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Surveying the landscape of college teaching about African American Language

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ABSTRACT

College courses are an important forum for combating the stigmatization of African American Language (AAL). However, there is no comprehensive data regarding where, how, and by whom AAL content is taught. Understanding the landscape of college teaching about AAL could help identify challenges faced by instructors who teach this content, as well as policies or practices that could help support these instructors. We surveyed college instructors ($N = 149$) in multiple disciplines (primarily Linguistics, Education, English, and Communication Sciences) who teach courses with AAL content. We found patterns in the sources of support and levels of resistance instructors reported. Instructors also expressed varied levels of knowledge and confidence related to teaching about African American Language and Culture. Many of these patterns were correlated with instructors' racialized identities and language backgrounds. We discuss implications for professional organizations, university department leaders, and instructors who teach AAL content.

1. Introduction

Reversing the negative stigmatization of African American Language (AAL) is an essential goal for U.S. higher education in the 21st century (Charity Hudley et al., 2022; Smitherman, 1995; Weldon, 2012). Many scholars have fought this stigmatization in and beyond academia for decades, sometimes by incorporating AAL into college curricula (Webber, 1985; Weldon, 2012). Crucial research by Ball and Muhammad (2003) has shown that small (but potentially growing) numbers of Colleges of Education include AAL content in coursework. A survey of college instructors by Weldon (2012), using data collected in 2002, showed that college courses focused on AAL were taught in departments of English, Linguistics, and (to a lesser extent) "African American studies, anthropology, education, sociology, and communication sciences" (p. 234). Researchers have also designed strategies for changing perceptions of dialect diversity on college campuses (e.g., Dunstan et al., 2018) and for restructuring linguistics coursework to center African American Language and Culture (e.g., Calhoun et al., 2021). The American Speech-Language-Hearing Association recently devoted a special forum in one of its journals to AAL and its implications for communication sciences (Mills, 2021). There is even a new scholarly organization devoted to the study of AAL: the Society of Black Language and Culture (SOBLAC)[1].

Nevertheless, efforts to promote *systemic* change in American attitudes toward AAL, both among the public and in educational spheres, remain incomplete (Peele-Eady & Foster, 2018). Nearly fifty years ago, the Conference on College Composition and Communication passed a resolution affirming "students' right to their own language" (SRTOL) and exhorting educators to learn key linguistics concepts (NCTE & CCCC, 1974/2014). However, the CCCC initially declined to publish a compendium of instructional materials its own members had assembled to help educators act on this resolution, and it took decades for a SRTOL sourcebook to be published (Perryman-Clark et al., 2015; Smitherman, 1995). Gupta (2010) and Diehm and Hendricks (2021) find that teachers continue to feel that teacher education programs do not provide adequate instruction about AAL. Hendricks et al. (2021) find that

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[1] For more information or to join the SOBLAC listserv, visit groups.google.com/g/soblac/about.

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students in Speech-Language Pathology programs espouse positive views of AAL yet continue to rate AAL users more negatively than non-AAL users. College instruction that goes beyond *acknowledging* AAL to actively *teaching about* AAL still seems to be the exception rather than the norm in many departments and institutions.

Greater integration of AAL content into the college curriculum is desirable for many reasons. Among them are its real-world cultural and social relevance and its prominence in the histories of many disciplines and fields, including Linguistics, Education, American English literature, and the broader literature of the Black Diaspora. Activities that promote greater awareness of and appreciation for AAL in particular, and language diversity more broadly, can positively impact belonging among college students of many racialized[2] and socioeconomic backgrounds (Calhoun et al., 2021; Dunstan & Jaeger, 2015; Dunstan et al., 2015). Courses that explicitly address the legitimacy of AAL and the realities of raciolinguistic discrimination also meet many of Sleeter (2011)'s criteria for high-quality ethnic studies courses, and ethnic studies courses have shown powerful benefits for students (Bonilla et al., 2021; Dee & Penner, 2017).

Understanding *how* AAL content can be successfully and systematically integrated into college curricula also has global implications. As with AAL, the use of Creole languages is often socially stigmatized across the global Black Diaspora (Gibson, 2011; Nero, 2018; Perry, 2020) and in the lives of Black migrants to the U.S. (Smith, 2020; Smith & Warrican, 2021). Insights into how U.S. faculty are systematically combatting the stigmatization of AAL may prove useful for educators in other national and linguistic contexts, as college educators can arguably play an important role in (re)shaping students' language attitudes and helping them unlearn societal stigmas (Lockwood & Saft, 2016). Thus, we argue that systemic change can be accelerated by bringing together the diverse disciplinary communities that are doing the work of teaching college students about AAL.

Answering such questions could provide invaluable insights–and requires understanding the broad landscape of college AAL instruction. Yet this information is not readily available; indeed, little data has been systematically gathered on the role of AAL in the college curriculum. Almost a century ago, Carter G. Woodson (1933/2006) called for students to study AAL and its linguistic history. Nearly a century later, we find only two studies that have quantified the extent to which this goal has been realized over a wide geographic area: Ball and Muhammad (2003) analyzed data on 25 teacher education programs and noted the lack of content focused on AAL or linguistic diversity more broadly, while Weldon conducted a 2002 survey (published in 2012) of 49 college instructors from various disciplines to examine their experiences teaching about AAL.

In the two decades since these studies were conducted, important progress has been made to advance the teaching of AAL content. To continue to move forward, we must combine and build upon the approaches of Ball and Muhammad (2003) (by taking a systems-level look at AAL instruction) and Weldon (2012) (by looking across multiple disciplines). We ask: *where, how, and by whom* has AAL content been incorporated into college coursework? Answering this question can equip scholars of AAL with information about the structures and strategies that have successfully integrated such content into the curriculum. It can also provide valuable insights to support future teaching, research, and organizing efforts. Therefore, in this paper, we map the current landscape of AAL instruction in higher education–the varied contexts in which AAL content is being taught, and the varied supports and obstacles college instructors face in teaching this content. As we will demonstrate, the work of celebrating AAL and combating linguistic racism is already happening in hundreds of college courses across the U.S., and we share this work in the hope of helping others to build on these invaluable efforts.

2. Positionality

Quentin: I come to this work as a cisgender, White,[3] gay man. I grew up in Farina, Illinois, a rural farming community that at the time was approximately 97% White. My primary sources of knowledge about AAL in those years were television, music, and hearsay, through which I internalized many normative ideas about language–ideas such as the purportedly "disordered" or "lazy" nature of AAL, which I later came to recognize as false stereotypes grounded in anti-Black racism (Baker-Bell, 2020; Rickford & Rickford, 2000). My ideas about language first began to change as an undergraduate at Harvard, where curiosity about my Slovak heritage led me to take elective courses examining the ways that language ideologies have historically been used to advance political and nationalistic agendas.

These changes accelerated in adulthood, when I worked for five years as a science and mathematics teacher at public schools in American Sāmoa and rural Mississippi. In my master's degree coursework at the University of Mississippi, I learned the term "deficit thinking," and began to see how deficit ideologies about the language practices of people of color sounded eerily similar in the Deep South and the South Pacific, in communities ten thousand kilometers apart. I also began to see the falsehoods, racism, colonialism, and often sexism embedded in these ideologies (Cameron, 2003; Flores & Rosa, 2015; Lippi-Green, 1997; Parakrama, 1995), all of which were contradicted by my experiences learning from and working with African American, Pacific Islander American, Asian American, and (in later years) Latina, Latino, and Latinx American mentors, colleagues, students, and families.

I vividly recall a moment in a Mississippi science classroom where a student offered a brilliant and important observation using AAL. Excitedly, I repeated her statement verbatim–but before I could go on to praise the student's insightfulness, her smile faltered. Thinking that I was "correcting" her grammar, or perhaps that I was mocking her, she repeated her comment using *Standardized American English.[4] At the time, I did not have the words to explain what had happened, nor the confusion and shame that I felt (emotions which my student may have felt as well). Substantive instruction on AAL had not been a part of my college education or teacher education–but in that moment, I knew it should have been. Experiences like this drove me to pursue a doctorate at Stanford, where I studied language, identity, and teacher education under the tutelage of Arnetha Ball, as well as Bryan Brown, John Rickford, and other exemplary scholars. Today, my research examines how K-12 teachers, college students, and

[2] We used the term "racialized" rather than "racial" to emphasize that race is socially constructed, historically and contextually situated, and structurally (re)produced through processes of racialization (Bonilla-Silva, 1997; Fields, 1990; Winant, 2000). In our work, to say that two persons have the same racialized identity is to say that they "are likely to identify or be identified as similar in particular ways by themselves, by other individuals, or by institutions, and are thus likely to experience the consequences of racist…systems in similar ways in particular domains of social interaction" (Sedlacek, 2021, p. 2352). We used the term "gendered" to denote that gender is socially constructed, historically and contextually situated, and structurally (re)produced as well (West & Zimmerman, 1987).

[3] We recognize the valid and important critiques of the capitalization of "White" in discussions of race and ethnicity (see for example Laws, 2020). In this manuscript, we do so in order to follow the current APA Style Guide.

[4] We use the term Standardized to reflect the fact that "standard" language is a perception with ideological and political dimensions rather than an empirical fact (Silverstein, 1996), and use an asterisk to note that a single such variety arguably does not exist (Bacon, 2017; Flores & Rosa, 2015).

faculty make sense of experiences learning about language, race, and racism and develop antiracist practices (primarily, though not exclusively, in STEM education). These experiences and relationships inform my perspective and the work that I do in seeking to advance racial and linguistic justice.

