, 2015, p. 176). The nature of the class is such that it is most beneficial for students to feel they are in a space that is open to dialogue. Feeling as though your

views might disqualify you from the profession likely runs contrary to that. The need for a classroom to feel safe should not go unexamined, as what is meant by "safe" can often become a place for white students to dictate rules of engagement (DiAngelo & Sensoy, 2014). The safety sought by white students can function to help avoid the affective experience of confronting their own whiteness and put students of Color in harm's way (DiAngelo & Sensoy, 2014).

Needing the additional skills mentioned above is not the only added requirement for being a skilled facilitator for courses relating to diversity and inclusion. In fact, diversity courses can require several added layers of emotional work on top of pedagogy due to the sometimes sensitive nature of the content, the intersecting identities of the instructor, and the makeup of the classroom (Miller, 2019). Conversations about diversity spark emotional reactions in the United States. These emotional reactions can be attributed to a number of causes, from being raised to believe these topics are "off-limits" or taboo, to concerns about one's own status or standing in society, to outright antagonism to groups who are different from the dominant group (Tummala-Nara, 2009). In reviewing literature addressing student reactions to dialogues about race, many articles provided insight into the experiences of students without articulating whether they were referring to all students, students of Color, or white students. Given the descriptions, it is tempting to assume most who did not explicitly list the race and ethnicity of students in the article, are referring to white students. For example, researchers shared students may be afraid of judgement (Barnett, 2010), afraid of breaking the rules of politeness (Rupert & Falk, 2018), afraid of how they will be perceived by peers and instructors (Tummala-Nara, 2019). Tummala-Nara (2019) went on to share that these fears can be based in anxiety over a lack of knowledge and the implications that might have for participating in class to the desire to conceal certain beliefs that may be seen as controversial. Scheid and Vasko (2014) share that only a few students

of Color are represented in their study; however, they go on to state that when racism and white privilege were integrated into coursework, students had emotional reactions that they described with terms like "fear, anger, guilt, shock, and surprise" (Scheid & Vasko, 2014, p. 31). Scheid and Vasko (2014) noted that insecurity and frustration appeared to summarize the two types of emotional reactions in their study. Regarding insecurity, the authors noted that this happened primarily at two junctions: when the topic of race initially came up and when the students started to become more aware of their own connection to the racist culture. The second onset of insecurity appeared tied to the students' understanding of implicit bias—this idea that they could be racist without knowing it.

Among students of Color, engaging with race talk in the classroom can vary based on who is in the room (Sue, 2015). Due to the power structures in place and the sometimes invisible nature of oppression, students of Color may have different conversations about race with other students of Color, or even students of the same race and ethnicity, than with white students (Sue, 2015). This discrepancy relates to trust and mistrust. Students of Color in diversity courses may pay heightened attention to the verbal and non-verbal communication of other students in the class to assess their level of trust and safety. In fact, despite non-verbal communication typically existing on an unconscious level, non-verbal communication is frequently trusted more than verbal communication (DePaulo, 1992; Singelis, 1994; Sue, 2015). When asked to engage in race talk with white participants, participants of Color reported feeling "forced compliance, humiliation, and loss of integrity" (Sue, 2015, p. 123). People of Color report feeling they must comply with white communication styles and alter the way in which they share their thoughts (Sue, 2015). Students of Color engaging in race talk can be made into "perpetrators of violence" by standing in contrast to white students' "innocence" (DiAngelo & Sensoy, 2014, p.108). If

"safety" is defined by white students' comfort, then by participating in dialogues with their perspectives and experiences, students of Color are jeopardizing this "safety."

Among white students, engaging with race talk in the classroom can result in three different types of avoidance: cognitive avoidance, emotional avoidance, and behavioral avoidance (Sue, 2015). Each type of avoidance comes with its own set of possible emotional reactions and roadblocks that instructors of diversity courses help facilitate. For example, cognitive avoidance may take the form of defensiveness and result in students making microaggressions in the classroom. Emotional avoidance may bring up feelings such as fear, guilt, and anger in white students. Students experiencing emotional avoidance may continue to share denials, and they may also refrain from participating or even leave the classroom. In other classrooms, what may be an innocuous activity (e.g., leaving the classroom) may be a "ploy" used in race talk conversations (Sue, 2015, p. 139). White students appear more likely to interpret information on diversity—especially as it relates to race, class, and education—as personal attacks (Sue, 2015). These feelings of being attacked can cause white students to act out in their class participation. For example, students feeling attacked may seek to invalidate the experiences of students of Color or instigate arguments (e.g., "How dare you imply that about me!"; Sue, 2015, p. 141). White students may claim they are being victimized or suppressed, thus allowing "more social resources (such as time and attention) [to] be channeled in [their] direction to help [them] cope with this mistreatment" and reinforcing beliefs that people of Color are "dangerous and violent" (DiAngelo & Sensoy, 2014, p 113). Despite the intense nature of the aforementioned emotional reactions and the fear an instructor may have with allowing them to be expressed, leaving emotional reactions unaddressed can have a negative impact on students' growth and development (Sue, 2015). When feeling threatened by race talk white students may

also play into the "perfect stranger" role which is to say they "claim racial innocence and take on the role of admirer or moral helper (DiAngelo & Sensoy, 2014, p. 109).

In a graduate classroom, students noted that their willingness to engage in conversations was contingent on the other students, reporting that when surrounded by those who were further along in their journey of self-discovery they were intimidated by their amount of knowledge (Rupert & Falk, 2018). As people so commonly live in homogeneous environments (Barnett, 2010; Marger, 2015), diversity classes serve as a way for students to break out of their comfort zones. However, some argue for diversity classrooms to be segregated, emphasizing that there is no way to maintain safety for students of Color in cross-racial classrooms that speak about race and ethnicity (DiAngelo & Sensoy, 2014). The feasibility of this, especially at the graduate level, is unknown. We are left with the reality that the majority of diversity classes will be crossracial, often with students of Color representing a small percentage of the class. This highlights the complicated and frequently harmful dynamics faculty must face when teaching a diversity course.

**Instructor Experiences**

The emotional reactions that exist in diversity courses means that such courses may require additional emotional labor on the part of instructors that is not required in other core courses (Miller, 2019). In fact, instructors who were polled as part of a currently unpublished qualitative study shared that they spend time dedicated to attending to the emotional needs of their students beyond the scope of the course and see it as a necessary element (Miller, 2019). Due to the emotional reactivity frequently found in discussions about diversity (Scheid & Vasko, 2014), teaching diversity courses can be especially draining. Yet, despite how unpleasant these experiences can be, researchers have found that being confronted for biased beliefs is crucial to

growth (Czopp et al., 2006), thus highlighting the importance of the task. Creating an environment where this impetus can occur and can be turned into action is a laborious task that involves a great deal of emotion regulation, self-awareness, and trust within the classroom (Barnett, 2010).

Another factor complicating the experience of teaching a diversity course is the instructor's personal identity. Personal identity factors would include factors such as: race, ethnicity, gender, disability status, and sexual orientation. There are also unique challenges when teaching courses related to diversity and inclusion when the instructor holds a marginalized identity (Garner, 2008). Navigating conversations in higher education about specific populations when you identify as part of that population is complicated and can lead to feelings of weariness, inadequacy, doubt, and being silenced (Yee et al., 2015).

***Experiences of Instructors of Color***

The ways in which identity impacts student perceptions and the way it intersects with course material can leave instructors of Color in a unique position. Instructors of Color, regardless of classes taught, are less likely to be seen as qualified, competent, knowledgeable, or expert than white instructors (Sue, 2015; Turner et al., 2008;). Black instructors in particular report having fears that they will be perceived as mean, intimidating, or that others may attribute their success to programs such as affirmative action (Sue, 2015). In addition to facing specific barriers in academia, people of Color are already experiencing daily lives that are vastly different from their white peers. For example, they may encounter frequent microaggressions throughout their daily lives and have to face assumptions based on their racial/ethnic background (Sue, 2015). Matias (2013) wrote about how "teaching in a White institution with White students and White colleagues unknowingly and knowingly indoctrinated with their repressed emotional,

social, and psychosocial investment in Whiteness will produce […] recurring trauma" (p. 57). Instructors of Color face common racialized experiences when talking about race in the classroom (Matias, 2013). These behaviors vary wildly. In a thorough article examining what it means to be a teacher educator of Color, Matias (2013) shares examples of racialized experiences she and other instructors of Color face. These range from white students claiming colorblindness, engaging in white lynch mob mentality (e.g., emailing the dean a complaint about an instructor of Color), refusing the racial marker of "white" thereby mocking or belittling the experiences of people of Color.

Although the many complexities of teaching diversity courses are laborious for any instructor, instructors of Color comment that it is much more challenging to manage these difficulties when you are a member of a minority group (Garner, 2008). This amount of work would be draining for any instructor, but special attention may be warranted for members of marginalized communities teaching diversity courses, as their paths are fraught with more obstacles (Miller, 2019). Faculty of Color note having "intense internal struggles, conflicts, and feelings" navigating their roles as faculty (Sue et al., 2011). Instructors of Color may feel additional burden to rely on data and not emotion and the desire to firmly back up everything they say to preempt any negative reactions the class may have (Miller, 2019; Sue et al., 2011). In the unpublished qualitative study, one instructor remarked on how the act of teaching courses related to diversity and inclusion places burden on instructors--many of whom, presumably, identify as holding a marginalized identity--in environments that are not always supportive (Miller, 2019). Some researchers talk about the additional burden placed on instructors of Color as a "tax" that white instructors do not face. This tax goes beyond being charged with the instruction of diversity courses and includes being asked to serve on diversity committees, search

committees, and take on numerous time-consuming tasks related to implementing structural change (Thomas, 2018). Thus, it is important to understand the circumstances under which teaching diversity courses is occurring, and the ways instructors navigate this experience (Miller, 2019). Faculty of Color report receiving microaggressions while teaching (Sue et al., 2011). Additionally, faculty of Color report experiencing emotional conflicts when navigating difficult dialogues in their classrooms. Some faculty report that these experiences in the classroom can be like a flooding of emotions, leaving the instructor exhausted (Sue et al., 2011). When the instructor is part of a marginalized group, students in the course may feel that group is paid extra attention, even when that is not the case (Garner, 2008). Students may also feel the instructor is too emotional (Garner, 2008). To teach diversity classes, instructors with marginalized identities must come to terms with the fact that they are not just instructors or facilitators but also human and that they will experience pain as a result of confronting emotionally laden content and student interactions.

Clearly, the teaching of diversity courses encompasses a wide variety of pedagogical and emotional skills. Instructors must be able to balance personal emotional reactivity with creating a space for students to grow, while also likely having to navigate microaggressions from students and a possible unequal workload among their peers. Although some research exists on how to teach material for diversity courses (Brown-Rice & Furr, 2015) and research continues to emerge, little research to date exists that examines the experiences of instructors teaching diversity courses. According to Lam (2018), instructors of Color are frequently the individuals charged with the work of educating others on diversity, in addition to already experiencing an unequal distribution of workloads. Regardless, those tasked with spearheading the university's (or program's) commitment to diversity and inclusion can become overly burdened, leading to

something Lam (2018) calls "diversity fatigue." Given all the unique aspects that go into teaching diversity courses, it makes sense that instructors may burnout quickly.

## Burnout

Teaching in all forms can result in burnout, which in turn results in poor outcomes (Jiang et al., 2016). Burnout is a construct that started to gain traction in the 1980s and 1990s and refers to an individual's response to prolonged stress (Maslach, 2001; Maslach, 2017). According to Maslach and Goldberg (1998), there are three themes that can summate burnout well: work is imbalanced, the problem is chronic, and there is conflict, which could be at work or could represent the tension between roles. The consequences for burnout are grand and broad: reaching into occupational well-being, physical health, and emotional well-being (Albieri et al., 2017). In fact, researchers link burnout with a wide variety of conditions ranging from heart disease to depression (Albieri et al., 2017). As it relates to occupational wellbeing, burnout impacts constructs such as turnover, absenteeism, productivity, and commitment (Maslach et al.,2001). More specifically, as it relates to teaching, burnout impacts student learning (Hoglund et al. 2015).

### *Dimensions of Burnout*

Three dimensions define the term burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment (Lee & Ashforth, 1990; Maslach, 2017). Emotional exhaustion refers to feeling overextended, tired, and fatigued. Maslach (2017) states that emotional exhaustion is frequently the first warning sign that an individual is experiencing a problem. Others may describe this feeling as "drained" or as though they are giving from an empty cup. Maslach (1988) describes emotional exhaustion by stating that individuals may have "the feeling that one has nothing left to give to others at a psychological level" (p. 85).

The second dimension of burnout—depersonalization—is complex. Depersonalization is interpersonal in nature and at first may function as adaptive, meaning experiencing cynicism may protect people who are overloading themselves (Maslach, 2017; Prinz et al., 2012). Depersonalization can take the form of detachment and may eventually result in individuals actively dehumanizing and/or disliking those with whom they interact. For example, instructors who are experiencing depersonalization may have thoughts like "They are all animals" when thinking of their students (Maslach et al., 1996, p. 31). According to Maslach (2017), a prolific researcher in the field of burnout, those who are experiencing depersonalization will "shift from trying to do their best to doing the bare minimum" (Maslach, 2017, p. 160).

The third and final dimension of burnout is personal accomplishment. Individuals experiencing low personal accomplishment will believe themselves to be ineffective, incompetent, and unable to complete their work (Maslach, 2017). Due to burnout, individuals develop a negative sense of self, and because of the results of their burnout (i.e., detachment resulting in lower quality work) they begin to produce work that might validate this lower sense of self (Maslach, 2017). Personal accomplishment involves evaluation of one's work and achievements and is especially important to educators (Maslach et al., 1996). Maslach (2017) states that lowered resources (i.e., lack of social support or opportunities at work) plays a role within this dimension.

### *Impact of Burnout*

As mentioned, a few outcomes have been linked to burnout (Maslach, 2017). In fact, burnout can lead to health concerns and a reliance on maladaptive coping that impacts health, such as smoking and drinking (Maslach, 2001). Burnout can increase the risk of certain physical conditions such as diabetes, heart disease, stroke, infertility in men, and sleep disorders (Bailey,

2006). Burnout also impacts psychological health and can increase risk of depression (Albieri et al., 2017). Correspondingly, previous longitudinal research found that burnout predicts psychiatric hospitalizations (Toppinen-Tanner et al., 2009). Burnout challenges interpersonal relationships, both inside and outside the workplace, impacts job performance, and leads to higher rates of job turnover (Leiter & Maslach, 1988; Maslach, 2017). These findings extend to research on teaching in general, and university professors specifically (Jiang et al., 2016; Navarro et al., 2010).

Instructors experiencing emotional exhaustion, unsurprisingly, have decreased motivation (Hakanen et al., 2006). Students taking courses from emotionally exhausted instructors perform worse on more objective measures of academic performance (Arens & Morin, 2016). Additionally, students taking courses from emotionally exhausted instructors report feeling less supported by their teachers and being less satisfied with their school (Arens & Morin, 2016). Depersonalization, another dimension of burnout, is especially dangerous for instructors. Depersonalization impacts the instructor's reported enthusiasm for teaching and students' perceptions of their enthusiasm (Benita et al.,2018). Experiencing depersonalization can lead to an instructor not only withdrawing from their students but also developing negative views of them (Benita et al., 2018). Depersonalization can also lead instructors to have unrealistic expectations of their students (Benita et al., 2018). Students' motivations for learning are also impacted by an instructor's depersonalization (Shen et al., 2015). When applied to those teaching diversity courses in the mental health profession, the ramifications are not unimportant: an instructor unable to rise above the bare minimum or, worse, one who is currently ineffective, when teaching future mental health professionals about multiculturalism can have an impact on client care. It is difficult to measure the outcome of teaching courses related to diversity and

inclusion; however, the connection between burnout and decreased quality of work implies that burnout holds real consequences for those charged with teaching mental health professionals about this subject matter.

Because of the very serious physical and mental health consequences of burnout, as well as the effect burnout has on student outcomes, there is a need to further understand the factors that may increase burnout and the factors that may decrease burnout. In the current study, student incivility was proposed as a factor that increases burnout and self-care and supervisor support were proposed as factors that may decrease burnout in instructors of diversity courses. I turn to student incivility next.

**Student Incivility**

Although there are many factors that contribute to burnout, few have been studied specifically within the context of diversity courses. However, in other courses, researchers demonstrated that among the factors that contribute to instructor burnout is student incivility (Chang, 2013; Jiang et al., 2016). Jiang et al. (2016) postulated that teaching in a university setting is only becoming more stressful, citing generational shifts in values, academic entitlement, and student incivility as three primary contributors. Student incivility exists across undergraduate coursework but is also at play in courses related to diversity and inclusion. Student incivility refers to a construct that is about action, specifically an action or actions a student takes that disrupts the academic environment (Jiang et al., 2016). Student incivility takes many forms and can even include violence. For example, an uncivil behavior could be students making side conversations, playing on a phone or a laptop, or creating tension in the classroom (Sterner et al., 2015).

One problem with studying student incivility exists within the sometimes subjective nature of such events (Rowland, 2009). While some have defined incivility as an intentional act (Morrissette, 2001), others take issues with this due to the growing discourse around intent versus impact (Sterner et al., 2015). Focusing on intent when considering the incivility in the classroom experience of instructors of Color can center whiteness and the feelings of white students (Mayorga-Gallo, 2019). Faculty of Color interpret certain behaviors and emotional reactions differently in white students than in students of Color (Sue et al., 2011). For example, a white student who has become emotional and is quiet might be interpreted as experiencing defensiveness or being fearful that they will be perceived as prejudiced, while a student of Color who became emotional and is now quiet might be interpreted as wounded or fearful that their feelings will be invalidated (Sue et al., 2011). In an attempt to capture this subjectivity, Feldmann took a broader approach in 2001 by defining student incivility as "any action that interferes with a harmonious and cooperative learning atmosphere in the classroom" (p. 137). Typically, student incivility reflects a small number of students and not the majority (Seidman, 2005), which may explain that despite a rise in student incivility there does not appear to be a rise in research pertaining to it (Sterner et al., 2015).

### *Causes of Incivility*

The definition of student incivility is not the only place where subjectivity exists; a multitude of possible reasons for this phenomenon exist from rising narcissism rates in college students (Twenge et al., 2008) to consumer attitudes toward education (Nordstrom et al., 2009; Shepard et al.,2008) to generational differences in students, with authors citing Generation X students as being, "self-centered, having a poor work ethic, and aspiring to different motivations for attending college" (Sterner et al., 2015, p. 95). In a study about academic entitlement,

researchers found that the majority of students believe that putting in effort means they deserve an A in the course (Greenberger et al.,2008). This sense of entitlement can lead to problems with student behavior including intimidation and bullying, commonly targeting junior faculty who are women and/or instructors of Color (Holdcroft, 2014). Incivility can also occur as a result of confronting specific course material (Wright, 2016). For example, students may have a bias against the field of study or may have philosophies that conflict with the underpinnings of the course (Wright, 2016). Courses that require or encourage students to confront their own worldviews and identities are much more likely to result in incivility than science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) courses (Wright, 2016).

Other hypotheses suggest teacher identity factors, behavior, and performance as factors contributing to incivility ; Knepp, 2012). There are several identity related factors that can contribute to student incivility: being an instructor of Color, a woman, young, and perceived as lower status (e.g., adjunct professor; Alberts et al., 2019; Knepp, 2012) all appear to correlate with increased rates of student incivility. Increasingly difficult tenure negotiations may contribute to faculty feeling unable to address incivility in the classroom (Alberts et al., 2010). In regard to teacher behavior, researchers found that issues with competence and perceived laziness impact student resistance with researchers suggesting that missteps impact student resistance (Goodboy & Bolkin, 2009). In thinking about how these concepts relate to the current study, it appears that a cyclical pattern might be emerging: if student incivility can contribute to burnout, which then leads to poor performance, it could then, in turn result in more resistance from students. Boysen and colleagues (2020) hypothesize that instructors harboring intense student dislike, a valid construct there is rarely a place to discuss pedagogically, contributes to this cycle of incivility. Although not the only contributing factor, past research demonstrates that

instructors do play a key role in student incivility with Kearney and colleagues (1991) identifying three themes of instructor behavior that lead to incivility. Those three themes are: incompetence (e.g., apathy), indolence (e.g., unprepared to teach), and offensiveness (e.g., negative attitude toward students). Other researchers take the position that many go into the classroom ill-prepared to teach and instead of engaging in pedagogy based on coursework, relying on role models they had during graduate school (Anderson, 1999). When it comes to graduate education, less research exists on student incivility (Sterner et al., 2015).

Within diversity classes, white students often perpetuate incivility as a result of their cognitive, emotional, and/or behavioral avoidance (Sue, 2015). Avoidance results in defensiveness, expressions of fear and anger, leaving classrooms or refusing to participate (Sue, 2015). As mentioned previously, white students also react to diversity content, specifically race talk with an instructor of Color, with common racialized behaviors such as: calling or emailing supervisors with complaints, discrediting the instructor's expertise, and distancing themselves from racism with microaggressions (Matias, 2013, Sue et al., 2011).

