2023

Relationship Between African American Professionals' Acculturation, Racial Identity, and Experienced Stereotype Threat

Erica Regina Griffin
Walden University

Walden University

College of Psychology and Community Services

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Erica R. Griffin

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Rhonda Bohs, Committee Chairperson, Psychology Faculty
Dr. Rochelle Michel, Committee Member, Psychology Faculty
Dr. Matthew Howren, University Reviewer, Psychology Faculty

Chief Academic Officer and Provost
Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

Walden University
2023

Abstract

Relationship Between African American Professionals' Acculturation, Racial Identity, and Experienced Stereotype Threat

by

Erica R. Griffin

MA, Illinois School of Professional Psychology at Argosy University, 2010

BA, Judson College, 2005

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfilment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Psychology

Walden University

February 2023

Abstract

There is considerable research on acculturation, identity formation, and stereotype threat experiences of African American children and college students. However, little research has been conducted exploring these factors once college graduates have entered the workforce. Furthermore, the previous research has treated these variables separately or combining no more than two at a time. The purpose of this quantitative, cross-sectional study was to learn more about African American professionals' acculturation, racial identity, and stereotype threat experiences. Seller's Model of Racial Identity, Berry's acculturation theory, and Shapiro's Multi-threat framework provided the basis of this study. The research question addressed whether the type of stereotype threats experienced by African American professionals are related to their acculturation and racial identity profiles. Surveys were completed by 94 African American professionals who have worked in their field of study for 5 years or more. The survey questions comprised of The Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity, the Measurement of Acculturation Strategies for People of African Descent and the Measure of Stereotype Threats. Data were analyzed using hierarchical multiple regression. The results showed that although acculturation styles and racial identity profiles were correlated, only the acculturation styles of marginalist behaviors and traditionalist beliefs were significant predictors of stereotype threat type. Findings from this study can aid positive social change through the development of targeted stereotype threat interventions thus supporting the health and wellbeing of African American professionals.

Relationship Between African American Professionals' Acculturation, Racial Identity, and Experienced Stereotype Threat

by

Erica R. Griffin

MA, Illinois School of Professional Psychology at Argosy University, 2010

BA, Judson College, 2005

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfilment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Psychology

Walden University

February 2023

Dedication

This work is dedicated to the young man who once said “no one told me I didn’t have to choose.”

Acknowledgments

Thank you to my husband whose support and belief in me has been an unswerving and sustaining force. Thank you to my chair Dr Rhonda Bohs for reading extensive detailed emails and being a source of encouragement. Thank you to my committee member Dr Michel for clear feedback and guidance. Thanks to both for believing in this topic, laughing with me, and helping me produce work that I can be proud to call the first step of this stage of my career.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

African American professionals are part of both their ethnic minority group as well as their professional identity group. They must balance the sociocultural norms and expectation of these groups while holding both ingroup and outgroup status in both. Part of this balance includes the process of acculturation and navigating intergroup and intragroup relationships as well as related stereotype threats. In this chapter, I discuss the purpose of the study and background. I introduce the theoretical framework significance, theoretical framework, and the nature of the study. I also detail operational definitions, assumptions, scope and delimitations and limitations of this study.

Background

African American racial identity and acculturation are iterative processes that are intertwined and ongoing throughout a lifetime (Endale, 2018). Although acculturation is not inherently problematic, stereotype threat has been shown to have a negative impact on acculturating individuals (Baysu & Phalet, 2019). Notably, the benefits or hazards of acculturation are influenced by intergroup institutional ideologies (multi-culturalism vs. assimilation), acculturation norms (integration vs. assimilation as group norms), and intergroup contact experiences (negative contact and threat); (Baysu & Phalet, 2019).

Positive intergroup and intragroup experiences can result in an African American having a positive belief in achievement ability, and increased pride in as well as acceptance of racial identity (Neville & Cross, 2017). Similarly, intergroup influences contribute to individuals' perception of themselves; particularly messaging about stereotypes, biases and appearance affects the meaning-making process in identity

formation (Mims & Williams, 2020). However, intragroup dynamics can also have significant impact on identity, such as, African Americans employing strategies used to "prove" their place with other African Americans and the potential exclusionary cost of non-adherence to ingroup standards (Franco et al., 2019). The perceived need to self-alter to navigate cultural standards of social identities (namely that of African American culture and mainstream cultures) can also exacerbate racial stress (Gamst et al., 2020).

In addition to the racial identity formation and acculturation, African American professionals also have the pressure of maintaining and legitimizing their professional identity. The identity work of a professional has inherent role pressures and standards that must be addressed to legitimize their place in their role (Martin et al., 2020). But research on acculturation and related racial identity research have produced conflicting results (Celenk & Vijver, 2017), explanations of the conflict range from improper use of identity measures, the risk of using one measure without adding complementary measures for a complete profile, an absence of accounting for intergroup influences, and unclear definitions and differentiation between racial and ethnic identity (Ghara & Sullivan, 2012; Mills et al., 2017). In addition to conflicting results, research has not explored the relationship between racial identity profiles, acculturation styles, and stereotype threat experiences of adult African Americans navigating ethnic and professional identities. This is a significant gap in the literature, as members of marginalized groups must overcome stigma before establishing a professional identity (Ruwayne, 2020; Slay & Smith, 2011). A contextual study of acculturation through multiple lenses—stereotype threat types, racial identity profiles, and acculturation styles—can increase understanding

of the African American professional's identity work. This study also provides additional information concerning the role of intergroup influences on African American identity and acculturation.

Problem Statement

Adult African American professionals must navigate ethnic and professional identities, which involves acculturation, or identity integration or disintegration to adapt to majority culture. The process is influenced by inter and intragroup group experiences (Landrine et al., 2006; Obasi & Leong, 2010; Pope et al., 2000). African Americans with ethnic and professional identities must navigate dominant and subordinate in-group and out-group status simultaneously (Zeider et al., 2015). Stereotype threat can result in concerns of being considered an inadequate representation of one's minority group by either the in or out group (Franco et al., 2019; Whittington et al., 2021). Altering oneself to be accepted by a majority group is a common technique to navigate stereotype threat (Edwards 2019; Forber-Pratt, 2020). The altering and perceived need for it reinforces negative social cultural messaging regarding the altered identity (Gamst et al., 2020). An individual whose acculturation process includes integration of a devalued minority and valued mainstream identity is under increased psychological strain (Phalet, et al., 2018). This is an issue for African Americans as their racial/ethnic identity can be a protective factor against the effects of minority stress and related acculturative stress (Brendesha et al., 2012; Hope et al., 2020; Neville & Cross, 2017). It is therefore important to gain further knowledge of how acculturation and identity can impact stereotype threat experiences.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine if acculturation style and racial identity profiles, predicted stereotype threat type experienced by African American professionals. The target population was adult African American professionals who worked in their degree area for at least 5 years. The dependent variable in this study was type of stereotype threat experienced. The independent variables were racial identity profiles and acculturation styles. This study expanded current research by providing a contextual study of acculturation through multiple lenses: namely those of stereotype threat, racial identity profile, and acculturation styles.

Research Question and Hypotheses

Research Question 1: Does acculturation style as measured by the Measurement of Acculturation Strategies for People of African Descent (MASPAD), and racial identity profile as measured by the Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (MIBI) subscales predict stereotype threat type experienced as measured by the Measurement of Stereotype Threats?

H_0: Acculturation style as measured by the MASPAD, and racial identity profiles as measured by the MIBI subscales does not predict stereotype threat experienced as measured by the Measurement of Stereotype Threats?

H_1: Acculturation style as measured by the MASPAD, and racial identity profiles as measured by the MIBI subscales does predict stereotype threat experienced as measured by the Measurement of Stereotype Threats?

Theoretical Foundation

The theoretical framework for this study has three components. The first is the multidimensional model of racial identity (MMRI); (Seller et al., 1998). This model conceptualizes African American identity through a sociocultural lens. It acknowledges the influences of environmental and inter/intragroup experiences on identity formation and how participants view their racial identity at the time of engagement. The second component is Berry's (1980) theory of acculturation, which is frequently used as the foundation for studies on acculturation. His theory of acculturation and definition of acculturative stress provides a framework for conceptualizing acculturation across the lifespan and factors that can create negative impact (Berry, 1994). One such factor of negative impact is stereotype threat. Finally, Shapiro and Nueberg's (2007) multi-threat framework is used to explore how a person's identity can be simultaneously threatened by both in-group and out-group members with opposing or similar social identity stereotypes. I discuss these theories in more detail in Chapter 2.

Nature of the Study

I used a cross-sectional quantitative survey research design with hierarchical multiple regression to gather and analyze data for this study. This design allowed me to gather data and examine the relationship between variables (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Evans & Mathur, 2018). The independent variables are acculturation style and racial identity profiles. The dependent variable is stereotype threat. I used three measures to operationalize variables. The racial identity subscales of the MIBI (Sellers et al., 1997) measured racial identity. The profile results from the bidimensional scales of MASPAD

(Obasi & Leong, 2010) measured acculturation style. Finally, the Measure of Stereotype Threat (Shapiro, 2011) scales determined types of stereotype threat experienced. Both the independent and dependent variables were measured through participants' scaled responses to survey questions using a Likert-scale. The benefit of gathering this information in the form of a survey is that survey results are quantifiable. This quantitative analysis reflected any relationship between variables (Cheng et al., 2015). I discuss details of this method in Chapter 3.

Definitions

Acculturation: Acculturation is the process in which one moves from their culture of origin as a result of intercultural interactions *(*Obasi, 2005).

African American: An American person of African descent whose origin in America likely have roots in the slave trade. African Americans are also referred to as Black Americans. African Americans by this definition are separate from individuals whose heritage is from individuals of African descent who arrived in the U.S post-slavery (Locke & Bailey, 2013; Mifflin, 2016).

Professional: An individual whose job requires advanced education or training (Kador, 2010). For the purpose of this study, advanced education is identified as completion of a bachelor's degree or higher.

Racial identity: The ethnic-racial identity which encompasses sociocultural factors in relation to someone's conceptualization of and commit to their racial/ethnic group (Buckerner et al., 2022; Sellers et al., 1998).

Stereotype threat: Stereotype threat is when one fears their behaviors and choices will be evaluated through the framework of the observer's belief that the individual is conforming or at risk of conforming to negative stereotype of an associated group (Baysu & Phalet, 2019).

Assumptions

An assumption is that all participants would have experienced a form of stereotype threat based on one or both of their group identities. This assumption is supported by current research related to African American's experience of stereotype threat within the school system (Bryant, 2020; Johnson-Ahorlu, 2022; Neal-Jackson, 2020) and studies of African Americans' experience of race-related stressed in the workplace context (Hampton & Feller, 2020; Norman & Tange, 2016; Smith et al., 2011).

Scope and Delimitations

The focus of this study is to explore the potential predictive relationship between racial identity and acculturation profiles on stereotype threat experiences of African American professionals. This population was chosen because though there is considerable literature on the topic focusing on children and undergraduates, there is a lack of literature studying African Americans in this life stage. The data collection sample for this study was delimited to a population group meeting the following criteria: African American adults who have obtained at least a bachelor's degree and have worked in their field of study for at least 5 years. This study has the potential to be transferable to

future research related to African American identity, acculturation, and racial stress in the form of stereotype threat experiences.

Limitations

Self-report surveys have inherent limitations. Participants may not have provided honest and accurate information either due to lack of self-awareness or deliberate effort to deny or affirm experiences. Because the survey asked participants to respond within the context of experiences, memory recall could have impacted results. The anonymity of the survey was one way to encourage participant honesty.

Significance

This study is significant in that it will fill a literature gap in understanding by focusing on the relationship between stereotype threat type experiences, racial identity, and acculturation style of African American professionals. The results of this study can aid in the development of targeted stereotype threat interventions, thus supporting the health and well-being of African American professionals. Healthy individuals can contribute positively to their community as role models and consequently decrease threat as target forms of stereotype threat for similar individuals (Shapiro, 2011). This study addressed the risk of using one measure without adding complementary measures for a complete profile by using complementary measures for identity and acculturation to provide a more accurate representation of measured variables and decrease potential inconsistencies found in previous studies (Mills et al., 2017). Results of this study begin to address the gaps identified and expand the literature to support future research into a

contextual approach which acknowledges intergroup and intragroup influences on identity formation (Phalet & Baysu, 2019; Phalet et al., 2018).

Summary

An African American professional's conceptualization of their racial identity and their acculturation strategies may predict the type of stereotype threat experienced. I utilized the MASPD, MIBI, and Measure of Stereotype Threats to gather data for this cross-sectional quantitative study using hierarchical multiple regression. This study expands on current literature studying the influences of African American identity, acculturation process following college/university graduation, and how this identity work is influenced by intergroup and intragroup experiences and expectations. Chapter 2 contains an exploration of current literature regarding African American racial identity, acculturation, and stereotype threat.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Acculturation is a process of identity integration or disintegration and is inherently connected to self-concepts and intergroup relationships (Landrine et al., 2006; Obasi & Leong, 2010; Pope et al., 2000). Established theories of African American identity formation consistently include a process of acculturation (Endale, 2018). Identity threats such as stereotype threat are a source of acculturative stress in African Americans, which has been linked to maladaptive alcohol use in college students (Pitman et al., 2019) as well as mental and physical health ailments in adults (Britt-Spells, 2016; Greer & Cavalhieri, 2019; Ross & Gipson-Jones, 2018). In addition to navigating their ethnic identity within the majority population, African Americans with professional identities must navigate dominant and subordinate in-group and out-group status simultaneously with respect to each group's social expectations (Zeider et al., 2015).

Previous research has not yet explored the relationship between racial identity, acculturation style, and stereotype threat type within adult African Americans navigating ethnic and professional identities. My purpose in this study was to examine whether there is a relationship between acculturation style, racial identity profiles, and stereotype threat experienced by African American professionals. Researchers generally focus on individual's process of adapting to Eurocentric majority culture and identity in educational settings (Craemer & Orey, 2017; Kim et al., 2019). However, there is a gap in the literature that must be addressed, as racial stress is consistent throughout an individual's life (Jones et al., 2020), and members of marginalized groups must overcome stigma before establishing a professional identity (Ruwayne, 2020; Slay & Smith, 2011).

Additionally, theories of African American identity and acculturation attested that both are ongoing processes throughout the life span (Endale, 2018; Landrine et al., 2006).

This chapter contains a review of the current literature and seminal literature relevant to the purpose of this study. I first explain my literature search strategy. Next, I discuss the theoretical underpinnings and literature related to the key variables of the proposed research. Racial identity is discussed through the lens of historical and contemporary understanding of African American identity formation. Sellers et al's. (1998) MMRI is first explored as a framework to explore African American identity. Following the discussion of African American identity is Berry's (1980) theory of acculturation and acculturative stress. Acculturative stress is highlighted as a factor which sabotages what would otherwise be a highly beneficial process of acculturation. I also explain the origin of stereotype threat research and the current iteration of the multi-threat model. In exploring the multi-threat model, I discuss why a multi-threat model is best suited for exploring stereotype threat as a form of acculturative stress, particularly in relation to in-group and out-group identities.

Literature Search Strategy

I began my literature review process by searching literature published between 1960–2021 and continued gathering information for this review from multiple sources until 2022. My approach was three pronged with separate individual searches followed by relationship between the topic searches. My first search focused on topics that addressed the process of acculturation of African Americans and its impact. My second search range focused on African American racial identity development and factors that

influenced same. My third search range explored stereotype threat's presence and impact on African Americans throughout their lifespan. During my search for relationships between topics I focused on the relationship between acculturation, acculturative stress with manifestation, directly and indirectly, related to stereotype threat and identity formation within the scope of the creation and maintenance of an individual's self-concept.

My literature review strategy included the use of the Walden University Library to access several multidisciplinary databases. Searched databases included Sage Journals, Gale Academic OneFile Select, Emerald Insight, APA PsycINFO, Academic Search Premiers, and Academic Search Complete. The key terms and phrases that I used separately and jointly were *African American, black, identity, community, intergroup, intragroup, acculturation, acculturative stress, stereotype threat, shifting, identity threat, African American identity, mental health outcomes, assimilation, theories of African American identity, multi-threat stereotype threat, intergroup group relationships,* and *intragroup relationships*. Additional search terms, words, and phrases were used to further narrow the search. These terms included *racial stress, racial coping, social identity threat,* and *intragroup rejection*. Books by leading theorists in African American identity, acculturation, and stereotype threats were also utilized.

Theoretical Foundation

MMRI

Theory Origin and Description

African American racial identity has been extensively studied since the 70s, with two schools of research emerging. The mainstream approach primarily viewed racial identity within the context of African Americans stigmatized status, and a primary assumption was that African Americans experienced self-hatred by default of their place in society. The mainstream approach evolved to broad generalizations of cognitive process and psychological structures applicable to multiple groups in relation to group identity and how the group identity influenced self-concept. The approach did not explore the importance of African American culture or how the qualitative experience of the culture influenced an individual's self-concept (Sellers et al., 1998). The underground approach acknowledged the impact of racial oppression and the reality of African Americans being part of a stigmatized group; however, it also acknowledged the positive impact of cultural influences on the development of the African American self-concept. Researchers of this school focused less on the larger group identity and more on what it means to be African American (Sellers et al., 1998).