Anne: I grew up in Varina, Virginia, a rural area zoned for agriculture just east of Richmond, Virginia. My local affiliations and dedication to my community are the driving forces behind my most fundamental interests as an academic. In the Black educational narrative, I represent the prep-school-to-professor experience. I attended St. Catherine's School in Richmond for 13 years, where I had an early interest in studying linguistics and in being a college professor and administrator. I was granted early admission to Harvard and found myself surrounded by supportive faculty and students. After Harvard, I attended graduate school at the University of Pennsylvania, where I began studying in earnest how discrimination based on language and culture leads to educational inequalities. For 12 years, I worked in my home community at the College of William & Mary in Williamsburg, Virginia. For four years after that, I was the North Hall Endowed Chair in the Linguistics of African America at the University of California, Santa Barbara (UCSB). I am now a professor and associate dean at the Stanford University Graduate School of Education. I got interested in linguistics as a child because I had an early faculty towards language learning. My favorite language has always been my local variety–the language spoken by Black people on the porches and pulpits of Charles City County, Viriginia, where my grandparents lived 15 minutes from where I grew up and 40 minutes from the College of William and Mary. Teaching my people how to love who we are-language and culture included-is fundamentally why I do this work. This is my language and culture and it is worthy of study and praise.

Christine: I grew up in a small town in North Carolina. My parents were both first-generation college students, having moved from New York and Pennsylvania to North Carolina to attend college. My maternal grandparents were immigrants from Germany, without a high school education. From an early age, I became attuned to the Northern accents of my parents and the German accents of my grandparents; in my early childhood educational experiences, I then also encountered two other important varieties of English used by my peers and teachers: White Southern English and the local Southern variety of AAL. I became intrigued, not just by linguistic differences themselves but by the ways that language reflects culture and identity, as well as social boundaries and social divisions.

In college and graduate school, my interests in language, culture, and society converged. I completed my master's degree in English Linguistics and my Ph.D. in Sociology and Anthropology at North Carolina State University, working with Walt Wolfram to study language in Southern White and Black communities. After graduate school, I became a professor in the Language, Literacy, and Culture Program at the University of Maryland, Baltimore County (UMBC), where I also now am the director of the Center for Social Science Scholarship, UMBC's comprehensive social science research center, and a research leader on campus. As a White woman, I see my roles and responsibilities as a professor, mentor, and administrator as a central part of my dedication to dismantling social inequalities, challenging bias and discrimination, promoting inclusion, and advancing social justice and equity—especially for students from historically and systemically underrepresented backgrounds in higher education.

3. Methodology

This study sought to map the current landscape of AAL instruction in higher education–the contexts in which AAL content is being taught, and the varied supports and obstacles college instructors face in teaching it.

3.1. Research questions

To advance these goals in the current study, we asked:

1. Where is AAL being taught?
2. By whom is AAL being taught?
3. How do contextual factors and supports for AAL teaching relate to instructors' knowledge and confidence for teaching this content?
4. How do contextual factors and supports for AAL teaching relate to students' responses to learning about this content?

Answering these questions enables us to identify institutional policies or practices that could more broadly support the teaching of AAL, and to identify communities of scholars who could share resources and collectively advocate for the teaching of AAL content. Understanding the current contexts, supports, and obstacles to the teaching of AAL may also help identify important topics for future research and for the development of pedagogical content knowledge essential to teaching about AAL.

3.2. Survey methods

To understand the landscape of teaching about AAL in higher education, we surveyed college instructors who have recently taught (or expect to soon teach) courses with AAL content in any department and at any type of postsecondary institution. We did not provide examples of AAL but explained our intent using the following introduction:

> We are currently conducting a short survey of college faculty and graduate students who teach content related to African American Language and Culture (AAL&C) in any discipline or content area. Specifically, we are interested in anyone who teaches their students about spoken and signed language varieties that are used in the U.S. and are associated with descendants of formerly enslaved persons; such varieties have been given names such as African American Language (AAL), African American English (AAE), African American Vernacular English (AAVE), Black English, Ebonics, and/or Black ASL (BASL).

We further defined AAL-including courses as those which include "at least one reading, assignment, discussion, or lesson on African American Language." We included participants who teach courses outside the United States (ultimately less than 4% of our sample). Any eligible participant who completed the survey received a $25 gift card to an online bookseller chosen from among several options, including one focused on books centering Black or African American perspectives and experiences.

Respondents shared their job titles (e.g., Associate Professor, Graduate Teaching Assistant), course names and departmental affiliations, and supports or challenges that influence their teaching of AAL content. Instructors were also asked to describe the specific AAL content of their courses, and were invited (but not required) to share course syllabi. They were also asked to choose a specific course they had taught recently (or expected to teach soon) and describe their students' disciplinary backgrounds, career ambitions, and enthusiasm or resistance to learning about AAL. Four items asked instructors to rate their knowledge or confidence for teaching about African American Language or about African American Culture on five-point, Likert-type scales ranging from "Not at all confident [knowledgeable]" to "Very confident [knowledgeable]."

Respondents were asked to describe their racialized identity in an open-ended question, "How would you describe your racial and/or ethnic identity?" They were asked to describe their gendered identity in a multiple-choice, multiple-answer question, "How would you describe your gender identity? You can check any/all that apply, and you can leave this question blank if you prefer not to answer."

Respondents were asked to describe their language background–with regard to AAL in particular–in two close-ended survey items. One asked, "At any time during your life (including the present), have you been in regular close contact with people you would describe as users of African American Language?" The other asked, "Would you describe yourself as a user of African American Language (spoken or signed)?"

Our IRB protocol allowed for survey responses that were confidential but not anonymous. Respondents provided informed consent and shared their names and the names of institutions where they have recently taught or will soon teach courses with AAL content. We used this information to supplement the dataset with publicly available, non-sensitive information– specifically, the geographic locations and Carnegie classifications[5] of each institution represented in the data as well as the disciplines and institutions from which participants had received their most recent degrees, as determined by reviewing publicly available CVs and professional websites.

3.3. Sampling

We recruited participants using a snowball sampling method. This method has been used in qualitative research to study the experiences of marginalized populations whose experiences are often "hidden" (e.g., Black women faculty in higher education; see Woodley & Lockard, 2016). While we were not necessarily studying a marginalized population *per se*, we were interested in studying *content* and *practices* that have historically been marginalized in higher education. We began our snowball process with several targeted recruitment efforts:

- We contacted the listserv of the Society for Black Language and Culture (SOBLAC), a network of over 100 scholars across disciplines with an interest in African American Language and/or Culture. All members were invited to participate in the survey and share it with others.
- Using the software *Publish or Perish* (Harzing, 2007) in conjunction with GoogleScholar, we curated a list of 314 email addresses for corresponding authors of texts published between 2018 and early 2021 that include references to African American Language (or related terms) and teacher education. We emailed all of these individuals to invite their participation in the survey.
- We shared the survey link and basic information about the study on social media (Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn and Instagram).
- Within the survey itself and during a public webinar about the study, we invited participants to share contact information for any additional colleagues who might meet the recruitment criteria.
- Approximately one month after the launch of the survey, we hosted a public webinar to share preliminary results. During this webinar, we asked attendees to share the survey with colleagues who might meet the recruitment criteria.

[5] At the time we retrieved Carnegie classification data for our study, we used the online institution lookup feature maintained by the Indiana University Center for Postsecondary Research. Since then, the web address for accessing these data has changed; management of the Carnegie classifications database has moved to the American Center for Education, accessible at carnegieclassifications.acenet.edu.

Early in the survey administration, it became apparent that some false responses were being submitted, perhaps due to anti-Black racism or internet trolling. To avoid contamination of the data, we manually searched for each respondent online to verify their identity and university affiliation. Responses that could not be verified were excluded from our analyses.

3.4. Analysis

3.4.1. Coding of open-ended survey items

We coded open-ended survey responses in order to facilitate quantitative analyses. Respondents who listed a professorial rank were assumed to be in tenure-track positions unless otherwise stated. For example, respondents who called themselves "assistant Professor" or "assistant Professor (TT)" were inferred to be in tenure-track positions, while those who called themselves "visiting assistant Professor" or "clinical asst prof" were categorized as being in non-tenure-track positions. For respondents outside the United States, we coded the U.S. academic rank which most closely corresponded to the academic rank in their country of residence. This correspondence was not always exact; for example, the rank of "associate professor" or "reader" in the U.K. and other Commonwealth nations carries different implications than the rank of "associate professor" in the U.S., but these ranks have been categorized as analogous in previous international studies of higher education (Gottlieb & Keith, 1997; Moore et al., 2007).

Respondents were also invited to describe their racialized or ethnic identity in an open-ended question. We then coded responses into U.S. Census race and ethnicity categories in non-exclusive ways, with language adjusted to meet the APA style guidelines for terminology describing racialized or ethnic identity. For example, respondents who described themselves as "Black" or "White" were ascribed racialized identities of "Black or African American" or "White or European American," respectively. Respondents who described themselves with more than one term, e.g., "mixed(black/white)," were ascribed three racialized identities of "Black or African American," "White or European American," and "Multiracial." Some respondents named a particular racialized identity and also described themselves as an immigrant from a certain country or region of the world, or identified with a particular racialized identity while also noting an additional ethnic or religious identity. In order to protect participants' confidentiality, we list this as "additional" dimensions of identity without reporting specifics (see Table 4). Racialized or ethnic identities are listed twice in our descriptive statistics: once using non-exclusive categories (thus summing to more than 100%), and again using exclusive categories (in which the category of "Multiracial" was ascribed whenever more than one category applied).

In the 43 responses where instructors reported teaching about AAL at multiple institutions, we primarily based our analyses of geography and institution type (see Section 4.1.1 and 4.1.2, below) on data from the institution listed first in their response. In a purely hypothetical example, if a faculty member taught as an adjunct at a private college in South Carolina and at a public college in North Carolina, but listed the North Carolina college first in their response, our analyses (except where otherwise indicated) would reflect only their teaching at the public North Carolina institution. We used this rule for several reasons. The wording of our survey item did not enable us to readily identify the chronological order in which participants taught at various institutions or their rationale(s) for listing a particular institution first. However, virtually no responses listing multiple institutions were ordered alphabetically, and in 65% of these multi-institution responses, the first institution listed matched the institutional email address provided by the participant, suggesting they prefer to cite this institution as their professional affiliation. In the remaining multi-institution responses,

participants may have taught at multiple institutions simultaneously (one specifically mentioned this) or may have listed institutions in chronological order of their teaching experiences (one specifically mentioned this).