### *Graduate Student Incivility and Management of Incivility*

According to researchers, faculty in graduate counselor education perceived a variety of uncivil behaviors from students that exist across a range of severity (Sterner et al., 2015). Some of the most frequently reported uncivil behaviors on the less severe side were coming to class late or unprepared, eating during class, and engaging in distracting behaviors (e.g., side conversations, use of electronics outside of class purposes). In applied settings, concerning behaviors can include: "lacking eye contact, fidgeting, interrupting, using inappropriate self-disclosure, and not listening" (Vacha-Haase et al., 2018, p. 243). Additional problematic behaviors at the graduate level include holding "negative beliefs about other groups based on

racial differences, gender socialization, sexual orientation, or religious values" (Rust et al., 2013). On the more extreme side, some of the most frequently reported uncivil behaviors within Sterner and colleagues 2015 study were: engaging aggressively with faculty with vulgar comments, coming to class under the influence of substances, making harassing comments to faculty in class, outside of class, and to other students, and belittling other students. Additional forms of incivility at the graduate level are as follows: lack of respect for a faculty member's time, not meeting required standards (e.g., "incomplete or sloppy work," focusing on only one aspect of training and neglecting others), academic dishonesty, and violence (Mason, 2003). The violence Mason (2003) documents ranges from threats to murder, with acknowledgement that this type of incivility is less common.

For the most part, students in graduate level counselor education courses perceived student incivility the same way as their instructors with a few exceptions (Sterner et al., 2015). For example, students noted how often phones were used while faculty reported rarely noticing this behavior. Regarding how faculty responded to incidents of student incivility, the majority of students felt faculty ignored it; however, an overwhelming majority of the faculty reported dealing with issues of incivility outside of the classroom. Other techniques faculty reported engaging in included seeking support from colleagues, utilizing resources available at the department or university level, and addressing student incivility during class. Faculty also indicated that they did ignore the problem of incivility sometimes. On the whole, a difference existed between how students viewed the effectiveness of action and how faculty viewed it, with students viewing faculty action as not very effective and faculty viewing it as somewhat effective (Sterner et al., 2015). Faculty perceived themselves as part of the problem and reported having very little—and sometimes no—training on how to address student incivility or classroom

management (Sterner et al., 2015). Within the context of courses related to diversity and inclusion, one form of student incivility not previously discussed in this paper are microaggressions (Sue et al., 2011). Based on Sue et al's 2011 definition, microaggressions are "brief and commonplace daily verbal, nonverbal, and environmental slights, insults, invalidations, and indignities, whether they are intentional or unintentional, which are directed toward people of Color" (Sue et al., 2007); however, microaggressions extend toward all marginalized populations (Sue, 2010). Microaggressions frequently serve as the impetus for difficult dialogues (Sue et al., 2011). Faculty of Color noted in one study that the most common types include white students assuming students of Color are intellectually inferior in some way. These assumptions were commonly verbalized through remarks on Affirmative Action or statements such as "you are so articulate" (Sue et al., 2011, p. 335).

***Student Incivility and Power***

A discussion must be had about the role of student incivility in the classroom as it relates to power. Past research has found connections between incivility in the workplace and lower well-being, meaning that at what some consider equal levels of power, incivility has negative outcomes. However, other researchers have pointed out the role that workplace incivility might play in members of privileged groups (i.e., white, men, heterosexual, cisgender) exerting power over peers who are members of marginalized groups (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Cortina et al.,2001). In the classroom, however, where student incivility is found, there is a unique power differential. The instructor is in charge and holds evaluative power over the student. At the graduate level, this imbalance can be even more pronounced (Mason, 2003). Because of this imbalance, researchers wondered if this form of incivility will not have the same links to personal well-being; however, researchers now suggest that student incivility does lead to

burnout (Jiang et al., 2016) across all three dimensions (Fernet et al.,2012). Moreover, given that instructors tasked with teaching courses related to diversity and inclusion are often members of marginalized groups, there may still be a power differential if they are teaching to students who primarily hold privileged identities. Faculty of Color may be especially concerned about student evaluations (Sue et al., 2011) as researchers have demonstrated that race and gender can play a factor in evaluations by students (Aruguete et al.,2017; Basow et al., 2013) and in tenure acquisition (Lisnic et al.,2019). Faculty of Color have vastly different experiences on campus than white faculty, which extends to the classroom setting (Sue et al., 2011). Less research has been done examining student incivility in graduate classes; however, a study that analyzed uncivil classroom behavior with undergraduates and graduates in social work found there to be little difference (Wahler & Badger, 2016). Additionally, Schaefer and colleagues (2013) found that entitlement appears to be growing among undergraduate and graduate students. Although it may be assumed that the ability to navigate higher education leads to less academic entitlement and student incivility, being required to take courses related to diversity and inclusion may spark contempt in mental health professionals in training. However, Sterner and colleagues (2015) found that counselor education students and their respective faculty appear to have succinct and clear impressions of the types of incivility occurring in those classrooms.

**Self-Care**

From early on in the burnout literature, back in the 1970s when Maslach was interviewing human service workers about the stress on the job, Maslach knew that one's individual resources could impact burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). Self-care is something frequently discussed within the mental health profession and even involves some ethical considerations (Newell & Nelson-Gardell, 2014). Multiple definitions of self-care exist without

much agreement. Within the literature, the term self-care is commonly used in medical studies and refers to specific behaviors that individuals engage in throughout the day to manage specific symptoms of a medical diagnosis (Silverman et al., 2008). This form of self-care is typically measured through a self-care diary that specifically addresses symptoms (Chou et al., 2007). One definition outside of the medical field, claims self-care refers to an "engagement in behaviors that maintain and promote physical and emotional well-being and may include factors such as sleep, exercise, use of social support, emotion regulation strategies, and mindfulness practice" (Myers et al., 2012, p. 56). Mindful self-care is a form of self-care that has roots in evidence-based interventions such as mindfulness and Dialectic Behavior Therapy (DBT; Cook-Cottone & Guyker, 2018) and is defined as "a consistent engagement in mindful awareness and evaluation of intrinsic needs and external demands and purposeful commitment in certain actions to meet these needs and demands in order to acquire wellness and personal efficiency" (Sünbül et al., 2018, p. 34). This specific kind of self-care seeks to improve well-being through the utilization of behaviors across multiple categories: mindful relaxation, physical care, self-compassion and purpose, supportive relationships, supportive structure, and mindful awareness (Cook-Cottone & Guyker, 2018). Most definitions of self-care would include at least physical, psychological, and emotional components (Dorociak, 2015) although more expansive definitions might also include elements of spirituality, safety, and security (Bridgeman, 2010) These additions matter greatly, as a qualitative study assessing Black women's engagement with self-care, spirituality was a key theme (Gaines, 2018) which is congruent with Black activist spaces which frequently include spirituality as a necessity (hooks, 2000).

### *History of Self-Care*

The root of the self-care literature appears to be based in behaviors necessary to care for one's physical health and existed within medical literature (Zigura, 2004). Unfortunately, the dominant group—or those who held the social, political, and economic power—used the concept of self-care, although not always termed that, to justify continued oppression of marginalized communities. For example, Cartwright argued for the inferiority of African Americans and cited his biased belief that African Americans were "unable to take care of themselves" as proof (Cartwright, 1851, p. 694). Similar arguments have been used against immigrants and women (Kisner, 2017). In the 1970s and 1980s, the term self-care began to rise to prominence among activists (Kisner, 2017). Multiple authors writing about self-care have highlighted the famous 1988 quote from prominent activist Audre Lorde clarifying that self-care is not indulgence but is instead a direct act of protecting oneself and engaging in activism (Kisner, 2017; Mirk, 2016; Som, 2019). The quote and the context from which it comes provides powerful insight that the commodified version of "self-care" cannot encompass. Lorde (1988) writes:

> Sometimes I feel like I am living on a different star from the one I am used to calling home. It has not been a steady progression. I had to examine, in my dreams as well as in my immune-function tests, the devastating effects of overextension. Overextending myself is not stretching myself. I had to accept how difficult it is to monitor the difference. Necessary for me as cutting down on sugar. Crucial. Physically. Psychically. Caring for myself is not self-indulgence, it is self-preservation, and that is an act of political warfare (p. 130).

This quote comes from the Epilogue of her essay "A Burst of Light" which includes journal entries from her years of fighting cancer, alongside her battles with racism, heterosexism, homophobia, and apartheid. Within those entries, Lorde wrote so clearly on the importance of self-care, even if she did not name it as such. She wrote of survival and the role community and sisterhood play. She wrote of the importance of engaging in work and what her legacy means. She wrote of the importance of bodily autonomy as she faced her own mortality. These examples

of self-care exist on the outskirts of a more Eurocentric definition of self-care. In "all about love" bell hooks (2000) also wrote of the importance of community stating that "self-love cannot flourish in isolation" (hooks, 2000, p. 54). Specifically, hooks reinforced the notion that self-care is not selfish, and she shared that she was "surprised to see how many of us feel troubled by the notion, as though the very idea implies too much narcissism or selfishness" (hooks, 2000, p. 66). Examples of self-care's roots in Black activism extend beyond Audre Lorde and bell hooks. Well-known activist Angela Davis spoke about the need to infuse self-care into all social justice related activities in her public address to Pacific Davis University in 2014 (Berglund Center, 2014). Some activists have begun including the term "community care" in discussions of self-care (Dockray, 2019). Community care includes concepts embedded in self-care, like asking for help, having someone to vent to, but also names the importance of committing to others with love and intentionality (Dockray, 2019). Currently, various fields have adopted the construct and altered it to include a broader view of well-being. For example, caring for one's mental or emotional well-being became a key part of the construct of self-care in the field of psychology (Myers et al., 2012).

### *Popularity of Self-Care*

The concept of self-care appeared to gain popular traction in the general population (i.e., outside of academics and activists) following the 2016 United States Presidential election (Harris, 2017). Major news organizations such as the New York Times, the Atlantic and others began publishing articles about practicing self-care (Kisner, 2017). Following the 2016 United States presidential election, the term self-care was googled two times as much as it had been in the previous calendar year (Harris, 2017). When looking at the google trends as of October 6, 2019, searches for "what is self-care" were up 80% from 2015 (Data source: Google Trends,

2019). Critics of self-care do not lack evidence on their side as it appears that the United States' obsession with self-care has become yet another way to make money (Boyle, 2017). Even Instagram posts by popular users touting self-care behaviors are often inconspicuous brand deals (Kisner, 2017). In fact, an article critiquing the way the United States has altered the meaning of self-care and intending to show the ways self-care is practiced internationally had embedded advertisements for products (Montell, 2019). Despite the buzzword nature of self-care, the construct's connections to activism (Boyle, 2017; Harris, 2017; Kisner, 2017) and well-being (Cook-Cottone & Guyker, 2018) justify its continued study.

### *Importance and Impact of Self-Care*

"When we give this precious gift to ourselves, we are able to reach out to others from a place of fulfillment and not from a place of lack" (hooks, 2000, p. 67). Certain professions and populations stand out as especially vulnerable and are the focus of research within the self-care literature; however, engagement in self-care is negatively correlated with stress even among non-professional samples (Feng et al., 2019). Among the specific professions studied are hospice workers, chaplains, medical residents, and mental health professionals. Many of these professions, such as hospice workers, face the risk of compassion fatigue, a form of burnout (Hotchkiss, 2018). Hotchkiss (2018) found that self-care mediated the relationship between compassion satisfaction and burnout. Hotchiss and Lesher (2018) also studied the experience of chaplains based on the awareness that they too, can experience compassion fatigue and burnout. They found that chaplains engaging in more self-care experienced less burnout (Hotchiss & Lesher, 2018). Similar to the previous study, the authors found that engagement in self-care mediated the relationship between compassion fatigue and burnout (Hotchiss & Lesher, 2018). Among medical residents, engaging in self-care was associated with better wellness and those

who experienced positive team leaders were more likely to engage in self-care behaviors (Gonzalez et al., 2017). Despite self-care's roots, little research examining self-care engagement among Black women exists; however, Adkins-Jackson and colleagues (2019) found that the relationship between stress and health was mediated by engagement in self-care for Black women.

For psychologists engaging in clinical work, self-care is considered to be an ethical imperative, as not engaging in self-care can lead to distress and impairment, which impacts clinical work (Barnett & Cooper, 2009). According to Barnett and colleagues (2007) those who elect to become psychologists may already possess some vulnerabilities, which would place them at an increased risk for burnout or distress and impairment. In addition to perhaps coming into the profession with vulnerabilities, becoming a psychologist does not make one immune to the same stress everyone experiences. Not only are mental health professionals at risk for burnout (Maslach, 1982), they, too, face the risk of compassion fatigue and vicarious trauma (Baker, 2003). Self-care research exists within the helping field already with researchers making clear that engagement in self-care is vital for mental health professionals (Christopher & Maris, 2010; Sünbül et al., 2018). Engaging in mindful-based strategies decreases stress, negative affect, anxiety, and increases self-compassion and positive affect (Shapiro et al., 2007). In a qualitative study designed to assess mindfulness-based self-care among students in CACREP programs, researchers found the students experienced long-term benefits from learning to engage with these strategies (Christopher et al., 2011). In a study of mental health professionals, all subscales of the Mindfulness Self-Care Scale were predictive of well-being, with supportive structure being the highest predictor (Sünbül et al., 2018).

### *Self-Care in Higher Education*

"Many jobs undermine self-love because they require that workers constantly prove their worth" (hooks, 2000). Although hooks was not specifically referring to academic work when she wrote those words, they certainly ring true in this context. When it comes to discussing self-care within the academy, some write about self-care as a radical act and a matter of social justice, just as Audre Lorde did (Cohan, 2019). Given that the profession can appear to require an instructor to always be available, Cohen writes of the importance of engaging in self-care, which for Cohen includes healthy boundaries, being able to say "no," taking time to engage in activities that sustain you, resting, and nourishing yourself (Cohen, 2019). Regarding seeing self-care as a social justice issue, Cohen (2019) writes of the unequal workload distribution in the academy and how race and gender, as well as the intersection between race and gender, can play a role in this. There are likely many personal resources that instructors teaching diversity courses are already tapping into to navigate the experience of teaching diversity courses. These include self-care, coping strategies, internal locus of control, and optimistic natures to name a few. Self-care makes up one part of this discussion and played a key role in the current study. Researchers suggest that self-care behavior and burnout are negatively correlated (Santana & Fouad, 2017). Receiving social support, a form of self-care, has also been found to be negatively correlated with burnout (Newell & Nelson-Gardell, 2014). Little research exists that examines self-care among instructors, and none was found that examines self-care behaviors within instructors teaching courses related to diversity. However, the assumption that engagement in self-care behaviors may decrease the experience of burnout is in line with the current understanding of reducing burnout (Maslach, 2017). For example, the current research seems to suggest that engagement in social relationships can be helpful. Given that a large component of self-care is interpersonal, it stands to reason that engagement in such practices would be helpful in reducing

burnout in instructors. Having healthy, fulfilling, and helpful relationships with peers both within a work context and outside of work has been shown to be helpful, while work environments that foster a culture of fear for job security has unsurprisingly been shown to be harmful (Maslach, 2017).

**Supervisor Support**

It is important to note that conversations about burnout are frequently constructed around individual responsibility (Maslach, 2017) and equally important to acknowledge that the current study participates in this dialogue by focusing on an individual's engagement in self-care. However, the institutional component needs to be acknowledged both in this study and in future studies. To date, the author was unable to find any studies that focused on how supervisor support might influence the experience of burnout in academia.

***Commitment to Diversity***

Much can be said about an institution's commitment to diversity. Although not the focus of the current study, conversations relating to institutional commitment frequently revolve around the undergraduate population. A student body that reflects the general population as it relates to demographics appears to be a high priority (Chun & Evans, 2009) and researchers write about how to attain such a goal. Hiring and maintaining a diverse faculty (Chun & Evans, 2009) that engages with the student body (Lundberg, 2010) appears to be the answer, although the goal evades many universities, especially as it relates to Black faculty (Li & Koedel, 2017). For example, Daut (2019) made a compelling case when citing research clarifying that despite Black women making up 13% of the United States population, they make up only a low 2% of tenured professors. Thus, Black women (and other women of Color) in academia must frequently navigate primarily white spaces, which comes with its own slew of challenges. Matias shares that

to complete her work with white education students requires her to "relive the painful experience of the trauma of race and gender all over again (p. 57) while hooks (1994, p. 29) states that it takes "gumption to work with integrity in settings where white folks [are] disrespectful and downright hateful." Daut (2019) makes a cogent argument explaining that despite initiatives to hire more faculty of Color, if a university offers no institutional level commitment to keeping the newly hired faculty safe and supported, the effort is futile. Researchers take a variety of approaches when studying institutional commitment to diversity. For example, some researchers focus on policy and practices at the university level (e.g., hiring practices, meeting accreditation standards). This type of assessment would include analysis on the percentage of faculty of Color in tenure or tenure-track positions and the percentage of leadership positions that were occupied by a person of Color. Mayorga-Gallo (2019) argues this perspective can lead to a false sense of commitment to diversity, as administrators can check boxes without truly committing. Mayorga-Gallo (2019) writes that this metric can be abused by organizations to perpetuate myths of inclusivity when in actuality those at the institution are not doing the difficult work of examining racism within their organizations. Further, other researchers have used statistics available from large databases [e.g., The Campus Life in American Student Survey (CLASS)] to assess institutional commitment to diversity (Harper & Yeung, 2013). The Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) is another example of an institute collecting large amounts of self-report data. The HERI report includes items on faculty perception of institutional commitment to diversity.

The Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) conducts research on a variety of topics including student learning, faculty experiences, and the culture of universities. HERI conducts annual research assessing the experiences of faculty at universities in the United States. According to the most recent edition of the HERI faculty annual report, female faculty reported

discrimination as a cause of stress in their work more often than did men (Stolzenberg et al., 2019). Similarly, faculty of Color are more likely to report discrimination as a cause of stress in their work than are white faculty (Stolzenberg et al., 2019). Similar patterns emerge when examining the ways in which privilege and oppression can interlock. For example, white men are the group that is least likely to report discrimination, and men of Color report discrimination as a source of stress at higher levels than white women, with men who identified as Asian or Pacific Islander being the exception (Stolzenberg, et al., 2019). Faculty of Color report feeling less institutional support than do white faculty (Sue et al., 2011). Moreover, they are less likely than their white peers to report feeling their university values diversity (Stolzenberg et al., 2019). Themes emerged with gender and race in the HERI study. When asked whether women were treated fairly by the institution, women were less likely than men to agree, and when asked whether racial and ethnic minorities were treated fairly, faculty of Color were less likely to agree than their white peers. When considering gender in the HERI study, it is important to recognize that in the study by Sue and colleagues (2011), faculty reported having institutions that were hesitant to address microaggressions or work at the micro or macro level to address inequality. Faculty of Color note that having institutional backing in some form is helpful. This can take many forms, including the faculty member having tenure, a department or institution having policies around student incivility or policies related to helping marginalized populations, or receiving supervisor support (Sue et al., 2011). The importance of a healthy and safe work environment cannot be understated. As hooks emphasizes in "Sisters of the Yam," "it is practically impossible to maintain a spirit of emotional well-being if one is daily doing work that is unsatisfying, that causes intense stress, and that gives little satisfaction" (hooks, 1994, p. 32).

### *Impact and Importance of Supervisor Support*

The current study sought to understand the role that having a supportive supervisor plays in the experience of teaching diversity courses for all instructors. Perceived supervisor support has close ties to perceived organizational support, and both constructs are heavily connected to industrial/organizational literature (Eisenberger et al., 2002). Perceived supervisor support can be described as "general views concerning the degree to which supervisors value their contributions and care about their well-being" (Eisenberger et al., 2002, p. 565). Essentially, employees draw conclusions about their supervisor's commitment to them, their concern over their wellbeing, and their evaluation of their work.

Researchers link both organizational and supervisor support to an employee's commitment to the organization and their job (Eisenberger et al., 1986) and purport that perceived supervisor support is more proximal to employee behavior and satisfaction than organizational support as there appears to be a sequential relationship in place (Eisenberger et al., 2002). More specifically, Eisenberger et al. (2002) stated that supervisor support leads to organizational support. The commitment employees feel toward their employer results in less withdrawal behaviors, such as employee absenteeism and turnover (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). Withdrawal behaviors receive a great deal of attention in the organizational literature and specifically within the organizational and supervisor support literature. The focus likely stems from the financial impact high rates of turnover can have on an organization (Maertz et al., 2007). Within education, retaining faculty of Color can have a powerful impact on the study body and in fact, not retaining faculty of Color is linked to a lack of support (Greene, 2018).

Individuals who feel supported and specifically experience employee-centered supervision report more job satisfaction (Karatepe et al., 2003). Having a supportive supervisor

is associated with better health outcomes and health practices (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004). Supported employees are more satisfied with their jobs, are more prepared in their professional development, and use more cognitive strategies to handle stress at work (Acker, 2018). Supported employees have less employee cynicism (Cole et al., 2006). Correspondingly, supported employees even go above and beyond their job requirements (Chen & Chiu, 2008). Supported employees are also less likely to engage in unethical work-related behaviors (Sguera et al., 2018). Employees who are supported can be more attentive and effortful in their work (Huhtala & Parzefall, 2007). In fact, employees who feel supported are able to be more innovative and creative at work (Huhtala & Parzefall, 2007), two skills that could serve instructors of diversity courses well.

In addition to the benefits to the employer, supervisor support also benefits the employee. For example, previous studies found that individuals with supportive supervisors had lower stress levels and futhermore, those with less supportive supervisors were more likely to be experiencing burnout (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004). When examining the relationship between emotional support and burnout, Chen and colleagues (2012) found that supervisor support acted as a mediator. Not receiving support is associated with more stress and even depression (Sparks et al., 2001). Perceived supervisor support is negatively correlated with all three subscales of burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment), meaning that the more supported individuals report feeling, the less burnout they report (Campbell et al., 2013).