The two prominent theories of African American identity are Cross's (1971) Nigrescence theory, which has been twice revised, and Sellers et al's. (1998) MMRI. Nigrescence theory was the first theory to acknowledge and explore African American identity development. Cross's original Nigrescence theory consisted of five stages of development modeled similarly to previous stage theories such as those created by

Erikson and Freud (Worrell, 2012). He was influenced by the sociopolitical environment at the time, which produced the Black Power and Civil Rights movements (Worrell, 2012). His expanded Nigrescence model moved Nigrescence from a strictly orderly stage-based model to one of attitude types or profiles which an individual may cycle and recycle through any stage over their lifetime (Cross, 1991). This expanded model approaches African American racial identity from a multi-layered perspective with a focus of the intersection of race, culture, identity formation, and worldview (Vandiver, 2001). Cross (1991) suggested four attitude profiles that reference how African Americans see themselves, each other, and individuals of other racial groups. The model integrated an awareness of the impact of racial-oppression, social political factors, as well as interpersonal and intrapersonal narratives which influence identity development (Endale, 2018; Neville & Cross, 2017). All iterations of Cross's model contain a continuum of acceptance of African identity or non-acceptance of identity. It is a process of shifting from Euro-American ideas of African Americans (pre-encounter) to an internalization of cultural affirmation of African American identity and values. This process is considered a form of "racial awakening" and is predicated on the assumption that one part of the continuum is preferable to the other.

After reviewing the literature of African American racial identity theory and measures, Sellers's MMRI was adopted in this study to measure African American identity. The MMRI emerged as a combination of the mainstream and underground schools of thought. The MMRI conceptualizes racial identity on a fluid continuum whose results are based on moments rather than linear progression throughout the lifetime.

Though it has one definition, it incorporates the lived experience and meaning making that African Americans connect to their racial identity group membership (Nguyen et al., 1998). The model's strength lies in its reliance on the individual's construction of their identity accounting for variations of individual experiences and the influence of social interactions (Endle, 2018). Seller's model (Endale, 2018; Sellers et al., 1998) has four basic assumptions that shape its framework. The first is that racial identity has trait and state properties that acknowledged the interconnectedness of the experience of race within inter/intragroup context as well as the individual internal experience. The second assumption is that race is a component of rather than the entirety of an individual's identity. The importance of it to an individual is ordered according to the qualitative meanings of an individual's other identities. The third assumption is that the individual's personal experiences and meaning making are of primary value and strongest indicators for identifying and correlating to the variables measured. The fourth assumption is that the racial identity profiles are neither hierarchical in value nor is any profile considered healthier than another.

Studies highlight the relationship between African American identity and inter-intragroup relationships (Christophe et al., 2021; Franco et al., 2019; Hack et al., 2022). The current study aimed to use MMRI and associated MIBI profiles similarly. By gathering participant MIBI profiles I was able to gain understanding of how participants perceived themselves as African Americans, the significance of their racial identity, and their belief of how this identity was seen by in-group and out-group members. Given the integrated and contextual nature of the study, it was important to use a theory that is

reflective of the fluid nature of African American identity and the influence of experiences that have and continue to influence which profile participants ascribed to at the time of the study. This approach allowed me to gather a more nuanced view of the multi-layered meaning making associated with being a member of the African American in-group identity.

Research Applications

Sellers et al.'s (1997) MMRI model and its operationalization in the form of the MIBI has been used in multiple studies exploring racial identity and its influence on intergroup relationships, self-efficacy, and psychological health. Researchers have used it to explore how an individual's racial identity beliefs impact psychological distress and how changes in individuals MIBI profiles were predictive of associated experiences of psychological distress (Willis & Neblett, 2020). For example, Boston and Warren (2017) utilized the MMRI in a quantitative study of the effects of belonging and racial identity on 105 urban African American high school students' achievement. They found that centrality was the only predictor of a sense of belonging while there was a positive relationship between students grades and their sense of belonging. Franco et al. (2019) also used the MMRI in their study of 325 African Americans racial identity and their respective acceptance of Black-White multiracial people. The researchers found that nationalists were most likely to choose rejection of Black–White multiracial people and integrationists were least likely. Additionally, Christophe et al. (2021) conducted a study of critical civic engagement of African American college students and found an interaction between discrimination, the MIBI centrality scale, and parental preparation of

discrimination. Finally, Hack et al. (2022) used MIBI profiles to study the within-group differences on perceptions of patient-centered care. This was the first study which explored how African American's conceptualizations of race could provide differing results amongst African Americans.

Berry's Theory of Acculturation

Theory Origin and Description

Berry et al. (1974) began to explore the concept of acculturation in their 1974 paper in which they put forth what they termed as a plea to nations to not attempt to homogenize the cultures residing within them. Berry et al. noted that pluralism, the existence of two or more groups of distinct cultures, was typically considered in conflict with national unity. They argued that rather than being a national detriment, embracing multiple cultures within a nation was better for the psychological health of individuals and by extension the nations. Their initial model contained eight dimensions that they used to measure individuals' integration and/or assimilation into a national identity.

Building from previous work, Berry (1980) created the first bi-dimensional model of acculturation. He separated the phenomenon into four distinct phases of the individual acculturation strategy: separationist, integrationist, assimilationist, and marginalist. Assimilationists replace their heritage culture with that of dominant culture and in all ways chose contact and immersion in this culture. Separationists immerse themselves in their heritage cultures and reject/avoid adopting the dominant culture. Integrationists place equal value on their heritage culture and the dominant culture. Marginalists place no particular value on any culture and claim no attachment to any particular

people/culture group. Acculturation is often viewed and interpreted as an individual process; however, Berry's model integrated the individual's experiences within social-cultural context within an individual's societal and cultural group as well as macro group factors such as the larger global and societal context (Juang & Syed, 2019).

Berry (1988) also identified acculturation related stress and pathology as a significant but preventable mental health threat that arises from intergroup interactions. These stressors could be ameliorated by identifying the stressors and then using the knowledge to reshape intergroup relationships. Acculturative stress is defined as lowered mental well-being resulting from feelings of alienation, identity confusion, marginalisation, or heightened psychosomatic symptoms (Dona & Berry, 1994). Like acculturation and general stress, acculturative stress is not inherently negative. An individual may experience acculturative stress in relation to positive occurrences such as adaptions made for new opportunities. An important determinant of whether the acculturative stress is positive or negative is the features embedded in the individual's experience of acculturation as well as group characteristics.

Why African American Acculturation

The acculturation literature has historically been critiqued for its focus on immigrants who have chosen to live in the United States while ignoring the process of acculturation experienced by African Americans. The consensus appeared to be that African Americans do not have a culture separate from the American majority. However though African Americans share language, nationality and history with the dominant culture, their unique place in the history and their predominantly separate cultural

experiences result in a host culture relationship that requires negotiation in the form of acculturation (Landrine et al.,2006; Yoon et al.,2011). Another factor of acculturation that could result in the idea that African Americans don't experience acculturation is that earlier acculturation research conceptualized acculturation on a continuum with native heritage on one end and assimilation on the other.

Perhaps assimilation was the assumed only outcome because acculturation as a concept was originally considered a process singular to immigrants. However, this assumption for African Americans is problematic as it does not account for various cultural and contextual factors that may influence the process and produce alternate results. African American are not in a position in which they are entering American culture from their own. U.S-born Americans of African descent begin within a multi-cultural context (Zane & Mak, 2003).

Sociologist W.E.B Dubois, created the term double consciousness to refer to the "twoness" of African Americans attempting to reconcile the strivings of two group identities of American and Negro (Dubois, 1953). The American identity to which Dubois referenced can best be understood as dominant majority culture and Negro as is now understood as Black/African American. A modern understanding of double consciousness is acculturation. Acculturation occurs when a member of a culture, in this instance African Americans, have extended intercultural interactions with the dominant culture. Enculturation is the first step of acculturation and refers to the process of learning and adopting the ways of the dominant culture (Landrine et al., 2006).

Despite there being over 70 years difference between Dubois and modern times, the struggle of acculturation is echoed in the biographies of prominent African Americans from professions varied as politics, media, and medicine such as former president Barrack Obama, actress Gabrielle Union, and less known professionals such as physician Damon Tweedy (Todd, 2014; Tweedy, 2017; Union 2017). Athletes such as Colin Kaepernick and years before him Mohamed Ali and others highlighted the tensions between the expectations of their identities as professional athletes and as African Americans. Pressures and awareness of acculturation can be seen in non-prominent professional figures as well as evidence by research findings and autoethnographies exploring the experiences of African Americans navigating acculturation and threats to identity throughout academic and career journeys (Collins, 2020; Pennant, 2021; Woodcock et al., 2012).

Acculturation permeates multiple areas of an individual's life as it is by definition the result of a minority culture interacting with a dominant culture. The area of acculturation most commonly studied in African Americans is their school experience (Nguyen et al., 2019). However, African American professionals who have completed their college experience and are employed in their area of study will also have continued need of acculturation strategies. Not unlike college students who study and live as minorities in academic institutions, African American professionals will likely work in less diverse workplaces and live in less diverse areas.

African American's earn 59 cents for every dollar earned by White households while the median wealth of African American families is 1/10th of that of White families,

the wage and income gap only increases with education (Joint Economic Committee, 2020, January 20). Although African Americans' college completion rate in 2019 was at 40%, they were 41% more likely to be underemployed working in occupations that neither match their degree nor pay at levels commensurate with the degree (Williams & Wilson, 2019, August 27). Additionally, in 2016, residential segregation continued to influence low socioeconomic status and disparities in education and employment (Williams, Priest, &Anderson, 2016).

Given the disparities mentioned, African Americans in higher socioeconomic status brackets will live and work in less culturally diverse environments and have more frequent and sustained contact with majority culture individuals. The relative heterogeneity of these spaces makes them well suited to encourage assimilation strategies and standards across race and profession with the dominant culture setting these standards (Dickens & Chavez, 2018; Osseo-Asare et al., 2018)

Why Acculturative Stress and African Americans

Acculturation is not an inherently unhealthy process for all individuals with dual identities. Dual identity individuals have been shown to have higher adaptability and achievement rates than their peers (Baysu & Phalet, 2019). However the benefits of acculturation are negated, and it becomes a substantial disadvantage when a portion of the dual identity is part of a stigmatised group (Phalet et al., 2019). Racism and stereotyping are types of stigmatization (Ross et al., 2010). Researchers have studied various forms of this stigmatization of African Americans ranging from the effects of

colourism and racialized names (Stockstill & Carson, 2022) to experiences in daily activities such as shopping (Pittman, 2020).

In addition to the mental and physical health concerns, the acculturation process has potentially detrimental effects on African Americans' self-concept in terms of racial identity. The link between acculturation and identity formation is of particular importance as acculturative stress in African Americans stem from social identity threats such as stereotype threat. Altering oneself in order to be accepted by a majority group is a common technique to navigate stereotype threat (Edwards 2019; Forber-Pratt, 2020).

The altering and perceived need for it reinforces negative social cultural messaging regarding the altered identity (Gamst et al., 2020). This is particularly problematic for African Americans as their racial and ethnic identity is often a protective factor against the effects of minority stress and related acculturative stress (Brendesha et al., 2012; Hope et al., 2020; Neville & Cross, 2017). An individual whose acculturation process includes integration of a devalued minority and valued mainstream identity, is under increased psychological strain (Phalet, et al., 2018). The acculturation process of determining if, how, and when to adhere to these heterogeneous cultural standards of their environments lends significance to the acculturative stress as experiences of microaggressions and assimilation techniques used to cope with the experience of acculturative stress and navigate related stereotype threat manifest (DeCuir-Gunby & Gunby, 2016; Kim et al., 2019).

Research Applications

Berry's (1980) conceptualization of acculturation and acculturative stress has been used for multiple studies where acculturation was considered to be a significant factor in African American identity formation and or related acculturative stress. Gamst et al. (2020) employed measures based in Berry's conceptualizations of acculturation in order to explore the predictive relationship between acculturation and racial stress in African American women and if shifting (adaptive projective identity altering) had a mediating effect. They found that immersion in African American culture was not predictive of racial stress, but acculturation was a significant predictor and the coping strategy of shifting produced full mediation. Their findings highlight the connection between racial stress, acculturation levels and the perceived need to self-alter to navigate cultural standards of social identities.

Pitman et al. (2019) conducted a multi-wave cross sectional study of six hundred forty-nine African American college students to examine the minority stressors of acculturative stress and race-related stress and their relationship to maladaptive alcohol use behaviors. They found that acculturative stress had a significant relationship to coping-motivated drinking behaviors while both acculturative stress and race-related stress predicted risky alcohol use behavior. Pitman et al's study discussed acculturative stress as a racial stress resulting from ethnic discrimination and intragroup marginalization. This study not only demonstrated the presence of acculturative stress in the African American experience but also highlighted Berry's observation that it will be positive or negative depending on the intergroup dynamics.

Ross & Gipson-Jones (2018) conducted a quantitative study of 113 African American women with binge eating disorder to determine if there was a correlation between binge eating behavior and acculturative stress. They found that there was a positive relationship between binge eating and acculturative stress. This study provided further evidence of the acculturative experience of African Americans and of the negative health impact of acculturative stress.

Acculturation and the Current Study

Berry's (1980) theory of acculturation and definition of acculturative stress (Dona & Berry, 1994) provided a frame for conceptualizing acculturation across the lifespan and factors that can create negative impact. The related MASPAD was particularly useful in operationalizing the theory. The Gamst et al. (2020), Pitman et al. (2019), Ross and Gipson-Jones (2018), and similar studies illustrated the existence of and impact of acculturation in the African American experience.

The current study aimed to use the theory of acculturation and related acculturative stress similarly. Given the connection between acculturation, identity, and intergroup relationships it was prudent to first gain an understanding of participants acculturation profile. This was imperative as although African American racial identity includes an acculturative process, the manifestation of each individual's acculturation is influenced by intergroup experiences (Landrine et al., 2006; Obasi & Leong, 2010; Phalet & Baysu 2019). Furthermore, threats to identity and ingroup and outgroup pressures result in experiences of acculturative stress (Gamst et al., 2020). Acculturative stress for African Americans can be based in racial stress (Pitman et al., 2019). Understanding

participants acculturation profiles provided further clarity concerning areas of vulnerability to experiencing acculturative stress that manifest as identity threats.

Stereotype Threat

Theory Origin and Description

Identity threat occurs when one's membership to a social group results in the perception or expectation of negative consequences (Whaley, 2020). According to Steele and Arson (1995) the creators of stereotype threat theory, stereotype threat is a type of identity threat resulting from an individual's vulnerability to a negative stereotype of themselves and how they may be perceived as a reflection of the stereotype.

Stereotype threat can result in concerns of being considered an inadequate representation of one's minority group by either the ingroup or outgroup and the resulting techniques used to mitigate this threat can have a significant impact on ingroup status (Franco et al., 2019; Whittington et al., 2021). Additionally, stereotype threat can be detrimental to individuals as those who ascribe to the stereotype may treat the stereotyped individual poorly, contributing to racial disparities as has been shown in the area of policing (Najdowski et al., 2015).

Shapiro & Neuburg (2007) built upon the seminal work of Steele and Aronson to create a multi-threat framework which structures stereotype threat as a multi-layered process. Shapiro & Neuburg's primary assumption was that stereotype threat was not a singular construct as previously assumed but rather the experience of stereotype threat was qualitatively different as individual's concerns varied from poorly representing their group to feeling reduced to a stereotype of their group (Shapiro & Neuburg, 2007).

Traditionally stereotype interventions followed a framework in which all interventions were applied universally. Shapiro & Neuburg's (2007) concern was that such a broad approach may reduce stereotype threat in the targeted area but leave individuals vulnerable other present but unaddressed threats. The type of stereotype threat experienced by an individual is significant both in matters of impact and effective reduction strategies (Bratter, Rowley & Chukhray, 2016). Shapiro's (2011) work explored how identity can be simultaneously threatened by both ingroup and outgroup members with opposing or similar social identity stereotypes. A dual identity individual can experience multiple types of stereotype threat simultaneously. An individual's experience of stereotype threat can arise from distinctly varied concerns and conditions. Shapiro argued that one must acknowledge the variation of threat type to effectively create interventions that address the various sources (Shapiro et al., 2013).

Current Research

Stereotype threat theory has been studied extensively and applied to academic settings as well of other performance-based task, and racial disparities in health (Craemer & Orey, 2017; Nguyen et al 2019). Baysu & Phalet (2019) studied the dual identity of acculturating minority students to determine the effect of stereotype threats on the benefits of acculturation. They found that in low threat contexts, acculturation was beneficial to students and they outperformed their peers in both self-esteem and academics. However, in high threat contexts, acculturation resulted in high anxiety and a significant negative impact on performance.

Self-protective strategies such as altering oneself in a manner that is outside of one's self-concept in order to be accepted by a majority group is a common technique to navigate stereotype threat (Edwards 2019; Forber-Pratt, 2020). The altering and perceived need for it reinforces negative social cultural messaging regarding the altered identity (Gamst et al., 2020). An individual whose acculturation process includes integration of a devalued minority and valued mainstream identity is under increased psychological strain (Phalet, et al., 2018).

