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COPING WITH RACIAL MICROAGGRESSIONS:

THE MODERATING EFFECTS OF PARENTING STYLE

by

Quintin Talley

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Maria Do

Chair, Thesis Committee   Date   _12·17·13_

Leonie Brooks

Committee Member   Date   _12/9/13_

Bryan

Committee Member   Date   _12/9/13_

_____   _____
Committee Member   Date

_____   _____
Committee Member   Date

Janet V DeLany

Dean of Graduate Studies   Date   _12-16-13_

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Abstract

**COPING WITH RACIAL MICROAGGRESSIONS:
THE MODERATING EFFECTS OF PARENTING STYLE**

Quintin Talley

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between race-related stress and coping strategies, and to examine the influence that parenting style has on coping with race-related stress specifically elicited by racial microaggressions. Literature suggests that parenting style influences various aspects of behavior throughout one's lifetime, including coping tendencies. However, there is a dearth of research which examines how parenting styles (Baumrind, 1966, 1971; Maccoby & Martin, 1983) moderate coping strategies that racial/ethnic minorities use to cope with race-related stress induced by racial microaggressions, a contemporary, prevalent, and chronic form of racism. This study addresses this gap in research by studying how parenting style effects coping strategies used by adults (N=263) for race-related stress related to racial microaggressions. The study consisted of self-report data collected from an online survey. Most participants were undergraduate students recruited through a University research pool. Regression analyses indicated that authoritative parenting moderated the relationship between race-related stress and coping with discrimination. Implications of these findings and directions for future research are discussed.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter I

<div align="center">Introduction</div>

For a number of years, researchers have studied how individuals cope with distress (e.g.,

Ben-Zur, 2009; Carpenter, Laney, & Mezulis, 2012; Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989);

however, there is a limited amount of research regarding how individuals cope with the

psychological distress brought on by racial discrimination (Wei, Alvarez, Ku, Russell, & Bonett,

2010). Existing research has indicated that parenting influences coping (Power, 2004), and that

parents may teach their children coping strategies to deal with racism (Mellor, 2004). Although

research supports that parenting style can moderate how effectively individuals cope with general

stressors (Power, 2004), the literature also suggests that the distress caused by racism and

discrimination is somewhat unique, and may require the use of different coping strategies than

would be used for general stressors (Mellor, 2004; Wei et al., 2010). Thus, there remains a gap in

research which examines how parenting style (Baumrind 1966, 1971; Maccoby & Martin, 1983)

may moderate coping with racism (Smalls, 2009). Additionally, no research has examined the

possibility of parenting style moderating effective coping strategies specifically used by racial

minorities in response to perceived race-related stress due to racial microaggressions, a

modernized form of racism. Thus, this study seeks to examine the relationships between parenting

style and coping strategies used by racial minorities for perceived race-related stress due to racial

microaggressions.

Racial Microaggressions

The term *racial microaggression* was coined in 1970 by Chester Pierce. Pierce (1970)

described racial microaggressions as offensive mechanisms that Whites and Blacks often use

against each other. Pierce (1970) stated that racial microaggressions are different from macro level

racism (e.g. lynchings) in that microaggressions are more subtle, yet stunning, forms of racism. Sue, Capodilupo, and associates (2007), based on the work of Pierce (1970), reported a modernized perspective of racial microaggressions. Sue, Capodilupo, and his colleagues (2007) noted that in recent years, racism in America has undergone a transformation. In past times, Sue and colleagues suggested that racism in North America was more overt and socially accepted; whereas today, acts of blatant racism have become more taboo. Contrary to Pierce (1970), Sue, Capodilupo et al. (2007) argued that contemporary racist acts occur often in more unconscious and ambiguous ways in the form of racial microaggressions. Other terms for contemporary racism are *aversive racism, symbolic racism,* or *modern racism* (Dovidio, Gaertner, Kawakami, & Hodson, 2002; McConahay, 1986; Sears, 1988).

A growing area of research in the field of psychology involves the psychological and emotional effects of racial microaggressions on individuals (Sue, Capodilupo et al., 2007; Torres, Driscoll, & Burrow, 2010; Wang, Leu, & Shoda, 2011). Racial microaggressions are defined as commonplace slights, insults, and degradations toward persons of color, and can either be committed consciously or unconsciously by the offender (Sue, Capodilupo et al., 2007). These disparaging acts are committed so often and are so frequently perceived as innocuous, that they often go unnoticed by the offender (Sue, Bucceri, Lin, Nadal, & Torino, 2007). Nadal (2011) suggested that these racial insults are often committed by individuals who have non-racist and egalitarian self-perceptions; however, their biases and prejudices sometimes manifest in a subtle, unconscious manner. For example, a microaggression that African Americans sometimes report experiencing is called an *Assumption of Intellectual Inferiority* (Sue, Nadal et al., 2008). In this case, the microaggressor says something like, "You are so articulate." or "You speak so well." Although the statements are intended as compliments, they are often perceived as insults because

the receiver may think that the microaggressor believes that he or she is an exception to his or her racial group. Another example of racial microaggressions are *microinvalidations* or "color-blindness," where White individuals nullify the unique experiential realities of persons of color by making statements such as, "I don't see color" (Sue, Capodilupo et al., 2007, p. 274).

Since racial microaggressions and other types of racism take many forms and can occur in numerous settings, they are likely to be experienced by racial minorities in multiple contexts (Landrine & Klonoff, 1996). In light of this evidence, race-related stress can be considered a persistent, pervasive problem (Wei et al., 2010). The literature indicates that racial microaggressions can be also experienced by Whites; however, the association with the experience and a subsequent negative emotional reaction tends to be less consistent and far weaker than with racial minorities (Wang et al., 2011). In the current study, racial microaggressions represent race-related stressors. For clarity, the stressor is racial microaggressions or the stimulus that causes the stress; whereas, race-related stress is the reaction to those stimuli.

Race-Related Stress

Research suggests that approximately 80% of racial minorities have experienced some form of racial discrimination (Krieger, 1990). The psychological, emotional, and physiological distress elicited by racism and discrimination is referred to as race-related stress (See Forsyth & Carter, 2012; Utsey & Ponterotto, 1996; Waelde et al., 2010). Race-related stress has been linked to a multitude of problems, including depression, anxiety, alcoholism (Blume, Lovato, Thyken, & Deny, 2012), high blood pressure (Pascoe & Smart Richman, 2009), drug abuse and dependence, eating disorders (Chou, Asnaani, & Hofman, 2012), increased infant mortality rates (Giscombé & Lobel, 2005), and a number of other mental disorders and physiological problems (Wei et al., 2010). Meta-analyses examining sixty-six research studies concluded that negative mental health

was positively correlated to exposure to racist events and higher perceived race-related stress, and

that race-related stress can yield deleterious mental health effects similar to those elicited by

trauma (Pieterse, Todd, Neville, & Carter, 2012). Recent studies have found that racial minorities

report a high prevalence of experiencing unfair treatment, prejudice, or discrimination based on

race (Chou et al., 2012; Nadal, 2011). Other research indicates that racial discrimination and

mistreatment is still a prevalent stressor amongst various communities of racial minorities, and its

negative effects alarmingly impact health, employment, incarceration rates, and general living

conditions within these communities (Mellor, 2004). The literature suggests that experiences of

racism or racial discrimination can yield varying amounts or race-related stress (Carter &

Reynolds, 2011). In the current study, race-related stress is presumed to be elicited by racial

microaggressions.

Parenting Style

Some research suggests that parenting style is one of the main influences that affect the

way in which individuals cope with stress (Clark, Novak, & Dupree, 2002; Gaylord-Harden,

Campbell, & Kesselring; Power, 2004). Parenting styles are defined as relatively stable,

typological patterns of parental behavior which include attitudes toward disciplinary action,

responsiveness to child's needs, and assertion of parental control (Brodski & Hutz, 2012). The

literature suggests that racial and cultural influences impact parenting style (Chao, 1994; Cooper

& McLoyd, 2011; Skinner, MacKenzie, Haggerty, Hill, & Roberson, 2011). Studies suggest that

between races, parents have different tendencies to implement certain parenting styles (Chao,

1994). For example, research holds that Asian parents tend to be more strict or *authoritarian* (See

Review of Literature for explanations of specific parenting styles). However, research supports

that there are similarities regarding parenting and children's behavioral outcomes between races as

well (Skinner et al., 2011). In other words, use of parenting style may differ between races, but behavioral outcomes associated with certain parenting styles appear to generalize across races. For instance, Skinner and associates (2011) found that although African American and European families tend to have differing parenting styles, the behavioral outcomes of youth reared by these styles are very similar.

Coping with Race-Related Stress

Pascoe and Smart Richman's meta-analysis (2009) found only nine studies regarding how individuals cope with stress caused by racial discrimination; however, the researchers reported that certain coping strategies mediate the relationship between race-related stress and mental health, physical health, and stress responses in most cases. Only recently has a measure been developed that specifically assesses coping with racial discrimination (Wei et al., 2010). Moreover, few studies have examined strategies used to assuage the race-related stress caused by racial microaggressions, a prevalent, contemporary form of racism (Nadal, 2011; Sue, Capodilupo et al., 2007). Wei and associates (2010) identified five types of coping strategies that people tend to use for coping with discrimination (See Review of Literature: Coping with race-related stress/racism section). Of these five strategies, the current focus is primarily on *Education/Advocacy* coping (educating the perpetrator about the negative effects of discrimination), *Drug and Alcohol Use* coping (Avoiding negative emotions associated with experiencing discrimination by using drugs or alcohol), and *Detachment* coping (not doing anything to regulate negative emotional reactions to experiencing discrimination). The first coping strategy is considered a healthier coping strategy associated with positive affect (e.g. joy), while the latter two ways of coping are related to negative affect (e.g. anger; Ben-Zur, 2009). Power (2004) suggests that authoritative parenting

often yields healthier coping skills in children in comparison to parents who use authoritarian or permissive parenting.

Statement of the Problem

Considering that research suggests that microaggressions are a commonly experienced form of contemporary racism (Nadal, 2011; Sue, Capodilupo et al. 2007) which may affect physical and mental health (Pascoe & Richman, 2009; Pieterse et al.; Wang et al., 2011), research regarding how racial minorities cope with racial microaggressions is vital. The subtlety of modern racism carries an extra element of distress, where the receiver often feels obligated to not overreact to seemingly harmless statements or behaviors. This presents a catch-22 for the receiver, who is insulted by the microaggressor, but also feels restricted in how he or she can react to the microaggression (Sue, Capodilupo et al. 2007). Research supports that the ambiguity or subtlety of racial microaggressions may be more detrimental to recipients' psychological and physical wellbeing than more overt forms of racism (Wang et al., 2011) Therefore, there is a great need to understand how racial/ethnic minorities cope with the race-related stress which microaggressions induce. Moreover, past research suggests that parenting style is a major influence on individuals' coping ability (Power, 2004); however, the literature mainly focuses on coping with general stress and stressors (Forsyth & Carter, 2012). Race-related stressors and associated stress are fairly unique and may require certain uncommon coping strategies (Mellor, 2004; Wei et al., 2010). To address the aforementioned gaps in the literature, the current research seeks to answer the following:

1) To what extent do racial microaggressions (stimuli), perceived race-related stress, and parenting style, relate to strategies used to cope with discrimination?

2) Do parenting styles moderate the relationship between race-related stress and coping strategy for discrimination (See Figure 1)?

In the current study, it is expected that participants with negligent and authoritarian parents will use less healthy coping strategies (e.g. detachment or using drugs and alcohol) to cope with race-related stress (See Nijhof and Engels (2005). However, participants with authoritative parents are expected use more facilitative coping strategies, such as educating the perpetrator. In essence, it is expected that parenting styles buffer or moderate the relationship between race-related stress and coping with discrimination in the before mentioned manner. The current study extends the literature by examining parental figures chosen by the participant, rather than mothers only (e.g., Hardy, Power, & Jaedicke, 1993). Much like Nijhof and Engels (2006), the primary investigator focuses on parenting style and coping among late adolescents and adults.
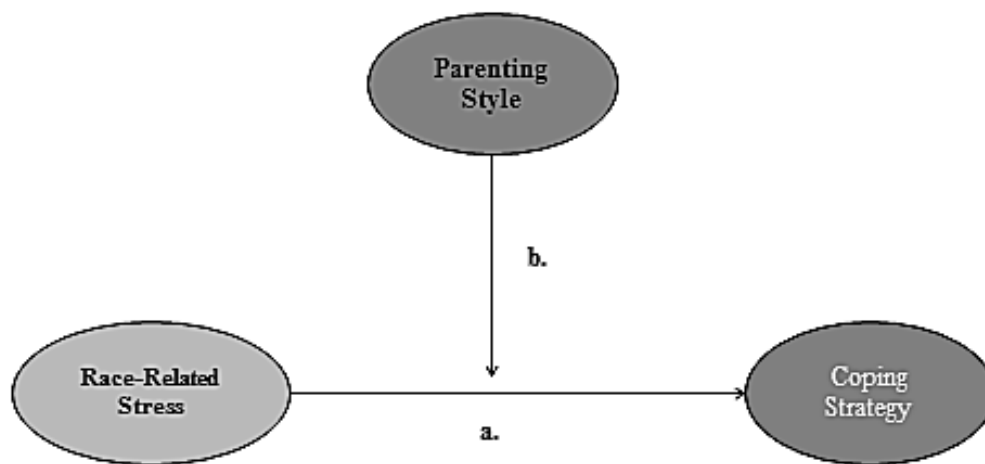
Figure 1. Parenting style as a moderator of coping strategy used to ameliorate race-related stress elicited by perceived racial microaggressions. Figure shows the relationship between Race-Related Stress and Coping Strategy (a.), the possible impact of Parenting Style as a moderator (b.).

Hypotheses

Based on aforementioned research findings and those discussed in the following sections, the following hypotheses are proposed.

H1a. Regarding the experiences of microaggressive acts, racial minorities will report experiencing more racial microaggressions on average than Caucasians.

H1b. Participants who identify their ethnicity as "White, Caucasian, European, or Non-Hispanic" will have a lower average score on the measure of experienced racial microaggressions than all other ethnicities.

H1c. The results should yield a strong positive correlation between the frequency of experienced microaggressive events and race-related stress.

H1d. Permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative parenting will be positively correlated with the use of coping strategies for discrimination (total coping with discrimination).

H1e. Based on the literature, a moderate to strong positive correlation between authoritative parenting and problem-focused coping strategies (i.e. educating others about the negative impact of discrimination, educating oneself to be better equipped to deal with discrimination) is expected to emerge.

H1f. It is also expected that there will be a moderate to strong positive correlation between permissive parenting, authoritarian parenting, and the use of detachment and drug/alcohol misuse coping strategies.

H2a. Parenting style will moderate the strength and direction of the relationship between race-related stress and the use of coping strategies for racial discrimination.

H2b. Authoritative parenting will be a significant predictor of education/advocacy coping, where high authoritative parenting will yield high use of education/advocacy coping.

H2c. Permissive parenting and authoritative parenting will be significant predictors of drug/alcohol use and detachment coping, where high permissive and high authoritarian parenting will correspond to high drug/alcohol use and detachment coping.

Exploratory Hypotheses

Several exploratory analyses will be conducted, examining other relevant variables from Appendix F (Demographics Questionnaire) as well. The following are hypotheses regarding exploratory analyses.

H3. There will be at least a moderate negative correlation between the number of years spent in the United States and both race-related stress and the frequency of experienced microaggressions.

H4. It is our hypothesis that there will be a strong negative correlation between mean race-related stress and perception of physical health (item 9 from Appendix F).

Chapter II
Review of Literature

In this review of literature, the author reports the findings and research implications from several studies and scientific journal articles which are relevant to the current study. The overall goal of reviewing the following research is to explain the nuances of the variables being used in the current study. Reviewed research will highlight gaps in research pertaining to racial microaggressions, race-related stress, parenting style and coping with discrimination.

Racial Microaggressions

Racial microaggressions are everyday occurrences, which are often indirect and can sometimes be nonverbal (Pierce, Carew, Pierce-Gonzalez, & Willis, 1978). According to Pierce (1970), any one racially microaggressive act is fairly harmless; however, the cumulative effect of multiple microaggressions may cause great harm to the victim. Pierce (1970) also explained that racial microaggressions are mechanisms that lead to earlier demise and higher morbidity rates among Black individuals. He stated that, psychologically, the frequent uses of microaggressions are as, "…perpetrated, and calculated murders by the white offender" (Pierce, 1970, p. 268). Such strong statements are an indication of Pierce's (1970) ideas regarding racial microaggressions and their attribution to the drastic psychological damage of racial minorities. From Pierce's perspective, racism in society is an illness which is comprised of an accumulation of microaggressive acts driven by offensive mechanisms. In other words, Pierce explained that society teaches Whites to be offensive toward Blacks; therefore, in daily White-Black interactions, microaggressive acts are often automatic or happen inevitably. Pierce (1970) suggested that this type of offensive racism often stems from superiority feelings by majority races (See Adler, 1927). These acts can either be committed consciously or unconsciously (Pierce, 1970).

Sue, Capodilupo et al. (2007) suggested that contemporary racism is often synonymously called *aversive racism, symbolic racism, or modern racism* (Dovidio, Gaertner, Kawakami, & Hodson, 2002; McConahay, 1986; Sears, 1988). Sue, Capodilupo et al. (2007) explained that racial microaggressions, aversive racism, symbolic racism, and modern racism share two common qualities: they are often disguised, covert, or unconsciously committed, and they are an evolution of old fashioned racism or bigotry which is intentionally committed. Contemporary racism, Sue et al. (2007) explained, is often seen in political conservatives who cling devoutly to traditional American values in order to mask racist beliefs. Sue, Capodilupo et al. (2007) argues that contemporary racism occurs often, is frequently directed toward racial minorities. Those who have tendencies to commit modernized racist acts often view themselves as egalitarian and are often unaware of their internal racist beliefs (DeVos & Banaji, 2005). Research suggests that the subtlety and ambiguity that characterizes contemporary microaggressive acts may invoke more shocking psychological distress and racial anger than other old-fashioned forms of racism (Solorzano, Ceja, & Yosso, 2000; Sue, Capodilupo et al., 2007).

Sue, Capodilupo, and associates (2007) defined three forms of racial microaggressions: *microassaults, microinsults,* and *microinvalidations*. Microassaults are more similar to old-fashioned racism in that they are overt and intended to directly offend or hurt the recipient. Microassaults are more likely to be consciously committed; however, they are more likely committed out of anger or when the committer feels that it is safe to do so. Examples of microassaults include intentional name-calling (e.g. calling someone "colored," or "oriental,") or other intentional, blatant mistreatment of racial/ethnic minorities. Microinsults, which are often unconsciously committed, convey rudeness or insensitivity to the recipient, and are sometimes nonverbal. Although microinsults are not necessarily as aggressive or direct as microassaults, they

are perceived that way by the recipient. If an African American college student is assumed to have

been admitted into a school solely due to athletic ability or affirmative action, the event is likely to

be perceived as a microinsult by that student. Microinvalidations are described as verbal

nullifications of minorities' experiential realities. Perpetrators of microinvalidations typically

downplay upsetting experiences or racial inequality, discrimination, or racial insults. For example,

a microinvalidation may occur when a racial minority feels as if he or she has been discriminated

against, and a White individual invalidates or disregards that minority's negative feelings. Sue,

Capodilupo et al. (2007) suggested that there are certain problematic dynamics regarding the

invisibility of racial microaggressions. They suggested that the power of racial microaggressions

come from the ambiguousness or invisibility of them to the committer or the recipient (Sue, 2005).

Sue, Capodilupo et al. (2007) explained that because most White Americans perceive themselves

as moral, non-biased individuals, it is hard for these individuals to face the possibility of harboring

racist or discriminatory feelings toward minorities; therefore, subtle microaggressive acts are often

concealed by valid, non-biased rationales. Furthermore, because these acts tend to be validated by

non-biased rationales or microinvalidations, recipients are often unsure how to react to

experiencing such microaggressive acts or are unsure if they have been mistreated at all.

