

Summer 2019

# A Mixed Methods Psychometric Validation of the Microaggression Experiences Among University Women of Color Scale

Kinjal Pandya

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarcommons.sc.edu/etd>



Part of the [Clinical Psychology Commons](#), and the [Community Psychology Commons](#)

---

## Recommended Citation

Pandya, K.(2019). *A Mixed Methods Psychometric Validation of the Microaggression Experiences Among University Women of Color Scale*. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <https://scholarcommons.sc.edu/etd/5411>

This Open Access Dissertation is brought to you by Scholar Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Scholar Commons. For more information, please contact [dillarda@mailbox.sc.edu](mailto:dillarda@mailbox.sc.edu).

A MIXED METHODS PSYCHOMETRIC VALIDATION OF  
THE MICROAGGRESSION EXPERIENCES AMONG UNIVERSITY WOMEN OF  
COLOR SCALE

by

Kinjal Pandya

Bachelor of Arts  
The Ohio State University, 2013

Master of Arts  
University of South Carolina, 2016

---

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in

Clinical-Community Psychology

College of Arts and Sciences

University of South Carolina

2019

Accepted by:

Cheryl Armstead, Major Professor

Stacy-Ann A. January, Committee Member

Myriam Torres, Committee Member

Bret Kloos, Committee Member

Cheryl L. Addy, Vice Provost and Dean of the Graduate School

© Copyright by Kinjal Pandya, 2019  
All Rights Reserved.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation would not have been possible without the help of my mentor, Dr. Cheryl Armstead. Her continued enthusiasm and encouragement helped me push the bounds of research and creativity. I would also like to thank my committee for their support and feedback throughout the process. A special thanks to my focus group participants and expert panel who shaped the items of the scale with their perspective and commentary. A very special thank you to the SPARC graduate research grant program and the Diversity Research Grant from the American Psychological Association for Graduate Students for their support and commitment to improving academic institution climate for all. Finally, I would like to thank my friends and family for their unwavering confidence in me, this project, and the journey to this degree. For that, I will always be grateful.

## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this mixed methods study was to develop a measure of gender and racial microaggressions among university women of color (WOC). Microaggressions are conceptualized as verbal, nonverbal, and environmental slights that can be intentional or unintentional, but communicate derogatory messages towards a group of marginalized people. Despite many qualitative, legal, and narrative reports of microaggressions against university WOC, there are no validated measures specific to the experiences of WOC in academic settings. This study attempts to fill that gap by creating and testing the factor structure of a measure of microaggressions experienced by university WOC. Phase I of the study focused on review of qualitative published sources regarding microaggressions to generate items for three focus groups conducted with staff, faculty, and graduate students. All qualitative data was analyzed and coded by the PI. Scale items were generated and revised based on thematic analysis of the focus group responses. The preliminary measure consisted of 51 items and was administered to WOC graduate students, faculty (tenured and non-tenured) and staff via a 15-minute online survey. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted ( $n=248$ ) to determine performance of items and factor structure. Results indicated a 4-factor solution that explained 56% of the variance in the scale items. The four factors were named, 1) Marginalization and Exclusion, 2) Emotional Reactivity, 3) Diversity Tax, and 4) Implicit Institutional Bias. It is our hope that this measure will aid in identifying the types and frequency of

microaggressions women of color report in efforts to create interventions to improve campus inclusivity and retention of the diverse academic workforce.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	iii
ABSTRACT .....	iv
LIST OF TABLES .....	viii
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW .....	8
2.1 DEFINITIONS & THEORIES .....	8
2.2 MICROAGGRESSIONS .....	11
2.3 REPORTED MICROAGGRESSIONS BY UNIVERSITY WOC.....	17
2.4 MICROAGGRESSIONS AND RESILIENCE .....	19
2.5 IDENTIFYING GAPS IN EXISTING MEASURES OF MICROAGGRESSIONS .....	22
2.6 THE CURRENT STUDY.....	24
CHAPTER 3 PHASE I .....	26
3.1 ITEM DEVELOPMENT .....	26
3.2 FOCUS GROUP PROCEDURE .....	28
3.3 FOCUS GROUP DATA ANALYTIC STRATEGY .....	30
3.4 FOCUS GROUP RESULTS .....	31
3.5 EXPERT PANEL .....	39
CHAPTER 4 PHASE II: INITIAL VALIDATION.....	44
4.1 PARTICIPANTS.....	44

4.2 MEASURES .....	46
4.3 PROCEDURE .....	48
4.4 DATA ANALYTIC PLAN .....	49
4.5 RESULTS .....	50
CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION .....	68
5.1 GENERAL DISCUSSION .....	68
5.2 FACTOR STRUCTURE OF MUWOCS .....	69
5.3 RELIABILITY & PREDICTIVE VALIDITY OF THE MUWOCS .....	72
5.4 GROUP DIFFERENCES IN SUBSCALE RESPONSES .....	74
5.5 LIMITATIONS .....	76
5.6 FUTURE DIRECTIONS .....	77
5.7 IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH AND PRACTICE .....	79
5.8 CONCLUSION .....	80
REFERENCES .....	81
APPENDIX A: SURVEY .....	93
APPENDIX B: FOCUS GROUP OUTLINE .....	96

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1 Focus Group Themes, Subthemes, Exemplary Statements, & Derived Scale Items .....	40
Table 4.1 Sample Characteristics.....	57
Table 4.2 Summary of MUWOCS Frequency Subscales and Factor Loadings from Maximum Likelihood Estimation with Promax Rotation.....	59
Table 4.3 Intercorrelations, Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliability Estimates MUWOCS Frequency Subscales .....	61
Table 4.4 Means, Standard Deviations, and Results of MANCOVA Model for Race.....	62
Table 4.5 Means, Standard Deviations, and Results of ANOVA Model for Position.....	63
Table 4.6 Means, Standard Deviations, and Results of MANCOVA Model for Education.. ..	67

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

The halls of academia have gradually changed in the diversity representation of faculty, graduate students, and instructors of color and gender composition compared to the earlier years of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Disparities remain today despite advancements made through the civil rights movement, affirmative action, and concerted 21<sup>st</sup> century attempts of inclusive policies to facilitate recruitment and retention of university Women of Color (WOC). Even with several decades of concerted efforts to decrease intersecting gender and racial disparities in the representation of WOC among faculty, graduate students, and staff, systemic and sociocultural factors influencing recruitment and retention appear to impair institutional efforts to change this disparity (Marbley, Wong, Santos-Hatchett, Pratt, & Jaddo, 2011). Organizational climate and culture experienced by WOC within academia is not well understood. Specifically, quantitatively based hiring and retention initiatives are ineffective without proper attention to the qualities of the contextual and psychosocial climates that may be unique to the experiences of WOC.

An organizational climate assessment instrument developed from the perceptions of key informants such as graduate students, staff, and faculty WOC would likely facilitate initiatives that could move academia forward in changing the disproportionate under-representation of WOC in these settings. The most frequently reported barriers to decreasing academic workforce under-representation among WOC are: 1) gender or

racially related microaggressions that are accepted/ignored within the organizational climate of institutions of higher education and 2) demographic isolation within departments (i.e., lack of gender-based ethnocultural support systems) (Delapp & Williams, 2015). Gender alone may not be a defining factor for building the academic workforce pipeline for WOC. Organizational barriers to equitable representation among university WOC may be rooted in the traditionalist view that gender under-representation is the central factor underlying disparities among female scholars of color (Dumas-Hines, Cochran, & Williams, 2001; Price et al., 2005). Critically reviewing studies regarding both the psychosocial and demographic intersections of race and gender within institutions of higher education is tantamount to understanding disparities in academia attributable to organizational climate and demographic makeup.

Universities nationwide are recognizing the importance of promoting diversity on campus. There is a movement to add Diversity and Inclusion offices at a higher administration level in colleges and universities. Specifically, the National Association of Diversity Officers in Higher Education, a task force of 90 members and 150 institutions, has led the way to achieving diversity outcomes through the appointment of “Chief Diversity Officers,” and Diversity and Inclusion committees across college campuses nationwide (Wilson 2013; Worthington, Stanley, & Lewis, 2014). The role of the chief diversity officers includes “guiding efforts to conceptualize, define, assess, nurture, and cultivate diversity as an institutional and educational resource” (Williams & Wade-Golden, 2007). The development of programs like these point to the importance of recruiting and retaining diverse faculty, graduate students, and staff at the university and

institutional level. Further, universities also have the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission Offices which enforce civil rights laws against workplace discrimination. This is often an avenue to make a formal complaint and take more institutional action against microaggressions.

### **Demographic underrepresentation of University WOC**

University WOC are underrepresented across positions. A report by the College and University Professional Association for Human Resources found that WOC only make up 9% of the higher education workforce as compared to 41% White women and 36% White men. Further, there is substantial pay inequity by position (staff, professionals, faculty, administrators). The report found that White women, women of color, and men of color are paid less than White men. For men of color, pay equity increase with position level, whereas for White women pay equity declines (McChesney, 2018).

The Center for American Progress reported on the recent inequities women of color continue to face in the workforce. They found that the number of WOC obtaining master's degree from doubled from 1997-2007, and the number of WOC obtaining doctorates increased by 63% in that same time period. However, they found significant gaps in Science Technology Engineering and Mathematics field (STEM) in that under-represented minority women received only 11.2% of bachelor's degrees in science and engineering, 8.2% of master's degrees in science and engineering, and 4.1% of doctorate

degrees in science and engineering” (Kerby, 2012). The author posits that implicit bias and stereotypes play a role in these low numbers.

In faculty positions, demographic data suggest that White faculty women have made strides in most disciplines within academia. The National Center for Education Statistics, National Study of Postsecondary Faculty in 2013 reported that 72% of professors in the United States identify as White. White was defined as a person having origins in any of the original people of Europe, the Middle east, or North Africa. Of all professors, 55% identify as male, whereas 44.84% identify as female (Snyder & Dillow, 2013).

At a first glance, this may not seem like a large gender disparity. However, a closer examination of the statistics reveal that among all female faculty, 71.55% identify as White while only 6.82% of all female faculty identify as Black (i.e. a person having origins of the Black racial groups in Africa); 4.76% as Hispanic (i.e. someone of Cuban, Mexican, Puerto Rican, South, or Central American descent); 8.61% as Asian and Pacific Islander (i.e. a person having origins from the Far East, Southeast Asian, or the Indian subcontinent, and Hawaii, Guam, Samoa, or the Pacific Islands); 0.5 % identified as American Indian/Alaska Native (i.e. a person having origins of any of the original peoples of North and South American who maintain tribal affiliation); .93% two or more races; 2.8% race unknown; and 4.0% as non-resident/alien (Snyder & Dillow, 2013).

In addition to the stark differences in gender and ethnicity, the aforementioned study found that more male professors (48.8%) had obtained tenure (i.e., associate & full

professor) compared to female professors (34.8%) (Snyder & Dillow, 2013). Among non-White women, only 26.8% had obtained tenure and 73.2% were assistant professors, instructors, lecturers, and “other faculty.” Other faculty were defined as, “primarily research and primarily public service faculty, as well as faculty without ranks (Snyder & Dillow, 2013). These data support the notion that although WOC obtain doctorates and other high-ranking degrees at rates that are consistent with their representation in the population, they are underrepresented in tenured positions.

### **Microaggressions in Academia**

Implicit bias in the form of gender and racial microaggressions has been cited as an explanation for WOC underrepresentation at different positions within academia (Council, 2013; Maldonado & Draeger, 2017; Marbley et al., 2011). Microaggressions are defined as “brief and commonplace daily verbal, behavioral, or environmental indignities, whether intentional or unintentional, that communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative slights and insults toward people of color” (Sue et al., 2007). University WOC are often targets of microaggressions in the areas of teaching, research, and service work (Ford, 2011; Kelly & McCann, 2013; Luna, Medina, & Gorman, 2010; Marbley et al., 2011; Turner, 2002; Halaevalu FO Vakalahi & Starks, 2010; Halaevalu F Vakalahi & Starks, 2011).

Additionally, it is important to acknowledge that microaggressions are not only experienced by women of color. Many other marginalized groups including men of color, white women, transgender individuals, sexual minorities, among many other groups also

face inequity at their academic institutions (Balsam, Molina, Beadnell, Simoni, & Walters, 2011). Women of color have been identified as the focus of this paper due to their unique positions as both gender and racial minorities in academia. University women of color refer to staff, faculty (both tenure and non-tenure track), as well as graduate students who are members of both a gender and racial minority group who work/attend academic institutions of higher education. It is important to examine the unique experiences of WOC because information on the experiences of WOC in academe can be masked and/or mixed with studies that report results under categories such as “academics of color” or “women” (Turner & González, 2011). Because women of color fit both racial and gender categories, inhabit multiple social identities, experience multiple marginality, it is important to examine their experiences separately from other groups of academics (Turner & González, 2011).

Although there is evidence that suggests that hiring individuals of diverse backgrounds is vital, (Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, & Gurin, 2002), little is known about how to create a climate of support and sustainability for WOC. By hiring and retaining diverse staff, faculty, and graduate students of color, universities and institutions are investing in their educational future (Gurin, Nagda, & Lopez, 2004). Therefore, empirical research on how university WOC experience academia, what barriers they face, and how they succeed are of utmost importance.

Basic measures of exposure to microaggressions based on race, gender, and sexuality have been validated and show good psychometric qualities (Balsam et al., 2011; Nadal, 2011; Torres-Harding, Andrade Jr, & Romero Diaz, 2012), yet do not capture

microaggressions specifically for underrepresented women on campus. A measure of microaggression exposure among WOC is a tool that is much needed for improving university climates and the wellbeing of underrepresented WOC.

The proposed project addresses the need for a specific measure that is culturally tailored to the experiences of WOC. A validated self-report measure of microaggressions for university WOC would allow for assessment opportunities that would enhance and university initiatives and programs to improve long-term diversity in the workforce. This would allow institutions across the country to better understand the specific issues WOC are facing. Moreover, use of this instrument in diversity initiative development and implementation would spark meaningful dialogue between administrators, faculty, and students at institutions of higher education.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

To provide a framework for the microaggressions WOC face in academia, this literature review will discuss important terms and definitions, theories of discrimination, including subtle and overt discrimination, as well as intersectionality and the combined effects of racial and gender discrimination for women of color. Microaggressions will be discussed more specifically, followed by a review of existing measures of microaggressions and their limitations, ending with a rationale for developing and validating a microaggressions measure for women of color in academia.

#### **2.1 Definitions & Theories**

In order to study any construct or phenomenon in psychology, it is important to provide definitions for these terms. In the following section, I will provide definitions for race, ethnicity, and women of color. I will conclude the section with defining discrimination and discussing relevant theoretical frameworks.

**Race and ethnicity.** Race and ethnicity are often used simultaneously, interchangeably, and often incorrectly. Race may often refer to one's physical attributes like skin and hair color. Ethnicity, however, includes cultural factors such as nationality, language, and religion (Dressler, Oths, & Gravlee, 2005). For the purposes of this study, participants will be asked to indicate their race. The definition and categories identified in

the Study of Post-Secondary Faculty for race will be utilized in this study (Snyder & Dillow, 2013).

**Women of color.** Per the American Psychological Association, gender “refers to the attitudes, feelings, and behaviors that a given culture associates with a person’s biological sex. Behavior that is compatible with cultural expectations is referred to as gender-normative; behaviors that are viewed as incompatible with these expectations constitute gender non-conformity” (Haldeman, 2012). Gender identity “refers to “one’s sense of oneself as male, female, or transgender” (Haldeman, 2012). In this paper, the term “woman” is based on how an individual refers to one self as female. The author would like to acknowledge gender fluidity and recognizes that gender is on a spectrum, and not always binary (male/female).

We extend this definition of “woman” to help us define “women of color.” Although frequently utilized, the term “minority” does not encompass the intersection of race and gender for non-White individuals. In 1991, Kimberle Crenshaw pioneered the term “Women of Color” to account for the various identities of women who are victims of violence. She states that “because of their intersectional identity as both women and of color within discourses that are shaped to respond to one or the other, women of color are marginalized within both” (Crenshaw, 1991). Historically, the term women of color has come to be used by women of varied non-White ethnicities to denote solidarity and similarity in basic experiences related to the intersection of gender and non-White status (Schafer & Ferraro, 2011).

In general, the term women of color has been embraced by this population and is now widely utilized by many scholars (Turner & González, 2011). In this review, the term woman of color refers to how women self-identify into the following racial groups as defined by the Study of Post-Secondary Faculty described in the introduction: Black (i.e., African American, people of the African Diaspora, Caribbean Americans), Asian Americans/Pacific Islanders, Native Americans, Latino/as, and non-white Hispanic Americans (Snyder & Dillow, 2013). This is consistent with prior conceptualizations of the term “women of color” (Schafer & Ferraro, 2011).

