

1 **Work should not be killing us: Understanding the racial**
2 **battle fatigue minefield for black women in higher**
3 **education**

4 Renate L. Chancellor

5 *School of Information Studies, Syracuse University, NY, USA*

6 *E-mail: rlchance@syr.edu*

7 Racial Battle Fatigue (RBF) has been operationalized as the cumulative psychological, physiological,
8 and behavioral effects of racial aggressions on individuals from marginalized groups. These micro-level
9 and macro-level aggressions have been the focus of discussion and debate at historically white colleges
10 and universities since the 1960s when equity in higher education became a national priority because of the
11 civil rights movement and the introduction of Critical Race Theory (CRT). Faculty teaching in Library and
12 Information Science (LIS) programs are not exempt from RBF. In fact, there have been several testimonials
13 of bias and racism by LIS faculty who represent marginalized populations in recent years. Research on
14 RBF, particularly during this current politically charged climate of hate and bias adds to our understanding
15 of the ways in which racism, in various forms, affects Black women faculty. Applying CRT, RBF, and
16 Black feminist theoretical frameworks, the purpose of this paper is to provide a follow up to “*Racial Battle*
17 *Fatigue: The unspoken burden of Black women faculty in LIS*” which was published in the *Journal of*
18 *Education for Library and Information Science* in 2019. It helps us to further understand the experiences
19 of Black women faculty in higher education.

20 Keywords: Racial Battle fatigue, black feminism, critical race theory, LIS, higher education, black women
21 faculty

22 **1. Introduction**

23 Since publishing, *Racial Battle Fatigue: The unspoken burden of Black women*
24 *faculty in LIS* (Chancellor, 2019) five years ago, so much has occurred in the world.
25 We have witnessed an insurrection on the United States Capitol by a mob of supporters
26 of the former president, who vandalized, looted and spewed racist tropes. There has
27 been surge of hate, racism, intolerance, and an outright attack on Critical Race Theory
28 (CRT). From the killings of countless defenseless Black people by police officers to
29 protests and rallies against Asian American hate, and mass shootings in a supermarket
30 in Buffalo, New York and Robb Elementary school in Uvalde, Texas, and others. We
31 have endured a global pandemic – COVID-19, amid a highly contagious respiratory
32 virus that not only exposed racial and socio-economic inequalities, but it also allowed
33 citizens who were home in quarantine to witness the murder of George Floyd by
34 Minneapolis police officers.

35 It is unclear why protests to Floyd’s death ignited a nationwide movement, espe-
36 cially since police brutality has been a contentious issue in the Black community

Table 1
Ethnicity and race of full-time LIS faculty,
ALISE statistical report 2023

Ethnicity and race of full-time faculty in LIS	
American Indian or Alaskan Native	0.3%
Asian	15.4%
Black or African American	4.7%
Hispanic	2.7%
International	2.7%
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	2.6%
Race or Ethnicity Unknown	12.6%
White	58.2%

37 since enslavement. Interestingly, there was no national attention given when Breonna
 38 Taylor, a young medical worker was murdered when Louisville police officers forced
 39 entry into her home and fatally shot her two months prior to Floyd's death. Four
 40 years after the murder of Floyd, police reform remains stagnant, and much has not
 41 changed. Data from 2017–2024 indicate that fatal police shootings in the U.S. have
 42 steadily increased (Statista, 2024). In 2023, there were 1,163 police shootings that led
 43 to fatalities. African Americans account for the highest rate among all ethnic groups
 44 with 6.1% of fatal shootings per million of the population per year between 2015
 45 and May 2024 (Statista, 2024). The mistreatment and unprovoked killing of Black
 46 people by law enforcement have led to grassroots organizing like BlackLivesMatter
 47 and #SayHerName (Crenshaw et. al., 2015). The latter was created by the African
 48 American Policy Forum to highlight the gender-specific ways in which Black women
 49 are disproportionately affected by deadly acts of racial injustice. Racial tensions have
 50 escalated over the past five years, and African Americans are exhausted and beyond
 51 fatigued by the racism that is witnessed and/or experienced in their everyday life.
 52 In July 2024, the nation was once again traumatized when they watched a police-
 53 released video of a sheriff's deputy fatally shooting Sonya Massey, a 36- year- old
 54 Black woman who called 911 for assistance to what she thought was an intruder in
 55 her Illinois home (Johnson, 2024).

56 In academia, microaggressions, inequitable treatment, and outright racism often
 57 leads to trauma for Black women. It often is in the workplace where Black women
 58 are arguably most vulnerable. They are supervised by white men and women and
 59 junior faculty without tenure often wonder if speaking up about their experiences
 60 will jeopardize them receiving tenure. Black women faculty on the tenure track or
 61 up for promotion may also encounter the intersection of the burden of care and
 62 cultural taxation (Chesley & Anantachai, 2018). Cultural taxation is the weight
 63 placed on individuals from marginalized groups to educate others about their culture,
 64 experiences, and perspectives, often without adequate compensation or recognition.
 65 This phenomenon often leads to RBF with more severe consequences. The death of
 66 Lincoln University's Antoinette Candia Bailey is an example of the struggle some
 67 Black women experience in academia. Bailey who was a professor and vice president
 68 of student affairs died by suicide on January 8th of this year after being terminated after

69 accusing the president of the university of bullying, harassment, and discrimination.
70 Although an independent investigator found the claims “unsubstantiated” Bailey
71 documented in an email, which included screenshots of text communications, and
72 web links alleging failed communications, a lack of professionalism and inappropriate
73 behavior by senior administration. She also detailed grievances she had with the
74 university president, claiming mismanagement and discrimination (Asmelash, 2024).

