

COPING METHODS OF COLLEGE WOMEN OF COLOR
FACING DISCRIMINATION

A THESIS IN
Psychology

Presented to the Faculty of the University
Of Missouri-Kansas City in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree

MASTER OF ARTS

by
Anum Khalid

B.A., University of Missouri-Kansas City, 2019

Kansas City, Missouri
2023

© 2023

Anum Khalid

ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

COPING METHODS OF COLLEGE WOMEN OF COLOR
FACING DISCRIMINATION

Anum Khalid, Candidate for the Master of Arts Degree
University of Missouri-Kansas City, 2023

ABSTRACT

Scholars have documented that experiencing microaggressions can have a negative impact on the psychological and physical health of women of color. Female college students of color specifically have shown to experience microaggressions in the college setting. Researchers have documented that certain coping strategies can protect against the negative effects of racism. This study sought to examine differences in experiences of microaggressions, stress, and use of task and emotion-oriented coping style in 76 Black, Asian American, and Latinx college women. Findings revealed that Black participants reported significantly lower scores on emotion-oriented coping compared to Asian American participants and Latinx participants. There were also statistically significant differences between Black, Asian American, and Latinx participants on the Foreigner, Criminality, and the Low Achieving subscale of the Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale. There were no differences in stress levels across racial/ethnic groups. Finally, emotion and task-oriented coping did not moderate the relationship between microaggressions and stress in any of the racial/ethnic groups. These results add to the literature by highlighting the differences in experienced microaggressions among Black, Asian American, and Latinx college women.

The main finding of this study highlights that racial/ethnic minority groups experience and cope with microaggressions differently. Limitations and implication are addressed.

APPROVAL PAGE

The faculty listed below, appointed by the Dean of the School of Education, Social Work and Psychological Sciences, have examined a thesis titled “Coping Methods of College Women of Color Facing Discrimination,” presented by Anum Khalid, candidate for the Master of Arts degree, and certify that in their opinion it is worthy of acceptance.

Supervisory Committee

Johanna Nilsson, Ph.D., Committee Chair
Department of Psychology

Kym Bennett, Ph.D.
Department of Psychology

Oh-Ryeong Ha, Ph.D.
Department of Psychology

CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	iii
TABLES	vii
Chapter	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	3
3. METHODOLOGY	23
4. RESULTS	31
5. DISCUSSION	35
6. LIMITATIONS	42
7. IMPLICATIONS	44
TABLES	47
REFERENCE LIST	60
VITA	74

TABLES

Table	Page
1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Variables	xx
2. Means and Standard Deviations Across Variables	xx
3. One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of Coping Styles of Black, Asian American, and Latinx College Students	xx
4. One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of Overall Experiences with Microaggressions of Black, Asian American, and Latinx College Students	xx
5. Results of MANOVA for Subscales of Microaggressions with Race/Ethnicity	xx
6. One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of Stress due to Microaggressions of Black, Asian American, and Latinx College Students	xx
8. Descriptives for Variables of Regression Analysis of Emotion-Oriented Coping on the Relationship Between Microaggressions and Stress.....	xx
9. Regression Analysis of Emotion-Oriented Coping on the Relationship Between Microaggressions and Stress.....	xx
10. Descriptives for Variables of Regression Analysis of Task-Oriented Coping on the Relationship Between Microaggressions and Stress.....	xx
11. Regression Analysis of Task-Oriented Coping on the Relationship Between Microaggressions and Stress	xx

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Scholars have proven that racism can have a deleterious influence on the psychological and physical health of people of color and women (Lewis et al., 2013). Female college students have shown to be at risk of experiencing racism socially and academically. College students who experience discrimination and microaggression report more symptoms of depression and anxiety and higher levels of suicidality (Hwang & Goto, 2009; Litam & Oh, 2021; Palmer & Maraba, 2015). They also report feeling unsupported on campus (Litam & Oh, 2021; Palmer & Maraba, 2015).

Given their developmental stage of life, college-age women may have less experience and practice in navigating discrimination, racism, and other life challenges, which may influence their ability to cope with such stressors (Szymanski & Lewis, 2016). Researchers have documented that certain coping strategies may protect against the negative effects of racism (Lewis et al., 2013); however, few studies have examined the differences between task-oriented and emotion-oriented coping methods in college women of color. This study will add to the literature by examining differences between task-oriented and emotion-oriented coping methods used by college women of color when facing discrimination and explore whether these coping methods moderate the relationship between microaggression and stress for this population.

College Women of Color

There are many different terms that are used to describe different racial groups. For example, some Spanish speaking people prefer to be referred to as Hispanic, and others

believe that Latinx is a more appropriate term (APA, 2020). For the sake of consistency in this proposal, I will be using the terms Black, Latinx, and Asian American to describe the different ethnic and racial minority groups in United States.

The U.S. college population is diverse and continues to diversify. According to the National Center of Education Statistics (NCES), Black student enrollment increased by 73% between 2000-2010. The enrollment rate for Asian American students from 2000-2018 was not measurably different, although there was a slight increase of 8% from 2000-2010. Latinx undergraduate enrollment had a 134% increase between the years 2000 and 2016. In 2020, the college enrollment rate for 18–24-year-olds in 4-year institutions was 36% for Black students, 64% for Asian American students, and 36% for Latinx students. When specifically looking at data on college women, among all racial and ethnic groups studied, there were more women that graduated compared to men, according to a report on six-year completion rates of students of different ethnicities in Fall of 2010 (Shapiro et al., 2017).

Of the 234,000 Black women who graduated from high school in 2019, almost 16% of them enrolled in community colleges and close to 40% enrolled in a four-year secondary institution (U.S. Census Bureau, 2019; Zamani, 2003). Black women continue to make up an increasing percentage of all students entering higher educational institutions (Jones-DeWeever, 2014). About 16% of Black college students attend one of the 103 historically Black colleges/universities (HBCU's) in America, while the majority, over 80% of Black students, attend predominantly White institutions (PWI's).

For Asian American students, enrollment is increasing. The NCES reported that in 2018, college enrollment rates in 18–24-year-olds was highest for those who were Asian American compared to other ethnic groups. About 54.6% of adults 25 years of age or older

identifying as Asian American or Asian American and another sub-group (e.g., Chinese, Pilipino, or Asian American Indian), had a bachelor's degree or higher level of education (Postsecondary National Policy Institute, 2022). Asian American women continue to make great strides in obtaining degrees in higher education. According to a report of six-year completion rates, disaggregated by race and ethnicity, for students who began postsecondary education in fall 2010, Asian American women had the highest completion rate among students who started a four-year educational institution (Shapiro et al. 2017). This report was based on a sample (Weighted N= 2,823,678) of 57.8% White students, 11.9% Black students, 11.4% Latinx students, and 4.8% Asian American students.

The prevalence of Latinx students, ages 18-24, in college has also increased, from about 22% in 2000 to 35% in 2018, according to the U.S. Department of Education (Shapiro et al., 2017). Shapiro et al. found that Latinx students had a 55% completion rate, among those who were enrolled in a four-year institution. While a large group of Latinx students attend college, the dropout rate is concerning. It is estimated that 35% of Latinx students (men and women combined) will drop out of college, in comparison to only 27% of White students (Loveland, 2018). Given my review of the literature, there appears to only be a limited amount of data documenting the rate and patterns of Latinx women attending college across time.

While the educational achievements of women of color have improved, such achievements may mask the unique experiences and challenges they face at the educational institutions they attend. Examples of these challenges include experiences with discrimination or microaggressions (Jackson et al., 2022).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Discrimination and Microaggressions

Women of color might face the challenge of not only navigating the stress of academic challenges in college but also coping with different forms of racial discrimination, whether it be by their professors or peers (Mena & Vaccaro, 2017). Examples of stressors include color-blind ideology, race related stress, discrimination, and microaggressions. Race related stress refers to the unique stresses people of color face, which can interfere with their adjustment and comfort in college climates (Parks et al., 2022). In this section, discrimination will be addressed, followed with a discussion of microaggressions. Microaggressions and discrimination can overlap, as racial discrimination commonly occurs in the form of microaggressions (Greenfield et al., 2021). Whereas discrimination is suggested to be more direct and intentional than microaggression, microaggressions stem from more automatic and sometimes unintentional racism (Lui, 2020). Racial microaggressions are defined as covert, everyday insults regarding racism (Gadson & Lewis 2021).

There is extensive evidence of the negative impact of discrimination on health. Discrimination can worsen both mental and physical health through psychological and biophysical arousal of the stress-response system (Park & Rottinghaus, 2022; Velez et al., 2018). Researchers have documented that in college settings specifically, experience with discrimination is associated with symptoms of depression and anxiety among multiple ethnic minority populations including Black, Asian American, and Latinx American college students (Badiee & Andrade, 2019; Blume et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2014;).

Black Students

Recent research has found that Black students perceive race relations on their campus more negatively than White students (Lo et al., 2017; Pieterse et al., 2010). In one study of 135 Black college students, 98.5% of the sample indicated they had experienced racism on campus in the previous year (Prelow et al., 2006). Participants reported hearing negative remarks about Black people on campus, and some reported being verbally insulted themselves. Shihid and colleagues (2018) found a significant positive correlation between racial tension on campus and stress, social withdrawal, and academic withdrawal, as well as a negative relationship between racial tension and academic motivation.

Another form of racial tension that can result in stress is experiencing microaggressions.

Experiences of microaggressions on campus, by professors or peers, may lead to Black women, and other women of color, to feel ignored or invisible by professors and peers in their educational settings. In response to experiencing racial microaggressions, Black adults reported feeling fearful and hypervigilant (Hall & Fields, 2015). Researchers have identified an association between racial microaggressions and increased symptoms of anxiety in a study of 178 Black, Indigenous, and Persons of Color (Blume et al., 2012). Other studies also support that higher levels of experienced microaggressions are significantly associated with trauma and depressive symptoms in Black women (Moody & Lewis, 2019; Torres & Taknit, 2015).

In a study of 254 Black (N = 77), Asian American, Multiracial, Latinx, Native American, and Middle Eastern participants, Nadal et al. (2019) found a relationship between racial microaggressions and posttraumatic stress symptoms. These authors wanted to

understand whether there were certain aspects of microaggressions that explained trauma. To measure perceptions of racial microaggressions, they used the Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale (REMS), which examines microaggressions experienced in 6 dimensions: assumptions of inferiority, assumptions of criminality, microinvalidations, assumptions of similarity, environmental microaggressions, and workplace/school microaggressions. To assess for post-traumatic stress symptoms, the authors used the PTSD Checklist (PCL-5), a 20 item self-report measure that assesses symptoms of post-traumatic stress syndrome (PTSD) mentioned in the DSM-5. The authors examined the relationship between microaggressions and PTSD and found a significant correlation between the total score on the REMS and PCL ($r = .42, p < .001$). The results of this study indicate that a relationship between more microaggressions and more PTSD symptoms among Black participants and other people of color (Nadal et al., 2019).

Asian American Students

Race related stress is related to lower rates of overall wellbeing in Asian American populations (Parks et al., 2022). Studies have found that Asian American students' experience of discrimination is positively correlated with symptoms of anxiety ($r = .24, p < .05$), depression ($r = .29, p < .01$), and somatic symptoms ($r = .29, p < .01$; Chen et al., 2014). Huynh (2012) also found that microaggressions predicted more depressive and negative somatic symptoms in both Latinx and Asian American groups of high school students ($r = .12, p < .05$). These findings support the argument that microaggressions are not only emotionally and mentally taxing but physically as well.