Multi-Threat Framework in Current Research

Shapiro & Neuberg (2007) conducted two pilot studies of the multi-threat framework. The first study included a mass-testing questionnaire given to participants. Participants were asked to identify a possessed characteristic which places them in a particular group which was negatively stereotyped. Stereotype threat was then measured by participants identifying negative stereotypes they believed others associated with the participants membership. Participants then thought of situation where their behavior would validate the stereotype. Subsequent questions in the survey applied the stereotype, situation, and group membership. Findings indicated that there were unique patterns of stereotype threat with certain group membership reflecting either less group as target threats compared to self and target threat and other groups more likely to report other-as-source threats rather than self-as-source. The pattern was reflective of Shapiro's assumptions that a groups' history, characteristics, and associated experiences impact the strength of group identification and the effect of related forms of stereotype threat.

Part of the significance of the second pilot study by Shapiro & Neuberg (2007) was its focus on stereotype group membership that can occur at any point through the lifespan. Those who acquired group membership before knowing the associated negative stereotypes were allowed to form identity, adaptive strategies, and a history of evidence to disprove the stereotypes. Those who acquired memberships after the original formation of their self-concept and the new membership were vulnerable to internalizing negative stereotypes as the individual learned to adapt to the new membership group. The different stages of membership, internalizations, and vulnerability resulted in experiencing differing forms of stereotype threat and provided further support for the multi-threat framework.

African Americans and the Multi-Threat Framework

African Americans who reach professional status, obtain an additional group identifier. Professionals are part of the social middle class or above and are defined as salaried employees whose employment is related to obtaining a higher degree or non-degreed individuals whose work affords them similar status and benefits such as athletes, musicians, and artists (Kador, 2010, Mifflin, 2016). These individuals are members of a valued identity group in terms of class and prestige. Thus, African American professionals are member of two defining group identities, African American (devalued minority) and professional (valued mainstream identity).

An individual's identity as a professional also has related group identity pressures and expectations of in group members. Martin et al (2020) found that academics experienced identity related pressures to be a "proper academic" and this pressure was a

result of the need to legitimize their place in their role and as members of the group. Conversely, African Americans who obtained or are on the journey to obtain a higher degree face ingroup pressure.

Physician Damon Tweedy (2017) expressed in his autobiography instances where he was assumed to be a janitor instead of a medical student by a professor. His exploration of the impact of this and similar occurrences raised concerns that his performance could reflect poorly on other African Americans and also that others assumed inaccurate limits of his capability based on their perceived stereotypes of African Americans. Tweedy also shared instances where other African Americans demanded to see White doctors instead of him and insisted that they would receive poor treatment from him. Their comments and request were reflective of ascribing ingroup stereotypes about African American competence. Tweedy's examples demonstrated Shapiro & Neuberg's (2007) assumptions that individuals can experience multiple types of stereotype threat.

There is an inherent power structure in stereotype threat as it requires the outgroup to be in a position to judge and give consequences attached to the judgment or the judging ingroup member to ascribe to current social hierarchy in which they themselves hold a subordinate status. As noted earlier, African American professionals hold simultaneous membership status as stigmatized (devalued) minority group and valued mainstream identity. These memberships place them in a position for dual group identities. It has been found that individuals with dual identities, which places them as both part of both a majority and minority culture, have lower performance under high-

stress environments (Baysu & Phalet, 2019). African Americans with professional identities must navigate dominant and subordinate ingroup and outgroup status simultaneously with respect to each group's social expectations.

Additionally, intragroup expectations and internalized group standards may result in challenges for the individual. Whittington et al. (2021) explored intergroup relationships and communication between African Americans and African-born immigrants. Anticipated cultural differences were confirmed, however an additional factor was revealed. They found that African-born were concerned about adhering or not adhering to Black North American experiences and African Americans were conversely concerned about being perceived as not being connected enough to African roots to identify with the African portion of the African American identity. This study highlighted African Americans struggle to navigate navigating intergroup and intragroup perceptions, bias and cultural standards influencing their identity conceptualization. It, like other studies of the influence of intergroup relationships, alluded to experiences and reasoning that were illustrative of the multi-threat framework.

Although previous studies that utilized the multi-threat framework were of experimental design, the current stereotype threat portion of the current study was modeled after Shapiro's pilot studies. This distinction is due to the exploratory nature of the study and consequent reliance of self-report to acknowledge the broad and nuanced manifestation of each threat type rather than creating situations which may or may not be applicable (Shapiro, 2011).

The current study connected with Shapiro's (2011) study in that group identification acquired during the lifespan was applied to the group identification of educated professional and inherent group identification was applied to racial status as in the first pilot study. It can also be argued that racial identification could be applicable to both of Shapiro's pilot studies as a self-identified membership and one that occurs early in the lifespan such the congenital blindness in the second pilot study. A limitation of Shapiro's original study was the broad range of stereotypes and groups. They recommended that future studies were narrowed by group and context for a more focused exploration of stereotype threat. They also highlighted that concealable group identity could impact threat experience. This study adheres to that recommendation by focusing on two stereotyped statuses within an individual (concealable and non-concealable) rather than a broad range of possible identities (Shapiro, 2011).

Literature Review Related to Key Variables

Although the current study explores three primary constructs (African American identity, acculturation, and stereotype threat type experienced), the operationalization of these constructs needed to be carefully considered as each has the aforementioned history of conflation of constructs (African American identity and acculturation), generalizations within constructs (stereotype threat), and similar terms being used interchangeably (racial identity and ethnic identity). It was necessary to further clarify how theoretical concepts were operationalized within the current study.

Racial Identity—MIBI

There is a diversity of definitions related to African American identity. This is in part due to their unique blending of racial and ethnic identity. Racial identity refers to a sense of connectedness and shared experiences among individuals based on visible traits (Cokely, 2005). Ethnicity refers to cultural experience and meaning making, guiding beliefs, religion, and language. Although race and ethnicity are distinct constructs, when studying African Americans there is an intertwining. This overlap is perhaps because much of the customs and cultures are linked or related to experiences based on physical traits (Cokely, 2005; Cokely & Helms, 2007).

Despite this intertwining, one must be careful to clearly identify that race and ethnicity are not conflated as the same. An individual can have race based psychological attachment to a group but not share the groups ingroup identification, culture, or values. This distinct difference between one's depth of connectedness and belonging, and identification is why measures and conceptualizations of African American identity must acknowledge the complexity of the identity and the influences of said identity on one's self-concept. The MIBI utilizes four dimensions to operationalize Seller's aforementioned assumptions. The four dimensions include racial salience, centrality, regard, and ideology. These four dimensions identify the importance of racial identity as well as the qualitative meaning of it. This approach allows for a separate but complementary analysis of the importance of both race and ethnicity within a single measure.

The racial salience measure is based on the working self-concept (Markus & Nurius, 1986; McCrae & Costa, 1988) how relevant one's race is to an individual at a particular moment within the framework of the working self-concept. Salience refers to the interplay between core identity, social context and the self-conceptions that are active at the moment. Centrality compliments salience. Centrality is a stable non-moment dependent measure of the extent to which an individual defines themselves by their race. It is a measure of one's baseline normative perception of self and the hierarchical placement of race within their hierarchy of identity (Sellers et al., 1998).

While salience and centrality focus on race; meaning making links to ethnicity and is the primary focus of the next two dimensions (Sellers et al., 1998). Regard refers to the extent of affective and evaluative judgement one feels positively or negatively toward their race. Regard contains sub-scales of private regard and public regard. Private regard refers to how the individual feels about themselves and other African Americans. Public regard refers individual's feeling of how positively or negatively others view African Americans.

According to Sellers et al. (1998) both mainstream and underground approaches indicated that public regard had a significant impact on African Americans ingroup identification. However, they differed when discussing how public regard impacted identity. Researchers of the mainstream approach argued that poor public regard would result in poor private regard. Researchers of the underground approach argued that acknowledgement of poor public regard was part of healthy development and that the ability to separate public regard was bolstered by cultural factors that moderate these

messages. Unfortunately, there is limited research available to resolve this debate as private and public regard have not been consistently operationally defined and measured independently in these studies.

Ideology leans heavily into aspects of culture (Sellers et al., 1998). It refers to how the individuals conceptualizes what it means to be African American. How one should think and feel, what opinions and beliefs members of the race should hold. Ideology has four sub-scales that represent overall ideological philosophical belief systems. Nationalist ideology emphasises the uniqueness of the African American experiences and believes that one should have minimal input from other groups about African Americans' experiences, purposes, and life trajectories. Nationalists tend to focus strongly on within group organisations and lifestyles. This ideology can stem from either a place of resistance to oppression or a deep awareness and admiration for one's cultures and the accomplishments of African Americans in society.

Oppressed minority ideology acknowledges both the oppression and stigma African Americans face as well as those faced by other groups (Sellers et al., 1998). Though similar to nationalist ideology, oppressed minority ideology differs in that it connects with other groups and allows for individual differences among minority groups with which individuals identify. For instance, an African American may also identify with women as a group. Alternatively, they may only identify with other minorities on the basis of race such as a Black, Indigenous, People of Color group. These individuals hold appreciation for both their own group and the culture of the other group. Their social

change strategies are focused on the nature of oppression and tend to be in the form of diverse coalitions rather than strictly African American organisations.

Assimilationists look to similarities between African Americans and mainstream society (Sellers et al., 1998). These individuals see their role as one whose purpose is to work within the American system. They also see it as important to interact with the Eurocentric majority. Humanist see similarity between humanity and do not conceptualise identity of themselves or others in terms of social identity statuses such as race, class, or gender. They tend to focus on issues that affect all humans such as climate change or poverty. They see oppression as an issue of all humans and a commentary on man's inhumanity to man rather than specifically between groups. Although the ideologies differ, "the extent to which an important race-related event would be expected to influence identity exploration may depend on how much individuals define themselves in relation to their race" (Sellers et al., 2011, p. 1610). This is of particular significance when one begins to explore the impact of the acculturation and stereotype threat through a contextual lens of identity (Ghara & Sullivan 2012; Mills et al., 2017).

Current Uses

The MIBI has been used in multiple studies of African American identity. Boston and Warren (2017) utilized the MIBI to explore if African American high school students' the racial identity profiles and sense of belonging had a relationship with the students' academic achievement. Knox et al. (2019) utilized MIBI in their study of African American womens' health behavior and its relationship to racial identity profiles.

Each of these studies also identified racial stress as an underlying factor for their reasoning behind conducting the study.

Acculturation Strategies—MAPSPD

Although there are a number of acculturation measurement scales created for use across ethnic groups, it is important to utilize a measure specific for African Americans to allow for a more comprehensive coverage of African American culture. This importance is not to discount the experiences of other cultures but rather to acknowledge the unique features of the acculturation process within a community of individuals whose history of slavery, imposed segregation, as well as past and present discrimination which have resulted and continue to result in social, economic and health disparities (Mills et al., 2017; Watts, 2003)

Researchers have acknowledged the complex nature of African American acculturation and have created African American specific measures, however, early measures such as the African American Acculturation Scale created by Landrine and Klonoff (1994) and their later African American Acculturation Scale Revised (AAAS-R; Klonoff & Landrine, 2000) utilize a unidimensional conceptualization that does not address integrationist or marginalist acculturation strategies (Obasi & Leong, 2010). The creators of the African American Acculturation Scale attempted to contextualize the African American acculturation experience and cultural identity however, rather than being reflective of the African American experience, the items were indicative of religious bias toward Christianity with other religious practices being considered a sign of weak cultural identity (AAAS-R; Klonoff & Landrine, 2000).

The MASPAD is the only multidimensional acculturation assessment for African Americans(Obasi & Leong, 2010). It builds upon Berry's (1980) terminology of traditionalist, assimilationist, integrationist and marginalist by integrating assessment of ingroup and outgroup variables to account for the nuances of navigating a multi-ethnic society including potential experience of marginalization within one's cultural group and external ethnic groups.

An individual is considered to use the traditionalist strategy when they indicate an exclusive preference for African traditions, cultural practices, and worldview. assimilationists are the diametric opposite of traditionalist choosing to immerse themselves in a different ethnocultural group in place of the one of their heritages. A distinction of the MASPAD is that there is not an assumption that an individual who chooses a non-heritage culture will choose that of European Americans. It is understood that the African Americans may immerse themselves in any other ethno-cultural group identity. An integrationist approaches acculturation bi-directionally, they integrate multiple beliefs and practices from various ethnocultural groups. The marginalist does not ascribe to any ethnocultural groups practice, culture, or belief (Obasi & Leong, 2010).

Although the MASPAD shares terminology with Berry's (1980) original theory, it expands upon it and related scales. It measures both a dimension of participant's preferences of maintaining their heritage and their preference of contact or participation with one's non-heritage group. This approach allows for a statistically independent measure of separate cultural identities that may vary (Obasi & Leong, 2010).

Current Uses

The MASPAD is a relatively new scale with construction and validation occurring in 2010 (Obasi et al., 2010). An additional explanation of the sparse literature using this scale is, as observed by Mills et al. (2017), due to the frequent use of self-developed measures and modification of existing measures to assess African American acculturation. Also, much like African American identity researchers, general measures broadly applied across ethnic groups have been used in studies of African American acculturation. Nevertheless, I chose this measure due to its status as the only validated multidimensional measure specific to African American acculturation (Obasi et al., 2010).

Abdullah and Brown (2012) used the MASPAD to explore the relationship between the profiles and alcohol use and if either varied by gender or religiosity. It was the first recorded use the MASPAD. They found that marginalist had less drinking behavior and assimilationist drank more.

Types of Stereotype Threat

Shapiro's (2011) Measure of Stereotype Threats operationalized intergroup stereotype threat influences. The multi-threat framework separates stereotype threat into six distinct categories which interact with ingroup and outgroup dynamics. Group reputation threat is an ingroup and outgroup threat where the individual worries about reinforcing negative stereotypes about their group. Own reputation threat occurs when an individual fears that they will be judged and treated as the negative stereotype of their ingroup by both/either ingroup or outgroup members regardless of if they self-identify or

consider it low in their social identity hierarchy. Self-concept threat is when the individual believes negative stereotypes about their identified group and fear that they embody the stereotypes. Group concept threat occurs when the individuals fear their behavior will reinforce negative ingroup stereotypes and confirm that their belief that their own group deserves to be devalued. The remaining two stereotype threats are ingroup manifestations of group-reputation threat and own reputation threat in which the judgement originates from a member of their ingroup (Shapiro, 2011).

Current Uses

This framework has been used to study situational and individual determinants of different stereotype threat experiences. Laurin (2020) used this framework to study the role of group identification and evaluative conditions of the domain-related experiences. They found that while the expression of stereotype threat mattered little, individual group identification impacted all threat types. The individuals perceived ability level was a moderator for self-concept threat and group concept threat. Desombre et al. (2019) investigated how self-concept threat compared to own reputation threat when impacting performance. They found that individuals who experienced own reputation threat performed better than those who experience self-concept threats.

Key Variables and the Current Study

Although African American identity and acculturation are intertwined and often conflated, they remain distinctly separate complex multidimensional constructs. Consequently, some research on acculturation and related racial identity research have produced conflicting results (Celenk & Vijver, 2017). Explanations of why the results

conflict range from improper use of identity measures, the risk of using one measure without adding complementary measures for a complete profile, an absence of accounting for intergroup influences, unclear definitions and differentiation between racial and ethnic identity (Ghara & Sullivan 2012; Mills et al., 2017).

Shapiro (2011) acknowledged that their empirical study of the multi-threat framework focused primarily on the threat as target and shared a need for further studies which discuss threat as source (Ingroup-outgroup dynamics). Additionally, Desombre et al. (2019) indicated that individuals may be inclined to detach themselves from the stereotyped group identity as a form a self-protection. Pennington et al. (2018) reiterated the need for threat as source research and further concluded that future research would need to include clear and accurate information of participants strength of identification with the threaten group identity. Similarly, Floyd (2003) first observed the need for dimension consistency and committed focus on addressing the warning and weakness identified by acculturation theorist.

Researchers such as Baysu and Phalet (2019) and Phalet et al. (2018) have proposed a contextual approach to acculturation research which includes acknowledgement and analysis of intergroup influences. One way of implementing this suggestion is by including the influence of stereotype threat on identity formation. Though not a traditional use, it follows the suggestion of Thames et al. (2013) who identified the need for future study of individuals with multiple identities and how stereotype threat impacts areas other than performance and cognition.

Summary and Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to use a contextual approach to study acculturation through multiple lens: namely those of stereotype threat type, racial identity profiles, and acculturation styles to increase understanding of the African American professional's identity work and provide additional information concerning the role of intergroup influences on same.

Racial identity and an individual's conceptualization of said identity can vary. Given the aforementioned inconsistencies in the acculturation literature, it is imperative that any study of acculturation also includes a method of understanding and identifying the participants current conceptualization of their racial identity. The multidimensional model of racial identity meets this need as it focusses not on racial identity development but on how a participant views their racial identity at the time of engagement (Seller et al., 1998).