Clearly, from the organizational literature cited above, supervisor support plays a crucial role in maintaining a thriving organization, reducing turnover, reducing stress, reducing cynicism, motivating employees, facilitating a space where creativity and innovative ideas can

flourish, fostering ethical workplace behaviors, and overall allowing employees to thrive. However, the author was unable to find any literature as it relates to the current study's variables or settings. The role that supervisor support plays in the experiences of instructors teaching a diversity course to mental health professionals in training has not been assessed, based on the searches conducted by the author. However, given that elements of burnout are interpersonal in nature (e.g., depersonalization) and relate to one's confidence in their ability (e.g., personal accomplishment), it would make sense that having a strong interpersonal relationship with the person evaluating your job performance could act as a buffer. Additionally, this relationship would likely be even stronger in the case of instructors of Color, as having a supervisor who understands the way bias impacts students' perceptions of instructors could calm anxieties surrounding evaluations. In the current study, the term supervisor is used to refer to the person in charge of evaluating instructors, who is likely to be the Chair or Department Head.

**Current Study**

Despite the growing stated commitment to inclusion and diversity on college campuses, or more specifically, the requirement of APA, CACREP, CSWE, MPCAC, COAMFTE accredited programs to offer such training, the author was unable to find any study to date that has examined the experience of teaching diversity courses in regard to student incivility, self-care, supervisor support, and their impact on burnout. The purpose of the current study is to explore the experiences of those teaching diversity courses to mental health professionals in training, specifically what their experiences in the classroom are like, how they take care of themselves while teaching, and how they are being supported by their supervisors, and what impact that all has on their potential burnout. Additionally, the current study seeks to provide helpful, research supported, interventions (i.e., engagement in self-care) for those teaching

diversity courses and for those supervising instructors of diversity courses (i.e., ways to support their faculty).

**Hypotheses**

1: After accounting for demographic variables of: gender, position type, university type, hours worked per week, and course format, instructors of Color will report a greater degree of burnout than will instructors who do not identify as a person of Color.

2: After accounting for the demographic variables and instructor racial and ethnic identity (as measured by the two levels), greater student incivility will be a unique positive statistical predictor for burnout.

3: After accounting for the demographic variables, racial and ethnic identity, and incivility, both greater supervisor support and greater self-care will be unique negative statistical predictors of burnout.

4: After accounting for the above main effects and relevant two-way interactions, student incivility, racial and ethnic identity, and supervisor support will interact to statistically predict burnout.

a: Among instructors reporting low incivility, racial and ethnic identity will moderate the relationship between supervisor support and burnout, specifically greater supervisor support will predict less burnout for instructors of Color, but supervisor support will not predict burnout for instructors who do not identify as a person of Color.

b. Among instructors reporting high incivility, racial and ethnic identity will again moderate the relationship between supervisor support and burnout, specifically greater supervisor support will predict less burnout, but that relationship will be

stronger for instructors of Color than instructors who do not identify as a person of Color.

5: After accounting for the above main effects and relevant two-way interactions, student incivility, racial and ethnicity identity, and self-care will interact to predict burnout.

a: Among instructors reporting low incivility, racial and ethnic identity will moderate the relationship between self-care and burnout, specifically greater self-care will predict less burnout for instructors of Color, but self-care will not predict burnout for instructors who do not identify as a person of Color.

b. Among instructors reporting high incivility, racial and ethnic identity will again moderate the relationship between self-care and burnout, specifically greater self-care will predict less burnout, but that relationship will be stronger for instructors of Color than instructors who do not identify as a person of Color.

# Chapter III

# Methods

## Participants

Participants were required to be 18 years old and consent to the study. The instructors were eligible if they were currently an instructor of record/primary instructor, but could be visiting faculty, contingent faculty, clinical-track, research-track, or tenured or tenure-track faculty. Instructors were required to be currently teaching a course on diversity and inclusion at the graduate level aimed at mental health professionals in training, including those from the following programs: counseling and clinical PhD and PsyD programs, counselor education PhD programs, as well as Master's Programs in the areas of Addiction Counseling; Career Counseling; Clinical Mental Health Counseling; Clinical Rehabilitation Counseling; College Counseling and Student Affairs; Marriage, Couple, and Family Counseling; Counseling Psychology; Psychology; School Counseling, Social Work, and Rehabilitation Counseling. In order to obtain an acceptable effect size of .05 (a small effect size in regression = .05), a G*Power 3.1.9.4 analysis was used to determine sample size for this study. Efforts were made to recruit 126 participants to have a power of .8. Several participants data were removed as they did not complete the study. Of those remaining, 22 were removed for missing crucial items or for not completing at least 70% of each given measure, except the student incivility measure. This left 138 participants in the dataset.

## Sample Demographics

In the current study, 43.5% of participants reported identifying as a person of Color while 56.5% did not. For more detailed descriptions, see Table 1 below. Regarding sexual orientation, the majority of participants reported being heterosexual (73.9%), 25.3% reported being sexual

minorities and 0.7% did not disclose their sexual orientation. For more detailed descriptions, see Table 2. Regarding course format, 52.2% of courses were taught entirely online while 47.8% had some in person requirements. As it relates to course delivery, 22.5% of courses were taught asynchronously while 68.1% had synchronous elements. The majority of participants held tenure-track positions (68.1%) while 31.9% did not. See Table 3 for detailed descriptions. Most taught at public universities (64.5%) while 35.5% did not. Hours worked was assessed through open-response and was included in the analysis as a continuous variable; however, 39.9% reported working 40 hours or less, while 60.1% reported working greater than 40 hours per week.

**Table 1**

*Responses to Race and Ethnicity Open Response Item*

| Race and Ethnicity | Frequency | % |
|---|---|---|
| White | 71 | 51.4 |
| Black/African American | 28 | 20.3 |
| Asian American and Pacific Islander | 12 | 8.7 |
| Hispanic or Latine | 12 | 8.7 |
| Jewish | 4 | 2.9 |
| Indigenous | 3 | 2.2 |
| Multiracial | 6 | 4.3 |
| Armenian | 1 | 0.7 |
| Pakistani | 1 | 0.7 |

*Note.* $N = 138$.

**Table 2**

*Responses to Sexual Orientation Open Response Item*

| Sexual Orientation | Frequency | % |
|---|---|---|
| Heterosexual | 102 | 73.9 |
| Gay/Lesbian | 12 | 8.7 |
| Bisexual | 7 | 5.1 |
| Bisexual/Pansexual and Pansexual* | 2 | 1.5 |
| Queer | 10 | 7.2 |
| Fluid | 4 | 2.9 |
| Did not disclose | 1 | 0.7 |

*Note.* $N = 138$. *These orientations were combined due to respondent's verbiage when answering the open-response question.

**Table 3**

*Responses to Position Type Item*

| Position Type | Frequency | % |
|---|---|---|
| Full Professor | 27 | 19.6 |
| Associate Professor | 29 | 21.0 |
| Assistant Professor | 59 | 42.8 |
| Visiting Professor | 3 | 2.2 |
| Adjunct | 10 | 7.2 |
| Instructor | 10 | 7.2 |

*Note.* $N = 138$.

## Measures

### *Demographics Questionnaire*

A demographics questionnaire (see Appendix A) was used to assess information valuable to the study. This included questions relating to the instructor's identity and work experiences to facilitate the analysis. For example, type of institution, hours worked per week, and position type (i.e., tenure track or not) was asked so that this information can be accounted for in the analysis. Additionally, participants were asked if they identify as a person of Color or not. This question allowed the research study to explore the impact institutionalized racism has at the group level in the planned quantitative analyses. Other demographic variables were text entry to reduce the potential experience of dehumanization (Strunk & Hoover, 2019).

### *Experience Teaching*

An open response item asking participants to describe their experience teaching a diversity course was asked. This was an attempt to add rich information to the data that comes directly from participants and is not filtered through measures.

### *Student Incivility*

The Faculty Perceptions of Classroom Incivility (FPCI; McKinne & Martin, 2010) was used to measure student incivility and was modeled after Indiana University's Survey of Academic Incivility (2002) with permission. This self-report measure asks participants to reflect on the frequency and severity of student incivility they experience as faculty members. Participants were asked to specifically consider the diversity course they are currently teaching when answering these items. For the purposes of the current study, only the section assessing the frequency of student incivility was used. This section assesses the frequency that 21 commonly

occurring student uncivil behaviors occur. These items were assessed by the original response options, which exist on a four-point Likert scale, ranging from 0 (*Never*) to 3 (*Often*). The behaviors assessed include items such as: "acting bored or apathetic, "disapproving groans," "harassing comments (racial, ethnic, gender) directed at you in the classroom," "Students challenging your credibility in class," and "students taunting or belittling other students." Due to the COVID-19 Pandemic, two additional changes were made to this measure pre data collection. The first change was that an additional response option of "N/A due to course format" was added and coded as missing data. The second change took the shape of two write in options under "other" for participants to list any incivility they noticed not accounted for in this measure (for a total of 23 items). Post data collection, it became clear that instructors found difficulty in using this measure to assess for incivility in their classrooms. Although the majority of items overlap with possible behaviors in online classrooms, many participants marked "N/A due to course format" providing complications for next steps. Thus, two versions of the incivility measure were created. The first FPCI-70 uses a 70% criterion for replacing missing values, meaning that in order to replace missing values through mean substitution a participant needed to complete at least 70% of the measure. The second, FPCI-One required participants to have completed at least one item.

Commonly results from the use of this measure, the measure it was adapted from, and other measures adapted from the original are reported in a descriptive way (i.e., as percentages of individual items). The current study used this measure in a mean score fashion, with a range of 0 – 3, with higher scores indicating more frequent and diverse experiences of student incivility. Validity of this measure was established by McKinne (2008) through the use of pilot testing. Experts were asked to provide feedback across different domains and the responses provided

evidence of the face validity of the measure (McKinne & Martin, 2010). Additionally, the authors conducted test-retest reliability and found an adequate correlation coefficient ($r = 0.721$). For the purposes of these questions the participant was instructed to consider the person who is most immediately responsible for their evaluation (e.g., Chair or Department Head). In the current study, the full 23 item measure had a Cronbach's alpha of .897. If the "other" items were excluded, the scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .852.

***Supervisor Support***

The 16-item version of the Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS; Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988) measure was used to measure supervisor support. Kottke and Sharafinksi revised the Perceived Organizational Support measure, which was originally 36 items, to make up a 16-item self-report measure that assesses supervisor support. For the purposes of this study, the participants were directed to think of the person who is most immediately responsible for their performance evaluations (often a Chair or Department Head). Eisenberger and colleagues (2002) used a shorter version of this scale to measure Perceived Supervisor Support, which was eight items. The 36-item, 16-item, 8-item, and 3-item versions of these measures are all highly correlated with each other (Worley et al., 2009). Sample items include, "My supervisor wants to know if I have any complaints," "My supervisor cares about my opinions," and "Help is available from my supervisor when I have a problem" (Kottke & Sharafinksi, 1988). The Likert-responses range from zero *(strongly disagree*) to six (*strongly agree*) and results in a possible total score range from 0-96 with higher scores indicating more supervisor support.

Although only one-word changes (i.e., organization changed to supervisor) for the Perceived Supervisor Support from the original survey of Perceived Organizational Support, the measures are separate (Hutchinson, 1997) but related constructs (Rhoades and Eisenberger,

2002). This approach to measuring supervisor support is commonly used among those also interested in organizational support (DeConinck & Johnson, 2013; Rhoades et al., 2001). The scale demonstrates adequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .98$) in the original analysis and other studies ($\alpha = .93$; DeConinck & Johnson, 2013), ($\alpha = .97$; Hutchinson, 1997). Kottke and Sharafinksi (1988) conducted a factor analysis with the revised measure and found one factor present for the scale. Eisenberger and colleagues (2002) found that the PSS measure also demonstrated adequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .89$). Additionally, they found the measure negatively correlated with turnover ($r = -.11$, $p < .05$). Maertz and colleagues (2007) found that PSS correlated positively with affective commitment ($r = .44$, $p < .05$, and negatively with withdrawal cognitions, which are thoughts of quitting ($r = -.35$, $p < .05$). In the current study, the Perceived Supervisor Support measure had a Cronbach's alpha of .974.

***Self-Care***

Originally, the author planned to use the Mindful Self Care Scale. This measure is made of up items that shared overlap with culturally relevant self-care behaviors (e.g., social support), however, the measure lacked validation within racially and ethnically diverse individuals. Due to this, a measure created by the researcher was used to address participants' engagement in and satisfaction with self-care. This measure consisted of 6 items. The first question was open response and was used to provide information on how participants in this sample engage in self-care. These items gave the researchers an opportunity to check in with participants on ways this measure aligns or does not align with their understanding of and engagement with self-care. Having open response items provided a better understanding of self-care within the current study's population. The remaining items assessed engagement in and satisfaction with self-care on a seven-point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from, 0 (*Not at all true*) to 6

(*Completely true*) giving the total scale a possible range of 0-30. Higher scores indicate more engagement in and satisfaction with self-care while lower scores indicate less engagement and satisfaction with self-care. The measure had a Cronbach's alpha of .937 in the current study.

***Burnout***

The Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey (MBI-ES; Maslach, 1976) was used to measure burnout. This inventory, created by Maslach, is considered to be the gold standard in burnout research (Myers et al., 2012) and has been adapted for educators. The MBI-ES measures burnout through the use of twenty-two items on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 0 (*never*) to 6 (*every day*). The MBI-ES covers three dimensions: emotional exhaustion (9 items, e.g., "I feel emotionally drained at work"), depersonalization (5 items, e.g., "I've become callous toward people since I took this job"), and personal accomplishment (8 items, "I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work"). The personal accomplishment subscale is reversed scored. The continuous, total scale score will be used for the current study which has a possible range of 0 – 154, with higher scores indicating more reported burnout. Internal reliability estimates are high for the total scale sore ($\alpha$ = . 71), exhaustion ($\alpha$ = .90), and acceptable for cynicism ($\alpha$ = .76) and personal efficacy ($\alpha$ = .76). Convergent validity estimates are high (.77) with another burnout inventory (Enzmann et al., 1995). The Maslach Burnout Inventory has been used with Black and African American samples (Evans et al., 2004; Lakin et al., 2008; Salyers & Bond, 2001) and Asian American samples (Chang et al., 2012) and to a lesser extent with Hispanic and Latina and Latino populations (Chang et al., 2012; Kim & Ji, 2009). Internal consistency estimates are acceptable within Black and African American participants subscales of exhaustion ($\alpha$ = .90), cynicism ($\alpha$ = .79) and personal efficacy ($\alpha$ = .71) as well as Asian American participants exhaustion ($\alpha$ = .86), and acceptable for cynicism ($\alpha$ =

.71; Lakin et al., 2008) and personal efficacy (α = .77; Jacobs & Dodd, 2003). Further more, the MBI predicted higher workload, lower social support, higher negative temperament, and lower positive temperament among Asian American participants, which provides some evidence of validity (Jacobs & Dodd, 2003). The MBI was negatively correlated with decreased social and organizational support among African American and Black participants (Eriksson et al., 2009) In the current study, the Maslach Burnout Inventory had a Cronbach's alpha of .875. The current study found acceptable reliability estimates for each of the subscales: emotional exhaustion (α = .895), depersonalization (α = .631), and personal accomplishment (α = .757). The depersonalization subscale is on the lower end, which is consistent with prior research that found this scale can be on lower among educators (Kokkinos, 2006; Maslach, 2018).

**Procedures**

The principal investigator (PI) contacted directors of training listed as affiliated with APA, CACREP, MPCAC, CSWE, and COAMFTE accredited programs and solicit participants via email. Correspondingly, the PI utilized email listservs such as those used by counselors, psychologists, social workers, instructors, and those in applied psychology who are interested in diversity and inclusion (e.g., CESNET, COUNSGRADS, DIVERSGRAD, APA Division 44). The email invitation included information letter for the study, informing the receiver of the study's intent, the risks and benefits, a link to participate, who is eligible, and who to contact with questions. Potential participants were informed the study should take about 20 minutes. Recipients were asked to forward the email and link to instructors who would be eligible to participate (e.g., those teaching diversity courses). The link connected to a Qualtrics survey, where the information letter and all the measures were available. When someone decided to participate, they simply clicked the link provided in the email and information letter. If they

became uncomfortable, they could discontinue at any time. Participants were informed they might perceive some risk as reflecting on the emotionally laborious task of teaching this course might cause minimal distress. No identifying information was collected so there is no risk of an employer discovering a person's beliefs about teaching diversity courses, thus all results are anonymous. No perceived immediate benefits were expected; however, the results of this study will hopefully be used to improve the field and thus, their experiences in teaching diversity courses. Inclusion criteria were assessed first (i.e., participants must be at least 18 years old and must currently be teaching a graduate level diversity course to mental health professionals in training) and participants will be redirected to an end of survey message indicating they are not eligible if they do not meet these criteria. Aside from the eligibility items and demographics questionnaire, all of the study variables will be randomized in Qualtrics. Participants who completed the survey were presented with the option of entering a drawing to win a twenty-five-dollar gift card. Eighty-four participants entered for the chance to win one of the two gift cards. The random number generator was used to select two numbers. The winners were contacted with the IRB approved template and sent 25-dollar gift cards to amazon.com. All emails have now been deleted.

# Chapter IV

# Results

## Overview

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to conduct all analyses. The first step in analyzing the data was to calculate descriptive statistics. This included descriptive statistics on demographics, which allow the reader to better understand the data. This also included a correlation table. A hierarchical linear regression was used to address the hypotheses and will be discussed below. For descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations) as well as correlations, see Table 4. The measure of self-care and supervisor support were both negatively correlated with burnout. The measure of incivility was negatively correlated with supervisor support and positively correlated with burnout. For details on the amount of burnout in the current sample, see Table 5.

**Table 4**

*Pearson Correlations among Scales*

| Scale | *M* | *SD* | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Maslach Burnout Inventory | 35.75 | 15.77 | - | -.291** | -.441** | .400** |
| 2. Self-Care Scale | 21.52 | 22.28 | | -- | .148 | .017 |
| 3. Perceived Supervisor Support | 71.10 | 22.28 | | | -- | -.284** |
| 4. Faculty Perceptions of Student Incivility | .839 | .378 | | | | -- |

*Note.* $N$=137. *$p$ <.05, two-tailed. **$p$ <.001, two-tailed

**Table 5**

*Means and Standard Deviations for the Maslach Burnout Inventory*

| Measure | Mean | *SD* |
|---|---|---|
| Self-Care Scale Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator (MBI-E) | 35.75 | 15.77 |
| Emotional Exhaustion (EE) | 20.70 | 10.13 |
| Depersonalization (DP) | 4.53 | 4.31 |
| Personal Accomplishment (PA) | 10.52 | 6.03 |

*Note. N*=137.

**Hierarchical Linear Regression**

The purpose of this study was to explore the experiences of those teaching diversity courses to graduate students preparing to enter the mental health field. More specifically, the study sought to examine the role student incivility, supervisor support, and self-care had on burnout and to examine how racial and ethnic identity, as measured at the group level with two levels (i.e., self-identification as a person of Color or not), might moderate these relationships. As previously mentioned, during the dissertation process, a pandemic occurred. This impacted data collection and the results. For example, as this study focuses on the experiences in the classroom and the pandemic changed the way many classrooms looked, additional demographic items were included. An option named "N/A due to class format" as well as two write in options were provided on the student incivility measure based on the assumption that teaching online could alter the way incivility manifests. This complicated the results, and the decision was made to run two regression analyses. The first regression uses a 70% criterion for replacing missing values, meaning that in order to replace missing values through mean substitution a participant needed to respond to at least 70% of the measure items with a response other than "N/A",

consistent with the requirement for other measure in this study. Participants who did not respond to at least 70% of the measure items with an answer other than "N/A" were not included in the analyses. This model will be referred to as regression one moving forward.

Unfortunately, by using this criterion on the student incivility measure, 17 participants were lost. Therefore, the second regression analysis utilized a 70% criterion for all measures except student incivility. Similarly, participants who did not meet the following criteria were not included in the analysis. For student incivility in this model, participants must have answered at least one item with a response other than N/A to be included, which increased the sample size to 137. This model will be referred to as regression two. To justify proceeding with interpretation of these two regressions, several independent sample t-tests were run. There was a significant difference between those who answered 70% of the incivility measure ($M$ = .837, $SD$ = .382) and those who did not ($M$ = .935, $SD$ = .753) in their level of incivility as measured by the scale score requiring only one response $t(135) = -.805$, $p < .001$, which justifies exploring both options. There was no significant difference between those who answered 70% of the incivility measure ($M$ = 21.31, $SD$ = 6.102) and those who did not ($M$ = 23.67, $SD$ = 5.28) in their level of self-care engagement reported; $t(136) = -1.189$, $p$ = .237. There was no significant difference between those who answered 70% of the incivility measure ($M$ = 71.40, $SD$ = 22.01) and those who did not ($M$ = 68.67, $SD$ = 25.02) in their level of perceived supervisor support report; $t(136) = .447$, $p$ = .655. There was no significant difference between those who answered 70% of the incivility measure ($M$ =36.08, $SD$ = 15.30) and those who did not ($M$ = 33.03, $SD$ = 19.58) in their level of burnout reported; $t(136) = .707$, $p$ = .481.Two independent sample t-tests were run to assess the impact class meeting style had on experiences of burnout and incivility. There was a significant difference between synchronous class meetings ($M$ = .812, $SD$ = .384) and asynchronous class

meetings ($M$ = .899, $SD$ = .553) in their level of student incivility reported; $t(101) = -.982$; $p$ = .033. There was also no significant difference between synchronous class meetings ($M$ = 35.20, $SD$ = 14.95) and asynchronous class meetings ($M$ = 35.50, $SD$ = 17.60) in their level of burnout reported; $t(123) = -.092$; $p$ = .927.