75 Two Black women university presidents – JoAnn Epps (Temple University) and
76 Orinthia Montague (Volunteer State Community College) unexpectedly died in
77 September 2023 due to what many of their colleagues believed was “the impact
78 of chronic work stress, racism and sexism contributed to their untimely deaths given
79 their unique roles as Black women at the highest level of leadership in academia”
80 (Thomas, 2023, np). Harvard’s first Black President, Claudine Gay, undoubtedly
81 endured tremendous stress when she was confronted with fierce criticism on the uni-
82 versity’s response to the Hamas attack on Israel and a backlash to her congressional
83 testimony that led to allegations of her academic integrity. She resigned in January of
84 this year, just six months after being installed Harvard’s 30th president. Last year’s
85 Supreme Court ruling which effectively ended race-based affirmative action in higher
86 education along with the closure of Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion (DEI) offices
87 on campuses across the nation, DEI efforts that often serve as a system of support
88 for Black women faculty have been significantly diminished. Opponents of this law
89 believe that the court’s decision could make it illegal for private employers to consider
90 race, sex, or other protected characteristics when making employment decisions.
91 This could prevent diversity initiatives like reserving hiring or promotion slots for
92 underrepresented groups (Martinez-Alvarado, 2023). With very few resources to assist
93 Black women faculty experiencing stress at work, university administrators must
94 actively prioritize and address these issues. This paper employs a multi-theoretical
95 lens: Black feminist theory, Critical Race Theory and Racial Battle Fatigue to aid in
96 our understanding of the experiences of Black women faculty.

97 Research on the experiences of faculty of color in Library and Information Science
98 (LIS) is well documented in the literature (Weems, 2003; Cora-Bramble, 2006; Chou
99 & Pho, 2018; Pho & Chou, 2017; Epps, 2008; Swanson, Tanaka & Gonzalez-Smith,
100 2018). LIS scholars (Ceja, et.al, 2017; Hill, 2019; Chancellor, 2019; Gibson, 2019;
101 Colon-Aguirre, 2019; Cooke & Sanchez, 2019; Cooke & Kitz, 2021; Mehra, 2019;
102 Irvin, 2019) have written about the challenges they experience. However, most of
103 these works were not characterized as RBF, examined from a Black feminist context,
104 or a critical race lens. Approximately, 2% of LIS publications contain terms related to
105 inequality, and racism from underrepresented communities.

106 Anthony Dunbar (2023) reminds us that although there has been some progress
107 made on CRT discourse within LIS scholarship, there is still much work to be done.
108 Despite these efforts, LIS related research on Black women’s experiences in higher
109 education remains low (Mongeon, et al, 2021). Given the recent deaths of Black
110 women faculty, the documented past of how Black women have been treated in higher
111 education, including LIS, this paper fills a necessary void on this topic and contributes
112 to a growing body of literature in this area.

2. Black feminism

To fully understand the Black American woman, one must begin with slavery, because it is where her existence in the United States was conceived and defined in that context. Black feminism arose during this era as a way for enslaved African American women to understand their position within a system of oppression-racism and patriarchy. Simply stated, “black feminism is an intellectual, artistic, philosophical, and activist practice grounded in black women’s lived experience” (Peterson, 2019, np). Early feminist pioneer SoJourney Truth used her voice to represent an early expression of Black feminist tradition. Truth, a former slave delivered her renowned speech at the 1851 Women’s Rights Convention in Akron, Ohio, known as, “Ain’t I a Woman?” in which she highlighted the differences in the treatment of elite white women and working-class women of color. She further, “challenged the sexist imagery used by male critics to justify the disenfranchisement of women” (Crenshaw, 1, p. 153). Sadly, the disparity of treatment of virtually every other demographic including white women still exist today. However, Black women are hired and promoted more slowly, they are often the only woman of color in the room, and they usually experience a greater variety of aggressions than women of other ethnicities (Lloyd, 2020). They are also paid less than men and most other groups of women. Key findings from the 2020 American Association of University Professors (AAUP).

Data on *Full-time Faculty and Faculty of Color Snapshot Report* indicate that salaries of full-time women faculty are approximately 81.2% of men’s and among tenured or tenure-track faculty members, women earn 82.4% of what men earn (Colby & Fowler, 2020). Although the report does not specifically provide data by race and ethnicity (neither does ALISE; who collects annual data on LIS programs), the authors, contend, “Given the lack of URM (underrepresented minorities) individuals at the higher academic ranks, particularly among women, we can infer the existence of a racial pay gap overall” (Colby & Fowler, 2020, p. 11).

As part of the feminist movement, the modern women’s rights movement sought equal rights and opportunities for women worldwide. It advocated for their social, legal, political, and economic rights equivalent to men. There were multiple waves of movement. However, it was not until the late nineteenth century that efforts for women’s equal rights coalesced into a conscious series of movements. The first wave began in 1848 with the Seneca Falls convention, which called for women’s right to vote and equal treatment under the law. This wave eventually led to the ratification of the 19th amendment, granting women the right to vote and declaring that they had the same rights as men.