Kim et al.'s (2017) found that cultural mistrust in Asian American populations may lead to mental health problems. Cultural mistrust is defined as the sense of suspicion

toward individuals from mainstream culture (i.e., Whites) because of experienced discrimination. Kim et al. found that Asian American adolescents experience significantly higher levels of peer discrimination when compared to their African American and Latino counterparts. Furthermore, Asian American students were found to attribute their negative treatment to their race more than other identities such as their gender or age, compared to White students (Kim et al., 2017).

Certain social and political factors, such as the COVID-19 pandemic, can increase experiences of discrimination. Haft and Zhou (2021) found that discrimination and symptoms of anxiety in Chinese students, who were attending college in the United States, were higher after the COVID-19 pandemic was announced compared to before. Haft and Zhou's study is a kind of research that refutes the "model minority stereotype" so commonly associated with Asian American Americans. The model minority stereotype is the belief that Asian Americans-heritage students outperform other ethnic minorities in education, employment, and emotional health. They are seen to be skilled in math, science, and music (Haft & Zhou 2021). The model minority stereotype may negate the consequences of racial discrimination against Asian American; however, even if Asian Americans are academically and professionally successful, it does not necessarily mean that they are immune to the discrimination and microaggressions. Invalidation of such experiences can be harmful to their mental and emotional wellbeing (Parks & Yoo, 2016).

Latinx Students

Similarly to Asian American college students, Latinx college students experience multiple kinds of discrimination across many settings. For both groups, discrimination is associated with increased risk for psychological distress, suicidality, state, and trait anxiety

(Hwang & Goto 2009). Hwang and Goto (2019) found that participants who experienced discrimination were 1.62 more greater risk for depression ($p < .02$; Hwang & Goto 2009). Women were 3.35 times more likely to experience clinical depression than men, $p < .05$. In more recent study, of 403 Latinx college students, 82% female, Badiee and Andrade (2019) found that discrimination was positively related with symptoms of depression and anxiety.

Latinx and Asian American populations may also experience unique kinds of microaggressions. Huynh (2012) proposed that being stereotyped as foreign could be a distinct form of differential treatment, especially for Latinx and Asian American individuals. Huynh examined the frequency and impact of microaggressions among Latinx ($N = 247$) and Asian American ($N = 113$) adolescents (57% women) and found that both groups reported certain microaggressions that brought attention to their differences and foreignness. Specifically, Latinx participants reported more negative treatment microaggressions compared to Asian American participants. Huynh defined negative treatment as being treated as a second-class citizen. Some of the items in this subscale included being ignored by a cashier, someone assuming the participant is a bad student, or being mistaken for a service worker. This could potentially speak to the more negative stereotype of this population held by micro-aggressors (i.e., belonging to a group that is undeserving, or competing for jobs that belong to U.S. citizens; Immigration Policy Center 2008). To summarize, Huynh (2012) found that Asian American and Latinx groups face comments or actions that make them feel foreign. Latinx participants reported more negative treatment related to this than Asian American participants, suggesting that this group especially may face microaggressions related to not deserving fair treatment and taking away jobs from U.S. citizens (Huynh, 2012).

Furthermore, research on Latinx populations show that Latinx students are less likely to complete college compared to other racial groups (Loveland, 2018; Shapiro et al., 2017). Latinx students are more likely than Asian American students to have been accused of doing something wrong, such as cheating and breaking the law, and more likely to view these events as stressful. This could lead Latinx students to feel as though their college professors also have lower expectations of them due to experienced microaggressions, which can affect their motivation to complete their degree (Palmer & Maramba, 2015). Capers (2019) proposed that individual academic factors and internal intuitional characteristics may affect Latinx students' academic success. This author argued for the importance of structurally representative intuitions, which is defined as "specialized institutions of higher education; they have a common goal of educating underrepresented populations, representing minority communities, and fulfilling institutional missions to accommodate the needs and interests of specific student populations, despite developing out of different socio-political contexts with different histories and cultures" (p. 1115). Capers stated that giving importance to minority students' norms/cultures can increase their academic performance. Forms of representation include descriptive representation of peers, descriptive representation of faculty, and overall structural representation of the institution. Capers found that institutions in which Latinx students reported higher levels of representation also had higher graduation rates. Lack of representation in peers, college faculty, and overall structure of the college institution may all be causes of stress, and results in incompleteness of college for Latinx students (Capers, 2019).

Latinx college students, who are discriminated against, may feel invisible, which can influence their experiences at college. In a qualitative study, Cammarota (2006) interviewed

Latinx high school students about how they felt like they were treated or perceived at school. Most of the participants reported that they were not given information or resources from teachers or counselors regarding college. Cammarota also reported that the participants believed their most significant obstacle to academic achievement was the racist assumption of their lower intellect from educational figures such as teachers and counselors. The participants in this study stated that their teachers' disinterest in their intellectual growth significantly hindered their academic progress. Cammarota further discussed the negative impact of individualism in academic settings, which makes it easier to attribute students' failure on the students themselves, instead of considering the academic system's impact as a whole.

The experience of discrimination in high school can have major consequences to the overall wellbeing of students as they enter college. In a longitudinal study over the course of two years of 462 Black and Latinx college students, Keels and colleagues (2017) hypothesized that microaggressions experienced in high school would be associated with higher levels of depressive symptoms at the end of the first year of college. For each of the six waves of data collection, participants were sent online measures asking about school based racial and ethnic microaggressions, GPA, depressive symptoms, racial-ethnic identity, ratio of White population of their college, etc. The results revealed that academic inferiority microaggressions during high school were related to more depressive symptoms at the start of college ($B = .11, p = .01$). and indirectly at the end of first year of college ($B = .12, p < .01$). The same relationships were true for African American students as well (Keels et al., 2017). These authors found that students entering a college from mostly non-White high schools reported an increase in academic inferiority microaggressions

compared to students coming from mostly White schools. Keels et al.'s longitudinal analysis shows how minority students' exposure to microaggressions may continue to impact them as they move to different demographic environments, such as transitioning from high school to college.

This review of the current research of college students of color shows how experiencing discrimination and microaggressions on college campuses can negatively impact their psychological well-being (e.g., Kim et al., 2017; Park & Rottinghaus, 2022). Such experiences may develop into mental health disorders, such as anxiety and depression, or make students feel insignificant and unsupported by their professors and peers (Litam & Oh., 2022; Palmer & Maramba 2015). Students experiencing microaggressions may use a variety of methods to manage their stress.

Coping Strategies

Coping refers to the resources utilized by an individual to deal with stressors that occur in daily life, such as discrimination and microaggressions. These coping skills involve behavioral and cognitive methods of dealing with difficult situational demands (Parveen & Shafiq, 2014). Coping is a common variable used in psychological stress research. People react differently to major and minor stressors and coping is a common explanation of their reaction. Coping has been shown to successfully serve as both a moderator and mediator. Coping serves as a moderator when the relationship between the stressors and reaction is dependent on how often or well a person uses coping strategies. It is a mediator when the causal effect of stressors on the stress reaction occurs via coping (Frese, 1986). While I discuss studies using coping either as a mediator or moderator in this paper, my study will examine coping as a moderator in the relationship between

microaggression and stress. In other words, I will examine whether participants' level of coping (or how much they use it) will moderate or protect against the impact of microaggression on stress.

Coping mechanisms are proposed to have two main purposes: managing the stressful problem and regulating emotions related to that problem (Kariv & Heiman, 2005). The choice and effectiveness of coping depends on a person's personal beliefs and available resources. The Multidimensional Stress Interaction Model suggests that different coping methods effect the relationship between stressful events and their consequences, such as anxiety or psychological distress (Endler, 1997). Emotion-oriented coping is considered a more passive response to stress compared to problem focused coping, which is considered to be a more direct response to stress (Kariv & Heiman 2005; Mundia & Shahrill, 2018). Endler (1997) stated that when examining emotion-oriented, avoidance-oriented, and task-oriented coping strategies, task-oriented coping is usually most effective when dealing with stress. While there are several different kinds of coping mechanisms identified in the literature (Mundia & Shahrill, 2018; Sinring et al., 2022), this study will focus on task-oriented and emotion-oriented coping, both of which will be discussed later in this section.

It is important to be aware that early research on coping that was likely developed from a White cultural perspective (Washington, 1992). Some early researchers (e.g., Endler, 1997; Pearlin & Schooler, 1978) did not acknowledge diverse cultural factors that could influence how individuals cope. These scholars and studies of coping discussed the benefits of task-oriented coping compared to emotion-oriented coping, without considering the racial/ethnic and cultural background of the participants. The concept of John

Henryism helps shed light on the importance of cultural factors when understanding coping. John Henryism can be explained as prolonged task-oriented coping with a difficult psychosocial environment and stressors. James (1994) developed the John Henryism Hypothesis, which assumes that individuals from lower socioeconomic status, Black people in particular, routinely experience psychosocial stressors in their environment related to race, financial issues, and other factors. These stressors require them to put in a lot of daily effort to manage the stress caused by these experiences. James proposed that those individuals who are high in John Henryism, meaning they exhibit prolonged use of task-oriented coping to deal with their stressors, will experience more problems with hypertension. While John Henryism can be seen as a form of resilience and determination, it is not without potential drawbacks, as the current literature shows that prolonged efforts to cope with stressors can lead to increased physical and psychological strain, contributing to negative health outcomes (Kim et al., 2017; Litam & Oh., 2022; Park & Rottinghaus, 2022.) Understanding John Henryism highlights the relationship between culture and coping strategies, and the importance of culturally sensitive approaches to stress management and interventions in marginalized communities.

Slavin et al. (1991) explored the relationship of coping and culture. They wrote that although research and application of stress models has gained popularity over the past few decades, there continues to be a lack of research on the role of culture in the relationship between environmental stressors and coping. The authors proposed that the race and ethnicity affect how individuals chooses to cope with stress, and that an individual's culture favors some forms of coping and discourages others. For example, cultural beliefs may encourage coping by prayer or meditation but forbid other forms of coping such as

drinking alcohol or smoking (Slavin et al., 1991). This view was supported by Washington (1992), who also noted that specific research involving how culture influences coping with environmental stress is rare. She argued that American culture is centralized around the belief in individualism, that each individual function as an independent entity, as evidenced by the focus on individual achievements, for example, attaining material wealth (Washington, 1992). Individualism, however, is different than the worldview of African Americans and other people of color. Washington (1992) pointed out that the Afrocentric worldview stresses the importance of the individual's identity being tied to the identity of the overall ethnic group or community. Therefore, when people from collectivistic cultures face stressors involving racism, occupational barriers, and negative perceptions of their entire ethnic group, their world view may affect how they cope with these stressors (Washington, 1992).

Some recent scholars have studied differences in specific coping styles. For example, Kariv and Heiman (2005) conducted a study examining the relationship between stress and coping strategies of 283 college students (51.4% were female.) The authors emphasized that in stressful environments, the type of coping strategy adopted by the individual is largely dependent on the specific student's situation, demographic characteristics, and stress perceptions. To summarize, while early research on coping was primarily developed from a White cultural perspective (Endler, 1997; Pearlin & Schooler, 1978), current research on coping has expanded to embrace a more inclusive and diverse perspective (Chang et al., 2020; Kariv & Heiman, 2005).