An important caveat is that an individual may self-identify as a racial minority but may not be perceived as one to the outgroup or even to the agents of microaggressions. In other words, minority race is in the eye of the beholder. People who identify on paper being of minority status may not be identified as such by agents of microaggressions. Visual racial ambiguity may be a stimulus for invisibility among women of color.

**Discrimination: definitions & theories.** Researchers have defined the different forms of discrimination including but not limited to, overt and covert forms (Jones, Arena, Nittrouer, Alonso, & Lindsey, 2017), perceived discrimination (Brondolo et al., 2005), institutional/structural discrimination (Pincus, 1996), interpersonal discrimination (Pincus, 1996), and even cultural discrimination (D. R. Williams & Mohammed, 2013). Discrimination is broadly as defined as unfair treatment based solely on an individual’s group affiliation (C. D. Williams, 2014). People are discriminated on the basis of their race, ethnicity, gender, nationality, sexuality, ability/disability, religion, among various other identities (Nadal, Wong, Sriken, Griffin, & Fujii-Doe, 2015).

Covert or subtle discrimination is defined as “negative or ambivalent demeanor and/or treatment enacted toward social minorities on the basis of their minority status membership that are not necessarily conscious and likely convey ambiguous intent” (Jones, Peddie, Gilrane, King, & Gray, 2016). Further, overt discrimination can be defined as “explicitly negative demeanor and/or treatment enacted toward social minorities on the basis of their minority status membership that are necessarily conscious” (Jones et al., 2017).

There is evidence that this subtler type of discrimination can be more harmful than blatant discrimination (Jones et al., 2016). One reason for this is because subtle forms of discrimination are harder to detect and assess. The attributional ambiguity theory suggests that it is easier to attribute a negative blatant discriminatory experience to discrimination itself in comparison to an ambiguous situation where the target is left wondering whether that was a truly discriminatory experience or was it their perception (Crocker, Voelkl, Testa, & Major, 1991). Further, Jones and colleagues suggest that covert discrimination is more harmful because it is more frequent than blatant discrimination (Jones et al., 2016). We conceptualize microaggressions as containing both overt and covert acts of discrimination based on the definition of Derald Sue and colleagues (Sue et al., 2007) explained in the next section.

## **2.2 Microaggressions**

The word “microaggressions” was coined by psychiatrist Chester M. Pierce in 1970 and refers to “subtle, often automatic, and non-verbal exchanges which are put

downs” (Solorzano, Ceja, & Yosso, 2000). Since the coining of this term, research has proliferated in this area, showing that microaggressions are real, that many people from different minority groups experience them, and that they are harmful (Basford, Offermann, & Behrend, 2014; Boysen, 2012; Constantine, Smith, Redington, & Owens, 2008; Constantine & Sue, 2007; Delapp & Williams, 2015).

Microaggressions are defined as “brief and commonplace daily verbal, behavioral, or environmental indignities, whether intentional or unintentional, that communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative racial slights and insults toward people of color” (Sue, Capodilupo, & Holder, 2008). Microaggressions are erroneously categorized as “subtle,” forms of discrimination. This information is misleading, because according to Sue and colleagues, there are three types of microaggressions: microassaults, microinvalidations, and microinsults (Sue et al., 2007). Microassaults are defined as “explicit racial derogations characterized primarily by a violent verbal or nonverbal attack meant to hurt the intended victim through name-calling, avoidant behavior or purposeful discriminatory actions” (Sue et al., 2007). Microassaults can be conceptualized as more overt or blatant forms of discrimination.

Microinvalidations are often unconscious and are defined as “verbal comments or behaviors that exclude, negate, or nullify the psychological thoughts, feelings, or experiential reality of a person of color.” For example, statements such as, “I don’t see color, I treat everyone like human beings” minimizes race and denies and distorts racial issues. Comments like these often make people of color feel invalidated.

Microinsults are behavioral/verbal remarks or comments that convey rudeness, insensitivity and demean a person's racial heritage or identity (Sue et al., 2007).

Examples of microinsults include assigning a degree of intelligence to a person of color based on their race, for example, assuming a Black female colleague got their position due to affirmative action rather than their own capabilities, qualifications, and skills.

Microaggressions are reported by many different groups of people. In a 2007 qualitative study, researchers investigated Asian American students' experiences with racial microaggressions (Sue et al., 2007). Utilizing a focus group design, researchers investigated the types of microaggressions Asian Americans reported, the various forms of these microaggressions, their impact, and how students coped with these indignities. Responses from ten students were organized into the following eight themes: alien in own land (assumption that all Asian Americans are foreign born), ascription of intelligence (assuming intelligence based on race), denial of racial identity (assumption that Asians do not experience discrimination), exoticization of Asian American women, invalidation of interethnic differences (assumption that all Asian groups are the same), pathologizing culture/values (forced to conform to Western norms), second class citizenship (Whites given preferential treatment), and invisibility (Sue et al., 2007).

In addition to Asian Americans, Black Americans (Constantine et al., 2008; Donovan, Galban, Grace, Bennett, & Felicié, 2013; Sue et al., 2008), Native Americans (Walls, Gonzalez, Gladney, & Onello, 2015), Latinos (Huynh, 2012; Rivera, 2012; Torres & Taknint, 2015), sexual minorities (Balsam et al., 2011), Muslims (Nadal, Davidoff, et al., 2015), and other groups of minorities also report experiencing

microaggressions. Microaggressions have also been related to negative mental health outcomes including depression (O'keefe, Wingate, Cole, Hollingsworth, & Tucker, 2015), maladaptive coping (Lewis, Mendenhall, Harwood, & Hunt, 2013), traumatic stress (Torres & Taknint, 2015), and somatic complaints (Huynh, 2012).

**The intersectionality of gender & racial microaggressions.** Much of the research on microaggressions have surrounded racial/ethnic microaggressions. A less researched area within microaggressions is the intersection of race and gender, and how WOC experience the compounded effects of *gender* and *racial* microaggressions. Intersectionality can be defined as the study of “relationships among multiple dimensions and modalities of social relationships and subject formations” (McCall, 2005). Crenshaw highlighted the term in her writings about sociological feminist theories (Crenshaw, 1991). Intersectionality is a framework that can be utilized to study how injustice and inequality can occur in a multidimensional way. In discussing WOC and the multiple marginality they face due to their membership in two or more oppressed groups, intersectionality allows for an analysis that considers within group similarities and differences (McCall, 2005).

Research on both racial and gender microaggressions is scarce. Lewis and colleagues examined gendered racism and microaggressions in Black women (Lewis, Mendenhall, Harwood, & Hunt, 2013). They defined gendered microaggressions as “the subtle and everyday verbal, behavioral, and environmental expressions of oppression based on the intersection of one’s race and gender” (p. 7). Focus group data from 17 Black women undergraduates, graduate, and professional revealed the following coping

strategies: two resistance coping strategies (i.e., Using One's Voice as Power, Resisting Eurocentric Standards), one collective coping strategy (i.e., Leaning on One's Support Network), and two self-protective coping strategies (i.e., Becoming a Black Superwoman, Becoming Desensitized and Escaping) (Lewis et al., 2013). This work was important in examining how microaggressions were experienced and coped with in a population of Black females. A limitation is that we cannot generalize these findings to other women of color.

A 2015 qualitative study examined the intersection of identity and microaggressions in a group of religious, sexual, gender, and racial minorities by utilizing intersectionality theory (Nadal, Davidoff, et al., 2015). The research team created the following intersectional domains: race and gender, race and religion, race and sexual identity, gender and religion, gender and sexual identity, religion and sexual identity, and three or more intersections (e.g. race gender and religion). They analyzed quotes from participants that mapped onto these intersectional domains.

Results indicated the following themes: exoticization of women of color, gender based stereotypes for lesbians and gay men, disapproval of LGBT identity by racial, ethnic, and religious groups, assumption of inferior status of women of color, invisibility and desexualization of Asian men, assumptions of inferiority or criminality of men of color, gender-based stereotypes of Muslim men and women, and women of color as spokesperson (Nadal, Davidoff, et al., 2015). This study was instrumental in the way that it intentionally created intersectional domains to investigate the various intersections of

race, gender, sexuality, and religion and how different groups of people experience different microaggressions.

Wang and colleagues argued that despite people having multiple marginal identities, race-related microaggressions would still be the most harmful in comparison to microaggressions based on gender, age, weight/height, and social class (Wang, Leu, & Shoda, 2011). They tested this hypothesis with a group of college-aged Asian Americans. Students were presented with twelve subtle discrimination scenarios and were asked to write why they thought the situation occurred. Then participants were asked to rate the likelihood that the situation was due to participants' gender, race, age, height/weight, and/or social class. Participants then rated emotion intensity of the situation.

The researchers found that for most of their Asian American participants, the intensity of their negative emotions was related to the belief that another person treated them differently due to their racial group. Further, these race-relevant appraisals were related to negative emotion intensity above and beyond the effects of the perceived relevance of other social identities such as gender, height/weight, age, and social class (Wang et al., 2011). This study raises interesting questions about the salience of an aspect of one's identity over another. In this group of Asian American students, their racial identity was the most salient, even in comparison to gender. These results indicate the possibility that within women of color, depending on their race, there may be differences in reported frequency and appraisal of microaggressions.

### 2.3 Reported Microaggressions by University WOC

Gender and racial microaggressions are reported by WOC in academia. Scholars, researchers, and faculty members have written about these discriminatory experiences for decades. This is by no means, a new topic or problem. However, much of this research has largely been descriptive and qualitative. A large review published in 2008 reviewed 252 publications regarding faculty of color in academia (Turner, González, & Wood, 2008). They reported themes that emerged at the institutional, departmental, and national contexts, and ended with making recommendations at each of these levels. This has been the largest review of how faculty of color experience academia to date. In the following section, I will highlight the main themes/results from the existing literature.

**(In)visibility/hypervisibility.** University WOC reported feeling “isolated,” like an “outsider,” and the “token” in their respective departments and institutions (Luna et al., 2010; Marbley et al., 2011; Turner & González, 2011; Halaevalu F Vakalahi & Starks, 2011). Due to this feeling of otherness, women of color reported having to “work twice as hard” and felt like they had to “prove their credibility” to their white faculty counterparts (Kelly & McCann, 2013; Halaevalu FO Vakalahi & Starks, 2010).

This theme of not being recognized for hard work but being overly recognized for race-related service is best explained by the construct of (in)visibility/hypervisibility (Settles, Buchanan, & Dotson, 2018). The authors define visibility as the extent to which an individual is regarded and recognized by others. Visibility can be empowering for marginalized groups such as WOC as they attempt to gain recognition for their work.

However, this can be disempowering when they are noticed and scrutinized for their differences or “otherness,” thus resulting in *hyperisibility*. Settles et al hypothesize that because WOC are an underrepresented group that lacks power within academia, they may be hyper visible due to their race *and* gender (Settles et al., 2018).

**Campus climate/institutional level variables.** Further, articles also discussed how a “hostile” or “chilly” climate can contribute to experiencing microaggressions. Factors contributing to this unwelcoming and hostile environment for WOC include a lack of diversity on campus, an environment of “colorblindness and unconscious racism,” lack of support from one’s colleagues, institutional racism, lack of social support for women and minorities, among others (Luna et al., 2010; Turner & González, 2011; Halaevalu FO Vakalahi & Starks, 2010).

**Gendered microaggressions.** WOC reported suffering from gender bias. This included being stereotyped as a mother figure and seen as nurturing and, therefore, being charged with a higher advising load. The consequences of these stereotypes resulted in WOC being assigned to advise students of color at a disproportionate rate as compared to their male and white female counterparts (Kelly & McCann, 2013). In one study, WOC described being questioned about their heritage due to their students’ perception that they did not look stereotypically Latina or Native American (Luna et al., 2010). Many articles mentioned “interlocking gender and ethnic bias” while some noted the salience of race as an identity over gender (Turner, 2002; Turner & González, 2011).

**Microassaults/blatant discrimination.** More recently, there have been reports of more overt or blatant forms of discrimination occurring on campus (Gin, Martínez-Alemán, Rowan-Kenyon, & Hottell, 2017; Liang, Knauer-Turner, Molenaar, & Price, 2017; Maldonado & Draeger, 2017). The blatant form of discrimination that was less prevalent in the 20<sup>th</sup> century, is re-surfacing in the recent year or so, as the political climate and landscape continues to change. These blatant discriminatory acts create a hostile or chilly racial campus climate, which then may contribute to problems in retaining diverse faculty (Maranto & Griffin, 2010).

**Resilience & coping.** Lastly, another important finding of these studies is the way WOC react to, cope with, and are resilient in the face of microaggressions. Many women reported relying on their support systems, creating safe spaces, addressing microaggressions by either taking action, or giving back (joining a committee, joining a cause) (Lewis et al., 2013; C. D. Williams, 2014). It is important to study stressors such as microaggressions in the context of resilience to learn how individuals overcome these adversities. The section below reviews literature linking microaggressions and resilience.

## **2.4 Microaggressions and Resilience**

Positive adaptations are the mechanisms and strategies that an individual uses to facilitate positive outcomes despite risk. According to Masten (2007), those individuals characterized as resilient must identify positive adaptations in relation to risk; therefore, resilience is inferential (Masten, 2007). For example, one may begin to acknowledge needs rather than seeing oneself as deficient in response to a present risk. Alternatively,

one may engage in adaptive distancing (i.e., selectively distancing oneself from distressing environments to accomplish goals). Resilience is multidimensional and developmental where individual strategies for building resilience may vary by time, individual demographics, contexts, and life circumstances (Connor & Davidson, 2003).

Therefore, one can conclude that positive adaptations may vary widely and are most easily understood by asking resilient individuals about their experiences or strategies. Resilience has been studied in community psychology by multiple researchers (Brodsky & Cattaneo, 2013; Brodsky et al., 2011; Fergus & Zimmerman, 2005; Runswick-Cole & Goodley, 2013; Zimmerman et al., 2013). These studies often involved the three components outlined in resilience theory (i.e., risk factors, protective factors, and positive adaptations).

Risk and protective factors are also present in Fergus and Zimmerman's (2005) models of resilience theory. Although Fergus and Zimmerman (2005) discuss multiple models of resilience, the protective factor model fits best with the current study (Fergus & Zimmerman, 2005). In the protective factor model, protective factors moderate or reduce the effects of risk on an outcome. Subtypes of the protective factor model include protective-stabilizing (i.e., a protective factor helps stabilize negative effects of risk), protective-reactive (a protective factor reduces the negative effects of risk), and protective-protective (one protective factor enhances another in a population exposed to risk (Fergus & Zimmerman, 2005; Zimmerman et al., 2013)

**Resilience theory in the current study.** Resilience theory is applied to understand the experiences of racial and gendered microaggressions toward university WOC by examining the interactions, setting, internal response, and external response involved in exposure to microaggressions. As used in this study, resilience theory includes the components discussed in the broader literature as well as in Fergus and Zimmerman's (2005) protective factor model (Fergus & Zimmerman, 2005).

The presence of risk is necessary in exploring resilience. In other words, by excluding the presence of risk or adversity, resilience cannot occur (Newman & Dale, 2005). Therefore, the first research question focuses on the presence and experience of risk (Interviewing WOC about their experiences with gendered and racial microaggressions). Microaggressions in the context of a university setting are environmental risk factors that may increase the likelihood of negative outcomes (e.g. intention to leave their position, turnover, etc.).

The third research question (Do the subscales of the university WOC Microaggressions Scale predict resilience?) addresses the issue of validity in that it is investigating *how* the constructs are related. With this framework in mind, I review existing measures of microaggressions and comment on the strengths and limitations of the existing scales, as well as report on whether they have been linked to protective factors such as resilience.

## **2.5 Identifying Gaps in Existing Measures of Microaggressions**

Various inventories that measure different types of microaggressions, including those targeting sexual minorities, racial minorities, ethnic minorities, women, and a combination of these identities have been developed (Balsam et al., 2011; Lewis & Neville, 2015; Nadal, 2011; Ortiz-Frontera, 2016; Torres-Harding et al., 2012). To date, there are two published studies that examine gendered and racial microaggressions (Keum et al., 2018; Lewis & Neville, 2015). While these studies add to the literature of the types of microaggressions WOC are facing, they do not specify the context in which these microaggressions are occurring. The Silenced and Marginalized subscale of the Gendered and Racial Microaggressions Scale for Black Women, includes items about workplace microaggressions, but is not specific to the type of work setting (Lewis & Neville, 2015). Learning about the context in which microaggressions occur is exceedingly important to understanding how to intervene on such actions.

Another limitation in the above referenced study is the type of sample included in analyses. College campuses and universities have been identified as the prime location for the occurrence of microaggressions (Gin et al., 2017; Lewis et al., 2013; Liang et al., 2017; Solorzano et al., 2000). Prior measures of microaggressions have included undergraduate samples and community samples. The studies that include academic samples are predominantly with undergraduate students. While their experiences are important to understanding the campus climate, there is a paucity of research examining microaggressions that post undergraduate samples face.