Three courses were cross-listed in multiple departments. For quantitative analyses, we grouped each of these courses with the department that housed the primary appointment of the instructor: one in Education, one in English, and one in Linguistics.

3.4.2. Quantitative analyses

We initially used descriptive frequencies to analyze responses. We also used chi-square analysis ($\chi 2$) to analyze relationships between categorical variables (e.g., the relationship between an instructor's racialized identity and whether or not they identified as a user of AAL).

We used multivariate regression to examine how instructors' knowledge and confidence for teaching about African American Language and Culture, and their students' responses to such teaching, varied as a function of several demographic and contextual variables. These included disciplinary context (i.e., Linguistics, Education, English, other) because possible differences in AAL instruction across disciplines were of interest to us from a theoretical and practical standpoint; sources of support for AAL teaching (i.e., colleagues within one's own institution, colleagues from outside one's institution, professional organizations), because the relative influence of these supports were of interest to us from a theoretical and practical standpoint; tenure status, because we were interested in knowing whether early-career scholars or untenured faculty experience different supports or challenges compared with tenured faculty; gendered identities, because college students sometimes respond to instructors in gender-biased ways (Aragón et al., 2023; Fan et al., 2019) and we wanted to explore whether such patterns are apparent in the specific case of student responses to AAL instruction; instructor racialized identities, because the racialized identities of speakers and listeners can inform conversations about race and racism (Mizock & Harkins, 2012) and because Weldon (2012) found that students' reported responses to AAL instruction varied with instructors' racialized identities; and two dimensions of instructor language background (i.e., whether or not instructors have ever interacted regularly with AAL users and whether or not they considered themselves to be AAL users), because instructors' language backgrounds may inform the ways they think about, teach about, or even use stigmatized varieties in their classrooms (Greene, 2021; Lockwood & Saft, 2016).

Instructors teaching Linguistics courses were chosen as the reference category for disciplinary context because they were the largest category of respondents. Non-tenured instructors were chosen as the reference category for tenure status because they were the larger category of respondents.

Selecting reference categories for racialized and gendered identity was a more complex process that posed important methodological issues. White or European American persons and male persons are often uncritically selected as reference categories for race and gender in American social science research, sometimes without even being explicitly named as such; this practice can obscure important information, making quantitative findings related to race/racism and gender/sexism difficult to interpret and reproducing the normalization of Whiteness and maleness (Johfre & Freese, 2021).

An alternative approach might be to select a different reference category–e.g., choosing Black or African American as a reference category for racialized identity, particularly in analyses where the experiences of people with this identity are of especial interest. However, this decision can *also* obscure important information and reproduce problematic ideologies. It may involve grouping all participants who identify as Black or African American into a single category, regardless of whether or not they have additional racialized identities (e.g., Afro-Latinx); doing so can elide the heterogeneity of Black identities and can reinforce the racist "one-drop rule" that has historically been used to oppress Black and African American people throughout U.S. history (Khanna, 2010). Alternatively, it may involve grouping participants who identify as Black or African American and another racialized identity into a distinct "Multiracial" category–but this category may also include persons who do not include Black or African American among their identities (e.g., persons who identity as both Asian American and White or European American). Thus, either approach tends to flatten and erase the complexity of racialized identity and social processes of racialization (Mayhew & Simonoff, 2015a).

To address these concerns, we took an alternative approach by using non-dichotomous effect coding for racialized identity categories. Effect coding removes the need for a reference category entirely; instead of regression coefficients representing comparisons to a single subset of participants, the coefficients represent comparisons to the unweighted average of the group means (Mayhew & Simonoff, 2015a). Using this method, coefficients for all racialized identity categories can be derived by simply running successive iterations of a regression model and omitting a different racialized identity variable each time; Mayhew and Simonoff (2015a) demonstrate that unstandardized coefficients and t statistics for all variables will remain consistent across each model in which they are included. Effect coding is one of several methods used to operationalize racialized identity in quantitative higher education research focused on equity (BrckaLorenz et al., 2021; Viano & Baker, 2020).

Effect coding has the added advantage of enabling "a more accurate assessment of the slopes representing any one racial group by including the partial estimates for this racial group when it is selected as part of a bi- or multi-raced category" (Mayhew & Simonoff, 2015b, p. 595–6). Thus, categories such as "Black or African American" and "White or European American" can be operationalized in non-exclusive ways, with each racialized identity variable in a regression model including *all* participants who express that identity.

In our models, we included three effect-coded racialized identity variables: all participants who listed Black, African American, or a related term as one of their identities (N=30); all participants who listed White, European American, or a related term as one of their identities (N=111); and all participants who listed Asian, Hispanic, Multiracial, and/or additional identities as well as those who listed multiple identities (N=25). Thus, participants could be included in multiple categories. A participant who described themself as "Black & white" would be included in all three categories, while participants who described themselves as "Black biracial" or "Mixed, Asian and European" would be included in two categories each. Two participants did not disclose a racial or ethnic identity and thus were excluded from regression analyses.

We sought to use effect coding for gendered identity variables as well. However, only a single participant reported a non-binary gendered identity; all others identified as female ($N = 100$), male ($N = 44$), or did not report a gendered identity ($N = 4$). Since there were not enough non-binary participants to incorporate into an effect coding analysis, we instead used a traditional categorical variable in our regressions to indicate gendered identity. We used male participants as the reference category, despite the critiques of this practice mentioned above, because we wished to center discussion of any unique supports experienced or unique challenges faced by female instructors.

Instructors who did not report interacting with AAL users and those who did not report using AAL themselves were chosen as the reference categories for the two language background vari-

ables because we wished to center discussion of any unique supports experienced or unique challenges faced by instructors who teach about African American Language with firsthand knowledge or with emic, lived-experience perspectives.

Checks for collinearity showed that Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs) for all variables in all models were lower than 7. A Variance Inflation Factor of 10 is a commonly cited threshold for identifying multicollinearity problems and excluding variables, although there are cases where even higher variance inflation factors do not invalidate an analysis (O'Brien, 2007). Since all VIFs in our models were lower than 10, no variables were excluded from our models.

We adjusted all *p*-values in our analysis using a Benjamini-Hochberg correction for multiple tests of statistical significance (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995). We opted to use this procedure rather than a Bonferroni or Holm-Bonferroni correction because the Benjamini-Hochberg limits the false discovery rate (rather than the familywise error rate) and preserves higher statistical power (Thissen et al., 2002), thus making it an appropriate method for exploratory analyses of relatively small datasets such as ours.

4. Findings

We received 149 complete responses to the survey (145 responses from the United States and four responses from three other countries). Respondents who had recently taught at least one course with AAL content identified all the semesters or quarters in which they had taught such course(s) during the three years prior to the survey. Respondents who had not recently taught such a course, but expected to do so in the near future, identified all the semesters or quarters in which they planned to teach a course with AAL content during the next three years. 129 instructors reported teaching AAL content during a total of 565 semesters or quarters over the previous three years (approximately 4.4 total courses per respondent, based on a conservative estimate of one course per term). The remaining 20 instructors anticipated teaching AAL content during a total of 85 semesters or quarters over the next three years (approximately 4.3 courses per respondent). In the survey, each respondent selected one course to describe in greater detail and estimated the number of students in its most recent (or next anticipated) offering. The 149 courses thus described were reported to serve an estimated 6257 students altogether, or an average of 42.0 students per course. We summarize these numbers in order to establish a lower-bound estimate for the number of college students currently learning about African American Language, with the hope that this estimate can inform future research and advocacy efforts focused on the teaching of AAL content. These goals are discussed further in the Conclusion.

4.1. Where is AAL being taught?

4.1.1. Geographic distribution

As shown in Table 1, we received between 30 and 39 responses from each of the four major U.S. Census Bureau regions: Northeast, Midwest, South, and West. The largest numbers of individual responses came from the states of California, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Virginia.

Some respondents reported teaching courses with AAL content at more than one institution–typically because they had recently changed institutions, were completing a visiting professorship, or were working as an adjunct at multiple institutions. Some respondents also taught at the same institutions as each other. Most institutions with multiple participants in our survey had only two or three; however, there were four institutions represented by four respondents, one represented by five, and one represented by six. Altogether, the 149 respondents listed 206 institutions where they taught AAL content. After duplicates were removed, a total of 158 institutions were represented. The largest numbers of *institutions* represented in our survey were located in the states of California, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Texas, as shown in Fig. 1.

Table 1
Regions where respondents teach (first institution listed only).

Geographic region	Respondents teaching in this geographic region[1] ($N = 149$)
Northeast	39 (26%)
Midwest	30 (20%)
South[2]	38 (26%)
West	38 (26%)
Other countries	4 (3%)

[1] For respondents who listed multiple institutions, this data includes only the region of the first institution listed.
[2] Includes District of Columbia and Puerto Rico.

Table 2
Institution types where respondents teach (first institution listed only).

Institution type	Respondents reporting on a course taught at this institution type ($N = 145$)[1]
Public institution	103 (71%)
Private institution	42 (29%)
Doctoral University: Very High Research Activity	74 (51%)
Other doctorate-granting institution	28 (19%)
Master's-granting institution	22 (15%)
Baccalaureate-granting institution	16 (11%)
Associate's-granting or other institution	5 (3%)

[1] Does not include data from the four respondents teaching outside the United States.