In both regressions, several variables were entered into the regression in step one as control variables: gender, position type, type of institution, number of hours worked per week. The introduction of control variables is an attempt to reduce Type I error that is a result of having confounding variables unaccounted for in the study. To be entered into a regression analysis as an accounting variable, there can only be two levels. This complicated the assessment of gender, forcing the open-response variable into a binary. The majority of participants indicated a binary response; two participants provided answers outside the binary ("transgender," and "nonbinary/questioning") and one participant indicated being a transgender man. To avoid excluding these participants' data which would result in a loss of perspective from those outside a cisgender, binary gender and a loss of statistical power, the researcher considered several options. Ultimately the researcher decided to include the participant who responded with "transgender man" in the category labeled man, as transgender men are men. The participant who responded with "transgender" and the participant who responded with "nonbinary/questioning" were included in the "woman, transgender, nonbinary" category. This method has limitations, as this labeling might imply those outside the binary are "women lite" which is inaccurate and harmful (Hearne, 2020). The reasoning behind this choice was a hypothesis that these participants might have more in common with other gender minorities than the men in the study and although the reason is not known, men report less burnout (Templeton et al., 2019). Researchers considered making the categories gender majority and gender minority,

which called into question where to place the participant who indicated being a transgender man. Ultimately, forcing gender into a binary is problematic and unfortunately a statistical necessity in order to account for gender in the regression. Thus, gender was dummy coded (0 = man; 1 = woman, transgender, nonbinary/questioning). Position type or tenure status was dummy coded with yes capturing participants holding tenure track positions and 1 capturing participants in non-tenure track positions (0 = yes; 1 = no). The remaining control variables are an attempt to capture experiences of being overworked, which contributes directly to burnout. Type of institution was dummy coded (0 = private; 1 = public). Number of hours worked was measured through open response and thus continuous. For those participants who put a range of hours, an average was used. Additionally, due to the pandemic an additional variable was accounted for: course delivery format (all online; some or all in person). All non-categorical predictor variables (student incivility, perceived supervisor support, self-care) were standardized into z-scores. Standardizing was done to aid in interpretation and reduce multicollinearity (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Consistent with the instructions of Cohen and colleagues (2003), all interaction variables were made with the standardized variables, but were not standardized themselves.

**Regression 1**

As mentioned, regression 1 refers to the analysis that relied on the 70% criterion for all variables, including incivility. To ensure normality and that no transformations were needed, SPSS was used to examine regression residuals for skewness and kurtosis. An alpha level of .05 (z = +/-1.96) was used and the residuals were within the normal range for skewness (z = 1.75) and kurtosis (z = .635) and thus, no transformations of the data were necessary to conduct the

regression. In step one, all control variables were entered (type of institution, position type, number of hours worked per week, and gender). This model was not significant ($R^2$ = .087, *F* change (5,115) = 2.18, *p* = .061). However, when examining step 1, gender and hours worked were significant. Indicating being a woman, transgender, or nonbinary/questioning predicted greater reported burnout (*B* = 6.79, *p* = .039). Working more hours predicted greater reported burnout (*B* = .243, *p* = .016). The other control variables of institution type, position type, and course format were not significant. In step two, the self-reported variable assessing whether participants identified as a person of Color (POC) or not was regressed onto burnout. The results of this model show that the addition of this variable was not significant ($\Delta R^2$ = .001, *F* change (6,114) = .144, *p* = .705), contradicting Hypothesis 1. In step three, student incivility (FPCI) was entered into the model, explaining an additional 19% of variance ($\Delta R^2$ = .19, *F* change (7,113) = 29.67, *p* = <.001). When examining model 3, experiencing higher student incivility predicted higher reported burnout for participants (*B* = 7.29, *p* <.001), which is congruent with Hypothesis two. In step four, both supervisor support (PSS) and self-care (SC) were entered and were significant, accounting for an additional 14.7% of the variance ($\Delta R^2$ = .147, *F* change (9,113) = 14.20, *p* <.001), congruent with Hypothesis three. When examining model 4, greater reported participation in self-care predicted lower levels of reported burnout (*B* = -2.98, p = .010). Similarly, reporting higher levels of supervisor support predicted lower levels of reported burnout (*B* = -5.32, p = <.001). In step five, all five two-way interactions were entered into the model to prepare for step 6. This model did not add significant variance ($\Delta R^2$ = .031, *F* change (14.106) = 1.19, *p* = .318. Finally, in step six, the two predicted three-way interactions were entered into the model, but their addition was not significant e ($\Delta R^2$ = .017, *F* change (16,104) =

1.67, $p$ = .293); As a whole, model 6 accounted for 47.2% of the variance ($R^2$ = .472) and was significant ($p$ <.001).

In this final model six, several main effects were significant: self-identification as a Person of Color ($B$ = 6.92, $p$ = .006), student incivility ($B$ = 4.58, $p$ =.005), perceived supervisor support $B$ = -4.37, $p$ = .003), and self-care $B$ = -3.25, $p$ =.033). One of the two-way interactions, entered into the model to prepare for step 6, was significant in the final model: incivility by self-care. These results were explored further through a simple slope analysis.

**Table 6**

*Summary of Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Burnout*

| Predictor | $R^2$ | $\Delta R^2$ | $B$ | $SE$ | $\beta$ | $t$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Step 1 | .087* | .087 | | | | |
| Gender | | | 6.79 | 3.25 | .190 | 2.09* |
| Institute Type | | | -.812 | 2.99 | .026 | -.272 |
| Hours Worked | | | .234 | .096 | .234 | 2.45* |
| Position Type | | | -.079 | 3.30 | -.002 | -.024 |
| Course Format | | | -.648 | 2.73 | -.021 | -.238 |
| Step 2 | .088 | .001 | | | | |
| Gender | | | 6.86 | 3.26 | .192 | 2.10* |
| Institute Type | | | .764 | 3.00 | .025 | .254 |
| Hours Worked | | | .234 | .096 | .234 | 2.44* |
| Position Type | | | -.275 | 3.35 | -.008 | -.082 |
| Course Format | | | -.498 | 2.76 | -.016 | -.180 |
| POC Self-Identification | | | 1.08 | 2.84 | .035 | .379 |
| Step 3 | .277** | .190** | | | | |
| Gender | | | 6.56 | 2.92 | .183 | 2.25* |
| Institute Type | | | -.257 | 2.69 | -.008 | -.096 |
| Hours Worked | | | .100 | .089 | .100 | 1.12 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Position Type | | | -1.14 | 3.002 | -.085 | -.380 |
| Course Format | | | -3.72 | 2.54 | -.123 | -1.47 |
| POC Self-Identification | | | 3.63 | 2.58 | .118 | 1.41 |
| Student Incivility (FPCI) | | | 7.29 | 1.34 | .481 | 5.45** |
| Step 4 | .425** | .147** | | | | |
| Gender | | | 4.35 | 2.66 | .122 | 1.64 |
| Institute Type | | | -2.65 | 2.46 | -.085 | -1.07 |
| Hours Worked | | | .053 | .081 | .053 | .648 |
| Position Type | | | -2.95 | 2.73 | -.090 | -1.08 |
| Course Format | | | -3.01 | 2.29 | -.099 | -1.31 |
| POC Self-Identification | | | 5.43 | 2.35 | .176 | 2.31* |
| Student Incivility (FPCI) | | | 6.17 | 1.24 | .407 | 4.97** |
| Perceived Sr Support (PSS) | | | -5.32 | 1.21 | -.342 | -4.41** |
| Self-Care (SC) | | | -2.98 | 1.13 | -.194 | -2.64* |
| Step 5 | .455** | .031 | | | | |
| Gender | | | 4.50 | 2.70 | .126 | 1.67 |
| Institute Type | | | -1.72 | 2.51 | -.055 | -.686 |
| Hours Worked | | | .035 | .082 | .036 | .431 |
| Position Type | | | -1.95 | 2.80 | -.059 | -.695 |
| Course Format | | | -3.15 | 2.31 | -.104 | -1.36 |
| POC Self-Identification | | | 6.41 | 2.40 | .208 | 2.67* |
| Student Incivility (FPCI) | | | 4.94 | 1.60 | .326 | 3.08* |
| Perceived Sr Support (PSS) | | | -4.54 | 1.42 | -.292 | -3.19* |
| Self-Care (SC) | | | -3.35 | 1.51 | -.218 | -2.21* |
| POCxPSS | | | -.896 | 3.09 | -.027 | -.290 |
| POCxSC | | | 1.52 | 2.36 | .065 | .643 |
| FPCIxSC | | | 2.56 | 1.31 | .156 | 1.96* |
| FPCIxPSS | | | -1.30 | 1.27 | -.087 | -1.02 |
| POCxFPCI | | | 3.27 | 2.63 | .131 | 1.25 |
| Step 6 | .472** | .017 | | | | |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender | 4.75 | 2.71 | .133 | 1.75 |
| Institute Type | -1.00 | 2.53 | -.032 | -.397 |
| Hours Worked | .039 | .083 | .039 | .476 |
| Position Type | -1.88 | 2.78 | -.057 | -.675 |
| Course Format | -2.83 | 2.30 | -.094 | -1.23 |
| POC Self-Identification | 6.92 | 2.46 | .224 | 2.82* |
| Student Incivility (FPCI) | 4.58 | 1.61 | .302 | 2.84* |
| Perceived Sr Support (PSS) | -4.37 | 1.43 | -.280 | -3.06* |
| Self-Care (SC) | -3.25 | 1.51 | -.212 | -2.16* |
| POCxPSS | -3.23 | 3.33 | -.097 | -.970 |
| POCxSC | 1.80 | 2.47 | .077 | .728 |
| FPCIxSC | 4.09 | 1.56 | .249 | 2.62* |
| FPCIxPSS | -1.76 | 1.37 | -.118 | -1.28 |
| POCxFPCI | 12.61 | 13.68 | .504 | .922 |
| FPCIxPOCxPSS | .124 | .162 | .383 | .763 |
| FPCIxPOCxSC | -.860 | .477 | -.773 | -1.80 |

*Note.* $N$=121. POC = self-identification as a person of Color; SC = self-care; PSS = perceived supervisor support; FPCI = faculty perceptions of student incivility.

*$p$ <.05. **$p$ <.001.

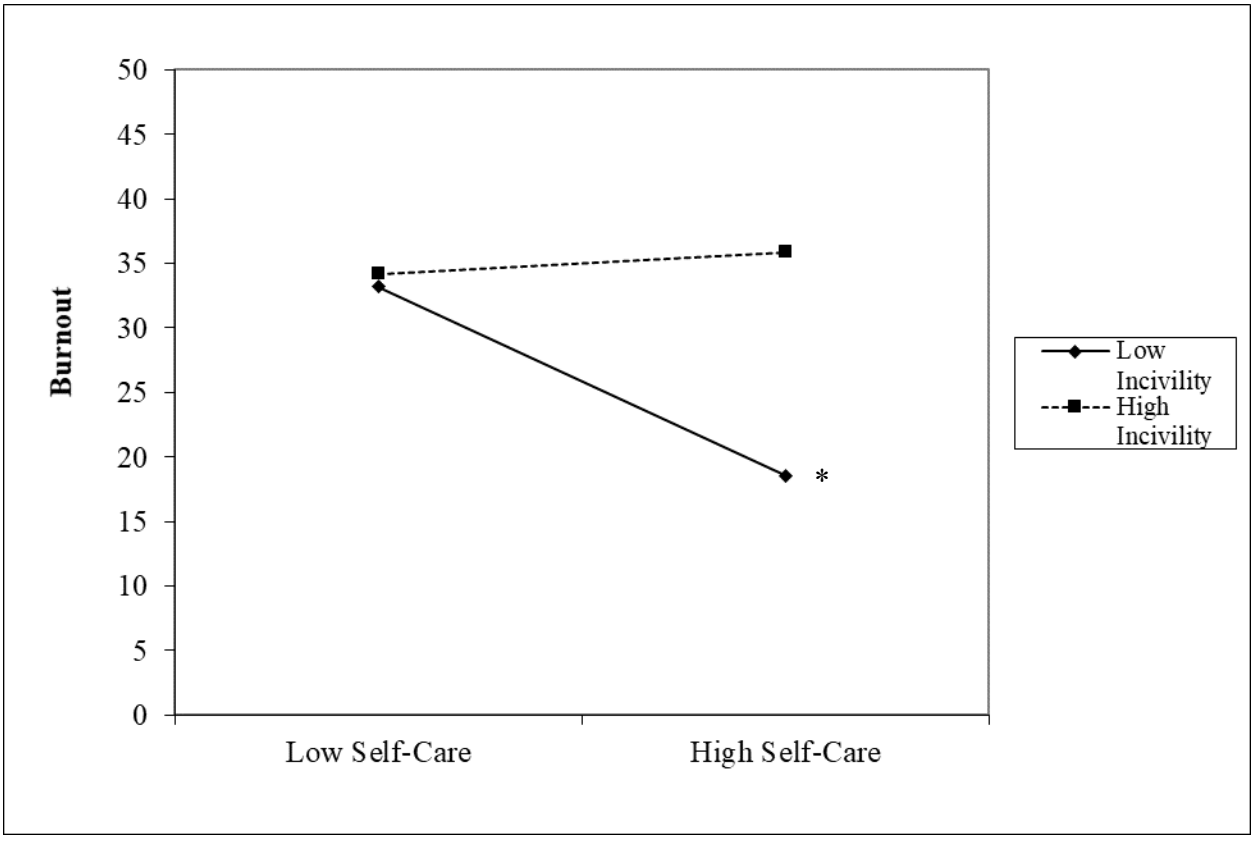
**Simple Slope Analysis for Regression 1**

In regression one, none of the predicted three-way interactions were significant; however, one of the two-way interactions was significant in SPSS: self-care by incivility. As such, I probed the interaction for simple slopes utilizing the work of Dr. Jeremy Dawson (n.d.). Figure 1 shows the results. Results of the simple slope analysis showed that for instructors in low incivility classrooms, more engagement in self-care was associated with significantly less reported burnout ($B$ = -3.252, $t$ = -2.16, $p$ = .033). For instructors in high incivility classrooms,

self-care was not associated with burnout ($B = 0.833$, $t = 0.375$, and a $p = 708$). In addition, a slope different test revealed that the slopes for low versus high incivility classrooms were significantly different, t(238) = 41.98, $p < .001$.

**Figure 1**

*Interaction of self-care by student incivility*




Note. *$p < .05$. This figure shows the interaction between self-care and level of incivility on burnout in regression one.

**Regression 2**

As mentioned, regression 2 refers to the analysis that relied on the 70% criterion for all variables except incivility. For the incivility measure in regression 2, participants must have answered at least one item with a response other than N/A to be included. To ensure normality and that no transformations were needed, SPSS was used to examine regression residuals for skewness and kurtosis. An alpha level of .05 (z = +/-1.96) was used and the residuals were within the normal range for skewness (z = .337) and kurtosis (z = .598) and thus, no transformations of the data were necessary to conduct the regression. As with regression one, several variables were entered into the regression in step one as accounting variables: type of institution, position type, number of hours worked per week, gender, and course delivery format (all online; some or all in person). These variables accounted for 10.6% of the variance in reported burnout ($R^2$ = .106, *F* change (5,131) = 3.12, *p* = .011). When examining model 1, only one control variable was significant. Working more hours, predicted greater reported burnout (*B* = .254, *p* = .008). The other control variables were not significant. In step two, the self-reported variable assessing whether participants identified as a person of Color (POC) or not was regressed onto burnout. The addition of this variable did not add significantly ($\Delta R^2$ = .00, *F* change (6,130) = .002, *p* = .968), meaning Hypothesis one was not met. In step three, student incivility (FPCI) was entered into the model and accounted for 13.4% of the variance ($\Delta R^2$ = .134, *F* change (7,129) = 22.758, *p* < .001). These results are congruent with Hypothesis two, which stated that after accounting for the demographic variables and racial and ethnic identity, student incivility would be a unique positive predictor of burnout. In step four, both supervisor support (PSS) and self-care (SC) were

entered and were significant and accounted for an additional 3.3% of the variance. ($\Delta R^2 = .133$, *F* change (9,127) = 13.51, $p < .001$). When examining model 4, greater reported engagement in self-care predicted lower levels of reported burnout ($B = -3.53$, $p = .002$). Reporting higher levels of supervisor support predicted lower levels of reported burnout ($B = -4.76$, $p < .001$). These results are consistent with Hypothesis three, which stated that after accounting for the demographic variables, racial and ethnic identity, and incivility, both supervisor support and self-care would be unique negative predictors of burnout. In model 4, the following main effects were significant: student incivility ($B = 4.34$, $p < .001$), perceived supervisor support ($B = -4.76$, $p < .001$), and self-care ($B = -3.53$, $p = .002$). Model 4 accounted for 37.4% of the variance as a whole.

In step five, all five two-way interactions were entered into the model to prepare for step 6. This model did not add significant variance ($\Delta R^2 = .043$, *F* change (14,122) = 1.81, $p = .115$). However, one of the interactions within the model was significant. Self-care by incivility was significant in step 5, with an unstandardized beta weight of 3.59 and $p = .009$**.** Finally, in step six, the two predicted three-way interactions were entered into the model and their addition was not significant ($\Delta R^2 = .003$, *F* change (16,120) = .323, $p = .725$), meaning Hypotheses 4 and 5 were not met. As a whole, model 6 accounted for 42% of the variance ($R^2 = .420$). None of the 2-way or 3-way interactions were significant in step 6; thus, no simple slope analyses were conducted. With regards to the main effects, student incivility ($B = 4.75$, $p = .013$), perceived supervisor support ($B = -4.87$, $p = .002$), and self-care ($B = -3.16$, $p = .048$), were significant predictors of burnout.

**Table 7**

*Summary of Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Burnout*

| Predictor | $R^2$ | $\Delta R^2$ | *B* | *SE* | $\beta$ | *t* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Step 1 | .106* | .106* | | | | |
| Gender | | | 6.23 | 3.19 | .163 | 1.95 |
| Institute Type | | | -.202 | 2.93 | -.006 | -.069 |
| Hours Worked | | | .254 | .094 | .243 | 2.70* |
| Position Type | | | -3.27 | 3.17 | -.097 | -1.03 |
| Course Format | | | .114 | 2.66 | .004 | .043 |
| Step 2 | .106* | .000 | | | | |
| Gender | | | 6.23 | 3.20 | .164 | 1.95 |
| Institute Type | | | -.210 | 2.94 | -.006 | -.071 |
| Hours Worked | | | .254 | .094 | .243 | 2.69* |
| Position Type | | | -3.29 | 3.23 | -.097 | -1.02 |
| Course Format | | | .131 | 2.70 | .004 | .049 |
| POC Self-Identification | | | .109 | 2.74 | .003 | .040 |
| Step 3 | .240** | .134** | | | | |
| Gender | | | 6.31 | 2.97 | .165 | 2.13* |
| Institute Type | | | -1.27 | 2.73 | -.039 | -.466 |
| Hours Worked | | | .151 | .090 | .145 | 1.68 |
| Position Type | | | -4.06 | 2.99 | -.120 | -1.36 |
| Course Format | | | -1.48 | 2.52 | -.047 | -.585 |
| POC Self-Identification | | | 1.44 | 2.55 | .045 | .566 |
| Student Incivility (FPCI) | | | 6.12 | 1.28 | .387 | 4.77** |
| Step 4 | .374** | .133** | | | | |
| Gender | | | 4.38 | 2.47 | .115 | 1607 |
| Institute Type | | | -3.14 | 2.53 | -.096 | -1.24 |
| Hours Worked | | | .089 | .084 | .085 | 1.06 |
| Position Type | | | -5.47 | 2.76 | -.162 | -1.98* |
| Course Format | | | -.502 | 2.32 | -.016 | -.217 |
| POC Self-Identification | | | 3.12 | 2.36 | .098 | 1.32 |
| Student Incivility (FPCI) | | | 4.34 | 1.26 | .274 | 3.45** |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Perceived Sr Support (PSS) | | | -4.76 | 1.25 | -.301 | -3.81** |
| Self-Care (SC) | | | -3.53 | 1.14 | -.223 | -3.10* |
| Step 5 | .417** | .043 | | | | |
| Gender | | | 3.50 | 2.74 | .092 | 1.28 |
| Institute Type | | | -2.47 | 2.56 | -.075 | -.963 |
| Hours Worked | | | .088 | .083 | .084 | 1.06 |
| Position Type | | | -5.13 | 2.76 | -.152 | -1.86 |
| Course Format | | | -1.75 | 2.34 | -.056 | -.748 |
| POC Self-Identification | | | 3.65 | 2.37 | .115 | 1.54 |
| Student Incivility (FPCI) | | | 5.0 | 1.82 | .316 | 2.75** |
| Perceived Sr Support (PSS) | | | -5.11 | 1.48 | -.324 | -3.45** |
| Self-Care (SC) | | | -3.19 | 1.57 | -.201 | -2.04* |
| POCxPSS | | | 2.71 | 2.86 | .090 | .949 |
| POCxSC | | | -.205 | 2.30 | -.009 | -.089 |
| FPCIxSC | | | 3.59 | 1.35 | .216 | 2.66* |
| FPCIxPSS | | | -.501 | 1.12 | -.038 | -.446 |
| POCxFPCI | | | -.012 | 2.65 | -.001 | -.005* |
| Step 6 | .420** | .003 | | | | |
| Gender | | | 3.22 | 2.78 | .085 | 1.16 |
| Institute Type | | | -2.40 | 2.59 | -.073 | -.928 |
| Hours Worked | | | .091 | .084 | .087 | 1.08 |
| Position Type | | | -4.88 | 2.80 | -.145 | -1.74 |
| Course Format | | | -1.78 | 2.37 | -.056 | -.752 |
| POC Self-Identification | | | 1.75 | 19.37 | .055 | .090 |
| Student Incivility (FPCI) | | | 4.75 | 1.88 | .301 | 2.53* |
| Perceived Sr Support (PSS) | | | -4.87 | 1.52 | -.308 | -3.20* |
| Self-Care (SC) | | | -3.16 | 1.58 | -.200 | -2.00* |
| POCxPSS | | | 2.36 | 2.93 | .078 | .806 |
| POCxSC | | | -.795 | 5.45 | -.035 | -.146 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| FPCIxSC | 3.32 | 1.88 | .199 | 1.77 |
| FPCIxPSS | -1.05 | 1.38 | -.079 | -.764 |
| POCxFPCI | -6.19 | 9.88 | -.272 | -.627 |
| FPCIxPOCxSC | .138 | 1.05 | .088 | .132 |
| FPCIxPOCxPSS | .077 | .109 | .234 | .702 |

*Note.* $N$=137. POC = self-identification as a person of Color; SC = self-care; PSS = perceived supervisor support; FPCI = faculty perceptions of student incivility.