Additionally, an important step in scale validation is relating the measure to existing instruments to assess for different types of validity. Concurrent validity is the process in which the measure is expected to predict an expected outcome between in variables that are known to have a relationship (DeVellis, 2016). Concurrent validity in previous measures of microaggression has been investigated in the context of psychological distress and mental health outcomes. Specifically, measures of microaggressions been linked to depression and perceived stress (Balsam et al., 2011; Keum et al., 2018). To date, no microaggression measures have been related to a measure of resilience. The current study fills this gap by including a brief measure of resilience and relating it to the subscales of the measure.

Finally, existing measures have ranged from broad to specific in terms of the racial/ethnic composition of their sample. Some measures have attempted to measure microaggressions in all racial minority groups (Nadal, 2011; Torres-Harding et al., 2012) and others have attempted to discuss the specific experiences of a marginalized gender and ethnic group (Keum et al., 2018; Lewis & Neville, 2015). There are advantages and disadvantages to each approach. To create a general measure of microaggressions may increase external validity (i.e. the measure is more generalizable), however this may come at the cost of losing specificity. My measure attempts to strike a balance in this conceptual issue by narrowing the context of microaggressions to university campuses, while broadening the racial/ethnic composition to include all non-majority (i.e. European American) women. While university WOC are not a homogenous group, studies have pointed to the commonality of the experiences that women of color in campus

environments face across different positions (Turner, 2002; Halaevalu FO Vakalahi & Starks, 2010; Halaevalu F Vakalahi & Starks, 2011).

## **2.6 The Current Study**

Inventories that assess for racial/ethnic and gendered microaggressions have been created and have shown good reliability and validity. Although research points to college campuses as a prime location for the occurrence of microaggressions, no scale exists that assesses campus microaggressions. Further, research in the area of the intersectionality of racial and gender based microaggressions for university WOC is lacking. This study attempts to fill these gaps by creating and validating a measure for university WOC. Gendered and racial microaggressions are defined as, “intentional and/or unintentional brief and commonplace daily verbal, behavioral, or environmental indignities, that communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative ethnic and gender slights and insults towards University women of color.” This definition was created by combining the conceptualizations of Derald Sue and Jioni Lewis (Lewis & Neville, 2015; Sue et al., 2007).

The specific aims of the mixed methods study are:

- 1) To develop a measure of gender and racial microaggressions for university WOC (Phase I-Qualitative Formative Analysis),
- 2) To test the factor structure of the measure by utilizing an exploratory factor analysis (Phase II),

- 3) To assess for scale reliability (Phase II),
- 4) To assess for criterion-related validity (Phase II),
- 5) To examine group differences in reporting microaggressions by race, position, and education (Phase II).

## CHAPTER 3

### PHASE I

#### 3.1 Item Development

Phase I of the study focused on scale construction. The methods of scale construction outlined in Devillis 2016 combined with the principles of phenomenological design were utilized to generate items for the scale. Whereas grounded theory focuses on inductive generation of theory through comparative analyses, phenomenological research is a qualitative approach of inquiry where the researcher identifies the essence of lived experiences about a concept or phenomenon as described by participants in an attempt to make sense of the social world (Creswell & Clark, 2017; Patton, 2002). A phenomenological research design allows for an in-depth exploration of the “what” and “how” of participants’ collective experience (Creswell & Clark, 2017; Moustakas, 1994). Phenomenology can be useful for challenging structural or normative assumptions by bringing forth the perception of individuals from their own experiences, including that of the researcher (Groenewald, 2004; Lester, 1999).

University WOC face considerable stressors on campus environments as outlined in previous sections. A phenomenological design was appropriate for the current study as it explores the lived experience of racial and gendered microaggressions and resilience of university WOC. Consistent with this approach, prior to conducting the focus group, the principle investigator collected qualitative responses from a WOC in academia on a

social media discussion board. Participants of the social media group were asked to comment on their experiences with microaggressions within the academy. These responses were used to enhance question development for the focus groups.

Phase I of this study used focus group interviews to collect data. Previous literature emphasizes how focus groups can be used to explore experiences of microaggressions (Boysen, 2012; Constantine et al., 2008; Lewis et al., 2013). Focus group interviews involve group discussion about a topic that produces rich information about participants' experiences and/or beliefs (Morgan & Kreuger, 1998). Group interaction has the potential to provide insight about complex behaviors, motivations, feelings, and opinions in a friendly, respectful environment. In group interaction, participants can compare experiences, be explicit about their views, and consider questions from the facilitator that had not been previously considered (Krueger & Casey, 2002). This dialogue produces large amounts of information in a small amount of time. However, the data is not representative of any given individual in depth, but rather a range of experiences of a group (Morgan & Kreuger, 1998). Focus groups can also be useful for approaching sensitive topics (e.g., racial and gendered microaggressions) by facilitating discussion among members and providing mutual support for feelings or experiences common across participants (Kitzinger, 1995). This can be especially important for marginalized or minority groups.

According to Hughes and Dumont (1993), focus groups can be used to research social realities of cultural groups by providing access to language and concepts used to structure and think about experiences (Hughes, Seidman, & Williams, 1993). Further,

conducting focus groups with specific cultural groups increases homogeneity or similarity across participants and helps researchers develop a phenomenological understanding of cultural knowledge. Racial and gendered microaggressions can be difficult to identify, therefore this study used focus groups rather than individual interviews as focus group discussion creates a conversation around a given topic (Morgan & Kreuger, 1998) and could serve as a means of validating participants experiences.

Multiple resources were used to inform focus group facilitation. I have gathered literature to inform the facilitation process including “The Focus Group Kit” by David Morgan Richard Kreuger, “Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods” by Michael Quinn Patton, and Hughes and DuMont’s (1993) article on using focus groups to facilitate culturally anchored research (Hughes et al., 1993; Morgan & Kreuger, 1998; Patton, 2002). This literature provides guidelines on facilitation techniques including establishing rapport, managing types of participants (e.g., dominant, disruptive, rambling, quiet, shy and inattentive), remaining on topic, encouraging differing perspectives, tracking the discussion, controlling reactions, and bringing closure to the group. In the following section I describe the procedure, participants, and results of the three focus groups I conducted with staff, faculty, and graduate student women of color.

### **3.2 Focus Group Procedure**

Three focus groups, consisting of a total of 12 participants, were conducted to learn from women of color’s lived experiences of campus microaggressions and to generate additional items and confirm existing themes. Each focus group aimed to have

five participants per group as is typically recommended for focus group sizes (Krueger & Casey, 2002). On the evening of the first focus group, two participants canceled. As the other participants were already present, the group was conducted with three members. The second focus group consisted of five graduate students, and the third focus group consisted of four faculty women of color.

All focus groups were audio-recorded and transcribed by the PI. Information regarding audio recording of the interviews was provided during the informed consent process prior to start of group. Participants had the option of selecting pseudonyms and to not disclose identifying information so as not to be easily identified. The PI facilitated all groups. There was also a woman of color notetaker for each group. In the first group, the notetaker was a Latina graduate student, in the second group, the notetaker was an Asian graduate student, and in the third group, the notetaker was a Middle Eastern undergraduate research assistant.

Focus groups lasted approximately two hours and consisted of open-ended questions regarding participants' experiences with gendered and racial/ethnic microaggressions, coping with and reacting to microaggressions, and questions regarding campus climate (see Appendix B for focus group outline). Although the word ethnicity was used in conjunction with race, most participants discussed the saliency of their race in comparison to ethnicity and culture. Due to the sensitive nature of these questions, participants were made aware of university, local, and national mental health resources should participants require further debriefing or assistance.

Informed consent was given to participants by describing the nature of the study, and by explaining the risks and benefits of partaking in the study. Confidentiality was ensured by setting ground rules in all groups to preserve the privacy and respect of all present. All participants of the focus groups were compensated \$10.00 for their attendance. Responses were safeguarded in password protected devices. All data were deidentified. Records will be kept for two years and then destroyed afterwards to protect confidentiality of participants. The following section outlines the major themes and subthemes of the focus groups.

Focus group participants were invited to attend the defense to learn about the findings of the study with the caveat that they need not reveal their involvement with the study during the defense. Furthermore, all focus group and expert panelists will be emailed a summary of the results of the study.

### **3.3 Focus Group Data Analytic Strategy**

Data analytic strategy was guided by principles of the phenomenological method and general qualitative research analysis methods (Gibbs, 2018; Moustakas, 1994). Although traditional approaches to phenomenology aim to simply describe the data, contemporary views of the method add interpretation elements to the data. First, data was read and transcribed by the PI. Next, line by line coding was utilized to extract emerging themes (Gibbs, 2018). Numerous themes were created by this approach. Themes were created based on considering all the participants' experiences including nonverbals,

interactions with others present in the room, participant emotions, belief or value systems, and attitudes.

Next, commonalities across themes and the different focus groups were examined. The notetakers' comments were used to compare, and contrast themes generated by PI and look for new themes. A codebook was created for each focus group. Then, group codebooks were consolidated by examining common themes across groups, combining other codes, and generating new themes and subthemes. This final codebook included larger overarching themes with smaller themes and was utilized to generate items for the scale (explained in more detail after focus group results).

### **3.4 Focus Group Results**

Participants were 12 women of color staff, faculty, and graduate students. The first focus group consisted of three African American women. Two were staff members and reported their age to fifty-two and fifty-four, and one was a graduate student who reported her age to be twenty-seven. In the second focus group there were five graduate students. Four identified as African American, and one as Latina. The third focus group consisted of four African American and Hispanic tenure-track professors.

Focus group participants endorsed experiencing gender and racial microaggressions. The main themes included 1) Emotional, Behavioral Reactions to and Associated Coping with Microaggressions 2) Burden of Token Status & Diversity Service Work Tax 3) Academic Institution Climate, 4) Marginalization and Exclusion 5) Authority & Respect, 6) Stereotypes & Stereotype Threat 7) Research, Teaching,

Tenure/Promotion/Pay, 8) Assumptions of Intelligence, 9) Gendered & Racial Microassaults, 10) Assumptions of Similarities. Please see Table 3.1 for themes, subthemes, and quotes from participants.

**Theme 1: Emotional, Behavioral Reactions to and Coping with Microaggression.** This theme included how participants responded to microaggressions both behaviorally and emotionally. This theme also included coping strategies participants implemented in the face of microaggressions. The following were the three subthemes: Behavioral Responses, Emotional Reactivity, and Coping. I discuss each in detail below.

*Subtheme 1a: behavioral responses.* Participants in all three focus groups discussed a variety of reactions and responses to microaggressions. This was the most reported theme across all groups and included how participants reacted to microaggressions both behaviorally and emotionally as well as coping strategies they utilized to deal with the impact of microaggressions. Behavioral reactions ranged anywhere from “trying to let it roll off me” to filing a formal complaint with human resources. Some women described standing up for one self in the face of microaggressions; getting advice from other women of color to ask how they handled the situation, finding other ways to contribute (i.e. joining the diversity committee and addressing issues that way) to choosing one’s battles. Women talked about being “tired from some kind of battle every day” and worry regarding the toll microaggressions had on their physical and mental health.

***Subtheme 1b: emotional reactivity.*** Emotional reactions to microaggressions included frustration, anger, exhaustion, and shock. Often women stated they were worried that they “overreacted,” due to the ambiguous nature of microaggressions, with one woman remarking: “It’s hard to figure...that’s the whole questioning. did that really...was that this...was this that?” Some women reported thinking about incidents for weeks. The words “emotional toll”, “exhaustion”, and “burdensome” were also used to describe the emotional response to microaggressions.

***Subtheme 1c: coping strategies.*** Women in all three groups also shared how they coped with microaggressions. Much of the coping strategies involved finding support/validation from friends and colleagues. One participant described creating a separation between campus and home stating “When I leave campus, I really try to leave campus, I don’t like doing a lot of extracurricular things. I need to recharge.” Saying no to departmental activities and obligations was also cited as a coping skill. Another participant described joining social media groups with a focus on WOC in academia and stated: “This happens there too...provides a space...let your hair down, breathe.” One woman described leaning on her faith, another discussed the importance of creating “Black spaces” where people can discuss topics comfortably and without judgment. Others described keeping people in their program “at an arm’s length” and focusing on finishing their degree. Finally, immersing oneself in one’s culture by watching and taking part in media (i.e. TV, movies, etc.) from their cultural group was mentioned as a coping strategy.

**Theme 2: Burden of Token Status & Diversity Service Work Tax.** This main theme included feeling like having to be a spokesperson for minority topics and issues, struggling with the assumption that all women of color shared the same opinions, as well as being expected to complete more diversity related service work without receiving the recognition or pay. This theme was divided into two subthemes: Burden of Token Status and Diversity Service Work Tax. Each theme is described in detail below.

***Subtheme 2a: Burden of Token Status.*** Focus group participants reported experiencing the burden to present one's cultural group in a positive light in front of the majority racial group. They also spoke about the responsibility/obligation to educate out-group members about bias/microaggressions. One participant stated, "I'm not getting paid to educate you for free." Another participant expressed concern about her "token" status in her cohort reporting that as the only Black student in her cohort, others look to her when the topic of racial equity is discussed. Another participant adding, "you don't always want to be that Black girl bringing up the issues."

***Subtheme 2b: Assumptions of Similarity.*** This theme dealt with assumptions that all women of color or members of one's gender/ethnic group thought alike or had the same experiences. One graduate student spoke about her experiences disagreeing with her Black peers in class, and how both the Black and White students viewed her differently/negatively.

***Subtheme 2c: Diversity Tax.*** Others described the different roles and responsibilities ascribed to women of color in the department as compared to males or

white women with one participant stating: “I think specifically women of color who are faculty seem to take on a lot of different roles more so than non-minority people. There’s kind of a responsibility...to prove yourself or maybe just a hustler mentality.”

Participants described that these numerous roles were not receiving recognition, with one woman of color adding, “We don’t get graded for emotional toll for being a woman of color in the classroom.”

**Theme 3: Academic Institution Climate.** This theme included comments about the how overall socio-political climate impacts diversity related initiatives (subtheme 1) and the included concerns regarding emotional and physical safety concerns on campus (subtheme 2) as a result of this climate and associated institutional policies (or lack thereof).

**Subtheme 3a: Diversity Initiatives on Campus.** Participants commented on the lack of response or responses resembling more “lip service” from higher administration to address diversity issues, or help their students feel supported and protected. Women discussed how the attempts at diversity and inclusion that are being made do not address “the root” of the issues.

**Subtheme 3b: Safety.** Participants discussed how the overall climate on campus and the larger sociopolitical context of where the university was located impacted their overall feelings of belongingness and safety. Other participants described invalidating symbols in the campus environment that made them feel uncomfortable. Many described how the campus climate has been impacted/changed since the recent presidential election

increasing their apprehension, and in one case, how this political climate contributed to a participant being the victim of a targeted prejudiced act.

**Theme 4: Marginalization & Exclusion.** Codes that were grouped in this theme dealt with participants feeling excluded from meetings, or in class, and/or feeling invisible or marginalized in campus environments. Participants discussed feeling invalidated by their White peers, feeling invisible among their department, being “shut down” when trying to make a point in class. Participants discussed how their contributions to multicultural topics were met with resistance by their White peers/colleagues.

**Theme 5: Authority & Respect.** This theme dealt with overall dissatisfaction with not receiving respect from students, peers, and colleagues. One participant stated, “I’m not asking for respect it should be granted because I’m a person.” Another participant reported displeasure with students calling her by her first name, rather than Ms. She reported cultural differences with this stating she was taught that addressing people with Ms. or Mr. was a sign of respect.

**Theme 6: Stereotypes & Stereotype Threat.** Another theme among participants were dealing with stereotypes regarding their cultural group, and fear of confirming negative stereotypes. Latina participants discussed people relating to their heritage by making comments related to drugs/drug cartels. Further, a major theme among the Black female participants was fear of being labeled the “Angry Black Woman.” One participant

discussed being stereotyped incorrectly, and two others discussed the assumption of similarities within racial groups.

**Theme 7: Research, Teaching, Tenure/Promotion/Pay.** This theme dealt with “academic” microaggression that occurred within the realm of teaching, research, and included observations regarding the process of tenure, promotion, and pay inequity. This theme was subdivided into the following three subthemes: Research related microaggressions, microaggressions in the classroom, and tenure/promotion/pay inequity.

***Subtheme 7a: Research Related Microaggressions.*** This was a theme primarily in the graduate student and faculty groups, as these participants have had more direct contact with conducting and evaluating research as compared to staff members. Participants discussed problems with research conducted from a privileged lens by members of the majority race/culture in marginalized communities. One participant discussed the lack of inclusion of Hispanic/Latino populations in studies despite their large presence in these communities; another discussed much of the research about racial/ethnic minorities as being deficit focused.