Unfortunately, this did not apply to African American women. Black women who faced even greater discrimination and marginalization in many areas of life, including workplace and voting rights, were often relegated to low-paying jobs, and Jim Crows laws prevented them from working in higher-paid jobs reserved for men. They were also excluded from many women’s suffrage organizations and activities, and often marched separately from white women parades. Even after the 19th amendment gave

155 women the right to vote, white suffrage groups did not support Black women's efforts
156 to fight discriminatory state laws that prevented them from voting (Bailey, 2022).
157 Black women were not permitted to vote until the passage of the Voting Rights Act
158 of 1965. Inspired by the civil rights movement and protests of the Vietnam War,
159 the second wave of women's rights emerged in the 1960s and 1970s and focused
160 on issues of equality and discrimination. Led by middle-class white women, these
161 second-wave feminists advocated for ending sexual discrimination, equal pay and
162 reevaluation of traditional gender roles. Black feminism evolved with the second
163 wave of America's women's movement in the late 1960s, making the 1970s a defining
164 decade for contemporary Black feminism (Bailey, 2022).

165 Significant strides towards equality for Black women was quite an achievement
166 given that they were not seen as financial contributors to the household but rather as
167 supportive spouses whose main role was to perform domestic duties. In the nineteenth
168 century, opportunities to attain education were limited. Single Black women who
169 were able to attend college and work outside of the home were *normal* schoolteachers
170 – which was one of the only career options afforded to them at the time. Many
171 Black women in the labor force were excluded from white-collar jobs due to racial
172 and gender discrimination. By 1910, 84.7% of African American women worked in
173 agriculture, domestic, and personal services (Greene and Woodson, 1930; Amott and
174 Matthaei, 1996). Compared to other women in the United States, Black women have
175 always had the highest levels of labor market participation. In 1880, 35.4% of married
176 Black women and 73.3% of single Black women were in the labor force compared
177 with only 7.3% of married white women and 24.8% of single white women (Banks,
178 2019).

179 Oppression, racism and sexism or what Kimberlé Crenshaw coins Intersectionality
180 occurs when African American women become subordinate, and it is enforced by
181 white and Black men as well as white women. She asserts, “Because of their interde-
182 pendence, they combine to have a devastating affect beyond just racism and sexism
183 independently. The experience of being a Black woman, then, cannot be grasped
184 in terms of being Black or of being a woman but must be illuminated” (Crenshaw,
185 1989, p.151). Crenshaw (1989) describes this framework in her groundbreaking work,
186 *De-marginalizing the Intersection of Race and Sex: A Black Feminist Critique of*
187 *Anti-discrimination Doctrine, Feminist Theory and Antiracist Politics*. She conceptu-
188 alizes “intersectionality” as the way multiple oppressions are experienced. She further
189 asserts, “that each identity – being Black and being female – should be considered in-
190 dependently, but also for their interaction effect, while understanding that intersecting
191 identities deepen and reinforce one another, and potentially lead to aggravated forms
192 of inequality.

193 **3. Critical race theory**

194 As an analytical framework that examines existing power structures based on white
195 privilege and white supremacy (UCLA, 2020), CRT provides a theoretical lens to

196 examine and understand the persistent racism underlying the social inequities that
197 have been thrust upon Black people in the United States. It is a critical perspective for
198 us to use as it highlights the role of race and racism in contexts where pervasive and
199 overt forms of structural and interpersonal racism are not sanctioned by society.

200 CRT helps us to understand that the dehumanizing and killing of Black people
201 are key aspects of a racialized America - a society that has institutionalized and
202 normalized such behavior (Coates, 2015). It also offers insight into the experiences of
203 Black women faculty. Specifically, how racist views may factor into perceptions of
204 research interests, tenure and promotion decisions, course evaluations, opportunities
205 for senior leadership and the like. Michael Nietzel (2024) reports on an unpublished
206 study by Christiane Spitzmueller et al., that found that Underrepresented Minority
207 (URM) faculty received 7% more negative votes in tenure and promotion committee
208 decisions than their non-URM peers.

209 Inspired by leading thinkers such as Martin Luther King, W.E.B Du Bois and
210 Malcolm X, CRT was first introduced during the civil rights era of the 1960s and
211 draws from literature that sought to study and transform the relationship between
212 race, racism, and power (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). It explores how the law and
213 legal institutions function to perpetuate oppression and exploitation and can be further
214 extended to shed light on unfair treatment of African American faculty by providing a
215 foundation for understanding the historical racialized experiences of Black people in
216 the United States (Aymer, 2016). CRT advances theoretical understandings of the law,
217 politics, and other disciplines that focus on the efforts of white people to maintain
218 their historical advantages over people of color. Furthermore, CRT considers the
219 influence that white supremacy has had on the American mindset (Crenshaw et al.,
220 1995; Crenshaw, 2011).

221 CRT is characterized as the following: 1) the primacy of racism and race in the
222 United States; 2) a questioning of the notion of neutrality, objectivity, colorblindness
223 and meritocracy in laws and social interactions; 3) questioning of ahistoricism of the
224 racialized order; 4) a commitment to social justice; 5) the centrality of experiential
225 knowledge; and 6) a multidisciplinary perspective (Crenshaw, 2011; Solorzano et al.,
226 2000). A core principle of CRT is that racism is entrenched in American society and
227 works to administer benefits and disadvantages to individuals through the construction
228 of race (Bonilla-Silva, 2015).

229 Since 2020, CRT has been the object of extreme and often misguided, national
230 debate. A leading critic of the theory is former President Donald Trump, who issued
231 Executive Order 13950 on Sept. 22, 2020, just a few months before losing reelection.
232 While the order did not name critical race theory per se, it attempted to challenge
233 its underpinnings and sounded an alarm about its impact. The order purported to
234 “combat offensive and anti-American race and sex stereotyping and scapegoating.” It
235 warned that some beliefs about racial and sexual identity were a “malign ideology
236 . . . now migrating from the fringes of American society and [threatening] to infect
237 core institutions of our country.” This ignited federal officials in conservative states to
238 ban textbooks and curricula that involves race or racism. This presents tremendous

239 challenges for Black women educators who teach history, African American studies,
240 critical studies, English, Math, etc.