       Sue, Bucceri, Lin, Nadal, and Torino (2007) highlighted that the psychological effects of

racism on Asian Americans are often overshadowed by focus on racist interactions between

Blacks and Whites. Sue, Bucceri et al. (2007, p. 72) suggested that Asian Americans are often

viewed as "model minorities," and the effects of racism in the form of racial microaggression has

less effect on them than it does on other races (Sue, Bucceri et al., 2007; Wong & Halgin, 2006).

In a focus group analysis, the researchers sought to qualitatively identify the various forms of

microaggressions specifically directed at Asian Americans. Ten self-identified Asian Americans

(1 male, 9 female) were recruited from a local university and neighborhood. All Asian American

participants, who were either in their mid-20s or early 40's, had various ethnic backgrounds (e.g.

Chinese, Filipino, Korean American). Participants were interviewed in a semi-structural manner.

A method similar to consensual qualitative research (CQR; Hill et al., 2005) was used to identify

eight race-specific microaggressive themes (i.e. *Alien in Own Land, Ascription of Intelligence,*

Denial or Racial Reality, Exoticization of Asian American Women, Invalidation of Interethnic

Differences, Pathologizing Cultural Values/Communication Styles, Second Class Citizenship, and

Invisibility).

The authors described these themes as examples of microaggressions against Asian

Americans. For example, Sue, Bucceri et al. (2007) defined the microaggression alien in own land

as slights that denote that one cannot possibly be a genuine American, and are somehow less or

unequal to other Americans. Ascriptions of intelligence include stereotypical thinking and

comments that suggest that all Asian Americans are intelligent in certain ways (e.g. "You people

are all good in math"). Denials of racial identity included harmful invalidations of Asian American

racial identity, which suggested that Asian Americans do not experience racism or discrimination.

Exoticization of Asian American women included stereotypical ideas and actions toward Asian

American women which give the receiver the impression that they are only needed to satisfy the

physical or sexual needs of White men. The failure to acknowledge the ethnic or cultural

differences amongst Asian Americans are what define invalidation of interethnic differences (e.g.

asking a Filipina woman if she is Chinese, or assuming all Asian Americans are either Chinese or

Japanese). Pathologizing cultural values/communication styles included instances which pressure

Asian Americans to conform to the cultural norms of Western society (e.g. scolding a Chinese

American student for not being more verbal in class without considering the Chinese cultural

value of silence). Second class citizenship involved unequal treatment in comparison to White

Americans in settings such as restaurants, theaters, or other public places. Invisibility involves the

idea that Asian Americans are not seen as racial minorities, and that Asians in America are not

included in discussions about race relations.

Sue, Bucceri et al.'s study (2007) underscored that, contrary to the focus of Pierce (1970),

racial microaggressions affect racial minorities other than Black Americans. Furthermore, this

study stressed the importance of better understanding the prevalent psychological distress

associated with racial microaggressions. Research has also shown that microaggressions are

similarly harmful to other races, such as Latino Americans and American Indians (Clark,

Spanierman, Reed, Soble, & Cabana, 2011; Solorzano, Allen, & Carroll, 2002).

Nadal (2011), with the purpose of better understanding the types of racial

microaggressions and how people experience them, conducted a series of studies to construct an

instrument for measuring racial microaggressions. The Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale

(Nadal, 2011; REMS), was developed and validated by two studies: an exploratory principle-

components analysis using a sample of 443 participants (108 male, and 335 female), and a

confirmatory factor analysis with a new sample of 218 participants (51 male, and 166 female).

The REMS (Nadal, 2011) measures six types of racial microaggressions: Assumptions of

Inferiority, Second Class Citizen/Assumptions of Criminality, Microinvalidations,

Exoticization/Assumptions of Similarity, Environmental Microaggressions, and Workplace and

School Microaggressions. Assumptions of inferiority included instances where racial minorities

are assumed to be inferior in class, socioeconomic status, or education due to one's race (Nadal,

2011). Second class citizen/assumptions of criminality involved two types of microaggressive

acts. Second class citizen involved instances where racial minorities are not given the same service

or equal treatment in a number of settings such as restaurants, theaters, public transportation, or

other public places (Nadal, 2011; Sue, Capodilupo et al., 2007). Assumptions of criminality

included being made to feel as if one is a criminal or is about to engage in criminal activity

because of one's race (Sue, Capodilupo et al., 2007). Microinvalidations were explained above as

nullifications of minorities' unique experiences. Exoticization/assumptions of similarity are

committed when individuals infer that all individuals within a given race exhibit the same

characteristics, have the same likes and dislikes, or all look the same. Environmental

microaggressions were described as being manifested in a number of settings, often making the

receiver feel as if he or she does not belong or is unimportant because one is not a member of the

dominant race (Sue, Capodilupo et al., 2007). Environmental microaggressions also were

described as stereotypical ideas or thoughts regarding the values that certain minorities should

have (e.g., people of color don't value education; Sue, Capodilupo et al., 2007). Finally,

workplace and school microaggressions included being treated unfairly, discrimination, or being

ignored because of one's race while at school or at work (Nadal, 2011).

     The development of the REMS (Nadal, 2011) has significant implications for

microaggressions research. The measure revealed the complexity and the subjectivity in which

racial microaggressions tend to be experienced. The measure enables racial minorities to identify

microaggressive acts and to recognize that these microaggressions occur due to race related factors

(Nadal, 2011). Although Nadal (2011) noted some limitations to this research (e.g., homogeneous/

unrepresentative sample, measure relies on possibly invalid self-report data, only a small percent

of variance accounted for by the entire scale), it was suggested that future researchers use the

REMS to examine the effects of racial microaggressions on coping mechanisms, which is partly

the purpose of the author's research.

Torres-Harding, Andrade, and Romero Diaz (2012) conducted a similar investigation as Nadal

(2011). The researchers created a similar measure (The Racial Microaggressions Scale [RMAS])

of the frequency and stress associated with racial microaggressions (stressors) based on the

taxonomy of Sue, Capodilupo et al. (2007). The measure was used to collect data on 377

participants (94 men and 282 women). The assessment recorded various experiences of racial

microaggressions from the sample. The measure also revealed that certain patterns of racial

microaggressions were experienced across race (e.g. Latino participants reported more experiences

of not belonging or being an alien in one's own land). Considering how recently this measure was

developed and the frequency of participants' reported racial microaggressive experiences, this

study further emphasizes the importance of better understanding the pervasiveness of racial

microaggressions and associated stress in Western society presently (Torres-Harding et al., 2012).

Although the measure created by Torres-Harding et al. (2012) is more recent, the author used a

modified version of the REMS (Nadal, 2011) to measure racial microaggressions (stressors) and

associated stress (race-related stress) in the current study. The modified REMS was used because

of time constraints related to Towson University's IRB submission deadlines. The use of the

measure created by Torres-Harding et al. (2012) may be considered in follow up research (See

Future Research Directions section).

Race-Related Stress

        According to Utsey and Ponterotto (1996), race-related stress can be defined as the stress

experienced from being subjected to racism. In other words, perceived racism or racial

discrimination induces race-related stress. Racist experiences and associated stress can occur in

three ways: individually, institutionally, or culturally (Essed, 1990). A wealth of research exists

that indicate that race-related stress is linked with depression, anxiety, psychological distress, and

other deleterious physiological health issues (Chou et al., 2012; Pascoe & Richman, 2009; Pieterse

et al., 2012).

A meta-analysis by Pascoe and Richman (2009) further examined research regarding the

deleterious effects of race-related stress brought on by experiences of racism and the causal

pathways between racism and detriments to physical health. Upon analyzing 134 samples, Pascoe

and Richman found that the perception of racism and discrimination contributed to heightened

psychological and physiological stress responses in racial/ethnic minorities. Notably, 110 studies

indicated a positive relationship between perceived discrimination and depressive symptoms,

anxiety symptoms, posttraumatic stress symptoms, psychosis, and paranoia. Furthermore, the

researchers concluded that perceived racial stress increases the probability that one is clinically

diagnosed with a mental illness. Regarding physical health, 36 studies suggested that there is a

relationship between perceived discrimination and negative physical health outcomes. The

researchers found positive relationships between race-related stress and hypertension,

cardiovascular disease, diabetes, yeast infections, respiratory conditions, nausea, and other

physical pain (Pascoe & Richman, 2009). Also, higher perceptions of discrimination were

correlated with higher cortisol secretions; higher prevalence and accelerated progression of certain

diseases. The researchers also concluded that higher perceived discrimination may be associated

with more frequent engagement in unhealthy behaviors (e.g. smoking, alcohol use, substance use),

due to impaired self-control brought on by discriminatory experiences (Inzlicht, McKay, &

Aronson, 2006: Pascoe & Richman, 2009).

Pieterse and associates (2012) focused on the relationships between racism and the mental

health of Black Americans. Sixty-six studies provided sufficient data for the researchers'

conclusions. Overall, the researchers found that negative mental health was positively correlated to

exposure to racist events and higher perceived race-related stress (Pieterse et al., 2012). The

researchers concluded that certain experiences of racism can elicit stress responses similar to those

elicited by trauma (Pieterse et al., 2012). Robust support was also found regarding the link

between racism and self-reported anxiety and depression among Black Americans as well.

Huynh, Devos, and Dunbar (2012) conducted a study to examine the psychological distress

associated with repeatedly experiencing racist events. Using a sample of 168 Latino/a participants

(age 18 to 25) of various ethnic backgrounds (e.g. Hispanic, Chicano, Mexican), Huynh et al.

(2012) found that there was an association between the frequency and stressfulness of racist events

and psychological distress (e.g. depression and anxiety). The participants (128 female and 40

male) were recruited from a west coastal U.S. university. They completed assessments related to

several racist events, perceived stress, depression, and anxiety symptoms. The researchers found

that the frequency, rather than how stressful the event was, was associated with high depression

and anxiety symptoms. These findings coincided with the taxonomy of Sue, Capodilupo, and

associates (2007) in that the subtle, stunning, and frequent natures of racial microaggressions are

what make them so psychologically draining and stressful.

In another study of race-related stress, Chou et al., (2012) examined the link between the

psychological disorders and race-related stress among Asian Americans, Hispanic Americans, and

African Americans. The goal of this study was to assess the link between reported perceptions of

racism and validation of DSM-IV mood, anxiety, eating, and substance use disorders. The sample

consisted of 4,593 Asian American, Hispanic American, and African American participants

(approximately 2056 male, and 2537 female) who were all over the age of 18. Across the three

racial groups examined, the researchers found that perceived racism was associated with high rates

of endorsing various types of psychological disorders such as major depressive disorder, panic

disorder with agoraphobia, posttraumatic stress disorder, and substance disorders. These results

suggest that there is an association between perceptions of racism and psychopathology among the

three most common ethnic minorities in America. The following sections examine parenting styles

and differences across race.

Parenting Style

Researchers have identified four identified types of parenting style: Authoritarian*,

Authoritative, Indulgent, and *Negligent* (Baumrind, 1966, 1971; Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

According to this taxonomy, the four types of parenting style exert varying amounts of demand

and responsiveness to children's needs (see Review of Literature; Brodski & Hutz, 2012). Of the

four identified parenting styles, authoritative parenting is generally said to be most strongly related

to the more resilient and psychologically well-adjusted children (Alizadeh, Abu Talib, Abdullah,

& Mansor, 2011; Baumrind, 1991), whereas negligent parenting has been shown to yield more

maladjusted, socially incompetent adolescents (Santrock, 2008). In regards to coping, research

supports that authoritative parenting typically facilitates healthier coping abilities in children

while, parenting styles that are overly controlling, disregarding, or overly punitive often hinder

children's development of healthy coping abilities (Power, 2004). According to Power, children

require a moderate amount of exposure to distressing events and parental guidance in order to

learn effectively how to cope with these events, which is more likely to happen with authoritative

parenting. Overprotection and overbearingness, as is typically displayed in authoritarian parenting,

tends to hinder the facilitation of children's learning efficacious coping strategies due to lack of

exposure to stressors (See Power, 2004; Williams, Ciarrochi, & Heaven, 2012). In the case of the

current study, racial microaggressions are the stressors or distressing events being examined.

Parents who use the *Authoritarian* style assert a high level of demand or control over their children while showing relatively low responsiveness to the child's concerns (Baumrind, 1966, 1971; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Authoritarian parents tend to be highly disciplinary and intolerant of disobedience from their children, which stimulates a sense of low autonomy for the child (Brodski & Hutz, 2012). Authoritative (sometimes called *democratic*; see Smalls, 2009) parents are more responsive than authoritarian parents, but encourage their children to be more autonomous and independent. Less demand is placed on children of *authoritative* parents while more compliance is elicited. Parents who classify as *indulgent* assert low demand but show an excess of responsiveness. These parents tend to be overly tolerant and have low control over their children's behavior (Brodski & Hutz, 2012). *Negligent* parents affirm both low demand and responsiveness to their children. Negligent parents possess little control over their children's behavior, exert minimal demand, and tend to respond poorly to their children's needs (Brodski & Hutz, 2012; Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

A wealth of research has been conducted regarding the impact that parenting typology has on various aspects of childhood behavior (Baumrind, 1966, 1971; Chan, 2010), as well as behavior in late adolescence/adulthood (Kritzas & Grobler, 2005; Hoeve, Dubas, Gerris, van der Laan, & Smeenk, 2011; Nosko, Tieu, Lawford, & Pratts, 2011; Schwartz et al., 2009; Weiss & Schwarz, 1996). Research indicates that behaviors moderated by parenting style during one's childhood also effects emerging adulthood behaviors (Schwartz et al., 2009; Weiss & Schwarz, 1996). For example, research shows that parenting style moderates relationship satisfaction, remembrance of past emotional abuse, delinquency, homesickness, drug and alcohol use, school performance, and coping strategies (Brodski & Hutz, 2012; Hoeve et al., 2011; Nijhof & Engels, 2007; Parade, Supple, & Helms, 2012; Weiss & Schwarz, 1996). Regarding coping, adolescents

and young adults who have parents who supplied more social support and who were more attentive to their needs are better able to cope with stressful events (Nijhof & Engels, 2007).

      Parenting style and its influences on coping. Kritzas & Grobler (2005) conducted a study examining the interaction between parenting style and resilience. Specifically, these researchers looked at the differential effects of parenting style on resilience based on gender (females and males) and ethnicity (Black and Caucasian). This study was based on the research of Strümpfer (2001), who defined resilience as a pattern of psychological processes that motivate the individual to be strong when faced with stressors. Kritzas and Grobler (2005) defined parenting style based on the taxonomy of Baumrind (1970). The researchers used a sample of 360 high school seniors (mean age 17.6), which consisted of a fairly even distribution of gender (145 male and 215 female). The participants were composed of a nearly even number of Blacks and Caucasians (174 White and 184 Black). The results of this study (Kritzas & Grobler, 2005) were consistent with the findings of preceding research (Baumrind, 1983; Dusek & Danko, 1994) in that there was a significant correlation between positive parenting behavior and adolescents' resilience (Kritzas & Grobler, 2005). Some gender and racial differences were found. For example, female participants who perceived their mothers as permissive had a higher sense of coherence (i.e. a meaningful, manageable understanding of life changes and disruptions/healthy coping strategies; Antonovsky, 1987); whereas permissive maternal parenting facilitated dysfunctional coping strategies in males. An example of some of the racial differences found included a positive correlation among the mothers of White adolescents between authoritative parenting style coherence and emotion-focused coping (e.g., cognitively regulating emotional responses), whereas authoritative maternal parenting correlated positively with problem-focused coping (e.g. seeking a solution for the specific stressor at hand) in Black adolescents (Kritzas &

Grobler, 2005). The study also highlighted a negative correlation between authoritative parenting and dysfunctional coping strategies (e.g., behavioral disengagement, avoidance, substance use) in both female and male participants. In essence, the results suggested that parenting provided an external influence on adolescent resilience and coping tendencies; however, that influence may differ depending on race and gender. Kritzas and Grobler (2005) provided implications that parenting style for minorities (including various ethnicities) and its influence on coping should be examined further.

Noting that research is limited regarding parental influences on minority adjustment and behavior; Clark et al. (2002) conducted a study examining the relationship between parenting styles, anger, and coping amongst African American adolescents. For this study, the researchers recruited 70 adolescents aged 14-18 (34 males and 36 females) from an inner city high school. Roughly half of the participants (55.7%) came from single-parent households, while the remaining portion of the sample either came from two-parent (42.9) homes or live alone (1.4%). Results indicated that more male participants had the tendency to use avoidance or humor coping strategies than did female participants (Clark et al., 2002). A correlation was also found between household composition and coping strategies. Specifically, participants from single-parent homes used more diversion seeking (e.g. seeking a distraction; diverting attention to other tasks) coping strategies than participants from two-parent homes. Regarding parental influences, the results showed a positive relationship between parental strictness (as seen in authoritarian parenting) and anger regulation. Also, a negative correlation was found between participants who perceived their parents as less inhibiting (as seen with authoritative, permissive, and uninvolved parenting) and the use of passive coping strategies (e.g. avoidance, humor). Participants who felt supported and that they could go to their parents with concerns and needs used more problem-solving coping

strategies, as opposed to attention-seeking/emotion-focused strategies such as acting out or displaying anger.

Although the researchers did not focus on traditional parenting style typology (Baumrind 1966, 1971; Maccoby & Martin, 1983), the results of Clark et al. (2002) provide implications which support the notion that parenting behaviors similar to those described in the literature influence African American adolescents' coping tendencies. Specifically, the researchers found that parents who were more accepting and involved yielded less diversion seeking coping strategies (e.g. seeking a distraction) among adolescents. Also, adolescents who perceived their parents to be more strict or controlling had less of an angry temperament and showed less outward anger. This study indicates that parenting style does have an influence on both coping tendencies and anger regulation amongst African American adolescents. The author anticipates seeing similar relationships between parenting behaviors and coping with race-related stress (e.g. participants who perceive their parents to be more demanding or controlling will use more avoidant coping strategies).

The current study's focus is similar to that of Clark et al. (2002); however, the current study focuses on parental influences (as described by Baumrind, 1966/1971 and Maccoby & Martin, 1983) on coping tendencies for a broader range of racial/ethnic minorities (e.g. African Americans, Asian American, American/Indian, Mixed race). Also, the focus is on race-related stress; rather than general stress. The previous studies (Clark et al., 2002; Hardy et al., 1993; Kritzas & Grobler, 2005) focus on parenting style and its influence on coping amongst children and early adolescents; however, the current study examines coping among adults.

Coping Strategies

Coping can be defined as executing an appraised response to a perceived threat (Lazarus, 1966). In other words, coping is a dynamic process that involves multiple appraisals of stressful happenings (Ben-Zur, 2009; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). This appraisal involved with coping involves both behavioral and cognitive tactics to handle stressful events (Lazarus, 1999; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Coping strategies or models have been classified by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) as being either problem focused or emotion focused. Problem-focused coping is directed toward the problem in order to alter the source of distress. Emotion-focused coping involves regulating the emotional reaction caused by the distressing event. Some researchers suggest that coping consists of relatively stable behavioral and cognitive dispositions (Ben-Zur, 2009; Carver et al., 1989). Problem-focused coping strategies, which include active coping and planning, are generally considered to be more effective and adaptive (Ben-Zur, 2009; Carver et al., 1989). A strategy such as behavioral disengagement, which is an emotion-focused strategy, has been shown to be a maladaptive coping strategy. However, it has been suggested that some individuals may use combinations of both emotion-focused and problem-focused strategies to address the same stressful encounter (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In the following literature, researchers (e.g. Wei et al., 2010) use coping strategies, as defined by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), as a basis for examining relationships between coping and other variables.

Coping with race-related stress/racism. The literature suggests that coping with racism and race-related stress may be different than coping with general life stressors, such as losing a loved one, having trouble at work, or marital issues (Forsyth & Carter, 2012). The difference lies in the associations between coping strategies used for race-related stress and those used for general stress. For example, research showed that African Americans use different coping strategies for

racial stress than for nonracial stress (Plummer & Slane, 1996). Furthermore, research suggests

that there are differences between how members of certain races cope with race-related stress

(Sanders Thompson, 2006). Some studies that have examined parental influences on coping

mainly focus on the concept of *socialization*, an attempt for minority parents to buffer, strengthen,

or protect their children against the negative effects of racial discrimination (Cooper & McLoyd,

2011; Mellor, 2004). Other studies examine more complex reactions to racism, such as accepting

racism as a norm, reinterpreting racist events, or making contained responses (Mellor, 2004).