*$p$ <.05. **$p$ <.001.

**Open Response Results**

Several open response items were included in the survey in an attempt to capture a fuller picture. Participants were asked to list self-care behaviors, to describe what self-care means to them, and to share any experiences about teaching diversity courses. Selected results from these open response items are included in Tables 7, 8, and 9. As the majority of the sample answered each question, it would not be possible to share all answers here; therefore, the researcher selected responses to highlight. The researcher looked for possible patterns by compiling answers that appeared similar to other answers (e.g., searching responses for the word "needs"). Furthermore, for the question asking participants to list self-care activities, the researcher looked for a breadth in responses to represent. This information was collected to provide richness to the data. The current study is in no way a qualitative study and the information presented in the table is purely to add depth to the statistical analyses. When asked to list self-care behaviors, 94% of the sample responded, providing answers that revolved around activities like exercise,

entertainment, social interaction, and nutrition. See Table 8 for specific examples pulled from the data. Participants were also asked what the term self-care means to them and 95% responded. These responses varied and included rationales for self-care (e.g., “to assist” others), values that aligned with self-care (e.g., “fighting for justice”), and highlighted the importance of community. To view a selection of these responses, refer to Table 9.

**Table 8**

*Selected Responses to Self-Care Activities Question*

| Activities |
|---|
| "praying, reading scripture, being alone" |
| "Sleep, exercise, and taking time away from work each day" |
| "walking, overeating, crocheting" |
| "tv, movies, exercise" |
| "Running, cooking, personal counseling" |
| "Netflix, sleep, friends" |
| "Pottery, hanging out with my dogs, spending time with friends/my partner, watching youtube" |
| "Zumba, prayer, family time" |
| "12 step meetings. social support. cross stitch. good sleep. balanced diet." |
| "meditation, walks alone, reading for fun, dance, yoga, Buddhist practice" |
| "watching TV, quiet time, listening to music" |

*Note.* $N = 129$. Selected responses from participants’ answers to the question prompt: “Please list several behaviors that you consider to personally meet your self-care needs”

Finally, participants were asked to describe their experiences teaching diversity courses and 96% of participants responded. Answers varied and the researcher pulled responses that fit under three themes. These themes were: finding the course challenging, finding the course rewarding, and the discussion of instructor identity. Several participants also mentioned the impact of the sociopolitical climate on their experiences teaching a diversity course. Examples of these responses can be found in Table 10.

**Table 9**

*Selected Descriptions of what Self-Care Means*

| Prioritizing Self | Connection | Problems with Term |
|---|---|---|

- "Taking care of yourself and putting your needs at the top of the list."
- "Taking care of myself, putting my own needs first when necessary."
- "Put my needs first and attending to myself."
- "It means that I put my needs above all others so that I might be a strong vessel to assist in elevating others."
- "For me, self-care is often about connection (connection to self, others, and community). Also, self-care is growth and social justice. I do not feel that self-care is a bubble bath or relaxing/being pampered. For me, the most rewarding self-care are the things that make me think, that get me excited, that make me rethink things I thought I knew. I also have to do a lot of self-care for my body because I have chronic pain. So self-care is making sure I attend to all parts of myself."
- "I adhere to a bio-psycho-social-spiritual self care plan. Are my biological needs met (eating, sleeping, exercise)? Is my mental health good? Am I connected socially to people important to me? And do I have something that provides connection and meaning in my life?
- "Self-care is taking time to be with others who love and support me or doing activities that help ground me."
- "Self care is for me, my family, community and the collective."
- "I think it's a great idea and it's also privileged"
- I find the term problematic in that it focuses on individuals rather than the systems as a point of solution"
- "I love the idea of community and self-care - for me it means having the strength to continue fighting for justice and that means remembering that I have basic physical needs that I can't always neglect
- "A process rather than an event"

*Note.* $N = 131$. Selected responses from participants' answers to the question prompt: "Please describe what self-care means to you."

**Table 10**
*Selected Descriptions of Teaching Experience*

| Challenging | Rewarding | Impact of Identity |
|---|---|---|
| • "Challenging emotionally and energetically"<br>• "Challenging to meet students where they are and gently push. Students vary greatly in their awareness levels."<br>• "Challenging, especially after all the racial justice conversations that occurred in 2020. Most of my students think they have done some work but are unable to tolerate"<br>• "Very challenging when the asshole president either directly is and/or empowers racists, sexists, homophobes and xenophobes" | • "It's been the most rewarding and draining experience, especially last year when George Floyd was murdered during the summer I was first teaching my diversity course. It is still sometimes traumatic, reflecting on George Floyd this year for example, covering the trauma and injustice of my own cultural group."<br>• "I find it to be extremely fulfilling."<br>• "Meaningful and eye-opening"<br>• "I feel every semester, I have the opportunity to encourage students to critically challenge their perspectives and experiences." | • "it's been a struggle. As a Black womyn, I carry the emotional and cultural weight of everything that's happening in the world, I read about it. I teach about it and talk about it. It feels like I can't have a real break from topic."<br>• "stressful: first-time ever, I'm a faculty of color, doing it via Zoom and in this political climate of 2020."<br>• "It's a lot of responsibility as a person of color. I find myself reflecting on how my students feel as they come to learn concepts that may make them feel guilty or disheartening by their actions. I believe being a both a helping professional and educator create this intersect in pedagogy."<br>• "This is my first year teaching, and I would say that honestly I find it to be intimidating. As a White male CE, I feel a bit of extra pressure have a high awareness and be a good model for this class and I don't always feel that way, knowing I am still on my own multicultural journey. It is an emotionally draining class and one that I find of critical importance for my CITs. However, it can be rewarding to see students on this journey and achieve critical awareness and support them in this class." |

*Note.* $N = 132$. Selected responses from participants' answers to the question prompt: "How would you describe your experience teaching a diversity course?"

# Chapter V

## Discussion

The purpose of the current study was to examine the experiences of instructors teaching diversity courses to students in the mental health profession. More specifically, the researcher sought to extend the literature by examining previously validated results within the context of teaching a diversity course. For example, the literature already supports incivility as a contributor to burnout (Jiang et al., 2016) and supports self-care and supervisor support as buffers against burnout (Campbell et al., 2013; Santana & Fouad, 2017). The current study evaluates these relationships within the context of teaching a graduate level diversity course and validates these results with a diverse sample. Additionally, the current study sought to extend the literature by examining a possible moderator: racial and ethnic identity as measured at two levels. Although the constructs studied have previously been studied with people of Color, few studies existed (see Adkins-Jackson et al., 2019 for exceptions). The current study extends the literature by validating these constructs with instructors of Color. The ultimate goal of the study was to be able to provide helpful interventions that were supported by research to both individuals and institutions.

As previously mentioned, the COVID-19 Pandemic occurred during data collection. The pandemic caused psychological distress in the general population, higher than would be reported outside the pandemic (Brouwer et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2020). Because of how the coronavirus spreads, the need to isolate from others was necessary (Brooks et al., 2020). Researchers have found that having to quarantine negatively impacts mental health outcomes and is associated

with a host of symptoms from irritability, detachment, depressed mood, and insomnia (Brooks et al., 2020). Moreover, the need to isolate impacted the kinds of self-care people could engage in (Wise, 2020). In a study of K-12 educators, researchers found that COVID-19 anxiety statistically predicted burnout (Pressley, 2021). The pandemic also impacted classrooms. Instructors were forced to quickly reorganize their courses to keep themselves and students safe, which meant adopting more online education elements (Carolan et al., 2020). Distance education, online learning, or contactless teaching can typically be synchronous (i.e., live), asynchronous, or a combination of the two (Zhu & Liu, 2020). Researchers have pointed out that this required a quick shift for all instructors, some of whom may not be technologically savvy (Mishra et al., 2020). Furthermore, not all coursework was equally adaptable to an online environment. For example, classes requiring more hands-on work (e.g., labs) were more difficult to adapt (Mishra et al., 2020). Students also noted some barriers to online learning, such as access to technology, internet connection problems, trouble focusing, and not being interested in classes (Mishra et al., 2020; Pokhrel & Chhetri, 2021). Correspondingly, students remarked on their inability to keep the same pace with online learning and noted finding it harder to engage in discussions and grasp big concepts with distance education (Mishra et al., 2020). Instructors noted being unsure if students were paying attention even in synchronous meetings and mirrored students' statements that conceptual learning and discussions were better suited to in person coursework (Mishra et al., 2020). Other researchers noted the success of using a combined approach, stating that providing asynchronous materials and then using synchronous meetings for discussion is a "very effective way of encouraging skills such as problem-solving, critical thinking, and self-directed learning" Pokhrel & Chhetri, 2021, p. 135). Although data collection was originally scheduled in begin in Spring 2020, the researcher made the decision to postpone

to Fall 2020. Although this delay is not enough to erase any effects of the pandemic on the data, by Fall 2020 instructors had more time to plan their courses and adjust to teaching virtually.

Forms of student incivility in online learning overlap with in-person coursework and examples include being rude, not responding, not paying attention, and cheating (Campbell et al., 2020). However, some forms of student incivility might be unique or more common in digital classrooms. Gailbraith and Jones found that "demanding special treatment […] and expressing the 'I paid for this' mentality" were most common in online learning (Gailbraith & Jones, 2010, p. 4). The researchers also argued that academic dishonesty and an overly familiar communication style with instructors were also more common in online learning (Gailbraith & Jones, 2010). Other examples of online incivility include "trolling or trying to hurt, embarrass, annoy, or instigate an emotional response from others, and flaming or sending abusive, hateful, derogatory, or otherwise inappropriate messages" (Campbell et al., 2020). These statements might be made privately or publicly in spaces like online learning systems or discussion boards.

The COVID-19 Pandemic previously mentioned is not the only cohort effect impacting the current study. As data collection took place in 2020 and 2021, the national response to the murder of George Floyd, a Black man and father killed by Minneapolis police (Altman, 2020) should also be taken into consideration. Collecting data on police shootings is not without complications, but organizations like Mapping Police Violence and The Washington Post track this data. According to The Washington Post, about 1000 people are killed by the police in the United States per year, and among those deaths Black Americans are disproportionately represented (Fatal Force Database, 2021). Additionally, The Washington Post reports that victims are more likely to be young boys and men. Over the past two years, several news stories have captured national attention: the murder of Breonna Taylor, a Black woman and EMT who

was asleep when police shot into her home under the guise of a no-knock warrant, also sparked rightful outrage (Altman, 2020). In 2021, within 24 hours of George Floyd's murderer being convicted, at least six police shootings occurred (Richer & Whitehurst, 2021). Although police killings are not new or distinct to the years 2020 or 2021, there was increased attention paid to police violence toward Black people in mainstream media. Altman (2020) stated that the protests that arose after George Floyd's death "triggered civic unrest in American at a scale not seen since the assassination of Martin Luther King Jr in 1968" (p. 1). Furthermore, Altman highlighted the ways African Americans were disproportionately affected by the COVID-19 Pandemic and how the emotions brewing over the pandemic impacted the way the nation grieved George Floyd (Altman, 2020). Ultimately, the confluence of national events disproportionately impacting people of Color, and specifically Black people, influenced the data. As mentioned in Table 10 in the results section, when asked about teaching a diversity course, several participants explicitly referenced the year's events as contributing to exhaustion.

When examining the accuracy of hypotheses across the two regressions, the results are mixed. For both, the accuracy of hypotheses will be compared to the results in the respective final models (i.e., model 6). As previously mentioned, two regressions were conducted: one with a 70% criterion for the measure of incivility and one with the criterion that participants must have answered at least one item with a response other than "N/A." Because the independent sample *t*-test results showed there was a difference between those who answered 70% of those who did not, two regressions were run and subsequently analyzed. Using the second criteria increased the sample size from 121 to 137, meaning 16 more participants were included in the second regression. Ultimately, regression one (i.e., 70% criterion) is likely a better fit as 1) the criterion is the same for all measures and 2) the incivility measure has more variance. The

downside of relying on regression one as a primary regression is the slight loss of statistical power. Decreasing statistical power increases Type II error, which means it decreases the chances of finding significant results, even when there is one. However, the sample size ($N$ = 121) in regression one was close to the minimum sample size of 126, set by the a priori power analysis. Previous research has highlighted student incivility as a factor contributing to burnout (Chang, 2013; Jiang et al., 2016) so it makes sense that even during a transitional period of instruction, when instructors may still be discovering how incivility manifests online, that incivility would contribute to burnout. Before addressing the hypotheses, it should be noted that in both regressions, hours worked predicted burnout in step one; however, by the final step, his variable was not significant. The results in step one support previous findings that working more hours is associated with more reported burnout (Hu, Chen, & Cheng, 2016). Hypothesis one stated that instructors of Color would experience greater reported burnout, and in both regressions, this was not supported at the step self-identification was entered (i.e., Step 2). The lack of significance in step 2 but significance in model 6 in regression one suggests that this variable carries some noise. This discrepancy could be due to the problems already noted with using this variable. To collapse racial and ethnic identity into this binary option erases nuanced heterogeneous information and flattens variance (Strunk & Hoover, 2019). Of note, however, in model 6, instructors of Color reported higher levels of burnout than non instructors of Color ($B$ =6.92, $p$ = .006). This means that main effect is significant even all interactions are included in the model. This result certainly does not mean that there is a deficit within instructors of Color. Instead, more research is needed to decipher what the most proximal factor in predicting burnout is for instructors and specifically for instructors that are racial and ethnic minorities. Instructors of Color face discrimination in academia (Garner, 2008) and deal with feelings of weariness,

inadequacy, doubt, and experience of being silenced they face (Yee et al., 2015). Given that burnout can be best summarized by the themes of imbalanced work, chronic problems, and conflict, it makes sense that instructors of Color may be experiencing higher levels of burnout.

Hypothesis two, which stated that after accounting for instructor racial and ethnic identity (as measured by the two levels of self-identification as a person of Color), greater student incivility would be a unique positive predictor of burnout. This hypothesis was met in both regressions when looking at each respective final model. When analyzing model 6, student incivility was significant in both regressions, suggesting that when including all interactions, the main effect of student incivility on burnout was significant. As mentioned, participants reported low mean levels of student incivility in the current sample.

Hypothesis three, which stated that after accounting for demographic variables, racial and ethnic identity, and incivility, both greater supervisor support and self-care would be unique negative statistical predictors of burnout. This hypothesis was supported in both regressions at the step when self-care and supervisor support were entered to assess its unique variance and in each respective final model. Previous research has found self-care to be negatively correlated with burnout (Newell & Nelson-Gardell, 2014; Santana & Fouad, 2017). The current results extend the literature by specifically analyzing self-care's impact on burnout among instructors teaching a diversity course. Likewise, previous literature has supported the idea that supervisor support negatively correlated with burnout (Campbell et al., 2013) and is associated with experiences indicative of less burnout (e.g., less turnover, less absenteeism, greater reported satisfaction; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Kottke & Sharafinksi, 1988). The current study extends this by studying the impact of supervisor support on burnout and by analyzing this impact within

the context of instructor experiences. Aspects of the experience of burnout are interpersonal, which highlights why self-care and supervisor support might buffer against the experience.

Finally, the hypotheses relating to the three-way interactions were not supported, as none of the three-way interactions were significant in either regression. Hypothesis 4 stated that after accounting for the above main effects and relevant two-way interactions, student incivility, racial and ethnic identity, and supervisor support will interact to statistically predict burnout. This was not supported in either regression as the interaction of incivility by racial and ethnic identity by supervisor support was not significant. Hypothesis 5, which stated that after accounting for previous main effects and two-way interactions, student incivility, racial and ethnic identity, and self-care would interact to predict burnout was not supported in either regression. However, in regression one, a relevant two-way interaction was significant in the final step of the regression: self-care by incivility. For those in high incivility classrooms, self-care was not associated with burnout. For those in low incivility classrooms, engaging in more self-care was associated with less burnout. The exact explanation for this discrepancy cannot be known in the current study; however, there are a few possible explanations that come to mind. Seeing a negative relationship between self-care and burnout is consistent with current literature (Hotchiss & Lesher, 2018); thus, the slope for low incivility classrooms fits in line with the hypothesis of the current study. However, the non-significant slope for high incivility classrooms warrants more discussion. Further research is needed; however it is possible this could be explained by an existing theory documented within the religious coping literature (Cummings & Pargament, 2010). Cummings and Pargament wrote about the stress mobilization effect which "may be responsible for contradictory findings across cross-sectional religious coping studies" (Cummings & Pargament, 2010, p. 32). Cummings and Pargament shared that a cross-sectional study that finds a positive

relationship might be capturing the higher engagement in coping in response to high stress. A previously noted flaw in the burnout literature exists in the form of relying on individual solutions to institutional problems (Maslach, 2017) and the focus on self-care perpetuates that. As bell hooks was quoted earlier articulating—maintaining one's well-being "while doing work that is unsatisfying, that causes intense stress, and that gives little satisfaction" is essentially not achievable (hooks, 1994, p. 32). Moreover, although participants were encouraged to think of self-care activities specific to themselves, it is also possible that the definition provided was too narrow and wouldn't encompass other effective tools like community care (Dockray, 2019).

**Implications**

Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (2018) warn against using a score to diagnosis burnout, but state that it can be useful to compare scores to normed samples. The means for Emotional Exhaustion (EE) and Personal Accomplishment (PA) in the current sample were higher than in previous studies that used the summarization method (i.e., total sum score) among educators. See Table 4 for means and standard deviations for the MBI-ES subscales. These results suggest that for all instructors, regardless of racial and ethnic identity, levels of reported burnout were higher than what are typically reported in other education samples. As previously mentioned, numerous participants reported that teaching a diversity course is "challenging." One instructor defined the experience in the following way: "tough, challenging, emotional, tense, vulnerable, attacked, empowering, honest, raw, delicate." Mentioned earlier, several instructors of Color remarked on the ways their identity impacted the experience of teaching. Again pulling from the open response items, a few white instructors also mentioned that their race played into their experience teaching a diversity course. One participant shared, "It's been a positive experience. I

recognize I have a ton of privilege (White, Male, Heterosexual, cisgender---and all my underprivileged identities are deep-level as opposed to surface-level, so I can, and do conceal them)." Because this researcher was unable to find other studies measuring reported burnout among instructors teaching diversity courses, more specific comparisons cannot be made.

Other possible explanations for the higher levels of burnout exist. Within the open response items, it is clear that the unique social and political climates facing the nation in 2020 and 2021 impacted the experience of teaching diversity courses. One participant remarked, "It has becoming increasingly challenging to teach this course (May 2020 onward) given the increased racial tension and blatant racism/other isms and current political climate. As a Black woman, I am finding myself needing to do even more 'work' personally so I can remain effective in my teaching." Another shared the following: "It is a challenging course to teach, particularly in the midst of the pandemic and racial justice uprisings." Although it is not possible to determine causation, it is clear that levels of burnout were higher in this sample than is typical in educator samples. Administrators and supervisors in higher education must consider the level of burnout and work to address systemic problems impacting instructor experiences.