Berry's (1980) theory of acculturation is frequently used as the foundation for studies on acculturation. His theory of acculturation and definition of acculturative stress (Dona & Berry, 1994) provided a frame for conceptualizing African American acculturation across the lifespan and factors that can create negative impact. Once such factor of negative impact is stereotype threat. Shapiro and Nueberg's (2007) multi-threat framework explored how a person's identity can be simultaneously threatened by both ingroup and outgroup members with opposing or similar social identity stereotypes. It was used when analyzing the dual identity of African American professionals as they are

simultaneously part of both a minority and majority group which are outgroup to each other.

This combination of theories and concepts allowed me to study the acculturation styles of African American professionals and racial identity profiles within the context of stereotype threat types while avoiding errors of improper use of identity measures, the risk of using one measure without adding complementary measures for a complete profile, and the absence of accounting for intergroup influences (Ghara & Sullivan 2012; Mills et al., 2017).

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this quantitative cross-sectional study was to examine whether acculturation style and racial identity profiles predict type of stereo-type threat experienced. The research studying African American experience of race-based stereotype threat, prejudice, and discrimination experienced related to their race (Anderson et al., 2022; Barr et al., 2022; Hall et al., 2022) place them in the category of stigmatized minority (Hall et al., 2022; Ross et al., 2010). Due to their status as a stigmatized minority African Americans, are at particular risk of their acculturation resulting in negative outcomes (Phalet et al., 2019). Further, African American professionals must navigate the in-group out-group standards and expectations of both their race and profession. Yet limited quantitative research has been conducted regarding the relationship between acculturation and identity formation on individuals post-graduation (Kandiah et al., 2020; Mills et al., 2017; Molina & Tejada, 2020). Showing relationship between a range of acculturation profiles, racial identity profiles, and stereotype threat experience brought a helpful insight into the influence of inter-intra group interactions on identity formation. The result of this study can be used to develop interventions to support the well-being of African American professionals, who can contribute positively to their community as role models (Shapiro, 2011).

In this chapter I discuss the rationale for my research design and chosen variables. Following this is an overview of my methodology in which I describe my population and sampling strategies. I also discuss my chosen instruments and why they are well suited

for the purpose of operationalizing my variables. I explain my plan for data collection and analysis as well as how I addressed threats to validity and ethical concerns.

Research Design and Rationale

Variables, Design and Relevance

A survey-based, cross-sectional, quantitative analysis using hierarchical multiple regression were the design and method for the study. The independent predictor variables were acculturation style and racial identity profiles, and the dependent variable was type of stereo-type threat experienced. I chose a cross-sectional design for this study because it enabled me to observe prevalence of experience and behaviors among a random but representative sample of my studied population (Sedgwick, 2014; Trochim, 2006). It was also well suited to studying individuals' differences and characteristics without variable manipulation (Trochim, 2006). I was not seeking to find causation but correlation (Sedgwick, 2014). There were no known time or resource constraints associated with the study. The existence of the current global pandemic did not appear to impact participant availability; however, it is possible that the speed of data collection was impacted by time delays from participants whose availability may have been limited by related concerns.

Methodology

Population and Sampling

The population of interest for this study were alumni of colleges and universities who have obtained at least a bachelor's degree and are currently employed within positions associated with their field of study. For the purpose of studying established post-graduation professionals, participants will have worked within their field for at least

5 years and be considered past entry-level of their career. All participants will have self-identified with African Americans as their primary identity. Age, gender, college/university, profession, college graduation year and field of employment were intended to be noted for demographic purposes but not as criterion of inclusion or exclusion. However, during the Institutional Review Board review it was decided that descriptives regarding general demographic data such as age, gender, degree area/ major, university, and profession, college graduation year and field of employment would not be collected.

Power Analysis

For the initial power analysis, I ran a G*Power analysis for an F test to obtain the a priori calculation of sample size (see Appendix A). An effect size of 0.15 (medium) was used at an alpha level of .05, a power of .95 and two predictors. This resulted in a projected sample size of 74 African Americans based on a linear multiple regression: fixed effects one-way test. I anticipated that some participants who began the survey would not complete it. I allowed for attrition by increasing the sample size to 89 participants, 20% more than required achieve statistical significance.

Procedures for Recruitment and Participation

Participants were recruited using random sampling on Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). MTurk was chosen as the best method for achieving samples from a large and diverse population of participants in a manner that was both efficient and cost effective (Tompkins & Swift, 2019). This was of particular importance as other sampling strategies such as convenience might have limited the participant pools to specific types of

professionals accessible to myself and my networks, which would result in a convenience sampling strategy. MTurk also allowed for connecting surveys built in online platforms (Kwang & Gosling, 2011). MTurk has been used to recruit participants in over 15,000 published studies since its inception in 2005 (Chandler & Shapiro, 2016). Researchers have found it reliable in collecting data to assess a broad range of variables such as, microaggressions, trauma and risk-behaviors (Beymer et al., 2018; Struckman-Johnson et al., 2020; Williams, 2021). Given that this study will utilize self-report scales, it is beneficial that MTurk respondents have been shown to be attentive and honest (Paolacci et al., 2010) and the number of inconsistences in responses do not differ from college undergraduate samples (Behrend et al., 2011). An additional benefit of MTurk is that it provides assurance that my sample was USA residents. It uses IP addresses and proof of owner's U.S. bank account or tax ID to verify U.S. residency. Given that I used Survey Monkey to combine questions from multiple measures, the ability to connect the survey to a large audience was beneficial.

The cover page of the survey served as informed consent and proceeding to the survey indicated agreement (See Appendix B). There was no maximum completion time, but I estimated it would take no more than 20 minutes to complete the survey. Participants were informed that they may discontinue the survey at any point by closing their browser. The primary inclusion criteria included: (a) self-identify as African American, (b) have at least a bachelor's degree, and (c) currently working in their degree field for at least 5 years. Exclusion criteria included (a) does not identify as African American, (b) residing outside of the United States, (c) working in field of study for less

than 5 years, and (d) does not have a bachelor's degree. MTurk participants first completed a demographic human intelligence task screening process to qualify for initial inclusion and access to the survey, which required the participants to answer three demographic questions from the primary inclusion criteria. Once the criteria were met, the participants had the option of completing the surveys. Participants were only compensated if all three surveys were completed. Completion of the survey and closing of their browser will constituted exit from the study. There were no follow-ups for this study.

Research Instruments and Operationalization of Constructs

The research instruments for this study were the MIBI (Sellers et al., 1997), the MASPAD (Obasi & Leong, 2010), and the Measure of Stereotype Threats (Shapiro, 2011). All tests were retrieved from PsycTEST and permission to use each test for non-commercial research and educational purposes was granted without the need to seek further written permission (see Appendices C, D, & E).

MIBI

The MIBI (See Appendix C; Sellers et al., 1997). The MIBI which operationalizes the MMRI is a 56-item self-report survey instrument that consists of 7 subscales (nationalist, assimilationist, oppressed minority, humanist, private regard and public regard) for 3 dimensions (ideology, centrality and regard) of African American identity. All items on the MIBI use a 7-point Likert scale response to rate the level agreement with a given statement (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, and 7 = strongly agree). Sellers et al.,

(1997) initially found Cronbach's alpha ranging from α = .70 to α = .79 in all except private regard which was modest (α = .60) and public regard which was weak (α = .20) in terms of internal validity.

However subsequent revision and testing showed internal validity of private regard to be α = .78 and public regard to be α = .78 while the remaining scales had Cronbach's alpha scores ranging from α = .55 to α = .79 in samples of African American students attending predominantly white institutions and historically black colleges and universities (Sellers et al., 1998). Moderate to modest internal consistency estimates of α = .59 to α = .78 were reported for MIBI scores during an exploratory factor analysis among undergraduate students at predominantly white institutions (Simmons, Worrell, & Berry, 2008). Similarly, Cokley and Helm (2001) found internal scale consistency ranging from α = .72 to α = .83 in their sample of African American undergraduates attending predominantly white institutions and historically black colleges and universities. It is of note that neither Cokley and Helm (2001) nor Simmons et al., (2008) included scores for the public regard scale. The absence of the public regard scale can be attributed to Sellers et al., (1997) who chose to not include it in the publicly available MIBI.

The MIBI also demonstrated predictive validity of subscales in relation to race-related behaviors F (1,472) = 9.74, $p < .01$. The MIBI was not intended to produce composite scores but rather only score for each scale because to do otherwise would be inconsistent with a multidimensional

d the 6 subscales found in the publicly available MIBI. This choice is made due conceptualization of identity (Sellers et al., 1997).

For the purpose of this study, I useto the need to test relationship between identity and related acculturation profiles. Each scale was of particular importance both in creating complete participant identity profiles but also in examining any connection between the profiles and stereotype threat experiences.

MASPAD

The MASPAD developed by Obasi & Leong, (2010) (See Appendix D). The MASPAD is a 45-item self-report survey instrument that creates profiles of participants from a bi-dimensional set of questions that assess participants preference in maintaining their heritage ethnocultural group and their preference for contact and participation in another ethnocultural group. The dimensions are (D1) relative preference for maintaining their heritage ethnocultural group and dimension 2 (D2) relative preference for contact and participation in the society of another ethnocultural group. Multidimensional use of the scale has a further division into B1: Beliefs and B2 Behaviors (Obasi, 2004; Obasi & Leong, 2010). Calculated scores from all four result in one of the following four profiles on either B1 or B2: traditionalist, integrationist, marginalist and assimilationist. An example of this calculation is as follows: B1 integrationist beliefs was coded when there was an above the mean D1 and above the mean D2 score (Obasi, 2004).

All items on the MASPAD use 5-point Likert scale response sets that rate the level of agreement with a given statement (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 =

uncertain or unsure, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree). Participants answers were indicative of their beliefs (i.e., “My individual success is more important than the overall success of the Black community) or behaviors (“I expose myself to various forms of media (television, magazines, newspapers, internet, etc. in order to keep up with current events that impact my community) (Obasi and Leong, 2009).

The multidimensional scales showed orthogonality (r = .032 to .264) (Obasi, 2004). Obasi and Leong (2009) studied the scale construction and validity among Midwest university students and community members living in large cities from each USA region (west, north, south, east). Construction and validations studies show bidimensional orthogonality (rD1_D2 =.071, ns) were orthogonal with non-significant correlation coefficients accounting for 0.5% variance. Subscale reliability by Cronbach’s alpha scores were D1: α = .87 and D2: α = .75.

Measure of Stereotype Threat

Measure of Stereotype Threats which operationalizes the multi-threat framework, (See Appendix B; Shapiro, 2011) is a 12-item self-report scale that measures the four types of stereotype threat experiences (self-concept threat, group concept threat, own reputation threat and group reputation threat). Participants respond to a 5-point Likert scale with a given statement (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = uncertain or unsure, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree). Participant's responses were indicative of beliefs such as "to what extent are you concerned that your actions could imply negative things about your abilities in your own mind?" for Self-Concept Threat.

The measure allows participants or researchers to indicate studied areas of threat. For the purpose of this study, this area stated "African American in your profession" for example "to what extent are you concerned that your actions would prove to yourself that the stereotypes are true about people who are African American in your profession" to measure group concept threat. The construction and validation of the measure was tested among university students who identified as being part of stereotyped group. The results by Cronbach's alpha scores were as follows: group reputation threat $\alpha = .79$., own reputation threat $\alpha = .88$, group concept threat $\alpha = .85$, and self-concept threat $\alpha = .92$

Data Analysis Plan

Data was analyzed using the IBM® SPSS ® Statistics version 28. The data was analyzed in three phases. First the dataset was created from eligible survey results. Eligibility was determined by survey completion and by participants who met the inclusion criteria. Second, descriptive statistics were produced to describe the sample. The final phase examined the direct impact of acculturation profiles and racial identity on stereotype threat types. A hierarchical linear regression analysis was conducted to explore the relationship between variables.

Three different sets of scales were needed to answer if a relationship existed between acculturation styles, racial identity profiles and stereotype threat type experienced. Data for the independent variable of racial identity profile were derived from the following 6 MMRI subscales: nationalist, assimilationist, oppressed minority, humanist, and private regard. Data from the independent variable of acculturation profiles which are traditionalist, integrationists, marginalist, or assimilationist were derived from

D1 and D2 results of the MASPAD. Data for the dependent variable of stereotype threat type experience were derived from the following scales of the Measure of Stereotype Threats: self-concept threat, group-concept threat, own-reputation threat and group reputation threat.

Following the creation of the dataset, I tested the model assumptions. I employed the Shapiro-Wilk's (S-W) test for univariate normality to indicate if the previously identified subscales were normally distributed. An examination of Cooks distances (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) was computed from the regression of acculturation subscales and racial identity subscales, to determine if there are any significant multivariate outliers at the 1% significance level. Collinearity between the two predictor variables (acculturation and racial identity) was assessed based on the tolerance statistic and the Variance Inflation Factor. Homoscedasticity was analyzed through an examination of a plot of the standardized residuals. Simple bivariate correlations between acculturation styles, racial identity profiles, and stereotype threat type experiences were computed using Pearson's *r*. To examine the direct impact of acculturation profiles and racial identity on stereotype threat profiles, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted.

Research Question

Research Question 1: Does acculturation style as measured by the MASPAD, and racial identity profile as measured by the MIBI subscales predict stereotype threat type experienced as measured by the Measurement of Stereotype Threats?

H_0: Acculturation style as measured by the MASPAD, and racial identity profiles as measured by the MIBI subscales does not predict stereotype threat experienced as measured by the Measurement of Stereotype Threats?

H_1: Acculturation style as measured by the MASPAD, and racial identity profiles as measured by the MIBI subscales does predict stereotype threat experienced as measured by the Measurement of Stereotype Threats?

Threats to Validity

Threats to External Validity

External validity threats occur when researchers incorrectly attribute their results to future conditions, individuals whose characteristics do not match study participants or their settings (Creswell, 2014). A method of preserving external validity is to ensure that samples have appropriate statistical power. Random sampling also adds to generalizability. There was a potential limitation as there are a wide range of professions and factors such as the number of years in the profession, and work environment specific experiences may have masked the overall effect of the experiences.

Threats to Internal Validity

One of the primary concerns in cross sectional research is the influence of confounding variables which can invalidate the researcher's conclusions from the study results. I took the recommendation of previous research critiques by controlling for confounding variables and incorporating a complete set (Asiamah et al., 2021). Asiamah et al's. (2021) process of identifying and addressing potential confounders through the study's theoretical lens was used. As previously discussed in chapter 2, racial identity and

ethnic identity are confounders in that the strength of one identification can have significant influence on the other just as the strength of either can influence the impact and type of stereotype threat experienced. This study addresses these potential confounders by operationalizing them as variables and analysing them together to account for any variations within the results. The predictor variables are aligned with previous researchers' observations of the potentially confounding effects of racial identity on acculturation profiles (Celenk & Vijver, 2017) and Seller et al's. (2011) observation that the measure of importance and influence of a race related event to an individual can depended on the strength of an individual's racial identity.

Threats to Construct Validity

Construct validity refers to the quality of specific constructs in the study (Bell et al., 2018). All measures used in this study demonstrated construct validity and variable operationalization in other studies. Participants' acculturation was measured by the MASPAD (Obasi & Leong, 2010), which is an existing validated instrument with good psychometric properties for measuring the underlying construct of African American acculturation, as tested through cross-validation with other measures. Similarly, racial identity was operationalized by an established measure, namely the MIBI (Sellers et al., 1998) which has been used consistently across numerous studies. The Measure of Stereotype Threats (Shapiro et al., 2011), is a validated scale which has shown to measure the 6 domains of stereotype threat and operationalized the stereotype threat variable.

Ethical Procedures

The study was sent for approval by the Walden University Institutional Review Board prior to survey distribution. The approval number 06-27-22-0670613 was obtained. Approval from the Institutional Review Board was an indication that the study had no significant risk and federal human rights regulations had been adhered. All survey data will be stored securely for 5 years in a file. Data will be accessed by myself and my doctoral committee.

Written informed consent was obtained from participants. Informed consent included information regarding my status as a doctoral candidate, participant anonymity, length of the questionnaire, confidentiality limits, survey results storage and availability, risk, and benefits of survey completion, as well as its purpose. The online survey was anonymous with the first screen of the survey being the consent form. Participants had the option to click “no” to opt out of the survey. If they clicked “yes”, they proceeded to the survey. Participants were also able to discontinue the survey at any time by closing their browser.

My contact information was provided as well as the information of a Walden University representative who could discuss participant rights. Although there were no known mental health risk, participants were encouraged to seek mental health support if the process resulted in psychological discomfort.

For the purpose of keeping all participants' data confidential, completed surveys were given unique identification numbers and no names or other identifying information were collected. Participants were informed that the data would be stored securely on a

password protected computer and the document containing their unique identifier will be destroyed after one year. All other study data will be kept indefinitely.

Complete survey results were reported in order to convey the entirety of the results and minimize possibility of unethical partial reporting of only favorable results.