However, very few studies examine specific coping strategies used by racial minorities to decrease

the negative impact of race-related stress caused by racism (see Wei et al., 2010).

Mellor (2004) investigated coping strategies used by 34 racial minorities native to

Melbourne, Australia. The sample consisted of 18 female and 16 male participants, whose ages

ranged from 18-58 years old. These participants were interviewed regarding experiences of racist

events, how the events made them feel, and what was done in response to the event. The results

suggested that the participants' accounts of responses to racist events could be classified into three

groups: defending the self, self-control, and confrontation (Mellor, 2004). Furthermore,

participants' responses were placed into more detailed categories within the aforementioned

groups. For example, the confrontation group contained six categories: teaching or educating the

perpetrator, contesting the racism, asserting one's rights, Asserting Koori racial identity (i.e., the

racial identity category), taking control, and using external supports or authorities to address

racism. Examples of some of the specific reactions to racist events that participants reported

include acceptance of racism, denial of racial identity, attempting to make children strong

(socialization), ignoring, teaching/educating the perpetrator, contesting the racism, or seeking

revenge (Mellor, 2004). Mellor (2004) concluded that coping strategies used in response to racism

are more situation specific than personality specific. In other words, the ways in which people

cope with racism depends on what kind of racist event was experienced, rather than on specific

personality traits. Also, depending on the situation, Mellor observed that racial minorities often

use a combination of various coping strategies. One strategy in particular which Mellor found

interviewees reported often was making one's child stronger or more equipped to handle racism

(e.g. moving out of environments where children are likely to be subjected to racism, or helping

children achieve in order to avoid racism).

Wei and her colleagues (2010), in an attempt to address the gap in research, developed a

measure which could be used to assess specific coping strategies used by racial minorities in

response to racism. The Coping With Discrimination Scale (CDS) was developed using an

exploratory factor analysis with 328 participants. The CDS measures five domains:

Education/Advocacy, *Internalization,* Drug and Alcohol Use, *Resistance,* and Detachment, which

each contain five items (See methods and materials section for more information regarding

reliability and validity). In the development of the measure, the researchers incorporated idea that

racism is a unique stressor and the ways in which individuals cope should be examined more

specifically (Wei et al., 2010). The researchers referenced Lazarus and Folkman (1984, 1988) and

the findings of Mellor (2004) in the measure's development (See Wei et al., 2010). Also, the CDS

was validated against the aforementioned measure developed by Carver and colleagues (1989).

The items within the five domains of the CDS are used to identify an individual's method

of coping with racist instances. The Education/Advocacy domain involves the act of engaging in

an attempt to educate perpetrators as a means of coping with the elicited stress of the act of racism

(Wei et al., 2010). Internalization is a strategy in which individuals blame themselves for causing

the racist event in some way. The drug and alcohol use factor signifies respondent use of alcohol

or drugs to ameliorate the negative effects of racism or discrimination. Resistance is a form of

confrontation, in which the individual argues against or fights committed acts of racism.

Detachment is an avoidant strategy in which individuals separate themselves from social support

and do not directly address the discriminatory act.

Although Wei et al. (2010) provided little information about what factors predict these

coping strategies, the development of the measure provides implications for the possible

prediction of racial minorities' mental health outcomes based on coping strategy used for

discrimination. Furthermore the measure could be used to further examine associations between

coping with discrimination and stages of racial/ethnic identity development (Sue & Sue, 2003).

Regarding the current study, the measure is used to examine the relationships between parenting

style, racial microaggressions, and race-related stress for coping with discrimination.

Conclusion

Racism and associated stress is still very prevalent in Western society today (Krieger,

1990; Mellor, 2004; Sue, Capodilupo et al., 2007). Although the face of racism has changed to

more covert presentation, racial/ethnic minorities are still subjected to racist and discriminatory

events which are often manifested as racial microaggressions (Sue, Capodilupo et al., 2007).

Research suggests that the stinging subtlety of contemporary racism (racial microaggressions)

tends to induce more race-related stress than more traditional or overt forms of racism (e.g.,

Solorzano, Ceja, & Yosso, 2000). Moreover, the literature indicates a positive relationship

between race-related stress and psychological distress (e.g. depression, anxiety), negative

physiological outcomes (e.g. cardiovascular disease, hypertension, engagement in unhealthy

behaviors), life dissatisfaction, morbidity, and chronic mental health diagnoses (e.g. psychosis;

Mellor, 2004; Pascoe & Richman, 2009; Pieterse et al., 2012).

Since research supports that parenting styles have an influence on how individuals cope with general stress (Ben-Zur, 2009; Carver et al., 1989; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), research should focus on the possible relationship between parenting style and coping with the uniqueness of race-related stress (Forsyth & Carter, 2012; Mellor, 2004; Wei et al., 2010). Considering how detrimental race-related stress is to racial/ethnic minorities and how frequently racial stress inducing events are experienced in Western society, it is important to understand and identify possible relationships between style of parenting and race-related stress specific coping strategies.

To date, there is no study that assesses coping strategies used to buffer negative effects of racial microaggressions. Current focus is to examine the relationship between race-related stress elicited by experiencing racial microaggressions and the coping strategies identified by Wei and associates (2010; see methods and materials section). Furthermore, the author examined the relationship that parenting style has on tendencies to use specific coping strategies used for race-related stress.

Results of the current study could provide implications for teaching effective parenting skills which in turn may yield healthier coping strategies for race-related stress. Furthermore, findings could have clinical implications as well, because relationships between client's childrearing and perceived race-related stress could be considered more in therapeutic treatment.

Chapter III

Methods and Materials

Participants

A total of 332 people participated in the study; however, 69 respondents' data were not

used for various reasons (See Method Section and Table 1). The principal investigator used a

sample of self-identified racial minorities (i.e. African-American, Asian-American, Latin-

American, natives of the continents of Africa and Asia, and immigrants who's nationality is

outside of the United States) who were over age 18 and able to read and write in English. Non-

racial/ethnic minorities were invited to participate as well, given the comparative nature of the

hypotheses. In the final analyses, 263 participants were used. Regarding gender, 204 (77.6%)

participants were female and 52 (19.8%) were male. The majority of the sample identified

themselves as White (n=159; 60.5%), while the remaining 98 (37.3%) participants identified

themselves as racial minorities (e.g. Black/African American [16.7%], Latina/o/Hispanic

American [7.2%]; See Table 2). There were no set strata or criteria regarding the selection of a

specific number of participants from either racial/ethnic group; however, the total number of

participants from each racial/ethnic group was considered when examining the data and reporting

results. A preliminary power analysis suggested that 102 participants are needed to detect medium

effect size ($sr^2 = .09$), with an alpha level of .05 to achieve a power of .80 for the regression

analyses (Cohen, 1992).

Procedures

This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board at Towson University.

Participants were recruited in five primary ways: paper advertisements (See Appendix G), direct

word-of-mouth (i.e. either the principle investigator or research assistants verbally recruiting

participants), electronic communications/postings on social networks, the "snowball technique" (i.e. participants were encouraged to ask others to participate), and a university research pool. Paper advertisements were circulated in appropriate areas on university campuses (e.g. Towson University's campus, other college or university campuses). Second, some potential participants were informed verbally of the study. In addition, professional and personal contacts (e.g. colleagues and faculty) from academic institutions aided in recruitment by verbally or electronically informing potential participants of the study. Third, electronic advertisements were circulated on social networks and other online forums (e.g. facebook.com, listservs, Towson University online research pool, etc.). Fourth, the principal investigator utilized the snowball technique, where individuals who participated in the study were asked to refer other potential participants to the study. Specifically, participants were prompted to refer others who were qualified after completion of the study online (SurveyMonkey.com). Lastly, participants were recruited through a university research pool.

Participants were given the opportunity to read and electronically sign informed consent forms prior to participation on SurveyMonkey.com. Participants were then directed to the study, which includes self-report assessments (Appendixes A-F). As compensation for participation, participants had the option of being entered in a drawing to win one of four $50 gift cards or eligibility to receive extra credit/research credits from their professors. Upon completion of the measures, participants were asked to enter their email address if they would like to be entered in the drawing for one of the gift cards or receive extra credit. After more data has been collected for future publication, winner(s) will be chosen at random. Participants were informed of their chances to win the monetary prize or receive extra credit prior to participating. Participants who completed the study through the university research pool received a research credit from their

professors. Identifying information (e.g. names) was kept confidential at all times. Participants

were not required to submit any identifying information when completing the assessments, aside

from optionally entering their email address which may include names. In addition, all participant

data was encrypted and saved on researchers' password-protected personal computers and/or flash

drives. Refer to Table 2 for frequencies regarding how participants heard about the study.

Measures

A total of six measures were administered to participants in this study. Measures were used

to gather relevant information on the sample (i.e., a demographic form) and to measure all

variables of interest (i.e., Racial Microaggressions [X_1], race-related stress [X_2], parenting style

[$X_{permissive}$, $X_{authoritarian}$, $X_{authoritative}$], and coping strategy [Y]) Also, a measure was used to gather

information about participants' sense of ethnic identity (see Appendix E).

Ethnic identity. The Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure—Revised (MEIM-R; Phinney &

Ong, 2007) was used to assess participants' sense of belonging and commitment to a particular

ethnic group. The MEIM-R is a six-item self-report questionnaire which measures two vital

constructs: *exploration* and *commitment* (Phinney and Ong, 2007). The exploration construct

involves putting forth effort and engaging in activities that enhances one's knowledge of his or her

ethnic background. The commitment construct includes sense of belonging and positive

affirmation of one's ethnic group. Questions are answered on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from

1 (*Strongly disagree)* to 5 (*Strongly Agree*). In addition, the measure asks participants to openly

identify their ethnic identity. The pre-established reliability of the measure was good ($\alpha = .81$, N =

93, $p < .001$; Phinney & Ong, 2007). In the current study, the measure was used in its entirety, and

demonstrated good overall reliability, with a Cronbach's alpha of .81.

Racial microaggressions. The Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale (REMS; Nadal, 2011) was used to assess frequencies and types of racial microaggressions experienced by participants (See Appendix A). The REMS is a 45-item self-report measure that identifies six categories of microaggressions (e.g. Assumptions of inferiority, microinvalidations, assumptions of criminality (see Chapter II, for definitions of categories). Frequencies of each microaggression experienced within the past three months are assessed on a 6-point Likert scale from 0 (*I did not experience this event*) to 5 (*I experienced this event 5 or more times in the past three months*.). The REMS reliability has been tested with two samples of diverse racial/ethnic minorities, and has a coefficient alpha of over .80. Concurrent validity was supported by significant correlations with another valid assessment of perceived racism ($r = .698$, N = 253, $p < .001$; Nadal, 2011).

In the current study, the REMS was administered in its entirety to assess frequency of microaggressive experiences, and had sufficient reliability ($\alpha = .85$, N= 263); however, the measure and instructions were modified to also assess amount of stress associated with the experience (See Appendix A). For each event, participants were asked to rate the degree of distress associated with the event on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from N/A (*The event did not happen to me.*) to 4 (*This event happened & I was extremely upset.*). In this study, the set of questions regarding respondents' distress associated with the experiences of racial microaggressions was named the REMS B, while the original items from the REMS was deemed the REMS A. The purpose of modifying the REMS was to assess participants' race-related stress associated with the specific microaggressive event. This measure of racial microaggressions and associated stress is essential to the research model because the focus is on examining coping strategies used for racial stress induced by racial microaggressions. In addition, data from this measure was used to examine important relationships between the types of racial microaggressions

and other variables (e.g. parenting style). Given the strong correlation between the REMS-B

(degree of race-related stress associated with racial-microaggressions) and a pre-existing measure

of race-related stress in the current study ($r = .59$, $p < .01$), the current study will utilize the

REMS-B given that the items reflect race-related stress associated specifically with racial

microaggressions. The reliability of the REMS B with the current sample was strong ($α =.89$).

Race-related stress. Although a modified version of the REMS (Nadal, 2011) was

primarily be used to assess racial microaggression induced stress, race-related stress was also

measured by the Index of Race-Related Stress – Brief Version (IRRS – B; Utsey, 1999; See

Appendix B). The entire scale was used. The IRRS-B is a 22-item multidimensional (cultural

racism, institutional racism, and individual racism) measure used to assess the intensity of stress

associated with certain perceived race-related stressors. Participants will respond to items on a 5-

point Likert scale ranging from 0 (*This never happened to me*) to 5 (*This event happened, and I

was extremely upset*). The measure was originally intended to assess race-related stress in African

Americans; however, the measure has been used to measure race-related stress amongst members

of other racial minority groups (i.e. Latino-American and Asian-American; see Utsey, Chae,

Brown, & Kelly, 2002). The internal consistency of the measure was adequate with an average

Cronbach's alpha ($α = .84$) for the overall assessment.

The language of the items and instructions for this measure has been changed in order to

make the statements more applicable to a broader range of races. The original language of the

measure insinuates that the respondent is African American. The language was altered in a way

that participants of all races could respond to the item. For example, item 22 from the IRRS-B has

been changed from "You were refused an apartment or other housing; you suspect that it was

because you're Black." to "You were refused an apartment or other housing; you suspect that it was because [of your race]."

The principal investigator deemed it necessary to use this measure to insure that race-related stress data was collected by a tested, reliable measure; however, the modified REMS was used primarily to collect race-related stress data. Correlations with the IRRS-B data and the modified REMS data was used to validate the use of the modified REMS. Data from the IRRS-B may be used in an exploratory manor, and may be used in future studies. With the current sample (N=263), the IRRS-B had a Cronbach's alpha of .91.

Parenting style. Parenting style was assessed using The Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ; Buri, 1991; See Appendix C), which identifies the predominant style of child rearing (permissive, authoritative, and authoritarian) used by respondents' parents according to Baumrind's (1971) taxonomy. The PAQ is a 30-item self-report questionnaire in which participants respond to statements pertaining to perceptions of parents' behavior using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The items of the PAQ are divided into 3 subscales: Authoritativeness, Authoritarianism, and Permissiveness. Negligent parenting style is not assessed separately; however, considering that negligent parenting is a form of permissive parenting, the principal investigator does not foresee this being a confound (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Each subscale has 10 items each which measure the three styles of parenting, as are defined by Baumrind (1971; Buri, 1991). In this current study, the principal investigator intends to use the PAQ in its entirety, including all three subscales; however, respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire regarding only one parent or guardian. The data regarding which parent or guardian respondents were referencing was considered when interpreting data and reporting results.

The original assessment yields three scores for each participant (parent's permissiveness, parent's authoritativeness, parent's authoritarianism). In other words, the PAQ yielded three scores for each participant's parent. For example, when the participant is completing the questionnaire in relation to his/her mother, the assessment yields an authoritativeness score, an authoritarianism score, and permissiveness score for his/her mother. The same three scores were yielded if the respondent completed the questionnaire in relation to his/her father or another guardian. Each participant chose one parent to answer the questionnaire for. Regardless of who the questionnaire is answered in reference to, the PAQ items were identical. Each item included both male and female gender specific pronouns (e.g. "he/she", "his/her"; See Appendix C). The scores of each subscale for each parent can range from 10-50, with higher scores (one SD above the mean) being more indicative of that corresponding parenting behavior.

Using a sample of 185 student participants (95 women, 90 men), internal consistency of the PAQ was assessed (Buri, 1991). Cronbach's alphas for Mother's Permissiveness ($\alpha = .75$), Mother's Authoritarianism ($\alpha = .85$), Mother's Authoritativeness ($\alpha = .82$), Father's Permissiveness ($\alpha = .74$), Father's Authoritarianism ($\alpha = .87$), and Father's Authoritativeness ($\alpha = .85$) were found. Test-Retest reliability was found to be sufficient for Mother's Permissiveness ($r = .81, p < .0005$), Mother's Authoritarianism ($r = .86$), Mother's Authoritativeness ($r = .78, p < .0005$), Father's Permissiveness ($r = .77, p < .0005$), Father's Authoritarianism ($r = .92, p < .0005$), and Father's Authoritativeness ($r = .85, p < .0005$) using a sample of 61 participants (29 women, 32 men; Buri, 1991). Furthermore, the assessment was found to have sufficient discriminant-related validity as evidenced by negative relationships between mother's authoritarianism and mother's permissiveness ($r = -.38, p < .0005$) and authoritativeness ($r = -.48, p < .0005$). Also, correlations with another assessment of parental nurturance demonstrated

criterion-related validity, as evidenced by high positive relationships between the authoritativeness subscales and parental nurturance (Mother's: $r = .56$, $p < .0005$; Father's: $r = .68$, $p < .0005$); moderate inverse relationships between the authoritarianism subscales and nurturance (Mother's: $r = -.36$; Father's: $r = -.53$, $p < .0005$); and low relatedness with the permissiveness subscales and nurturance (Mother's: $r = .04$, $p > .10$; Father's: $r = .13$, $p > .10$; Buri, 1991).

Considering that family compositions vary (i.e. single parent, 2 same-sex parents, grandparents as legal guardians/parents, other relatives or next of kin as legal guardians/parents); therefore, the original instructions of the PAQ was modified slightly in the event that respondents are not completing the measure in reference to their biological father or mother. For participants completing the measure in reference to a single caregiver (e.g. single father, single mother, single grandfather, single aunt, single foster mother), that participant simply completed the measure once in reference to that caregiver. The instructions have also been modified so that participants may indicate in which parent/caregiver they have in mind when answering the questions (See Appendix C). With the current sample (N=263), the measure had strong reliability for the permissive ($\alpha = .77$), authoritarian ($\alpha = .90$), and authoritative ($\alpha = .87$) parenting subscales.

Coping with discrimination. The Coping with Discrimination Scale (CDS; Wei et al., 2010) was used to assess coping strategies used during instances of discrimination. The CDS is a 25-item self-report measure used to assess coping strategies used to handle perceived discrimination. The instrument consists of five factors: Education/Advocacy, Internalization, Drug and Alcohol Use, Resistance, and Detachment. Participants are asked to respond to the items using a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*never like me*) to 6 (*always like me*; See Appendix D). For the purpose of this study, the overall CDS score was examined as well as several of the subscales. Specifically, to test hypotheses 1e (hypothesize a moderate to strong positive correlation between

authoritative parenting and problem focused coping strategies, such as education/advocacy) and 1f

(hypothesize a moderate to strong positive correlation between permissive parenting, authoritarian

parenting, and the use of detachment and drug/alcohol misuse coping strategies), the subscales

Education/Advocacy, Detachment, and Drug and Alcohol Use will be used. An example if one of

the items from the Education/Advocacy subscale is "I educate others about the negative impact of

discrimination." An example if an item that measures Detachment is "I've stopped trying to do

anything." "I use drugs or alcohol to take my mind off things." is an example of an item from the

CDS that measures Drug and Alcohol Use. These three subscales were chosen to be analyzed

because Education/Advocacy is an example of a problem-focused, more healthy coping strategy;

whereas, Detachment and Drug/Alcohol Use (a form of avoidant coping) coping are considered

coping strategies that often lead to negative effects (Ben-Zur, 2009).

The scale's average Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = .79$) of the CDS has demonstrated strong

reliability (Wei et al., 2010). Using a sample of 328 diverse racial/ethnic participants, sufficient

construct and discriminant validity of the measure was established by assessing correlations with

other measures of depression, life satisfaction, self-esteem, and ethnic identity (Wei et al., 2010).

Validity of the measure was found to be similar among Asian-American, Latino/a-American, and

African-American participants (N = 275) and between male and female participants (N = 328; Wei

et al., 2010). In addition, using a sample of 53 culturally diverse participants, sufficient test-retest

reliability among the subscales of Education/Advocacy ($\alpha = .85$), Internalization ($\alpha = .82$), and

Drug and Alcohol Use ($\alpha = .48$) were found (Wei et al., 2010). In the current study the CDS had

acceptable reliability ($\alpha = .78$). The three subscales of the CDS, education/advocacy ($\alpha = .86$);

detachment ($\alpha = .66$); and drug/alcohol use ($\alpha = .76$), had sufficient reliability in this study as

well.