Next, the implications of supervisor support must be addressed. Administrators should pay special attention to these results, especially universities with stated goals of diversity, equity, and inclusion. Universities with task forces reporting the goal of improving campus climate for racial and ethnic minorities should consider the ways they can better support the instructors doing the work. The results of the current study support the hypothesis that more supervisor support is associated with less burnout. This is especially relevant for instructors experiencing high student incivility; therefore, administrators might consider what extra steps could be taken to protect instructors in those classrooms. Campbell and colleagues (2013) highlighted the role

encouragement, showing concern, and offering concrete assistance can play in preventing burnout. Additionally, the authors wrote about supervisors paying attention to instructors' level of exhaustion and acting accordingly. For example, supervisors could alter workloads, offer time off, and provide more one-on-one time in response (Campbell et al., 2013). Gordon and colleagues (2016) offered three categories of supervisor support than can prevent burnout: providing authentic support, measuring well-being and perception of support, individual interventions. Supervisors being "sincere and deliberate in their actions" was vital especially when contrasted with "lip-service" (Gordon et al., 2016). Soliciting feedback on how supervisees are doing and how they perceive supervisor response is vital and allows supervisors to tailor interventions to the specific needs of the supervisee. Having individual meetings with supervisees, creating a space for supervisees to be a whole person—not a separate work self—and offering direct support in relation to specific concerns are important ways to support supervisees (Gordon et al., 2016).

Given the unique factors involved with a diversity course (Miller, 2019), administrators charged with course assignments might consider weighing diversity courses differently than courses with less dynamics to monitor. Moreover, although not assessed in the current study, previous research demonstrates that instructors of Color are frequently forced in roles dedicated to diversity (Thomas, 2018). Given the impact teaching a diversity course can have on an instructor and specifically instructors of Color, administrators should not just consider how they can better support employees in that role but also reflect on how those roles became established. This seems especially vital given the mixed results on self-care and burnout in the current study. Engagement in self-care appeared positive on the whole. More reported engagement in self-care was statistically predictive of lower levels of burnout; however, the unique two-way interaction

is a cause for further investigation. In regression one, for those instructors experiencing low levels of student incivility, engaging in more self-care was associated with lower levels of burnout; however, for instructors in high incivility classrooms, self-care was not associated with burnout. The reasons for this discrepancy are not known, but an important implication that remains true is that we cannot rely on individual solutions to institutional problems. The results of this study highlight the importance of structural solutions (e.g., supervisor support) over individual ones (e.g., self-care). In a report on how to better support faculty after COVID-19, Gonzalez and Griffin (2020) highlighted some key structural solutions. These solutions included: altering course evaluations to reduce racial and gender-based discrimination by focusing on what instructors learned about teaching online, giving instructors a space to highlight the emotional support they provided students, including engagement in mentorship and additional trainings in evaluations.

Although the current study assessed incivility, supervisor support, self-care, and burnout among a specific subset of academia, the results offer tentative implications to a broader context. For example, supervisors in all areas of academia should consider the ways they can support instructors, especially those facing higher levels of incivility. Additionally, those supervising clinical work might consider the ways these results could guide their interventions. For example, the mental health field places strong importance on clinician's use of self-care (Barnett, 2010). The results of the current study might create some pause for supervisors to consider the ways they could offer structural support to their supervisees in addition to creating a space that allows for and encourages self-care. Although Gordon and colleagues (2016) were not writing about clinical supervision, the implications matter: allow the supervisee to be their whole self, not just part of themselves.

**Limitations and Future Considerations**

Throughout the document, a several limitations have already been noted. The first relates to the way the researchers categorized racial and ethnic identity in the current study. As previously mentioned, the collapsing of incredibly heterogeneous information into two categories is problematic (Strunk & Hoover, 2019). This is a problem from a social justice lens and a statistical lens as it forces unique individuals with their own unique lived experiences into two simple categories. This also flattens variance and makes it more difficult to provide solutions. The purpose of the current study was to gain a better understanding of the experiences of those instructors teaching diversity courses. Although the researcher sought to better understand the experiences of all instructors, ignoring, or avoiding racial and ethnic identity seemed even more flawed. Thus, the current study should be taken as a first step. Readers should not take away that racial and ethnic identity causes burnout but that most likely, the institutionalized discrimination causes burnout. Future research is needed to discover the more proximal causes of burnout. The problem of categorization extends to terms. Throughout this document, terms like "people of Color" and "instructors of Color" were used to denote racial and ethnic minorities. This method of categorization has increasingly been called into question, although at times the reasoning was that the term "helped define a united front against those in power" (Kim, 2020, p. 1). However, as Meraji and colleagues (2020) pointed out on "Code Switch," the term ignores a reality that "certain effects of racism—things like mass incarceration, police violence, inability to access good health care—disproportionately affect Black and Indigenous people. Not all 'people of Color'." (p. 1). Recently, another acronym has gained momentum both in academia and the mainstream media as a replacement for people of Color is BIPOC. BIPOC stands for Black, Indigenous, people of color and "is used in order to decolonize

identity" (Alexander, 2020). The emergence of using BIPOC over people of Color (POC) recently appears to be an attempt to address the "flattening" of the term POC by white people (Grady, 2020). Ultimately, within this study asking participants if they identified as a BIPOC would have the same effect, as the limitation present is a flattening. Grady states that when new terms emerge "[white liberal speakers] begin to slot in the new terms for the old without thinking too much about how the new terms are different" (Grady, 2020, p. 2). Despite the limitations, the researcher believed they could not leave race and ethnicity out of the analysis. To ignore race and ethnicity in an attempt to avoid the complicated nature of quantitative analysis with race and ethnicity at the group level benefits Whiteness and as Strunk and Hoover (2019) point out—perpetuates a system where only the privileged groups have their voices heard. On the other side, to measure race and ethnicity by asking participants if they identify as a person of Color also has limitations. In addition to the noted limitations of flattening of nuance and lack of understanding of the most proximal predictors, it could also be used or misinterpreted by others to mean that instructors of Color are flawed or deficient (Strunk & Hoover, 2019). That is antithetical to the purpose of this research study. The rationale for using this paradigm was to research the experiences of those teaching diversity courses, discover if disparate outcomes do exist at the two levels in the study and if so, to provide valuable next steps in investigating the more proximal reasons for said differences. Given that both models 4 and 6 showed that identifying as a person of Color was associated with higher reported burnout in regression one, future research should focus on examining more proximal factors contributing to burnout among racial and ethnic minorities (e.g., experiences of racism, race-based trauma).

A similar problem exists with the way gender was recoded to function in the regression analysis. Although gender was assessed through an open-response question to be in line with

more socially just research recommendations (Strunk & Hoover, 2019), in order to be entered into the regression as an accounting variable this information had to be reduced to two levels. After much consideration, the two levels chosen were: men (0) and women, transgender, nonbinary/questioning (1). As mentioned previously, this might reinforce the notion that those existing outside the gender binary are "women lite" and invalidate participants gender by placing them in a category with women (Hearne, 2020). The decision was made to use these categories based on the hypothesis that the participants who indicated being "transgender" and "nonbinary/questioning" would have more in common with other gender minorities than men. Future research might consider exploring more proximal factors contributing to burnout that could explain why men typically report lower levels. Additionally, future research that recruits a diverse sample of gender minorities would benefit the literature.

Another limitation of the current study is the creation of a unique self-care measure. As the measure of self-care was created for the purposes of this study, it has not been psychometrically validated or normed with specific populations. However, the measure was created due to a lack of measures appropriate for use outside of a Westernized, Eurocentric view of self-care. The Cronbach's Alpha for the measure was acceptable($\alpha = .937$); however, the measure has no prior validity. Several participants in the current reported concerns over the construct of "self-care" in the open-response section of the survey. Some also pointed out that their personal definitions of self-care involved more collective components. Chamberlain (2020) wrote about how engaging in self-care can have negative and positive repercussions for others and provided the example of someone taking off work in an organization where the absence would mean the work would not get done. One direction for future research might be to create a psychometrically validated measure of self-care that does not center one culture's definition of

self-care and includes more collective care. This could be accomplished through focus groups, careful selection of an expert panel that could provide content validity, and then pilot testing. Another future direction for research to take self-care could be to conduct a longitudinal study that allows for more expansive analysis of the construct over time.

As noted previously, the current study has threats to internal validity as a result of history effects (e.g., pandemic). During data collection, every participant was experiencing the COVID-19 Pandemic. Although the pandemic may have impacted everyone differently, it is a lived experience that every single participant shared. Additionally, new research has cited the pandemic as a major contributor to burnout in academia (Gewin, 2021), thus complicating the results of the current study. In a study examining the experiences of instructors during the pandemic, researchers found that "online migration engendered significant dysfunctionality and disturbance to their pedagogical roles and their personal lives" (Watermeyer et al., 2021, p. 623). It could be worthwhile to explore the impact student incivility, supervisor support, and self-care has on burnout after the general population has recovered from the effects of the pandemic. In addition to the pandemic, the national response to police brutality also impacted the results of the current study, especially given the overlap in content with the course itself. Previous research has documented the negative effect of being inundated with violent videos of police shootings on social media has on people of Color (Campbell & Valera, 2020). This was also highlighted in the instructor responses to the open-ended questions (see Table 9). A future study that could assess for the race-based trauma instructors of Color experience would significantly contribute to the literature.

Finally, the shift to primarily online instruction negatively impacted the measurement of student incivility. Although most of the items assessed through the Faculty Perception of Student

Incivility Measure were still relevant, many instructors heavily relied on the "N/A due to course format" option when responding. Future research should focus efforts on implementing a measure that can accurately assess for student incivility across a wide range of settings, in both in-person and online classrooms synchronously and asynchronously.

**Conclusions**

The purpose of the current study was to better understand the experience of instructors who teach courses related to diversity and inclusion to mental health professionals in training. More specifically, the purpose of the current study was to understand the impact teaching a diversity course can have on one's reported experiences of burnout and to investigate potential proactive behaviors individuals and institutions can be engaged in (i.e., self-care and supervisor support) while gaining additional understanding of what might contribute to burnout (i.e., student incivility). The teaching of diversity courses involves additional labor that other courses do not typically require for all instructors. Previous research supported the notion that instructors of Color have different experiences in higher education due to institutionalized racism. The current study found mixed results in relation to the impact of race and ethnicity, with regression one showing that those who identified as a person of Color reported higher levels of burnout. This does not mean race and ethnicity cause burnout, but instead functions to highlight the inequity in academia.

The current study set out to understand how the levels of burnout may vary across the two levels of racial and ethnic identification and found mixed results. In both regressions, when instructor self-identification was entered into the model, the variable was not significant; however, in the final model of regression 1, the variable of self-identification was significant. This suggests that instructors of Color did report higher levels of burnout even when additional

variables were entered into the model. Additionally, the current study assessed the reported experiences of student incivility in graduate level diversity courses. The current study also assessed the impact engagement in self-care behaviors has on the experience of teaching diversity courses and found that being more engaged in self-care statistically predicted less burnout. However, the two-way interaction in regression one did point to self-care not being associated with burnout in high-incivility classrooms, suggesting a need for further research. Similarly, the current study explored the impact of supervisor support on burnout and found that having higher levels of support was associated with less burnout. Finally, the current study explored the ways in which these relationships may differ across racial and ethnic identity at two levels. These results were not significant.

The results of this study are important as they provide an initial step in better understanding what instructors of diversity courses are experiencing. Better understanding of problems allows for researchers, administration, instructors, and universities to focus on solutions. Although complicated, the results of the current study point to the important role student incivility and supervisor support play in classrooms. Furthermore, the study alludes to the hidden tax placed on instructors of Color in higher education. Finally, the study clarifies that instructors are experiencing higher than typical levels of burnout, which warrants quick intervention on the part of universities.

References

Acker, G. M. (2018). Self-care practices among social workers: Do they predict satisfaction and turnover intention? *Social Work in Mental Health*, *16*(6), 713-727. https://doi.org/10.1080/15332985.2018.1494082

Adams, M., & Bell, L. A. (Eds.). (2016*). Teaching for diversity and social justice.* New York: Routledge.

Adkins-Jackson, P. B., Turner-Musa, J., C, & Chester, C. (2019). The path to better mental health for Black women: Predicting self-care and exploring its mediating effects on stress and health. *The Journal of Health Care Organization, Provision, and Financing, 56*, 1-8, https://doi.org/10.1177/0046958019870968

Ahmed, S. (2012). *On being included: Racism and diversity in institutional life*. Durham, NC: Duke University Press

Albieri, D. A., Salvagonioni, J., Melanda, F. N., Mesas, A. E., Gonzalez, A. D., Gabani, F. L., & Andrade, S. M. (2017). Physical, psychological and occupational consequences of job burnout: A systematic review of prospective studies. *PLoS ONE*, *12*(10). https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0185781

Alexander, M. (2020, July 28). Perpetuating abolition in the language we use: Does 'BIPOC' get the job done? *Reclamation magazine.* https://reclamationmagazine.com/2020/07/28/perpetuating-abolition-in-the-language-we-use-does-bipoc-get-the-job-done/

Altman, A. (2020, June 4). Why the killing of George Floyd sparked an American uprising. *Time Magazine*. https://time.com/5847967/george-floyd-protests-trump/

American Psychological Association. (2002). *Guidelines on multicultural education, training, research, practice, and organizational change for psychologists*. https://www.apa.org/about/policy/multicultural-guidelines-archived.pdf

American Psychological Association. (2013). *APA guidelines for the undergraduate psychology major*. https://www.apa.org/ed/precollege/about/psymajor-guidelines.pdf

American Psychological Association. (2015). Guidelines for clinical supervision in health service psychology. *American Psychologist, 70*(1), 33-46. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038112

American Psychological Association. (2017). *Multicultural Guidelines: An ecological approach to context, identity, and intersectionality.* http://www.apa.org/about/policy/multicultural-guidelines.pdf

Anderson, J. A. (1999). *Faculty responsibility for promoting conflict-free college classrooms.* New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 77, 69-70

Applebaum, B. (2011). Being white, being good: White complicity, white moral responsibility, and social justice pedagogy. Lanham, Mass.: Lexington Books

Aruguete, M. S., Slater, J., & Mwaikinda, S. R. (2017). The effects of professors' race and clothing style on student evaluations. *The Journal of Negro Education*, *86(*4), 494-502.

Bailey, D. S. (2006). Burnout harms workers' physical health through many pathways. *Monitor, 37*(7), 11-12. https://www.apa.org/monitor/jun06/burnout

Baker, E. K. (2003). *Caring for ourselves: A therapist's guide to personal and professional well-being.* Washington, DC: American Psychological Association

Barnett, P. E. (2010). Discussions across difference: Addressing the affective dimensions of teaching diverse students about diversity. *Teaching in Higher Education, 16*(6), 669-679. https://doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2011.570435

Barnett, J.E., Baker, E.K., Elman, N.S., & Schoener, G.R. (2007). In pursuit of wellness: The self-care imperative. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 38, 603-612.

Barnett, J. E., & Cooper, N. (2009). Creating a culture of self-care. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice*, 16, 16-20.

Basow, S. A., Codos, S., & Martin, J. L. (2013). The effects of professors' race and gender on student evaluations and performance. *College Student Journal, 47*(2), 352-363.

Benita, M., Butler, R., & Shibaz, L. (2018). Outcomes and antecedents of teacher depersonalization: The role of intrinsic orientation for teaching. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 111*(6), 1103-1118. https://doi.org/10.1037/edu0000328

Berglund Center (Producer) (2014). Angela Davis: Pacific University 2014. [Vimeo]. https://vimeo.com/94879430

Bodner, K. E. (2012). Ethical principles and standards that inform educational gatekeeping practices in psychology. *Ethics & Behavior, 22*(1), 60-74. https://doi.org/10.1080/1050808422.2012.638827

Bowling, N., & Beehr, T. A. (2006). Workplace harassment from the victim's perspective: A theoretical model and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(5), 988-1012. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.5.988

Boyle, S. (2017). Remembering the origins of the self-care movement. *Bust* https://bust.com/feminism/194895-history-of-self-care-movement.html

Boysen, G. A., Isaacs, R. A., Chicosky, R. L., & Delmore, E. E. (2020, October 12). Intense dislike of students: Frequency, causes, effects, and management among college teachers. *Scholarship of Teaching and Learning in Psychology*. Advance online publication. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/stl0000200

Bridgeman, D. L., & Galper, D. I. (2010, August 12-15). Listening to our colleagues: 2009 practice survey – worries, wellness, & wisdom. [Conference presentation]. American Psychological Association 118th Annual Convention, San Diego, CA, United States. https://www.apa.org/practice/resources/assistance/acca-2010-convention.pdf

Brouwer, K. R., Walmsley, L. A., Parrish, E. M., McCubbin, A. K., Welsh, J. D., Braido, C., & Okoli, C. (2021). Examining the associations between self-care practices and psychological distress among nursing students during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Nurse Education Today*, *100*, 104864. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nedt.2021.104864

Brooks, S. K., Webster, R. K., Smith, L. E., Woodland, L., Wessely, S., Greenberg, N., & Rubin, G. J. (2020). The psychological impact of quarantine and how to reduce it: rapid review of the evidence. *The Lancet, 395*(10227), 912-920. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30460-8

Broome, K. M., Knight, D. K., Edwards, J. R., & Flynn, P. M. (2009). Leadership, burnout, and job satisfaction in outpatient drug-free treatment programs. *Journal of Substance Abuse Treatment, 37*(2), 160-70. https://doi.org/10.1016/j/jsat.2008.12.002

Brown, S. (2016, January 15). Diversity courses are in high demand. Can they make a difference? *Chronicle of Higher Education*, *62*(18), 15.

Brown-Rice, K., & Furr, S. (2015). Gatekeeping ourselves: Counselor educators' knowledge of colleagues' problematic behaviors. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 54*(3), 176-188. https://doi.org/10.1002/ceas.12012

Campbell, F., & Valera, P. (2020). "The only thing new is the cameras": A study of U.S. college students' perceptions of police violence on social media. *Journal of Black Studies*, *51*(7), 654–670. https://doi.org/10.1177/0021934720935600

Campbell, L. O., Jones, J. T., & Lambie, G. W. (2020). Online academic incivility among adult learners. *Adult Learning*, *31*(3), 109–119. https://doi-org.spot.lib.auburn.edu/10.1177/1045159520916489

Campbell, N. S., Perry, S. J., Maertz, C. P., Jr., Allen, D. G., & Griffeth, R. W. (2013). All you need is . . . resources: The effects of justice and support on burnout and turnover. *Human Relations*, 66(6), 759-782. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726712462614

Carolan, C., Davies, C. L., Crookes, P., McGhee, S., & Roxburgh, M. (2020). COVID 19: Disruptive impacts and transformative opportunities in undergraduate nurse education, *Nurse Education in Practice, 46*, 1-2. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nepr.2020.102807

Cartwright, S. A. (1851, May). Report on the disease and physical peculiarities of the negro race. *The New Orleans Medical and Surgical Journal*, *7*, 691-715. https://babel.hathitrust.org/cgi/pt?id=hvd.32044103099164&view=page&seq=5&skin=2021

Center for Survey Research. (2000, June 14). *A survey on academic incivility at Indiana University. Preliminary report*. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University. https://docplayer.net/41146807-Academic-incivility-a-survey-on-at-indiana-university-preliminary-report-center-for-survey-research-june-14-2000.html

Chamberlain, L. (2020). From self-care to collective care. *International Journal on Human Rights, 17*, 214-225. https://doaj.org/article/ffa1608fb3764f9cbb9938f65ca3cacf

Chang, E., Eddins-Folensbee, F., & Coverdale, J. (2012). Survey of the prevalence of burnout, stress, depression, and the use of supports by medical students at one school. *Academic Psychiatry, 36*, 177-182.

Chang, M. L. (2013). Toward a theoretical model to understand teacher emotions and teacher burnout in the context of student misbehavior: appraisal, regulation and coping. *Motivation and Emotion 37*, 799–817. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11031-012-9335-0

Chen, C., & Chiu, S. (2008). An integrative model linking supervisor support and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 23(1), 1–10.

Chou, F., Dodd, M., Abrams, D., & Padilla, G. (2007). Symptoms, self-care, and quality of life of Chinese American patients with cancer. *Oncology Nursing Forum, 34*, 1162-1167. https://doi.org/10.1188/07.ONF.1162-1167

Christopher, C. J., & Maris, A. J. (2010). Integrating mindfulness as self-care into counselling and psychotherapy training. *Counselling and Psychotherapy Research*, 10(2): 114-125.

Christopher, C. J., Chrisman, J. A., Trotter-Mathison, M. J., Schure, M. B., Dahlen, P., & Christopher, S. B. (2011). Perceptions of the long-term influence of mindfulness training on counselors and psychotherapists: a qualitative inquiry. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 51*(3), 318-349. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022167810381471

Chun, E., & Evans, A. (2009). Bridging the diversity divide: Globalization and reciprocal empowerment in higher education [Special Issue]. *ASHE Higher Education Report*, 35(1), 1-144. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/aehe.3501

Cohen, D. J. (2019, January 17). Self-care for the new year. *Inside Higher Ed*. https://www.insidehighered.com/advice/2019/01/17/professor-gives-advice-colleagues-starting-new-year-self-care-opinion

Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S.G., & Aiken, L.S. (2002). Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge.