Several U.S. states with proportionally high African American populations–e.g., Louisiana, Alabama, and South Carolina–were not represented in the responses to our survey. Of course, absence of evidence is not evidence of absence; we know that AAL is almost certainly being taught in at least *some* colleges or universities in these states, because we identified at least one AAL-focused course taught in each of these states through an online search of university course catalogs. Since we received no responses from instructors teaching courses in these states, however, further research is needed explore the landscape of AAL instruction in these regions.

4.1.2. Institution types

As shown in Table 2, over two-thirds of responses came from instructors who teach about AAL at public colleges or universities, and nearly all were at four-year institutions. Just over half were teaching at "R1" institutions; in the U.S., this designation signifies a Carnegie classification of *Doctoral University: Very High Research Activity*, indicating that in a typical year the institution awards more than 20 doctoral degrees and has more than $5 million USD in total research expenditures. After accounting for instructors who taught about AAL at multiple institutions and those who taught at the same institutions as each other, our data encompassed 64 distinct R1s–over 40% of all R1s in the United States at the time of our analysis (see Footnote 5 for information on how to access the Carnegie classifications database).

Notably, we received only five responses from Historically Black Colleges and Universities. We also received few responses from four-year liberal arts colleges and two-year colleges. Since instruction on AAL might take place at many institutions in these categories, we recommend that future research examine the current landscape of AAL instruction in these contexts.

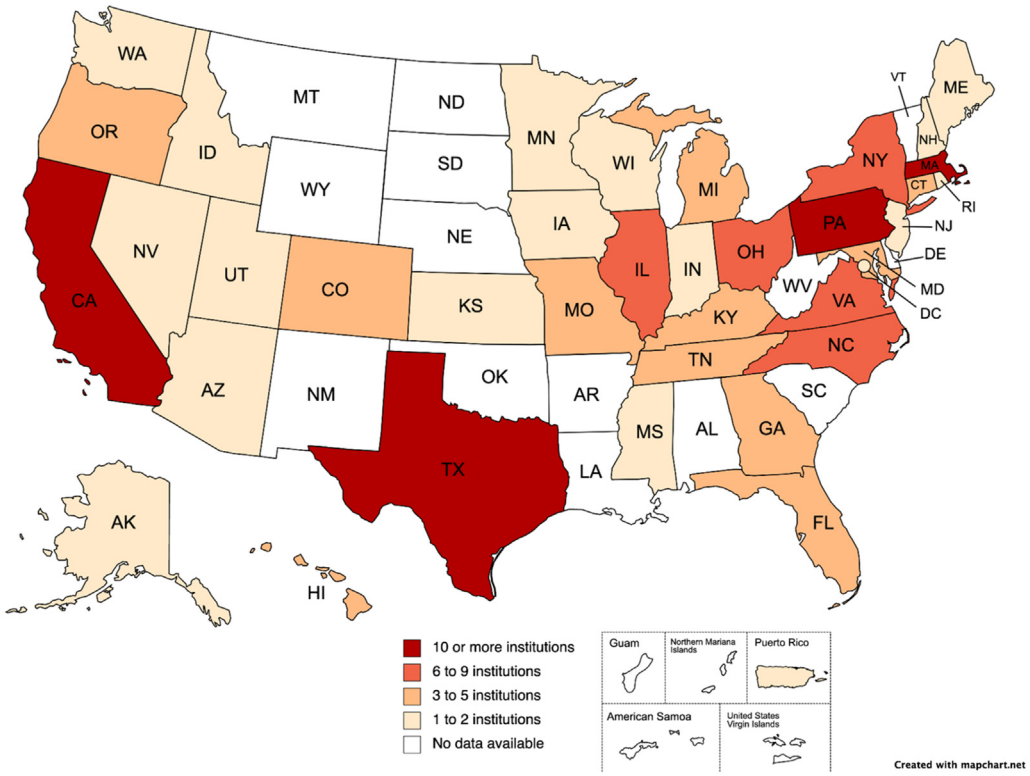

Fig. 1. States where respondents teach (all institutions listed).

Table 3
Departments in which respondents teach.

Academic department	Respondents reporting on a course taught in this department ($N = 149$)
Linguistics	55 (37%)
Education	37 (25%)
English	30 (20%)
Communication Sciences	12 (8%)
Other department	15 (10%)

4.1.3. Disciplinary contexts

As shown in Table 3, thirty-seven percent (37%) of respondents described courses taught in a Linguistics Department, while 25% described Education courses and 20% described English courses. Of the remaining courses, 8% were taught in Communication Sciences or related disciplines, and the rest were housed in other departments (10%). (In regression analyses and throughout the remainder of the paper, instructors teaching Communication Sciences courses were grouped with those teaching in miscellaneous other departments.)

4.1.4. Curricular contexts

The vast majority (91%) of all courses with AAL content described by respondents met some sort of programmatic, departmental, or university requirement. 52% of these courses met a requirement for a program major or minor; this was most common in Linguistics Departments (67%), Communication Sciences Departments (67%), and English Departments (53%), but was rarer in Education Departments (19%). Among Education courses with AAL content, 41% met requirements for all teacher candidates, while an additional 27% met requirements for specific groups of teacher candidates (e.g., those receiving a special endorsement related to language instruction). Courses that met requirements for teacher candidates were rare in other departments (under 10% of courses) except in English, where 30% of courses with AAL content met requirements for some or all teacher candidates (e.g., those receiving a special endorsement in language arts education).

Meanwhile, 46% of all courses with AAL content described by respondents met a general education requirement above the level of the department (e.g., "gen ed" requirements for social sciences majors, humanities majors, or all majors). This was common in Linguistics (60%) and English (57%), but rarer in Communication Sciences (33%) and Education (27%). Interestingly, 21% of all courses with AAL content described in our survey met *both* a departmental major or minor requirement *and* a general education requirement above the level of the department; this included 35% of Linguistics courses and 23% of English courses, but was rare for courses in Communication Sciences (8%) or Education (5%).

These findings have important implications for efforts to integrate AAL more comprehensively into university curricula. We found that very few courses with AAL content appeared to be purely elective; nearly all met some requirement that ensured or incentivized student enrollment. While this finding may be driven in part by selection effects, such selection effects might themselves represent an important finding. Specifically, they suggest that faculty hoping to promote the teaching of AAL content might be more likely to succeed not by creating new elective courses and trying to recruit sufficient students, but by either (1) integrating AAL content into courses that already meet a departmental, university, or teacher education requirement or (2) pursuing approval for an existing course with AAL content to "count" towards such a requirement.

4.2. Who is teaching about African American Language at the college level?

Our survey included several demographic questions. Descriptive statistics regarding respondents' academic positions, racial, ethnic, and gender identities, and language backgrounds are shown in Table 4.

Table 4
Demographics of respondents.

Academic position	*N*
Tenure-Track Assistant Professor	41 (28%)
Tenure-Track Associate Professor	35 (23%)
Tenure-Track Full Professor	27 (18%)
Clinical, Visiting, Fixed-Term, or Adjunct Faculty or Postdoc	34 (23%)
Graduate Student Teaching Assistant	12 (8%)
Racialized or ethnic identity (non-exclusive categories; sum to more than 100%)	
White or European American	111 (75%)
Black or African American	30 (20%)
Asian or Asian American	8 (5%)
Hispanic, Latina, or Latino American	4 (3%)
Multiracial	8 (5%)
Listed an additional ethnic identity or identified as an immigrant	10 (7%)
Did not report a racialized or ethnic identity	2 (1%)
Racialized or ethnic identity (exclusive categories; sum to 100%)	
White or European American	99 (66%)
Black or African American	23 (15%)
Asian or Asian American	4 (3%)
Hispanic, Latina, or Latino American	3 (2%)
Multiracial or listed more than one racialized or ethnic identity	18 (12%)
Did not report a racialized or ethnic identity	2 (1%)
Gendered identity	
Female	100 (67%)
Male	44 (30%)
Non-binary or additional gender identity	1 (1%)
Did not report a gender identity	4 (3%)
Language background	
User of AAL (spoken or signed)	26 (17%)
Non-user of AAL (spoken or signed)	123 (83%)
Currently or previously in regular contact with AAL user(s)	116 (78%)
Never been in regular contact with AAL user(s)	33 (22%)

4.2.1. Academic rank

Respondents represented many different stages of academic careers, from graduate student teaching assistants to tenured full professors. About two-thirds of responses came from college faculty in tenure-track positions, although only about 40% held an academic rank that implied they were already tenured. Universities seeking to hire faculty with expertise in AAL should know that there are many such faculty "in the pipeline" throughout the United States.

Our survey may have under-sampled faculty at each academic rank, as we are aware of numerous scholars of various academic ranks who specialize in AAL but did not respond to our survey.

4.2.2. Racialized, ethnic, and gendered identities

About two-thirds of respondents identified solely or primarily as White or European American, while the remaining third of participants mostly identified as either Black or African American or as having more than one racialized or ethnic identity. A few participants identified as Asian or Asian American, Hispanic or Latina or Latino American, or listed one or more additional racialized or ethnic identities. These statistics are broadly consistent with the over-representation of White Americans and under-representation of people of color in academia. These statistics may have important implications for how AAL is taught, as we discuss below.

4.2.3. Language backgrounds

A majority of respondents (78%) indicated that at some point during their lives, they have interacted regularly with users of AAL. This was significantly more common for respondents who described themselves as Black or African American (100%) than those who did not (72%), χ^2 (1, $N = 149$) = 10.686, $p = .0012$ following a Benjamini-Hochberg correction.

Black respondents were also much more likely to describe themselves as *users* of AAL (73%) than other respondents (3%), χ^2 (1, $N = 149$) = 81.438, $p < .0001$ following a Benjamini-Hochberg correction. Of course, this relationship was not universal: eight respondents described themselves as Black or African American, or as Black and one or more additional racialized identities, but did not report using AAL. Five of these described themselves as users of other Black Diasporic language varieties (e.g., several varieties widely spoken in the Caribbean). Meanwhile, one of the Black participants who *did* describe themselves as a native speaker of American English, but not of AAL, was nonetheless familiar with AAL:

> As a "passive bilingual" of AAL in that I intuitively know the grammar, maybe do some intonational things in conversation with some Black people, and speak morphosyntactic features on occasion.