Demographic questionnaire. A self-report questionnaire (See Appendix F) gathered

demographic information including participants' age, sex, racial identity, and socioeconomic

status. Questionnaires also gathered relevant information on participants' parents/guardians (e.g.

parent's/guardian's marital status, socioeconomic status, age, race, level of education, if or not the

respondent was raised by a parent a single parent/guardian, or are parents/guardians same-sex

partners).

Preliminary Analyses

Descriptive statistics and frequencies (e.g. for data collected from Appendixes A – E) were

computed. The Cronbach's alpha (α) of the collective measures was calculated and reported in the

results section.

The relationships between the variables (racial microaggressions, race-related stress,

parenting style, and coping strategy) were assessed using bivariate scatterplots and histograms to

test for linearity and inspect for outliers. Distributions were also tested for kurtosis and

homoscedasticity using SPSS 21 software (IBM Corp., 2012). Extreme outliers (n = 14) that were

more than 3 SD away from mean were removed (See Table 1).

Primary Analysis

Analysis of variance. To text hypotheses 1a and 1b, 2 one-way analyses of variance were

conducted. Prior to these analyses, a Levene's test was conducted to assess if or not the

assumption of homogeneity of variance had been violated. Mean squares, means, and standard

deviations are reported in the results section (See Tables 6 and 7).

Correlations among the variables of interest. To test hypotheses 1c-f, a correlational

matrix also was generated to examine the relationships between the predictor variables (racial

microaggressions $[X_1]$, race-related stress $[X_2]$, and parenting style $[X_{permissive}, X_{authoritarian},$

$X_{authoritative}$]) and the outcome variables (coping strategy [Y, Y_{edu}, Y_{drug}, Y_{detach}]). Included in the correlational matrix are coefficients (*r*) examining the relationships among the predictor variables, the outcome variables, and other variables of interest (e.g. frequency of experienced racial microaggressions; See Tables 4 and 5).

Hierarchical Linear Regression and Moderation. The principal investigator assessed the moderating effects of parenting style ($X_{permissive}$, $X_{authoritarian}$, $X_{authoritative}$) on race-related stress (X_2) and coping strategy (Y), where parenting style ($X_{permissive}$, $X_{authoritarian}$, $X_{authoritative}$) was the hypothesized moderator (See Figure 1). To test hypotheses 2a-c, four hierarchal regression analyses were conducted to assess the extent to which parenting style ($X_{permissive}$, $X_{authoritarian}$, $X_{authoritative)}$, moderates the effects of race-related stress (X_2) on coping strategies (Y), education/advocacy coping strategy (Y_{edu}), drug/alcohol use coping (Y_{drug}), and detachment coping (Y_{detach}) strategies. Thus, the individual predictors (parenting style and race-related stress) were examined along with the interaction term through hierarchical linear regression ($X_{permissive}$, $X_{authoritarian}$, $X_{authoritative} * X_2$).

In addition, hypotheses 1c-f and 2a-c were retested using only participants of color. Considering that 60.5% of the sample was White, some analyses were conducted with people of color only. There were 98 racial minorities in the current sample. Preliminary power analysis suggested that 102 participants were needed to detect a medium effect size; however, only 48 participants are needed to detect a large effect size (Cohen, 1992). Results from analyses done with racial minority participants only are reported alongside the results of all other primary analyses for comparison.

Exploratory Analyses

Aside from the primary analyses, several exploratory correlational analyses were conducted, examining other relevant variables from Appendix F (Demographics Questionnaire) as well. The purpose of these analyses was to investigate the relationship between the number of years participants report that they have lived in the United States, frequency of experienced racial microaggressions, and race-related stress (hypothesis 3). Also, the relationship between race-related stress and perceived physical health was examined (hypothesis 4). These exploratory analyses were repeated using racial/ethnic minority participants (n = 98) only.

Chapter IV

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Prior to conducting any analyses, the principal investigator computed the Nmiss (number

of missing data points) of the majority of the items included in the entire study. All participants

who left over 30% (over 57 items) of the items incomplete were deleted from the sample (See

Table 1). Considering there were several self-report measures used in the overall questionnaire,

participants who completed at least 70% of the overall questionnaire likely completed some of the

individual measures (e.g. REMS, PAQ) in their entirety. A total of 55 respondents were removed

from the data for leaving over 30% of the overall survey incomplete.

The principal investigator created histograms in SPSS 21 (IBM Corp., 2012) on the

variables racial microaggressions (X_1), Race-related stress (X_2), the three subscales of parenting

($X_{permissive}$, $X_{authoritarian}$, $X_{authoritative}$), and coping with discrimination (Y). Considering that the

coping with discrimination subscales of education/advocacy, detachment, and drug/alcohol Use

was mentioned in hypothesis 2a and 2b, histograms were created for these subscales as well.

Using the histograms all outliers who were above three standard deviations above the means for

these variables were deleted (See Table 1). Three participants were deleted for being outliers on

the REMS A distribution, five were deleted for being outliers on the REMS B distribution, two

were deleted for being outliers on the CDS distribution, and four were deleted for being outliers on

the Drug/Alcohol Use subscale distribution. A total of 14 participants were deleted for being

outliers. Added to the participants deleted for not completing at least 70% of the survey, 69

respondents' data was deleted from the sample. In summary, the completion rate was 79.2%: 332

participants were recruited overall, 69 were deleted for various reasons, and 263 participants

remained in the sample (See Table 1). All racial minority participants completed at least 70% of

the entire study.

After outliers were deleted, tests for skewness on the outcome and predictor variables were

conducted. The distributions for racial microaggressions ($S = .720$, $SE_{skewness} = .150$), race-related

stress ($S = 1.092$, $SE_{skewness} = .155$), and drug/alcohol use ($S = 1.115$, $SE_{skewness} = .1.51$) were

positively skewed. However, after consultation with supervisors and thesis committee, it was

determined that the distributions were acceptably distributed; therefore, no transformations were

performed on these variables. The distribution scores for kurtosis were analyzed. With the

exception of the distribution for race-related stress ($K=.938$, $SE_{kurtosis}= .308$), the distributions had

normal kurtosis with $Z_{kurtosis}$ scores below two and above negative two.

Bivariate scatterplots were created with the outcome variable (Coping with discrimination)

paired with all of the predictor variables (Racial microaggressions [REMS A], race-related stress

[REMS B], permissiveness, authoritarianism, and authoritativeness). A fit line was added to the

scatterplots, and there were no obvious outliers in any of the scatterplots.

A number of descriptive analyses were conducted on the data (See Tables 2 & 3). A total

of 263 respondents participated in this study, with more female than male participants. Fifty-two

of the participants (19.9%) were males and 204 (77.6%) were females. The mean age of the

participants was 21.98 (SD=7.33). The majority of the participants (n=159; 60.5%) identified as

White, with racial minorities (e.g. Black/African American, Asian, Latina/o/Hispanic)

representing the rest of the sample (n=98; 37.3%; See Table 2). The most frequent ethic identity

was White/Caucasian/European/non-Hispanic (n=159; 60.5%), followed by Black/African (n=47;

17.9%) and Asian/Asian American/or Oriental (n=19; 7.2%). Also, most of the participants

completed the PAQ in relation to their biological mother (n=168; 63.9%).

On average, participants reported experiencing a moderate number of racial microaggressions within the past three months (M = 78.57; SD =18.72). All three types of parenting behaviors were well represented in the sample. All three parental behaviors; authoritative (M = 33.18; SD =7.91), authoritarian (M = 31.68; SD =8.70), permissive (M = 23.35; SD =6.49), were well represented. Participants' reported number of years living in the United States (M =20.29; SD=7.712) varied widely (range = 61).

Primary Analyses

ANOVAs.

H1a: racial minorities will report experiencing more racial microaggressions on average than Caucasians. To test this hypothesis, a one-way analysis of variance was conducted, including a Scheffe post hoc analysis on race. Prior to analyzing this ANOVA, a test of homogeneity (Levene's test) was examined. Levene's test indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of variance had not been violated. The analyses revealed that there was a significant difference in the number of experienced racial microaggressions by race (F[3, 252] = 52.24, p < .001; See Table 6). For the ANOVA and Scheffe post hoc test on race, the racial groups Latina/o/Hispanic (N = 9), African (N=2), and American Indian/Alaska Native (N=3) were collapsed into the Mixed/Other race group due to there being less than 10 participants who identified with these racial groups (See Table 2 for race frequencies). Follow up Scheffe post hoc tests revealed that Black/African American (M = 89.61, SD = 16.56), Asian (M = 103.84, SD = 16.02), and Mixed/Other race (M = 90.51, SD = 16.62) participants reported experiencing more racial microaggressions within the past three months than White participants (M = 69.79, SD = 13.81).

A simple bar chart was created to illustrate the frequency of racial microaggressions across race (See Figure 3). Lines were added to the graph to indicate significant mean differences across the racial groups. This figure visually demonstrates support for hypothesis 1a, because lines indicate that the reported mean experiences of racial microaggressions by Whites in this sample were significantly different from that of all other racial groups. Dotted lines also indicate a mean difference between the mean experience of racial microaggressions of the Asian group and both African American and Other racial groups (See Figure 3).

H1b: Participants who identify their ethnicity as "White, Caucasian, European, or Non-Hispanic" will have a lower average score on the measure of experienced racial-microaggressions than all other ethnicities. To test this hypothesis, a one-way analysis of variance was conducted, including a Scheffe post hoc analysis on ethnicity. A Levene's test conducted prior to this ANOVA did not reach significance, indicating that the assumption of homogeneity of variance had not been violated. The Other (N=5), Mixed (N=17), and American Indian (N=1) ethic groups were combined into a group labeled "other ethnicity" due to there being less than 10 participants who identified with the Other and American Indian ethnic groups (See Table 2 for ethnicity frequencies). The ANOVA indicated that there was a significant difference in the number of experienced racial microaggressions by ethnicity, $F(4, 252) = 37.93$, p < .001; See Table 7). Follow up Scheffe analyses showed that participants who identified as Black/African American ($M = 89.40$, $SD = 17.09$), Asian/Asian American/Oriental ($M = 103.84$, $SD = 16.02$), Hispanic/Latino/a ($M = 96.20$, $SD = 22.13$), and Other ($M = 86.83$, $SD = 13.38$) ethnic groups reported experiencing more racial microaggressions within the past three months over a three month span than those with White ($M = 69.98$, $SD = 13.83$) ethnic identities (See Figure 4), thus supporting hypothesis 1b.

A simple bar chart was created to illustrate the frequency of racial microaggressions across ethnicity (See Figure 4). Lines were added to the graph to indicate significant mean differences across the ethnic groups. This figure visually demonstrates support for hypothesis 1b, with lines indicating that the reported mean experiences of racial microaggressions by those who's ethnic identity is White in this sample were significantly different from that of all other ethnic groups. Dotted lines also indicate a mean difference between the mean experience of racial microaggressions of the Asian group and both African American and Other ethnic groups (See Figure 4).

Correlational analyses

H1c: There will be a strong positive correlation between the frequency of experienced microaggressive events and race-related stress. Correlational matrixes were created to calculate the Pearson's *r* correlations among the relevant variables mentioned in hypothesis 1c and 1d (See Table 4). As expected, there was a significantly strong, positive relationship between the frequency of experienced racial microaggressions and race-related stress ($r=.64$, $p < .01$). Correlational analyses with racial minority participants only (See Table 5) also revealed a positive relationship between racial microaggressions and race-related stress ($r=.70$, $p < .001$).

H1d: Permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative parenting will be positively correlated with the use of coping strategies for discrimination (total coping with discrimination). As expected, there was a significant relationship between authoritarian parenting and total coping with discrimination ($r=.21$, $p < .01$). No significant relationship was found between permissive parenting and total coping with discrimination, nor was there a significant relationship between authoritative parenting and coping with discrimination (See Table 4). No significant relationships emerged when White participants were removed from the sample (See Table 5).

H1e: There will be a moderate to strong positive correlation between authoritative parenting and education/advocacy coping. Contrary to expectations, no significant relationships emerged between authoritative parenting and education/advocacy coping strategy for discrimination (See Tables 4 and 5).

H1f: There will be a moderate to strong positive correlation between permissive parenting, authoritarian parenting, and the use of detachment and drug/alcohol misuse coping strategies. No significant relationship was found between permissiveness parenting and drug and alcohol use coping for discrimination (See Table 4). Likewise, the relationship between authoritarian parenting and drug and alcohol use coping for discrimination was not significant. In partial support of this hypothesis, a small positive relationship between permissiveness and detachment coping for discrimination emerged ($r = .15$, $p < .05$). There was also a significant small positive relationship between authoritarian parenting and detachment coping ($r = .17$, $p < .01$).

When the correlational analysis was repeated with White participants excluded, a small significant positive relationship emerged between detachment coping and permissiveness parenting ($r = .24$, $p < .05$). Among racial/ethnic minority participants, the relationship between permissiveness parenting and drug/alcohol use coping did not reach significance (See Table 5). Similarly, no significant relationships emerged between authoritarian parenting, drug/alcohol use coping, and detachment coping.

Regression analyses.

In order to test hypotheses 2a-c four hierarchical linear regression analyses were conducted (See Tables 8 - 15). The regression analyses and corresponding results are the main focus of this study. The first regression tested the strength and direction in which the relationship between race-

related stress and overall coping with discrimination was moderated by parenting style (See Tables

8 and 9). The latter three regression analysis tested for moderating effects of parenting style on

race-related stress and education/advocacy coping strategy (See Tables 10 and 11), drug/alcohol

use coping strategy (See Tables 12 and 13), and detachment coping strategy (See Tables 14 and

15).

Prior to conducting the analyses, interaction terms were computed, using race-related stress

(X_2) times the scores on the three subscales of the PAQ (i.e. $X_2 * X_{permissive}$, $X_2 * X_{authoritarian}$, and

$X_2 * X_{authoritative}$). In the first regression analysis, coping with discrimination (Y) was the outcome

variable. In the second analysis, total education/advocacy score (Y_{edu}) was the outcome variable.

Drug/alcohol use coping (Y_{drug}) was the dependent variable in the third regression analysis, and

detachment coping (Y_{detach}) was the dependent variable in the fourth regression model. For all

three regressions, race-related stress and all three subscales of the PAQ were entered into the first

step of the model, followed by the three created interaction terms in the second step of the model.

H2a: Parenting style will moderate the strength and direction of the relationship

between race-related stress and the use of coping strategies for racial discrimination. For the

first test, step one indicated that the first four predictors (race-related stress $[X_2]$, permissive

$[X_{permissive}]$, authoritarian $[X_{authoritarian}]$, and authoritative $[X_{authoritative}]$) accounted for 13% $(R^2 = .13)$

of the variance for coping with discrimination (See Table 8). The variance in step one was

significantly different from zero $(F = [4, 237], p < .001)$. In step one, the predictors that account for

most of the variance of coping was race-related stress $(\beta = .28, p < .001)$, followed by permissive

$(\beta = .18, p = .009)$, authoritative $(\beta = -.16, p = .017)$, then authoritarian $(\beta = .11, p = .024)$. The

Durbin-Watson test statistic for this regression was 1.20, indicating non-autocorrelation.

In the second step, the interaction variables ($X_2 * X_{permissive}$, $X_2 * X_{authoritarian}$, and $X_2 * X_{authoritative)}$ were added to the model. Step two of the model accounted for an additional 3% of variance in coping with discrimination ($\Delta R^2 = .03$). This change in variance was marginally significant $F(3, 234, p = .056)$. Also, an interaction approaching significance (Race-related stress * Authoritative parenting) was detected ($\beta = -.90$, $p = .039$). This indicated that authoritative parenting moderated the relationship between race-related stress and coping with discrimination, as hypothesized (See Figure 2). To test to see if the slopes in the interaction were significantly different from each other, a simple effects analysis (2-tailed t-test) was conducted. The test revealed that the t value calculated from the unstandardized coefficients ($t=.01$), was less than the critical T value (+/- 2.25) calculated from the degrees of freedom (255). Therefore, the null hypothesis that the regression lines are equal in variance was rejected ($t = .01 \sim T = +/- 2.25$). This t-test implies that the lines shown in Figure 2 are indeed different from each other, and that participants who reported that their parents had high authoritative behaviors use more strategies to cope with discrimination than participants who reported low authoritative parenting.
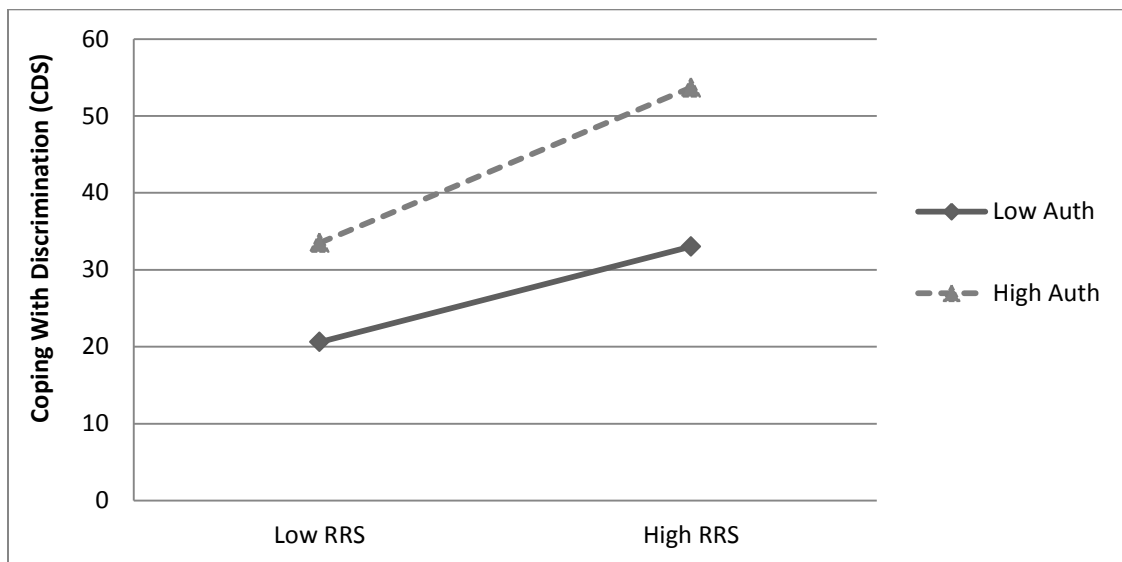
Figure 2. Interaction plot illustrating the moderation of race-related stress (RRS) and Coping with discrimination by authoritative parenting (Auth), $\beta = .90$, $p = .039$.

When the analysis was repeated with minority participants only, the predictors (X_2, $X_{permissive,}$, $X_{authoritarian}$, and $X_{authoritative}$) accounted for 18% of the variance of coping with discrimination ($R^2 = .18$). The change was significantly different from zero, $F(4, 88) = 4.87$, $p = .001$. Step two of the model contributed an additional 4% ($R^2 = .04$); however, the change was non-significant (See Table 9).

H2b: Authoritative parenting will be a significant predictor of education/advocacy coping, where high authoritative parenting will yield high use of education/advocacy coping. Step one's predictor variables (race-related stress, permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative) accounted for 14% of the variance of education/advocacy coping (Y_{edu}). The variance was significantly different from zero ($F[4, 237]$, $p < .001$). Race-related stress ($\beta = .29$, $p < .001$) was the largest contributor to the variance in step one, followed by authoritarian parenting ($\beta = .13$, $p = .049$). Permissiveness ($X_{permissive}$) and authoritative parenting ($X_{authoritative}$) were not significant contributors to the variance of education/advocacy coping (Y_{edu}). Also, a Durbin-Watson test was conducted to test for correlations between errors. The Durbin-Watson statistic on this regression was 1.86 for this regression.

Step two on the model showed an increase of less than 1% ($R^2 = .01$); and was non-significant. None of the six predictor variables (race-related stress, permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative, $X_2 * X_{permissive}$, $X_2 * X_{authoritarian}$, and $X_2 * X_{authoritative}$) in the second step were significant contributors to the accounted for variance (See Table 10).

The predictors (X_2, $X_{permissive,}$, $X_{authoritarian}$, and $A_{uthoritative}$) accounted for 10% ($R^2 = .10$) in the first step of the model, when White participants were removed from the sample. R^2 change in

step two of the model was not significant, and no predictors contributed a significant attribution to the variance of education/advocacy coping (See Table 11).