***Subtheme 7b: Microaggressions in the Classroom.*** Being called by something other than Dr. was a prominent theme within the faculty focus group. Some attributed this to their age and not appearing much older than their students, some stated they saw this from both their White students and students of color, and all faculty reported struggling with feeling “haughty” or “arrogant” when correcting students. Others discussed obtaining their doctoral degree as a rite of passage and therefore referring to someone as

Dr. as a sign of respect. Professors also discussed approaching race-related topics in the classroom with apprehension, keeping the conversations based on facts as much as possible to avoid disputes with White students.

***Subtheme 7c: Tenure/Promotion/Pay Inequity.*** This subtheme concerned comments regarding how the tenure and promotion process can be unfair for women of color with one participant reflecting on the dynamics in the tenure meetings: “The people who speak up the loudest are men with the exception of one person . . .the men who speak have a privileged vision about what service is, the burden of service, the influence of teaching.” This participant commented on how she struggles to balance speaking up in these meetings when these are the same male faculty who will review her application for tenure/promotion. Further, participants in the staff focus group discussed pay inequity stating they are working multiple jobs because they are being underpaid.

**Theme 8: Assumptions of Intelligence.** Graduate students discussed being labeled as “unintelligent” or being questioned about their intellect/abilities. Faculty discussed how they were asked to hold minority/diverse students to more stringent scholastic guidelines due to assumptions regarding these students’ abilities.

**Theme 9: Gendered & Racial Microassaults.** Participants in all groups reported incidents with explicit or blatant gendered and racial microassaults. Microassaults come from the originally taxonomy of microaggressions and are defined “explicit racial derogations characterized primarily by a violent verbal or nonverbal attack meant to hurt the intended victim through name-calling, avoidant behavior or purposeful discriminatory

actions” (Sue et al., 2007). Examples of this included men in the department making explicit sexist remarks to women, racial/ethnic slurs being directed to women of color, and references to slavery being made by a White female faculty that was directed towards a Black female faculty member.

### **3.5 Expert Panel**

Results from the focus groups were utilized to generate items for the measure. This was done by generating multiple items per every major theme described above. These items were then discussed and edited with the chair of the dissertation. Additional items were generated through discussions between chair of dissertation and principle investigator. Resulting items were presented to an expert panel which consisted of three members of the dissertation committee and one staff member. Three expert panelists identified as African American women and one identified as a Hispanic woman. The expert panel gave their feedback on the length of the instrument, the Likert responding scale, the comprehension and readability of items, face validity, and item clarification. After incorporating the edits and comments from the expert panel, the final survey instrument consisted of a 51-item measure of gender and racial campus microaggressions (see Appendix A), 13 demographic questions, and a brief measure of resilience.

Table 3.1

Focus Group Themes, Subthemes, Exemplary Statements, & Derived Scale Items

Focus Group Themes, Exemplary Statements, & Subthemes	Derived Scale Items
<p><i>Theme 1: Emotional, Behavioral Reactions to Microaggressions &amp; Associated Coping</i></p>	<p>Q8, Q11, Q18, Q20, Q41, Q44</p>
<p><b><u>1a. Emotional Reactivity</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “And I’ve just been thinking about it for three weeks. Really annoyed with it”</li> <li>• “it is just exhausting... ended up sitting back and getting angry and heated”</li> <li>• “Shock, anger, burden, huge emotional toll, upset, Frustrated, wanted to cry.”</li> <li>• “You’re tired from some kind of battle every single day.”</li> </ul> <p><b><u>1b. Behavioral Reactions to Microaggressions</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “Questioning my own reaction-maybe I read this wrong.”</li> <li>• “I tried to let it roll-off me, and finally I basically confronted him.”</li> <li>• “Took it down to HR made a complaint.”</li> </ul> <p><b><u>1c. Coping Strategies</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “I’m very faith based. I’m in my office praying.”</li> <li>• “create/seeks Black spaces”</li> <li>• Social support: “calls someone”</li> <li>• Educating/empowering oneself: “Also reading about what it is I’m experiencing and being able to name what exactly it is. So, I can then talk about it. This is a thing.”</li> <li>• Choose your battles/ Find other ways to contribute</li> <li>• Immerse oneself in one’s culture; same culture peers</li> </ul>	
<p><i>Theme 2: Burden of Token Status &amp; Diversity Service Work Tax</i></p>	<p>Q3, Q10, Q17, Q19, Q23, Q28, Q31, Q34 Q35</p>
<p><b><u>2a. Burden of Token Status</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “[I’m the] only Black student in cohort. [topic of] racial equity...they all look to me.”</li> <li>• “Why do you expect the students of color to do the work the department should be doing?”</li> </ul>	

- “Yes, I want to address things in class, but it is a lot of emotional labor I’m not getting paid for.”

**2b. Assumptions of Similarity**

- “Felt the burden from the people in my community that we didn’t have the same idea.”
- “I didn’t agree with other Black students.”

**2c. Diversity Service Work Tax**

- “I think specifically women of color who are faculty seem to take on a lot of different roles more so than non-minority people.”
- “...women faculty who engage who do that extra work and you never see the men do any of that service. It replicates in the grad students.”
- “WOC faculty...expectation that they will be on diversity committee, they aren’t getting paid for that extra work or no recognition but extra work.”

*Theme 3: Academic Institution Climate*

Q1, Q16, Q21, Q24, Q25,  
Q27, Q32, Q36

**3a. Diversity Initiatives on Campus**

- “President tweeted and the international office emailed us and said in case you didn’t see the tweet here is the link. That made it very clear where the university stands. If something happens, they are not going to get involved.”
- “Lip service. People are saying the right things. But attempts to address issues at the root...I don’t see an effort...I don’t see an in-depth effort to address the issue.”
- This year I’ve come to believe that my dean doesn’t really care about diversity.

**3b. Emotional & Physical Safety on Campus**

- “...walking [on campus] one of them had a red hat on...group of 3 men...felt physically in danger.”
- “[I] get emails from students who aren’t happy about a grade...I respond cautiously. Can’t let them have it. But I do make sure that my responses...don’t want to upset anyone enough that they will come to my classroom and do something.”

<b><i>Theme 4: Marginalization &amp; Exclusion</i></b>	Q2, Q14, Q15, Q29, Q30, Q33, Q39, Q40, Q42, Q43
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “It can be incredibly isolating.”</li> <li>• “I feel somehow like I don’t belong...I don’t want to isolate myself more.”</li> <li>• “I can be in the room with two other White people, and she will say hi to them but not say anything to me.”</li> <li>• “We get to class; question being asked is problematic. Then when each of us trying to combat this in class, we get shut down, it’s not important right now.”</li> </ul>	
<b><i>Theme 5: Authority &amp; Respect</i></b>	Q4, Q37
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “I don’t like, being called by my first name by anyone that’s significantly younger than me.”</li> <li>• “I’m not asking for respect it should be granted because I’m a person.”</li> </ul>	
<b><i>Theme 6: Stereotypes &amp; Stereotype Threat</i></b>	Q7, Q12, Q51
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “Even in class you have to police yourself because you don’t want to fall into the stereotype of the angry black woman.”</li> <li>• “Something that I experience a lot is “oh cocaine.” When they find out where I am from. It has been in the most unexpected scenarios.”</li> </ul>	
<b><i>Theme 7: Research, Teaching, Tenure/Promotion/Pay</i></b>	Q6, Q38, Q45, Q46, Q47, Q48, Q49, Q50
<p><b><u>7a: Research Related Microaggressions</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “A lot of the research we’ve been reading is White people doing research on minority groups. One book we read was about how Black children socialize written by a White woman. And a lot of it seemed to come from a privileged perspective and almost exoticized Black children.”</li> <li>• “Literature being presented in class is all negative...and [we are] being expected to comment on it.”</li> <li>• “We have Latinos in our study, and we translated documents for them and therefore that’s enough. But not really. You didn’t do it fully. That’s where it hits the wall.”</li> </ul>	

**7b: Microaggressions in the Classroom**

- “I’ve been a professor for many years in my department and I see that many students and I see that many students have difficulty calling me Dr.”
- “I felt like the students that did not call me by my title were mostly White students. But students of color, historically underrepresented students, nonwhite, would always call me Dr. K with the exception of one African American male and that was more gendered.”

**7c: Tenure /Promotion/Pay Inequity**

- “In terms of the tenure and promotion process...sitting in the meetings..., there is hardly anyone of color. Those meetings are very gendered the people who speak up the loudest are men with the exception of one person...the men who speak have a privileged vision about what service is, the burden of service, the influence of teaching. That’s how I see it in the meetings. Struggle between speaking up because then those are the people who are full professors and who will be judging you at some point, so it is like a balancing act.”
- “Definitely not there or equitable when it comes to pay, not there for minorities, a lot of pre-conceived notions.”

<i>Theme 8: Assumptions of Intelligence</i>	Q5, Q13
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• “She just tried to belittle me in front of people in my class make me seem like I’m not intelligent when I deserve to be here... I’m in the advanced program.”</li><li>• “We were having a meeting and talking about changing or eliminating two exams...and I was giving my instructional knowledge of the exam and they said we still need this exam because we are expecting diverse students/minority students.”</li></ul>	
<i>Theme 9: Gender &amp; Racial Microassaults</i>	Q9
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• [He made] comments like “I could get a lot of work done if you women would show up”; in a meeting with six women.</li><li>• “He said...when did they start letting ‘coloreds’ in here?”</li></ul>	

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **PHASE II: INITIAL VALIDATION**

The purpose of study two was to conduct an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to assess the underlying factor structure of and obtain initial psychometric information on the Microaggressions Experiences in University Women of Color Scale (MUWOCS). An investigation on internal consistency estimates and correlation of factors was conducted. Relations between the MUWOCS and demographic information was also explored.

#### **4.1 Participants**

A total of 498 participants accessed the online survey. Out of those individuals, 40 did not meet the initial inclusion criteria (i.e. complete at least 97% of the survey). The last page was a thank-you page so if participants clicked out of the survey without selecting “okay” on the last page, their responses were recorded as 97% complete by Qualtrics. The average duration for non-completers was a little over three and a half minutes. The average time for completion for participants who finished the survey was approximately forty-eight minutes as the link was active for one week and participants were able to come access the survey as many times as needed to complete the survey in that one-week period. Participants were not allowed to back track and change responses once they advanced to the next screen.

A total of 456 participants achieved a 97% completion rate. Of these data, no significant (i.e. more than 20%) missing data was found. Attempts at purposeful sampling included targeting organizations that included large numbers of university WOC. However, participants were not excluded initially due to not meeting all criteria. Therefore, this sample consisted of 17 participants who identified as male, and three that identified as third gender/nonbinary. Due to the small sample size of individuals identifying as third gender/nonbinary and male as well as this not being a representative sample for these groups, these individuals (n=20) were not included in the analysis. Further, one individual who did not include their age was not included in the analysis. Individuals who described their racial background as “multiracial” and “other” were not included in the analysis due to a small sample size and therefore lack of representation for this population.

Additionally, 141 women who identified as White/Caucasian also completed the survey. Attempts to compare this sample with the WOC sample were made, however, the samples were not similar demographically. For example, White female participants reported predominately associate and bachelor’s degree holders (97%) and majority ranked their position as instructors and staff (67%) whereas there was a more and normal distribution among education and positions reported among WOC participants. Further, the validity of responding was brought into question because in this sample, 25 individuals stated they were tenured track faculty despite listing their highest degrees earned as Associate or Bachelor’s. According to the American Association of University Professors, an individual must have at least a master’s degree or higher to be eligible for

tenure track faculty positions (Tiede, 2015). There may be several reasons why participants responded this way, with one being random responding, another reason being potential misunderstanding of the definition of the categories. Due to problems regarding validity of responding and the White female sample not being demographically alike to the women of color, these women were not included in the final analyses.

Remaining participants' highest reported degrees and positions were compared to check for accuracy/validity of responding. Individuals who reported their highest degree earned was anything less than a master's who also reported their position was tenure track faculty, were not included in the analysis (n=20) due to the reasons cited above. Further, four participants who reported high school education or less were also not included in the analysis due to small sample size. All participants who reported their highest degree as Associate were also not included in the analysis due to the restrictions reported above. After these deletions and adjustments, the final sample size was 248 women of color.

## **4.2 Measures**

**Microaggressions Experiences in University WOC Scale (MUWOCS).** This scale was used to assess the frequency and appraisal of microaggressions WOC face in academia. Participants rated the frequency of each item as well as the perceived appraisal of the item content. Frequency was assessed by asking participants to rate how often they experienced each event in their academic career lifetime ranging from 0 (never) to 4 (often). Academic career was defined as advanced training and academic tenure thus far.

This can include instances of microaggressions on different academic institutions the participants have studied/worked at during their academic career. Appraisal was assessed by a 6-point Likert scale (0=does not apply to me, 1=no effect, 2=somewhat positive effect, 3=somewhat positive effect, 4=somewhat negative effect, 5=negative effect). Items were scored such that higher scores indicated a higher frequency and higher negative appraisal of microaggressions, whereas lower scores will indicate a lower frequency and lower negative appraisal of microaggressions. The measures of both frequency and appraisal account for both the extent of exposure to the event and the appraisal/perception of the event, which is consistent with conceptualizations of stress-related events in the extant literature (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

**Demographic questionnaire.** A demographic questionnaire was used to obtain information about participants' race, age, gender, occupational status, institution characteristics, educational background, and geographical region.

**Brief Resilience Scale (BRS).** The BRS is a six-item measure of an individual's ability to "bounce back" after stressful experiences. The scale consists items such as "I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times," "I tend to take a long time to get over setbacks in my life (reverse coded)." Participants responded to each item using a Likert scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Total scores on the scale can range from 1 to 5 with higher scores indicating greater resilience. The measure has demonstrated good internal consistency (alpha values ranging from .80 to .91) and good convergent and divergent validity (Smith et al., 2008). The scale has been normed on undergraduate students, cardiac rehabilitation patients, twenty women with

fibromyalgia, and thirty healthy controls. All participants were recruited from Albuquerque, New Mexico.

### **4.3 Procedure**

Institutional Review Board approval was obtained prior to any data collection. Participants were recruited via word of mouth, email list serves, and advertisement of the study on social media. Purposeful sampling methods were utilized to target recruitment to obtain a representative sample of members from diverse racial groups. The author acknowledges that there are geographical limitations to recruiting women of color from diverse groups. The author also acknowledges that these demographics are different on college campuses and differ by gender. Despite these numerical and statistical limitations, all efforts were made to engage in purposeful sampling.

The survey was created using the Qualtrics website. Participants who were interested in taking part in the study were directed to a URL in the recruitment email where they accessed the online survey. Confidentiality was ensured by storing all identifying information such as IP addresses and email addresses in protected devices and accounts. The online consent form provided information about the potential risks and benefits to the participant for taking part in the survey. After informed consent was collected, participants completed demographic questionnaire, the MUWOCS, and the Brief Resilience Scale. As compensation for their time and efforts, study participants received \$10.00 electronic gift cards. At the end of the survey, participants were given

the names of local and national resources to help with processing the sensitive material they were asked about in the survey including mental health resources.

#### **4.4 Data Analytic Plan**

All statistics were conducted in IBM SPSS 20. All data were assessed for outliers and missing data. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to determine performance of scale items as well as the factor structure, using a maximum likelihood extraction with Promax rotation. Items with poor performance, low communalities, and cross loadings were deleted. Methods and recommendations for reporting exploratory factor analysis results as outlined in Henson and Roberts 2006 were utilized (Henson & Roberts, 2006). Best practices for reporting EFA results included indicating which extraction and rotation method were utilized, which matrix was used in the analysis, using multiple strategies used for factor retention, reporting communalities, total variance explained, initial eigen values, and the variance explained by each factor after rotation (Henson & Roberts, 2006).

To investigate whether the scale demonstrated adequate reliability, Cronbach's alpha for the full scale and subscales was calculated and split half reliability investigated. To assess for the predictive validity of the MUWOCS, correlations were conducted between the subscales and the resilience total score. Finally, to investigate whether there were group differences in the scale, three MANCOVAs were conducted with education, race, and position as the independent variables, and the four subscales were entered as the dependent variables. Assumptions of MANCOVAs were checked prior to analyses.

## 4.5 Results

**Descriptives.** The mean age of the sample ( $n=248$ ) was 31 years old. This sample consisted of 44% women who identified as African American/Black, 26% as Latina/Hispanic, 25% as Asian/Pacific Islander, and, 4% as American Indian/Alaskan Native. Additionally, there were 18 individuals who identified as other/biracial. These participants' responses to the country of origin question were examined to determine if they could be recoded into the existing racial categories. Three participants reported being from Middle Eastern countries. Although historically individuals from the Middle East are grouped with Caucasians, these groups are ethnically linguistically, and racially different from Caucasians/European Americans. There is some movement to create a new category on the census for these individuals called Middle Eastern North African. However, as this was not a category included in my survey, these three participants were included in the Asian category based on geographic proximity of these nations. The author acknowledges the limitations with this approach in that even though much of the Middle East is part of Asia, there are vast within group variations in these groups. Future research should aim to recruit women of color from the Middle East to understand their unique experiences with microaggressions.