Four respondents who did not identify as Black or African American also reported using AAL. All described themselves as White or European American, and each described their relationship with AAL in different ways. Several discussed acquiring AAL through affiliation with African American social circles in childhood, adulthood, or both. One mentioned that they had recently "become more conscious of [using AAL] as inappropriate boundary crossing, especially now that I am not regularly in discourse communities where AAL is primary." Another argued that "as a speaker of English in the US, it is impossible not to use some aspects of African American Language." We return in Section 4.3.7 and 4.3.8 to the question of how an instructor's personal experiences with AAL might relate to their teaching practices.

4.3. How do contextual factors and supports for AAL teaching relate to instructors' knowledge and confidence for teaching this content?

4.3.1. Sources of support for AAL teaching

As shown in Table 5, we found that only 37% to 43% of instructors in any given discipline reported receiving support for AAL instruction from colleagues within their own institution. On the other hand, 67% to 70% of instructors in any given discipline reported receiving support for AAL instruction from colleagues *outside* their own institution. Meanwhile, reports of support from professional organizations were more variable, ranging as low as 45% (Linguistics) or as high as 63% (English). Perhaps unsurprisingly, virtually all respondents said they had access to books, websites, or other online resources that could support AAL instruction; since this form of support was nearly ubiquitous, it was excluded from regression analyses.

These findings suggest that "internal" support–that is, support from colleagues at one's own institution–remains the exception rather than the norm among instructors who teach AAL content. Given the importance of AAL content across multiple disciplines, college departments of Linguistics, Education, English, and other disciplines should organize efforts to better support the teaching of this subject matter. We recommend specific department-level actions below, in the Conclusion.

4.3.2. Disciplinary context as a predictor of instructor knowledge and confidence

After controlling for other variables, we found that both instructors teaching in English departments and those teaching in Education departments expressed greater knowledge and confidence for teaching about African American Culture compared with instructors teaching in Linguistics departments (see Table 6).

Table 5
Reported sources of support for AAL teaching, by discipline.[1]

	Reported sources of support			
	Colleagues within the same institution	Colleagues from outside the institution	Professional organizations	Books, websites, and other resources
Linguistics instructor[2]	21 (40%)	37 (70%)	24 (45%)	52 (98%)
Education instructor	16 (43%)	26 (70%)	23 (62%)	35 (95%)
English instructor	13 (43%)	20 (67%)	19 (63%)	29 (97%)
Instructor in another discipline	10 (37%)	18 (67%)	16 (59%)	25 (93%)
Total sample[2]	60 (41%)	101 (69%)	82 (56%)	141 (96%)

[1] Percentages reflect the percentage of instructors reporting each type of support out of the total number of responses from a given discipline.
[2] Two Linguistics instructors did not report sources of support for AAL teaching; thus, values for Linguistics instructors reflect percentages out of N=53 and values for the Total sample reflect percentages out of N=147.

Table 6
Linear regressions of instructor knowledge and confidence on predictor variables.

Variables	Knowledge of AAL	Confidence teaching about AAL	Knowledge of African American Culture	Confidence teaching about African American Culture
Linguistics instructor	(ref.)	(ref.)	(ref.)	(ref.)
Education instructor	-0.130	-0.046	0.498**	0.548**
	(0.195)	(0.212)	(0.169)	(0.194)
English instructor	0.348	0.417	0.560**	0.417*
	(0.194)	(0.212)	(0.168)	(0.193)
Instructor in another discipline	-0.051	0.150	0.234	0.200
	(0.204)	(0.223)	(0.176)	(0.202)
Reported support from colleagues within institution	-0.094	-0.007	-0.015	0.042
	(0.144)	(0.157)	(0.124)	(0.143)
Reported support from colleagues outside institution	0.065	0.064	0.340*	0.114
	(0.158)	(0.172)	(0.136)	(0.156)
Reported support from professional organizations	0.327*	0.184	0.115	0.101
	(0.146)	(0.159)	(0.126)	(0.145)
Non-tenured	(ref.)	(ref.)	(ref.)	(ref.)
Tenured	0.024	-0.015	-0.056	-0.279
	(0.148)	(0.161)	(0.128)	(0.147)
Listed Black or African American as part of their racialized identity	0.664**	0.562*	0.746***	0.928****
	(0.228)	(0.250)	(0.197)	(0.227)
Listed White or European American as one of their racialized identities	-0.099	-0.221	-0.323**	-0.603****
	(0.137)	(0.150)	(0.119)	(0.137)
Listed Asian or Asian American, Hispanic or Latinx American, Multiracial, or one or more additional racialized identities	-0.566*	-0.342	-0.422*	-0.324
	(0.211)	(0.231)	(0.183)	(0.210)
Listed Male as their gendered identity	(ref.)	(ref.)	(ref.)	(ref.)
Listed Female as their gendered identity	0.042	-0.111	-0.313*	-0.307
	(0.154)	(0.168)	(0.133)	(0.153)
Has never been in regular close contact with AAL users	(ref.)	(ref.)	(ref.)	(ref.)
Has sometimes been in regular close contact with AAL users	0.235	0.286	0.470**	0.530**
	(0.191)	(0.209)	(0.166)	(0.190)
Did not report using AAL	(ref.)	(ref.)	(ref.)	(ref.)
Reported using AAL	0.365	0.703	0.883**	0.989**
	(0.307)	(0.335)	(0.265)	(0.305)
Intercept	3.042****	2.919****	2.263****	2.032****
	(0.264)	(0.288)	(0.228)	(0.262)
R^2	.339	.358	.645	.670
F	5.461	5.953	19.419	21.621
p	< .0001	< .0001	< .0001	< .0001

Note. All outcome variables used a 5-point, Likert-type scale. The numbers in parentheses are the standard error of the regression coefficients. All coefficients are unstandardized. (ref.) denotes the reference category for disciplinary context, tenure status, gendered identity, and language background. Effect coding was used for racialized identity variables, meaning that the reference category is the unweighted average of all groups. All p values have been adjusted using a Benjamini-Hochberg correction for multiple comparisons. * is $p<.05$, ** is $p<.01$, *** is $p<.001$, and **** is $p<.0001$.

These findings have several possible interpretations ranging from real-world disciplinary differences to selection effects generated by our survey method. For example, one possibility is that there are systematic differences across disciplines in graduate-level coursework that contribute to differences in instructors' knowledge of (and confidence teaching about) African American Culture. Another possibility is that our findings could reflect differences not in graduate preparation but in the histories and research traditions of different disciplines. Research on AAL has played a uniquely important role in Linguistics for over half a century, shaping not only disciplinary knowledge but research methodology as well; thus, instructors teaching in Linguistics may tend to teach AAL content (and thus qualify to respond to our survey) even if they do not consider themselves experts on African American Language and the culture(s) associated with it. On the other hand, research on AAL has played different roles in the fields of Education and En-

glish; for this reason, instructors teaching in these fields may be less likely to incorporate this content into their courses unless they possess substantial knowledge and confidence related to the topic, perhaps including knowledge and confidence for teaching not only about African American Language but about African American Culture as well.

For similar reasons, these findings may also represent selection effects in our survey. Since African American Language has played such a prominent role in Linguistics, instructors working in this field may have more experience talking or writing about AAL and thus may have been more likely to respond to our survey even if they had relatively low levels of knowledge and confidence for teaching about African American Language and Culture. Meanwhile, scholars teaching in Education or English departments may have avoided responding to the survey unless they felt highly confident in their expertise. Further research will be needed to differentiate among these possibilities.

4.3.3. Sources of support as predictors of instructor knowledge and confidence

After controlling for other variables, support from professional organizations was associated with greater knowledge of African American Language. We had little basis for drawing inferences about the precise forms such support took. However, we noted that support from professional organizations was reported by many instructors teaching in Communication Sciences; this might reflect the fact that the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (ASHA) has recently taken numerous actions to promote AAL scholarship and use AAL knowledge to inform professional practice, including a 2021 special forum in *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools* focused on AAL as well as the creation of a webinar that practitioners can complete for professional development credit (Mills, 2021). Similar efforts by professional organizations in other disciplines could make an important difference in promoting widespread knowledge about African American Language; while greater knowledge about AAL does not necessarily translate into greater confidence or efficacy for teaching about AAL, it could nevertheless help to lay the groundwork for future teaching and advocacy efforts.

We also found that, after controlling for other variables, support from colleagues outside one's own institution (but not inside one's own institution) was associated with greater knowledge of African American Culture. This finding proved challenging to interpret because we have no data about the colleagues *providing* such support. Perhaps faculty who can draw on professional networks for advice or resources become more confident going beyond language in their teaching to incorporate culture as well; alternatively, perhaps faculty who can confidently discuss African American Culture are also better at forging professional networks that can support teaching about this topic. At minimum, this finding suggests that professional networks may be especially important sources of support for instruction that situates African American Language in its cultural and historical context, as compared to instruction that presents AAL primarily from a technical variationist standpoint (see Section 4.3.8 below for further discussion of this distinction, and of the benefits of teaching AAL situated in its cultural and historical context). We should also note that knowledge of a topic does not always translate into confidence or efficacy for teaching about the topic (Shulman, 1986).