H2c: Permissive parenting and authoritarian parenting will be significant predictors of drug/alcohol use and detachment coping, where high permissive and high authoritarian parenting will correspond to high drug/alcohol use and detachment coping. The predictor variables (race-related stress $[X_2]$, permissive $[X_{permissive}]$, authoritarian $[X_{authoritarian}]$, and authoritative $[X_{authoritative}]$) in step one accounted for 5% ($R^2 = .05$) of the explained variance for drug and alcohol coping ($F[4, 237]$, $p = .003$). Authoritative parenting ($\beta = -.26$, $p < .001$) and permissive parenting ($\beta = .21$, $p = .004$) respectively were the largest contributors to the variance in step one. Race-related stress (X_2) and authoritarian parenting ($X_{authoritarian}$) were not significant contributors. Interaction terms ($X_2 * X_{permissive}$, $X_2 * X_{authoritarian}$, and $X_2 * X_{authoritative}$) in step two of the model did not contribute to the variance of drug and alcohol use (See Table 12). The Durbin-Watson statistic to test for autocorrelation for this regression was .83.

Step one of the fourth regression test showed that the predictors (race-related stress $[X_2]$, permissive $[X_{permissive}]$, authoritarian $[X_{authoritarian}]$, and authoritative $[X_{authoritative}]$) accounted for 13% ($R^2 = .13$) of the variance of detachment coping (Y_{detach}). The F-ratio (4, 237) was significant at $p < .001$. In order of largest contributor to least large were the variables permissive ($\beta = .32$ p = .001), authoritative ($\beta = -.23$, $p = .001$), authoritarian ($\beta = .21$, p = 001), and race-related stress ($\beta = .18$, p = .004). The interaction terms ($X_2 * X_{permissive}$, $X_2 * X_{authoritarian}$, and $X_2 * X_{authoritative}$) in step 2 did not reach significance (See Table 14). The Durbin-Watson statistic for autocorrelation was 1.90.

The analysis done with racial minority participants only did not show that the predictors (X_2, $X_{permissive}$, $X_{authoritarian}$, and $a_{uthoritative}$) significantly accounted for a change in the variance of

drug/alcohol use coping (See Table 13); and the significance level was marginal $F(4, 88) = 2.34$, $p = .062$. Permissiveness parenting was a significant contributor to the variance of drug/alcohol use coping ($\beta = .32$, $p = .016$). The change in variance for step two of this analysis was non-significant, and there were no significant contributors to the variance of drug/alcohol use coping (See Table 13).

Regression analysis for detachment coping using the subsample of racial minorities revealed that race-related stress and the three types of parenting (permissive, authoritarian, authoritative) accounted for 20% ($R^2 = .20$) of the variance in detachment coping, and the change was significant, ($F(4, 88) = 5.63$, $p < 001$). Significant factors in step one were permissive parenting ($\beta = .43$, $p = .001$) and authoritarian parenting ($\beta = .35$, $p = .005$). The additional variance accounted for by the predictors in step two did not reach significance (See Table 15). In comparison to the entire sample (N=263), authoritative parenting appeared to be less predictive of detachment coping for the racial minority subsample ($\beta = -.10$, $p > .05$) than for the total sample ($\beta = -.23$, $p < .01$).

Exploratory Analyses

H3: There will be at least a moderate negative correlation between the number of years spent in the United States and both race-related stress and the frequency of experienced microaggressions. The correlational matrix (Table 5) was used to examine the relationships between number of years living in the United States, racial microaggressive experiences, and race-related stress in. A small negative relationship between number of years living in the United States and frequency of experienced racial microaggressions was detected ($r= -.14$, $p < .05$). There, however, was no significant negative relationship between number of years living in the United States and race-related stress (see Table 4).

As hypothesized, the correlation matrix created with racial minorities only (Table 5) revealed that there was a small significant negative relationship between number of years living in the United States and experiences of racial microaggressions ($r = -.21$, $p < .05$). No significant relationship between number of years living in the US and race-related stress emerged.

H4: There will be a strong negative correlation between race-related stress and perception of physical health. To test this hypothesis, a correlational analysis was conducted (See Table 4). Contrary to the original hypothesis, the correlational matrix indicated that no significant relationship between race-related stress and physical health emerged. Likewise, when repeated with minority participants only, no significant relationship between these two variables emerged (See Table 5).

Chapter V

Discussion

The purposes of this study were to examine the relationship between racial microaggressions, race-related stress, parenting, and coping with discrimination, and to investigate if parenting style moderates the relationship between race-related stress and coping with discrimination. The current study was unique in that it examined race-related stress specifically related to racial microaggressions. This study built on existing literature by examining the moderating effect of parenting styles based on the taxonomy of Baumrind (1966, 1971) and Maccoby and Martin (1983). This topic was important to examine considering the long-lasting, detrimental effects that race-related stress has on individuals' physical and mental health (Blume, Lovato, Thyken, & Deny, 2012; Pascoe & Smart Richman, 2009; Pieterse et al., 2012). Since past research has indicated that certain parenting styles are more facilitative to healthy coping strategies (e.g. educating oneself or others; Clark et al., 2002; Kritzas & Grobler, 2005); examining the modifying potential of parenting styles to cope with race-related stress was vital to expanding professional knowledge of how parental behaviors buffer coping with prevalent stressors such as racial microaggressions. Several types of analyses were conducted to examine the variables of interest.

Analyses of variance examined if the frequency of experienced racial microaggressions differed across both race and ethnicity, which addressed hypotheses 1a and 1b. The results indicated that racial and ethnic minorities (e.g. African American, Asians, Latina/o Americans) experienced more racial microaggressions than did White individuals within this sample. There is extensive research that supports that racial and ethnic minorities experience racial microaggressions on a daily basis and in a number of settings, such as college campuses or other

schools, the workplace, or in one's community (Nadal, 2011; Sue, Capodilupo, et al., 2007; Torres-Harding et al., 2012; Wang, 2011). However, it was interesting to find that White participants in the sample reported experiencing an average of nearly 70 racial microaggressions within the past three months. On the other hand, the average number of racial microaggressions experienced by Whites was significantly lower than every other racial and ethnic group within the sample. This finding supports the notion that racial microaggressions can be experienced by the majority population as well (Sue, Capodilupo, et al., 2007); however, there is likely a differing amount of race related stress experienced by Whites than by racial minorities. For example, Wang (2011) found that among Asian Americans experienced more intense negative emotions when they felt discriminated or microaggressed against because of their race than White participants did. Not only do White individuals experience less racial microaggressions, research supports that there is less of a negative impact when they do. The overall message to be gained from these findings in the context of past research is that, all racial groups seem to be capable of experiencing racial microaggressions, but the negative impact on racial minorities appears to be much more intense than that of Whites.

In hypotheses 1c-1f, correlations between several variables were examined. One of the relationships examined was between racial microaggressions and race-related stress. As expected there was a significant positive correlation between race-related stress and the frequency of experienced racial microaggressions. This adds support to the multitude of research which supports the prevalence and detrimental stress inducing properties of racial microaggressions (Sue, Capodilupo, et al., 2007: Torres-Harding et al., 2012; Wei et al., 2010). This finding also illuminates the fact that racial microaggressions and associated race-related stress is still a salient issue in this society. Regarding hypothesis 1d, only authoritarian parenting was positively

correlated with the total use of coping with discrimination. One consideration in the interpretation

of finding is that there is little indication of which specific coping strategy authoritarian parenting

correlates with, because total coping is comprised of five separate domains: education/advocacy,

detachment, resistance, internalization, and drug/alcohol use.

Hypotheses 1e and 1f examined specific relationships between parenting styles and coping

strategies. The purpose of hypothesis 1e was to examine if authoritative parenting was positively

correlated with a positive coping strategy; specifically, education/advocacy coping (Carver et al.,

1989). This hypothesis was driven by past research, which suggests that authoritative parenting

typically elicits healthy coping strategies (e.g. active coping, education, solution seeking: Dusek &

Danko, 1994).Contrary to expectations, authoritative parenting did not have a significant

relationship with education/advocacy coping; however, authoritativeness was negatively

correlated with both drug/alcohol use coping and detachment coping. Findings suggest that more

authoritative parenting may be predictive of less drug/alcohol use coping. These findings were

also supported by the regression analyses with education/advocacy and drug/alcohol use as the

dependent variables (See Tables 10 and 12). It is possible that participants with parents who have

authoritative parenting styles may use other healthy coping strategies not captured by the

education/advocacy construct. Although the original hypothesis regarding authoritative parenting

was not supported, the findings are not surprising in light of past research which suggests that

detachment and drug use coping are less healthy coping strategies which illicit negative affect

(Ben-Zur, 2009; Carver et al., 1989). Considering that authoritative parenting was found to have a

negative relationship with drug/alcohol use and detachment, hypothesis 1e was partially supported

(Carver et al., 1989). Stated differently, because authoritative parenting was correlated negatively

with two dysfunctional coping strategies (i.e. drug/alcohol use and detachment coping), hypothesis

1e was partially supported; even though no positive correlation between authoritative parenting and the healthy coping strategy, education advocacy, emerged.

Detachment coping was correlated positively with both permissive and authoritarian parenting, as expected in hypothesis 1f. This finding supported past research which found that permissive and authoritarian parenting are linked to the use of dysfunctional coping strategies (e.g. detachment and drug/alcohol use coping; Nijhof & Engels, 2007; Weiss & Schwarz, 1996; Williams et al., 2012). However, no significant relationship between drug/alcohol use coping emerged between either permissive or authoritarian parenting, which are parenting styles that past research suggests are linked to drug and alcohol use (Weiss and Schwarz, 1996). Therefore, hypothesis 1f was partially supported. No significant relationships emerging between drug/alcohol coping and either permissive or authoritarian parenting may be explained by a number of possible factors. Considering that roughly 40% of the entire sample was under the age of 21 (legal drinking age in the United States), reported drug/alcohol use scores may be lower in this sample than in a sample containing more participants over the age of 21. There is a chance that some participants in this sample have never consumed alcohol. Also, although participants' identities were anonymous and their responses are not communicated to anyone not involved in the study, participants may have been reluctant to report the use of drugs as a coping strategy. Therefore, the distribution for drug and alcohol coping in this sample may not be representative of a larger population.

Hypotheses 2a-2c addressed the main focus of the study. Regression analyses used to test these hypotheses found that there was an interaction term that is approaching significance in the regression with total coping with discrimination as the dependent variable (hypothesis 2a; See Figure 2). Plainly stated, this finding indicated that authoritative parenting moderated the relationship between race-related stress and coping with discrimination. It was found that

participants reported that their primary caregiver implemented highly authoritative parenting styles (one standard deviation above the mean) used more coping strategies for race-related stress, regardless of the amount of race-related stress reported by the participant. Also, as illustrated in Figure 2 and the simple effects analysis conducted on this interaction, the slope of high authoritativeness (High Auth) is different than that of low authoritativeness (Low Auth), which indicates that the relationship between coping strategies and race-related stress is stronger among those with highly authoritative parents. This is one of the most important findings of this study, as authoritative parenting facilitates the use of coping strategies to abate the effects of race-related stress. This is important considering the prevalence of race-related stress, and how frequently racial minorities experience racial microaggressions (Sue, Capodilupo, et al., 2007; Wei et al., 2010). Also, this finding is important because it identifies authoritative parenting as a factor related to higher levels of coping strategies used to handle race-related stress. This finding coincides with past research indicating that coping strategies of varying kinds have been linked to less damaging effects of race-related stress/discrimination (e.g. depression; see Wei et al., 2010).

Hypothesis 2b was tested in a regression analysis with race-related stress, the three parenting styles, and interaction terms as the predictors of education/advocacy coping. No evidence for moderation was found; however, in the first step of the model, race-related stress and authoritarian parenting predicted 14% of the use of education/advocacy coping. This means that factors associated with race-related stress and authoritarian parenting were positive predictors of education/advocacy coping. It was surprising that the results indicated that authoritarian parenting contributed to the prediction of education/advocacy coping because authoritarian parenting style typically facilitates unhealthy coping styles, and education advocacy is considered a healthy coping strategy (Ben-Zur, 2009; Nijhof & Engels, 2007).

Similar results were found in the latter two regression analyses, with no significant interaction terms detected and small main effects. Seven percent of the use of drug/alcohol use coping was explained by permissive and authoritative parenting, meaning that authoritative and permissive parenting are predictors of the use of drug and alcohol coping. The coefficient corresponding to the relationship between authoritative parenting on drug/alcohol use coping was negative ($\beta = -.26$, $p < .05$) indicating that these variables were inversely related, which coincides with past research (Montgomery, Fisk, & Craig, 2008). Additionally, 15% of the variance in detachment coping was explained by all the step-1 predictors (race-related stress, permissive parenting, authoritarian parenting, and authoritative parenting) indicating that race-related stress and the three parenting styles together explained variance in detachment coping. Race-related stress and each one of the parenting styles individually predicted the use of detachment coping; however, permissive parenting contributed the most to the prediction, as expected. These results were consistent with past research on permissive parenting and coping strategies involving emotional detachment (Wolfradt, Hempel, & Miles, 2003).

When these four regression analyses were conducted using racial minority participants only, more variance for total coping with discrimination was explained in the first regression with total coping as the outcome (18% versus 13% with the entire sample) by race-related stress, permissive parenting, and authoritarian parenting. However, neither of the parenting styles moderated the relationship between race-related stress and coping with discrimination in the first regression, as authoritative parenting did using the entire sample in the first regression (See Figure 2). Although power analyses indicated that the subsample had enough power to detect large effect sizes (N=48), there was less power in the subsample of racial/ethnic minorities than was needed to detect medium (N=102) and small effect sizes (N=726; Cohen, 1992). This fact could explain why

no significant interactions were found in the first regression analysis (with total coping with

discrimination as the outcome variable) with the racial minority subsample.

The current study found that there were some differences between Whites and racial/ethnic

minorities in terms of permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative parenting as predictors of

detachment coping (See Tables 14 and 15). Specifically, authoritative parenting was a negative

predictor of detachment coping in step one of the regression with detachment coping as the

dependent variable using the entire sample (N=263). Special attention, however, should be paid to

the finding in the current study which indicates that authoritative parenting seems to be less

predictive of detachment coping with the racial minority sample (*n=98*; See Tables 14 and 15).

With the racial minority sample, permissive and authoritarian parenting appeared to be stronger

predictors of detachment coping than with the larger sample that included more White

participants. These findings relate to those made by Kritzas and Grobler (2005), who suggests that

there may be some differences in the predictive ability of parenting styles on behaviors across race

(See also Skinner et al., 2011). To clarify relationships among different racial/ethnic minority

groups, a more thorough investigation of parental differences and similarities is warranted in the

future.

The same explanation (i.e., lack of power necessary to detect medium or small effect sizes)

could be applied to the following three exploratory regression analyses with the racial minority

subsample only. One notable finding among racial minority participants was that 20% of the

variance in detachment coping (as compared to 15% in the full sample with 263 participants) was

explained by the predictors of interest. As expected, permissive and authoritarian parenting

contributed to a large portion of the predicted use of detachment parenting. These main effects are

particularly interesting, because past research suggests that parenting behavior and its influences

may be different for racial minorities than for Whites (Skinner et al., 2011). These preliminary

findings, however, indicate some consistency in parental influences of coping between racial

minorities and Whites. As aforementioned, detachment coping is considered a coping strategy that

is linked to negative affect (Wei et al., 2010); and permissive and authoritative parenting have

been found to often yield children who use this coping strategy (Clark et al., 2002). Overall, this

finding (i.e., that authoritarian and permissive parenting are strong predictors of detachment

coping among the racial minority participants in the subsample) is congruent with past research

about the links between permissive and authoritative parenting and detachment coping (Clark et

al., 2002.)

Two exploratory hypotheses were tested. Hypothesis 3 examined the presence of a

relationship between the number of years participants spent living in the United States and the

frequency of experienced racial microaggressions. The rationale behind examining these variables

was to assess if there were possible acculturation issues associated with experiencing racial

microaggressions, another important topic that has a dearth of research. The results indicated a

negative correlation between the number of years living in the United States and the frequency of

experienced racial microaggressions (See Table 4). The negative relationship appeared stronger

when White participants were removed from the analysis (See Table 5). These findings may be

interpreted one of two ways: the less time participants spent in the United States is associated with

more microaggressions; younger participants may experience more microaggressions. Considering

that correlational analyses revealed that number of years living in the US and participants' age had

a strong positive relationship ($r = .75$), participants' age may be an important covariate in

analyzing the relationship between experienced racial microaggressions and the number of years

spent living in the United States. The negative relationship between number of years living in the

United States and experienced racial microaggressions supports the need for the inclusion of

acculturation and possibly age as covariates in future studies.

Last, hypothesis 4 was not supported in both the full sample and racial minority sample, as

no significant relationships emerged between these variables. This finding was surprising,

considering the wealth of research supporting that race-related stress is a detriment to both mental

and physical health (Pascoe & Richman, 2009; Pieterse et al.; Wang et al., 2011). However, the

sample was relatively young (M = 22; SD = 7.33), and may have been more healthy than the

general.

Strengths and Limitations

A strength of the study was the specificity of the research design. There is very little

research which examines parenting styles in the context coping with race related stress specifically

brought on by racial microaggressions. This research addresses calls to look at coping strategies

associated with buffering the effects of racial microaggressions (Sue, Capodilupo et al., 2007), and

parental influences on coping among racial minorities (e.g., Clark et al., 2002). The current study

contributes to the knowledge regarding how parenting styles influence on coping with racial

microaggression elicited by race-related stress.

Another strength associated with this study pertains to the sample size. Preliminary power

analyses indicate that 102 participants were needed to detect a medium effect size (Cohen, 1992);

however, the entire sample consisted of over double the number of participants needed to detect a

medium effect size (N=263). Although the subsample of racial minorities (n = 98) were comprised

of more participants than was needed to detect a large effect size (48 needed), analyses with racial

minorities only had less statistical power than was needed to detect medium effect sizes. There is a

possibility that the small sample size of the racial minority subset could have impacted the results of the regression analyses.

One major limitation of the research regards the sample of participants used and recruiting methods. The majority of the participants (over 60%) were White/Caucasian. Considering that White individuals experience fewer average microaggressions and associated race-related stress, the data were positively skewed on the scales measuring the frequency of experienced racial microaggressions and race-related stress. Very few participants reported higher frequencies of experienced racial microaggressions and race-related stress. This is believed to be due to the homogenous sample of primarily undergraduate research pool participants (76%). Also, considering that coping tendencies can differ between racial minorities and Whites, as suggested by Kritzas and Grobler (2005), the racial composition of the sample could have diluted the results of the current study. Another limitation regarding the sample was the large majority (78%) of female participants. Gaylord-Harden, Campbell, and Kesselring (2010) found that coping strategies among racial minorities can differ by gender, and can be moderated differently by parenting behavior. Of the female participants, approximately 64% were White (n = 131). Gender and other covariates (e.g. socioeconomic status, acculturation, level of education) could be examined more closely in future research.

Regarding the measure for race-related stress, the validated Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale (Nadal, 2010) was modified to include a subscale that measures distress associated with each racially microaggressive experience. Considering that this measure has not been tested for reliability or validity, the results should be interpreted with caution. A preliminary correlational analysis (See Table 5) revealed that there was a moderate relationship between the IRRS-B (a validated measure of race-related stress) and the modified REMS subscale used to

measure race-related stress. One strength associated with using the created REMS subscale instead

of the IRRS-B was that the REMS items directly assessed race-related stress associated with

microaggressions; whereas, the IRRS-B assumes that the respondent is African American, and

assesses distress associated with racism in general.

The distributions for some of the variables (e.g. racial microaggressions, race-related

stress) were positively skewed. Even after eliminating outliers who were more than three standard

deviations above the mean (See Table 1), the distributions were not normal. Also, Durbin-Watson

statistics for the regression analyses showed a positive correlation between residual errors (i.e.,

autocorrelation; Field, 2009). Although it was determined that the correlation between residual

errors was not problematic, Log transformations were conducted on dependent variables in the

regression analyses for which the Durbin-Watson statistic was less than 1 (e.g. Regression 3 with

drug/alcohol use coping as the dependent variable) in order to assess if the statistic would be

closer to *2* (indicating no correlation between errors); however, transformations exacerbated the

issue with autocorrelation. Therefore, no results involving transformed data were conducted.