Nearly half the sample (45%) reported their highest degree earned was a master's degree, 33% reported their highest degree being either a professional degree (J.D., MD., etc.) or doctorate degree (PhD), and 22% reported their highest degree earned as a bachelor's degree. Forty percent were graduate students, 21% staff, 13% faculty tenure-track, and 27% non-tenure track. The adjunct and instructor categories were combined

with the non-tenured track faculty as these positions are considered non-tenured faculty positions at most universities (Tiede, 2015). All women of color also completed a brief self-report measure of resilience (Smith et al., 2008). The participants were moderately resilient ( $M=3.23$ ,  $SD=.79$ ).

**Study Aim 2: Exploratory Factor Analysis.** I conducted an EFA on the frequency items of the MUWOCS with the women of color in my sample ( $n=248$ ). Per EFA guidelines, this is a satisfactory sample size to complete a factor analysis (B. Williams, Onsman, & Brown, 2010). Prior to conducting the EFA, I assessed the factorability of the correlation matrix by using Bartlett's test of sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) to measure sampling adequacy. Bartlett's test of sphericity should be significant ( $p<.05$ ) and KMO values should be over .50 to indicate that the data is adequate for factor analysis. Results indicated my data was suitable for factor analysis ( $\chi^2(190) = 1763.32$ ,  $p<.001$ ;  $KMO=.87$ ) (B. Williams et al., 2010).

Next, I conducted an EFA using a maximum likelihood extraction method which has been shown to be an effective method for scale construction (Osborne, Costello, & Kellow, 2008). Given that the underlying factors were hypothesized to be correlated, I utilized an oblique rotation method (Promax rotation) (Osborne et al., 2008). A factor loading value of .45 or higher was utilized to determine whether an item loaded onto a factor. To ascertain the number of factors in the solution, I employed the cumulative percentage (i.e. percent of total variance explained by factors in total scale) and the scree test (B. Williams et al., 2010).

The initial analysis revealed a thirteen-factor solution. However, the scree plot suggested a 3 or 4 factor solution. Item deletion techniques including deleting items with less than a .45 loading, deleting items that cross loaded onto more than one factor, and removing items with communalities less than .4 were implemented (B. Williams et al., 2010). Using this method, 31 items were deleted. The final analyses revealed a 4-factor solution with a total of 20 items (please see Table 3). The final factor solution explained 56.78% of the variance. This is typical in human behavior research in which the guideline for cumulative percentages for scales is 40-60% (Williams, Osman, & Brown, 2010).

***Naming the Factors.*** Factor 1 was named *Frequency of Marginalization and Exclusion Microaggressions* and consisted of 8 items and explained 30.71% of the variance. Items that loaded onto this factor captured the frequency of exposure to feeling ignored and excluded in campus environments. This factor is consistent with previous microaggression literature concerning invisibility and exclusion (Sue et al., 2007). Factor 2 was named *Frequency of Emotional Reactivity* and explained 11.68% of the variance. This factor measured the frequency of emotional reactivity suggesting that regular contact with microaggressions increases negative emotionality. Items that loaded onto this factor included participant's emotions regarding experiencing microaggressions including feeling exhausted, frustrated, angry and burdened by microaggressions.

The third factor was named *Frequency of Diversity Tax* and consisted of 4 items and explained 8.24% of the variance. This factor included items such as being regarded as an expert on diversity matters, facing pressure to serve on the diversity/multicultural committees, due to belonging to a minority group. Factor 4 was named *Frequency of*

*Implicit Institutional Bias* and consisted of three items that explained 6.15% of the variance. This factor included items that described feeling isolated at one's institution and reporting a lack of institution level policy aimed at increasing inclusivity and diversity. This factor builds on existing literature on "chilly" or "hostile" campus climates (Maranto & Griffin, 2010) to include implicit bias to explain that the absence of blatant malintent can still lead to poor/misguided administrative efforts to improve campus climate.

**Study Aim 3: Reliability Estimates.** Reliability is defined as the proportion of variance attributable to the true score of the latent variable (DeVellis, 2016). Scale reliability is typically tested by calculating Cronbach's Alpha, with higher values (all values range from 0-1) indicating stronger reliability. I computed Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients on the MUWOCS frequency scores. The reliability coefficients were as follows: Factor 1: ( $\alpha = .84$ ), Factor 2 ( $\alpha = .78$ ), Factor 3 ( $\alpha = .72$ ), and Factor 4 ( $\alpha = .67$ ). In addition, the total MUWOCS had a reliability coefficient of .88. I also calculated split-half reliability which is the measure is split in half and correlations are calculated comparing both halves. Strong correlations indicate high reliability, while weak correlations indicate the instrument may not be reliable. (Heale & Twycross, 2015). The instrument demonstrated good split-half reliability with part 1's Cronbach's Alpha equaling .77 and part 2's equaling .80.

**Study Aim 4: Criterion Validity.** Table 4 describes the descriptive statistics on the means, standard deviations, and Pearson product-moment correlations for the scale. The Pearson product-moment correlations indicated significant positive correlations between each of the four factors. To investigate initial predictive validity, which is

defined as the extent to which a measure is related to an outcome (DeVellis, 2016), I conducted bivariate correlations between the four subscales the total resilience scores. Resilience scores were negatively correlated with three subscales, and positively related to subscale 4 (institutional implicit bias), but this correlation was not significant ( $r=.05$ ,  $p>.05$ ).

Resilience was significantly negatively correlated with the Marginalization and Exclusion subscale ( $r=-.25$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and Emotional Reactivity subscale ( $r=-.15$ ,  $p<.05$ ), indicating the greater one's reported resilience, the less reported frequency of negative emotional reactivity and marginalization and exclusion microaggressions. Age was negatively related to Emotional Reactivity subscale ( $r=-.13$ ,  $p<.05$ ) indicating the older women in the sample reported greater emotional consequences to microaggressions.

**Study Aim 5: Group Differences Among Subscales.** The last aim was to examine any group differences in responses to the subscales. Specifically, I tested whether responses on the MUWOCS subscales differed by one's education, position at their academic institution, and their racial background. There was not enough statistical power and large enough sample size to conduct one MANCOVA so three separate MANCOVAs, with age being the covariate in all three models, were conducted. Prior to the tests, the assumptions for MANCOVAs which include, linearity, absence of multicollinearity, and equality of covariances were tested and met for all independent variables except position at university. For this MANCOVA, additional robust F tests and corrections were made to ensure accuracy of results (Parra-Frutos, 2013).

The four subscales were the dependent variables. The subscales are standardized regression scores calculated by SPSS based on the item loadings and correlations for each factor. Each regression subscale score has a mean of zero and ranges approximately from a standard score of -3 to 3. For example, a score of zero signifies a score close to the mean of the distribution. The values reported for means in the results below will range from -3 to 3. Although this is not the same scale for frequency in the measure where responses range from 1 to 4 with 1 being never and 4 being often, the interpretation is the same (i.e. lower scores meaning less frequency endorsed, and greater scores indicating greater frequency endorsed).

In the first MANCOVA, race was the predictor, and the four subscales were the dependent variables. There were no significant differences observed in the subscales by racial group [Wilks'  $\Lambda = .92$ ,  $F(12, 635) = 1.8$ ,  $p = .05$ ,  $\eta^2 = .03$ ]. This was verified by examining additional univariate and post hoc tests, which both yielded non-significant findings. Therefore, no further analyses of group differences were conducted for these variables. In the second MANOVA, the independent variable was education, and the four subscales were the dependent variables. The analysis was not significant [Wilks'  $\Lambda = .95$ ,  $F(8, 482) = 1.59$ ,  $p = .124$ ], indicating that one's education did not have significant effect on the frequency of microaggressions.

Lastly, in the third equation in which position was the independent variable, the homogeneity of variance assumption was not initially met. Statistical guidelines recommend the Welch's F test as a more robust test of means when equality of variances is not met (Parra-Frutos, 2013). The four subscales were entered in the equation as

dependent variables and position was entered as the independent variable. The following results are based on Welch's F test and Gambrell's Post hoc test which is utilized in cases where equal variances cannot be assumed.

Analyses revealed a significant difference in responses to the Frequency of Marginalization and Exclusion subscale [ $F(3, 103)=3.61, p=.016$ ], Frequency of Emotional reactivity subscale [ $F(3, 103)=8.03, p=.00$ ] and Frequency of Implicit Institutional Bias subscale [ $F(3, 99)=16.96, p=.00$ ]. No significant group differences were found for reporting Frequency of Diversity Tax subscale [ $F(3, 108) = 1.24, p=.31$ ]. Follow-up Games-Howell post-hoc tests (significance level set at .01 .05/4 groups;  $p<.01$ ) revealed that non tenured faculty ( $M=.31, SD=.93$ ) reported greater levels of marginalization and exclusion as compared to graduate students ( $M=-.18, SD=.96$ ) (See Figure 2). Furthermore, graduate students ( $M=.31, SD=.90$ ) reported greater emotional reactivity to microaggressions as compared to staff ( $M=-.33, SD=.67$ ) and non-tenure track faculty ( $M=-.18, SD=1.01$ ) (See Figure 3). Graduate students ( $M=.41, SD=.71$ ) also reported greater Implicit Institutional Bias as compared to staff ( $M=-.25, SD=.84$ ) and non-tenure track faculty ( $M=-.47, SD=.96$ ). Finally, tenure track faculty ( $M=.12, SD=.76$ ) and graduate students ( $M=.41, SD=.71$ ) scored significantly higher on the Implicit Institutional Level Bias subscale as compared to non-tenured faculty ( $M=-.47, SD=.96$ ) (see Figure 4).

Table 4.1

Sample Characteristics

Variables	<i>n</i> =248 (%)
<b>Race</b>	
Black/African American	110 (44)
Hispanic/Latina	65 (26)
Asian/Pacific Islander	62(25)
Native American	11(4)
<b>Education</b>	
Bachelor's Degree	54 (22)
Master's Degree	113 (46)
Professional and/or Doctoral Degree	81 (33)
<b>Position</b>	
Graduate Student	98 (40)
Staff	51 (21)
Faculty Tenure Track	32 (13)
Faculty Non-Tenure Track	67 (27)
<b>Geographic Location</b>	
Midwest	47 (19)
Southeast	65 (26)
Northeast	54 (22)

---

Southwest	38 (15)
West	40 (16)
Prefer not to answer	4 (2)

---

*Note: percentages reported in parentheses rounded to nearest tenth decimal point*

Table 4.2

Summary of MUWOCS Frequency Subscales and Factor Loadings from Maximum Likelihood Estimation with Promax Rotation

Items	Factor				$h^2$	$M$	$SD$
	1	2	3	4			
<b>Factor 1: Marginalization &amp; Exclusion</b>							
29. I have been disrespected by people at my institution.	<b>.72</b>	-.01	-.12	.20	.56	2.62	.85
42. Sense of community among women of color is discouraged at my institution.	<b>.68</b>	.06	-.03	-.23	.47	2.12	.99
22. Experiencing microaggressions has led me to think about leaving my academic institution.	<b>.67</b>	.02	.01	.12	.46	2.40	.87
33. I have been ignored in campus environments.	<b>.64</b>	-.01	.05	.16	.47	2.56	.93
37. My comments have been ignored in a discussion in a professional setting.	<b>.61</b>	-.02	.01	.09	.38	2.56	.84
15. I have felt excluded from meetings at my institution.	<b>.61</b>	-.17	.10	.13	.37	2.52	1.03
26. I worry that experiencing microaggressions have worsened my physical health.	<b>.53</b>	.33	-.09	-.07	.47	2.51	.99
4. My authority has been undermined at my institution.	<b>.46</b>	.23	.03	.01	.37	2.74	.86
<b>Factor 2: Emotional Reactivity</b>							
11. Experiencing microaggressions has left me feeling frustrated.	-.06	<b>.79</b>	-.04	.11	.65	3.19	.77
44. Experiencing microaggressions has left me feeling exhausted.	.12	<b>.70</b>	-.12	.03	.59	3.00	.85
18. I've been rubbed the wrong way by comments about me being a woman of color long after they occurred.	.21	<b>.61</b>	.21	.09	.42	2.94	.89
41. I get mad and ruminate about things I could have said in response to a microaggression.	-.03	<b>.53</b>	.06	.00	.31	3.04	.87

---

10. Educating White people about their microaggressions has become burdensome to me.	-0.04	<b>.51</b>	.21	.09	.42	3.03	.93
<b>Factor 3: Diversity Tax</b>							
28. People have assumed that I am an expert in diversity matters at my institution.	-0.09	.07	<b>.72</b>	.11	.56	2.88	.96
31. I have felt a burden to serve on diversity or multicultural committees at my institution.	.15	-0.10	<b>.71</b>	.06	.53	2.61	1.05
34. Individuals at my institution have asked me to serve as a "spokesperson" for women of color.	.29	-0.02	<b>.54</b>	-0.26	.49	2.33	1.02
17. I have been expected to share my opinions during discussions regarding multicultural topics.	-0.23	.31	<b>.49</b>	.05	.38	3.10	.89
<b>Factor 4: Implicit Institutional Bias</b>							
25. I find that many people on campus are not aware of their own biases.	-0.13	.12	-0.02	<b>.79</b>	.69	3.40	.76
21. I have felt isolated at my institution.	.17	-0.01	-0.09	<b>.57</b>	.35	2.83	.88
32. I have felt that only superficial attempts are made regarding issues of diversity and inclusion at my university.	.26	-0.05	.19	<b>.49</b>	.42	3.23	.85
<b>Eigenvalue</b>	6.14	2.34	1.65	1.23			
<b>% of Variance</b>	30.71%	11.68%	8.24%	6.15%			
<b>Total Variance</b>	56.78%						

---

*Note:* Numbers in boldface indicate factor loadings >.4. *N*=248. All frequency items ranged from 1 (never) to 4 (often). *h*<sup>2</sup> values signify communalities.

Table 4.3

## Intercorrelations, Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliability Estimates MUWOCS Frequency Subscales

<b>Variables</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b><math>\alpha</math></b>	<b><i>M</i></b>	<b><i>SD</i></b>
1. Marginalization & Exclusion	--	.50**	.49**	.20**	.73**	-.05	-.25**	.84	2.50	.65
2. Emotional Reactivity	.50**	--	.48**	.63**	.86**	-.13*	-.15*	.78	3.04	.67
3. Diversity Tax	.49**	.48**	--	.27**	.74**	-.07	-.03	.72	2.73	.73
4. Implicit Institutional Bias	.20**	.63**	.27**	--	.69**	-.08	.05	.67	3.16	.65
5. Total Scale Score	.73**	.86**	.74**	.69**	--	-.11	-.13*	.88	2.78	.51
6. Age	-.05	-.13*	-.07	-.08	-.11	--	.17**		31.48	6.87
7. Resilience Score	-.25**	-.15*	-.03	.05	-.13*	.17**	--		3.26	.79

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

Table 4.4

Means, Standard Deviations, and Results of MANCOVA Model for Race

	Total	HL	AI/AN	AA/B	API	<i>p</i>	Partial $\eta^2$
	N=248	N= 65	N= 11	N=114	N=49		
Marginalization and Exclusion		-.03 (.94)	.60 (.52)	-.16 (.92)	.21 (.94)	.07	.04
Emotional Reactivity		-.00(.94)	.21(.81)	-.08(.89)	.11(.99)	.63	.01
Diversity Tax		.12(.83)	.28(.54)	-.12(.92)	.03(.93)	.27	.02
Implicit Institutional Bias		.05(.84)	-.07(1.06)	.06(.83)	.15(1.01)	.40	.01
Full Scale		.15(2.79)	1.03(2.05)	-. .29(2.65)	.18(2.95)	.44	.01

*Note:* HL=Hispanic/Latina, AI/AN=American Indian/Alaskan Native, API=Asian/Pacific Islander.