4.3.4. Tenure status as a predictor of instructor knowledge and confidence

Prior to conducting our analyses, we had anticipated that tenured instructors might feel more confident teaching about African American Language and Culture, given the relative security and freedom associated with tenure. Surprisingly, we found this not to be the case: after controlling for other variables, there was no significant difference between tenured and non-tenured faculty in terms of knowledge or in terms of confidence for teaching about African American Language or Culture. Perhaps any effect of tenure is trivial or nonexistent; or, if such effects do exist, perhaps they are obscured by other factors. For example, if graduate programs or society at large were gradually changing in ways that lead present-day early-career scholars to feel more knowledgeable and confident teaching about AAL, this could obscure any positive effects of tenure on this knowledge or confidence. Alternatively, such effects could also be obscured if instructors who have confidence for teaching about AAL have historically been less likely to receive tenure from their departments–a plausible explanation, given well-documented racial disparities in the tenure process (Modica & Mamiseishvili, 2010). Any such explanations are speculative, however; the most parsimonious explanation of our data is simply that, among our participants, tenure was not systematically related to instructors' knowledge or confidence for teaching about African American Language or Culture.

4.3.5. Racialized identity as a predictor of instructor knowledge and confidence

We found that after controlling for other variables, instructors who identified as Black or African American, or who listed Black or African American as one of several racialized identities, tended to report higher knowledge and confidence for teaching about both African American Language and African American Culture compared with the mean knowledge and confidence reported by all groups. Instructors who identified as White or European American, or who listed White or European American as one of several racialized identities, tended to report lower knowledge and confidence for teaching about African American Culture (but not African American Language) compared with the mean knowledge and confidence reported by all groups. Furthermore, instructors who listed additional racial or ethnic identities (e.g. Asian or Asian American, Hispanic or Latina or Latino American, etc.) or who listed more than one racial or ethnic identity tended to report lower knowledge, but not lower confidence, for teaching about African American Language compared with the mean knowledge and confidence reported by all groups.

There are several possible explanations for these findings. For example, the long and ongoing history of both *de jure* and *de facto* racial segregation in the United States may mean that persons who identify as Black or African American are more likely to grow up in majority-Black communities (Rothstein, 2017), and thus perhaps develop greater firsthand knowledge of both AAL and African American Culture. At the same time, AAL is not a monolith and shows considerable regional variation, meaning knowledge of one AAL variety does not imply knowledge of all varieties (Holliday, 2019; Rickford, 2010). Blackness is not a monolith, either; many Americans who identify as Black do not grow up in majority-Black communities, and many may not identify their own cultural knowledge with the specific term "African American" (for example, recent immigrants or children of immigrants may not identify with this term). Only about half of all Black or African American instructors in our sample described themselves as "very knowledgeable" or "very confident" teaching about African American Language or African American Culture; the remainder of Black or African American respondents described somewhat lower levels of knowledge and confidence for teaching about these topics.

Residential segregation in the United States also means that many instructors who do not identify as Black or African American may have grown up with relatively little firsthand experiential knowledge of African American Culture. The overrepresentation of White or European Americans in higher education (Li & Koedel,

2017; Gleditsch & Berg, 2017) may further constrain opportunities for White or European American instructors, in particular, to develop confidence leading or facilitating conversations about African American Culture. Some instructors may also face implicit or explicit pressure to 'not talk about race' from colleagues who hold colorblind ideologies (Brooks-Immel & Murray, 2017). A qualitative study by Wing Sue et al. (2009) found that White faculty teaching in Education and Social Work departments reported considerable anxiety about facilitating conversations about race in their classrooms. These instructors were particularly concerned about:

> revealing [their own] personal biases and prejudices, losing classroom control, [being unable] to understand or recognize the causes or dynamics of difficult dialogues, and lack[ing] knowledge and skills to properly intervene (p. 1090).

Our qualitative data suggested that many White or European American instructors in our sample shared some of these concerns, and were additionally concerned about cultural appropriation or essentializing Black or African American identities in their instruction. While many of these concerns center on preventing harm to Black or African American students and are quite reasonable, these same concerns may nevertheless (re)produce racial inequity if they lead instructors to wholly avoid talking about culture, race, or racism in their courses. For further discussion of these concerns and strategies for overcoming them, see Section 4.3.8 below.

4.3.6. Gendered identity as a predictor of instructor knowledge and confidence

After controlling for other variables, female instructors in our sample reported a slightly lower level of knowledge about African American Culture (but not about African American Language) compared with male instructors. This finding surprised us, as we know of no reason why gendered identity would be associated with instructors' actual knowledge of any of these topics. We are normally inclined to interpret survey responses at face value, especially when they align with findings of prior research on relevant topics (for example, see Section 4.4 below for a discussion of survey responses regarding student resistance to AAL instruction). In this case, however, prior research suggests several reasons why this finding should *not* necessarily be taken at face value. Prior studies show that many women sometimes underestimate their performance on academic tasks in domains stereotyped as masculine (Beyer, 1998; Woodcock & Bairaktarova, 2015). Such stereotypes may still be widespread in Linguistics and other fields–for instance, example sentences in Linguistics textbooks and journal articles continue to dramatically overrepresent male identities (Cépeda et al., 2021; Kotek et al., 2021). In the specific context of African American Language and Culture, Morgan (1994) has argued that some of the earliest and most widely-cited literature on AAL implicitly constructed "authentic" African American Language and Culture as masculine by focusing narrowly on the language of male African American adolescents in a few U.S. cities. This research then became part of a commonly taught canon of writing about AAL (Wolfram, 2007). Although subsequent research has explored the language practices of African American women and the heterogeneity and diversity of African American Language and Culture (see for example King, 2020; Lanehart, 2020; Morgan, 2015), gendered stereotypes may nevertheless persist in this domain, and may have led some female instructors in our sample to underestimate their own knowledge on this topic. Alternatively, this finding could represent a selection effect; perhaps for some unknown reason, female instructors were more likely to respond to our survey regardless of their level of knowledge about African American Culture, whereas male instructors were more likely to respond only if they had a high level of knowledge about this topic. We suggest that further research is necessary to understand whether this correlation was spurious, an artifact of our sampling or measurement techniques, or has an alternative explanation.

4.3.7. Language background as a predictor of instructor knowledge and confidence

Both instructors who report using AAL themselves and those who report regularly interacting with AAL users at some point in their lives reported higher knowledge and confidence for teaching about African American Culture. For both variables, the effect of using AAL oneself was about twice as large as the effect of merely interacting with AAL users. Importantly, these effects remained large and significant even after controlling for instructors' self-reported racialized identities and other variables, and the coefficient on using AAL oneself was comparable to the coefficient on identifying Black or African American as part of one's racialized identity. Interestingly, however, neither language background variable was a significant predictor of knowledge and confidence for teaching about African American Language after controlling for other variables.

As discussed in Section 4.3.5 above, only some people in the category "Black or African American" identify specifically as "African American." Thus, many persons in this category might not characterize their own cultural knowledge as African American. Meanwhile, persons who identify their language repertoires or social circles as specifically including the use of "African American Language" might be more likely to similarly identify their own experiential cultural knowledge with the term African American. This may be true for both Black and non-Black persons; recall from Section 4.2.3 that several White or European American participants discussed acquiring AAL as part of their language repertoires through affiliation with African American social circles in childhood, adulthood, or both.

4.3.8. Instructor knowledge and confidence and implications for practice

These findings have important implications for practice, particularly if differences in instructor confidence might contribute to (or reflect) differences in teaching practices. In our own experiences, some instructors who teach about AAL devote substantial time and attention both to the technical details of variationist sociolinguistics and to situating this language variety in the context of African American culture and history. These instructors presumably have the knowledge and confidence to teach both, as well the autonomy to include this content in their curriculum. Such lessons often engage students in important conversations about race and racism–conversations which require careful preparation, and which many faculty (perhaps especially, though not exclusively, many White or European American fculty) may feel unprepared to facilitate. Meanwhile, we suspect that many other instructors may teach about AAL primarily from a technical, variationist sociolinguistics perspective, in part because they do not yet possess the knowledge or confidence to facilitate conversations about culture and about the historical context of race and anti-Black racism.

Our findings imply that this dilemma may be especially common for White or European American instructors, instructors with little direct experience using AAL or interacting with AAL users, and Linguistics instructors (though this last detail may be an artifact of our sampling method, since experience tells us it may also be a common dilemma for many instructors in Education, English, and other disciplines). We challenge instructors in these situations to reflect on whether they may be consciously or unconsciously relying on the purported 'safety of science,' the of-contested yet still-common belief that teaching a science (such as linguistics) can be an objective and apolitical endeavor.

These different instructional models–what we call the "variation model" and the "culture + variation model"–could have very different implications for student learning. Calhoun et al. (2021) found numerous benefits to an introductory Linguistics course that centers both the language and the culture of Black and African Americans; students remarked that they loved taking a course which centered Black experiences, and that it was "deeply validating" to take a course that asked them to share their "own life experiences (especially those pertaining to [one's] Blackness)" (p. e29). Such courses are important–not only for African American students but also for White students, Black immigrant students, and non-Black students of color. However, our findings suggest that most instructors–especially, though not exclusively, many White or European American instructors–feel ill-prepared to discuss culture, history, or lived experiences while teaching AAL content. How can we ensure African American Culture is, in fact, centered in college coursework on AAL?

One strategy is to provide publicly available course syllabi or instructional practices which meet these criteria, and which could be used by other instructors. Several such models already exist; see, for example, Calhoun et al. (2021) and Charity Hudley et al. (2022) in Linguistics, as well as Baker-Bell (2020), Baker-Bell and Kynard (2021), Hercula (2020), and Lee (2022) in Education and English. We encourage instructors who teach about AAL to explore these or similar models and/or develop their own. We also assert that, when hiring faculty who may be asked to teach a course with AAL content, search committees (in all disciplines, and especially in Linguistics, Education, English, and Communication Sciences) should specifically seek out candidates with experience using such models in their instruction.