.However, deciding not to transform the data could have decreased the power of the analyses and

increased the Type I error probability (Bishara & Hittner, 2012). Also, considering that

transformations could not rectify problems with correlated residual errors, precaution should be

conducted when interpreting results of the regression analyses.

Another limitation is the collapsing of several racial (e.g., Latina/o, American

Indian/Alaska Native, African, and Mixed/Other) and ethnic (American Indian, Other, and

Mixed).groups. Consolidating racial and ethnic groups in this way may have affected the ability to

detect effects between these distinct groups. It would have been ideal to have a representative

sample for each racial and ethnic group with enough representatives to detect medium effect sizes,

because there may be interracial and interethnic differences in the type and frequency of racial

microaggressive experiences and the resulting race-related stress (Chou et al., 2012; Sue, Bucceri

et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2011). For example, Asian American individuals appear more prone to

experiencing certain racial microaggressions (e.g. Alien in Own Land, Ascription of Intelligence,

Denial of Racial Reality; Sue et al., 2007), while African Americans may experience certain racial

microaggressions (e.g. Assumption of Intellectual Inferiority, Second-Class Citizenship,

Assumption of Criminality) more than other racial/ethnic groups (e.g. Asian-Americans).

Moreover, Chou et al. (2012) found that there are differing levels of race-related stress associated

with experiences of racism/discrimination cross race (e.g. Asian Americans were less likely to

develop substance use disorders when compared to African Americans and Latina/o Americans as

a result of chronic race-related stress). Another limitation to consolidating multiple racial groups

together is that parenting tendencies and their outcomes may differ across race as well (Chan,

2010; Gaylord-Harden et al., 2010; Clark et al., 2002). For example, Clark et al. (2002) found that

parenting that was strict and restrictive (authoritarian parenting) positively related to outward

anger expression (aggression) among African American children; whereas, Chan (2010) found that

authoritarian parenting were not predictors of aggression. In sum, limited examination of within

group differences among People of Color is an important limitation of the current study.

Implications

Implications of this study could be used to enhance parental education and to assist the

development of effective parenting styles to cope with racial microaggressions. One of the primary

findings in the current study was that authoritative parenting moderates the relationship between

race-related stress and coping with discrimination, where high authoritative parenting elicits more

coping with discrimination. Although there were no significant interactions regarding specific

parenting behavior and specific coping strategies, it is beneficial to know that authoritative

parenting does promote coping with race-related stress. Minority and White parents may benefit

from this knowledge, considering the detrimental effects of racial microaggressions and elicited

race-related stress on the psychological and physical wellbeing of minorities (Pascoe & Smart

Richman, 2009; Sue, Capodilupo et al., 2007). This implication is especially important given that

past research indicates that parenting that is too strict (authoritarian) or too permissive relates to

detachment coping (a coping strategy that often leads to negative effects like depression and

anxiety; Kritzas and Grobler, 2005; Wolfradt et al., 2003). Pascoe and Smart Richman (2009)

suggested that there are multiple ways of coping that can buffer the effects of race-related stress;

therefore, the results indicating that authoritative parenting facilitates coping is an important

finding that should be shared with racial minority parents. Additionally, White parents can utilize

the findings of this study to educate their children about the harmful effects that microaggressions

have on their recipients. White parents may also bring up the fact that microaggressions are not

typically committed consciously to their children. White parents could encourage more self-

evaluation and education regarding the ways microaggressions are committed.

Specific interventions that White parents could implement are to teach their children to not

invalidate a person's racial experiences (e.g. saying "I don't see color. Everyone is the same.") or

to ascribe intelligence or criminality based on race. Also, White parents could teach their children

to not be defensive if someone says that they have been offended by a statement or behavior

made/committed by that child; rather, they should try to be more empathetic and understanding of

the offended person's perspective. These interventions, however, should not be limited to White

parents. Considering that racial microaggressions can be committed between two racial minorities

(Sue, Capodilupo et al., 2007), it may be beneficial for parents of Color to teach their children

likewise; however, the interventions may look different for parents of Color. For example, parents

of Color could teach their children to not commit assumptions of similarity by making statements

such as, "All Latino Americans look the same." In addition, parents of Color could teach their

children how to effectively communicate when they are offended. For example, parents of Color

could teach their children to express displeasure with a person's actions or statements without

accusing the person of being "racist."

This study also has important implications for counseling professionals and their

supervisors. Results showing the relationship between racial microaggressions and race-related

stress in the current sample are an indication that race-related stress is prevalent. Specifically, the

results showing that authoritative parenting facilitates the use of coping with discrimination/race-

related stress provides implications for parenting professionals and counselors. Parents may use

this information to modify their behaviors to reflect that of authoritative parenting (Baumrind,

1966; 1971; Maccoby & Martin, 1983), and mental health professionals could promote the use of

authoritative parenting, and monitor the use of permissive parenting strategies which may be

associated with problematic coping strategies to deal with discrimination. Counseling

professionals can bring awareness to the prevalence of racial microaggressions and negative

effects of race-related stress to their clients and colleagues. Also, counseling supervisors should be

mindful to address issues of racial microaggression and the resulting stress with their supervisees,

and encourage supervisees to examine clients' authoritative parenting styles as a potential

buffering factor to augment coping with discrimination. Although the current study found that

racial and ethnic minorities experience more racial microaggressions than White individuals,

implications are not limited to expanding the knowledge and awareness of Whites. As suggested

by Sue, Capodilupo et al. (2007), there is a need for counselors of Color and their supervisors to

address the potential for microaggressions to occur within interactions not involving Whites (e.g.

Black counselor and Latino American client).

The implications of this study could be used by program directors or teaching staff on

college campuses and other learning institutions. For example, school counseling programs could

provide training to other counselors and interns about the deleterious effects of racial

microaggressions and race-related stress. Also, specialized programs (e.g. the Parents Association

at Towson University) can hold seminars and conferences which emphasize the benefits of

authoritative parenting behavior (e.g. the use of more coping strategies to abate the effects of race-

related stress by their young adult children). On campus programs and parent teacher meetings

could also be used to raise awareness of modernized racism (e.g. racial microaggressions,

microinsults, microinvalidations) and how they can be addressed and reduced. Teachers,

professors, and school faculty could implement anti-bullying interventions and programs that

focus on racial microaggressions for students, because past studies show that racial

microaggressions occur often in school settings (Solorzano et al., 2000). Furthermore, school

faculty and administrators could use findings of this study to enhance cultural sensitivity involving

environmental microaggressions (Nadal, 2011); such as the frequent use of culturally offensive

mascots (e.g., Florida State Seminoles Indian Mascot, Coachella Valley High School Arab

Mascot).

Future Research Directions

In follow-up studies, the principal investigator will consider recruiting more racial and

ethnic minorities and males to enhance generalizability and increase power. It may be helpful to

separate regression analyses by gender, as Gaylord-Harden et al. (2010) did. More research could

also be conducted regarding parenting styles as a moderator of the relationship between race-

related stress and internalization coping or resistance coping, as are mentioned in Nadal (2010). Considering that several implications were provided involving the education and training of certain parenting behavior that is facilitative to better coping (See Implications Section), the ability to effectively teach parenting behavior should be examined further. Related to this, further research can be done regarding if awareness of the dynamics racial microaggressions can be efficiently taught and evaluated. In addition, data can be collected on more than just one parent. By doing this, factors such as co-parenting can be examined, which McKinley and Renk (2012) suggest is an important factor in adolescent/young adult behavior that often gets overlooked in research. Furthermore, future research may examining covariates (e.g. acculturation, age, gender, socioeconomic status) as these variables could explain some of the results of this study that were contrary to past research (e.g., no significant relationship found between race-related stress and perception of physical health).

In addition, research can be done regarding the consistency or the generalizability of parenting styles (Baumrind, 1966, 1971; Maccoby & Martin, 1983) across race, as suggested by Sorkhabi and Mandara (2013). Also, more research should be done on race specific coping strategies, such as racial socialization or teaching one's child ways to be stronger and deal with the inevitability of racism in society (See Caughy, Nettles, & Lima, 2011; Mellor, 2004).

Alternative methods of data collection could also be implemented in future research. For example, observational data or collecting data regarding parental behaviors directly from participants' parents may yield more reliable and valid results. An alternative research design, such as a longitudinal study, may yield valuable data regarding the variables of interest in the current study (e.g. experiences of racial microaggressions, parental behaviors). Observing racial/ethnic minority participants and their parents from a very early age while monitoring race-

related stress and stressors (racial microaggressions), parenting style, and coping strategies may add to what is known about how parental behaviors moderate coping with race-related stress. Furthermore, more research could be done primarily using participants from varying geographic locations (i.e. participants who do not reside in Maryland, participants who currently live in a country outside of the US).

In conclusion, this study focused on coping with racial microaggression induced race-related stress and the possible moderating effects that parenting styles may have on coping. This study should only be the beginning of research regarding parenting style, and coping with race-related stress elicited by racial microaggressions. The examination of possible moderating influences like parenting style is important; especially, considering the prevalence of racism and related stress in Western society.

Tables

Table 1

Deleted Cases Log

Reason for Deletion	N
1	55
2	3
3	5
4	2
5	4
Total	69

Note – 1=The participant was deleted due to having a Total Nmiss of over 57 (i.e. 30% of the overall survey was left incomplete). 2= The participant was an outlier in the measure for experienced racial microaggressions (i.e. the participants' scores lied 3 standard deviations above the mean).3=The participant was an outlier in the measure for race-related stress (i.e. the participants' scores lied 3 standard deviations above the mean). 4= The participant was an outlier in the measure for coping with discrimination (i.e. the participants' scores lied 3 standard deviations above the mean). 5= The participant was an outlier in the measure for drug/alcohol use coping (i.e. the participants' scores lied 3 standard deviations above the mean).

Table 2

Sample Demographic Characteristics

Variable	*n*	%
Gender		
Female	204	77.6
Male	52	19.9
Race		
Mixed Race/Other	21	8.0
Latina/o/Hispanic	9	3.4
American Indian/Alaska Native	2	.8
Black/African American	44	16.7
Asian	19	7.2
African	3	1.1
White	159	60.5
Ethnicity		
Other/Specified Ethnicity	5	1.9
Asian, Asian American, or Oriental	19	7.2
Black or African American	47	17.9
Hispanic or Latino/a	10	3.8
White, Caucasian, European, not Hispanic	159	60.5
American Indian	1	.4
Mixed; parents are from two different groups	17	6.5
Born in United States		
Yes	232	88.2
Outside of US	26	9.9
Parents' Marital Status		
Married	160	60.8
Unmarried	45	17.1
Separated	9	3.4
Divorced	32	12.2
Widowed	7	2.7
Unknown	5	1.9
Mother/Female Guardian's Race		
Mixed Race/Other	14	5.3
Latina/Hispanic	9	3.4
American Indian/Alaska Native	1	.4
Black/African American	42	16.0
Asian	20	7.6
African	4	1.5
White	168	63.9

Social Class		
Lower Class	5	1.9
Working Class	46	17.5
Middle Class	129	49.0
Upper Middle Class	71	27.0
Upper Class	3	1.1
Level of Education		
High School Diploma	49	18.6
Some College	156	59.3
College Graduate	17	6.5
Some Grad School	14	5.3
Graduate School Degree	21	8.0
Father/Male Guardian's Race		
Mixed Race/Other	16	6.1
Latino/Hispanic	8	3.0
American Indian/Alaska Native	1	.4
Black/African American	46	17.5
Asian	20	7.6
African	4	1.5
White	159	60.5
Which Parent Used for PAQ		
Biological Mother	168	63.9
Biological Father	88	33.5
Other (e.g. grandmother, uncle, etc.)	4	1.5
Raised by Single Parent		
Yes	35	13.3
No	223	84.8
Raised by Same-Sex Parents		
Yes	4	1.5
No	254	96.6
How You Heard About the Study		
Other	126	47.9
Email	26	9.9
Facebook/social media	13	4.9
From the researcher	40	15.2
From a research assistant	21	8.0
You saw a flier	12	4.6
From a friend	19	7.2

Table 3

Sample Demographic Characteristics Continued

Measure	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Participants' Age	18	61	21.98	7.33
Number of Years Living in the US	0	61	20.29	7.71
Experienced Racial Microaggressions	45.00	140.00	78.57	18.72
Race-Related Stress (REMS B)	45.00	119.00	64.87	15.03
IRRS-B	22.00	98.00	39.56	14.45
Parenting Style				
Permissive	7.00	42.00	23.35	6.49
Authoritarian	10.00	50.00	31.68	8.70
Authoritative	10.00	50.00	33.18	7.91
Total Coping	27	111.00	61.14	14.58
Education/Advocacy	5.00	30.00	15.59	6.27
Detachment	4.00	24.00	10.65	4.41
Drug/Alcohol Use	4.00	25.00	8.86	5.18

Table 4

Correlational Matrix among Key Variables/Reliability Statistics, N=263

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	α	n items	Possible Range
1. Racial Microaggressions	1													.85	45	0-225
2. Race-Related Stress	.64**	1												.89	45	0-180
3. Total Coping w/ Discrimination	.39**	.30**	1											.78	25	25-150
4. Total IRRS-B Score	.58**	.59**	.31**	1										.91	22	0-88
5. Permissive	-.04	-.06	.03	-.22**	1									.77	10	10-50
6. Authoritarian	.27**	.22**	.17**	.36**	-.27**	1								.90	10	10-50
7. Authoritative	-.09	.03	-.11	-.13*	.41**	-.10	1							.87	10	10-50
8. Education/ Advocacy	.26**	.33**	.48**	.37**	-.14*	.23**	.06	1						.86	5	5-30
9. Drug/Alcohol Use	.15*	.05	.60**	.08	.07	.03	-.19**	-.08	1					.76	5	5-30
10. Detachment	.32**	.20**	.59**	.23**	.15*	.17**	-.13*	.03	.30**	1				.66	5	5-30
11. Ethnic Identity Score	.29**	.22**	.09	.27**	-.07	.20**	.17**	.38**	-.18**	-.03	1			.81	6	6-30
12. Number of Years in US	-.14*	.08	-.02	.19**	-.26**	.16**	.01	.22**	-.09	-.14*	.12	1		-	1	-
13. Physical Health	-.06	-.10	.00	-.10	.07	-.03	.07	-.01	.09	-.01	.05	.10	1	-	1	1-5

Note. ** = Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * = Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). - = The statistic is not available due to too few items in the measure.

Table 5

Correlational Matrix among Key Variables/Reliability Statistics with Racial Minorities Subsample Only, N=98

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	α	*n* items	Possible Range
1. Racial Microaggressions	1													.85	45	0-225
2. Race-Related Stress	.70**	1												.89	45	0-180
3. Total Coping w/ Discrimination	.38**	.29**	1											.78	25	25-150
4. Total IRRS-B Score	.40**	.59**	.24*	1										.91	22	0-88
5. Permissive	.08	.04	.20	-.19	1									.77	10	10-50
6. Authoritarian	.29**	.25*	.12	.48**	-.52**	1								.90	10	10-50
7. Authoritative	.09	.07	.10	.02	.44**	-.36**	1							.87	10	10-50
8. Education/ Advocacy	.24*	.25*	.49**	.41**	-.14	.18	.08	1						.86	5	5-30
9. Drug/Alcohol Use	.15	.13	.57	.02	.17	.02	-.11	-.10	1					.76	5	5-30
10. Detachment	.34**	.26*	.64**	.20*	.24*	.18	-.01	.01	.37**	1				.66	5	5-30
11. Ethnic Identity Score	.11	.11	.20*	.14	-.05	.04	.24*	.42**	-.12	-.04	1			.81	6	6-30
12. Number of Years in US	-.21*	.01	-.08	.31**	-.31**	.24*	.04	.15	-.09	-.10	.14	1		-	1	-
13. Physical Health	.04	-.00	-.03	.03	.08	-.05	.14	-.10	.10	.02	.10	.14	1	-	1	1-5

Note. ** = Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * = Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). - = The statistic is not available due to too few items in the measure

Table 6

One-way ANOVA examining difference in experiences of racial microaggressions by race

	Sum of squ.	*Df*	Mean Squ.	*F*	*p*
Between Groups	34671.31	3	11557.10	52.240	.000
Within Groups	55749.81	252	221.23		
Total	90421.12	255			

Note. Dependent variable is racial microaggressions experienced within the past three months. The predictor is race.

Table 7

One-way ANOVA examining difference in experiences of racial microaggressions by ethnicity

	Sum of squ.	*Df*	Mean Squ.	*F*	*p*
Between Groups	33983.50	4	8495.87	37.93	.000
Within Groups	56439.69	252	223.97		
Total	90423.19	256			

Note. Dependent variable is racial microaggressions experienced within the past three months. The predictor is race.

Table 8

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing Moderator Effects of Parenting Style (PAQ) on Race-Related Stress (REMS B) and Coping with Discrimination (CDS), N=263

Step/Predictor	R	R^2	R^2 Change	B	SE	β	t
Step 1	.36	.13***					
Race-related stress				.27	.06	.28***	4.48
Permissive				.42	.16	.18**	2.65
Authoritarian				.24	.11	.15*	2.27
Authoritative				-.29	.12	-.16*	-2.39
Step 2	.40	.14	.03				
Race-related stress				-.36	.36	-.38	-1.01
Permissive				.13	.64	.06	.20
Authoritarian				.37	.46	.22	.82
Authoritative				-1.45	.58	-.79*	-2.53
$X_2 * Y_{permissive}$				.01	.01	.17	.49
$X_2 * Y_{authoritarian}$				-.00	.01	-.10	-.26
$X_2 * Y_{authoritative}$				.02	.01	.90*	2.08

Note. Statistical Significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$. Step one, $F(4, 237) = 9.03$, $p = .000$. Step two, $F(3, 234) = 2.56$, $p = .056$.

Table 9

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing Moderator Effects of Parenting Style (PAQ) on Race-Related Stress (REMS B) and Coping with Discrimination (CDS) using Racial Minority Subsample, N = 98

Step/Predictor	R	R^2	R^2 Change	B	SE	β	t
Step 1	.43	.18**					
Race-related stress				.16	.08	.21*	2.01
Permissive				.76	.26	.35**	2.90
Authoritarian				.46	.21	.27*	2.22
Authoritative				.07	.19	.04	.37
Step 2	.47	.22	.04				
Race-related stress				-.69	.61	-.87	-1.13
Permissive				.20	1.01	.09	.20
Authoritarian				.04	.81	.02	.05
Authoritative				-1.23	.88	-.71	-1.39
$X_2 * Y_{permissive}$				.01	.01	.30	.49
$X_2 * Y_{authoritarian}$				.00	.01	.29	.38
$X_2 * Y_{authoritative}$				.02	.01	1.09	1.51

Note. Statistical Significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$. Step one, $F(4, 88) = 4.87$, $p = .001$. Step two, $F(3, 85) = 1.33$, $p = .270$.