Having covered the definitions and historical context of coping and stress research, it is important to acknowledge the adaptive and maladaptive nature of various coping

strategies. The effective and ineffectiveness of coping strategies can affect the impact of racial stressors on psychological responses. In a study of gendered racial microaggressions among 231 Black women, Williams and Lewis (2019) conducted a mediation analysis to test coping strategies (social support, engagement, disengagement, and spirituality) as mediators in the relationship between gendered racial microaggressions and depressive symptoms. The results showed that higher occurrences of experienced microaggressions were associated with higher levels of depressive symptoms, and that disengagement coping (i.e., distracting oneself from the event fully or partially) significantly mediated this relationship. In this case, disengagement coping explained the relationship between microaggressions and depressive symptoms. Disengagement coping can be viewed as a form of emotion-oriented coping, which the literature has supported to be a less useful strategy compared to task-oriented coping (Farber et al., 2020; Kariv & Heiman, 2005; Van den Brande et al., 2017). In summary, the literature explains that there are various forms of maladaptive and adaptive coping strategies, and different aspects of culture can affect how an individual chooses to cope. The following sections will discuss the two specific types of coping strategies observed in my study.

Task-Oriented Coping

Task-oriented coping focuses on solving the problem at hand. It involves taking direct action to change the situation to reduce the stress it causes and is significantly positively related to academic achievement (Kariv & Heiman 2005; Mundia & Shahrill, 2018). There are a few studies that have examined the relationship between discrimination, microaggressions, and coping. In a study of 549 racially diverse, non-White college students, Farber and colleagues (2020) found that problem-focused thoughts mediated the

relationships between microaggressions experienced at school and depression ($\beta = .33$), anxiety ($\beta = .54$), and stress ($\beta = .53$). Sanchez et al. (2018) performed a study to examine the relationship between racial-ethnic microaggressions and psychological stress, including 164 Asian American students and 144 Latinx students (54% female). The authors hypothesized that engagement or disengagement coping strategies would be mediators in this relationship. Engagement coping can be viewed as similar to task-oriented coping, as it involves taking action against the stressor, and disengagement coping can be viewed as similar to emotion-oriented and/or avoidance coping. The path analysis revealed that the only statistically significant indirect effect was that of racial-ethnic microaggressions to psychological distress via engagement coping ($\beta = -.052$). The authors further explained that among Asian American and Latinx students, there were a variety of coping mechanisms used, such as avoidance, or confrontation. However, participants who reported using engagement coping strategies when dealing with racial-ethnic microaggressions were the ones who also reported less psychological distress.

Emotion-Oriented Coping

Emotion-oriented coping focuses on altering the emotions experienced concerning the problem. Scott and House (2005) suggested that emotion-oriented coping is analogous to avoidance. Women tend to use more emotion-oriented coping strategies compared to men (Schriver & Teske, 2020). Younger college students may also use more emotion-oriented coping strategies compared to older students who are more likely to use task-oriented coping strategies (Kariv & Heiman, 2005). Emotion-oriented coping may prove beneficial in the

short-term but could potentially lead to emotional exhaustion or behavioral disengagement when used consistently over time. Altering one's emotions to cope with surrounding stressors puts a significant strain on mental health. Researchers have found that people who use emotion-oriented coping are more vulnerable to bullying in a stressful work-place environment, which can be compared to a stressful college environment (Van den Brande et al., 2017). Adaptive coping strategies can help relieve the impact of stressors in an effective way (Jenkins et al., 2022).

Not all coping methods are equally effective in all situations. Coping is dependent upon environmental and individual factors, which explains why reactions to stressful situations vary between individuals (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). It is possible that some coping methods prove more useful in some settings, while others do not. For example, emotion-oriented coping was helpful in reducing psychological distress for people experiencing lower levels of trauma, whereas problem-focused coping was more effective for those who were experiencing higher levels of trauma (Brown et al., 2002).

Coping in Women of Color

To manage stress, many Black women suppress their emotions in response to a stressor (Noh & Kaspar, 2003). Researchers found that compared to White women, Black women cope with different kinds of discrimination (e.g., sex discrimination) more indirectly, which may suggest that they perceive lower controllability over the situation. Noh and Kaspar (2003) stated that in Black and White populations indirect coping is less effective than problem-focused coping. Among Black women specifically, authors found that using more passive, emotion-oriented coping was linked to negative health consequences such as high blood pressure (Noh & Kaspar, 2003; Robinson-Wood, 2009).

Black women might face racism based on specific racial stereotypes. For example, the stereotype “strong Black woman,” can be seen as something positive, yet it can also be problematic as it generalizes that all Black women are strong enough to cope with whatever they are facing, and minimize their struggles (Domingue, 2015). In a study of 114 Black female college students, Donovan and West (2015) predicted that the Strong Black Woman (SBW) concept would limit Black women’s abilities to cope with stress in an effective way, which would increase symptoms of mental illness. Using the Stereotypic Roles for Black Women Scale (SRBWS), containing questions related to the concept of a SBW, participants rated how strongly they agreed or disagreed using a on a 5-point Likert scale. The results showed that SBW moderated the relationship between stress and depressive symptoms ($R^2 = .57; p = .00$). In other words, higher levels of SBW increased the relationship between stress level and depressive symptoms. The authors highlighted the importance of college counseling centers to develop educational campaigns directed toward Black female students, that reframes the idea of being strong as being able to ask for help when needed, instead of using strategies such as avoidance or hiding their struggles (Donovan & West, 2015).

In a recent qualitative study, Heard-Garris et al. (2021) compared Black and White adolescents on their response to racism, with specific attention to emotional coping responses. Helplessness and activism were two central themes that emerged from the data analysis. Activism can be compared to task-oriented coping because it involves direct action to change the situation and to reduce the stress it causes (Heard-Garris et al., 2021). The findings suggested that adolescents experience feelings of helplessness when dealing with racism, however, they are better able to cope when using action oriented coping

strategies such as activism, compared to emotion-oriented coping strategies such as talking with their friends and family.

When evaluating the effectiveness of task-oriented coping in Black populations, it is important to keep John Henryism in mind. Research on John Henryism reminds us that prolonged task-oriented coping may not be as beneficial in Black, or other minority populations, because of their unique psychosocial stressors and other cultural factors (James, 1994). Asian American Americans could be more likely to use emotion-oriented coping because it is congruent with the Asian American value of emotional self-control. Additionally, Asian American women may use task-oriented coping, as it is found to be related with higher academic achievement, which is a cultural value in Asian American culture (Parks et al., 2022). Another example is Asian American individuals using avoidant coping strategies (e.g., saving face by not sharing their emotions (Parks et al., 2022). The stress of experienced discrimination remains even if one uses avoidance as a coping strategy, which can be detrimental to one's mental health (Wei et al., 2010).

There is minimal research that focuses on the coping strategies of Latinx students (Lilly, 2022). In an exploratory study, Lilly (2022) identified the coping methods of Latinx students who were dealing with the stress caused by social isolation in high school. The author found that while participants used both emotion and task-oriented coping strategies, Latinx students were more likely to use emotion-oriented coping, such as venting or problem reframing, when dealing with social isolation. Although Endler's (1997) model claims that task-oriented coping is more effective when experiencing stress than emotion-oriented coping, the author's findings support that emotion-oriented coping was more effective in Latinx youth (Lilly, 2022).

In regard to Latinx college students, (Lewis et al., 2020) studied the relationship between racial identity attitudes and coping with racism-related stress in college. The three coping strategies measured were active antisocial, avoidant, and active prosocial. The authors found that higher conformity and dissonance racial identity attitudes, and lower internalization racial identity attitudes, were more associated with avoidant coping, and less associated with active coping strategies among Latinx and Black students (Lewis et al., 2020). The literature supports that Latinx individuals tend to use more emotion-oriented or avoidant coping strategies (Lewis et al., 2020; Lilly, 2022).

Overall, the coping literature shows that different racial and ethnic minority populations may be more prone to using certain coping styles. Research on Black, Asian American, and Latinx populations shows that culture may play a role in the use emotion-oriented strategies such as avoidance or choosing to suffer in silence instead of sharing their distress (Donovan & West, 2015; Parks et al., 2022). The literature also shows how task-oriented coping style is a more active and direct coping style that can at times be more beneficial for overall wellbeing than emotion-oriented coping style (Kariv & Heiman 2005; Lilly, 2022; Sanchez et al. 2018). On the other hand, task-oriented coping can be harmful for some. For example, (James, 1994) found that prolonged use of task-oriented coping to deal with their stressors resulted in more problems with hypertension in Black individuals because the stressor could not be changed due to individual efforts.

Summary

The literature reviewed in this paper highlights the college enrollment rate of Black, Asian American, and Latinx women are increasing. Scholars have studied the prevalence of microaggressions and discrimination against college women of color, and documented the

significant impact it has on academic performance, overall psychological wellbeing, and mental health (e.g., Badiee & Andrade, 2019; Chen et al., 2014; Leath & Chavous, 2018). College women of different minority populations use a variety of coping strategies to manage these challenging instances. This study will focus on emotion-oriented coping and task-oriented coping. Emotion-oriented coping involves altering the emotions experienced concerning the problem, whereas task-oriented coping involves taking direct action to change the situation to reduce the stress it causes. Certain groups are more likely to use one over the other because of a variety of personal, cultural, and environmental factors. For example, Black women may use more emotion-oriented coping, as they tend to suppress their emotions when experiencing stress (Noh & Kaspar, 2003), and Asian American Americans could be more likely to use emotion-oriented coping because it is congruent with the Asian American value of emotional self-control (Parks et al., 2022). My research will add to such findings by examining if task-oriented and emotion-oriented coping strategies can moderate the relationship between microaggressions and stress in Black, Asian American, and Latinx female college students. This study seeks to answer the following research questions and hypothesis.

Research Questions

- (1) Are there any differences between Black, Asian American, and Latinx college women on their scores on coping style (task and emotion-oriented)?
- (2) Are there any differences between Black, Asian American, and Latinx college women on scores of microaggression and the unique aspects of microaggression (subscales)?

- (3) Are there any differences between Black, Asian American, and Latinx college women on scores of stress due to discrimination?
- (4) Does emotion-oriented coping style moderate the relationship between experiences of microaggressions and stress due to discrimination?

Hypothesis

- (1) Task-oriented coping will moderate the relationship between microaggressions and stress, meaning that higher levels of task-oriented coping will decrease the impact of microaggression on stress.

CHAPTER 2

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The initial sample for this study included 298 female college students who were recruited from the University of Missouri-Kansas City undergraduate research pool (Psych Pool). Of those women, 147 were women of color and the remaining 151 identified as White women. Ninety-seven women of color identified as Black, Asian, or Latinx. The remaining 50 women of color not included in this study were from Arab, Middle Eastern, East Indian, Multiracial, Native, West Indian, International, and ‘Other’ racial/ethnic groups. The final sample for the current study was 76 female participants. Participants’ ages ranged from 18-53 years. Participants included 21 Black students, 27 Asian American students, and 28 Latinx students. Twelve of the participants were Freshman, 19 were sophomores, 23 were juniors, and 21 were seniors. According to the power analysis using G*Power, with a small effect size and 3 predictor variables in a moderating analysis, a sample size of 395 is needed. An even smaller sample size is needed for medium to large effect size. We anticipate that there may be some power issues in this analysis, and that power to detect interactional effects will be low.

Effect size varies across different populations, settings, and research designs. Reviewing several studies (e.g., Millender et al., 2022; Sanchez et al., 2018), it appears that common effect sizes are small to medium in these studies. For example, in Sanchez et al.’s (2018) study of 308 Asian American and Latinx college students (54% female), the results showed engagement coping ($\beta = .40$; $p < .05$, medium effect size) produced a statistically

significant decrease in psychological distress symptoms. The effect size for the present study could be similar to findings from (Sanchez et al., 2018).

Ethical Concerns

To account for potential ethical concerns regarding participants, informed consent was obtained before participants completed the study. Participants were told that they have the right to withdraw at any time and will know the purpose of the study beforehand. Participants were also informed that this study is minimal to no risk, as the probability of harm or discomfort anticipated is not greater in and of themselves than ordinarily encountered in everyday life, or during the completion of other psychological tests. All procedures were approved by the UMKC IRB.