Another strategy for instructors who lack the knowledge or confidence to teach about African American Language and Culture from emic, lived-experience perspectives is to explicitly invite financially compensated guest speakers who *do* possess such expertise. Of course, it is crucial that such invitations are not arbitrarily imposed upon African American students or faculty (many of whom may quite justifiably feel tokenized, and many of whom might not identify as AAL users anyway). Rather, guest lecturers might include scholars from other colleges or universities who have specifically written or spoken about African American Language and culture from an emic, lived-experience perspective, as Charity Hudley et al. (2022) recommend. Invitations could prioritize pre-tenure faculty and graduate students from other institutions, whose career or tenure prospects might benefit the most from such invitations. Such individuals could be identified through recent publications or conference presentations or through outreach to listservs such as SOBLAC.

A third strategy involves teaching using texts, videos, or other media that discuss AAL from an emic, lived-experience perspective. Using these resources could help instructors center African American experiences without appropriating those experiences–a crucial and justifiable concern of many White instructors, Black immigrant instructors, and non-Black instructors of color. Several such resources already exist; for example, the documentary film *Talking Black in America* (Hutcheson & Cullinan, 2017) and the media artifacts discussed in Calhoun et al. (2021). Going forward, scholarly associations and philanthropic organizations should financially support the creation of additional texts and media–especially open-access resources–that discuss AAL from an emic perspective.

Finally, these patterns also have important implications for instructors who teach graduate-level courses in Linguistics, Education, English, and other fields. Effectively and responsibly facilitating conversations about culture, race, and racism requires specific skills (see for example Wing Sue et al., 2009), and graduate programs should explicitly incorporate the cultivation of these skills into their programmatic goals. If faculty feel unprepared to integrate these goals into their own courses, they should pursue professional development opportunities to develop these skills, and department or university administrators should actively support professional development in this area.

4.4. How do contextual factors and supports for AAL teaching relate to students' responses to learning about this content?

We also asked instructors to rate the percentage of their students who expressed feeling "enthusiastic," "neutral," or "resistant" to learning about AAL. Overall, faculty reported that most students were enthusiastic (65%) or neutral (29%); on average, only 8% of students were characterized as resistant.[6] (Note that respondents indicated percentages of enthusiastic, neutral, and resistant students in separate survey items, and thus these percentages did not sum to 100%; on average, they summed to 102%. This may simply be due to trivial errors in survey respondents' estimates, but it may also reflect the fact that students' enthusiasm, resistance, etc. might change over the duration of a lesson, unit, or course focused on AAL.)

As shown in Table 7, none of the variables we examined were clearly associated with the proportion of instructors' students who expressed enthusiasm for learning about AAL. However, our data showed that instructors who use AAL themselves–most of whom identify as Black or African American–reported significantly higher rates of resistance from students.

This finding seemed relevant to–yet distinct from–Weldon (2012)'s finding that some Black faculty reported "students do not seem to respect the information [about AAL] as much as they might if it were coming from a white instructor," whereas "several white instructors said that their race seems to increase their credibility, especially among white students" (p. 236) when teaching AAL content. This mirrors findings in second language acquisition research that although 'native speakers' are often seen as especially desirable instructors (Todd & Pojanapunya, 2009), there are exceptions to this pattern (see for example Meadows & Muramatsu, 2007), and Black or African American instructors in particular often face racially biased assumptions about their ability as language instructors (see for example Stephan, 2001). In our data, we find the related but distinct phenomenon that instructors' status as a 'native speaker' of AAL is the strongest correlate of student resistance.

One of the most obvious explanations for this phenomenon may be raciolinguistic bias. Hegemonic ideologies in the U.S. and other colonized societies often lead listeners to police the language of Black people and others not racialized as White, both when speakers use marginalized varieties and when speakers' language use adheres to purportedly standardized language norms (Flores & Rosa, 2015); see for example Smith (2020)'s study of the experiences of Black immigrant educators. Thus, many students may be predisposed to criticize and devalue the language of instructors who are themselves AAL users. Perhaps linguistic racism embedded in students' listening practices is compounded when AAL is itself the explicit focus of instruction.

This bias seems like a plausible explanation for our findings, given academia's long history of implicitly or explicitly equating White perspectives with "objectivity" (Delgado Bernal & Villalpando, 2002) and given evidence that faculty of color are sometimes harassed by students who challenge their authority, competence, and expertise (Pittman, 2010). Numerous experiments have found evidence of anti-Black biases in student appraisals of college instructors; see for example Bavishi et al. (2010), Ho et al. (2009),

[6] One respondent did not answer the questions about enthusiasm, neutrality, and resistance, and was therefore excluded from this analysis.

Table 7
Regression of reported student responses to AAL instruction on predictor variables.

Variables	Percentage of students enthused to learn about AAL	Percentage of students neutral to learning about AAL	Percentage of students resistant to learning about AAL
Linguistics instructor	(ref.)	(ref.)	(ref.)
Education instructor	-10.724	-0.503	3.212
	(6.087)	(5.354)	(2.767)
English instructor	-3.460	-4.371	0.887
	(6.046)	(5.317)	(2.748)
Instructor in another discipline	-1.856	1.666	-0.178
	(6.348)	(5.583)	(2.885)
Reported support from colleagues within institution	3.865	0.620	-2.483
	(4.476)	(3.937)	(2.035)
Reported support from colleagues outside institution	4.282	-0.898	-2.089
	(4.910)	(4.318)	(2.232)
Reported support from professional organizations	8.036	-4.877	0.620
	(4.543)	(3.996)	(2.065)
Non-tenured	(ref.)	(ref.)	(ref.)
Tenured	0.418	-0.209	1.221
	(4.597)	(4.044)	(2.090)
Listed Black or African American as part of their racialized identity	5.629	-8.563	-0.021
	(7.116)	(6.259)	(3.234)
Listed White or European American as one of their racialized identities	-6.978	7.633	3.222
	(4.284)	(3.768)	(1.947)
Listed Asian or Asian American, Hispanic or Latinx American, Multiracial, or one or more additional racialized identities	1.349	0.930	-3.201
	(6.591)	(5.797)	(2.996)
Listed Male as their gendered identity	(ref.)	(ref.)	(ref.)
Listed Female as their gendered identity	-1.470	3.608	-2.109
	(4.790)	(4.213)	(2.177)
Has never been in regular close contact with AAL users	(ref.)	(ref.)	(ref.)
Has sometimes been in regular close contact with AAL users	2.278	-0.339	1.742
	(5.967)	(5.248)	(2.712)
Did not report using AAL	(ref.)	(ref.)	(ref.)
Reported using AAL	-9.220	7.188	11.238*
	(9.560)	(8.409)	(4.345)
Intercept	65.191****	24.531**	5.121
	(8.219)	(7.229)	(3.736)
R^2	.090	.069	.146
F	1.055	.793	1.829
p	1.000	1.000	.074

Note. All outcome variables used a 100-point scale denoting percentages. The numbers in parentheses are the standard error of the regression coefficients. All coefficients are unstandardized. (ref.) denotes the reference category for disciplinary context, tenure status, gendered identity, and language background. Effect coding was used for racialized identity variables, meaning that the reference category is the unweighted average of all groups. All p values have been adjusted using a Benjamini-Hochberg correction for multiple comparisons. * is $p<.05$, ** is $p<.01$, *** is $p<.001$, and **** is $p<.0001$.

and Aruguete et al. (2017). Outside of college contexts, a meta-analysis by Fuertes et al. (2012) found that extant research shows listeners' evaluations are consistently more negative for AAL speakers compared to Standardized English speakers. Thus, some students may be especially likely to express open resistance to learning about AAL when taught by AAL users.

Some readers may hypothesize that instructors who use AAL were simply more likely to *perceive* student resistance to AAL content, but that their students did not necessarily *express* more resistance. This hypothesis is highly problematic; indeed, we considered not discussing it at all because of its unstated racist assumption that those who use AAL, most of whom are Black or African American, are somehow less reliable survey respondents than non-AAL users. Similar forms of epistemic injustice (Fricker, 2007), in which the knowledge and perspectives of marginalized persons are erased, ignored, or distrusted, are common in U.S. public discourse about racism (Tsotsie, 2022; Williams, 2021). Ultimately, we decided to mention this hypothesis despite these concerns because we felt it was important to illustrate that it is neither the most parsimonious nor the most logical explanation for these data. Over fifty years of research document Americans' public disparagement of, and widespread self-reported negative attitudes toward, AAL (Bowie & Bond, 1994; Newkirk-Turner et al., 2013; Rickford & Rickford, 2000). "Resistance" to AAL is unquestionably a real and commonplace phenomenon. Meanwhile, we know of no extant research that indicates AAL users are less reliable survey respondents than non-AAL users on this topic (a key way in which this issue differs from our discussion of gendered identity and self-evaluations in Section 4.3.6 above). Thus, a more parsimonious explanation for this finding is that instructors who use AAL themselves do encounter more student resistance than instructors who do not.

It was intriguing that resistance to AAL content was more commonly reported by instructors who use AAL themselves, yet was not more common for Black instructors after controlling for language background. Our sample was too small to test interaction effects between racialized identity and language background without generating collinearity problems; thus, we could not meaningfully explore the question of whether student resistance to AAL content differed significantly between Black instructors who use AAL themselves and Black instructors who do not. Many instructors in the latter category described themselves as users of other Black Diasporic languages. Some studies suggest that the perception of a purportedly "foreign" language variety or accent is a key

cue which American listeners use to racialize Black immigrants in ways related, but not identical, to their racialization of U.S.-born African Americans (Showers, 2015; Smith, 2019). This does not mean that Black immigrant faculty do not experience raciolinguistic discrimination–on the contrary, such discrimination is well-documented (Smith, 2020; Smith et al., 2018). However, students might respond differently to AAL content taught by these instructors compared with instructors who are themselves users of AAL. Further study of this phenomenon–e.g., through interviews with faculty, surveys of students enrolled in coursework with AAL content, laboratory experiments, ethnographic observation, or analyses of course evaluations–could help researchers better understand and combat raciolinguistic biases.