241 Public institutions like universities often reflect existing trends in the larger society.
242 “Despite the metaphor of the “ivory tower,” universities have always intersected
243 with the society in which they are domiciled and have, to a certain extent, changed
244 with society, culminating in the contemporary post-modern university” (Siemens &
245 Matheos, 2022). In fact, scholars have shown that the larger racial and sociopolitical
246 environment has an influence on college campuses (Hurtado, et al., 1998; Stokes,
247 2020; Van Dyke & Tester, 2014). Race, sexual orientation, and religion are highly
248 motivating factors for hate crimes on university campuses. According to a report from
249 the National Center for Education Statistics:

250 “Race, sexual orientation, and religion were the top three categories of moti-
251 vating bias associated with hate crimes at postsecondary institutions in 2018.
252 Approximately 80 percent of the total reported on campus hate crimes in 2018
253 were motivated by these three categories of bias. Race was the motivating bias
254 in 43 percent of reported hate crimes (347 incidents), 1) while an additional 11
255 percent (88 incidents) were motivated by ethnicity. 2) Sexual orientation was the
256 motivating bias in 22 percent of reported hate crimes (176 incidents); and religion
257 was the motivating bias in 16 percent of reported hate crimes (128 incidents) in
258 2018. The other 9 percent of reported hate crimes were motivated by gender (39
259 incidents), 3 gender identity (33 incidents), 4 and disability (3 incidents).”
260 (NCES Statistics, 2022).

261 Faculty and students of color who experience these crimes may also be victims
262 of aggressive behavior such as verbal abuse, rude and disparaging comments, and
263 outright disrespect and avoidance. Since Black women faculty make up a small portion
264 of the academy, it is likely that many of them do not report or respond to the abuse for
265 fear of losing their jobs or not earning tenure. Per the U.S. Department of Education,
266 the overwhelming majority of full-time faculty in the United States identify as white:
267 Caucasian professors account for 80%, Asian/Pacific Islander 11%. Latinx 3%, Black
268 2% and American Indian/Alaska Native and individuals of two or more races is 1%
269 respectively (U.S. Department of Education, 2018).

270 **4. Racial battle fatigue and LIS**

271 Intended to offer a framework to better understand the racial experiences of people
272 of color on predominantly white college campuses, the concept of Racial Battle
273 Fatigue was first introduced by critical race theorist William Smith (2004). His re-
274 search was initially conducted on Black men and women faculty, and later Black
275 college students. Smith (2004) asserts that RBF can manifest physiological, psy-
276 chological, and behavioral in nature, including but not limited to tension headaches,
277 constant anxiety, ulcers, increased swearing and complaining, insomnia, rapid mood

278 swings, difficulty thinking or speaking, and social withdrawal (Smith, 2004; Yosso, &
279 Solórzano, 2006). Fields of study are both social and epistemological entities - they
280 are distinct knowledge enterprises based on certain forms of inquiry and theoretical
281 perspectives, but they are also social ecosystems that present members with shared
282 cultural norms and values. Library and Information Science emerged as a discipline
283 from the 19th century professional training of library workers established normative
284 practices from the beginning. The profession was founded in 1876 on the core princi-
285 ple of intellectual freedom, which is the First Amendment right that all library users
286 to read, seek information, and freely speak. However, African Americans were not
287 allowed in the library, and not everyone had freedom of speech without retaliation or
288 losing their lives. In the era of Jim Crow, African

289 Americans were not permitted to use public institutions like the library in many
290 parts of the country and Black librarians were not fully integrated into the profession
291 until 1964 when E.J. Josey's resolution forced the American Library Association to
292 hold their southern state library associations accountable for not allowing membership
293 to Black librarians (Chancellor, 2020). Although progress towards equity and inclusion
294 was slow after the 1964 resolution, Black and other ethnic librarians continued to
295 push for equality through establishments of ethnic caucuses, and eventually electing
296 Clara Stanton Jones, the association's first Black president (Chancellor, 2024).

297 The profession was dominated by white men up until 1878 – when women started
298 joining the library workforce (Rubin, 2016). Richard Rubin (2016) contends that, “by
299 1910, more than 75% of library workers were women” (p. 286). They continue to
300 make up most library employees to date. As of June 2024, 83% of librarians were
301 women (DPE, 2024). The core values of the library profession were not aligned with
302 American culture in the 19th and 20th centuries. Despite the history and treatment
303 of Black people, many of them chose librarianship as a career. In fact, the first of
304 five total (Historically, Black, College and Universities) library science program
305 was formed at Hampton University in 1925 (Ndumu & Chancellor, 2019); today,
306 only North Carolina Central University School of Library and Information Sciences
307 remains open.