Summary

I used a non-experimental cross-sectional design with hierarchical multiple regression for this study. The independent variables were acculturation profiles and racial identity profiles. The dependent variable was stereotype threat type experience. The relationship between variables was discussed in chapter 2 and the quantitative methodology used to operationalize the variables and study have been discussed in this chapter. Sampling procedures among the population of African American professionals was discussed. Existing instruments with established validity scores were used and the results were analyzed through use of IBM® SPSS ® Statistics version 28 statistical software. I will discuss includes details of the data collection and results in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this study was to examine whether acculturation style and racial identity profiles of African American professionals predict the type of stereotype threat they experience. Hierarchical multiple regression with a stepwise method addressed the research question: "Does acculturation style as measured by the MASPAD, and racial identity profile as measured by the MIBI subscales predict stereotype threat type experienced as measured by the Measurement of Stereotype Threats?" I use hierarchical multiple regression in this study because the purpose was to examine the predictive relationships between variables. A simple linear regression would have provided results by measuring all variables simultaneously. Given the multitude of variables, a stepwise method is used to prioritize and exclude predictor variables based on if they contribute significantly to the models (Warner, 2013). The hierarchical multiple regression also allowed me to separate the predictors into blocks to note how each block of predictors (acculturation styles and racial identity profiles) impacts their influence on the dependent variable (stereotype threat type experienced). In this chapter, I discuss participants, measures, and findings.

Demographics

The study sample consisted of 94 participants. Data were collected between July 5, 2022 to September 6, 2022. Data collection ceased once a sample of 94 participants was obtained. The required sample size to achieve statistical significance was 74 participants. There was a planned 20% overage, beyond the required sample size, allowing for attrition of participants while still meeting the minimum sample size.

However, five more participants completed the study before it closed. All participants of the study identified as African Americans with a bachelor's degree or higher who have been participating in their field of study for 5 years or more.

Measures

Participants were given a survey that consisted of three instruments assessing racial identity profile, acculturation style, and types of stereotype threat experienced. Acculturation style subscales measured were assimilationist beliefs, nationalist beliefs, integrationist beliefs, marginalist beliefs, assimilationist behaviors, nationalist behaviors, integrationist behaviors, and marginalist behaviors. Racial identity profiles measured were centrality, private regard, assimilationist ideology, oppressed minority ideology, nationalist ideology, and humanist ideology. Stereotype threat type experience categories were group reputation threat, own reputation threat, group concept threat, self-concept threat.

MIBI

The racial identity profile of participants was determined using the MIBI. Cronbach's alphas are as follows: centrality $\alpha = .70$, private regard $\alpha = 62$, assimilationist $\alpha = .72$, humanist $\alpha = .72$, oppressed $\alpha = .77$, and nationalist $\alpha = .75$

MASPAD

The acculturation styles of participants were determined using the MASPAD. Cronbach's alpha for subscales were calculated from the B1 subscales traditionalist beliefs and assimilationist beliefs and B2 subscales traditionalist behaviors and assimilationist behaviors, the combination of which are how the subscales of marginalist,

Assimilationist, Traditionalist, and Integrationist (dichotomous "dummy" predictor variables) were created. This process aligns with the instruction manual (Obasi, 2004) and later reliability study (Obasi & Leong, 2010). Cronbach's alpha are as follows: traditionalist beliefs α = .72, traditionalist behaviors α = .85, assimilationist behaviors α = .79, and assimilationist beliefs α = .87. Table 1 illustrates the means and standard deviations of each of the 8 subscales of the MASPAD (Obasi & Leong, 2010) across the sample.

Table 1

MASPAD Subscales and Standard Deviations

	Mean	SD	N
Acculturation beliefs			
Traditionalist beliefs	.2447	.43220	94
Marginalist beliefs	.3617	.77392	94
Integrationist beliefs	.7979	1.33263	94
Assimilationist beliefs	1.2340	1.85742	94
Acculturation behaviors			
Traditionalist behaviors	.1170	.32317	94
Marginalist behaviors	.0851	.40586	94
Integrationist behaviors	1.3404	1.49949	94
Assimilationist behaviors	1.5745	1.96468	94

Measure of Stereotype Threats

The stereotype threat type experienced were determined using the Measure of Stereotype Threats. Cronbach alphas for the Measure of Stereotype Threats are as follows: group reputation threat α = .86, own reputation threat α = .78, group concept threat α = .89, and self-concept threat α = .87. Table 2 illustrates the means and standard deviations of each of the four scales of the Measure of Stereotype Threats (Shapiro, 2011) across the sample.

Table 2

Measure of Stereotype Threats Means and Standard Deviations

	Mean	SD	N
Group reputation threat	8.0319	3.47789	94
Own reputation threat	7.2553	2.89210	94
Group concept threat	8.5213	3.50032	94
Self-concept threat	8.4362	3.42840	94

Results

Assumptions

Assumptions of normality was tested using Shapiro-Wilks (see Table 3).

Table 3

Shapiro-Wilks Values of Normality for the Variables in the Model

	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Centrality	.959	94	.005
Private regard	.954	94	.002
Ideology			
Assimilationist	.982	94	.232
Humanist	.968	94	.022
Oppressed minority	.977	94	.098
Nationalist	.981	94	.200
Acculturation behaviors			
Assimilationist behavior	.985	94	.375
Traditionalist behaviors	.986	94	.388
Acculturation beliefs			
Assimilationist belief	.982	94	.207
Traditionalist beliefs	.984	94	.325

Note. Sig. > *.05* indicates the variables are normally distributed

Multicollinearity, independence of residuals, linearity, and homoscedasticity were also tested. Q-Q plots are provided in Appendix E and scatter plots are provided in

Appendix F. Centrality, private regard, and humanist ideology, were not normally distributed. Assimilationist ideology, oppressed minority ideology, nationalist ideology, assimilationist behavior, assimilationist belief, traditionalist behavior, and traditionalist belief were normally distributed. Although not all variables were normally distributed, central limit theorem indicates that as the sample size is $n > 30$ the distributions is approximately normal (Warner, 2013).

Tests for multicollinearity show if the predictor variables are highly correlated with the dependent variable. A variance inflation factor greater than 10 is a high correlation that indicates that the predictor measures the same construct of the dependent variable and therefore must be disregarded (Field, 2013). All predictor variables were less than 10.

Pearson correlations were conducted between each stereotype threat type experienced as the dependent variable, with racial identity profiles and acculturation styles as predictor variables. Pearson's correlations were chosen due the presence of dichotomous (dummy) variables (Warner, 2013). Predictors with values > .7 between them means that there is collinearity between the predictors. A value > .3 between a predictor and dependent variable indicates correlation. All predictors were < .7 for group reputation threat. Only traditionalist beliefs and marginalist behaviors had values > .3, indicating that they are correlated with group reputation threat. All predictors were < .7 for own reputation threat with marginalist behaviors being the only predictor at > .3 indicating correlation. All predictors were < .7 for group-concept threat with traditionalist

beliefs and traditionalist behaviors correlating with the outcome at > .3. All predictors are < .7 for self-concept threat with Traditionalist Beliefs being the only correlation at > .3.

Regarding the assumption of significant outliers, Cooks distances ranges are as follows: group reputation threat between zero and .242, own reputation threat zero to .191, group concept threat zero to .184, and self-concept threat zero to .259. The models meet the assumptions of outliers. All distances are below 1 and therefore not a matter of concern (Field, 2013).

Findings

Research Question

Research Question 1: Does acculturation style as measured by the MASPAD, and racial identity profile as measured by the MIBI subscales predict stereotype threat type experienced as measured by the Measurement of Stereotype Threats? This question was answered by conducting a hierarchical multiple regression. A hierarchical multiple regression is used to explore how a gradual addition of independent variables impacts interaction with each other. Each type of stereotype threat was measured by a separate hierarchical multiple regression. The choice to use separate models rather than a multivariate model that assumes similarities between dependent variables is supported by the multi-threat framework which states that there is no assumed similarity (Shapiro & Neuberg, 2007). Results are reported by the dependent variable of stereotype threat experience (group reputation threat, own reputation threat, group concept threat, self-concept threat) and its relationship to predictor variables.

The models are organized based on the theoretical framework discussed in Chapter 2. The first set of models relate to racial identity because for acculturation to occur there must be an acknowledged identity origin which differs from the majority culture (Landrine et al.,2006; Yoon et al.,2011). Aligning with Sellers et al.'s (1998) intended complementary analysis, the subscales of the MIBI were separated by categories of race and ethnicity. Model 1 is centrality because it measures the static non-situation dependent importance of racial identity to the participants and is therefore potentially a significant influencer of impact of situational factors (Sellers et al., 1998). Private regard, how an individual feels about themselves and other African Americans, was added in Model 2, as the literature indicated that it was a core feature of meaning making of one's ethnic identity (Sellers et al., 1998).

Model 3 adds cultural ideologies (humanist, assimilationists, oppressed minority, and nationalist) to explore ethnic/cultural identity as this aligned Sellers et al.'s (1998) structure for conceptualizing racial identity. Model 4 adds acculturation style based in beliefs (traditionalist, assimilationists, integrations, and marginalist). Model 5 adds acculturation style based in behavior (traditionalist, assimilationists, integrations, and marginalist). Variables for Models 4 and 5 are aligned with multidimensional use of the MASPAD where D1, preferences of for maintaining one's heritage ethnocultural group, and D2 the preferences for contact with and participation in the society of those outside their heritage are further divided into B1: Beliefs and B2 Behaviors (Obasi, 2004; Obasi & Leong, 2010).

Influences on Group Reputation Threat

Model 1 revealed that centrality was not statistically significant for group reputation threat however the remaining models were significant (see Table 4). The R^2 results of the stepwise introduction of predictors as shown in Table 5 were as follows: Model 1 ANOVA: F (1, 92) = 3.44, p >.05, with R^2 = .036; Model 2 ANOVA :F (1, 92) = 5.93, p <. 05, with R^2 = .095; Model 3 ANOVA: F (1, 90) = 31.80, p <.05, with R^2 = .331; Model 4 ANOVA: F (1, 89) = 4.94, p < .05, with R^2 = .367; Model 5 ANOVA: F (1, 88) = 7.74, p < .05 with R^2 = .418; Model 6 ANOVA: F (1, 87) = 4.46, p < .05 with R^2 = .446; Model 7 ANOVA: F (1, 86) = 13.02, p < .05, with R^2 = .519

The predictors of group reputation threat were centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, assimilationist ideology, marginalist beliefs, and marginalist behaviors. Of the listed predictors only traditionalist beliefs and marginalist behaviors were found to correlate with group reputation threat. Traditionalist beliefs therefore explained 44.6% variance in group reputation threat and when marginalist behaviors were added to the model, marginalist behaviors and traditionalist beliefs explained 51.9% of the variance in the group reputation threat with marginalist behaviors accounting for 7.3% of the variance (see Table 5 for Models).

Table 4

Group Reputation Threat ANOVA for Model Including all Variables

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	40.542	1	40.542	3.440	.067[a]
	Residual	1084.362	92	11.787		
	Total	1124.904	93			
2	Regression	106.967	2	53.484	4.781	.011[b]
	Residual	1017.937	91	11.86		
	Total	1124.904	93			
3	Regression	372.787	3	124.262	14.869	< .001[c]
	Residual	752.117	90	8.357		
	Total	1124.904	93			
4	Regression	412.359	4	103.090	12.876	< .001[d]
	Residual	712.545	89	8.006		
	Total	1124.904	93			
5	Regression	469.967	5	93.993	12.629	< .001[e]
	Residual	654.937	88	7.442		
	Total	1124.904	93			
6	Regression	501.903	6	83.650	11.681	< .001[f]
	Residual	623.002	87	7.161		
	Total	1124.904	93			
7	Regression	583.859	7	83.408	13.258	< .001[g]
	Residual	541.045	86	6.291		
	Total	1124.904	93			

Note. Dependent variable: group reputation threat a. predictors: (constant), centrality b. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard c. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology d. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, assimilationist ideology e. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, assimilationist ideology, traditionalist beliefs f. (constant) centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, assimilationist ideology, traditionalist beliefs, marginalist beliefs g. (constant) centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, assimilationist ideology, traditionalist beliefs, marginalist beliefs, marginalist behaviors

Table 5

Group Reputation Threat R^2 and R^2 Change for Model Including all Variables

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	SE of the Estimate	R^2 Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. f change
1	.190[a]	.036	.026	3.43315	.036	3.44	1	92	.067[a]
2	.308[b]	.095	.075	3.34457	.059	5.93	1	91	.017[b]
3	.576[c]	.331	.309	2.89082	.236	31.80	1	90	< .001[c]
4	.605[d]	.367	.338	2.82951	.035	4.94	1	89	.029[d]
5	.646[e]	.418	.385	2.72809	.051	7.74	1	88	.007[e]
6	.668[f]	.446	.408	2.67599	.028	4.46	1	87	.038[f]
7	.720[g]	.519	.480	2.50823	.073	13.02	1	86	< .001[g]

Note. Dependent variable: group reputation threat a. predictors: (constant), centrality b. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard c. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology d. Predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, assimilationist ideology e. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, assimilationist ideology, traditionalist beliefs f. (constant) centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, assimilationist ideology, traditionalist beliefs, marginalist beliefs g. (constant) centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, assimilationist ideology, traditionalist beliefs, marginalist beliefs, marginalist behaviors

Based on the finding of the hierarchical multiple regression, traditionalist beliefs and marginalist behaviors were statistically significant predictors of group reputation threat with $p < .05$ (see Table 5). Table 6 illustrates that for every unit increase in traditionalist beliefs alone there was 3.37 increase in group reputation threat and for every unit increase in marginalist behaviors there was a 2.54 unit increase in group reputation threat.

Table 6

Coefficients for the Overall Model for Group Reputation Threat

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity statistics	
		B	SE	Beta			Zero order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	17.279	1.672	-.506	10.333	< .001				1.000	1.000
	Nationalist ideology	-.231	.041		-5.628	< .001	-.506	-.506	-.506		
2	(Constant)	20.062	2.044		9.817	< .001				.851	1.175
	Nationalist ideology	-.193	.043	-.422	-4.430	< .001	-.506	-.421	-.390	.851	1.175
	Assimilationist ideology	-.104	.046	-.217	-2.271	.025	-.380	-.232	-.200		
3	(Constant)	16.656	2.057		8.096	< .001				.827	1.209
	Nationalist ideology	-.165	.041	-.361	-4.052	< .001	-.506	-.393	-.329	.811	1.232
	Assimilationist	-.066	.043	-.137	-1.518	.133	-.380	-.158	-.123	.890	1.124
	Traditionalist beliefs	2.855	.692	.355	4.126	< .001	.488	.399	.335		
4	(Constant)	15.096	2.154		7.008	< .001				.776	1.288
	Nationalist ideology	-.143	.041	-.315	-3.480	< .001	-.506	-.346	-.277	.807	1.240
	Assimilationist ideology	-.059	.043	-.122	-1.380	.171	-.380	-.145	-.110	.784	1.275
	Traditionalist beliefs	3.374	.724	.419	4.663	< .001	.488	.443	.371	.847	1.180
	Marginalist beliefs	.811	.389	.180	2.086	.040	.139	.216	.166		
5	(Constant)	15.090	2.027		7.443	< .001				.776	1.289
	Nationalist	-.140	.039	-.306	-3.597	< .001	-.506	-.358	-.270	.806	1.241
	Assimilationist ideology	-.062	.040	-.130	-1.556	.123	-.380	-.164	-.117	.784	1.275
	Traditionalist beliefs	3.377	.681	.420	4.958	< .001	.488	.467	.372	.700	1.428
	Marginalist beliefs	.219	.402	.049	.543	.588	.139	.058	.041	.798	1.253
	Marginalist behaviors	2.540	.719	.296	3.533	< .001	.303	.352	.265	1.000	1.000

Note. Dependent variable: group reputation threat

Own Reputation Threat

Model 1 revealed that centrality was not statistically significant for own reputation threat however the remaining models were significant (see Table 7). The R^2 results of the stepwise introduction of predictors as shown in Table 8 were as follows: Model 1 F (1, 92) = 2.07, $p > .05$, with $R^2 = .022$; Model 2 ANOVA: F (1 , 91) = 9.53, $p < .05$ with $R^2 = .115$; Model 3 ANOVA: F (1 , 90) = 7.26 $p < .05$ with $R^2 = .181$; Model 4 ANOVA: F (1 , 89) = 10.83, $p < .05$ with $R^2 = .270$.

Centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, and marginalist behaviors were predictors of group reputation threat and explained 27% of the variance in the group reputation threat. Among the model predictors, marginalist behaviors was the only one which had correlations with own reputation threat and as such, it explained 27% of the variance in own reputation threat (see Table 8).

Table 7

Own Reputation Threat ANOVA for Model Including all Variables

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	17.178	1	17.178	2.07	.153[a]
	Residual	760.695	92	8.268		
	Total	777.872	93			
2	Regression	89.343	2	44.671	5.90	.004[b]
	Residual	688.529	91	7.566		
	Total	777.872	93			
3	Regression	140.759	3	46.920	6.62	< .001[c]
	Residual	637.113	90	7.079		
	Total	777.872	93			
4	Regression	209.875	4	52.469	8.22	< .001[d]
	Residual	567.997	89	6.382		
	Total	777.872	93			

Note. Dependent variable: own reputation threat a. predictors: (constant), centrality b. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard c. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology d. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, marginalist behaviors.