Table 4.5

Means, Standard Deviations, and Results of ANOVA Model for Position

	Total	Graduate Student	Staff	Tenure Track Faculty	Non-Tenure Track Faculty	Welch's F	<i>p</i>
	N=248	N= 98	N= 51	N= 32	N=67		
Marginalization and Exclusion		-.18(.96)	.04(.73)	-.14(.99)	.31(.93)	3.61*	.02
Emotional Reactivity		.31(.90)	-.33(.67)	-.02(.91)	-.18(1.00)	8.03*	.00
Diversity Tax		-.05(1.07)	-.11(.60)	.19(.78)	.06(.83)	1.25	.31
Implicit Institutional Bias		.41(.71)	-.25(.84)	.12(.76)	-.47(.96)	16.96*	.00
Full Scale Score		.48(2.86)	.63(1.82)	.15(2.68)	.29(3.11)		

*Note: \*p<.05*

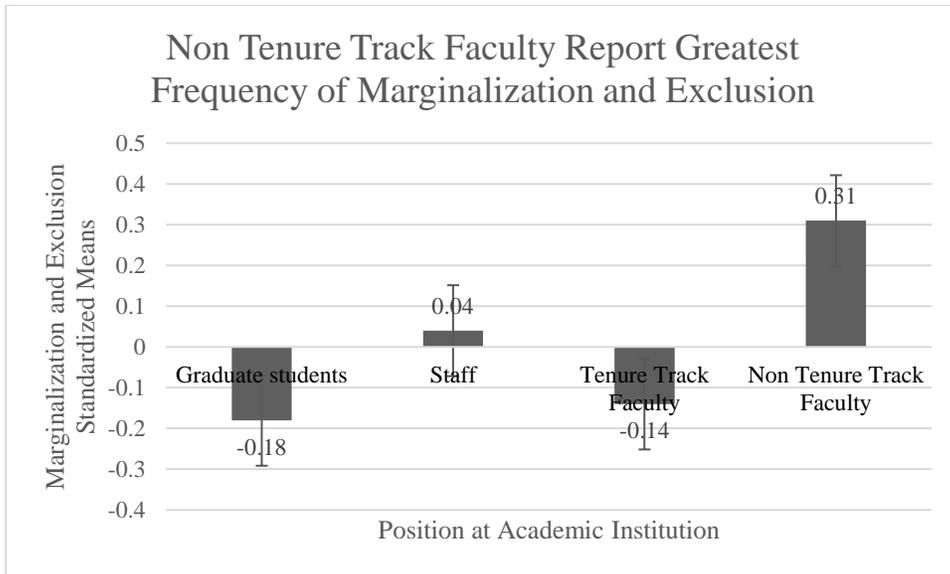


Figure 4.1. Non-Tenure Track Faculty Report Greatest Frequency of Marginalization and Exclusion

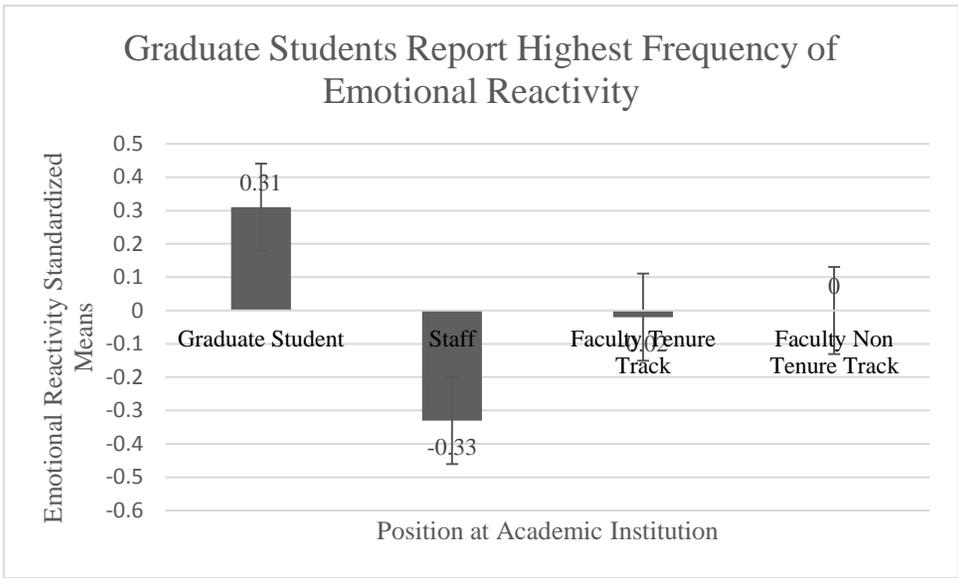


Figure 4.2. Graduate Students Report Highest Frequency of Emotional Reactivity

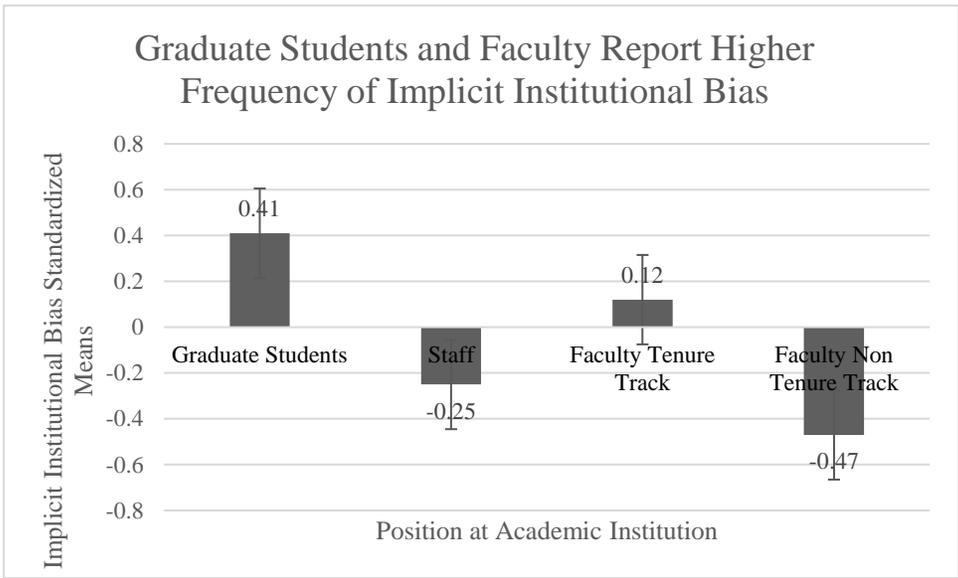


Figure 4.3 Graduate Students and Faculty Report Higher Frequency of Implicit Institutional Bias

Table 4.6

Means, Standard Deviations, and Results of MANCOVA Model for Education

	Total	Bachelor's Degree	Master's Level	Professional & Doctorate	<i>p</i>	Partial $\eta^2$
	N=248	N=54	N=113	N=81		
Marginalization and Exclusion		-.08(.93)	.11(.89)	-.17(.98)	.29	.01
Emotional Reactivity		.14(.85)	.05(.93)	-.16(.95)	.53	.01
Diversity Tax		.01(.94)	.01(.91)	-.02(.82)	.95	.00
Implicit Institutional Bias		-.07(.95)	.14(.82)	-.14(.92)	.13	.01
Full Scale Score		-.01(2.72)	.31(2.67)	-.42(2.75)	.41	.01

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **DISCUSSION**

#### **5.1 General Discussion**

This chapter provides an overview of the aims of the current study as well as a review and summarization of the results and how these connect with previous literature. Special focus is paid to the establishment of formative qualitative item generation and the reliability and validity of factor structures of the construct of frequency of university microaggressions among women of color. Given that all other hypotheses in the study relied upon these factor structures, examination of measurement issues and recommendations for improvements in measurement are provided. The ability of the microaggression factors to predict resilience levels was essential to understand how the scale may be used in both analytic research, clinical and university diversity interventions (i.e. use of protective factors and adaptations) in relation to racial microaggressions (Harper & Hurtado, 2007).

The study design consisted of two studies: 1) qualitative methods of item generation, and 2) exploratory factor analysis. In phase 1, formative methods were applied to facilitate item generation and construct validity of future items through literature review, focus groups, and expert panel resulted in a 51-item measure. This measure was piloted to a diverse national sample of self-defined WOC.

In phase 2, psychometric quantitative methods were applied to develop and test the factor structure, initial validity, and reliability of a measure of gender and racial

microaggressions in women of color on campus. Exploratory factor analysis revealed a four-factor solution that explained 57% of the variance and resulted in a total of twenty items. The four factors were named Marginalization and Exclusion, Emotional reactivity to Microaggressions, Diversity Tax, and Implicit Institutional Bias. The scale demonstrated adequate reliability and the subscales predicted resilience. Significant group differences were found in responding to the subscale by position but not by race and education.

Below, I will summarize the MUWOCS factors and discuss their relation to the existing empirical literature. I also discuss the MANOVA results and offer explanations and hypotheses for the findings. After identifying the limitations of the study, I will discuss implications for future research and practice, while suggesting future directions.

## **5. 2 Factor Structure of MUWOCS**

The EFA yielded a four-factor solution that explained 57% of the total variance. The final scale consisted of 20 items. The four factors were: Marginalization and Exclusion; Emotional Reactivity, Diversity Tax, and Implicit Institutional Bias. In the following sections, I will describe each factor in detail.

**Factor 1: Marginalization and Exclusion.** Eight items loaded onto the Marginalization and Exclusion factor. This factor was defined as the frequency of being excluded/ignored/disrespected in campus settings. This factor adds to existing literature which describes women and people of color's experiences of being excluded from spaces in the workplace. In particular, this factor is like the Silenced and Marginalized factor from the Gendered Racial Microaggressions Scale in Black Women in which Black

women reported being disrespected by people in their workplace and feeling unheard by others in a professional setting (Lewis & Neville, 2015).

In addition to the capturing experiences previous scales have like feeling ignored, excluded, and silenced, the MUWOCS also included items that dealt with consequences of marginalization and exclusion including feeling like sense of community is discouraged among women of color at one's academic institution, worrying about the physical health toll of microaggressions, and having thoughts about leaving one's institution due to experiencing microaggressions. These items add practicality and demonstrate that there are significant behavioral consequences of feeling excluded and marginalized on campus. These themes are also somewhat captured in the Workplace and School Microaggressions Subscale of the Racial Ethnic Microaggressions Scale (Nadal, 2011), but these items are focused on race-based exclusion and invalidation, whereas my scale addresses how both gender and race can contribute to marginalization at universities.

**Factor 2: Emotional Reactivity.** The second factor was named Emotional Reactivity and consisted of five items that explained 11.68% of the total variance. Items that loaded onto this factor included feeling exhausted by, frustrated by, rubbed the wrong way, and overall feeling burdened by experiencing microaggressions. This factor is a new addition to the quantitative literature in measuring microaggression exposure. This factor builds on the existing qualitative literature from focus groups that discuss WOC's affective responses correlated with exposure to racial and gendered microaggressions (Ford, 2011; Lewis et al., 2013; Halaevalu FO Vakalahi & Starks, 2010; Halaevalu F Vakalahi & Starks, 2011). To date, no existing measure of

microaggressions has attempted to quantify the concept of emotional reactivity in the context of microaggression exposure. Accordingly, this subscale is an important addition to the literature and sets my scale apart from others in that it is not just a list of events that can be classified as microaggressions, but rather encompasses the cognitive-behavioral-appraisal experience of exposure to microaggressions.

**Factor 3: Diversity Tax.** The third factor was named Diversity Tax and consisted of 4 items that explained 8.24% of the variance. This factor comprised of items regarding women of color being seen as experts on diversity matters by other people, that WOC feel a burden to participate in diversity related service work, and people have expected them to contribute to discussion on multicultural topics. This theme of being tasked to complete diversity related work both has been documented well in the existing literature, largely under the term of “cultural tax.”

Cultural tax was first coined by Amado Padilla in 1994 to describe how ethnic minorities were asked to complete certain tasks/service work in their academic department due to their ethnic group membership (Padilla, 1994). Examples of cultural taxation include being asked to be the expert on diversity matters even when one may not be knowledgeable in these matters; having to educate members of the majority group on diversity even though this is not in the job description and largely goes unnoticed/unrecognized; serving on an affirmative action committees; being asked to connect with organizations from one’s in-group even when one may disagree with policies of that organization; taking time out of one’s day to resolve arguments that arise due to sociocultural differences among colleagues/students; and finally being asked to translate official documents or serving as interpreters (Padilla, 1994).

The Diversity Tax subscale captured the theme of pigeon-holing WOC as diversity experts and asking them to perform diversity related service work. This subscale adds to the existing literature regarding cultural taxation by being the first to attempt to quantify the construct as the research on cultural taxation to date has been largely qualitative (Joseph & Hirshfield, 2011). It also extends the concept of taxation not just to racial/ethnic minorities but the intersection of gender and racial minorities (i.e. women of color). Furthermore, I broaden the concept of cultural tax to not only apply to female faculty, but also female graduate students, and even instructors/staff of color.

**Factor 4: Implicit Institutional Bias.** The last factor was named Implicit Institutional Bias and consisted of three items that explained 6.15% of the variance. This factor described the greater institutional climate. Previous researchers have documented how campus/academia can be a chilly/hostile place for women of color (Maranto & Griffin, 2010; Solorzano et al., 2000). This factor was named implicit institutional bias because women of color reported the systemic lack of awareness of biases on the entire hierarchy of the university from students all the way to higher administrative officials. This lack of awareness of bias then translates into only “superficial” attempts to improve campus climate.

### **5.3 Reliability & Predictive Validity of the MUWOCS**

**Exploring MUWOCS Reliability.** The third aim of my study was to conduct exploratory analyses testing the initial reliability and validity of the MWCCS. Reliability was calculated using Cronbach’s alpha and split half reliability. Split half reliability estimates demonstrated good reliability ( $\alpha > .75$ ). Generally, Alpha values above .60 are considered fair, values between .70 and .80 as acceptable, and above .85 as excellent

(DeVellis, 2016). The final scale demonstrated excellent internal consistency ( $\alpha=.88$ ). Three out of the four subscales demonstrated acceptable reliability (all alpha values above .70).

These alpha values are consistent with existing microaggression measures. The Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale developed by Nadal and colleagues demonstrated excellent reliability ( $\alpha =.93$ ) for the total scale and alpha values over .80 for the subscales (Nadal, 2011). Lewis and colleagues' Gendered and Racial Microaggressions Scale for Black Women demonstrated excellent reliability for the full scale ( $\alpha =.93$ ) and above .70 reliability for two subscales (Strong Black Woman and Angry Black Woman), and above .80 reliability for the other two factors (Assumptions of Beauty & Silenced and Marginalized) (Lewis & Neville, 2015). Lastly, the Racial Microaggressions Scale had similar patterns of internal consistency with all alphas for the subscale being over .80 except the subscale entitled Foreigner/Not Belonging which had an alpha value of .78 (Torres-Harding et al., 2012).

The last subscale demonstrated only fair reliability with an alpha value of .67. Lower alpha values can be due to a low number of items, low correlations between the items, or heterogenous constructs (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). I calculated the correlations between items and the full scale, and these correlations were significantly positively correlated (all  $r$  values above .35 and significant at a  $p<.01$  value) indicating the concepts and items are interrelated. Therefore, the low reliability can be explained by only three items loading onto this factor. It is possible that this is due to there not being enough psychometrically sound items created for the original pilot measure that assessed for institutional climate variables.

**Exploring Validity of the MUWOCS.** The literature on microaggressions is embedded in Critical Race Theory, which emphasizes the cultural link between psychometric research and translation in the face of findings. Predicting outcomes that impact the cultural group is a necessity for intervention design and prevention research (Ladson-Billings & Tate IV, 1995; Solorzano et al., 2000). To this extent, I explored the initial predictive validity of the MUWOCS by testing if the subscales were related to resilience. Bivariate correlation analyses revealed negative correlations between resilience in three out of the four subscales. Two of these, Marginalization and Exclusion and Emotional Reactivity, were significantly negatively correlated with resilience scores. Resiliency scores were also negatively correlated with Diversity Tax, but this relationship was not significant. Resiliency was positively correlated with implicit institutional bias but only marginally so ( $r=.05$ ). The negative correlations indicate the greater the self-reported resilience, the lower the frequency of microaggressions reported.

This is consistent with prior risk and resilience literature in that resilience can act as a buffer or protective factor in the face of increased risk (in this case conceptualized as self-reported frequency of microaggressions) (Masten, 2007). Further research is needed to investigate if this relationship is stable across time. Furthermore, it is worth investigating whether there are moderators/protective factors in this relationship or whether resilience moderates the relationship between frequency of microaggressions and mental health symptoms; retention; turnover.

#### **5.4 Group Differences in Subscale Responses**

The last aim of this study was to examine any group differences in responses to the MUWOC subscales. Relevant group-related independent variables were race, education, and position. There was no significant difference in responding to subscales

among the four racial groups compared (Hispanic/Latina, African American/Black, Asian/Pacific Islander, and Native American). However, the Native American participants were trending towards significance on the Marginalization and Exclusion subscale in that they were reporting greater frequency of microaggressions as compared to all other ethnic groups. There may be challenges that were not captured in the focus groups because there was not representation of Native American women in the item generation phase. Moreover, it is important to note that the sample size for this group was low (n=11), yet they reported higher rates of microaggressions on all subscales. These findings point to the need of including more Native American women in future university microaggression studies and to learn the specific campus microaggression experiences for this group.