Table 10

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing Moderator Effects of Parenting Style (PAQ) on Race-Related Stress (REMS B) and Education/Advocacy Coping, N=263

Step/Predictor	R	R^2	R^2 Change	B	SE	β	t
Step 1	.38	.14***					
Race-related stress				.12	.03	.29***	4.75
Permissive				-.11	.07	-.12	-1.70
Authoritarian				.09	.05	.13*	1.98
Authoritative				.08	.05	.10	1.49
Step 2	.90	.15	.01				
Race-related stress				.13	.15	.32	.85
Permissive				.25	.27	.26	.92
Authoritarian				.15	.20	.21	.76
Authoritative				-.24	.25	-.31	-.98
$X_2 * Y_{permissive}$				-.01	.00	-.49	-1.4
$X_2 * Y_{authoritarian}$				-.00	.00	-.13	-.33
$X_2 * Y_{authoritative}$				.01	.00	.57	1.31

Note. Statistical Significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$. Step one, $F_{(4, 237)} = 9.91$, $p = .000$. Step two, $F_{(3, 234)} = .79$, $p = .498$

Table 11

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing Moderator Effects of Parenting Style (PAQ) on Race-Related Stress (REMS B) and Education/Advocacy Coping using racial minority subsample, N=98

Step/Predictor	R	R^2	R^2 Change	B	SE	β	t
Step 1	.32	.10*					
Race-related stress				.07	.04	.21	1.97
Permissive				-.11	.11	-.12	-.96
Authoritarian				.09	.09	.12	.95
Authoritative				.13	.08	.18	1.51
Step 2	.37	.13	.03				
Race-related stress				-.04	.27	-.11	-.14
Permissive				.27	.44	.30	.60
Authoritarian				-.26	.36	-.37	-.73
Authoritative				.02	.39	.02	.04
$X_2 * Y_{permissive}$				-.01	.01	-.55	-.85
$X_2 * Y_{authoritarian}$				.01	.01	.83	1.05
$X_2 * Y_{authoritative}$				.00	.01	.18	.24

Note. Statistical Significance: $*p < .05$; $**p < .01$; $***p < .001$. Step one, $F (4, 88) = 2.48, p = .050$. Step two, $F (3, 85) = 1.05, p = .376$

Table 12

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing Moderator Effects of Parenting Style (PAQ) on Race-Related Stress (REMS B) and Drug/Alcohol Use Coping, N=263

Step/Predictor	R	R^2	R^2 Change	B	SE	β	t
Step 1	.26	.07**					
Race-related stress				.02	.02	.05	.81
Permissive				.17	.06	.21*	2.89
Authoritarian				.04	.04	.06	.90
Authoritative				-.17	.05	-.26***	-3.71
Step 2	.28	.08	.05				
Race-related stress				-.18	.13	-.52	-1.35
Permissive				-.16	.24	-.20	-.69
Authoritarian				-.08	.17	-.13	-.44
Authoritative				-.19	.21	-.29	-.88
$X_2 * Y_{permissive}$				.01	.00	.54	1.45
$X_2 * Y_{authoritarian}$				.00	.00	.30	.71
$X_2 * Y_{authoritative}$				.00	.00	.05	.12

Note. Statistical Significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$. Step one, $F(4, 237) = 4.19$, $p = 003$. Step two, $F(3, 234) = 1.09$, $p = .356$.

Table 13

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing Moderator Effects of Parenting Style (PAQ) on Race-Related Stress (REMS B) and Drug/Alcohol Use Coping using racial minority subsample, N=98

Step/Predictor	R	R^2	R^2 Change	B	SE	β	t
Step 1	.31	.10					
Race-related stress				.03	.03	.12	1.15
Permissive				.23	.10	.32*	2.46
Authoritarian				.04	.08	.07	.55
Authoritative				-.14	.07	-.23*	-1.95
Step 2	.37	.13	.04				
Race-related stress				-.08	.22	-.29	-.35
Permissive				-.18	.37	-.24	-.49
Authoritarian				.16	.30	.28	.55
Authoritative				-.28	.32	-.47	-.88
$X_2 * Y_{permissive}$				.01	.01	.71	1.11
$X_2 * Y_{authoritarian}$				-.00	.00	-.42	-.53
$X_2 * Y_{authoritative}$				.00	.00	.39	.51

Note. Statistical Significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$. Step one, $F_{(4, 88)} = 2.34$, $p = 062$. Step two, $F_{(3, 85)} = 1.36$, $p = .260$.

Table 14

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing Moderator Effects of Parenting Style (PAQ) on Race-Related Stress (REMS B) and Detachment Coping, N=263

Step/Predictor	R	R^2	R^2 Change	B	SE	β	t
Step 1	.39	.15***					
Race-related stress				.05	.02	.18**	2.93
Permissive				.22	.05	.32***	4.65
Authoritarian				.11	.03	.21**	3.26
Authoritative				-.13	.04	-.23**	-3.46
Step 2	.40	.17	.02				
Race-related stress				-.16	.11	-.54	-1.47
Permissive				.15	.19	.22	.80
Authoritarian				.02	.14	.04	.13
Authoritative				-.40	.17	-.72*	-2.31
$X_2 * Y_{permissive}$				.00	.00	.13	.38
$X_2 * Y_{authoritarian}$				.00	.00	.27	.68
$X_2 * Y_{authoritative}$				.00	.00	.70	1.63

Note. Statistical Significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$. Step one, $F(4, 237) = 10.30$, $p = 000$. Step two, $F(2, 234) = 1.73$, $p = .163$.

Table 15

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing Moderator Effects of Parenting Style (PAQ) on Race-Related Stress (REMS B) and Detachment Coping using racial minority subsample, N=98

Step/Predictor	R	R^2	R^2 Change	B	SE	β	t
Step 1	.45	.20**					
Race-related stress				.05	.03	.17	1.65
Permissive				.32	.09	.43**	3.61
Authoritarian				.20	.07	.35**	2.88
Authoritative				-.06	.07	-.10	-.93
Step 2	.50	.25	.04				
Race-related stress				-.35	.20	-1.28	-1.70
Permissive				.19	.34	.26	.56
Authoritarian				-.11	.27	-.19	-.39
Authoritative				-.60	.30	-1.02*	-2.03
$X_2 * Y_{permissive}$				.00	.00	.19	.31
$X_2 * Y_{authoritarian}$				.00	.00	.74	1.01
$X_2 * Y_{authoritative}$				.01	.00	1.30	1.85

Note. Statistical Significance: *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$. Step one, $F (4, 88) = 5.63$, $p = 000$. Step two, $F (3, 85) = 1.77$, $p = .159$.
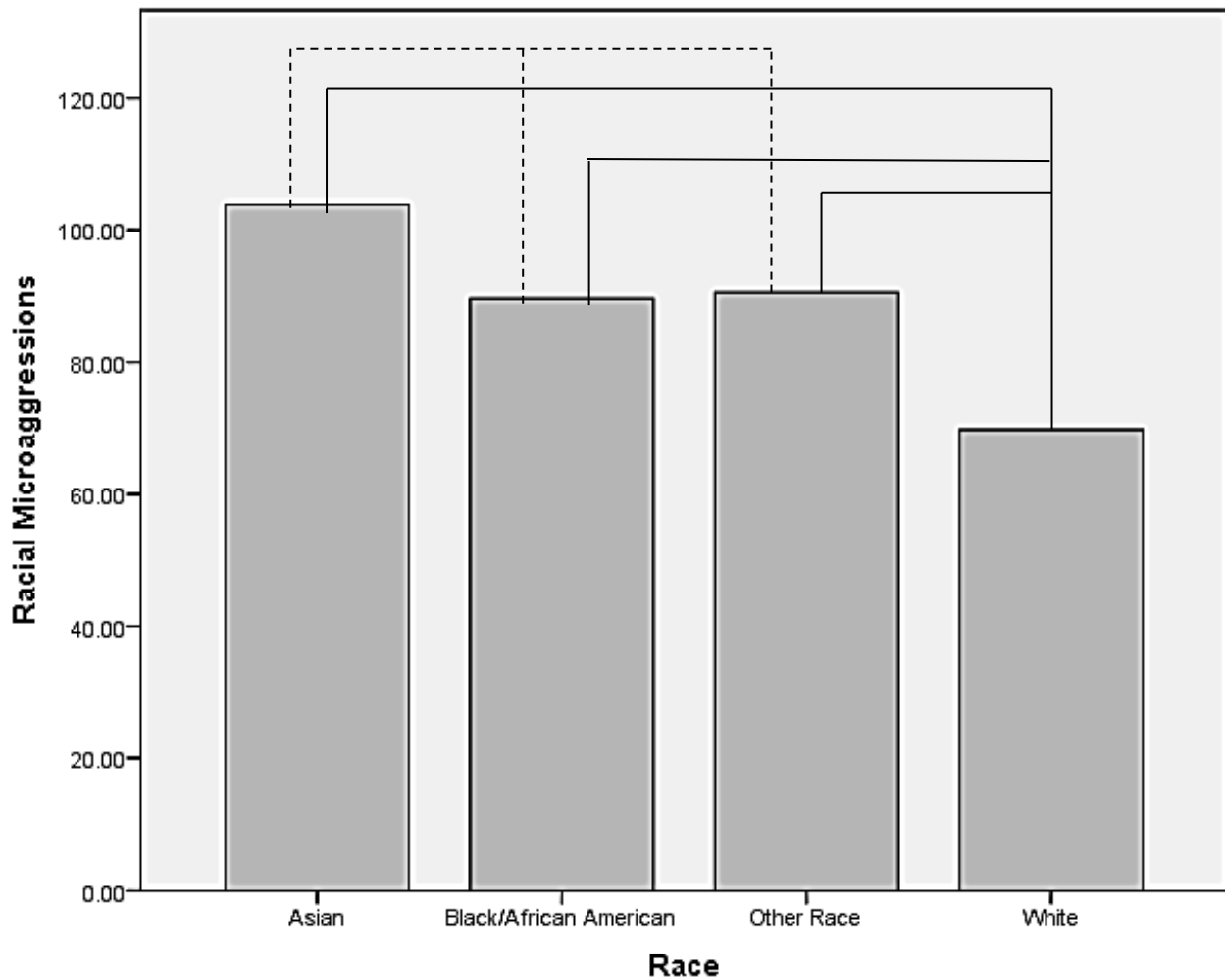
Figure 3. Simple bar chart illustrating mean reported experiences of racial microaggression within the past three months by race. ANOVA shows there was a significant difference in the mean experiences of racial microaggressions by race, *F*(3, 252) = 52.24, *p* < .001. Lines connected to racial groups which are significantly different (*p* < .05) according to Scheffe post hoc analysis. Solid lines show significant mean differences between White and all other racial groups. Dotted lines show mean differences of Asian with Black and *Other* racial groups.
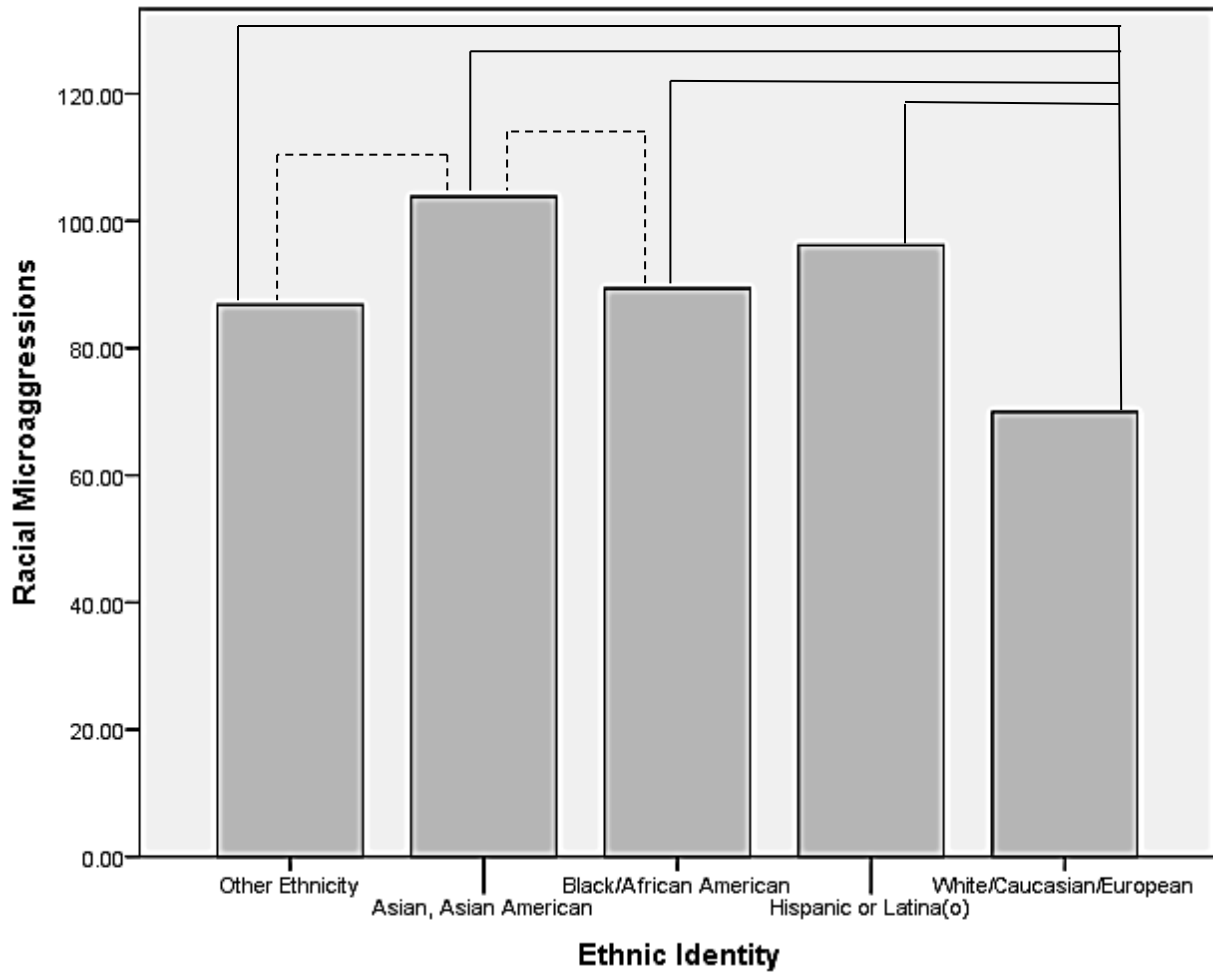
Figure 4. Simple bar chart illustrating mean reported experiences of racial microaggression within the past three months by ethnic identity. ANOVA shows there was a significant difference in the mean experiences of racial microaggressions by race, $F(4, 252) = 37.93$, $p < .001$. Lines connected to ethnic groups which are significantly different (p < .05) according to Scheffe post hoc analysis. Solid lines show significant mean differences between White and all other ethnic groups. Dotted lines show mean differences of Asian with Black and *Other* ethnic groups.

Appendix A
Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale (REMS)

INSTRUCTIONS:

Think about your experiences with race. Please read each item and think of how many times this event has happened to you in the PAST THREE MONTHS.

> 0 = I did not experience this event.
> 1 = I experienced this event 1 time in the past three months.
> 2 = I experienced this event 2 times in the past three months.
> 3 = I experienced this event 3 times in the past three months.
> 4 = I experienced this event 4 times in the past three months.
> 5 = I experienced this event 5 or more times in the past three months.

*In addition, if you have experienced the event within the past three months, please specify how stressful/distressing the event was for you. For each event, select one of the following choices:

> N/A (Not Applicable)= The event did not happen to me.
> 1 = This event happened, but did not bother me.
> 2 = This event happened & I was slightly upset.
> 3 = This event happened & I was upset.
> 4 = This event happened & I was extremely upset.

|						
1. I was ignored at school or at work because of my race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
2. Someone's body language showed they were scared of me, because of my race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
3. Someone assumed that I spoke a language other than English.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
4. I was told that I should not complain about race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
5. Someone assumed that I grew up in a particular neighborhood because of my race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
6. Someone avoided walking near me on the street because of my race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
7. Someone told me that she or he was colorblind.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
8. Someone avoided sitting next to me in a public space (e.g., restaurants, movie theaters, subways, buses) because of my race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
9. Someone assumed that I would not be intelligent because of my race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5

10. I was told that I complain about race too much.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
11. I received substandard service in stores compared to customers of other racial groups.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
12. I observed people of my race in prominent positions at my workplace or school.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
13. Someone wanted to date me only because of my race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
14. I was told that people of all racial groups experience the same obstacles.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
15. My opinion was overlooked in a group discussion because of my race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
16. Someone assumed that my work would be inferior to people of other racial groups.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
17. Someone acted surprised at my scholastic or professional success because of my race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
18. I observed that people of my race were the CEOs of major corporations.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
19. I observed people of my race portrayed positively on television.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
20. Someone did not believe me when I told them I was born in the US.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
21. Someone assumed that I would not be educated because of my race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
22. Someone told me that I was "articulate" after she/he assumed I wouldn't be.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
23. Someone told me that all people in my racial group are all the same.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
24. I observed people of my race portrayed positively in magazines.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
25. An employer or co-worker was unfriendly or unwelcoming toward me because of my race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
26. I was told that people of color do not experience racism anymore.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
27. Someone told me that they "don't see color."	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
28. I read popular books or magazines in which a majority of contributions featured people from my racial group.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
29. Someone asked me to teach them words in my "native language."	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
30. Someone told me that they do not see race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
31. Someone clenched her/his purse or wallet upon seeing me because of my race.	0	1	2	3	4	5

If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
32. Someone assumed that I would have a lower education because of my race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
33. Someone of a different racial group has stated that there is no difference between the two of us.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
34. Someone assumed that I would physically hurt them because of my race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
35. Someone assumed that I ate foods associated with my race/culture every day.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
36. Someone assumed that I held a lower paying job because of my race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
37. I observed people of my race portrayed positively in movies.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
38. Someone assumed that I was poor because of my race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
39. Someone told me that people should not think about race anymore.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
40. Someone avoided eye contact with me because of my race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
41. I observed that someone of my race is a government official in my state	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
42. Someone told me that all people in my racial group look alike.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
43. Someone objectified one of my physical features because of my race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
44. An employer or co-worker treated me differently than White co-workers.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
45. Someone assumed that I speak similar languages to other people in my race.	0	1	2	3	4	5
If you have experienced the above event, how stressful/distressing was it for you?	N/A	1	2	3	4	5

Nadal, K. L. (2010). The Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale (REMS): Construction, reliability, and validity. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 58(4). Doi: 10.1037/a0025193

Appendix B
The Index of Race-Related Stress – Brief Version (IRRS-B)
INSTRUCTIONS:
This survey questionnaire is intended to sample some of the experiences that [racial minorities] have in this country because of their [race]. There are many experiences that a [racial minority] can have in this country because of his/her race. Some events happen just once, some more often, while others may happen frequently. Below you will find listed some of these experiences, for which you are to indicate those that have happened to you or someone very close to you (i.e. family member or loved one). It is important to note that a person can be affected by those events that happen to people close to them; this is why you are asked to consider such events as applying to your experiences when you complete this questionnaire. Please circle the number on the scale (0 to 4) that indicates the reaction you had to the event at the time it happened. Do not leave any items blank. If an event has happened more than once, refer to the first time it happened. If an event did not happen circle 0 and go on to the next item.

> 0 = This never happened to me.
> 1 = This event happened, but did not bother me.
> 2 = This event happened & I was slightly upset.
> 3 = This event happened & I was upset.
> 4 = This event happened & I was *extremely* upset.

1. You notice that crimes committed by White people tend to be romanticized, whereas the same crime committed by a [racial minority] is portrayed as savagery, and the [racial minority] who committed it, as an animal.	0	1	2	3	4
2. Sales people/clerks did not say thank you or show other forms of courtesy and respect (e.g. put things in a bag) when you shopped at some White owned businesses.	0	1	2	3	4
3. You notice that when [racial minorities] are killed by the police, the media informs the public of the victims criminal record or negative information in their background, suggesting they got what they deserved.	0	1	2	3	4
4. You have been threatened with physical violence by an individual or group of White[s]	0	1	2	3	4
5. You have observed that White kids who committ violent crimes are portrayed as "boys being boys," while [racial minority] kids who committ similar crimes are wild anmals.	0	1	2	3	4
6. You seldom hear or read anything about [your race] on radio, TV, in newspapers, or history books.	0	1	2	3	4
7. While shopping at a store the sales clerk assumed that you couldn't afford certain items (e.g. you were directed toward the items on sale).	0	1	2	3	4
8. You were the victim of a crime and the police treated you as if you should just accept it as a part of being [a racial minority].	0	1	2	3	4
9. You were treated with less respect and courtesy than Whites and other [individuals] while in a store, restaurant, or other business establishment.	0	1	2	3	4
10. You were passed over for an important project although you were more qualified and competent than the White person given the task.	0	1	2	3	4
11. Whites have stared at you as if you didn't belong in the same place as them; whether it was a restaurant, theater, or other place of business.	0	1	2	3	4
12. You have observed the police treat White [individuals] with more respect than they do [members of your race].	0	1	2	3	4
13. You have been subjected to racist jokes by Whites in positions of authority and you did	0	1	2	3	4

not protest for fear that they might have held it against you.					
14. While shopping at a store, or when attempting to make a purchase, you were ignored as if you were not a serious customer or didn't have any money.	0	1	2	3	4
15. You have observed situations where other [members of your race] were treated harshly or unfairly by Whites due to their race.	0	1	2	3	4
16. You have heard reports of White people who have committed crimes, and in an effort to cover up their deeds falsely reported that a [member of your race] was responsible for the crime.	0	1	2	3	4
17. You notice that the media plays up those stories that cast [your race] in negative ways (child abusers, rapists, muggers, etc.), usually accompanied by a picture of a [member of your race] looking angry or disturbed.	0	1	2	3	4
18. You have heard racist remarks or comments about [your race] spoken with impunity by White public or other influential White people.	0	1	2	3	4
19. You have been given more work, or most undesirable jobs at your place of employment while the White[s] of equal or less seniority and credentials is given less work, and more desirable tasks.	0	1	2	3	4
20. You have heard or seen other [members of your race] express a desire to be White or have White physical characteristics because they dislike being a [their own race] or thought it was ugly.	0	1	2	3	4
21. White people or [people of other races] have treated you as if you were unintelligent and needed things explained to you slowly or numerous times.	0	1	2	3	4
22. You were refused an apartment or other housing; you suspect it was because [of your race].	0	1	2	3	4

Utsey, S. O. (1999). Development and validation of a short form of the Index of Race-Related Stress (IRRS-B) – Brief Version. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, 32(3),* 149-167.