308 Black librarians and educators continue to be a minority in the profession. Accord-
309 ing to the 2021 U.S. Bureau of National Statistics, there are only 7% Black librarians.
310 Unfortunately, the percentage of Black LIS faculty is even smaller (ALISE, 2023).
311 This historical context is important in understanding the racial challenges that the
312 profession has grappled with since its founding. Perhaps it is this early history of
313 elitism, racism and sexism that offers and explanation why the profession struggles
314 with diversity, equity, and inclusion today. Black women are a crucial yet small pro-
315 portion of Library and information science educators. According to the Association
316 for Library and Information Science Education, the preeminent organization for LIS
317 educators, these ethnic groups comprise of approximately 20% of full-time faculty
318 (ALISE, 2023). Black faculty make up only 4.7% of its membership. The gender
319 disparity is far more equal with 50% male and 50% female (ALISE, 2023). Unfortu-
320 nately, Black women faculty are far scarcer. This trend among LIS faculty of color

321 mirrors what exists in other disciplines and stems from a long history of exclusion. It
322 was not until the 1960s that northern universities began to provide a place for Black
323 professors. Employment for Black women, faculty was virtually non-existent (Evans,
324 2007). Eliza Atkins Gleason was the first African American to earn a doctorate in
325 library science from the University of Chicago in 1940 and was appointed dean of the
326 School of Library Science at Atlanta University (now Clarke-Atlanta University) in
327 1941 (Malone, 2019).

328 At the turn of the 21st century, there were 176,485 tenured full professors at
329 the nation's public and private research universities – 72% white men, 17% white
330 women, 8%, men of color (Black, Hispanic, and Native American combined), and
331 2% women of color – combined (Evans, 2007). Black women faculty are critical
332 to the LIS professoriate. The LIS academic community is not representative of the
333 society it serves. As a field that prides itself on diversity, equity, inclusion, and
334 social justice, it is imperative that there is racial and ethnic representation of diverse
335 populations and that they are treated fairly and equitably. Underrepresentation of
336 Black women in senior university leadership such as provosts, deans, and program
337 directors as well as inequities in salary, have all been discordant issues between
338 male and female faculty. In LIS, the average salary for male assistant professors is
339 \$84,561 per academic year compared to \$74, 659 for women (ALISE, 2023). Cathy
340 Trower (2003) says that faculty of color experience unwelcoming and potentially
341 hostile classroom environments in PWIs, which results in overt and/or covert racism
342 including being stereotyped. They are often:

- 343 – Marginalized and find that their research is discredited, especially if it concerns
344 minority issues;
- 345 – Bear a tremendous burden of tokenism, including feeling like they must be
346 exemplars of their entire race and work twice as hard to get half as far;
- 347 – Feel obligated to represent one's race or ethnicity on multiple committees that
348 help the institution, but not necessarily the individual, and to mentor and advise
349 many same-race students – a huge hidden workload that goes unrewarded in the
350 promotion and tenure system; and
- 351 – Suffer from negative, unintended consequences of being perceived as an affir-
352 mative action or target-of-opportunity hire

353 **5. Strategies for minimizing racial battle fatigue**

354 The AAUP (American Association of University Professors, 2019) as part of the
355 1940 Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure seek to guarantee
356 that educators will be Afforded academic freedom in their teaching and research
357 pursuits – important components in Realizing the common good that education
358 provides. However, given the current political climate, this presents many challenges
359 for Black women faculty. For junior faculty, this could mean that they will not receive
360 tenure because they may be sanctioned for using the CRT framework in the classroom

and or in their research. For tenured faculty, they may not be protected. Tenure is not simply a guarantee of lifetime employment, as commonly conceived.

Appointment to tenure is an unlimited academic employment that can be terminated for extraordinary conditions such as financial necessity or the discontinuation of a program. Tenured faculty can be forced out through coerced resignations, or extreme fatigue from battling constant racial aggressions.

Racial violence, police brutality, and discrimination are a part of everyday life. Educators of color are often asked by their white colleagues, “What should I do?” Or “how can I help?” While their intentions are well-meaning, their questions place the burden for solutions on those that are experiencing oppression. Black women faculty are often asked to put aside their own pain to address the concerns of white colleagues. To educate them can cause additional stress on educators of color as they continue to do their jobs and support their students.

University administrators and leaders should address the hostility and toxicity that educators of color often experience in the workplace. They must acknowledge that racism and sexism exist in the workplace and try to mitigate these experiences. This is a longstanding systemic problem for PWIs that have consequences beyond individual people. There needs to be further exploration into the role race and racism play in our pedagogical interactions. Perhaps Mary Douglas’s (1986) theory grounded in social anthropology would be useful. She argues that it is important to understand how institutions function, and they are often slow to change. However, it is in the understanding of how an individual functions and operates within these institutions that lead to ways of useful thinking for how they function. In other words, if chancellors, provosts, deans and other leaders at colleges and universities, acknowledge and understand that RBF is a real concern that can affect not only faculty of color, but students of color, staff of color and generally everyone on campus. Protocols like zero-tolerance policies for racism and sexism can be put in place to mitigate micro aggressive behavior.

Consideration should be given to requiring all campus employees to participate in antiracism education like the requirements for university faculty and staff must do for Title IX Training that imposes procedural requirements on the way institutions of higher education train the individuals handling sexual misconduct and related policy violations. While these provisions will not eliminate this issue, it will send a message that it is a serious concern and the university cares about its community.

6. Conclusion

We are living in unprecedented times – as of the writing of this article, we are three months away from the presidential election that could result in the re-election of arguably the most polarizing figure in American political history. The former president built the Supreme Court’s conservative majority that overturned *Roe v. Wade*; thereby eliminating a woman’s right to have control of their own bodies. As a

401 contrast, for the first time in history, Vice-President, Kamala Harris (Democrat), will
402 be the first woman of color of any major political party to be the nominee for President
403 of the United States. If elected, she will represent shifting American demographics
404 where the minority is increasingly becoming the majority. Vice-President Harris has
405 already experienced tremendous sexism and racism; this will undoubtedly intensify
406 throughout her campaign for presidency and election.