Measures

Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations - Short Form (CISS-SF; Cohan et al., 2006; Ender & Parker, 1994, 1999) was used to assess coping strategies. Participants were asked to indicate how much they engage in these types of activities when they encounter difficult, stressful, or upsetting situations. These instructions are identical to those used in the complete 48-item CISS. The short form has a total of 13 items, addressing task and emotion-oriented coping. These subscales are scored on a 1-5 Likert type scale (1 = *Not at All*; 5 = *Very Much*). An example of a statement that is related to task-oriented coping would be, "Focus on the problem and see how I can solve it." An example of a statement related to emotion-oriented coping would be, "Blame myself for having gotten into this situation." Higher scores on each subscale will indicate higher prevalence of either coping method.

In a study of 1,682 undergraduate students ($N = 1,157$ women), authors used confirmatory factor analysis to observe the structure of the CISS-SF. The authors found that

both task-oriented coping and emotion-oriented coping have a good internal consistency ($\alpha = .78-.87$). The researchers concluded that the short form of the CISS measures information consistent with the original CISS (Cohan et al., 2006). The CISS-SF has also been translated into multiple languages and has proven to be a valid measure in multiple populations. A study conducted on a sample of 1,268 Japanese adults to assess the validity and reliability of the Japanese version of the CISS-SF found that the scale had good reliability, $\alpha = .75-.89$ (Watanabe et al., 2015). A similar study completed on Turkish adults also showed that the scale had good reliability, $\alpha = .72$ for task-oriented coping, and $\alpha = .77$ for emotion-oriented coping (Boysan, 2012). The alpha for task-oriented coping for the current study was $\alpha = .88$, and $\alpha = .89$ for emotion-oriented coping, indicating very good reliability.

Racial Microaggression Scale (RMAS; Torres-Harding et al., 2012) was used to assess experience with racial microaggressions. This scale consists of 32 items rated on a four-point Likert type scale. The scale includes items that examine different racial microaggression themes (Sue et al., 2007). These items are grouped into 6 subscales: invisibility, criminality, dysfunctional culture, sexualization, foreigner/not belonging, and environmental microaggressions. For the purpose of this study, total scale scores and subscale scores will be used. Subscale scores will be compared, to observe if there are certain aspects of microaggressions that are more commonly experienced than others. There are 6 subscales in this measure, including invisibility factor, criminality factor, low achieving/undesirable culture factor, sexualization factor, foreigner/not belonging factor, and environmental invalidations. Higher scores indicate more frequent experiences with microaggressions. Each item on the RMAS is evaluated on frequency, which is measured using a 0-3 scale (0 = *Never*; 3 = *Often/Frequently*). An example of a scale item is, “Other

people act as if they can fully understand my racial identity, even though they are not of my racial background.”

In Torres-Harding et al.’s (2012) study Cronbach’s alpha for the overall measure was $\alpha = .93$, which suggests very good reliability. Torres-Harding et al. (2012) found the RMAS to be a valid measure to assess the occurrence of microaggressions in people of color. For instance, experiences with microaggressions, measured by the RMAS, are positively correlated by racist life events. T-tests were performed to compare the results of white people and people of color to assess for concurrent validity. The independent variable was racial group category, and the dependent variable were the subscale scores on the RMAS. Results showed that people of color reported higher scores than white people on all subscales. All RMAS subscale scores were positively correlated with subscales of the Schedule of Racist Events (SRE) ($p < .01$), which measures current and lifetime racial mistreatment/discrimination. This suggests positive convergent validity (Torres-Harding et al., 2012). The Racial Microaggressions Scale total score alpha for the for the current study was $\alpha = .93$, indicating very good reliability. The subscale alpha scores were as follows: Invisibility $\alpha = .91$, Criminality $\alpha = .91$, Low Achieving $\alpha = .90$, Sexualization $\alpha = .89$, Foreigner $\alpha = .86$, Environmental Invalidations $\alpha = .82$. All subscale alpha scores for the current study indicated good reliability.

General Ethnic Discrimination Scale (GEDS; Landrine, 2006) was used to measure stress due to racist events. This is a modified version of the Schedule of Racist Events Scale (SRE; Landrine & Klonoff, 1996), with minor changes in the instructions and item stems. The scale was originally made for African Americans. For this study, the scale was modified to be more applicable to other people of color and focuses on the stress factor of their

experiences. For example, instead of stating “How often have you been treated unfairly by your employers, bosses, and supervisors *because you are black*, how stressful was this for you?”, the items read “*because of your race/ethnic group*.” Participants was asked to select the number that best captures what they have experienced. This study will only use the total score of stress, not frequency. Each stress item will be evaluated on “how stressful was this for you?” The items are measured on a 1-6 Likert scale (1= Not stressful at all; 6= Extremely stressful). An example of a scale item is, ‘Concerning the question, “How often have you been treated unfairly by teachers and professors because of your race/ethnic group?”, please select the number that best represents how you felt.’ The participant will then rate their level of stress. The alpha for the stress score of the current study was $\alpha = .95$, indicating good reliability.

Higher scores on the stress subscale indicates higher stress when experiencing ethnic discrimination. Internal consistency reliability of the GED subscales has been reported as ($\alpha = .91$); this matches the reliability of Schedule of Racist Events Scale, which was used in studies with similar samples. Furthermore, structural equation modeling revealed that ethnic discrimination, measured by the GEDS, accounted for a large percentage of the variance in psychiatric symptoms among ethnic minorities (Landrine, 2006).

Demographic information was collected including year in school, age, major, ethnicity, race, and sexual orientation.

Procedure

Data was collected via Psych Pool at UMKC. All participants completed questionnaires to report basic demographic information, coping strategies, racial microaggressions, and ethnic discrimination. This study was reviewed by UMKC’s

Institutional Review Board to ensure that ethical standards are met prior to conducting the study.

Data Cleaning

To clean the data, missing data will be replaced using Series Mean method.

Underlying Assumptions

To ensure that the collected data is suitable for the proposed statistical analysis, the assumptions for ANOVA and regression analysis must be met. The assumptions for ANOVA include testing for normal distribution, common variance, normality, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity. A histogram will be created to check for normal distribution, central tendency, and variability. Simple correlations will be used to check for multicollinearity. Levene's test will be conducted to observe homogeneity of variance. Underlying assumptions for hierarchical regression include normally distributed variables, linear relationship between variables, outliers, variables that are reliably measured, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity Newof error variance. A histogram will be created for each predictor and outcome variable to confirm a normal shape of the distribution's cores. A scatter plot should also be created for every pair of quantitative variables, and show a linear relationship, homogenous variance, and no extreme bivariate outliers. Z scores and boxplots will also be examined to look for outliers.

Preliminary Analysis

Internal reliability will be examined for each measure. Means, standard deviation and correlations among variables will be reported. The statistical significance (p -value) between the variables will determine if they are significantly related.

Inferential Statistical Test

Research question 1: Are there any differences between Black, Asian American, and Latinx college women on their scores on coping style (task and emotion oriented)? A 2 (coping) x 3 (groups) ANOVA will be conducted. Means will be compared to see whether there is difference in means across variables with confidence intervals of 95%. If the F statistic and its associated p value is less than the $\alpha = .05$, this indicates statistically significant results. Post hoc comparisons will be observed to determine specific group differences.

Research Question 2: Are there any difference between Black, Asian American, and Latinx college women on experiences of microaggression and the unique aspects of microaggression (subscale scores)? MANOVA will be conducted. Means will be compared to see whether there is difference in means across variables with confidence intervals of 95%. If the F statistic and its associated p value is less than the $\alpha = .05$, this indicates statistically significant results. Post hoc comparisons will be observed to determine specific group differences. A power analysis will be conducted for the MANOVA.

Research Question 3: Are there any differences between Black, Asian American American, and Latinx college women on experiences of stress due to discrimination? One-way ANOVA will be conducted. Means will be compared to see whether there is difference in means across variables with confidence intervals of 95%. If the F statistic and its associated p value is less than the $\alpha = .05$, this indicates statistically significant results. Post hoc comparisons will be observed to determine specific group differences. A power analysis will be conducted for the ANOVA.

Research questions 4 and hypothesis 1: Does coping style moderate the relationship between experiences of microaggressions and racial- ethnic stress? Two hierarchical regressions will be conducted to determine the moderating effect of coping style on the relationship between microaggressions and racial-ethnic stress, one on emotion-oriented coping and one on task-oriented coping. In the first step, microaggressions will be entered. In the second step, coping style will be entered and in the third step the interaction of microaggression and coping will be entered. The rationale for this order of entry is that the researcher want to observe the moderating effect of coping on the relationship between microaggression and stress. For example, does coping buffer the impact of microaggression on stress? Change in R^2 after each added variable will indicate any change in variance. A F test will be conducted to assess the significance of the change in R^2 . To measure effect size, ΔR^2 will be reported at for every individual step of the regression. To assess for contributions of individual predictors, the t ratios for the individual regression slopes will be examined for each variable in the steps when its first entered in the analysis. This would be a beneficial method to use for this study because it would allow for an examination of the contribution of the predictor variable while controlling for other variables. Adjusted R^2 will be observed to determine the percentage of variation in the response that is explained by the statistical model, as well as the F statistic and its associated p-value. If the p value is less than alpha =.05, then the moderator is significant.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics and Preliminary Analysis

Before main analyses were conducted, missing data were analyzed. The initial sample consisted of 298 female college students. Of these, 147 were women of color, and 97 identified as Black, Asian, or Latinx. Approximately 21 participants were manually deleted because of excessive missing data, such as missing demographics, and multiple items on different measures used in this study. In addition, in several cases just a few items were missing, and in these cases, each missing value was imputed with the mean value for the respective item to account for this.

Assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were met. Assumptions of multicollinearity were not met, as some variables used in this study were highly correlated, such as between RMS and Stress, see Table 1. However, multicollinearity is more of a concern when it occurs between predictor variables, which was not a concern in the present study. A histogram was created to check for normal distribution, central tendency, and variability. Simple correlations were used to check for multicollinearity. Levene's test was conducted to observe homogeneity of variance. Task-oriented coping was the only variable that did not pass Levene's test for homogeneity of variance. This affects the assumption of equal variances in tests like ANOVA. Having unequal sample sizes and variances greatly affects statistical power and Type I error rates. It can also lead to a general loss of power (Rusticus & Lovato, 2014). This study went ahead and ran the analysis, keeping the potential effects of this issue in mind. Table 1 reports on correlations among study variables. Means and standard deviations can be found in Table 2.

Research Question 1

Results for research question 1, which examined differences in emotion and task-oriented coping, showed that there were differences in coping style among these 3 groups. The one-way ANOVA on emotion-oriented coping revealed that there was a statistically significant overall difference among the groups, $F(2,66) = 4.92, p = .01$, see Table 3. Multiple comparison of group differences, using the Least Significant Difference Post Hoc Test, revealed that Black participants reported significantly lower scores on emotion-oriented coping compared to Asian American participants and Latinx participants. These findings suggest that the Asian American and Latinx participants used more emotion-oriented coping than Black participants. There results showed that there was no statistically significant difference in task-oriented coping between groups, $F(2, 67) = .18, p > .05$. See Table 3 for means and standard deviations.