There were no significant group differences of microaggression frequency report by education indicating that one's highest degree earned did not impact the types of microaggressions and frequency of reporting them. Lastly, there were significant group differences by position in that graduate students reported the greatest level of emotional reactions to microaggressions as compared to staff and faculty (tenure and non-tenured track). Non-tenured faculty (adjunct professors and instructors) reported greater levels of marginalization and exclusion as compared to graduate students. Graduate students and tenured faculty also reported greater Implicit Institutional Bias as compared to staff and non-tenure track faculty.

Graduate students reporting greater frequency of three out of four subscales is consistent with the experiences and position of the graduate students in academia. Graduate students do not hold a lot power in the system, as they are trainees, yet are

expected to fulfill multiple rolls, take on many responsibilities like faculty, without the financial security, respect, and recognition that full-time staff and faculty receive. This in turn can have negative emotional consequences where graduate students are left feeling marginalized and without resources (Hyun, Quinn, Madon, & Lustig, 2006).

Non-tenure track faculty reported the highest frequency of marginalization and exclusion as compared to the other groups. This is consistent with literature regarding adjunct professors feeling like outsiders and non-permanent fixtures on a university campus (Forbes, Hickey, & White, 2010). These positions also do not carry the same level of prestige as tenured-track positions, and this can also contribute to this group of participants feeling excluded. It is noteworthy that no effect for education was found, but responses on the subscales varied greatly by position indicating that one's role at the university is potentially a better predictor of frequency of microaggressions than one's education level. In closing, the differences in responses by position on the four subscales, have implications for identifying and intervening on microaggressions. The scale can still be used with these different positions, but the scale helps us tailor intervention efforts based on the frequency of *types* of microaggressions reported by position.

## **5.5 Limitations**

This study comes with strengths and limitations. First, as this study was primarily exploratory, there are limitations to the statements that can be made about validity. An exploratory factor analysis describes the factor structure of an instrument, and reliability can be assessed via Cronbach's alpha. Issues of convergent and divergent validity still need to be investigated in a confirmatory factor analysis. Secondly, the sample for this

study was collected mostly via purposeful sampling and not random sampling which limits the generalizability of these results.

Third, we were unable to utilize the White women in the sample due to the characteristics of the sample being statistically too different from the women of color sample. Furthermore, errors with random responding were observed which called into question the validity of responses. It will be important to include White women in future studies to separate which types of microaggressions are experienced by all academic women, and which are truly “intersectional” to improve the construct validity of the scale.

Another limitation was noted in the data collection method such that people who did not want to complete the survey online for fear of their responses being linked back to them were missed despite the survey link being anonymous. In cases where large organizations were contacted via email, interested participants had to email the PI for the link. It is possible that individuals who did not want to be identified, therefore did not email the PI for the link. Related to data collection related limitations, we were also unable to utilize the appraisal items in this study to compare and contrast how these may be different from frequency of microaggressions. Due to random/nonsensical responding on these items, the items were not deemed usable.

## **5.6 Future Directions**

First and foremost, the next step in this line of research is to conduct a confirmatory study to strengthen and delineate the existing factor structure, reliability, and to test convergent and divergent validity of the scale. Additionally, concurrent validity should be tested by relating the experiencing of racial and gendered

microaggressions to university WOC self-reported burn-out and turnover rates. Previous work has hypothesized that microaggressions and implicit bias play a role in turnover and burn-out rates in diverse employees at academic institutions, but to date, no quantitative investigation has linked frequency of microaggression exposure to these organizational outcomes (Mkandawire-Valhmu, Kako, & Stevens, 2010; Thompson, 2008). This is an important avenue of research to pursue as microaggressions can negatively impact retention of university WOC in higher education across all positions.

Furthermore, future research should aim to include other marginalized identities that unfortunately had to be excluded in this study due to small sample size and therefore lack of representation. For example, men of color and third gendered/non binary people were not included in the study, but still face unique challenges and microaggressions in academia. Furthermore, more concerted efforts to recruit participants from majority and minority serving universities should be made to examine whether type of institution can have impact on frequency of microaggression exposure.

Secondly, the construct of implicit institutional bias subscale needs to be revisited psychometrically and conceptually. Additional focus groups to develop more conceptually sound items using verbiage from the target population, rather than research language may capture the latent variable more accurately. Additionally, developing a measure of microaggression frequency is an important first step to understand campus microaggression exposure among women of color. Future studies should also examine appraisal of microaggressions. It's possible that we may see different results in frequency versus appraisal of events given that there are microaggressions that happen to us more often but don't bother us versus a more blatant microaggression such as a racial slur that

need only to happen once to have a lasting negative impact. Finally, currently the instructions on the scale ask the participants about occurrence of microaggressions across their academic career. It may be helpful to change the prompt to in the past twelve months in order to measure change over time or measure “new cases” or microaggressions each year.

Lastly, research in the past several years has focused on acting against microaggressions, however this research is sparse, and the gap to conduct more clinically applicable research exists (Sue et al., 2019; Thurber & DiAngelo, 2018). Researchers can build upon this foundation to help foster program development and initiatives to increase campus diversity and inclusion, to educate the public at large about microaggressions and their impact, and to foster positive relationships and genuine understanding among people of different groups.

### **5.7 Implications for Research and Practice**

The results of this study have implications for research as well as clinical utility and applications. This was the first known study to quantitatively measure gendered and racial microaggressions among university WOC. Although other intersectional measures exist (Balsam et al., 2011; Keum et al., 2018; Lewis & Neville, 2015), this is the first one that is context specific which therefore increases the utility of this measure on university campuses. This measure can also be utilized as an assessment tool to identify the frequency and types of microaggressions women of color across different positions may be experiencing. Additionally, the MUWOCS can be utilized as a starting point to assess for microaggressions and then to have conversations about diversity and inclusion at institutions of higher education.

The scale also lends itself to identify areas and ways of intervening on microaggressions. One of the themes that came up in the focus groups was that of White allies who meant well, but still participated in microaggressions. Derald Sue and colleagues offer microinterventions and microaffirmations as ways to counter microaggressions for allies, bystanders, and targets of microaggressions. They define microinterventions as “the everyday words or deeds, whether intentional or unintentional, that communicates to targets of microaggressions validation of their experiential reality, value as a person, affirmation of their group identity, and reassurance that they are not alone” (p. 7) (Sue et al., 2019). The authors go on to discuss specific strategies to handle interpersonal, institutional, and societal microaggressions. It is my hope that my measure can be used to spark discussions among administrators and strategies outlined in the above article can be used to intervene on microaggressions.

## **5.8 Conclusion**

The purpose of this study was to develop a measure of gendered and racial microaggression exposure for women of color on campus. This goal was achieved by utilizing a mixed methods study design. Factor analyses revealed a four-factor solution: Marginalization and Exclusion, Emotional reactivity to Microaggressions, Diversity Tax, and Implicit Institutional Bias. The measure demonstrated adequate reliability and good initial predictive validity. The MUWOCS makes a significant contribution to the existing literature regarding gendered and racial microaggressions in institutions of higher education by creating an intersectional tool that can be used to capture the experiences of diverse university women of color.

## REFERENCES

- Balsam, K. F., Molina, Y., Beadnell, B., Simoni, J., & Walters, K. (2011). Measuring multiple minority stress: the LGBT People of Color Microaggressions Scale. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 17*(2), 163.
- Basford, T. E., Offermann, L. R., & Behrend, T. S. (2014). Do you see what I see? Perceptions of gender microaggressions in the workplace. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 38*(3), 340-349.
- Boysen, G. A. (2012). Teacher and student perceptions of microaggressions in college classrooms. *College Teaching, 60*(3), 122-129.
- Brodsky, A. E., & Cattaneo, L. B. (2013). A transconceptual model of empowerment and resilience: Divergence, convergence and interactions in kindred community concepts. *American journal of community psychology, 52*(3-4), 333-346.
- Brodsky, A. E., Welsh, E., Carrillo, A., Talwar, G., Scheibler, J., & Butler, T. (2011). Between synergy and conflict: Balancing the processes of organizational and individual resilience in an Afghan women's community. *American journal of community psychology, 47*(3-4), 217-235.
- Brondolo, E., Kelly, K. P., Coakley, V., Gordon, T., Thompson, S., Levy, E., . . . Contrada, R. J. (2005). The Perceived Ethnic Discrimination Questionnaire: Development and preliminary validation of a community version. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 35*(2), 335-365.

- Connor, K. M., & Davidson, J. R. (2003). Development of a new resilience scale: The Connor-Davidson resilience scale (CD-RISC). *Depression and anxiety, 18*(2), 76-82.
- Constantine, M. G., Smith, L., Redington, R. M., & Owens, D. (2008). Racial microaggressions against Black counseling and counseling psychology faculty: A central challenge in the multicultural counseling movement. *Journal of Counseling and Development: JCD, 86*(3), 348.
- Constantine, M. G., & Sue, D. W. (2007). Perceptions of racial microaggressions among black supervisees in cross-racial dyads. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 54*(2), 142.
- Council, N. R. (2013). *Seeking solutions: maximizing American talent by advancing women of color in academia: summary of a conference*: National Academies Press.
- Crenshaw, K. (1991). Mapping the margins: Intersectionality, identity politics, and violence against women of color. *Stanford law review, 1241-1299*.
- Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. P. (2017). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*: Sage publications.
- Crocker, J., Voelkl, K., Testa, M., & Major, B. (1991). Social stigma: The affective consequences of attributional ambiguity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 60*(2), 218.
- Delapp, R. C., & Williams, M. T. (2015). Professional Challenges Facing African American Psychologists: The Presence and Impact of Racial Microaggressions. *The Behavior Therapist, 38*(4), 101-105.

- DeVellis, R. F. (2016). *Scale development: Theory and applications* (Vol. 26): Sage publications.
- Donovan, R. A., Galban, D. J., Grace, R. K., Bennett, J. K., & Felicié, S. Z. (2013). Impact of racial macro-and microaggressions in Black women's lives: A preliminary analysis. *Journal of Black Psychology, 39*(2), 185-196.
- Dressler, W. W., Oths, K. S., & Gravlee, C. C. (2005). Race and ethnicity in public health research: models to explain health disparities. *Annual Review of Anthropology, 34*.
- Dumas-Hines, F. A., Cochran, L. L., & Williams, E. U. (2001). Promoting diversity: recommendations for recruitment and retention of minorities in higher education. *College Student Journal, 35*(3), 433-442.
- Fergus, S., & Zimmerman, M. A. (2005). Adolescent resilience: A framework for understanding healthy development in the face of risk. *Annu. Rev. Public Health, 26*, 399-419.
- Forbes, M. O., Hickey, M. T., & White, J. (2010). Adjunct faculty development: Reported needs and innovative solutions. *Journal of Professional Nursing, 26*(2), 116-124.
- Ford, K. A. (2011). Race, gender, and bodily (mis) recognitions: Women of color faculty experiences with White students in the college classroom. *The Journal of Higher Education, 82*(4), 444-478.
- Gibbs, G. R. (2018). *Analyzing qualitative data* (Vol. 6): Sage.

- Gin, K. J., Martínez-Alemán, A. M., Rowan-Kenyon, H. T., & Hottell, D. (2017). Racialized aggressions and social media on campus. *Journal of College Student Development, 58*(2), 159-174.
- Groenewald, T. (2004). A phenomenological research design illustrated. *International journal of qualitative methods, 3*(1), 42-55.
- Gurin, P., Dey, E., Hurtado, S., & Gurin, G. (2002). Diversity and higher education: Theory and impact on educational outcomes. *Harvard educational review, 72*(3), 330-367.
- Gurin, P., Nagda, B. R. A., & Lopez, G. E. (2004). The benefits of diversity in education for democratic citizenship. *Journal of social issues, 60*(1), 17-34.
- Haldeman, D. (2012). Guidelines for psychological practice with lesbian, gay, and bisexual clients.
- Harper, S. R., & Hurtado, S. (2007). Nine themes in campus racial climates and implications for institutional transformation. *New Directions for Student Services, 2007*(120), 7-24.
- Heale, R., & Twycross, A. (2015). Validity and reliability in quantitative studies. *Evidence-based nursing, 18*(3), 66-67.
- Henson, R. K., & Roberts, J. K. (2006). Use of exploratory factor analysis in published research: Common errors and some comment on improved practice. *Educational and Psychological measurement, 66*(3), 393-416.
- Hughes, D., Seidman, E., & Williams, N. (1993). Cultural phenomena and the research enterprise: Toward a culturally anchored methodology. *American journal of community psychology, 21*(6), 687-703.

- Huynh, V. W. (2012). Ethnic microaggressions and the depressive and somatic symptoms of Latino and Asian American adolescents. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *41*(7), 831-846.
- Hyun, J. K., Quinn, B. C., Madon, T., & Lustig, S. (2006). Graduate student mental health: Needs assessment and utilization of counseling services. *Journal of College Student Development*, *47*(3), 247-266.
- Jones, K. P., Arena, D. F., Nittrouer, C. L., Alonso, N. M., & Lindsey, A. P. (2017). Subtle discrimination in the workplace: A vicious cycle. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *10*(1), 51-76.
- Jones, K. P., Peddie, C. I., Gilrane, V. L., King, E. B., & Gray, A. L. (2016). Not so subtle: A meta-analytic investigation of the correlates of subtle and overt discrimination. *Journal of Management*, *42*(6), 1588-1613.
- Joseph, T. D., & Hirshfield, L. E. (2011). 'Why don't you get somebody new to do it?' Race and cultural taxation in the academy. *Ethnic and racial studies*, *34*(1), 121-141.
- Kelly, B. T., & McCann, K. (2013). Women faculty of color: Success stories from the margins.
- Kerby, S. (2012). The state of women of color in the United States. *Washington: Center for American Progress*, 1-7.
- Keum, B. T., Brady, J. L., Sharma, R., Lu, Y., Kim, Y. H., & Thai, C. J. (2018). Gendered Racial Microaggressions Scale for Asian American Women: Development and initial validation. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*.

- Kitzinger, J. (1995). Qualitative research: introducing focus groups. *Bmj*, 311(7000), 299-302.
- Krueger, R. A., & Casey, M. A. (2002). Designing and conducting focus group interviews: St Paul, Minnesota, USA.
- Ladson-Billings, G., & Tate IV, W. (1995). Toward a critical race theory of education. *The Teachers College Record*, 97(1), 47-68.
- Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*: Springer publishing company.
- Lester, S. (1999). An introduction to phenomenological research: Taunton UK: Stan Lester Developments.
- Lewis, J. A., Mendenhall, R., Harwood, S. A., & Huntt, M. B. (2013). Coping with gendered racial microaggressions among Black women college students. *Journal of African American Studies*, 17(1), 51-73.
- Lewis, J. A., & Neville, H. A. (2015). Construction and initial validation of the Gendered Racial Microaggressions Scale for Black women. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 62(2), 289.
- Liang, C. T., Knauer-Turner, E. A., Molenaar, C. M., & Price, E. (2017). A Qualitative Examination of the Gendered and Racialized Lives of Latina College Students. *Gender Issues*, 34(2), 149-170.
- Luna, G., Medina, C., & Gorman, S. (2010). Academic Reality" Show": Presented by Women Faculty of Color. *Advancing Women in Leadership*, 30(11).
- Maldonado, H., & Draeger, J. (2017). Surviving Sexism in Academia. *Surviving Sexism in Academia: Strategies for Feminist Leadership*, 1.