4.4.1. Resistance to learning about AAL and its implications for practice

Our findings may be important for promotion and tenure committees to consider when interpreting course evaluation data for faculty who identify as users of AAL. Similar conclusions have been drawn from higher ed scholarship in other disciplines (see for example Ginther & Kahn, 2021). These findings could also be relevant when making decisions about course content and teaching assignments; for example, perhaps some students would be more receptive to AAL content if it were deliberately presented in multiple required courses taught by multiple instructors, rather than concentrated within a single course or in courses taught by a single faculty member. (This would, of course, require many institutions to identify or hire multiple instructors with AAL expertise, or to offer professional development on AAL for instructors.) Further research should explore the outcomes of such practices at institutions where two or more instructors are already teaching AAL content; our survey data revealed at least two dozen such institutions across the United States.

It might also be possible to mitigate student biases more directly, through structured learning activities. Kang et al. (2015) have shown that well-designed activities can improve students' evaluations of the intelligibility and competence of teaching assistants who are classified as non-native English speakers. However, further research is needed to ascertain what types of activities specifically ameliorate listeners' biased evaluations of AAL users in college contexts (for some valuable examples of related research, see Calhoun et al. 2021; Charity Hudley & Mallinson, 2014; Charity Hudley et al., 2022; Fogel & Ehri, 2006; Godley et al., 2006; Hoover et al., 1996; Metz, 2017). It would also be important to ensure such activities could be implemented in ways that do not add to the extra burdens that are often tacitly or explicitly assigned to Black faculty and other faculty of color (Joseph & Hirshfield, 2011; Padilla, 1994). Future research is needed to further explore obstacles that shape the teaching of AAL and methods for overcoming these obstacles.

4.5. Limitations

Like any survey, ours has important limitations. The small size of our sample is one such limitation; a more comprehensive survey of college instructors teaching in departments of Linguistics, Education, English, and other fields may generate a different and more comprehensive picture of the landscape of college AAL instruction.

Beyond sample size, our sampling methods may have introduced selection effects that bias our quantitative findings in important ways (see for example the discussion of knowledge, confidence, and disciplinary background above in Section 4.3.2). Future studies could use alternative sampling procedures to falsify, reproduce, or further nuance our findings. We encourage future scholars to more comprehensively measure the scope of AAL instruction nationwide, and we encourage professional organizations to support such efforts financially and logistically. In particular, the field may benefit from a better understanding of how AAL instruction is taking place at some of the specific types of institutions underrepresented in our sample, including HBCUs, four-year liberal arts colleges, and two-year colleges.

Another limitation derives from the exploratory nature of our study. We have not yet established the internal nor external validity of our survey items, such as the self-report measures of instructors' knowledge of African American Language and Culture or of instructors' confidence for teaching about African American Language and Culture. Furthermore, survey items that asked about different types of support for AAL instruction may have been interpreted differently by different respondents. For instance, some instructors may have indicated they have support from colleagues at their institution merely because they *believe* their colleagues are supportive of teaching this content, while others may have interpreted the question to require more active forms of support from colleagues, such as providing advice or sharing resources. Future research should strive to develop and validate measures of these and related constructs; such measures could contribute to the science of teaching and learning about African American Language.

5. Conclusions

Our survey reveals that AAL content is already taught at well over 100 colleges and universities, including dozens of prestigious programs in Linguistics, Education, and English. Respondents taught hundreds of courses with AAL content over the past several years, and their estimates of enrollment numbers for 149 recently taught or anticipated course offerings showed that these courses collectively serve over 6000 students. The actual number of courses with AAL content and the actual number of students encountering this content may be substantially higher; our sampling surely missed some courses, perhaps especially courses taught at HBCUs, 4-year liberal arts colleges, or 2-year colleges.

We share these figures to establish a lower-bound estimate for the scale of AAL instruction currently happening at the college level, with the hope that this estimate can inform ongoing research, grant writing, and advocacy efforts in Linguistics and advocacy efforts in Linguistics and related fields.. To date, there have been relatively few studies of college AAL instruction large enough to compare multiple college campuses and communities. Some notable exceptions include Webber (1985), who summarized the content of AAL courses currently being taught across multiple disciplines; Weldon (2012), who examined instructor-level data from multiple disciplines and multiple universities; Fogel and Ehri (2006), who tested an intervention in teacher education courses at three colleges; and Hendricks et al. (2021), who surveyed 73 speech language pathology students from 46 institutions. Each of these types of studies is important and should continue. Our findings also show that additional research designs are possible (and indeed quite feasible). There are sufficiently large numbers of courses and students studying AAL to support research projects that use multi-level modeling and other quantitative methods that can draw comparisons and insights across multiple courses and campuses. Such studies could make important contributions to the scholarship of teaching and learning about African American Language by attending to the experiences of students and instructors with varied positionalities, including Black AAL users, Black non-AAL users, and non-Black persons, while also attending to the heterogeneity of identities and lived experiences within each of these categories as recommended by Charity Hudley et al. (2022). Our findings also suggest the potential for comparative studies exam-

ining the teaching and learning of AAL content and the teaching and learning of other marginalized language varieties, both internationally and in various regions of the United States.

Responses to our survey showed that only 16% to 20% of instructors teaching AAL content identified as Black or African American, and only 17% identified as AAL users. This may be a higher representation rate than in academia writ large, but lower than we expected and hoped, especially in a domain so deeply intertwined with the past, present, and future of African American experiences in U.S. schools. Our findings also suggested that many respondents may be the only faculty member with AAL expertise in their department, since fewer than half of participants reported support from colleagues at their own institution. Some may face the challenge of trying to teach or persuade their colleagues of the importance of AAL. Increasing the number of faculty with AAL expertise, especially Black or African American faculty and AAL-using faculty, could help address these concerns. However, hiring one new faculty member is unlikely to solve these issues on its own. Instead, we suggest that departments of Linguistics, Education, English, Communication Sciences, and other disciplines jointly advocate at the university level for "cluster hires" of scholars who study AAL and other Black Diasporic languages and cultures as a potential pathway for mitigating the systemic and structural obstacles we have identified in this study.

Our findings also have implications for curricular decisions within departments. Our responses suggest that, as of this writing, most courses with AAL content are not electives and instead count towards a departmental or university requirement. While this correlation does not necessarily imply causation, it seems at least plausible to infer that integrating AAL content into required courses could be a useful strategy for ensuring its place within the college curriculum. This strategy has implications for faculty aiming to teach about AAL in universities that currently lack courses with this content. Based on our findings, we suggest faculty initially avoid creating wholly new courses and instead explore ways of (1) integrating AAL into existing required courses or (2) pursuing approval for non-required courses with AAL content to count towards departmental or university requirements. Faculty may also wish to pursue departmental or university service on committees involved in curricular decision-making, where they can directly advocate (1) for the inclusion of AAL content in required courses or (2) for existing courses with AAL content to be recognized as fulfilling departmental or university requirements, particularly for universities with ethnic studies or diversity requirements. Similar strategies may be useful for promoting the teaching of other marginalized language varieties at the college level, both in the U.S. and around the world.

One obstacle identified in our study is that instructors who use AAL themselves seem especially likely to encounter student resistance to AAL instruction. Department chairs or departmental curriculum committees might address such patterns of raciolinguistic bias by advocating that AAL content be spread across multiple courses taught by different faculty members, in order to better emphasize the importance and validity of this content. However, given that departments often have only a single scholar with AAL expertise, the strategy of pushing AAL content into multiple courses taught by multiple faculty members runs the risk of inexperienced instructors sidestepping or mismanaging important conversations about language and culture or accidentally committing racial micro- or macro-aggressions during their teaching of AAL content. Cluster hires of faculty with expertise in AAL and additional marginalized language varieties could help to resolve this problem in the long term. In the meantime, department chairs and tenure and promotion committees should consider issues of student resistance when analyzing course evaluations, particularly those of instructors who use AAL.

Finally, we return to the point that responses to our survey also showed that only 16%–20% of instructors teaching AAL content identified as Black or African American and only 17% as AAL users. This finding reinforces the need for the large numbers of faculty who do not possess emic knowledge of African American culture and lived experiences to invest time and effort in learning to ethically and effectively teach the linguistic *and* cultural context of AAL–that is, not just "teaching the linguistic and ignoring the cultural". As we have discussed, these faculty might invite financially compensated guest lecturers whose research on AAL takes an emic, lived-experience perspective. Faculty might also use texts or media that explicitly approach AAL from an emic perspective and attend to African American culture, and professional organizations might explicitly support and fund efforts to create such texts or media. The development of a *Journal of Black Language and Culture* could serve as a forum for such work, alongside existing venues such as the *Journal of Pidgin and Creole Languages,* the Teaching Linguistics section of *Language,* and the Teaching American Speech section of *American Speech*. We advocate that additional new venues be developed to support the creation of such resources, such as grants programs from STEM- and Humanities-focused organizations and regular columns in scholarly and professional journals in Linguistics, Education, English, and Communication Sciences. These could build upon robust existing models and materials, several of which we have referenced above in Section 4.3.8 and 4.4.1.

Important progress has been made in teaching and learning about African American Language in higher education, yet much work remains. Our survey revealed the widespread but highly varied landscape of college teaching about AAL. Knowledge of this landscape can inform the work of higher education both within and beyond the classroom–from departmental and course-specific curricular decisions, to hiring and promotion practices across departments and universities, to the research decisions of scholars and the funding decisions of professional organizations. We offer this work in the sincere hope that our findings can suggest useful strategies, tools, and insights for those working toward racial and linguistic justice in higher education.

Declaration of Competing Interest

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CRediT authorship contribution statement

Quentin C. Sedlacek: Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Project administration, Methodology, Investigation, Data curation, Formal analysis, Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. **Anne H. Charity Hudley:** Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Methodology, Investigation, Writing – review & editing. **Christine Mallinson:** Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Methodology, Investigation, Writing – review & editing.

Data availability

The data that has been used is confidential.

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