Research Question 2

An ANOVA was completed to examine potential differences between Black, Asian American, and Latinx college women on overall experiences with microaggressions. The one-way ANOVA on the total score of Racial Microaggressions Scale (RMAS; Torres-Harding et al., 2012) revealed no significant differences between groups, $F(2, 48) = 2.31, p > .05$, see Table 4. Next, a MANOVA was conducted to examine potential differences between Black, Asian American, and Latinx college women on and the unique aspects of microaggressions (Feeling like a Foreigner, Criminality, Sexualization, Low-Achieving, Invisibility, and Environmental Invalidations). The use of Wilk's Lambda as a multivariate test statistic provided a significant effect, $\lambda = .04, F(6, 43) = 169.30, p < .01$, indicating that there are differences in the scores among the groups. Follow up testing using the Least

Significant Difference test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between Black, Asian American, and Latinx participants on the Foreigner subscale $F(2) = 21.23, p < .001$, the Criminality subscale $F(2) = 5.51, p < .01$, and the Low Achieving subscale $F(2) = 3.74, p < .05$. Multiple comparisons, using the Least Significant Difference test, showed statistically significant differences for the Foreigner subscale, $F(2) = 21.23, p < .001$, with Latinx and Asian American participants score higher than Black students. For the Criminality subscale score, statistical differences were found, $F(2) = 63.70, p = .007$, between Black and Asian American participants. For the Low Achieving subscale score, there was only a significant difference, $F(2) = 193.94, p < .01$, between Asian American and Latinx participants. See Table 5 for means and standard deviations.

Research Question 3

An ANOVA was conducted to examine if there were any differences between Black, Asian American, and Latinx college women on experiences of stress due to discrimination. Results showed that there were no differences in stress level experienced between Black, Asian American, and Latinx participants $F(2,45) = .23, p > .05$, see Table 6.

Research Question 4

Hierarchical regressions were conducted to determine whether emotion-focused coping style would moderate the relationship between microaggressions and stress, see Tables 7 and 8. In step 1, racial microaggressions were entered. The regression showed that microaggressions predicted stress, $F(1, 41) = 87.48, p < .001$, and highly contributed to the explained variance for stress $R^2_{\text{adj}} = .67; \Delta R^2 = .68$. In step 2, emotion-oriented coping was entered, and results showed that it did not add additional variance above and beyond microaggression, $F(2, 40) = 43.89, p < .001; R^2_{\text{adj}} = .67, \Delta R^2 = .01; \Delta F(1, 40) = .78, p > .05$.

In step 3, the moderating variable was entered $F(3, 39) = 28.69, p < .001; R^2_{\text{adj}} = .66, \Delta R^2 = .00; \Delta F(1, 39) = .70, p > .05$. Results showed that emotion-oriented coping did not moderate the relationship between microaggressions and stress.

Hypothesis 1

A regression was conducted examining whether task-oriented coping would moderate the relationship between microaggressions and stress, see Tables 9 and 10. In step 1, racial microaggressions were entered. Results revealed that that microaggressions predicted stress $F(1, 41) = 87.48, p < .001$, and highly contributed to the explained variance for stress $R^2_{\text{adj}} = .67; \Delta R^2 = .68$. In step 2 of the model, task-oriented coping was entered, and the results showed task oriented did not add to the variance in stress above and beyond microaggression $F(2, 40) = 43.12, p < .001; R^2_{\text{adj}} = .67, \Delta R^2 = .00; \Delta F(1, 40) = .28, p > .05$. In step 3, of the moderating variable was entered $F(3, 39) = 28.90, p < .001; R^2_{\text{adj}} = .67, \Delta R^2 = .01; \Delta F(1, 39) = .84, p > .05$. The result showed that task-oriented coping did not contribute to the explained variance for stress above and beyond microaggression and emotion-oriented coping, . Task-oriented coping was statistically insignificant ($b = .37, p > .05$).

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The results of this study found evidence to support that Black, Asian American, and Latinx students use different forms of coping strategies when dealing with microaggressions. The results also showed that there were group differences in the unique aspects of microaggressions that they face. For Research Question 1, it was revealed that there was no difference on amount of task-oriented coping among the groups, but that Asian American and Latinx participants used more emotion-focused coping more than Black students. This finding is in line with previous findings (Lilly, 2022; Parks et al., 2022), which showed the use of emotion-oriented coping in Latinx and Asian American women. The literature shows that there are similarities between the experiences of Asian and Latinx racial/ethnic groups. For example, both groups may be from immigrant families who may have different cultural values than the general American society, which the literature shows tend to use a more action-centered approach to dealing with issues (Kiang et al., 2021; Washington, 1992). Asian American and Latinx women may be more likely to use emotion-oriented coping, because it could align more with their cultural values. Additionally, the Strong Black Woman stereotype could also be an explanation for result that Black students use less emotion-oriented coping than the other groups, as more active forms of coping often coincide with this stereotype for Black women (Domingue, 2015; Noh & Kaspar, 2003). Task-oriented coping did not differ between racial/ethnic groups. This does not align with findings in the literature, as many scholars have found that certain race/ethnicities, such as Asian Americans and Black individuals, often are likely to use task-oriented coping (Parks et al., 2022). Reasons for the lack of differences in task-oriented coping between these groups could be

because task-oriented coping involves taking action, but these actions are often dependent on the individual needing access to resources, supportive networks, or other opportunities to help with race-related stress (Blakemore, 2000). Asian American and Latinx individuals may not have access to these opportunities, whether it be because of their location, financial means, etc. Furthermore, although task-oriented coping focuses more on the individual's own action, it is still important to take into account the systemic issues and social attitudes that are also affecting these populations' experience with microaggressions and race-related stress.

Regarding Research Question 2, results revealed that although there was not a statistically significant difference between Black, Asian American, and Latinx participants on their total experienced racial microaggressions, there was a statistically significant difference between groups on the Foreigner, Criminality, and Low-Achieving. There were significant differences on the Foreigner subscale between Black and Asian American students, as well as between Black and Latinx participants but no significant differences between Asian American and Latinx participants. Asian American and Latinx students may have encountered comparable levels of racial microaggressions related to being perceived as outsiders. A reason for this finding could be that Asian American and Latinx students could be considered more foreign by the general U.S. populations than Black participants. Additionally, Asian American and Latinx participants could have experienced more microaggressions related to their foreignness if they were first-generation American. Barrita et al. (2023) and (Hong et al. 2022) found that Latinx and Asian American students with an immigrant background are more vulnerable to victimization in school as opposed to their American born counterparts. Balancing more than one culture and stereotypes associated (e.g., Asian Americans being the model minority and the stereotype of Latinx individuals

being considered illegal immigrants (Cheon & Yip, 2019) may make these groups more of a target than those who were raised with only American cultural values (Hong et al., 2022).

There were also significant differences between groups on the Criminality subscale score of the RMS. This result had a large effect size and showed significant differences between Black and Asian American participants, suggesting that Black participants more often had experiences being treated as a criminal than Asian American. This finding is supported by Avery et al., (2021), who discussed the reasons why Black people are more often associated with criminality. One reason is racial profiling and bias that exists in law enforcement and criminal justice systems. Black individuals have been disproportionately targeted, leading to higher rates of arrest and incarceration (Lemieux et al., 2020). Another reason could be media representation. The media's portrayal of Black individuals has often been associated with criminality, which could have created a distorted perception of crime rates and negative stereotypes regarding this population (Dixon, 2008). Future research may want to explore the similarities and differences in Black and Latinx individual's experiences with microaggressions related to them being stereotyped as criminal. A reason for the difference between Black and Asian American participants on this subscale could be that the specific sample used for this study might not have included individuals who experienced microaggressions related to criminality, a more diverse sample could potentially reveal more variations in scores. Intersectionality could have also influenced these results, as this study only included women of color. Results may have been different if this study included men, who may be perceived differently than women.

The differences on the Low-Achieving subscale also showed a large effect size. The results of comparisons across groups on this subscale of the RMS revealed a significant

difference between Asian American and Latinx participants only, with Latinx students reporting higher scores on the Low-Achieving subscale. This supports the discussion in the literature regarding Asian American students being associated with the model-minority myth, which could result in professors expecting and acknowledging their good academic performance. In contrast, Latinx individuals have reported feeling ignored in academic settings and that their teachers expect less of them (Haft & Zhou 2021; Palmer & Maramba, 2015). Another reason for this difference could also be the diversity of the sample population studied. Differences among socioeconomic class, immigration history, and other factors could have affected how often individuals experienced microaggressions related to low achievement. For example, Asian American and Latinx individuals may have immigration history that comes with a unique set of stress and experiences. An Asian American or Latinx student whose family has migrated to the United States may be juggling different cultural expectations and values from their ethnic culture that may or may not align with American culture (Haft & Zhou, 2021; Kim et al., 2017).

Furthermore, socioeconomic status may have influenced this results, Kundu (2019) found that low-income minority students struggle to manage burnout in college, especially when they are unable to find and use support resources on campus. Kundu further explained how low-income minorities who are driven to succeed in college when they start, become disengaged if not supported adequately by mentors, peers, and counselors. Furthermore, racial/ethnic minority students who deal with financial constraints and stressors may be dealing with the additional burden of working jobs, taking care of siblings, and helping their family with finances, potential language barriers if they have an immigrant background, and other responsibilities, all while trying to perform well in school and maintain their own

hobbies. This stress, along with the stress of holding a positive view of their ethnic/racial group while so many stereotypes about them exist, can interfere with a participants' ability to achieve success in school and life (Cheon & Yip, 2019).

Research Question 3 examined whether there were any differences among Black, Asian American, and Latinx college women on the experiences of stress due to experienced microaggressions. Results showed that there were no significant differences in stress among any of the three groups, suggesting that all groups experience relatively the same amount of stress due to discrimination. This makes sense, as all three are a part of marginalized groups that face both racial and potentially gender discrimination (Badiee & Andrade, 2019; Kim et al., 2017; Moody & Lewis, 2019; SteelFisher et al., 2019). While all groups have different stereotypes associated with their racial and ethnic group, they may face similar challenges regarding structural and institutional racism. It's important to note that while there may be similarities between experiences of race/ethnic-related stress between these groups, there are also unique aspects to each individual's experience based on their specific racial, ethnic, and cultural histories as well.

Research Question 4 examined if emotion-oriented coping style would moderate the relationship between experiences of microaggressions and stress. The results revealed that it did not moderate this relationship, and nor did it predict stress. One reason for the lack of the moderating results could be the limited sample size that was used. According to the power analysis using G*Power, with a small effect size and 3 predictor variables in a moderating analysis, $N = 395$ is needed. The sample size for this study was $N = 76$. With more power, we could potentially expect results similar to findings from (Millender et al., 2022), who observed the influence of perceived discrimination, stress, and coping responses on

symptoms of depression among young African mothers (N = 250). These authors found that avoidance coping was significant, and that avoidance/passive coping styles accounted for 40% of the variance in depressive symptoms. In other words, the use of passive coping styles as a response to discrimination were associated with increased depressive symptoms, and problem focused coping did not have an influence on depressive symptoms.

Other reasons for this insignificant result on emotion-oriented coping as a moderator variable could be that while emotion-oriented coping focuses on regulating one's emotions, individuals may not be addressing the issue directly enough to result in change in stress level. A change might have been detected if other outcome variables were included in this study, such as depression or anxiety, and future research may want to explore using other outcome variables. Furthermore, according to Van den Brande et al. (2017), emotion-oriented coping could be more beneficial in managing short-term stress instead of prolonged stress. Microaggressions often represent recurring stressors that persist over time. Emotion-oriented coping may not provide a long-term solution for individuals facing race-related stress. It is important to note that although the results of this study did not reveal that task or emotion-oriented coping significantly moderate the relationship between experienced microaggressions and stress, this does not imply that these coping strategies are ineffective. Coping strategies vary, and their effectiveness can be influenced by many factors such as the individual's culture, background, and situation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Further research is needed to help better understand the effectiveness and differences in coping strategies for racial and ethnic minorities when dealing with microaggressions and racial-ethnic stress, specifically regarding their values and culture.