Cole, M., Bruch, H., & Vogel, B. (2006). Emotion as mediators of the relations between perceived supervisor support and psychological hardiness on employee cynicism. *Journal of Organizational Behavio*r, *27*(4), 463. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.381

Commission on Accreditation for Marriage and Family Therapy Education (COAMFTE). (2017). Accreditation standards: Graduate & post-graduate marriage and family therapy training programs.

https://www.coamfte.org/documents/COAMFTE/Accreditation%20Resources/2018%20COAMFTE%20Accreditation%20Standards%20Version%2012%20May.pdf

Cook-Cottone, C. P., & Guyker, M. W. (2018). The development and validation of the Mindful Self-Care Scale (MSCS): An assessment of practices that support positive embodiment. *Mindfulness, 9*, 161-175. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12671-017-0759-1

Cortina, L. M., Magley, V. J., Williams, J. H., & Langhout, R. D., (2001). Incivility in the workplace: Incidence and impact. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 6*, 64-80

Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Education Programs (CACREP). (2016). CACREP Standards. http://www.cacrep.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/05/2016-Standards-with-Glossary-5.3.2018.pdf

Czopp, A. M., Monteith, M. J., & Mark, A. Y. (2006). Standing up for a change: Reducing bias through interpersonal confrontation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 90*(5), 784-803. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.90.5.784

Daut, M. L. (2019, September 6). Becoming full professor while Black. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, *66*(1) B15-B17. https://www.chronicle.com/article/Becoming-Full-Professor-While/246743

Dawson, J. (n.d.). Interpreting interaction effects. http://www.jeremydawson.co.uk/slopes.htm.

DeConinck, J. B., & Johnson, J. T. (2013). The effects of perceived supervisor support, perceived organizational support, and organizational justice on turnover among salespeople. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management, 29*(4), 333-350. https://doi.org/10.2753/PSS0885-3134290403

DePaulo, B. M. (1992). Nonverbal behavior and self-presentation. *Psychological Bulletin, 111*, 203-243.

DiAngelo, R., & Sensoy, O. (2014). Getting slammed: White depictions of race discussions as arenas of violence. *Race, Ethnicity, and Education, 17*(1), 103-128. https://doi.org/10.1080/13613324.2012.674023

Du Plessis, A. E. (2018). Barriers to effective management of diversity in classroom contexts: The out-of-field teaching phenomenon. *International Journal of Educational Research, 93*, 136-152. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2018.11.002

Ducharme, L. J., Knudsen, H. K., & Roman, P. M. (2008). Emotional exhaustion and turnover intention in human service occupations: The protective role of coworker support. *Sociological Spectrum, 28*(1), 81-104. https://doi.org/10.1080/02732170701675268

Dockray, H. (2019, May 24). *Self-care isn't enough. We need community care to thrive*. https://mashable.com/article/community-care-versus-self-care/

Dorociak, K.E. (2015) Development of the Professional Self-Care Scale. Retrieved from https://ecommons.luc.edu/luc_theses/3130/

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchinson, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 71, 500-507

Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I. L., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: Contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(3), 565-573.

Enzmann, D., Schaufeli, W. B., & Girault, N. (1995). The validity of the Maslach Burnout Inventory in three national samples. In Bennett, L., Miller, D., & Ross, M. (Eds.) *Health workers and AIDS: Research, intervention and current issues in burnout and response*. (pp. 131-150). Harwood Academic Publishers.

Erickson, C. B., Bjorck, J. P., Larson, L. C., Walling, S. M., Trice, G. A., Fawcett, J., Abernethy, A. D., & Foy, D. W. (2009). Social support, organizational support, and religious support in relation to burnout in expatriate humanitarian aid workers, *Mental Health, Religion, and Culture, 12*(7), 671-686. https://doi.org/10.1080/13674670903029146

Evans, G. D., Bryant, N. E., Owens, J. S., & Koukos, K. (2004). Ethnic differences in burnout, coping, and intervention acceptability among childcare professionals. *Child & Youth Care Forum, 33*(5), 349-371. https://doi.org/10.1023/B:CCAR.0000043040.54270.dd

Fasching-Varner, K. J. (2015). In Albert, K., Mitchell, R., & Allen, C. (Eds.) *Racial battle fatigue in higher education: Exposing the myth of post-racial America*. Washington DC: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers

Fatal Force Database (2020). Fatal force: Police shootings database. *The Washington Post*. https://www.washingtonpost.com/graphics/investigations/police-shootings-database/

Feldman, L.J. (2001). Classroom civility is another of our faculty responsibilities. *College Teaching, 49*,(4), 137-140.

Feng, U., Mosimah, C. I., Sizemore, G., Goyat, R., & Dwibedi, N. (2019). Impact of mindful self-care and perceived stress on the health related quality of life among young-adult

students in West Virginia. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment, 29*(1), 26-36. https://doi.org/10.1080/10911359.2018.1470953

Fernet, C., Guay, F., Senecal, C., & Austin, S. (2012). Predicting intraindividual changes in teacher burnout: The role of perceived school environment and motivational factors. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 28*, 514-525. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2011.11.013

Finegan, J. (2017, March 23). Solving the problem of "teaching to the middle." *ASCD Express, (12)*14. http://www.ascd.org/ascd-express/vol12/1214-finegan.aspx

Galbraith, M. W., & Jones, M. S. (2010). Understanding incivility in online teaching. *Journal of Adult Education*, *39*(2), 1–10.

Gaines, G. M., (2018). The strong Black woman's perceptions of self-care engagement. [Doctoral dissertation, St. John Fisher College]. https://fisherpub.sjfc.edu/education_etd/375

Garner, P. W. (2008). The challenge of teaching for diversity in the college classroom when the professor is 'other.' *Teaching in Higher Education, 13*(1), 117-120. https://doi.org/10.1080/13562510701794175

Gewin, V. (2021, March 15). Pandemic burnout is rampant in academia: Remote working, research delays, and childcare obligations are taking their toll on scientists, causing stress and anxiety. *Nature, 591*, 489-491. https://www.nature.com/articles/d41586-021-00663-2

Gibson, A. N. (2019). Civility and structural precarity for faculty of color in LIS. *Journal of Education for Library and Information Science, 60*(3), 215-222. https://doi.org/10.3138/jelis.2019-0006

Gilbreath, B., & Benson, P. (2004). The contribution of supervisor behaviour to employee psychological wellbeing. *Work & Stress, 18*(3), 255-266.

Glance, D., Fanning, G., Schoepke, A., Soto, W., & Williams, M. A. Sr. (2012). *Gatekeeping in counselor education.* https://www.counseling.org/resources/library/vistas/vistas12/Article_11.pdf

Glennon, F. (2008). Promoting freedom, responsibility, and learning in the classroom: The learning covenant a decade later. *Teaching Theology and Religion, 11*(1), 32-41

Gonzalez, C. A., Gentile, N. E., Angstman, K. B., Craner, J. R., & Bonacci, R. P. (2017). The associations between preceptor team lead relationships and resident wellness in an academic medicine setting: An exploratory study. *PRiMER: Peer-Reviewed Reports in Medical Education Research,* 1-6. https://doi.org/ 10.22454/PriMER.2017.1.5

Gonzalez, L. D., & Griffin, K. A. (2020). Supporting faculty during and after COVID-19: Don't let go of equity. Washington, DC: Aspire Alliance.

Goodboy, A. K., & Bolkan, S. (2009). College teacher misbehaviors: Direct and indirect effects on student communication behavior and traditional learning outcomes. *Western Journal of Communication, 73*(2), 204-219. https://doi.org/10.1080/10570310902856089

Google Trends (2019). Self-care. https://trends.google.com/trends/explore?date=2015-11-08%202019-10-06&geo=US&q=self-care

Gordon, S., Tang, C-H., Day, J., & Adler, H. (2016). Supervisor support and turnover in hotels: Does subjective well-being mediate the relationship? *International Journal of*

*Contemporary Hospitality Management, 31*(1), 496-512. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-10-2016-0565

Grady, C. (2020, June 30). *Why the term "BIPOC" is so complicated, explained by linguists. Vox* https://www.vox.com/2020/6/30/21300294/bipoc-what-does-it-mean-critical-race-linguistics-jonathan-rosa-deandra-miles-hercules

Greenberger, E., Lessard, J., Chen, C., & Farruggia, S. (2008). Self-entitled college students: Contributions of personality, parenting, and motivational factors. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 37*,1193-1204. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-008-9284-9

Greene, P. (2018, December 12). Activity seeking diverse faculty. *Inside Higher Ed.* https://www.insidehighered.com/advice/2018/12/12/advice-attracting-and-retaining-diverse-faculty-members-opinion

Hakanen, J. J., Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2006). Burnout and work engagement among teachers. *Journal of School Psychology, 43*, 495–513. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2005.11.001

Harper, C. E., & Yeung, F. (2013). Perceptions of institutional commitment to diversity as a predictor of college students' openness to diverse populations. *The Review of Higher Education, 37*(1), 25-44. https://doi.org/10.1353/rhe/2013.0065

Harris, A. (2017, April 5). A history of self-care: From its radical roots to its yuppie-driven middle age to its election-inspired resurgence. *Slate.* http://www.slate.com/articles/arts/culturebox/2017/04/the_history_of_self_care.html

Hearne, L. (2020, October 1). *Non-binary is not woman-lite*. *Her Campus*. https://www.hercampus.com/school/ryerson/non-binary-not-woman-lite

Alberts, H. C., Hazen, H. D., & Theobald, R. B., (2010). Classroom incivilities: The challenge of interactions between college students and instructors in the US. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education, 34*(3), 439-462. https://doi.org/10.1080/03098260903502679

Hikido, A., & Murray, S. B. (2016). Whitened rainbows: How white college students protect whiteness through diversity courses. *Race, Ethnicity, and Education, 19*(2), 389-411. https://doi.org/10.1080/13613324.2015.10225736

Hoglund, W. L. G., Klingle, K. E., & Hosan, N. E. (2015). Classroom risks and resources: Teacher burnout, classroom quality and children's adjustment in high needs elementary schools. *Journal of School Psychology, 53*, 337-357. https://doi.org/10.1016.j.sp.2015.06.002

Holdcroft, B. (2014). Student incivility, intimidation, and entitlement in academia. *American Association of University Professors.* https://www.aaup.org/article/student-incivility-intimidation-and-entitlement-academia#.XbSc0-hKiUk

hooks, b. (2015). *Sisters of the yam: Black women and self-recovery*. New York: Routledge/ Taylor & Francis Group.

hooks, b. (2018). *All about love: New visions*. New York, NY: William Morrow, an imprint of HarperCollins.

Hotchkiss, J. T. (2018). Mindful self-care and secondary traumatic stress mediate a relationship between compassion satisfaction and burnout risk among hospice care professionals.

*American Journal of Hospice and Palliative Medicine, 35*(8), 1099-1108. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049909118756657

Hotchkiss, J. T., & Lesher, R. (2018). Factors predicting burnout among chaplains: Compassion satisfaction, organizational factors, and the mediators of mindful self-care and secondary traumatic stress. *Journal of Pastoral Care & Counseling, 72*(2), 86-98. https://doi.org/10.1177/1542305018780655

Huhtala, H., & Parzefall, M. (2007). A review of employee wellbeing and innovativeness: An opportunity for a mutual benefit. *Creativity and Innovation Management, 16*(3), 299-306.

Huprich, S. K., & Rudd, M. D. (2004). Supervisors' experiences of trainee impairment and incompetence in clinical, counseling, and school psychology doctoral programs and internships. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 60*, 43-52. https://doi.org/10.1002/jclp.10233

Hutchison, S. (1997). Perceived organizational support: Further evidence of construct validity. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 57*, 1025-1034.

Jacobs, S., & Dodd, D. (2003). Student burnout as a function of personality, social support, and workload. *The Johns Hopkins University Press, 44*(3), 291-303. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2003.0028

Jiang, L., Tripp, T. M., & Hong, P. Y. (2016). College instruction is not so stress free after all: A qualitative and quantitative study of academic entitlement, uncivil behaviors, and instructor strain and burnout. *Stress and Health, 33*(5), 578-589. https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.2742

Karatepe, O. M., Avci, T., Karatepe, T., & Canozer, S. (2003). The measurement of job satisfaction: an empirical study of frontline employees in the Northern Cyprus hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration, 4*(1), 69-85.

Kearney, P., Plax, T. G., Hays, E. R., & Ivey, M. J. (1991). College teacher misbehaviors: What students don't like about what teachers say and do. *Communication Quarterly, 39*(4), 309-324. https://doi.org/10.1080/01463379109369808

Kim, E. T. (2020, July 29). The perils of "people of Color." *The New Yorker*. https://www.newyorker.com/news/annals-of-activism/the-perils-of-people-of-color

Kisner (2017). The politics of conspicuous displays of self-care. *The New Yorker.* https://www.newyorker.com/culture/culture-desk/the-politics-of-selfcare

Knepp, K. (2012). Understanding student and faculty incivility in higher education. *The Journal of Effective Teaching, 12*(1), 33-46.

Kokkinos, C. M. (2006). Factor structure and psychometric properties of the Maslach burnout inventory-Educator survey among elementary and secondary school teachers in Cyprus. *Stress and Health, 22*(1), 25-33.

Kottke, J. L., & Sharafinski, C. E. (1988). Measuring perceived supervisory and organizational support. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 48*(4), 1075-1079.

Lakin, B., Leon, S., & Miller, S. (2008). Predictors of burnout in children's residential treatment center staff. *Residential Treatment for Children & Youth*, *25*, 249-270. https://doi.org/10.1080/08865710802429697

Lam, M. B. (2018). Diversity fatigue is real. *The Chronicle of Higher Education* https://www.chronicle.com/article/Diversity-Fatigue-Is-Real/244564

Lee, R., & Ashforth, B. (1990). On the meaning of Maslach's three dimensions of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*(6), 743-747. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.75.6.743

Leiter, M. P., & Maslach, C. (1988). The impact of interpersonal environment on burnout and organizational commitment. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 9*, 297-308. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.4030090402

Li, D., & Koedel, C. (2017). Representation and salary gaps by race-ethnicity and gender at selective public university. *Educational Researcher, 46*(7), 343-354. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X17726535

Lisnic, R., Zajicek, A., & Morimoto, S. (2019). Gender and race differences in faculty assessment of tenure clarity assessment of tenure clarity: The influence of departmental relationships and practices. *Race and Higher Education, 5*(2), 244-260. https://doi.org/10.1177/2332649218756137

Lorde, A. (1988*). A burst of light: And other essays.* Ithaca, N.Y.: Firebrand Books.

Lundberg, C. A. (2010). Institutional commitment to diversity, college involvement, and faculty relationships as predictors of learning for students of color. *The Journal of the Professoriate,3*(2), 50-74.

Maertz, C., Griffeth, R., Campbell, N., & Allen, D. (2007). The effects of perceived organizational support and perceived supervisor support on employee turnover. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 28*(8), 1059.

Malesic, J. (2016, October 28). The 40-year burnout. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, *63*(9) Retrieved from: https://www.chronicle.com/article/The-40-Year-Old-Burnout/237979

Marger, M. N. (2015). *Race and ethnic relations: American and global perspectives*. Stamford, CT: Cengage Learning.

Maslach, C. (1982). *Burnout: The cost of caring*. Los Altos, CA: ISHK.

Maslach, C., Jackson, S. E., & Leiter, M. P. (2018). *Maslach Burnout Inventory manual* (3rd ed.). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press. Now published by Mind Garden.

Maslach, C. (2001). What have we learned about burnout and health? *Psychology and Health, 16*, 607-611. https://doi.org/10.1080/08870440108405530

Maslach, C. (2017). Finding solutions to the problem of burnout. *Consulting Psychology Journal, 69*(2), 143-152. https://doi.org/10.1037/cpb0000090

Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52*, 397-422.

Maslach, C., & Goldberg, J. (1998). Prevention of burnout: New perspectives. *Applied and Preventive Psychology, 7*, 63-74. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0962-1849(98)80022-X

Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (2017). New insights into burnout and health care: Strategies for improving civility and alleviating burnout. *Medical Teacher, 39*(2), 160-163. https://doi.org/10.1080/0142159X.2016.1248918

Mason, H. (2003). Promoting civility in graduate student education. *Journal of Pharmacy Teaching,* 9(2002): 57-70. https://doi.org/10.1300/J060v09n0305

Masters in Psychology and Counseling Accreditation Council (MPCAC). (2017). 2017 Standards. http://mpcacaccreditation.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/MPCAC-2017-Standards-FINAL-for-posting-on-website.pdf

Matias, C. E. (2013). On the" flip" side: A teacher educator of color unveiling the dangerous minds of white teacher candidates. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, *40*(2), 53-73.

McIntosh, P. (1989). White privilege: Unpacking the invisible knapsack. *Peace and Freedom,* 10-12. https://psychology.umbc.edu/files/2016/10/White-Privilege_McIntosh-1989.pdf

McKinne, M., & Martin, B. N. (2010). Higher education faculty and student perceptions of classroom incivility. *Journal of College and Character, 11*, 1-17. https://doi.org/10.2202/1940-1639.1249

McNulty, T., Oser, C., Johnson, J. A., Knudsen, H., & Roman, P. (2007). Counselor turnover in substance abuse treatment centers: An organizational level analysis. *Sociological Inquiry, 77*(2), 166-193

Meraji, S. M., Escobar, N., & Devarajan, K. (Hosts) (2020, September 30). Is it time to say RIP to “POC”? [Audio Podcast Transcript]. In *Code Switch*. NPR. https://www.npr.org/2020/09/29/918418825/is-it-time-to-say-r-i-p-to-p-o-c

Miller, R.S., Howell, C. D., & Struve, L. (2019). "Constantly, excessively, and all the time": The emotional labor of teaching diversity courses. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, *31*(3), 491-502.

Mirk, S. (2016). Audre Lorde thought of self-care as an "act of political warfare." *Bitchmedia.* https://www.bitchmedia.org/article/audre-lorde-thought-self-care-act-political-warfare

Mishra, L., Gupta, T., & Shree, A. (2020). Online teaching-learning in higher education during lockdown period of COVID-19 pandemic. *International Journal of Educational Research Open, 1*, 1-9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedro.2020.100012.

Montell, A. (2019). A fascinating look at what "self-care" means around the world. *Byrdie.* https://www.byrdie.com/self-care-ideas-around-the-world

Morrissette, P. J. (2001). Reducing incivility in the university/college classroom. *International Electric Journal for Leadership in Learing, 5*(4) https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/5676/3396167002a316063984f5686c65790af3bf.pdf?_ga=2.34845666.235572924.1570564213-600944717.1570564213

Myers, S. B., Sweeney, A. C., Popick, V., Wesley, K., Bordfeld, A., & Fingerhut, R. (2012). Self-care practices and perceived stress levels among psychology graduate students. *Training and Education In Professional Psychology, 6*, 55-66. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0026534

Navarro, M. L., Mas, M. B., & Jimenez, A. M. L. (2010). Working conditions, burnout, and stress symptoms in university professors: validating a structural model of the mediating

effect of perceived personal competence. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology, 13*(1), 284-296. https://doi.org/10.1017/S1138741600003863

Newell, J. M., & Nelson-Gardell, D. (2014). A competency-based approach to teaching professional self-care: An ethical consideration for social work educators. *Journal of Social Work Education, 50*(3), 427-439. https://doi.org/10.1080/10437797.2014.917928

Nordstrom, C. R., Bartels, L. K., & Bucy, J. (2009). Predicting and curbing classroom incivility in higher education. *College Student Journal, 43*(1), 74-85

Oser, C. B., Biebel, E. P., Pullen, E., & Harp, M. A. (2013). Causes, consequences, and prevention of burnout among substance abuse treatment counselors: A rural versus urban comparison. *Journal of Psychoactive Drugs, 45*(1), 17-27. https://doi.org/10.1080/02791072.2013.763558

Pokhrel, S., & Chhetri, R. (2021). A literature review on impact of COVID-19 pandemic on teaching and learning. *Higher Education for the Future, 8*(1), 133–141. https://doi.org/10.1177/2347631120983481

Pope, R. L., Reynolds, A. L., & Mueller, J. A. (2013). *Multicultural competence: Student affairs.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass

Pugh, G. L. (2014). The experiential learning cycle in undergraduate diversity and social justice education. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 34*(3), 302-315. https://doi.org/10.1080/08841233.2014.906531

Pressley, T. (2021). Factors contributing to teacher burnout during COVID-19. *Educational Researcher, 50*(5), 325-327. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X211004138

Prinz, P., Hertrich, K., Hirschfelder, U., & Zwaan, M. (2012). Burnout, depression, and depersonalization—Psychological factors and coping strategies in dental and medical students. *GMS Zeitschrift fur Medizinishce Ausbildung, 29*(1), 1-14

Rapp, M. C., Moody, S. J., & Stewart, L. A. (n.d.). Becoming a gatekeeper: Recommendations for preparing doctoral students in counselor education. *The Professional Counselor*, 8(2), 190-199. https://doi.org/10.15241/mcr.8.2.190

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(4), 698-714.

Rhoades, L., Eisenberger, R., & Armeli, S. (2001). Affective commitment to the organization: The contribution of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(5), 825–836.

Richer, A. D. & Whitehurst, L. (2021, April 24). 1 verdict, then 6 police killings across America in 24 hours. Associated Press. Retrieved from https://apnews.com/article/columbus-shootings-death-of-george-floyd-racial-injustice-arrests-89cc1cbfd8d7e452c4b4670e319cdfa9

Rowland, M. L. (2009). *Faculty experiences with incivility in adult higher education*. Retrieved from Northeastern Illinois University, Human Resource Development Department website: http://www.neiu.edu/~hrd/mwr2p09/Papers/Rowland.pdf

Rupert, E., & Falk, A. (2018). Teaching and learning about diversity and social justice at the graduate level: Students' attitudes toward classroom sharing. *Multicultural Perspectives, 20*(3), 167-173. https://doi.org/10.1080/15210960.2018.1467766

Rust, J., Raskin, J., & Hill, M. (2013). Problems of professional competence among counselor trainees: Programmatic issues and guidelines. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 52*(1)*,* 30-42. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.2013.00026.x

Salyers, M. P., & Bond, G. R. (2001). An exploratory analysis of racial factors in staff burnout among assertive community treatment workers. *Community Mental Health Journal, 37*(5), 393–404. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1017575912288

Santana, M. C., & Fouad, N. A. (2017). Development and validation of a self-care behavior inventory. *Training and Education in Professional Psychology, 11*(3), 140-145. https://doi.org/10.1037/tep0000142

Schaefer, T., Barta, M., Whitley, W., & Stogsdill, M. (2013). You owe me! Mentality: A student entitlement perception paradox. *Journal of Learning in Higher Education, 9*(1), 79-91.