Table 8

Own Reputation Threat R^2 and R^2 change for Model Including all Variables

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	SE of the Estimate	R^2 Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. f change
1	.149[a]	.022	.011	2.87549	.022	2.078	1	92	.153[a]
2	.339[b]	.115	.095	2.75068	.093	9.538	1	91	.003[b]
3	.425[c]	.181	.154	2.66065	.066	7.263	1	90	.008[c]

4	.519[d]	.270	.237	2.52626	.089	10.830	1	89	.001[d]

Note. Dependent variable: own reputation threat a. predictors: (constant), centrality b. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard c. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology d. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, marginalist behaviors

Based on the finding of the hierarchical regression, marginalist behaviors was a statistically significant predictor of own reputation threat with $p < .05$ (See Table 8). For every unit increase of marginalist behaviors there was a 2.14 unit increase in own reputation threat (see Table 9).

Table 9

Coefficients for the Overall Model for Own Reputation Threat

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity statistics	
		B	SE	Beta			Zero order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	9.343	1.479		6.319	< .001					
	Centrality	-.055	.038	-.149	-1.441	.153	-.149	-.149	-.149	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	14.137	2.100		6.732	< .001					
	Centrality	-.026	.038	-.070	-.683	.496	-.149	-.071	-.067	.937	1.067
	Private regard	-.159	.051	-.315	-3.088	.003	-.332	-.308	-.305	.937	1.067
3	(Constant)	15.437	2.088		7.394	< .001					
	Centrality	-.029	.037	-.079	-.803	.424	-.149	-.084	-.077	.936	1.069
	Private regard	-.057	.062	-.113	-.918	.361	-.332	-.096	-.088	.595	1.680
	Nationalist ideology	-.123	.046	-.325	-2.695	.008	-.404	-.273	-.257	.625	1.599
4	(Constant)	15.094	1.985		7.604	< .001					
	Centrality	-.040	.035	-.107	-1.139	.258	-.149	-.120	-.103	.928	1.077
	Private regard	-.057	.059	-.112	-.954	.343	-.332	-.101	-.086	.595	1.680
	Nationalist ideology	-.110	.044	-.291	-2.526	.013	-.404	-.259	-.229	.620	1.613
	Marginalist behaviors	2.145	.652	.301	3.291	.001	.329	.329	.298	.980	1.020

Note. Dependent: Variable own reputation threat

Group Concept Threat

All models were statistically significant for group concept threat as seen in Table 10. The results of the stepwise introduction of predictors seen in Table 11 show the following R^2 results: Model 1 F (1 , 92) = 4.59, $p < .05$, with $R^2 = .048$; Model 2 F (1 , 91) = 7.51, $p < .05$, with $R^2 = .12$; Model 3 F (1 , 90) = 30.43, $p < .05$, with $R^2 = .34$; Model 4 F (1 , 89) = 19.49, $p < .05$, with $R^2 = .46$; Model 5 F (1 , 88) = 7.80, $p < .05$,

with R^2 = .50; Model 6 F (1 , 87) = 4.16, p < .05, with R^2 = .52; Model 7 F (1 , 86) = 8.45, p < .05, with R^2 = .57.

Predictors of group concept threat were centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, assimilationist ideology, traditionalist beliefs, and marginalist behaviors and marginalist beliefs which explained 57% of the variance in the group concept threat. traditionalist beliefs was the only variable from the model shown to correlate with group concept threat, therefore traditionalist beliefs explained 57% of the variance in the group concept threat (see Table 11).

Table 10

Group-Concept Threat ANOVA for Model Including all Variables

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	54.208	1	54.208	4.59	.035[a]
	Residual	1085.250	92	11.796		
	Total	1139.457	93			
2	Regression	136.973	2	68.486	6.21	.003[b]
	Residual	1002.485	91	11.016		
	Total	1139.457	93			
3	Regression	390.279	3	130.093	15.62	< .001[c]
	Residual	749.179	90	8.324		
	Total	1139.457	93			
4	Regression	524.868	4	131.217	19.00	< .001[d]
	Residual	614.589	89	6.905		
	Total	1139.457	93			
5	Regression	574.925	5	114.985	17.92	< .001[e]
	Residual	564.533	88	6.415		
	Total	1139.457	93			
6	Regression	600.715	6	100.119	16.16	< .001[f]
	Residual	538.742	87	6.192		
	Total	1139.457	93			
7	Regression	648.945	7	92.706	16.25	< .001[g]
	Residual	490.512	86	5.704		
	Total	1139.457	93			

Note. Dependent variable: group concept threat a. predictors: (constant), centrality b. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard c. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology d. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, assimilationist ideology e. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, assimilationist ideology, traditionalist beliefs f. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, assimilationist ideology, traditionalist beliefs , marginalist beliefs g. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, assimilationist ideology, traditionalist beliefs, marginalist beliefs, marginalist behaviors

Table 11

Own Reputation Threat R^2 and R^2 Change for Model Including all Variables

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	SE of the Estimate	R^2 Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. f change
1	.218[a]	.048	.037	3.43456	.048	4.59	1	92	.035[a]
2	.347[b]	.120	.101	3.31908	.073	7.51	1	91	.007[b]
3	.585[c]	.343	.321	2.88517	.222	30.43	1	90	< .001[c]
4	.679[d]	.461	.436	2.62783	.118	19.49	1	89	< .001[d]
5	.710[e]	.505	.476	2.53281	.044	7.80	1	88	.006[e]
6	.726[f]	.527	.495	2.48846	.023	4.16	1	87	.044[f]
7	.755[g]	.570	.534	2.38823	.042	8.45	1	86	.005[g]

Note.
Dependent variable: group concept threat a. predictors: (constant), centrality b. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard c. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology d. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, assimilationist ideology e. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, assimilationist ideology, traditionalist beliefs f. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, assimilationist ideology, traditionalist beliefs, marginalist beliefs g. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, assimilationist ideology, traditionalist beliefs, marginalist beliefs

Based on the findings, traditionalist beliefs is a statistically significant predictor of group concept threat with $p < .05$ (see Table 13). Table 12 shows that for every unit increase of traditionalist beliefs there was a 3.43 unit increase in group concept threat.

Table 12

Coefficients for the Overall Model Including all Variables for Group Concept Threat

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Correlations			Collinearity statistics	
Model		B	SE	Beta	t	Sig.	Zero order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.813	1.766		2.725	.008					
	Centrality	.098	.046	.218	2.144	.035	.218	.218	.218	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	9.946	2.534		3.925	< .001					
	Centrality	.129	.046	.288	2.835	.006	.218	.285	.279	.937	1.067
	Private regard	-.170	.062	-.278	-2.741	.007	-.206	-.276	-.270	.937	1.067
3	(Constant)	12.832	2.264		5.668	< .001					
	Centrality	.121	.040	.270	3.061	.003	.218	.307	.262	.936	1.069
	Private regard	.055	.068	.091	.817	.416	-.206	.086	.070	.595	1.680
	Nationalist ideology	-.274	.050	-.596	-5.516	< .001	-.507	-.503	-.471	.625	1.599
4	(Constant)	17.811	2.350		7.578	<. 001					
	Centrality	.085	.037	.188	2.282	.025	.218	.235	.178	.889	1.125
	Private regard	.123	.064	.201	1.932	.057	-.206	.201	.150	.561	1.782
	Nationalist ideology	-.231	.046	-.503	-4.993	<. 001	-.507	-.468	-.389	.598	1.673
	Assimilationist ideology	-.189	.043	-.390	-4.415	<. 001	-.529	-.424	-.344	.778	1.286
5	(Constant)	18.407	2.275		8.090	< .001					
	Centrality	.006	.045	.014	.141	.888	.218	.015	.011	.551	1.816
	Private regard	.091	.062	.149	1.462	.147	-.206	.154	.110	.542	1.844
	Nationalist ideology	-.179	.048	-.389	-3.695	< .001	-.507	-.366	-.277	.508	1.968
	Assimilationist ideology	-.168	.042	-.347	-4.009	< .001	-.529	-.393	-.301	.753	1.328
	Traditionalist beliefs	2.400	.859	.296	2.793	.006	.512	.285	.210	.500	1.999
6	(Constant)	17.308	2.299		7.527	< .001					
	Centrality	-.009	.045	-.020	-.203	.839	.218	-.022	-.015	.535	1.869
	Private regard	.093	.061	.153	1.524	.131	-.206	.161	.112	.542	1.844
	Nationalist ideology	-.155	.049	-.337	-3.167	.002	-.507	-.322	-.233	.479	2.086
	Assimilationist ideology	-.162	.041	-.336	-3.942	< .001	-.529	-.389	-.291	.750	1.333
	Traditionalist beliefs	3.062	.904	.378	3.386	.001	.512	.341	.250	.436	2.294
	Marginalist beliefs	.750	.368	.166	2.041	.044	.128	.214	.150	.823	1.215
7	(Constant)	17.961	2.218		8.097	< .001					
	Centrality	-.036	.044	-.080	-.807	.422	.218	-.087	-.057	.512	1.952
	Private regard	.085	.059	.138	1.438	.154	-.206	.153	.102	.541	1.849
	Nationalist ideology	-.138	.047	-.301	-2.929	.004	-.507	-.301	-.207	.472	2.116
	Assimilationist ideology	-.164	.040	-.340	-4.159	< .001	-.529	-.409	-.294	.750	1.334
	Traditionalist beliefs	3.438	.877	.424	3.918	< .001	.512	.389	.277	.426	2.345
	Marginalist beliefs	.312	.384	.069	.813	.418	.128	.087	.058	.696	1.437
	Marginalist behaviors	2.035	.700	.236	2.908	.005	.241	.299	.206	.760	1.315

Note. Dependent variable: group concept threat

Self-Concept Threat

Model 1 revealed that centrality was not statistically significant for self-concept threat however the remaining models were significant (see Table 13). The R^2 results of the stepwise introduction of predictors as shown in Table 14 were as follows: Model 1 were F (1, 92) = 3.20, $p > .05$, with $R^2 = .034$; Model 2 ANOVA: F (1, 91) = 10.64, $p < .05$ with $R^2 = .13$; Model 3 ANOVA: F (1, 90) = 33.31, $p < .05$ with $R^2 = .36$; Model 4 ANOVA: F (1, 89) = 6.20, $p < .05$ with $R^2 = .41$.

Predictors of self-concept threat were centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, and marginalist behaviors, which explained 41% of the variance in the self-concept threat. Traditionalist beliefs which was the only predictor found to correlate with self-concept threat, was not among the predictors in the models. Therefore, variance in self-concept threat could not be explained.

Table 13

Self-Concept Threat ANOVA for Model Including all Variables

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	36.782	1	36.782	3.20	.077[a]
	Residual	1056.335	92	11.482		
	Total	1093.117	93			
2	Regression	147.365	2	73.683	7.09	.001[b]
	Residual	945.752	91	10.393		
	Total	1093.117	93			
3	Regression	402.867	3	134.289	17.51	< .001[c]
	Residual	690.250	90	7.669		
	Total	1093.117	93			
4	Regression	447.832	4	111.958	15.44	< .001[d]
	Residual	645.285	89	7.250		
	Total	1093.117	93			

Note. Dependent variable: self-concept threat a. predictors: (constant), centrality

b. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard c. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology d. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, marginalist behaviors

Table 14

Self-Concept Threat R^2 and R^2 change for Model Including all Variables

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	SE of the Estimate	R^2 Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.183[a]	.034	.023	3.38850	.034	3.203	1	92	.077[a]
2	.367[b]	.135	.116	3.22380	.101	10.640	1	91	.002[b]
3	.607[c]	.369	.348	2.76938	.234	33.314	1	90	< .001[c]
4	.640[d]	.410	.383	2.69266	.041	6.202	1	89	.015[d]

Note. Dependent variable: self-concept threat a. predictors: (constant), centrality b. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard c. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology d. predictors: (constant), centrality, private regard, nationalist ideology, marginalist behaviors

Similarly, because traditionalist beliefs was not among the models, there were no predictive unit increases for self-concept threat (see Table 15).

Table 15

Coefficients for the Overall Model Including all Variables for Self-Concept Threat

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients							
Model		B	SE	Beta	t	Sig.	Zero order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	5.381	1.742		3.089	.003					
	Centrality	.081	.045	.183	1.790	.077	.183	.183	.183	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	11.315	2.461		4.598	< .001					
	Centrality	.117	.044	.266	2.640	.010	.183	.267	.257	.937	1.067
	Private Regard	-.197	.060	-.329	-3.262	.002	-.262	-.324	-.318	.937	1.067
3	(Constant)	14.214	2.173		6.541	< .001					
	Centrality	.109	.038	.248	2.863	.005	.183	.289	.240	.936	1.069
	Private Regard	.030	.065	.050	.458	.648	-.262	.048	.038	.595	1.680
	Nationalist ideology	-.275	.048	-.611	-5.772	< .001	-.550	-.520	-.483	.625	1.599
4	(Constant)	13.937	2.116		6.587	< .001					
	Centrality	.101	.037	.229	2.708	.008	.183	.276	.221	.928	1.077
	Private Regard	.030	.063	.051	.481	.632	-.262	.051	.039	.595	1.680
	Nationalist ideology	-.264	.046	-.588	-5.684	< .001	-.550	-.516	-.463	.620	1.613
	Marginalist Behaviors	1.730	.695	.205	2.490	.015	.282	.255	.203	.980	1.020

Note. Dependent: variable: self-concept threat

Summary

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between stereotype threat types experienced, racial identity profiles and acculturation styles among African American professionals. Statistical analysis of a significant population sample resulted in answers to the research question. Racial identity profiles and acculturation styles were correlated, however only acculturation styles were significant predictors in all stereotype threats except self-concept threat which did not have significant predictors. In the next chapter, I discuss the results in more detail.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

African American professionals have a racial identity and a professional identity. Their conceptualization and experience of their racial identity can be influenced by their environment and experiences. Acculturation is also a part of their identity formation, which is influenced by both in group and out-group experiences (Landrine et al., 2006; Obasi & Leong, 2010; Pope et al., 2000). Stereotype threat can result in concerns of being considered an inadequate representation of one's minority group by either the in or out group (Franco et al., 2019; Whittington et al., 2021). The purpose of this study was to examine whether acculturation style and racial identity profiles of African American professionals predict the type of stereotype threat they experienced. I surveyed 94 African American professionals who had been working in their field of study for 5 year or more. The survey consisted of three instruments assessing racial identity profile, acculturation style, and types of stereotype threat.

An analysis of the data provided insights about the relationship between acculturation style, racial identity profiles and stereotype threat experienced. Findings from the hierarchical multiple regressions showed that traditionalist beliefs explained 44.6% of the variance in the group reputation threat and when combined with marginalist behaviors they explained 51.9% of the variance. Marginalist behaviors accounted for a 7% variance in group reputation threat. Marginalist behaviors explained 27% of variance in own reputation threat. traditionalist beliefs explained 57% of the variance in group concept threat. There are no significant predictors of self-concept threat.

This chapter provides an interpretation of the findings reported in chapter 4. The interpretation is followed by a summary of the studies limitations and recommendations for future research. The final section of this chapter highlights the implications of the study and how the findings relate to social change.

Interpretation of the Findings

The study answered the research question "Does acculturation style as measured by the MASPAD, and racial identity profile as measured by the MIBI subscales predict stereotype threat type experienced as measured by the Measurement of Stereotype Threats?" Subscales for the MIBI and the MASPAD were correlated with each other. This is an indicator for creating studies with a more robust identity profile (Ghara & Sullivan 2012; Mills et al., 2017). However, racial salience in the form of centrality—the stable non-moment dependent measure in which individuals define themselves by race (Sellers et al., 1998)—was not a significant factor in any stereotype threat type experience. It could be said that where one places their race in their social identity hierarchy does not have a direct effect on stereotype threat experienced. The MASPAD was the only measure whose subscales showed a significant correlation with stereotype threat type experienced.

Understanding participants' acculturation profiles provided further clarity concerning areas of vulnerability to experiencing acculturative stress that manifest as identity threats. Identity threat occurs when one's membership to a social group result in the perception or expectation of negative consequences (Whaley, 2020). Participants who ascribed to a traditionalist belief had an Afro-centric worldview and were likely to

experience group concept threat where they fear that their behavior will reinforce negative stereotypes and confirm that African Americans deserve to be devalued (Shapiro, 2011). Participants who had marginalist behaviors claimed no ethnocultural group. Those ascribing to traditionalist beliefs and/or marginalist behaviors were more likely to experience group reputation threat in which they worry about enforcing negative stereotypes about their group. Marginalist behaviors are not inherently indicative of marginalist beliefs just as traditionalist beliefs are not default indicators of traditionalist behaviors. Marginalist behaviors are closely aligned with the technique of altering oneself in order to be accepted by a majority group (Gamst et al., 2020).

The overall findings support previous research that acculturation has a relationship with identity threat (Pitman et al., 2019). Research indicated that individuals may be inclined to detach themselves from a stereotyped identity as a forma self-protection (Desombre et al., 2019). The current results indicate that individuals might detach their behavior from a stereotyped identity as a form of group protection. It is a possibility that the marginalist behaviors are an effort to not allow one's own behavior to negatively impact how others view African Americans. Marginalist behaviors were also significant in terms of participants experience of own reputation threat in which they fear being treated as a negative stereotype of African Americans by either out group members or other African Americans. Own reputation threat is not dependent on where the stereotyped identity is positioned on an individual's internal social identity hierarchy.