Hypothesis 1 examined if task-oriented coping moderated the relationship between experiences of microaggressions due to discrimination. Results revealed that it did not moderate this relationship. Potential reasons for this are similar to the reasons discussed for research question 3. Limited sample size, unequal variance between the groups, and the use of only one outcome variable could have influenced the insignificant results. Also, the literature mentioned that prolonged active efforts to cope with stressors can lead to increased physical and psychological strain, contributing to negative health outcomes (Kim et al., 2017; Litam & Oh., 2022; Park & Rottinghaus, 2022.) This form of coping may increase stress levels. It is interesting to note that the bivariate results show that emotion-oriented coping correlated with stress and task-oriented coping did not. However, together with microaggressions in the prediction model, emotion-focused coping did not add any significant variance.

Taken together, this study contributes to the literature on intersectionality of race, gender, and experiences with microaggressions. It recognizes that women from different racial or ethnic backgrounds may face unique challenges that influence their development of various coping strategies. By studying coping styles among Black, Asian American, and Latinx women, this study supports the current literature by confirming that Asian American and Latinx participants tend to use more emotion-oriented coping than Black women (Lilly, 2022; Parks et al., 2022; Robinson-Wood, 2009). Furthermore, Lui (2020) discussed the importance of identifying meaningful group differences in experiences with microaggressions and how those differences impact student mental health. This study adds to the literature by examining the unique aspects of microaggressions, and how they are experienced among Black, Asian American, and Latinx college women specifically.

CHAPTER 6

LIMITATIONS

It is important to note the limitations of the current study. Firstly, accuracy and generalizability of the findings are limited, as the sample size ($N = 76$) was limited. A small sample size could have reduced statistical power, making it more challenging to detect significant relationships or draw reliable conclusions. Secondly, the sample was not representative of the entire population being studied. For example, there were a variety of ethnic sub-groups and genders that were not included in this study, such as individuals who were biracial, international, or belonged to a subgroup within Asian American and Latinx racial/ethnic groups. Future research would benefit from including a larger, more diverse sample size, as this study only observed one sex, and three ethnic groups. Additionally, this study only focused on two coping methods: task and emotion-oriented coping. The literature shows that there are other specific forms of coping as well, such as avoidant and antisocial coping (Lewis et al., 2020; Lilly, 2022). Future research could observe group differences in other forms of coping as well, which could provide a deeper understanding of coping mechanisms across racial/ethnic groups.

Another limitation of this study is that the moderation was done with all racial/ethnic groups together. Combining the groups in one moderation might have obscured meaningful differences among groups. If the groups had significant differences, putting them in one analysis may have weakened the moderation effect. Similarly, task-oriented coping was the only variable that did not meet the assumption for homogeneity of variance among groups, Levene's test for homogeneity of variance was significant. This could have impacted the

validity of statistical tests. A solution for this could be to use other stress scales and outcome variables.

CHAPTER 7

IMPLICATIONS

This study could facilitate further research examining the impact of being exposed to these chronic and stressful experiences. Future research should be done using a larger sample size to obtain more power for the analyses, as well as a population including diverse racial/ethnic and sexual identities to increase generalizability of findings. Researchers should note gender differences when observing the subscales of microaggressions, as there could be significant differences. Observing additional coping methods beyond task and emotion-oriented coping can also provide a better understanding of coping mechanisms across racial/ethnic groups.

Future research could also specifically assess how experiences with microaggressions predict physical and mental health outcomes, other stress reactions, or alternative forms of coping not mentioned in this study. Also, future studies should examine other moderating variables that could help lessen the stress caused by experiencing microaggressions, such as faculty/family support, socioeconomic status, etc. Researchers could also observe how specific cultural values influence how an individual decides to cope, as there is limited literature on this topic (Jones & Sam, 2018). For example, one's cultural beliefs may encourage coping by prayer or meditation but forbid other forms of coping such as drinking alcohol or smoking (Slavin et al., 1991.) Additionally, by exploring coping styles, this research adds to the existing literature by examining how the sociocultural context, including race and gender, influences coping responses and outcomes.

Implications for Practice

The findings from this study suggest that microaggressions and coping styles are important topics to discuss when working with college women of color. When working with this population, providers in college counseling centers may want to ask about experiences with microaggressions and what coping strategies students are using. Understanding the coping strategies can guide the development of culturally competent and specific interventions that address their unique needs (Donovan & West, 2015.) For example, Jones and Sam (2018) explained the need to use Cultural Connections, an intervention that aims to address the unique challenges and experiences faced by Black women in college settings. This approach recognizes the importance of cultural identity and seeks to empower and support Black women by using psychoeducation, identity exploration, and other culturally sensitive counseling techniques.

Mental health professionals and university faculty and staff would benefit from education and training on the specific struggles of women of color on college campuses. These trainings could focus on increasing awareness, empathy, and understanding of experiences faced by women of color on college campuses. Additionally, colleges can offer student workshops and support groups that are specifically tailored to women of color, which would provide a safe space for sharing experiences and to develop strategies to address and cope with microaggressions. Furthermore, colleges can sponsor guest speakers and panel discussions to raise awareness and promote a deeper understanding of the experience of women of color facing microaggressions. Colleges can also establish mentorship/peer support programs that can connect women of color with faculty/staff or alumni who can provide guidance and support.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study adds to the literature by highlighting the differences in experienced microaggressions among Black, Asian American, and Latinx college women. The main finding of this study highlights that different racial/ethnic minority groups cope with microaggressions differently and that some groups experience different kinds of microaggressions than others. This study emphasizes the need for future research to consider the intersection of unique experiences of the individual, whether it be culture, microaggressions, values, history, and more, when examining the college women of color experience. Moving forward, future researchers studying this population should continue to examine the unique experiences of women of color on college campuses and develop strategies to better support and advocate for this population.

TABLES

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	M	SD
1 EDS_stress											51.21	24.47
2 CIFSS_Emotion_Total	.51**										21.36	7.12
3 CIFSS_Task_Total	.26	-.02									23.66	4.56
4 RMS_Total	.83**	.41**	.26								73.04	20.29
5 RMS_Foreigner	.29	.32*	-.11	.40**							7.7	3.21
6 RMS_Criminality	.42**	.03	.22	.64**	-.02						7.36	3.69
7 RMS_Sexualization	.44**	.30*	-.07	.63**	.33*	.32*					6.53	3.07
8 RMS_Low_Achieving	.67**	.29*	.30*	.85**	.2	.47**	.47**				23.28	7.75
9 RMS_Invisibility	.80**	.43**	.2	.90**	.35**	.62**	.51**	.69**			15.13	6.48
10 RMS_Envriornmental Invalidations	.54**	.27*	.27	.60**	.12	.23	.2	.48**	.51**		13.04	4.31

Note: N = 76,

* Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed),

** Significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations Across Variables

Measures	Race	M	SD
CIFSS Task Total	Black	23.25	6.41
	Asian Amer	23.59	3.40
	Latinx	24.09	3.97
	Total	23.66	4.56
CIFSS Emotion Total	Black	17.32	6.44
	Asian Amer	23.33	6.93
	Latinx	22.52	6.75
	Total	21.41	7.11
RMS Total	Black	70.67	15.23
	Asian Amer	68.26	21.56
	Latinx	82.57	22.30
	Total	73.04	20.29
RMS Foreigner	Black	4.61	2.23
	Asian Amer	9.32	2.50
	Latinx	9.07	2.53

Measures	Race	M	SD
	Total	7.70	3.21
RMS Criminality	Black	9.44	3.87
	Asian Amer	5.74	2.88
	Latinx	7.36	3.41
	Total	7.36	3.69
RMS Sexualization	Black	5.78	2.71
	Asian Amer	5.89	2.81
	Latinx	7.89	3.42
	Total	6.53	3.07
RMS Low Achieving	Black	23.38	7.32
	Asian Amer	20.42	7.06
	Latinx	27.36	7.25
	Total	23.28	7.75
RMS Invisibility	Black	14.72	5.52
	Asian Amer	14.26	7.16
	Latinx	16.86	6.25
	Total	15.13	6.48

Measures	Race	M	SD
RMS Environmental Invalidations	Black	12.83	4.11
	Asian Amer	12.63	4.23
	Latinx	14.14	4.52
	Total	13.04	4.31
EDS - Stress	Black	47.87	20.32
	Asian Amer	51.59	27.73
	Latinx	53.94	25.51
	Total	51.21	24.47

Note: N = 76, CIFFS = Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations, RMS = Racial Microaggressions Scale, EDS = Ethnic Discrimination Scale

Table 3

One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of Coping Styles of Black, Asian American, and Latinx College Students

		SS	df	MS	F
Task Total	Between				
	Groups	7.677	2	3.838	.18
	Within				
	Groups	1426.095	67	21.285	
	Total	1433.771			
CIFSS	Between				
	Emotion				
	Groups				
Total		446.793	2	223.397	4.92*
	Within				
	Groups	2997.844	66	45.422	
	Total	3444.638	68		

*Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$*

Table 4

One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of Overall Experiences with Microaggressions of Black, Asian American, and Latinx College Students

	SS	df	MS	F
Between				
Groups	1806.81	2	903.40	2.31
Within				
Groups	18771.11	48	391.07	
Total	20577.92	50		

*Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$*

Table 5

Results of MANOVA for Subscales of Microaggressions with Race/Ethnicity

Source	Dependent Variable	SS	df	MS	F	Eta Square
Race	Foreigner	247.04	2	123.52	21.23***	.469
	Criminality	127.40	2	63.70	63.70**	.187
	Sexualization	38.66	2	19.33	19.33	.084
	Low	387.88				
	Achieving		2	193.94	193.94*	.135
	Invisibility	59.03	2	29.52	29.52	.029
	Environmenta	20.66				.023
	l Invalidations		2	10.33	10.33	

*Note: *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001*

Table 6

One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of Stress due to Microaggressions of Black, Asian American, and Latinx College Students

	SS	df	MS	F
Between				
Groups	289.13	2	144.56	.234
Within				
Groups	27848.79	45	618.86	
Total	28137.92	47		

Table 7

Descriptives for Variables of Regression Analysis of Emotion-Oriented Coping on the Relationship Between Microaggressions and Stress

	N	M	SD
Ethnic-Stress	43	51.80	20.33
Emotion-Oriented Coping	43	21.40	27.73
RMS Total	43	73.47	25.51
Interaction of Emotion-Oriented Coping and RMS Total	43	1643.81	24.47

Table 8

*Regression Analysis of Emotion-Oriented Coping on the Relationship Between
Microaggressions and Stress*

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1:				
RMS Total	.99	.11	.81	8.87***
CIFSS Emotion Total	.24	.46	.05	.53
Step 2:				
RMS_Total	1.57	.65	1.29	2.43*
CIFSS_Emotion_Total	1.81	1.78	.37	1.02
CIFSS_Emotion_Moderator	-.02	.03	-.64	-.91

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$; RMS = Racial Microaggressions Scale; CIFSS = Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations

TABLE 9

Descriptives for Variables of Regression Analysis of Task-Oriented Coping on the Relationship Between Microaggressions and Stress

	N	M	SD
Ethnic-Stress	43	51.80	24.29
Task-Oriented Coping	43	22.95	4.89
RMS Total	43	73.47	19.93
Interaction of Task-Oriented Coping and RMS Total	43	1709.35	655.43

NOTE: RMS = RACIAL AND ETHNIC MICROAGGRESSIONS SCALE

Table 10

Regression Analysis of Task-Oriented Coping on the Relationship Between Microaggressions and Stress