Scheid, A. F., & Vasko, E. T. (2014). Teaching race: Pedagogical challenges in predominantly white undergraduate theology classrooms. *Teaching Theology and Religion, 17*(1), 27-45

Seidman, A. (2005). The learning killer: Disruptive student behavior in the classroom.

Reading Improvement. 42, 40-6.

Sensoy, O., & DiAngelo, R. J. (2012). *Is everyone really equal?: an introduction to key concepts in social justice education.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Sguera, F., Bagozzi, R. P., Huy, Q. N., Boss, R. W., & Boss, D. S. (2018). The more you care, the worthier I feel, the better I behave: How and when supervisor support influences (un)ethical employee behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics,153*(3), 615-629. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-016-3339-8

Shallcross, L. (2013, September 1). Multicultural competence: A continual pursuit. *Counseling Today.* https://ct.counseling.org/2013/09/multicultural-competence-a-continual-pursuit/

Shapiro, S. L., Brown, K. W., & Biegel, G. M. (2007). Teaching self-care to caregivers: Effects of mindfulness-based stress reduction on the mental health of therapists in training. *Training and Education in Professional Psychology, 1*(2), 105-115. https://doi.org/10.1037/1931-3918.1.2.105

Shen, B., McCaughtry, N., Martin, J., Garn, A., Kulik, N., & Fahlman, M. (2015). The relationship between teacher burnout and student motivation. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 85*, 519–532. http://dx .doi.org/10.1111/bjep.12089

Shepard, C. D., Shepard, K., & True, S. (2008). Business faculty perceptions of positive and negative student behaviors. *Journal of College Teaching and Learning, 5*(6), 9-18.

Silverman, M., Nutini, J., Musa, D., King, J., & Albert, S. (2008). Daily temporal self-care responses to osteoarthritis symptoms by older African Americans and Whites. *Journal of cross-cultural gerontology*, *23.* 319-37. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10823-008-9082-6.

Singelis, T. (1994). Nonverbal communication in intercultural interactions. In R. W. Birslin & T. Yoshia (Eds.), *Improving intercultural interactions* (pp. 268-294.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Smith, W. A., Yosso, T. J., & Solórzano, D. G. (2011). Challenging racial battle fatigue on historically White campuses: A critical race examination of race-related stress. In R. D. Coates (Ed.), *Covert racism: Studies in critical social sciences*, *32*, 211-237 Brill.

Som, R. (2019). Is self-care an act of political warfare? *Vice News.* Retrieved from https://www.vice.com/en_asia/article/nexbpz/is-self-care-a-political-act

Sparks, K., Faragher, B., & Cooper, C. (2001). Wellbeing and occupational health in the 21st century workplace. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 74*, 489-509. https://doi.org/10.1348/096317901167497

Sterner, W., Jackson-Cherry, L. R., & Doll, J. F. (2015). Faculty and student perceptions of incivility behaviors in the counselor education classroom. *Journal of Counselor Practice, 6*(2), 94-114. https://doi.org/10.22229/fsp824385

Stolzenberg, E. B., Eagan, M. K., Zimmerman, H. B., Lozano, J., Cesar-Davis, N. M., Aragon, M. C., & Rios-Aguilar, C. (2019). *Undergraduate teaching faculty: The 2016-2017 HERI faculty survey.* https://www.heri.ucla.edu/monographs/HERI-FAC2017-monograph.pdf

Strunk, K. K., & Hoover, P. D. (2019). Quantitative methods for social justice and equity: Theoretical and practical considerations. In K. K. Strunk & L. A. Locke (Eds.), *Research methods for social justice and equity in education* (pp. 191-201). New York, NY: Palgrave.

Strunk, K. K., & Locke, L. A. (Eds.) (2019). *Research methods for social justice and equity in education.* Palgrave.

Sue, D. W. (2010, November 17). Microaggressions: More than just race. *Psychology Today*. https://www.psychologytoday.com/us/blog/microaggressions-in-everyday-life/201011/microaggressions-more-just-race

Sue, D. W. (2015). *Race talk and the conspiracy of silence: Understanding and facilitating Difficult Dialogues on Race.* Hoboken, NJ, US: John Wiley & Sons, Inc

Sue, D. W., Capodilupo, C. M., Torino, G. C., Bucceri, J. M., Holder, A. M. B., Nadal, K. L., & Esquilin, M. (2007). Racial microaggression in everyday life: Implications for clinical practice. *American Psychologist, 62*(4), 271-286. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.62.4.271

Sue, D. W., Rivera, D. P., Watkins, N. L., Kim, R. H., Kim, S., & Williams, C. D. (2011). Racial dialogues: Challenges faculty of color face in the classroom. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 17*(3), 331-340. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0024190

Sue, D. W., & Sue, D. (2016). *Counseling the culturally Diverse.* Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Sunbul, Z. A., Malkoc, A., Gordesli, M. A., Arslan, R., & Cekici, F. (2018). Mindful self-care dimensions as agents of well-being for students in mental health fields. *European Journal of Education Studies, 5*(5), 33-41. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1469657

Templeton, K., Bernstein, C. A., Sukhera, J., Nora, L. M., Newman, C., Burstin, H., Guille, C., Lynn, L., Schwarze, M. L., Sen, S., & Busis, N. (2019). Gender-based differences in burnout: Issues faced by women physicians. *National Academy of Medicine Perspectives* https://doi.org/10.31478/201905a

Tomlinson, C. A., Callahan, C. M., Tomchin, E. M., Eiss, N., Imbeau, M., & Landrum, M. (1997). Becoming architects of communities of learning: Addressing academic diversity

in contemporary classrooms. *Exceptional Children, 63*(2), 269-282. https://doi.org/10.1177/001440299706300210

Toppinen-Tanner, S, Ahola, K., Koskinen, A, & Vaananen, A. (2009). Burnout predicts hospitalization for mental and cardiovascular disorders: 10-year prospective results from industrial sector. *Stress and Health, 25*(4):287–96. https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.1282

Tummala-Nara, P. (2009). Teaching on diversity: The mutual influence of students and instructors. *Psychoanalytic Psychology, 26*(3), 322-334. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0016444

Turner, C. S. V., Gonzalez, J. C., & Wood, J. L (2008). Faculty of color in academe: What 20 years of literature tells us. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education, 1*(3), 139-168. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0012837

Twenge, J. M., Konrath, S., Foster, J. D., Campbell, W. K., & Bushman, B. J. (2008). Egos inflating over time: A cross-temporal meta-analysis of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory. *Journal of Personality*, *76*(4), 875-901 https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.2008.00507.x

Vacha-Hasse, T., Davenport, D. S., & Kerewsky, S. D. (2004). Problematic students: Gatekeeping practices of academic professional psychology programs. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 35*(2), 115-122. https://doi.org/10.1037/0735-7028.35.2.115

Vacha-Haase, T., Elman, N., Forrest, L., Kallaugher, J., Lease, S., Veilleux, J., & Kaslow, N. (2018). Remediation plans for trainees with problems of professional competence.

*Training and Education in Professional Psychology, 13*(4), 239-246. https://doi.org/10.1037/tep0000221

Varghese, R. (2016). Teaching to transform? Addressing race and racism in the teaching of clinical social work practice. *Journal of Social Work Education, 52*(S1), S134-S147. https://doi.org/10.1080/10437797.2016.1174646

Wahler, E. A., & Badger, K. (2016). Exploring faculty perceptions of student incivility in social work: Results from a national survey. *Advances in Social Work, 17*(2), 340-354. https://doi.org/10.18060/20886

Wang, H., Xia, Q., Xiong, Z., Li, Z., Xiang, W., Yuan, Y., Liu, Y., Li, Z. (2020). The psychological distress and coping styles in the early stages of the 2019 coronavirus disease (COVID-19) epidemic in the general mainland Chinese population: A web-based survey. *PLoS ONE, 15*(5), 1-10. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0233410

Watermeyer, R., Crick, T., Knight, C., & Goodall, J. (2021). COVID-19 and digital disruption in UK universities: afflictions and affordances of emergency online migration. *Higher Education*, *81*(3), 623. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-020-00561-y

Watt, S. K. (2007). Difficult dialogues, privilege and social justice: Uses of the privileged identity exploration (PIE) model in student practice. *The College Student Affairs Journal,* 114-126f

Wise, A. (2020, April 22). Why self-care is important during COVID-19—especially for health care workers. *Healthy Debate.* https://healthydebate.ca/2020/04/topic/pandemic-self-care/

Worley, J. A., Fuqua, D. R., & Hellman, C. H. (2009). The survey of perceived organizational support: Which measure should we use? *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 35*(1), 112-116. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v35i1.754

Wright, C. N. (2016). Framing classroom incivility. *Inside Higher Ed* https://www.insidehighered.com/advice/2016/10/04/identifying-and-understanding-classroom-incivility-essay

Yee, L. S., Carey, R. L., & Wyletta, S. G. (2015). Navigating the academy, creating counterspaces: Critically examining the experiences of three PhD students of Color. In Fasching-Varner, K. J., In Albert, K., Mitchell, R., & Allen, C. (Eds). *Racial battle fatigue in higher education: Exposing the myth of post-racial America*. Washington DC: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers

Zhu, X., & Liu, J. (2020). Education in and After Covid-19: Immediate Responses and Long-Term Visions. *Postdigital Science Education 2,* 695–699. https://doi.org/10.1007/s42438-020-00126-3

Ziguras, C. (2004). Self-Care: Embodiment, personal autonomy and the shaping of health consciousness. London: Routledge.

## Appendix A

**Eligibility items to include**

Are you at least 18 years of age? Yes/No

Are you currently teaching a diversity course at the graduate level to students in a helping profession? Yes/No

Do you identify as a person of Color (please note, all identities are eligible for this study)? Yes/No

**Demographics to include**

Please complete the following items as they relate to your personal identity:

Gender [text entry]

Race and ethnicity [text entry]

Sexual orientation [text entry]

Please describe the delivery format of your course (In person, Hybrid, HyFlex, Online, Other [please describe])

If your class has online components, which best describes their delivery? (synchronous, asynchronous, other [please describe])

Please describe the nature of your teaching position (Instructor, Adjunct, Visiting Professor, Assistant Professor, Associate Professor, Full Professor, Not Sure)

Is this position a tenure-track position? [yes/no]

Describe the relationship to accreditation your program has? [Not accredited, APA, CACREP, COAMFTE, CSWE, MPCAC, Other: _____]

What is the nature of your college/university [Public, Private, other (please describe)]

Please estimate the number of hours you typically work each week [text entry]

Open Response Items

How would you describe your experience teaching a diversity course? [text entry]

Please describe what the term self-care means to you [text entry]

Please use this space to share any comments about the study [text entry]

## Appendix B

### Email Permissions
### Re: Faculty Perceptions of Classroom Incivility

MM

Mary Anne Messer
Mon 10/7/2019 3:47 PM

- Barbara Martin <bmartin@ucmo.edu>

Dr. Martin,

Thank you so much. I hope you have a great week.

Mary Anne

Mary Anne Messer, M.S.
GTA Supervisor, Counselor Education and Counseling Psychology
Graduate Clinician, Columbus State University Counseling Center
Counseling Psychology Doctoral Student
Auburn University



Pronouns: she, her, hers

---

**From:** Barbara Martin <bmartin@ucmo.edu>
**Sent:** Monday, October 7, 2019 2:05 PM
**To:** Mary Anne Messer <mzm0149@auburn.edu>
**Subject:** Re: Faculty Perceptions of Classroom Incivility

Mary Anne,

Please find attached copies of the Faculty and the Student surveys used in Dr. McKinne's dissertation in 2007. I give you permission to use the survey for the purposes of your dissertation. I wish you continued success in your educational endeavors.

Barbara

On Fri, Oct 4, 2019 at 1:24 PM Mary Anne Messer <mzm0149@auburn.edu> wrote:
Dr. Martin,

My name is Mary Anne Messer and I am a counseling psychology doctoral student at Auburn University. I am working on my dissertation and am interested in your Faculty Perceptions of Classroom Incivility survey. I was wondering if you would be willing to allow me to use it in my study and if so, what I need to do to accomplish that.

My study will be exploring the experiences on instructors who teach diversity/multicultural courses to counselors and psychologists in training. I am specifically interested in their experiences of incivility, how they take care of themselves, the support they get from supervisors, and how that impacts their burnout.

I attempted to reach out to Dr. McKinne but the email bounced back.

Please let me know what other information you might need from me. Thanks so much for your time.

Mary Anne Messer

Mary Anne Messer, M.S.
GTA Supervisor, Counselor Education and Counseling Psychology
Graduate Clinician, Columbus State University Counseling Center
Counseling Psychology Doctoral Student
Auburn University

Pronouns: she, her, hers

--
Barbara N. Martin, EdD
Professor
Educational Leadership
University of Central Missouri
tel. 816 830 3904

***"Mimi ni mwalimu."***

**Appendix C**

Information Letter

# LETTERHEAD

*(NOTE: DO NOT AGREE TO PARTICIPATE UNLESS AN IRB APPROVAL STAMP WITH CURRENT DATES HAS BEEN APPLIED TO THIS DOCUMENT.)*

**INFORMATION LETTER**
**for a Research Study entitled**
***"Teaching Diversity: An Exploration of the Experience of Instructor Teaching Diversity Courses to Counselors and Psychologists"***

**You are invited to participate in a research study** to *Teaching Diversity: An Exploration of the Experience of Instructors Teaching Diversity Courses to Counselors and Psychologists.* The study is being conducted by Mary Anne Messer, under the direction of Dr. Marilyn Cornish in the Auburn University Department of Special Education, Rehabilitation, and Counseling. You are invited to participate because you are currently teaching a diversity/multiculturalism course graduate students in the mental health field (e.g., counselors, social workers, psychologists) and are age 19 or older. A diversity course is a course that focuses on increasing students' multicultural awareness, knowledge, and/or skills.

**What will be involved if you participate?** If you decide to participate in this research study, you will be asked to complete several self-report surveys including a demographics questionnaire. Your total time commitment will be approximately 30 minutes.

**Are there any risks or discomforts?** The risks associated with participating in this study are minimal. To minimize these risks, we will keep your data completely anonymous.

**Are there any benefits to yourself or others?** If you participate in this study, there are no immediate anticipated benefits. However, we believe the results can benefit instructors like yourself by informing universities and individuals what they can do to protect themselves from burnout. We cannot promise you that you will receive any or all of the benefits described.

**Will you receive compensation for participating?** To thank you for your time you will be offered a chance to win a 25 dollar gift card.

**If you change your mind about participating,** you can withdraw at any time during the study. Your participation is completely voluntary. If you choose to withdraw, your data can be withdrawn as long as it is identifiable. Your decision about whether or not to participate

or to stop participating will not jeopardize your future relations with Auburn University, the Department of Special Education, Rehabilitation, and Counseling.



**Any data obtained in connection with this study will remain anonymous**. We will protect your privacy and the data you provide by not collecting any identifying information. Information collected through your participation may be used to complete a dissertation, published in a professional journal, and/or presented at a professional meeting.

**If you have questions about this study,** contact Mary Anne Messer at mzm0149@auburn.edu or Dr. Marilyn Cornish at mac0084@auburn.edu.

**If you have questions about your rights as a research participant,** you may contact the Auburn University Office of Research Compliance or the Institutional Review Board by phone (334)-844-5966 or e-mail at IRBadmin@auburn.edu or IRBChair@auburn.edu.

HAVING READ THE INFORMATION PROVIDED, YOU MUST DECIDE IF YOU WANT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH PROJECT. IF YOU DECIDE TO PARTICIPATE, THE DATA YOU PROVIDE WILL SERVE AS YOUR AGREEMENT TO DO SO. THIS LETTER IS YOURS TO KEEP.

_____
Investigator's signature Date

_____
Print Name

_____
Co-Investigator Date

_____
Printed Name

## Appendix D

### Recruitment Email for Listservs

Hello [name],

My name is Mary Anne Messer and I am a fourth-year doctoral student in Counseling Psychology at Auburn University. I am collecting data for my dissertation, which seeks to explore the experiences of instructors who teach diversity/multiculturalism courses to anyone training to become a mental health professional (e.g., counselors, social workers, psychologists, etc..). Within the context of this study, a diversity course is a course that focuses on increasing students' multicultural awareness, knowledge, and/or skills. This study could be especially valuable for both instructors and institutions looking for concrete changes to make to improve the experience of those teaching diversity courses.

Below is a link to a survey which will gather information about the topic. To participate you must:

- Be at least 18 years old
- Currently be teaching a graduate level diversity/multiculturalism course to counselors- and or/ psychologists-in-training.

The survey is completely voluntary, and you can discontinue it at any time. The survey is also anonymous and will not collect any identifying information. The survey should take about 20 minutes to complete. If you are interested in being entered in a chance to win a 25-dollar gift card, please share your email after completing the survey. The emails for the gift card will be kept in a separate place from the results of the survey.

I appreciate your time. Please let me know if you have any questions.

Mary Anne Messer

### Recruitment Email for Training Director

Hello [name],

My name is Mary Anne Messer and I am a fourth-year doctoral student in Counseling Psychology at Auburn University. I am collecting data for my dissertation, which seeks to explore the experiences of instructors who teach diversity/multiculturalism courses to anyone training to become a mental health professional (e.g., counselors, social workers, psychologists, etc..). This study could be especially valuable for both instructors and institutions looking for concrete changes to make to improve the experience of those teaching diversity courses. I am hoping you would be willing to forward this email to any instructors you might have who are currently teaching a diversity course to graduate students.

Below is a link to a survey which will gather information about the topic. To participate you must:

- Be at least 18 years old
- Currently be teaching a graduate level diversity/multiculturalism course to counselors- and or/ psychologists-in-training.

The survey is completely voluntary, and you can discontinue it at any time. The survey is also anonymous and will not collect any identifying information. The survey should take about 20 minutes to complete. If you are interested in being entered in a chance to win a 25-dollar gift card, please share your email after completing the survey. The emails for the gift card will be kept in a separate place from the results of the survey.

I appreciate your time. Please let me know if you have any questions.

Mary Anne Messer

**Follow up Email Recruitment for List servs**
Hello,

My name is Mary Anne Messer and I am a doctoral student in Counseling Psychology at Auburn University. I emailed this Listserv previously hoping to reach potential participants for

my dissertation. I am still attempting to reach more participants and would greatly appreciate any help distributing this email to relevant faculty. I am attempting to explore the experiences of instructors who teach diversity/multiculturalism courses to anyone training to become a mental health professional (e.g., counselors, social workers, psychologists, etc..)

Within the context of this study, a diversity course is a course that focuses on increasing students' multicultural awareness, knowledge, and/or skills. This study could be especially valuable for both instructors and institutions looking for concrete changes to make to improve the experience of those teaching diversity courses.

Below is a link to a survey which will gather information about the topic. To participate you must:
• Be at least 19 years old
• Currently be teaching a graduate level diversity/multiculturalism course to graduate students in the mental health field. A diversity course is a course that focuses on increasing students' multicultural awareness, knowledge, and/or skills.

The survey is completely voluntary, and you can discontinue it at any time. The survey is also anonymous and will not collect any identifying information. The survey should take about 20 minutes to complete. If you are interested in being entered in a chance to win a 25-dollar gift card, please share your email after completing the survey. The emails for the gift card will be kept in a separate place from the results of the survey.

I appreciate your time. Please let me know if you have any questions.

Mary Anne Messer

**Follow Up Email for Training Director**

My name is Mary Anne Messer and I am a doctoral student in Counseling Psychology at Auburn University. I emailed this you previously hoping to reach potential participants for

my dissertation. I am still attempting to reach more participants and would greatly appreciate any help distributing this email to relevant faculty. I am attempting to explore the experiences of instructors who teach diversity/multiculturalism courses to anyone training to become a mental health professional (e.g., counselors, social workers, psychologists, etc..)

Within the context of this study, a diversity course is a course that focuses on increasing students' multicultural awareness, knowledge, and/or skills. This study could be especially valuable for both instructors and institutions looking for concrete changes to make to improve the experience of those teaching diversity courses.

Below is a link to a survey which will gather information about the topic. To participate you must:
• Be at least 19 years old
• Currently be teaching a graduate level diversity/multiculturalism course to graduate students in the mental health field. A diversity course is a course that focuses on increasing students' multicultural awareness, knowledge, and/or skills.

The survey is completely voluntary, and you can discontinue it at any time. The survey is also anonymous and will not collect any identifying information. The survey should take about 20 minutes to complete. If you are interested in being entered in a chance to win a 25-dollar gift card, please share your email after completing the survey. The emails for the gift card will be kept in a separate place from the results of the survey.

I appreciate your time. Please let me know if you have any questions.

Mary Anne Messer