There were no connections between self-concept threat and any acculturation strategies or racial identity profiles. This potentially expands knowledge around causes of

self-concept threat. The finding leads to the question of if, regardless of sociocultural factors, African American professionals do not believe negative stereotypes about themselves as African Americans and also do not fear that they embody the negative stereotypes. This possibility aligns with previous theories of African American identity that highlight its duality of experiences, namely that African Americans are part of stigmatized group however African Americans cultural influences have a positive impact on the development of the self-concept (Sellers et al., 1998). The variation in stereotype threat types experienced supports the multi-framework theory, which indicates that there are multiple forms of stereotype threat and therefore interventions specific to threat type must be created (Shapiro et al., 2013).

Study Limitations

This study had multiple limitations. The first limitation is that the stereotype threats were left to the participants to determine life experiences related to their racial identity. Traditional stereotype threat research provides specified threat triggers. However, allowing for broad and personalized memory or experience triggers provided space for acknowledgement that individual's experience of stereotype threat can arise from distinctly varied concerns and conditions (Shapiro et al., 2013).

Self-report surveys also have the inherent limitation of social desirability bias. Participants may not provide honest and accurate information either due to lack of self-awareness or deliberate effort to deny or affirm experiences (Nardi, 2018). Because the survey asks participants to respond within the context of experiences, memory recall could impact results. The anonymity of the survey is one way to encourage participant

honesty. However, all variables with the exception of centrality, private regard and humanist ideology, were normally distributed. The normal distribution indicates that social desirability bias may have been reduced in this study. Although centrality, private regard, and humanist ideology did not have a normal distribution, they also had no significant correlations with other variables. It is possible that the abnormal distributions for this scale was indicative of social desirability bias or other factors unknown to me.

Recommendations

The recommendations for future research are informed by the strengths and limitations of this study as well as theoretical frameworks and prior research on African American acculturation (Obasi et al., 2010; Sellers et al., 1998, Shapiro, 2011). A strength of this study is that it is the first to integrate the advice of previous researchers to create a contextual study of acculturation by using a complimentary identity measure which differentiates between racial and ethnic identity and accounts for inter/intra group influences (Ghara & Sullivan 2012; Mills et al., 2017).

This was a broad exploratory study, but future studies could examine specific groups of African American professionals and provide empirical validation or invalidations of the results found in this study. Future studies could also explore the Private regard subscale and possible influences for its skew. They could explore why centrality does not directly influence stereotype threat experiences. One question is if the visible nature of racial identity precludes the individual's hierarchy because environmental factors are present regardless of the strength of hierarchy of internal identification. Future research could further explore the disconnects between identity

beliefs and behaviors. More complex research exploring the moderating and mediating effects of racial identity profiles, acculturation style, and stereotype threats could be promising. More in depth research exploring the relationship between acculturation style and racial identity profiles could provide a foundation for future measures and/or applications for studies

Implications

Positive Social Change

This study contributes to the existing body of research on stereotype threat, racial identity, and acculturation identity formation of African American professionals. The results of this study can be used to develop stereotype threat interventions and support the health and well-being of African American professionals. These healthy individuals can contribute positively to their community as role models and consequently decrease threat as target forms of stereotype threat for similar individuals (Shapiro, 2011).

Theoretical Implications

Shapiro et al. (2011) acknowledged that their empirical study of the multi-threat framework focused primarily on the threat as target and shared a need for further studies which discuss threat as source (in-group-out-group dynamics). Pennington et al. (2018) reiterated the need for threat as source research and further concluded that future research would need to include clear and accurate information of participants strength of identification with the threaten group identity. Similarly, Floyd (2003) first observed the need for dimension consistency and committed focus on addressing the warning and weakness identified by acculturation theorist. This study addresses the risk of using one

measure without adding complementary measures for a complete profile by using complimentary measures for identity and acculturation to provide a more accurate representation of measured variables and decrease potential inconsistencies found in previous studies (Mills et al., 2017). Results of this study begins to address the gaps identified and expand the literature to support future research into a contextual approach which acknowledges inter- intragroup influences on identity formation (Phalet et al., 2018; Phalet & Baysu, 2019).

Conclusion

In summary, African American professionals can experience different forms of stereotype threat as they navigate their dual identity of stigmatized and non-stigmatized minority. This study indicated that the threat experiences have a relationship with efforts to protect the group identity of African Americans from confirmation of out-group-in-group stereotyping. Regardless of other threat experiences, the African American professionals' self-concept was not impacted by stereotype threat. This study highlights that African American acculturation is a lifelong process that does not inevitably lead to negative outcomes, but the presence of stigma enhances the likelihood of acculturative stress. Acknowledging this connection can be the first step toward enhancing the benefits of acculturation and identity.

References

Abdullah, T., & Brown, T. L. (2012). Acculturation style and alcohol use among African American college students: An exploration of potential moderators. *Journal of Black Psychology*, *38*(4), 421–441. https://doi.org/10.1177/0095798411431981

Anderson, R. E., Heard-Garris, N., & DeLapp, R. C. T. (2022). Future directions for vaccinating children against the American endemic: Treating racism as a virus. *Journal of Clinical Child & Adolescent Psychology*, *51*(1), 127–142. https://doi.org/10.1080/15374416.2021.1969940

Asiamah, N., Mends-Brew, E., & Boison, B. K. T. (2021). A spotlight on cross-sectional research: Addressing the issues of confounding and adjustment. *International Journal of Healthcare Management*, *14*(1), 183–196. https://doi.org/10.1080/20479700.2019.1621022

Barr, A. B., Simons, R. L., Beach, S. R. H., & Simons, L. G. (2022). Racial discrimination and health among two generations of African American couples. *Social Science & Medicine,* 296(March 2022). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2022.114768

Baysu, G., & Phalet, K. (2019). The up- and downside of dual identity: Stereotype threat and minority performance. *Journal of Social Issues*, *75*(2), 568–591. https://doi.org/10.1111/josi.12330

Behrend, T. S., Sharek, D. J., Meade, A. W., & Wiebe, E. N. (2011). The viability of crowdsourcing for survey research. *Behavior Research Methods*, *43*(3), 800–813. https://doi.org/10.3758/s13428-011-0081-0

Berry, J. W. (1980). Acculturation as varieties of adaptation. In A. Padilla (Ed.), *Acculturation: Theories, models, and some new findings* (pp. 9–25). Westview Press.

Berry, J. W. (1974). Psychological aspects of cultural pluralism: Unity and identity reconsidered. *Topics in Culture Learning*, *2*, 17–22.

Berry, J. W. (1988). Understanding the process of acculturation for primary prevention. [White Paper]. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED308441.pdf

Boston, C., & Warren, S. R. (2017). The effects of belonging and racial identity on urban African American high school students' achievement. *Journal of Urban Learning, Teaching, and Research*, *13*, 26–33.

Brendesha M., T., Adriana J., U., Chad A., R., Johnny, L., & Carolyn J., A. (2012). Online racial discrimination and the protective function of ethnic identity and self-esteem for African American adolescents. *Developmental Psychology*, (2), 343–355. https://doi:10.1037/a0027032

Britt-Spells, A. M., Slebodnik, M., Sands, L. P., Rollock, D. (2016). Effects of perceived discrimination on depressive symptoms among Black men residing in the United States: A meta-analysis. *American Journal of Men's Health*, *12*, 52–63. https://doi:10.1177/1557988315624509

Bryant, D. D. (2020). The diminishing-self: African American men on academic probation and the intersection of stereotype threat and self-concept. *Journal of African American Males in Education*, *12*(1), 1–15.

Buckner, J. D., Morris, P. E., Shepherd, J. M., & Zvolensky, M. J. (2022). Ethnic-racial

identity and hazardous drinking among black drinkers: A test of the minority stress model. *Addictive Behaviors*, *127*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addbeh.2021.107218

Chandler, J., & Shapiro, D (2016). Conducting clinical research using crowdsourced convenience samples. *Annual Review of Clinical Psychology, 12*(1), 53–81. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-clinpsy-021815-093623

Chang, Y., & Halgunseth, L. C. (2015). Early adolescents' psychosocial adjustment and weight status change: The moderating roles of gender, ethnicity, and acculturation. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *44*(4), 870–886. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-014-0162-3

Cheng, P., Carter, R. T., & Lee, D. Y. (2015). The relationship between racial identity status attitudes and acculturation among Chinese and Korean Americans: A criterion profile analysis. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling & Development*, *43*(2), 97–108. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-1912.2015.00067.x

Christophe, N. K., Martin Romero, M. Y., Hope, E., & Stein, G. L. (2021). Critical civic engagement in Black college students: Interplay between discrimination, centrality, and preparation for bias. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*. https://doi.org/10.1037/ort0000600.supp

Cokley, K. O., & Helm, K. (2001). Testing the construct validity of scores on the multidimensional inventory of Black identity. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*, *34*(2), 80–95. https://doi:10.1080/07481756.2001.12069025

Cokley, K., & Helm, K. (2007). The relationship between African American enculturation and racial identity. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*, *35*(3), 142. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-1912.2007.tb00056.x

Craemer, T., & Orey, D. (2017). Implicit black identification and stereotype threat among African American students. *Social Science Research*, *65*, 163–180. https://doi/10.1016/j.ssresearch.2017.02.003

DeCuir-Gunby, J. T., & Gunby, N. W., Jr. (2016). Racial microaggressions in the workplace: A critical race analysis of the experiences of African American educators. *Urban Education*, *51*(4), 390–414. https://doi/10.1177/0042085916628610

Desombre, C., Jury, M., Bagès, C., & Brasselet, C. (2019). The distinct effect of multiple sources of stereotype threat. *Journal of Social Psychology*, *159*(5), 628–641. https://doi.org/10.1080/00224545.2018.1544540

Dona, G., & Berry, J. W. (1994). Acculturation attitudes and acculturative stress of Central American refugees. *International Journal of Psychology*, *29*(1), 57.

Endale, L. (2018). The multidimensional model of black identity and nigrescence theory: A philosophical comparison. *Journal of Pan African Studies*, *12*(4), 509–524.

Evans, J. R., & Mathur, A. (2018). The value of online surveys: A look back and a look ahead. *Internet Research, 28*(4), 854–887. https://doi.org/10.1108/IntR-03-2018-0089

Field, A. (2013). Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics (4th ed.). Sage.

Franco, M., Holmes, O. L., Swafford, F., Krueger, N., & Rice, K. (2019). Black people's

racial identity and their acceptance of Black-White Multiracial people. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, *22*(8), 1181–1195. https://doi.org/10.1177/1368430218820957

Gamst, G., Arellano-Morales, L., Meyers, L. S., Serpas, D. G., Balla, J., Diaz, A., Dobson, K., Feller, C., Rought, S., Salazar, B., Garcia, S., & Aldape, R. (2020). Shifting can be stressful for African American women: A structural mediation model. *Journal of Black Psychology*, *46*(5), 364–387. https://doi.org/10.1177/0095798420939721

Greer, T. M., & Cavalhieri, K. E. (2019). The role of coping strategies in understanding the effects of institutional racism on mental health outcomes for African American men. *Journal of Black Psychology*, *45*(5), 405–433. https://doi/10.1177/0095798419868105

Hack, S. M., Muralidharan, A., & Abraham, C. R. (2022). Between and within race differences in patient-centeredness and activation in mental health care. *Patient Education and Counseling*, *105*(1), 206–211. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pec.2021.05.009

Hall, O. T., Jordan, A., Teater, J., Dixon-Shambley, K., McKiever, M. E., Baek, M., Garcia, S., Rood, K. M., & Fielin, D. A. (2022). Experiences of racial discrimination in the medical setting and associations with medical mistrust and expectations of care among black patients seeking addiction treatment. *Journal of Substance Abuse Treatment*, *133*, 108551. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsat.2021.108551

Hampton, C., & Feller, E. (2020). Stereotype threat: Racial microaggression undermines performance of Black health professionals. *Rhode Island Medical Journal* (2013), *103*(6), 14–16.

Hope, E. C., Cryer-Coupet, Q. R., & Stokes, M. N. (2020). Race-related stress, racial identity, and activism among young Black men: A person-centered approach. *Developmental Psychology*, *56*(8), 1484–1495. https://doi.org/10.1037/dev0000836

Jones, S. C. T., Anderson, R. E., Gaskin-Wasson, A. L., Sawyer, B. A., Applewhite, K., & Metzger, I. W. (2020). From "crib to coffin": Navigating coping from racism-related stress throughout the lifespan of Black Americans. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, *90*(2), 267–282. https://doi/10.1037/ort0000430

Johnson-Ahorlu, R. N. (2022). "Our biggest challenge is stereotypes": Understanding stereotype threat and the academic experiences of African American undergraduates. *Journal of Negro Education*, *82*(4), 382–392. https://doi.org/10.7709/jnegroeducation.82.4.0382

Johnson, M. J., & Reynolds, A. L. (2018). Factors influencing academic success among African American college women: The impact of African American acculturation and religiosity. *Journal of Black Psychology*, *44*(5), 403–421. https://doi.org/10.1177/0095798418777400

Juang, L. P., & Syed, M. (2019). The evolution of acculturation and development models for understanding immigrant children and youth adjustment. *Child Development Perspectives*, *13*(4), 241–246. https://doi/10.1111/cdep.12346

Kandiah, J., Webb, F., & Khubchandani, J. (2020). Body mass index, stages of change and acculturation status among African-American women. *Journal of the Academy of Nutrition & Dietetics*, *120*(9), A76. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jand.2020.06.056

Kim, J. Y.-J., Block, C. J., & Nguyen, D. (2019). What's visible is my race, what's invisible is my contribution: Understanding the effects of race and color-blind racial attitudes on the perceived impact of microaggressions toward Asians in the workplace. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *113*, 75-87. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2018.08.011

Kador, J., (2010). Professional In *Collin's English dictionary* (30th ed.). HarperCollins Publishers

Klonoff, E. A., & Landrine, H. (2000). Revisiting and improving the African American acculturation scale. *Journal of Black Psychology*, *26*(2), 235–261. https://doi.org/10.1177/0095798400026002007

Knox-Kazimierczuk, F., Summers, C., & Kim, S. (2019). O15 health habits of African American women and the impact of racial identity. *Journal of Nutrition Education and Behavior*, *51*(7), S7. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneb.2019.05.321

Landrine, H., & Klonoff, E. A. (1994). The African American acculturation scale: development, reliability, and validity. *Journal of Black Psychology*, *20*(2), 104–127. https://doi.org/10.1177/00957984940202002

Landrine, H., Klonoff, E. A., Pomerantz, E. M., & Dong, W. (2006). African American acculturation scale. *Developmental Psychology*, *42*(5), 950–961.

https://doi.org/10.1177/00957984940202002

Laurin, R. (2020). An investigation of the roles of group identification, perceived ability, and evaluative conditions in stereotype threat experiences. *Psychological Reports*, *123*(5), 1904–1918. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033294119884013

Locke, D.C., & Bailey, D.F., (2013). *Increasing Multicultural Understanding*. Sage

McCleary-Gaddy, A. T., & James, D. (2022). Skin tone, life satisfaction, and psychological distress among African Americans: The mediating effect of stigma consciousness. *Journal of Health Psychology*, *27*(2), 422–431. https://doi.org/10.1177/1359105320954251

Mifflin, H. (2016). (5th ed.) *American heritage dictionary of the English language*. Harcourt Publishing Company.

Mills, S. D., Fox, R. S., Gholizadeh, S., Klonoff, E. A., & Malcarne, V. L. (2017). Acculturation and health behaviors among African Americans: A systematic review. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *48*(7), 1073–1097. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022117717029

Molina, A. B., & Tejda, A. J. R. (2020). Attitudes toward Sexual Behaviours in Different Ethnocultural Groups and Their Relationship with the Acculturation Process. *Ceskoslovenska Psychologie*, *64*(3), 342–359.

Najdowski C.J., Bottoms B.L., & Goff P.A. Stereotype threat and racial differences in citizens' experiences of police encounters. *Law and Human Behavior*. *39*(5), 463–477. https://doi.org/10.1037/lhb0000140

Neal-Jackson, A. (2020). Well, what did you expect?: Black women facing stereotype

threat in collaborative academic spaces at a predominantly White institution. *Journal of College Student Development*, *61*(3), 317–332. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2020.0030

Neville, H. A., & Cross, W. E. (2017). Racial awakening: Epiphanies and encounters in Black racial identity. *Cultural Diversity & Ethnic Minority Psychology*, *23*(1), 102–108. https://doi:10.1037/cdp0000105

Norman, R. L., & Tang, M. (2016). Investigating occupational stress, racial identity, and mentoring for African American women in health care. *Journal of Employment Counseling*, *53*(1), 2–13. https://doi.org/10.1002/joec.12024

Obasi, E. M., & Leong, F. T. L. (2010). Construction and validation of the Measurement of Acculturation Strategies for People of African Descent (MASPAD). *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, *16*(4), 526–539. https://doi-org/10.1037/a0021374

Osseo-Asare, A., Balasuriya, L., Huot, S. J., Keene, D., Berg, D., Nunez-Smith, M., Genao, I., Latimore, D., & Boatright, D. (2018). Minority resident physicians' views on the role of race/ethnicity in their training experiences in the workplace. *JAMA Network Open*, *1*(5), https://doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2018.2723

Paolacci, G., Chandler, J., & Ipeirotis, P.G. (2010). Running experiments on Amazon Mechanical Turk. *Judgment and Decision Making*, *5*(5), 411–419.