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>
Step 1:				
RMS Total	.99	.11	.81	8.87***
CIFSS Task Total	.24	.46	.05	.53
Step 2:				
RMS_Total	1.57	.65	1.29	2.43*
CIFSS_Task_Total	1.81	1.78	.37	1.02
CIFSS_Task_Moderator	-.02	.03	-.64	-.91

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$; RMS = Racial Microaggressions Scale; CIFSS = Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations

REFERENCES

- Avery, J. J., Oh, D., & Cooper, J. (2021). Race and perceived immorality in stereotypes of criminal subtypes. *Basic & Applied Social Psychology, 43*(5), 307–318. <https://doi-org/10.1080/01973533.2021.1931220>
- Badiee, M., & Andrade, E. (2019). Microsystem and macrosystem predictors of Latinx college students' depression and anxiety. *Journal of Hispanic Higher Education, 18*(4), 422– 434. <https://doi-org/10.1177/1538192718765077>
- Barrita, A., Chang, R. & Wong-Padoongpatt, G. (2023). Assumptions of immigration status: A moderated mediation analysis of racial microaggressions and internalization impacting Latinx and Asian college students. *Social Psychology of Education. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-023-09792-0>*
- Bartman, Cynthia C. (2015). African American women in higher education: Issues and support strategies, *College Student Affairs Leadership: 2*(2), Article 5. <http://scholarworks.gvsu.edu/csdl/vol2/iss2/5>
- Blakemore, K. (2000). Health and social care needs in minority communities: an overproblematized issue? *Health & Social Care in the Community, 8*(1), 22–30. <https://doi-org/10.1046/j.1365-2524.2000.00224.x>
- Blume, A. W., Thyken, B. N., Lovato, L. V., & Denny, N. (2012). The relationship of microaggressions with alcohol use and anxiety among ethnic minority college students in a historically white institution. *Cultural Diversity & Ethnic Minority Psychology, 18*(1), 45–54. <https://doi-org/10.1037/a0025457>

- Boileau, L., Gaudreau, P., Gareau, A., & Chamandy, M. (2021). Some days are more satisfying than others: a daily-diary study on optimism, pessimism, coping, and academic satisfaction. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 91*(1), 46–62.
- Boysan, M. (2012). Validity of the coping inventory for stressful situations - short form (ciss-21) in a non-clinical Turkish sample. *Dusunen Adam: Journal of Psychiatry & Neurological Sciences, 25*(2), 101–107. <https://doi-org/10.5350/DAJPN2012250201>
- Broman, C. L. (2007). Perceived discrimination and alcohol use among Black and White college students. *Journal of Alcohol & Drug Education, 51*(1), 8–1
- Brown, J., Mulhern, G., & Joseph, S. (2002). Incident related stressors, locus of control, coping, and psychological distress among firefighters in Northern Ireland. *Journal of Traumatic Stress, 15*, 161-168.
- Cammarota, J. (2006). Disappearing in the Houdini education: The experience of race and invisibility among Latina/o students. *Multicultural Education, 14*(1), 2–10.
- Capers, K. J. (2019). Representation’s effect on Latinx college graduation rates. *Social Science Quarterly (Wiley-Blackwell), 100*(4), 1112–1128. <https://doi-org/10.1111/ssqu.12639>
- Chang, J., Wang, S., Mancini, C., McGrath-Mahrer, B., & Orama de Jesus, S. (2020). The complexity of cultural mismatch in higher education: Norms affecting first-generation college students’ coping and help-seeking behaviors. *Cultural Diversity & Ethnic Minority Psychology, 26*(3), 280–294. <https://doi-org/10.1037/cdp0000311>
- Chen, A. C.-C., Szalacha, L. A., & Menon, U. (2014). Perceived discrimination and its associations with mental health and substance use among Asian American and Pacific

- Islander undergraduate and graduate students. *Journal of American College Health*, 62(6), 390–398.
- Cheon, Y. M., & Yip, T. (2019). Longitudinal associations between ethnic/racial identity and discrimination among Asian and Latinx adolescents. *Journal of Youth & Adolescence*, 48(9), 1736–1753. <https://doi-org/10.1007/s10964-019-01055-6>
- Chun Li, Qing Liu, Ti Hu, & Xiaoyan Jin. (2017). Adapting the short form of the coping inventory for stressful situations into Chinese. *Neuropsychiatric Disease & Treatment*, 3, 1669–1675.
- Cohan, S. L., Jang, K. L., & Stein, M. B. (2006). Confirmatory factor analysis of a short form of the coping inventory for stressful situations. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 62(3), 273–283.
- Delucchi, M., & Do, H. D. (1996). The model minority myth and perceptions of Asian American- Americans as victims of racial harassment. *College Student Journal*, 30(3), 411
- Dixon, T. L. (2008). Network news and racial beliefs: Exploring the connection between national television news exposure and stereotypical perceptions of African Americans. *Journal of Communication*, 58(2), 321–337. <https://doi-org/10.1111/j.1460-2466.2008.00387.x>
- Donovan, R. A., & West, L. M. (2015). Stress and mental health: Moderating role of the strong black woman stereotype. *Journal of Black Psychology*, 41(4), 384–396. <https://doi-org/10.1177/0095798414543014>

- Eren Kurt, İ. & Akbaş, T. (2020). An investigation of the mediator role of dyadic coping in relation between parenting stress and marital quality. *İlköğretim Online*, 2118-2139 .
<https://doi-org/ilkonline.2020.763686>
- Farber, R., Wedell, E., Herchenroeder, L., Dickter, C. L., Pearson, M. R., & Bravo, A. J. (2021). Microaggressions and psychological health among college students: A moderated mediation model of rumination and social structure beliefs. *Journal of Racial and Ethnic Health Disparities*, 8(1), 245–255. <https://doi-org/10.1007/s40615-020-00778-8>
- Frese, M. (1986). Coping as a moderator and mediator between stress at work and psychosomatic complaints. In M. H. Appley & R. Trumbull (Eds.), *Dynamics of stress: Physiological, psychological, and social perspectives*. (pp. 183–206). Plenum Press.
- Gadson, C. A., & Lewis, J. A. (2021). Devalued, overdisciplined, and stereotyped: An exploration of gendered racial microaggressions among Black adolescent girls. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*. <https://doi-org/10.1037/cou0000571>
- Graff, C. S., McCain, T., & Gomez-Vilchis, V. (2013). Latina resilience in higher education: Contributing factors including seasonal farmworker experiences. *Journal of Hispanic Higher Education*, 12(4), 334–344.
- Greenfield, B. L., Elm, J. H. L., & Hallgren, K. A. (2021). Understanding measures of racial discrimination and microaggressions among American Indian and Alaska native college students in the southwest United States. *BMC Public Health*, 21(1), 1–14.
<https://doi-org/10.1186/s12889-021-11036-9>

- Hall, J. M., & Fields, B. (2015). “It’s Killing Us!” Narratives of Black adults about microaggression experiences and related health stress. *Global Qualitative Nursing Research*, 2, 1–14. <https://doi-org/10.1177/2333393615591569>
- Hanson, M. (2023, January 1). *College enrollment statistics [2023]: Total + by demographic*. Education Data Initiative. Retrieved January 4, 2023, from <https://educationdata.org/college-enrollment-statistics>
- Heard-Garris, N., Ekwueme, P. O., Gilpin, S., Sacotte, K. A., Perez-Cardona, L., Wong, M., & Cohen, A. (2021). Adolescents’ experiences, emotions, and coping strategies associated with exposure to media-based vicarious racism. *JAMA Network Open*, 4(6), e2113522.
- Hong, J. S., Lee, J., Caravita, S. C., Kim, S. E., & Peguero, A. A. (2022). Risk behaviors as correlates of victimization of U.S.-born and foreign-born Asian, Black, and Latinx adolescents in the United States. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development*, 2022(185–186), 67–90.
- Hune, S. (2002). Demographics and diversity of Asian American college students. *New Directions for Student Services*, 2002(97), 11.
- Huynh, V. (2012). Ethnic microaggressions and the depressive and somatic symptoms of Latino and Asian American adolescents. *Journal of Youth & Adolescence*, 41(7), 831– 846. <https://doi-org/10.1007/s10964-012-9756-9>
- Indicator 23: *Postsecondary graduation rates*. National Center for Education Statistics. (2019, February). Retrieved October 2, 2022, from https://nces.ed.gov/programs/raceindicators/indicator_RED.asp

- Jackson, A., Colson-Fearon, B., & Versey, H. S. (2022). Managing intersectional invisibility and hypervisibility during the transition to college among first-generation women of color. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 46(3), 354–371. <https://doi-org/10.1177/03616843221106087>
- James, S. A. (1994). John Henryism and the health of African-Americans. *Culture, Medicine & Psychiatry*, 18(2), 163. <https://doi-org/10.1007/BF01379448>
- Jenkins, L. N., McNeal, T., Eftaxas, D., Howell, J., & Wang, Q. (2022). Childhood trauma and college sexual harassment: Coping and resilience as moderators. *Journal of Child & Adolescent Trauma*, 15(2), 461–469. <https://doi-org/10.1007/s40653-021-00382-w>
- Jones, M. K., & Sam, T. S. (2018). Cultural connections: An ethnocultural counseling intervention for Black women in college. *Journal of College Counseling*, 21(1), 73–86. <https://doi-org/10.1002/jocc.12088>
- Kariv, D., & Heiman, T. (2005). Task-Oriented versus emotion-oriented coping strategies: the case of college students. *College Student Journal*, 39(1), 72–84.
- Keels, M., Durkee, M., & Hope, E. (2017). The Psychological and academic costs of school-based racial and ethnic microaggressions. *American Educational Research Journal*, 54(6), 1316–1344.
- Kiang, L., Glatz, T., & Buchanan, C. M. (2021). Developmental correlates of cultural parental self-efficacy among Asian and Latinx parents. *Journal of Child & Family Studies*, 30(10), 2563–2574. <https://doi-org/10.1007/s10826-021-02065-4>
- Kim, P. Y., Kendall, D. L., & Cheon, H.-S. (2017). Racial microaggressions, cultural mistrust, and mental health outcomes among Asian American college students.