407 Many have been inspired by what Jarvis Givens (2021) calls “fugitive pedagogy” –
408 where educators became resilient and developed covert instructional strategies and
409 creative responses to the white opposition during enslavement and the Jim Crow era.
410 LIS programs at HBCU institutions can be strong collaborators for a collectively
411 rich presence in library education. Since there is only one remaining HBCU LIS
412 school, perhaps LIS programs at PWIs could form a partnership for cross-cultural
413 collaboration. Black women faculty deserve to work in an environment without fear
414 of losing their jobs or their lives. Academic leadership must create safe spaces on
415 campuses for Black women professors to network and to have a sense of belonging.
416 Mentoring, access to counseling and encouraging mental health days are examples of
417 strategies administrators can quickly employ to minimize the trauma Black women
418 experience in their everyday work life.

419 **References**

- 420 ALISE statistical report 2023: Trends and key indicators in library and information science education.
421 Retrieve from <https://ali.memberclicks.net/2023-statistical-report>.
- 422 American Association of University Professors (1970). 1940 Statement of principles on academic free-
423 dom and tenure with 1970 interpretive comments. Retrieved from [https://www.aaup.org/file/1940%](https://www.aaup.org/file/1940%20Statement.pdf)
424 [20Statement.pdf](https://www.aaup.org/file/1940%20Statement.pdf), July 6, 2024.
- 425 Amott, T. & Matthaeci, J. (1996). *Race, gender, and work: A multicultural economic history of women in*
426 *the United States*. Boston: South End Press.
- 427 Asmelash, L. (2024). An HBCU administrator’s suicide is raising painful questions about Black men-
428 tal health. Retrieved from [https://amp.cnn.com/cnn/2024/02/27/us/hbcu-lincoln-university-missouri-](https://amp.cnn.com/cnn/2024/02/27/us/hbcu-lincoln-university-missouri-suicide-questions-black-mental-health)
429 [suicide-questions-black-mental-health](https://amp.cnn.com/cnn/2024/02/27/us/hbcu-lincoln-university-missouri-suicide-questions-black-mental-health).
- 430 Aymer, S. (2016). “I can’t breathe”: A case study- helping Black men cope with race-related trauma
431 stemming from police killing and brutality. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment*.
432 doi: 10.1080/1091359.2015.1132828.
- 433 Bailey, M. (2022). Between two worlds: Black women and the fight for voting rights. Retrieved from
434 <https://www.nps.gov/articles/black-women-and-the-fight-for-voting-rights.htm>.
- 435 Baker, D.J., & Britton, T. (2021). Hate crimes and Black college student enrollment. (CEPA Working
436 Paper No.21-01). Retrieved from Stanford Center for Education Policy Analysis: [http://cepa.stanford.](http://cepa.stanford.edu/wp21-0)
437 [edu/wp21-0](http://cepa.stanford.edu/wp21-0).
- 438 Banks, N. (2019). Black women’s labor market history reveals deep-seated race and gender discrimination.
439 Retrieved from [https://www.epi.org/blog/black-womens-labor-market-history-reveals-deep-seated-](https://www.epi.org/blog/black-womens-labor-market-history-reveals-deep-seated-race-and-gender-discrimination/)
440 [race-and-gender-discrimination/](https://www.epi.org/blog/black-womens-labor-market-history-reveals-deep-seated-race-and-gender-discrimination/).
- 441 Bonilla-Silva, E. (2015). The structure of racism in color-blind, “post-racial” America. *American Behavioral*
442 *Scientist*. doi: 10.1177/0002764215586826.
- 443 Ceja, J.A., Colon Aguirre, M., Cooke, N.A., & Steward, B. (2017). A critical dialogue: faculty of color in
444 library and information science. *InterActions Journal of Education and Information Studies*, 13(2),
445 1-13.