- Maranto, C. L., & Griffin, A. E. (2010). The antecedents of a 'chilly climate' for women faculty in higher education. *Human Relations*, 0018726710377932.
- Marbley, A. F., Wong, A., Santos-Hatchett, S. L., Pratt, C., & Jaddo, L. (2011). Women faculty of color: Voices, gender, and the expression of our multiple identities within academia. *Advancing Women in Leadership*, 31, 166.
- Masten, A. S. (2007). Resilience in developing systems: Progress and promise as the fourth wave rises. *Development and psychopathology*, 19(3), 921-930.
- McCall, L. (2005). The complexity of intersectionality. *Signs: Journal of women in culture and society*, 30(3), 1771-1800.
- McChesney, J. (2018). Representation and Pay of Women of Color in the Higher Education Workforce. A CUPA-HR Research Brief. *College and University Professional Association for Human Resources*.
- Mkandawire-Valhmu, L., Kako, P. M., & Stevens, P. E. (2010). Mentoring women faculty of color in nursing academia: Creating an environment that supports scholarly growth and retention. *Nursing outlook*, 58(3), 135-141.
- Morgan, D., & Kreuger, R. (1998). *The Focus Group Kit*. Beverly Hills: California: Sage Publications.
- Moustakas, C. (1994). *Phenomenological research methods*: Sage.
- Nadal, K. L. (2011). The Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale (REMS): construction, reliability, and validity. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 58(4), 470.
- Nadal, K. L., Davidoff, K. C., Davis, L. S., Wong, Y., Marshall, D., & McKenzie, V. (2015). A qualitative approach to intersectional microaggressions: Understanding

- influences of race, ethnicity, gender, sexuality, and religion. *Qualitative Psychology*, 2(2), 147.
- Nadal, K. L., Wong, Y., Sriken, J., Griffin, K., & Fujii-Doe, W. (2015). Racial microaggressions and Asian Americans: An exploratory study on within-group differences and mental health. *Asian American Journal of Psychology*, 6(2), 136.
- Newman, L., & Dale, A. (2005). Network structure, diversity, and proactive resilience building: a response to Tompkins and Adger. *Ecology and society*, 10(1).
- O'keefe, V. M., Wingate, L. R., Cole, A. B., Hollingsworth, D. W., & Tucker, R. P. (2015). Seemingly harmless racial communications are not so harmless: Racial microaggressions lead to suicidal ideation by way of depression symptoms. *Suicide and Life-Threatening Behavior*, 45(5), 567-576.
- Ortiz-Frontera, Y. (2016). Development and validation of the assessment of Racial Microaggressions in academic settings (ARMAS) scale.
- Osborne, J. W., Costello, A. B., & Kellow, J. T. (2008). Best practices in exploratory factor analysis. *Best practices in quantitative methods*, 86-99.
- Padilla, A. M. (1994). Research news and Comment: Ethnic minority scholars; research, and mentoring: Current and future issues. *Educational Researcher*, 23(4), 24-27.
- Parra-Frutos, I. (2013). Testing homogeneity of variances with unequal sample sizes. *Computational Statistics*, 28(3), 1269-1297.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). Two decades of developments in qualitative inquiry: A personal, experiential perspective. *Qualitative social work*, 1(3), 261-283.
- Pincus, F. L. (1996). Discrimination comes in many forms: Individual, institutional, and structural. *The American Behavioral Scientist*, 40(2), 186.

- Price, E. G., Gozu, A., Kern, D. E., Powe, N. R., Wand, G. S., Golden, S., & Cooper, L. A. (2005). The role of cultural diversity climate in recruitment, promotion, and retention of faculty in academic medicine. *Journal of general internal medicine, 20*(7), 565-571.
- Rivera, D. P. (2012). *Microaggressions and health outcomes for Latina/o Americans: Understanding the influences of external characteristics and psychological resources*. Columbia University.
- Runswick-Cole, K., & Goodley, D. (2013). Resilience: A disability studies and community psychology approach. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 7*(2), 67-78.
- Schafer, M. H., & Ferraro, K. F. (2011). The Stigma of Obesity: Does Perceived Weight Discrimination Affect Identity and Physical Health? *Social Psychology Quarterly, 74*(1), 76-97. doi: 10.1177/0190272511398197
- Settles, I. H., Buchanan, N. T., & Dotson, K. (2018). Scrutinized but not recognized:(In) visibility and hypervisibility experiences of faculty of color. *Journal of Vocational Behavior.*
- Smith, B. W., Dalen, J., Wiggins, K., Tooley, E., Christopher, P., & Bernard, J. (2008). The brief resilience scale: assessing the ability to bounce back. *International journal of behavioral medicine, 15*(3), 194-200.
- Snyder, T. D., & Dillow, S. A. (2013). Digest of Education Statistics, 2012. NCES 2014-015. *National Center for Education Statistics.*

- Solorzano, D., Ceja, M., & Yosso, T. (2000). Critical race theory, racial microaggressions, and campus racial climate: The experiences of African American college students. *Journal of Negro Education*, 60-73.
- Sue, D. W., Alsaidi, S., Awad, M. N., Glaeser, E., Calle, C. Z., & Mendez, N. (2019). Disarming racial microaggressions: Microintervention strategies for targets, White allies, and bystanders. *American psychologist*, 74(1), 128.
- Sue, D. W., Capodilupo, C. M., & Holder, A. (2008). Racial microaggressions in the life experience of Black Americans. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 39(3), 329.
- Sue, D. W., Capodilupo, C. M., Torino, G. C., Bucceri, J. M., Holder, A., Nadal, K. L., & Esquilin, M. (2007). Racial microaggressions in everyday life: implications for clinical practice. *American psychologist*, 62(4), 271.
- Tavakol, M., & Dennick, R. (2011). Making sense of Cronbach's alpha. *International journal of medical education*, 2, 53.
- Thompson, C. Q. (2008). Recruitment, retention, and mentoring faculty of color: The chronicle continues. *New directions for higher education*, 2008(143), 47-54.
- Thurber, A., & DiAngelo, R. (2018). Microaggressions: Intervening in three acts. *Journal of Ethnic & Cultural Diversity in Social Work*, 27(1), 17-27.
- Tiede, H.-J. (2015). *American Association of University Professors Policy Documents and Reports*: American Association of University Professors (AAUP).
- Torres-Harding, S. R., Andrade Jr, A. L., & Romero Diaz, C. E. (2012). The Racial Microaggressions Scale (RMAS): A new scale to measure experiences of racial

- microaggressions in people of color. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 18*(2), 153.
- Torres, L., & Taknint, J. T. (2015). Ethnic microaggressions, traumatic stress symptoms, and Latino depression: A moderated mediational model. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 62*(3), 393.
- Turner, C. S. V. (2002). Women of color in academe: Living with multiple marginality. *The Journal of Higher Education, 73*(1), 74-93.
- Turner, C. S. V., & González, J. C. (2011). Faculty women of color: The critical nexus of race and gender. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education, 4*(4), 199.
- Turner, C. S. V., González, J. C., & Wood, J. L. (2008). Faculty of color in academe: What 20 years of literature tells us. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education, 1*(3), 139.
- Vakalahi, H. F., & Starks, S. H. (2010). The complexities of becoming visible: Reflecting on the stories of women of color as social work educators. *Affilia, 25*(2), 110-122.
- Vakalahi, H. F., & Starks, S. H. (2011). Health, Well-being and Women of Color Academics. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences, 1*(2), 185-190.
- Walls, M. L., Gonzalez, J., Gladney, T., & Onello, E. (2015). Unconscious biases: racial microaggressions in American Indian health care. *The Journal of the American Board of Family Medicine, 28*(2), 231-239.
- Wang, J., Leu, J., & Shoda, Y. (2011). When the Seemingly Innocuous “Stings” Racial Microaggressions and Their Emotional Consequences. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 37*(12), 1666-1678.

- Williams, B., Onsmann, A., & Brown, T. (2010). Exploratory factor analysis: A five-step guide for novices. *Australasian Journal of Paramedicine*, 8(3).
- Williams, C. D. (2014). African Americans and racial microaggressions: Coping, psychological well-being, and physical health.
- Williams, D. R., & Mohammed, S. A. (2013). Racism and health I: pathways and scientific evidence. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 57(8), 1152-1173.
- Zimmerman, M. A., Stoddard, S. A., Eisman, A. B., Caldwell, C. H., Aiyer, S. M., & Miller, A. (2013). Adolescent resilience: Promotive factors that inform prevention. *Child development perspectives*, 7(4), 215-220

## APPENDIX A

### SURVEY

The following statements are examples of microaggressions that women of color in academia may face. Microaggressions can be verbal statements or nonverbal actions aimed at members of one or more minority groups (i.e. gender and race) that communicate derogatory and/or hostile messages. They can be intentional and unintentional.

Instructions: For the following questions, please think about your experiences as a woman of color during your academic career. By career, we mean your advanced training and academic tenure thus far. This can include instances on different academic institutions you have studied/worked at during your career.

Please read each item and think of how often each event has happened to you during the course of your career at a university/institution (i.e. frequency). Also, please rate the effect of each statement (i.e. Impact) ranging from positive to negative.

Your confidentiality is being protected, so please answer each item as honestly as possible.

#### Frequency:

1=never	2=rarely	3=sometimes/a moderate amount	4= often
---------	----------	-------------------------------	----------

#### Impact:

0=does not apply	1=no effect	2=positive effect	3=somewhat positive effect	4=somewhat negative effect	5=negative effect
------------------	-------------	-------------------	----------------------------	----------------------------	-------------------

1. At my workplace, women of color are represented in positions of authority.
2. I have felt invisible among my colleagues/peers.
3. I have felt like a "token minority" at my academic institution.
4. My authority has been undermined at my institution.
5. People have been surprised by my scholastic or professional success.
6. I have been paid less than my white female counterparts.
7. I have been afraid that my response (s) to campus microaggressions will confirm negative stereotypes about my group.
8. I have had a difficult time figuring out if a microaggression happened to me.
9. A male at my institution has directed sexual innuendos towards me because of stereotypes regarding women in my cultural groups.
10. . Educating White people about their microaggressions has become burdensome to me.
11. Experiencing microaggressions has left me feeling frustrated.
12. People from my academic institution have stereotyped my cultural group.
13. People from my academic institution have made assumptions about my intelligence.
14. My opinions have been invalidated by my White peers/colleagues.
15. I have felt excluded from meetings at my institution.
16. I have feared for my emotional well-being on campus.
17. 17. I have been expected to share my opinions during discussions regarding multicultural topics.
18. I've been rubbed the wrong way by comments about me being a woman of color long after they occurred.
19. People expect me to share the same opinions as other women of color.
20. After a microaggression occurs, I have questioned whether I "overreacted."
21. I have felt isolated at my institution.
22. Experiencing microaggressions has led me to think about leaving my academic institution.
23. . I have been made to feel burdened to represent my group in a positive light.
24. I have felt "on edge" on campus.
25. I find that many people on campus are not aware of their own biases.
26. I worry that experiencing microaggressions have worsened my physical health.
27. I am the only woman of color in my workplace.
28. People have assumed that I am an expert in diversity matters at my institution.
29. I have been disrespected by people at my institution.
30. . My contributions and critiques on multicultural topics have been met with resistance by my White peers.
31. I have felt a burden to serve on diversity or multicultural committees at my institution.

32. I have felt that only superficial attempts are made regarding issues of diversity and inclusion at my university.
33. I have been ignored in campus environments.
34. Individuals at my institution have asked me to serve as a "spokesperson" for women of color.
35. I have noticed that women of color in my department are requested to perform more service work as compared to White women and men.
36. Hate crimes at university campuses have made me concerned about my safety.
37. My comments have been ignored in a discussion in a professional setting.
38. I have been paid less than men at my institution.
39. I have felt uncomfortable speaking my mind in collegial settings.
40. I have noticed I am less assertive at my academic institution than other settings.
41. I get mad and ruminate about things I could have said in response to a microaggression.
42. Sense of community among women of color is discouraged at my institution.
43. My contributions and critiques on multicultural topics have been met with resistance by my White professors.
44. Experiencing microaggressions has left me feeling exhausted.
45. Students address me as Ms., Mrs., or by my first name rather than Dr.
46. I believe my course evaluations are typically worse than my White counterparts.
47. Students challenge my authority in the classroom.
48. There is a lack of high-quality research regarding diverse groups at my academic institution.
49. I feel deterred from my research and teaching due to expectations to participate in diversity related service in my department.
50. The tenure process for women of color is not equitable at my institution.
51. I have adapted my physical appearance (hair, dress, speech) to majority standards at my institution.

## APPENDIX B

### FOCUS GROUP OUTLINE

#### 1. **Welcome**

Hello, my name is Kinjal Pandya and I am a doctoral candidate in the clinical community psychology program here at USC. This is Chandni and she is also a graduate student in the same program. She will be taking notes during our conversation today. This is just so that in the future when we compile the results of this conversation, we can remember important parts of what we discuss today. You have been invited to participate in this study because you identify as a woman of color on a college or university campus. This study is part of my dissertation. It has been approved by my committee and the IRB. The purpose of my research is to better understand your experiences with gender and ethnic based discrimination on campus.

#### 2. **Informed Consent Review**

Please turn your attention to the invitation letter in front of you. We will review this form together, then you will have a few minutes to read the form and ask any questions. Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may discontinue the study at any time if you feel any discomfort or would no longer like to participate. You will receive \$10.00 for attending the focus group. You will not be penalized in any way for leaving the group at any time.

The information you provide today in our discussion will be used to generate with items for a questionnaire for microaggressions for women of color. Information that is obtained in connection with this research study will remain confidential. No identifying information will be paired with recordings.

Our discussion will be audio recorded. This is so I can go back and transcribe our conversation, so I have the most accurate information. Transcripts will not contain any identifying information. If at any time you share identifying information, we will redact that from the transcript. Once transcribed, we will delete the audio recording file. Later, after transcription, myself and two other undergraduate research assistants will utilize software to code and categorize your responses.

There are risks to participating in this study, although they are minimal. Discussing sensitive experiences with discriminatory treatment may elicit strong emotional reactions and may be distressing. Due to the interviews being audio-recorded, there is

a possibility someone may be identified by their voice or speech. However, the transcription will be conducted off campus at a non-university affiliated service, to reduce identification of individual participants.

Others in the group will hear what you say, and it is possible that they could disclose this information to others. The researchers cannot ensure the privacy of the discussion content. Researchers imperatively ask that all group members respect the privacy of everyone in the group by not sharing the content of the focus group discussion. Is everyone good with that?

The benefits of this study are that the information you provide today will be utilized to develop a questionnaire that will help us understand and intervene on campus microaggressions.

The purpose of focus groups is to learn from your experiences, both negatives and positive. We are not trying to achieve consensus, but rather collect information that is representative of your experiences. The results of this study will be used for my dissertation and will be presented at conferences. However, no identifying information will be included in any presentation written or verbal. What you say here today will not impact your grades or standing with the university in any way. Everything you say here today is confidential. I ask everyone to respect each other's privacy and confidentiality by not discussing the topics today outside of this room.

Now please take a few minutes and read the consent form. Please let me know if you have any questions. If you don't have any questions, please complete the form. After you've finished reading please complete the form. I will be coming around the room momentarily to collect the forms and to answer any questions that you'd rather ask me individually.

*(Facilitator may now go around room and take care of payment).*

### **3. Logistics**

This focus group will last approximately two hours. If at any time you need to use the restroom or move around, please feel free to do so. *Point out where bathrooms are.* I ask that you please put away all cellphones and electronic devices during our discussion. I ask that you put your phones on silent or turn them off. We will be keeping the doors closed to ensure privacy and confidentiality of our discussion

today. If you need to step out, please be mindful of closing the door behind you. Any questions?

#### **4. Ground Rules**

Before we get started, it will be important to establish some “ground rules.” These rules will help us to create an environment where people feel safe to share their experiences. These rules will also help us ensure privacy. I will start off with some rules I think will be important (*facilitator will write these group rules on dry erase board or easel*): 1) Everyone should participate, 2) Information provided in the focus group must be kept confidential, 3) Stay with the group and please don’t have side conversations, 4) turn off cell phones if possible, 5) do not talk over or interrupt others, 6) please be respectful of others’ experiences. Do you have others you would like to add? do you agree/disagree with these?

#### **5. Turn on Tape Recorder**

Is everyone in agreement about today’s discussion and the ground rules? Are there any questions? Okay, I am now going to turn on the tape recorder.

#### **6. Introductions**

- The first thing I would like to do are introductions. I would like for you to tell me your name on the nametag, your age, how you identify (ethnicity, gender), your age, and your department.
- *Everyone goes around and introduces themselves.*

#### **7. Questions**

- Thank you everyone for introducing yourselves. Okay let’s dive in to the content of today’s discussion.
- *Microaggressions-general*
  - Let’s unpack the word microaggression a little bit: what does that word mean to you? have you heard of it?
  - Have people ever treated you differently or unfairly because of gender or ethnic identity?
    - Verbal vs Behavioral (i.e. nonverbal microaggressions)
    - If so, when, what happened, and how did that experience make you feel?
- *Gender specific microaggressions*
  - Have you experienced microaggressions because of being a woman?
    - Who, What, when, Where, How?
    - How did you react?
      - Different levels of reactions/actions (potential theme)
- *Ethnic specific microaggressions*
  - Have you experienced ethnic specific microaggressions?
  - Who, What, When, Where, How?
  - How did you react?
- *Gender & Ethnic Specific*

- Describe any experiences of microaggressions due to being a woman and person of color.
- Who, What, When, Where, How?
- What is more salient for you? Your gender, ethnicity, or both?
- *Department/University climate*
  - Do you feel supported in your department?
  - At the university?
  - How would you describe the overall climate?
- *Responding to Microaggressions*
  - Have you ever had to stand-up to or educate people about their assumptions?
  - Did this make you fear for your emotional or physical safety?
  - Coping?
- *Differences/similarities in microaggressions among staff, faculty, students*
  - Do you think the microaggressions you have to deal with are different or similar to those of faculty, graduate students?
- White “Allies”

#### **8. Closing Remarks**

Thank you all for your participation in this focus group today. Your comments and experiences will contribute greatly to this field of research and developing ways to intervene to reduce microaggressions. This project is very important and to me and your contributions are invaluable. Please feel free to email me at [kpandya@email.sc.edu](mailto:kpandya@email.sc.edu) if you have further questions. Thank you.