- American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 87(6), 663–670. <https://doi-org/10.1037/ort0000203>
- Krogstad, J. M. (2016, July 28). *5 facts about Latinos and education*. Pew Research Center. Retrieved October 2, 2022, from <https://www.pewresearch.org>
- Kundu, A. (2019). Understanding college “burnout” from a social perspective: Reigniting the agency of low-income racial minority strivers towards achievement. *The Urban Review*, 51(5), 677–698. <https://doi-org/10.1007/s11256-019-00501-w>
- Landrine, H., Klonoff, E., Corral, I., Fernandez, S., & Roesch, S. (2006). Conceptualizing and measuring ethnic discrimination in health research. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 29(1), 79–94.
- Lemieux, C., Kim, Y., Brown, K. M., Chaney, C. D., Robertson, R. V., & Borskey, E. J. (2020). Assessing police violence and bias against Black U.S. Americans: Development and validation of the beliefs about law enforcement scale. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 56(4), 664–682. <https://doi-org/10.1080/10437797.2020.1764893>
- Lewis, J. A., Cameron, R. P., Kim, J. G. M., & Meyers, L. S. (2020). Examining the association between racial identity attitudes and coping with racism-related stress. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling & Development*, 48(2), 108–119. <https://doi-org/10.1002/jmcd.12169>
- Lilly, J. M. (2022). “It doesn’t matter how good the school is if you don’t learn to socialize”: Latinx immigrant students’ testimonios of coping with social isolation in high school. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 137, 1–9. <https://doi-org/10.1016/j.chilyouth.2022.106476>

- Folkman, S., Lazarus, R. S., Gruen, R. J., & DeLongis, A. (1986). Appraisal, coping, health status, and psychological symptoms. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 50*(3), 571.
- Lee, D. L., & Ahn, S. (2011). Racial discrimination and Asian American mental health: A meta-analysis. *Counseling Psychologist, 39*(3), 463–489.
- Lee, Y., & Song, Y. (2022). Coping as a mediator of the relationship between stress and anxiety in caregivers of patients with acute stroke. *Clinical Nursing Research, 31*(1), 136–143. <https://doi-org/10.1177/10547738211021223>
- Leath, S., & Chavous, T. (2018). Black women’s experiences of campus racial climate and stigma at predominantly white institutions: Insights from a comparative and within-group approach for STEM and non-STEM majors. *Journal of Negro Education, 87*(2), 125–139. <https://doi-org/10.7709/jnegroeducation.87.2.0125>
- Lewis, J., Mendenhall, R., Harwood, S., & Browne Huntt, M. (2013). Coping with gendered racial microaggressions among Black women college students. *Journal of African American Studies, 17*(1), 51–73. <https://doi-org/10.1007/s12111-012-9219-0>
- Lipson, S. K., Lattie, E. G., & Eisenberg, D. (2019). Increased rates of mental health service utilization by US college students: 10-year population-level trends (2007–2017). *Psychiatric Services, 70*(1), 60–63. <https://doi-org/10.1176/appi.ps.201800332>
- Litam, S. D. A., & Oh, S. (2022). Ethnic identity and coping strategies as moderators of covid-19 racial discrimination experiences among Chinese Americans. *Counseling Outcome Research & Evaluation, 13*(2), 101–115. <https://doi-org/10.1080/21501378.2020.1814138>

- Loveland, E. (2018). Creating a sense of community and belonging for Latinx students. *Journal of College Admission*, 241, 44–49.
- Lui, P. P. (2020). Racial microaggression, overt discrimination, and distress: (In)direct associations with psychological adjustment. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 48(4), 551–582. <https://doi-org/10.1177/0011000020901714>
- Mena, J. A., & Vaccaro, A. (2017). “I’ve Struggled, I’ve Battled”: Invisibility microaggressions experienced by women of color at a predominantly White institution. *NASPA Journal About Women in Higher Education*, 10(3), 301–318.
- Meneghel, I., Martínez, I. M., Salanova, M., & Witte, H. (2019). Promoting academic satisfaction and performance: Building academic resilience through coping strategies. *Psychology in the Schools*, 56(6), 875–890.
- Moody, A. T., & Lewis, J. A. (2019). Gendered racial microaggressions and traumatic stress symptoms among Black women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 43(2), 201–214. <https://doi-org/10.1177/0361684319828288>
- Mundia, L., & Shahrill, M. (2018). The impact of coping and help-seeking on university students’ academic achievements. *Electronic Journal of Research in Educational Psychology*, 16(44), 127–146.
- Nadal, K. L., Erazo, T., & King, R. (2019). Challenging definitions of psychological trauma: Connecting racial microaggressions and traumatic stress. *Journal for Social Action in Counseling & Psychology*, 11(2), 2–16. <https://doi-org/10.33043/jsacp.11.2.2-16>
- Noh, S., & Kaspar, V. (2003). Perceived discrimination and depression: Moderating effects of coping, acculturation, and ethnic support. *American Journal of Public Health*, 93(2), 232–238. <https://doi-org/10.2105/AJPH.93.2.232>

- O'Brien, K. R., McAbee, S. T., Hebl, M. R., & Rodgers, J. R. (2016). The impact of interpersonal discrimination and stress on health and performance for early career STEM academicians. *Frontiers in Psychology, 7*.
<https://doi.org/10.3389%2Ffpsyg.2016.00615>
- Palmer, R. T., & Maramba, D. C. (2015). Racial microaggressions among Asian American and Latino/a students at a historically Black university. *Journal of College Student Development, 56*(7), 705–722.
- Park, I. J. K., Schwartz, S. J., Lee, R. M., Kim, M., & Rodriguez, L. (2013). Perceived racial/ethnic discrimination and antisocial behaviors among Asian American college students: testing the moderating roles of ethnic and American identity. *Cultural Diversity & Ethnic Minority Psychology, 19*(2), 166–176. <https://doi-org/10.1037/a0028640>
- Park, C. J., & Rottinghaus, P. J. (2022). Academic satisfaction of women students of color in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics: Roles of discrimination, proactive personality, and critical consciousness. *Journal of Career Assessment, 1*. <https://doi-org/10.1177/10690727221116872>
- Parks, S. J., & Yoo, H. C. (2016). Does endorsement of the model minority myth relate to anti Asian American sentiments among White college students? The role of a color-blind racial attitude. *Asian American Journal of Psychology, 7*(4), 287–294.
<https://doi-org/10.1037/aap0000056>
- Parks, S. J., Yoo, H. C., & Tran, A. G. T. T. (2022). Does color-blind racial ideology moderate the internalization of the model minority myth on race-related stress among

- Asian American college students? *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*.
<https://doi-org/10.1037/dhe0000419.supp> (Supplemental)
- Parveen, S., & Shafiq, M. (2014). Mental health and coping among youth in Kashmir: Implications for psychological intervention. *Delhi Psychiatry Journal*, *17*(2), 295-302.
- Pearlin I. L., & Schooler, C. (1978). The structure of coping. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, *19*(1), 2-21. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2136319>
- Postsecondary National Policy Institute (2022, May 11). *Factsheets - Asian American and Pacific Islander students*. Retrieved January 4, 2023, from <https://pnpi.org/Asian-americans-and-pacific-islanders/>
- Rusticus, S. A., & Lovato, C. Y. (2014). Impact of sample size and variability on the power and type I error rates of equivalence tests: A simulation study. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation*, *19*(11). <https://doi.org/10.7275/4s9m-4e81>
- Sanchez, D., Adams, W. N., Arango, S. C., & Flannigan, A. E. (2018). Racial-ethnic microaggressions, coping strategies, and mental health in Asian American and Latinx American college students: A mediation model. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *65*(2), 214–225. <https://doi-org/10.1037/cou0000249>
- Schrivver, J., & Teske, N. (2020). Anticipating college graduation: The concerns and coping methods of college seniors. *Journal of The First-Year Experience & Students in Transition*, *32*(1), 79–95
- Shahid, N. N., Nelson, T., & Cardemil, E. V. (2018). Lift every voice: Exploring the stressors and coping mechanisms of Black college women attending predominantly White institutions. *Journal of Black Psychology*, *44*(1), 3–24

- Sinring, A., Aryani, F., & Umar, N. F. (2022). Examining the effect of self-regulation and psychological capital on the students' academic coping strategies during the covid-19 pandemic. *International Journal of Instruction*, 15(2), 487–500. <https://doi-org/10.29333/iji.2022.15227>
- Slavin, L. A., Rainer, K. L., McCreary, M. L., & Gowda, K. K. (1991). Toward a multicultural model of the stress process. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 70(1), 156–170. <https://doi-org/10.1002/j.1556-6676.1991.tb01578.x>
- SteelFisher, G. K., Findling, M. G., Bleich, S. N., Casey, L. S., Blendon, R. J., Benson, J. M., Sayde, J. M., & Miller, C. (2019). Gender discrimination in the United States: Experiences of women. *Health Services Research*, 54, 1442–1453. <https://doi-org/10.1111/1475-6773.13217>
- Sue, D. W., Capodilupo, C. M., Torino, G. C., Bucceri, J. M., Holder, A. M. B., Nadal, K. L., & Esquilin, M. (2007). Racial microaggressions in everyday life: Implications for clinical practice. *American Psychologist*, 62(4), 271–286.
- Robinson-Wood, T. L. (2009). Love, school, and money: Stress and cultural coping among ethnically diverse Black college women: A Mixed-Method Analysis. *Western Journal of Black Studies*, 33(2), 77–86.
- Shapiro, D., Dundar, A., Huie, F., Wakhungu, P., Yuan, X., Nathan, A & Hwang, Y., A. (2017, April). *A national view of student attainment rates by race and ethnicity – fall 2010 cohort* (Signature Report No. 12b). Herndon, VA: National Student Clearinghouse Research Center.

- Spanierman, L. B., Clark, D. A., & Kim, Y. (2021). Reviewing racial microaggressions research: Documenting targets' experiences, harmful sequelae, and resistance strategies. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 16*(5), 1037–1059.
- Sue, D., Capodilupo, C., Torino, G., Bucceri, J., Holder, A., Nadal, K., ... Esquilin, M. (2007). Racial microaggressions in everyday life: Implications for clinical practice. *American Psychologist, 62*, 271-286. doi:10.1037/0003-066X. 62.4.271
- Szymanski, D. M., & Lewis, J. A. (2016). Gendered racism, coping, identity centrality, and African American college women's psychological distress. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 40*(2), 229–243. <https://doi-org/10.1177/0361684315616113>
- Tan, G. (2019). Asian American Americans in today's U.S. higher education: An overview of their challenges and recommendations for practitioners. *Journal of Student Affairs, 15*, 9-19.
- National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) homepage, part of the U.S. Department of Education. (2020). *The Condition of Education*. National Center for Education Statistics (NCES). Retrieved September 17, 2022, from <https://nces.ed.gov/>
- Torres, L., & Taknint, J. T. (2015). Ethnic microaggressions, traumatic stress symptoms, and Latino depression: A moderated mediational model. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 62*, 393. doi:10.1037/cou0000077
- Velez, B. L., Cox Jr., R., Polihronakis, C. J., & Moradi, B. (2018). Discrimination, work outcomes, and mental health among women of color: The protective role of womanist attitudes. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 65*(2), 178–193. <https://doi-org/10.1037/cou0000274>

- Versey, H. S., & Curtin, N. (2016). The differential impact of discrimination on health among Black and White women. *Social Science Research, 57*, 99–115.
- Washington, N. C. (1992). *Effective Coping Strategies Employed in African-American Relationships*. [conference presentation]. APA Annual Convention, Washington D.C.
- Watanabe, K., Yokoyama, K., & Furukawa, T. A. (2015). Reliability and validity of the Japanese version of the coping inventory for adults for stressful situations in healthy people. *Psychological Reports, 116*(2), 447–469. <https://doi-org/10.2466/08.02.PR0.116k23w6>
- Wei, M., Heppner, P. P., Ku, T.-Y., & Liao, K. Y.-H. (2010). Racial discrimination stress, coping, and depressive symptoms among Asian American Americans: A moderation analysis. *Asian American Journal of Psychology, 1*(2), 136–150. <https://doi-org/10.1037/a0020157>
- Williams, M. G., & Lewis, J. A. (2019). Gendered racial microaggressions and depressive symptoms among Black women: A moderated mediation model. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 43*(3), 368–380. <https://doi-org/10.1177/0361684319832511>
- Zamani, E. (2003). African American women in higher education. *New Directions for Student Services, 2003*(104). <https://doi.org/10.1002/ss.103>

VITA

Anum Khalid was born March 20th, 1998, in Elmhurst, Illinois. She has spent most of her life living in Lee's Summit Missouri and graduated from Blue Springs South High School in 2016. She completed her bachelor's degree in psychology from the University of Missouri-Kansas City in 2019. After working as a direct care specialist at McCallum Place for Eating Disorders, Anum began her doctoral program in clinical psychology at the University of Missouri-Kansas City in August of 2020.

Upon completion of her degree requirements for her master's degree, Anum plans to complete her doctoral degree requirements and ultimately pursue a clinical career focusing on therapy and psychological assessment.