- 446 Chancellor, R.L. (2024). *Breaking Glass Ceilings: Clara Stanton Jones and the Detroit Public Library*.
447 Maryland: Rowman & Littlefield.
- 448 Chancellor, R.L. (2020). E.J. Josey: Transformational leader in the modern library profession. Maryland:
449 Rowman & Littlefield.
- 450 Chancellor, R.L. (2019). Racial Battle Fatigue: The Unspoken burden of Black women faculty in LIS.
451 *Journal of Education and Library and Information Science*, 60(3), 182-189. doi: 10.3138/jelis.2019-
452 0007.
- 453 Chancellor, R.L., DeLoach, P., Dunbar, A., Lee, S., & Singh, R. (2021). From protests to practice:
454 Confronting systematic racism in LIS.
- 455 Chesley, C., & Anantachai, T. (2018). The burden of care: Cultural taxation of women of color librarians
456 on the tenure-track (2018). *University Libraries Faculty Scholarship*. 107. [https://scholarsarchive.
457 library.albany.edu/ulib_fac_scholar/107](https://scholarsarchive.library.albany.edu/ulib_fac_scholar/107).
- 458 Chou, R.L., & Pho, A. (Eds.). (2018). *Pushing the margins: Women of color and intersectionality in LIS*.
459 Sacramento, California: Library Juice Press.
- 460 Chou, R.L., & Pho, A. (2017). Intersectionality at the reference desk: Lived experiences of women of color
461 librarians. *The Feminist Reference Desk*. Retrieved from <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/30r7s9nw>.
- 462 Coates, T. (2015). *Between the world and me*. New York: Spiegel and Grau.
- 463 Colby, G., & Fowler, C. (2020). Data snapshot: IPEDS data on full-time women faculty and aculty of color.
464 An in depth look at the makeup and salaries of faculty members in U.S. higher education. American
465 Association of University Professors. Retrieved from [https://www.aaup.org/sites/default/files/Dec-
466 2020_Data_Snapshot_Women_and_Faculty_of_Color.pdf](https://www.aaup.org/sites/default/files/Dec-2020_Data_Snapshot_Women_and_Faculty_of_Color.pdf).
- 467 Cooke, N. A., & Kitzie, V. L. (2021). Outsiders-within-library and information science: Reprioritizing the
468 marginalized in critical sociocultural work. *Journal of the Association for Information Science and
469 Technology*. doi: 10.1002/asi.24449.
- 470 Cooke, N.A., & Sanchez, (2019). Getting it on the record: Faculty of color in library and information
471 science. *Journal of Education for Library and Information Science*, 60(3), 169-181. doi: 10.3138/jelis.
472 60.3.01.
- 473 Crenshaw, K. (1989). De-marginalizing the intersections of race and sex: A Black feminist critique of
474 anti-discrimination doctrine, feminist theory.
- 475 Crenshaw, K., Gotanda, N., Peller, G., & Thomas, K. (Eds.). (1995). *Critical race theory: The key writings
476 that formed the movement*. New York, NY: New Press.
- 477 Crenshaw, K. (2011). Twenty years of critical race theory: Looking back to move forward. *Connecticut
478 Law Review*, 43(5), 1253-1352.
- 479 Crenshaw, K., Ritchie, A., Anspach, R., Gilmer, R., & Harris, L. (2015). Say her name: Resisting police bru-
480 tality against Black women. Retrieved from https://scholarship.law.columbia.edu/faculty_scholarship/3226.
- 481 Delgado, R., & Stefancic, J. (2001). *Critical race theory: An introduction*. New York, NY: New York
482 University Press.
- 483 Department for professional employees AFL-CIO. *Library professionals: Facts and Figures*. [https://static1.
484 squarespace.com/static/5d10ef48024ce300010f0f0c/t/6671ca759055c37f09ae199c/1718733429144/
485 Library+Professionals+Facts+%26+Figures+2024.pdf](https://static1.squarespace.com/static/5d10ef48024ce300010f0f0c/t/6671ca759055c37f09ae199c/1718733429144/Library+Professionals+Facts+%26+Figures+2024.pdf).
- 486 Douglas, M. (1985). *How institutions think*. London: Routledge.
- 487 Douglass, F., & Garrison, W. L. (1845). *Narrative of the life of Frederick Douglass, an American slave*.
488 Boston: Anti-slavery Office.
- 489 Dunbar, A.W. (2023). Every information context is a CRITICAL Race information theory opportunity:
490 Informatic considerations for the information industrial complex. *Digital Transformation and Society*,
491 2, 4-4. Retrieved from <https://www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/DTS-02-2023-0013/full/html>.
- 492 Epps, S.K. (2008). African American women leaders in academic research libraries. *Libraries and the
493 Academy*, 8(3), 255-272.
- 494 Evans, S.Y. (2007). *Black women in the ivory tower, 1850-1954: An intellectual history*. Gainesville,
495 Florida. University Press of Florida.
- 496 Gibson, A.N. (2019). Civility and structural precarity for faculty of color in LIS. *Journal of Education for
497 Library and Information Science*, 60(3), 215-222. doi: 10.3138/jelis.2019-0006.
- 498 Gibson, A., Hughes-Hassell, S., & Threats, M. (2018). Chapter 4: Critical race theory in the LIS curriculum.