Appendix C
Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ)

INSTRUCTIONS:

For each of the following statements, circle the number on the 5-point scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree) that best describes how that statement applies to you and your parent/guardian. Try to read and think about each statement as it applies to you and your parent/guardian during your years of growing up at home. There are no right or wrong answers, so don't spend a lot of time on any one item. We are looking for your overall impression regarding each statement. Be sure not to omit any items. **Please keep one parent/guardian in mind when completing the questionnaire.**

1 = *Strongly Disagree*
2 = *Disagree*
3 = *Neither Agree or Disagree*
4 = *Agree*
5 = *Strongly Agree*

*Please indicate the parent/ guardian about whom you will answer the following 30 questions about

___Biological Father ___Biological Mother ___Step Father ___Step Mother

___ Other Legal Guardian (e.g. grandfather, grandmother, uncle, aunt, foster father, foster

mother) –**Please Specify**_____

1. While I was growing up, my parent/guardian felt that in a well-run home the children should have their way in the family as often as the parents do.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Even if her/his children didn't agree with her/him, my parent/guardian felt if that this was for our own good we were forced to conform to what he/she thought was right.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Whenever my parent/guardian told me to do something as I was growing up, he/she expected me to do it immediately without asking any questions.	1	2	3	4	5
4. As I was growing up, once family policy had been established, my parent/guardian discussed reasoning behind the policy with the children in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
5. My parent/guardian has always encouraged verbal give-and-take whenever I have felt the family rules and restrictions were unreasonable.	1	2	3	4	5
6. My parent/guardian has always felt that children need to be free to make up their own minds and to do what they want to do, even if this does not agree with what their parents might want.	1	2	3	4	5
7. As I was growing up my parent/guardian did not allow me to question any decision he/she had made.	1	2	3	4	5
8. As I was growing up my parent/guardian directed the activities and decisions of the children in the family through reasoning and discipline.	1	2	3	4	5
9. My parent/guardian has always felt that more force should be used by parents in order to	1	2	3	4	5

get their children to behave the way they are supposed to.					
10. As I was growing up, my parent/guardian did not feel that I needed to obey rules and regulations of behavior simply because someone in authority has established them.	1	2	3	4	5
11. As I was growing up I knew what my parent/guardian expected of me in my family, but I also felt free to discuss those expectations with my parent/guardian when I felt that they were unreasonable.	1	2	3	4	5
12. My parent/guardian felt that wise parents should teach their children early who is the boss in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
13. As I was growing up, my parent/guardian seldom gave me expectations and guidelines for my behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Most of the time as I was growing up my parent/guardian did what the children in the family wanted when making family decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
15. As the children in the family were growing up, my parent/guardian consistently gave us direction in rational and objective ways.	1	2	3	4	5
16. As I was growing up, my parent/guardian would get very upset if I tried to disagree with her/him.	1	2	3	4	5
17. My parent/guardian feels that most problems in society would be solved if parents did not restrict their children's activities, decisions, and desires as they are growing up.	1	2	3	4	5
18. As I was growing up my parent/guardian let me know what behavior she expected of me, and if I didn't meet her/his expectations, he/she punished me.					
19. As I was growing up my parent/guardian allowed me to decide most things for myself without a lot of direction from her/him.	1	2	3	4	5
20. As I was growing up my parent/guardian took the children's opinions into consideration when making family decisions, but he/she would not decide for something simply because the children wanted it.	1	2	3	4	5
21. My parent/guardian did not view herself/himself as responsible for directing and guiding my behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
22. My parent/guardian had clear standards of behavior for the children in the home as I was growing up, but he/she was willing to adjust those standards to the needs of each of the individual children in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
23. My parent/guardian gave me clear direction for my behavior and activities as I was growing up and he/she expected me to follow her/his direction, but he/she was always willing to listen to my concerns and to discuss that direction with me.	1	2	3	4	5
24. As I was growing up my parent/guardian allowed me to form my own point of view on family matters and he/she generally allowed me to decide for myself what I was going to do.	1	2	3	4	5
25. My parent/guardian has always felt that most problems in society would be solved if parents strictly and forcibly dealt with their children when they don't do what they are supposed to as they are growing up.	1	2	3	4	5
26. As I was growing up my parent/guardian often told me exactly what she wanted me to do and how she expected me to do it.	1	2	3	4	5
27. As I was growing up my parent/guardian gave me clear direction for my behaviors and activities, but he/she was also understanding when I disagreed with her/him.	1	2	3	4	5
28. As I was growing up my parent/guardian did not direct the behaviors, activities, and desires of the children in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
29. As I was growing up I knew what my parent/guardian expected of me in the family and	1	2	3	4	5

he/she insisted that I conform to those expectations simply out of respect for her/him authority.					
30. As I was growing up, if my parent/guardian made a decision in the family that hurt me, he/she was willing to discuss that decision with me and to admit if he/she had made a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5

Buri, J. R. (1991). Parental Authority Questionnaire. Journal of Personality Assessment, 51, 110–119.

Appendix D
Coping With Discrimination Scale (CDS)

INSTRUCTIONS:

This is a list of strategies that some people use to deal with their experiences of discrimination. Please respond to the following items as honestly as possible to reflect how much each strategy best describes the ways you cope with discrimination. There are no right or wrong answers. Please respond to these items using six response options:

1 = *Never like me.*
2 = *A little like me.*
3 = *Sometimes like me.*
4 = *Often like me.*
5 = *Usually like me.*
6 = *Always like me.*

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. I try to educate people so that they are aware of discrimination.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I do not talk with others about my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I try to stop thinking about it by taking alcohol or drugs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I respond by attacking others' ignorant beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I wonder if I did something to provoke this incident.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I educate myself to be better prepared to deal with discrimination.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I've stopped trying to do anything.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I use drugs or alcohol to take my mind off things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I get into an argument with the person.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I wonder if I did something to offend others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I try to stop discrimination at the societal level.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. It's hard for me to seek emotional support from other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I do not use drugs or alcohol to help me forget about discrimination.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I do not directly challenge the person.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I wonder if I did something wrong.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I help people to be better prepared to deal with discrimination.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I do not have anyone to turn to for support.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I do not use alcohol or drugs to help me deal with it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I try not to fight with the person who offended me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I believe I may have triggered the incident.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. I educate others about the negative impact of discrimination.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. I have no idea what to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. I use drugs or alcohol to numb my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. I directly challenge the person who offended me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. I do not think that I caused this event to happen.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Wei, M., Alverez, A.N., Ku., T., Russell., D.W., & Bonett, D.G. (2010). Development and validation of a coping with discrimination scale: Factor, structure, reliability, and validity. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 57(3),* 328-344. doi: 10.1037/a0019969

Appendix E
Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure—Revised

INSTRUTIONS:

In this country, people come from a lot of different cultures and there are many different words to describe the different backgrounds or *ethnic* groups that people come from. Some examples of the names of ethnic groups are Mexican-American, Hispanic, Black, Asian-American, American Indian, Anglo-American, and White. Every person is born into an ethnic group, or sometimes two groups, but people differ on how important their *ethnicity* is to them, how they feel about it, and how much their behavior is affected by it. These questions are about your ethnicity or your ethnic and how you feel about it and react to it.

Please fill in:

In terms of your ethnic group, I consider myself to be_____

Use the numbers given below to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement.

  1:Strongly disagree   2:Somewhat disagree   3:Netutral   4:Somewhat agree   5:Strongly agree

1. I have spent time trying to find out more about my own ethnic group, such as history, traditions, and customs.	
2. I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group.	
3. I understand pretty well what my ethnic group membership means to me.	
4. I have often done things that will help me understand my ethnic background better	
5. I have often talked to other people in order to learn more about my ethnic group.	
6. I feel strong attachment towards my own ethnic group.	

My Ethnic background is:

Asian, Asian American, or Oriental ___
Black or African American ___
Hispanic or Latino ___
White, Caucasian, European, not Hispanic ___
American Indian ___
Mixed; parents are from two different groups ___
Other (type in):_____

Phinney, J. (1992). The multigroup ethnic identity measure: A new scale for use with diverse
        groups. *Journal of Adolescent Research, 7*(2), 156-176. Doi: 10.1177/074355489272003

Appendix F
Demographics Questionnaire

1. **How did you hear about this study?**

___Email   ___Facebook/social media   ___From the researcher

___From a Research Assistant   ___You saw a flier   ___From a friend

___Other (please specify) _____

2. **Age _____**

3. **Gender/Sex _____**

(M = male, F = female, O = Other: Please specify:_____)

4. **Race:** ___Latino/Hispanic ___ American Indian/Alaska Native

___ Black/African American ___ Asian   ___ African   ___White

___ Mixed Race: Please specify_____ ___ Other: Please specify_____

5. **Country of Origin (In what country were you born):**

___United States   ____Other (please specify) _____

6. **Number of years living in the United States: _____**

7. **Please indicate your social class:**

 ___Lower Class   ___ Working Class   ___ Middle Class

___Upper Middle Class   ___Upper Class

8. **Your Level of Education:**

___ Some High School   ___ High School Diploma

___ Some College   ___College Graduate   ___ Some Grad School

___Graduate School Degree   ___Doctorate Degree

9. **In general, would you say that your physical health is:**

___Very poor ___Poor   ___Fair   ___Good   ___Very Good

Please answer the following questions in relation to your parent(s) or guardian(s).

10.   **Parents' Marital Status:**   ___ Married   ___ Unmarried   ___ Separated

___ Divorced   ___ Widowed   ___Unknown

11.   **For the majority of the time you were living at home, your parent(s)'/guardian(s)'**

social class could be classified as:

___ Lower Class   ___ Working Class   ___Middle Class

 ___Upper Middle Class   ___Upper Class

12.   **Mother's/female guardian's Race:** ___Latina/Hispanic ___ White

___American Indian/Alaskan ___Black/African America ___Asian ___African

___Mixed Race: Please Specify_____ ___ Other: Please Specify_____

___ I don't know

13.   **Father's/male guardian's Race:** ___Latino/Hispanic ___ White

___American Indian/Alaskan ___Black/African American ___Asian ___African ___Mixed Race:

Please Specify_____ ___ Other: Please Specify_____

___ I don't know

14.   **Mother's/female guardian's Education:**

___ Some High School   ___ High School Diploma

___ Some College   ___College Graduate   ___ Some Grad School

___Graduate School Degree ___Doctorate Degree   ___I don't know

___N/A

15.   **Father's/male guardian's Education:**

___ Some High School   ___ High School Diploma

___ Some College   ___College Graduate   ___ Some Grad School

___Graduate School Degree   ___Doctorate Degree   ___I don't know

___N/A

16.   **Were you raised by a single parent? ___**No   ___Yes: Please specify (i.e. mother,

father, aunt, uncle, grandfather, grandmother, adoptive/foster parent) _____

17.   **Were you raised by same-sex parents? ___** Yes   ___ No

Appendix G
Paper Advertisement

Are you a racial/ethnic minority?
Can you remember how your parents/guardians behaved when you were younger?
Interested in winning a $50 American Express gift card?
IF SO, YOU ARE INVITED TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY!
**If you are interested, please email Quintin Talley at qtrmstudy@gmail.com
Please feel free to share this announcement with friends and family!

What's the Study About? – Master's level thesis study about coping with stress. It's easy! All you have to do is complete a series of questionnaires about events that may stress you out, your parents'/guardians' behavior, and how you cope with stress.
Who to Contact? – Quintin Talley from the Psychology Department at Towson University.

Why is this Important? – To help better understand how we cope with stress based on several factors.
ANYONE CAN PARTICIPATE!!! TELL A FRIEND!

Interested in Participating?
Please Contact Quintin Talley at
qtrmstudy@gmail.com

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qtrmstudy@gmail.com

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Please Contact Quintin Talley at
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Interested in Participating?
Please Contact Quintin Talley at
qtrmstudy@gmail.com

Appendix H
Email/Electronic Invitation to Participate

Hello. My name is [X] and I am a student from the Psychology Department at Towson University. I am conducting a study on race-related stressors and how people cope with them based on various factors (e.g. how your parents'/guardians' behaved when you were growing up). I hope this study will help to better understand how people cope with stress based on parental factors.
I would like to invite you to participate in this study. If you are over the age of 18; then you are eligible to participate. This is a one-time, online study that is expected to take about 30 minutes. If you complete the entire study, you will receive the opportunity to be entered into a lottery to win one of four **$50 American Express gift cards**. It's easy, and anyone can participate for a chance to win.
Please email me back at qtrmstudy@gmail.com if you are interested in participating. Please include your email and a friend's email address. I will email you a link to the study.
Thank you,
[Insert name here]

Appendix I
Email/Electronic Invitation to Interested Participant

Dear X,

Thank you for your interest in this study!

To participate in this study about coping with stressors based on parental factors, we ask that you follow a link to a secure web page where you will find a series of questionnaires.

(insert link here)

We ask that you complete this online study independently; not in consultation with your parents, guardians, or friends. Please be honest, and answer all questions to the best of your abilities.

You will be reminded at the end of the study to close your web browser to protect your confidentiality. You will not be asked to enter in any identifying information (e.g. name, school ID number).

Please contact us if you have any questions or comments about the study.

Upon completion of **ALL** questionnaires, you will have the option of entering in the drawing to win one of four $50 American Express gift cards, or extra credit (if applicable).

Thank you very much for your interest and participation!

Sincerely,

[Insert name here]
qtrmstudy@gmail.com.

Appendix J
Informed Consent Cover Letter

TOWSON
UNIVERSITY™

Coping with Racial Microaggressions: The Moderating Effects of Parenting Style

Dear Participant,

This study is designed to examine how you cope with stress. Particularly, we are interested in how you cope with *racial microaggressions*. Racial microaggressions are a very common form of subtle racism. We would like to gather some information about you, and your family. While participation in this study is not expected to benefit you personally, the results of this project may inform research on parenting, subtle forms of racism, and coping.

This study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board at Towson University (410) 704-2236). **Please note that you must be 18 years of age or older to participate in this study.** If you are under 18, please exit the survey at this time.

Participating in this study will require you to complete a series of Likert-type surveys (e.g. questions that ask you to rate a response on a scale of 1-5). It will take you approximately 30 minutes to complete them all. The researchers will not ask you to provide any identifying information (with the exception of your email address for contact purposes and to be optionally entered in a drawing to receive one of four $50 American Express gift cards or extra credit, if offered by your professor). All information you provide will be kept confidential. Your information will be identified by the research team via an identification number. Any publications or reports regarding this project will not include identifying information on any participant.

There are minimal risks associated with participation in this study. For some, the items on the questionnaires may bring up uncomfortable memories of particular incidents. If you should become distressed by answering any of the questions in the study, you may choose to skip that particular question or discontinue answering any further questions at any time. You will receive no penalty for withdrawing from the study; however, only those who complete the majority of all questionnaires, and request to be entered in the lottery will be considered for the drawing to receive the gift card. If you find yourself disturbed or upset by completing these questionnaires, we encourage you to contact the Towson University Counseling Center at 410-704-2512 or the counseling center at your institution.

By clicking continue, you are acknowledging that you are 18 years of age or older, you understand your rights as a participant, including your right to withdraw from the study at any time, and you are providing your informed consent.

If you have any questions about this study or your participation, you can email Quintin Talley at qtrmstudy@gmail.com. My faculty sponsor is Dr. Marianne Dunn, who may be contacted via email at mdunn@towson.edu.

Thank you for taking the time to answer this survey.

Quintin Talley
(Principal Investigator)
Towson University
qtrmstudy@gmail.com

Marianne Dunn, Ph.D.
(Faculty Sponsor)
Towson University
mdunn@towson.edu

Appendix K
IRB Approval Form

TOWSON
UNIVERSITY

EXEMPTION NUMBER: 13-1X42

To: Quintin   Talley

From: Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human
        Subjects, Steven Mogge, Member

Date: Thursday, July 11, 2013

RE: Application for Approval of Research Involving the Use of
        Human Participants

Office of University
Research Services

Towson University
8000 York Road
Towson, MD 21252-0001

t. 410 704-2236
f. 410 704-4494

Thank you for submitting an application for approval of the research titled,

   Coping with racial microaggressions: The effects of parenting style

to the Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Participants
(IRB) at Towson University.

Your research is exempt from general Human Participants requirements
according to 45 CFR 46.101(b)(2). No further review of this project is
required from year to year provided it does not deviate from the submitted
research design.

If you substantially change your research project or your survey
instrument, please notify the Board immediately.

We wish you every success in your research project.

CC: Marianne Dunn (Psychology)
      File

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Quintin Talley

443 Shirley Manor Rd. • Reisterstown, MD 21136 • Phone: (443) 858-6612
E-Mail: quintintalley88@gmail.com
Counseling Psychology Master of Arts, 2013

EDUCATION:

M.A. Counseling Psychology – Towson University: Towson, MD (Estimate graduation December 2013)

B.S. Psychology - Bowie State University: Bowie, MD (May 2010; GPA 3.88)

EMPLOYMENT BACKGROUND:

- Residential Crisis Counselor – *Mosaic Community Mental Health, November 2012 – Present*
- Student Support Network Supervisor – *Psychology Department, Towson University, September 2013-December 2013*
- Group Counseling Teacher's Assistant – *Towson University, September 2013 – December 2013*
- Intern Therapist – *Carroll County Youth Service Bureau, August 2012 – May 2013*
- Teacher's Assistant – *Psychology Department, Towson University, August 2011 – June 2012*
- Undergraduate Lab Assistant – *Bowie State University, August 2009 – May 2010*
- Managed Care Intern – *CompCare: Comprehensive Behavioral Care, July 2009 – August, 2009*

AWARDS AND HONORS

- Student Support Network Mental Health Advocate Facilitator Certificate of Achievement – *Towson University, 2013*
- Certificate of Appreciation for Valuable Contributions – *Carroll County Youth Service Bureau, May 2013*
- Towson University Funded Research Endowment – Towson University, *2013*
- Psi Chi Certificate of Appreciation for Outstanding Mentoring – *Bowie State University, 2009*
- Graduated summa cum laude - *Bowie State University, 2010*
- Alpha Kappa Mu National Honor Society Inductee – *Bowie State University, 2010*
- Golden Key International Honour Society Inductee – *Bowie State University, 2010*
- Psi Chi International Honor Society Inductee – *Bowie State University, 2008*
- Alpha Chi National Honor Society Inductee - *Bowie State University 2008*

RESEARCH BACKGROUND

- Master's Level Thesis – *Coping with Racial Microaggressions: The Moderating Effects of Parenting Style* (under review), *Towson University, August 2011 – December 2013*
- Qualitative Research Coauthor - *Experience of Learning About Racial/Ethnic Microaggressions: A Qualitative Investigation*, *American Psychological Association, August 2012.*

SKILLS:

- **Operating Systems –**
  Windows XP, Windows Vista, Windows 7
- **Computer Software –**
  SPSS, Microsoft Office 2007 – 2010
- **Misc.**
  - Counseling/psychotherapy clinical skills
  - Group counseling skills
  - Suicide Assessment
  - Teaching experience
  - Supervisory experience