- 499 In re-envisioning the MLS: Perspectives on the future of library and information science education
500 (Vol. 44B, pp. 49–70). Emerald Publishing Limited. doi: 10.1108/S0065-28302018000044B00.
- 501 Givens, J. (2021). *Fugitive pedagogy: Carter G. Woodson and the art of black teaching*. Cambridge,
502 Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.
- 503 Greene, L.J., & Woodson, C.G. (1930). *The negro wage earner*. DC: The Association for the Study of
504 Negro Life and History.
- 505 Hill, R. (2019). The danger of an untold story: Excerpts from my life as a black academic. *Journal of*
506 *Education for Library and Information Science*, 60(3), 208-214.
- 507 Hurtado, S., Milem, J. F., Clayton-Pedersen, A., & Walter R.A. (1998). Enhancing campus climates
508 for racial/ethnic diversity: Educational policy and practice. *The Review of Higher Education*, 21(3),
509 279-302.
- 510 Irvin, V. (2019). “I Have Two Legs, not Four”: Navigating the -isms of the LIS Minefield. *Journal of*
511 *Education for Library and Information Science*, 60(3) (July 2019), 231-238.
- 512 Johnson, A. (2024). What to know about Sonya Massey’s case: Illinois sheriff stepping down After
513 fatal shooting. *Forbes*, <https://www.forbes.com/sites/ariannajohnson/2024/08/09/what-to-know-about-sonya-masseys-case-illinois-sheriff-stepping-down-after-fatal-shooting/>.
- 514 Knott, C. (2019). Changing minds, making a difference: Eliza Atkins Gleason. *Changing Minds, Making a*
515 *Difference: Eliza Atkins Gleason | UC Berkeley School of Information*.
- 516 Kuhn, T.S. (1962). *The structure of scientific revolutions*. University of Chicago.
- 517 Lloyd, C. (2020). Black employees disproportionately experience micro aggressions. Retrieved <https://news.gallup.com/poll/315695/black-adults-disproportionately-experience-microaggressions.aspx>.
- 518 Martinez-Alvarado, S. (2023). Colleges and universities must commit to student belonging in light of affir-
519 mative action rulings and attacks on DEI. Retrieved from <https://edtrust.org/the-equity-line/colleges-and-universities-must-commit-to-student-belonging-in-light-of-affirmative-action-rulings-and-attacks-on-dei/#:~:text=Given%20the%20recent%20Supreme%20Court,lack%20student%20and%20faculty%20diversity>.
- 520 McNeely, I.F., & Wolverton, L. (2008). *Reinventing knowledge*. New York: W.W. Norton & Co.
- 521 Mehra, B. (2019). The non-white man’s burden in LIS education: Critical constructive nudges. *Journal of*
522 *Education for Library and Information Science (Special Issue, A critical dialogue: Faculty of color*
523 *in library and information science. Edited by Jose Sanchez and Nicole A. Cooke, 60(3) (July 2019),*
524 198-207.
- 525 Mongeon, P. et al. ‘A bibliometric analysis of race-related research in LIS’. 1 Jan. 2021: 231-246.
- 526 National Center for Education Statistics. (2022). Hate crime incidents at postsecondary institutions.
527 *Condition of education*. U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved
528 June 8, 2022, from <https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator/a22>.
- 529 Ndumu, A., & Chancellor, R.L. (2021). Du Mont, 35 years later: HBCUs, LIS education and institutional
530 discrimination. *Journal of Education and Library and Information Science*, 62, 2-2.
- 531 Nietzel, M. (2024). Black and Hispanic faculty disadvantaged in promotion and tenure Process, study
532 finds. <https://www.forbes.com/sites/michaelnietzel/2024/08/02/study-finds-black-hispanic-faculty-disadvantaged-in-promotiontenure-process/>.
- 533 Peterson, M. (2019). The revolutionary practices of black feminisms. Retrieved from <https://nmaahc.si.edu/explore/stories/revolutionary-practice-black-feminisms>.
- 534 Rubin, R.E. (2016). *Foundations of library and information science (4th ed)*. New York: ALA Neal-
535 Schuman.
- 536 Siemens, G., & Matheos, K. (2022). Systemic changes in higher education. In R. Kimmons (Ed.), *Becoming*
537 *an Open Scholar*. EdTech Books. https://edtechbooks.org/open_scholar/systemic_changes.
- 538 Solorzano, D., Ceja, M., & Yosso, T. (2000). Critical race theory, racial microaggressions, and campus
539 racial climate: The experiences of african american college students. *Journal of Negro Education*,
540 69(1/2), 60-60.
- 541 Smith, W.A. (2004). Black faculty coping with racial battle fatigue: The campus racial climate in a post-civil
542 rights era. In D. Cleveland (Ed.), *A long way to go: Conversations about race by African American*
543 *faculty and graduate students (pp. 171-190)*. New York: Peter Lang Publishing.
- 544 Smith, W.A., Yosso, T.J., & Solórzano, D.G. (2006). Challenging racial battle fatigue on historically white
545

- 552 campuses: A critical race examination of race-related stress. In C. A. Stanley (Ed.), *Faculty of color:*
553 *Teaching in predominantly white colleges and universities* (p. 299). Bolton, MA: Anker Publishing
554 Company, Inc.
- 555 Stokes, S. (2020). *Into the wildfire: Campus racial climate and the Trump presidency* [Doctoral disserta-
556 tion, University of Southern California]. University of Southern California dissertations and theses.
557 Retrieved from [http://digitallibrary.usc.edu/cdm/search/field/BLANK/searchterm/Volume12%252Fetd](http://digitallibrary.usc.edu/cdm/search/field/BLANK/searchterm/Volume12%252FetdStokesSy-872)
558 [StokesSy-872](http://digitallibrary.usc.edu/cdm/search/field/BLANK/searchterm/Volume12%252FetdStokesSy-872).
- 559 Swanson, J., Tanaka, A., & Gonzalez-Smith, I. (2018). Lived experience of academic librarians of Color.
560 *C&RL*, 79, 7.
- 561 Thomas, K. (2023). Black women leading ivory towers. *Forbes*. Retrieved from [https://www.forbes.](https://www.forbes.com/sites/keciathomas/2023/10/04/black-women-leading-ivory-towers/)
562 [com/sites/keciathomas/2023/10/04/black-women-leading-ivory-towers/](https://www.forbes.com/sites/keciathomas/2023/10/04/black-women-leading-ivory-towers/).
- 563 Trower, C. (2003). Leveling the field, 2003. *New England Resource Center for Higher Education*. Retrieved
564 from [https://www.umkc.edu/provost/chairs/meetings/Meeting%20docs/Leveling_the%20Field_](https://www.umkc.edu/provost/chairs/meetings/Meeting%20docs/Leveling_the%20Field_NERCHE.PDF)
565 [NERCHE.PDF](https://www.umkc.edu/provost/chairs/meetings/Meeting%20docs/Leveling_the%20Field_NERCHE.PDF).
- 566 UCLA Law, Critical Race Studies. Retrieved Critical Race Studies at UCLA Law advances racial equality
567 | UCLA Law.
- 568 U.S. Department of Education (2017). National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved from
569 <https://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts/display.asp?id=61>.
- 570 Van Dyke, N., & Tester, G. (2014). Dangerous climates: Factors associated with variation in racist hate
571 crimes on college campuses. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice*, 30(3), 290-309.
- 572 Weems, R. (2003). The Incorporation of black faculty at predominantly white institutions: A historical and
573 contemporary perspective. *Journal of Black Studies*, 34(1), 101-111.