Phalet, K., Fleischmann, F., & Hillekens, J. (2018). Religious identity and acculturation of immigrant minority youth: Toward a contextual and developmental approach.

European Psychologist, *23*(1), 32–43. https://doi-org/10.1027/1016-9040/a000309

Pittman, C. (2020). "Shopping while Black": Black consumers' management of racial stigma and racial profiling in retail settings. *Journal of Consumer Culture*, *20*(1), 3–22. https://doi.org/10.1177/1469540517717777

Pittman, D. M., Brooks, J.J., Kaur, P., & and Obasi. E.M. (2019). The cost of minority stress: Risky alcohol use and coping-motivated drinking behavior in African American college students. *Journal of Ethnicity in Substance Abuse 18*(2): 257–78. https://doi:10.1080/15332640.2017.1336958.

Pope-Davis, D. B., Liu, W. M., Ledesma-Jones, S., & Nevitt, J. (2000). African American acculturation and Black racial identity: A preliminary investigation. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*, *28*(2), 98–112. https://doi-org/10.1002/j.2161-1912.2000.tb00610.x

Ross, L., Lepper, M., & Ward, A. (2010). History of social psychology: Insights, challenges, and contributions to theory and application. In Fiske, S., Gilbert, D., & Lindzey, G., (Ed.) *Handbooks of Social Psychology* (5th ed., pp 5). Wiley

Ross, S. V., & Gipson-Jones, T. L. (2018). Acculturative stress and binge eating in African American women: Where do they go from here? *ABNF Journal*, *29*(3), 69–75

Sedgwick, P. (2014). Statistical question cross sectional studies: advantages and disadvantages. BMJ-British Medical Journal, *348*, g2276. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.g2276

Sellers, R. M., Rowley, S. A. J., Chavous, T. M., Shelton, J. N., Smith., M. A., Fuller-Rowell, T. E., Burrow, A. L., & Ong, A. D. (2011). Multidimensional inventory of Black identity. *Developmental Psychology*, *47*(6), 1608–1618. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0024937

Sellers, R. M., Smith, M. A., Shelton, J. N., Rowley, S. A., & Chavous, T. M. (1998). Multidimensional model of racial identity: a reconceptualization of African American racial identity. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *2*(1), 18-39. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327957pspr0201_2

Shapiro, J. A., & Neuberg, S. L. (2007). From stereotype threat to stereotype threats: Implications of a multi-threat framework for causes, moderators, mediators, consequences, and interventions. *Personality & Social Psychology Review, 11*(2), 107–130. https://doi.org/10.1177/1088868306294790

Shapiro, J. R. (2011). Different groups, different threats: A multi-threat approach to the experience of stereotype threats. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *37*(4), 464–480. https://doi-org/10.1177/0146167211398140

Shapiro, J. R. (2011). Measure of Stereotype Threats [Database record]. Retrieved from PsycTEST. https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t19925-000

Simmons, C., Worrell, F. C., & Berry, J. M. (2008). Psychometric properties of scores on three Black racial identity scales. *Assessment*, *15*(3), 259–276. https://doi.org/10.1177/1073191108314788

Smith, W. A., Hung, M., & Franklin, J. D. (2011). Racial battle fatigue and the miseducation of Black men: Racial microaggressions, societal problems, and

environmental stress. *Journal of Negro Education*, *80*(1), 63–82.

Steele, C.M., & Arnson, J. (1995). Stereotype threat and the intellectual test performance of African Americans. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *69*(5), 797–811.

Stockstill, C., & Carson, G. (2022). Are lighter-skinned Tanisha and Jamal worth more pay? White people's gendered colorism toward Black job applicants with racialized names. *Ethnic & Racial Studies, 45*(5), 896–917. https://doi.org/10.1080/01419870.2021.1900584

Struckman-Johnson, C., Anderson, P. B., & Smeaton, G. (2020). Predictors of female sexual aggression among a U.S. MTurk sample: The protective role of sexual assertiveness. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice*, *36*(4), 499–519. https://doi.org/10.1177/1043986220936100

Watts, R. J. (2003). Race consciousness and the health of African Americans. *Online Journal of Issues in Nursing*, *8*(1), 130–141. https://doi.org/10.3912/ojin.vol8no01man03

Warner, R.M. (2013) Applied statistics: From bivariate through multivariate techniques. *Sage*

Whaley, A. L. (2020). Stereotype threat and psychosocial outcomes among African Americans: A population-based approach. *Journal of African American Studies*, *24*(1), 56–77. https://doi-org/10.1007/s12111-019-09456-4

Williams, J., & Wilson, V. (2019, August 27). "*Black workers endure persistent racial disparities in employment outcomes.*" https://www.epi.org/publication/labor-day-

2019-racial-disparities-inemployment/

Williams, M. T. (2021). Microaggressions are a form of aggression. *Behavior Therapy*, *52*(3), 709–719. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.beth.2020.09.00

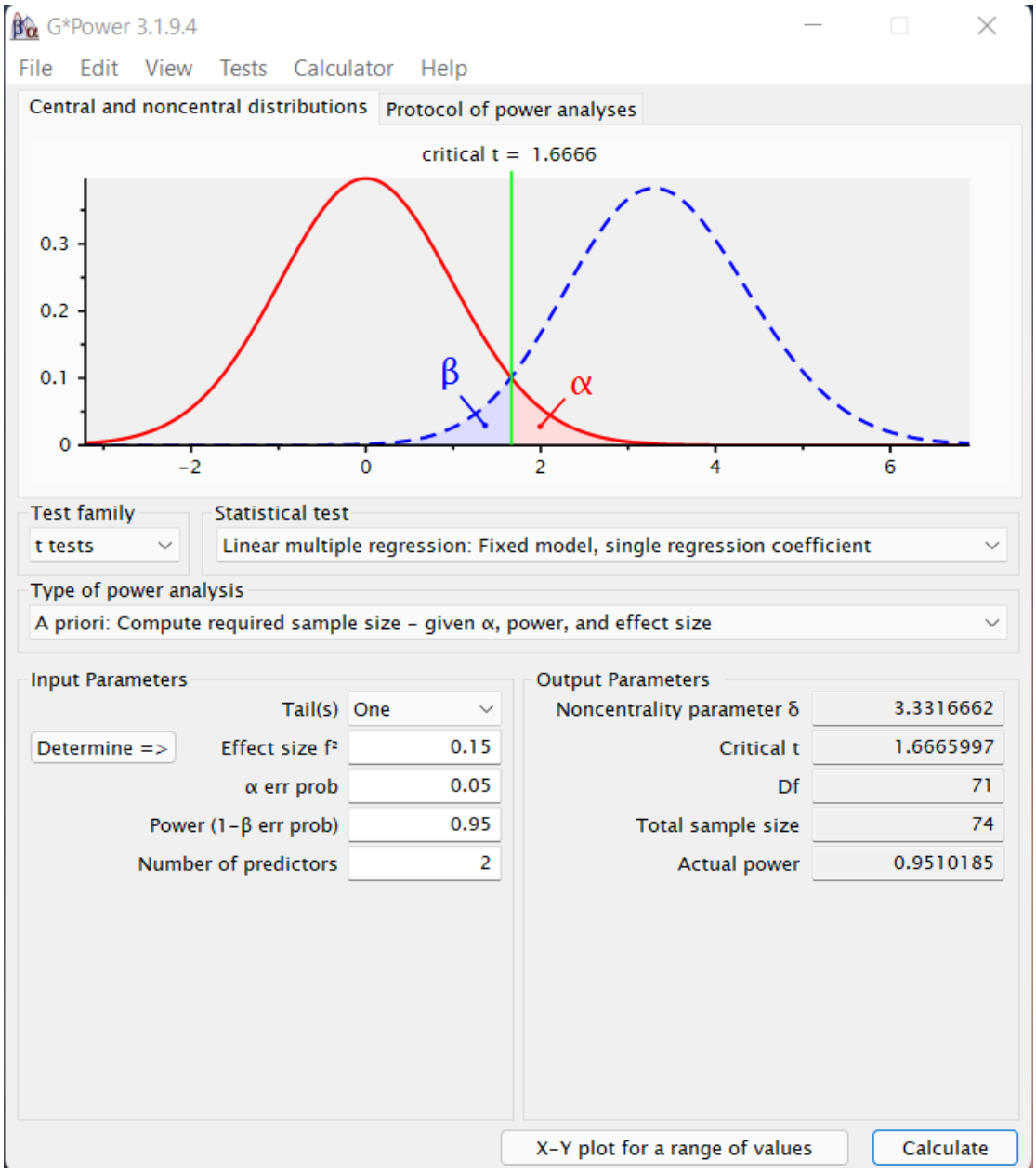
Willis, H. A., & Neblett, E. W. (2020). Racial identity and changes in psychological distress using the multidimensional model of racial identity. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, *26*(4), 509–519. https://doi.org/10.1037/cdp0000314

Whittington, E. Y., Castle Bell, G., & Dapherede Otusanya, A. (2021). Exploring discursive challenges between African Americans and African-born U.S. immigrants from the standpoint of African Americans. *Southern Communication Journal*, *86*(1), 71–83. https://doi-org/10.1080/1041794X.2020.1861479

Yoon, E., Langrehr, K., & Ong, L. Z. (2011). Content analysis of acculturation research in counseling and counseling psychology: A 22-year review. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *58*(1), 83–96. https://doi-org/10.1037/a0021128.supp

Zane, N., & Mak, W. (2003). Major approaches to the measurement of acculturation among ethnic minority populations: A content analysis and an alternative empirical strategy. In *Acculturation: Advances in theory, measurement, and applied research.* (pp. 39–60). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/10472-005

Appendix A: G*Power



Appendix B: MIBI

PsycTESTS

Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity

PsycTESTS Citation:
Sellers, R. M., Rowley, S. A. J., Chavous, T. M., Shelton, J. N., & Smith, M. A. (1997). Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity [Database record]. Retrieved from PsycTESTS. doi: https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t03182-000

Instrument Type:
Inventory/Questionnaire

Test Format:
Participants respond regarding the extent to which they endorse the items on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

Source:
Sellers, Robert M., Rowley, Stephanie A. J., Chavous, Tabbye M., Shelton, J. Nicole, & Smith, Mia A. (1997). Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity: A preliminary investigation of reliability and constuct validity. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol 73(4), 805-815. doi: https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.73.4.805

Permissions:

Appendix C: MASPAD

PsycTESTS

Measurement of Acculturation Strategies for People of African Descent

PsycTESTS Citation:
Obasi, E. M., & Leong, F. T. L. (2004). Measurement of Acculturation Strategies for People of African Descent [Database record]. Retrieved from PsycTESTS. doi: https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t01092-000

Instrument Type:
Test

Test Format:
45 items rated on a 6-point Likert scale: ["strongly disagree" (1), "disagree" (2), "slightly disagree" (3), "slightly agree" (4), "agree" (5), "strongly agree" (6)].

Source:
Obasi, Ezemenari M., & Leong, Frederick T. L. (2010). Construction and validation of the Measurement of Acculturation Strategies for People of African Descent (MASPAD). Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, Vol 16(4), 526-539. doi: https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0021374

Permissions:

Appendix D: Measure of Stereotype Threats

PsycTESTS

Measure of Stereotype Threats

PsycTESTS Citation:
Shapiro, J. R. (2011). Measure of Stereotype Threats [Database record]. Retrieved from PsycTESTS. doi: https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t19925-000

Instrument Type:
Test

Source:
Shapiro, Jenessa R. (2011). Different groups, different threats: A multi-threat approach to the experience of stereotype threats. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, Vol 37(4), 464-480. doi: https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0146167211398140, © 2011 by Society for Personality and Social Psychology, Inc. Reproduced by Permission of Society for Personality and Social Psychology, Inc.

Appendix E: Q-Q Plots

Figure E1

Q-Q Plot for Centrality

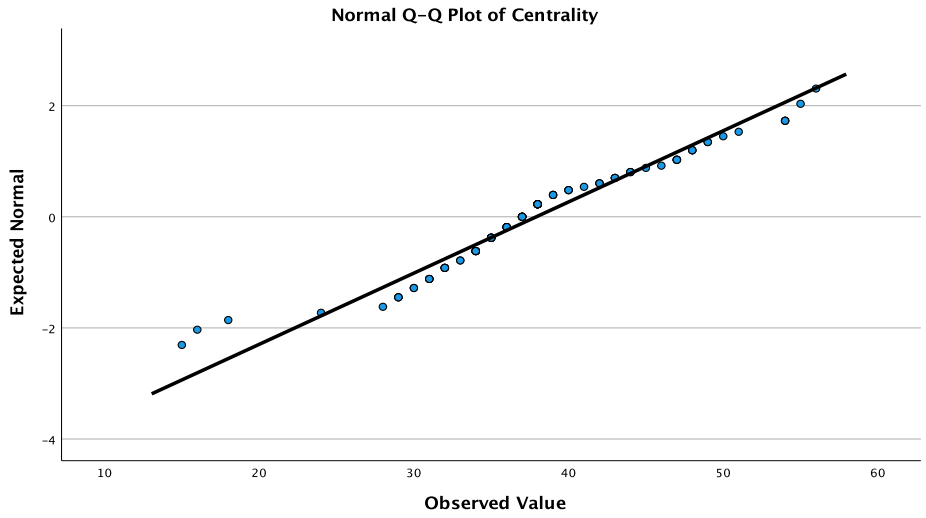


Figure E2

Q-Q Plot for Assimilationist

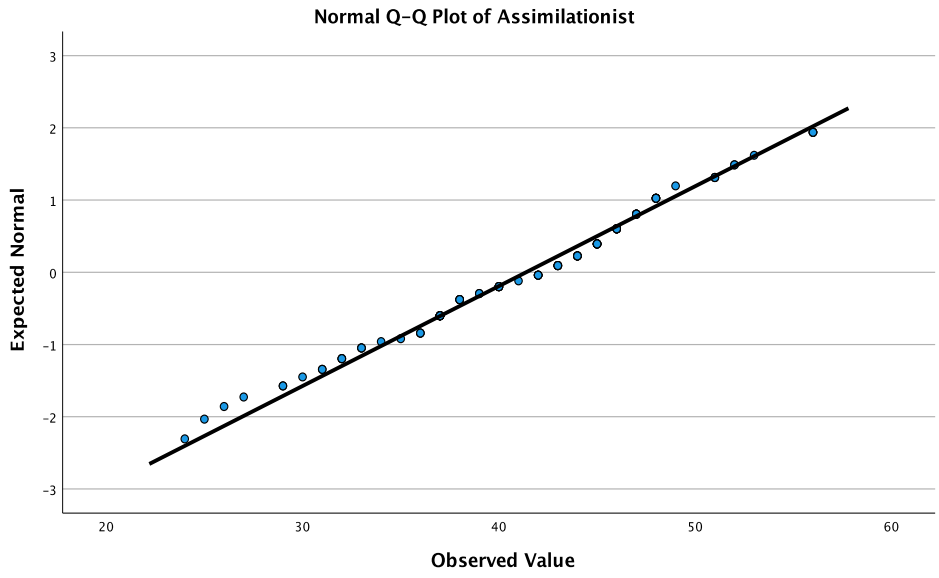


Figure E3

Q-Q Plot for Humanist

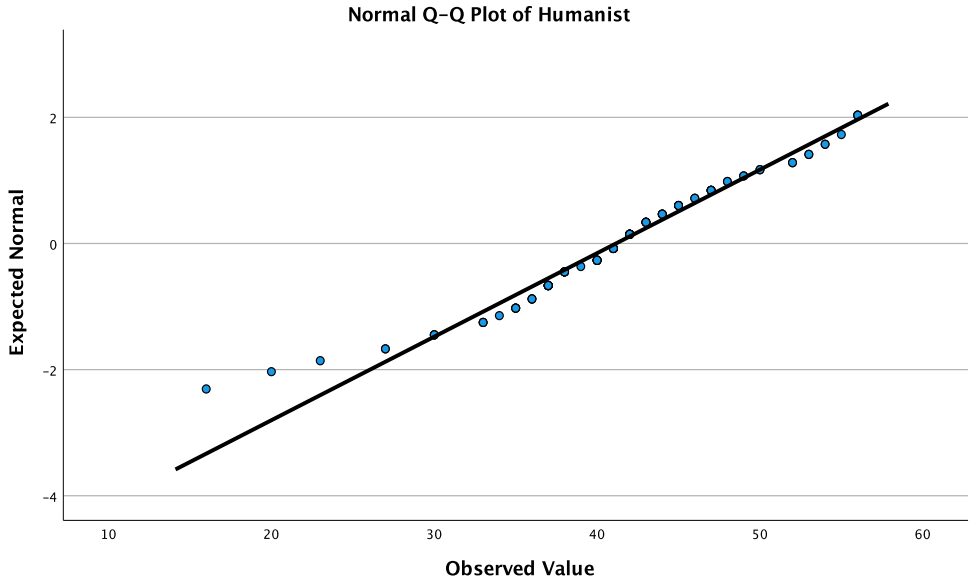


Figure E4

Q-Q Plot for Oppressed

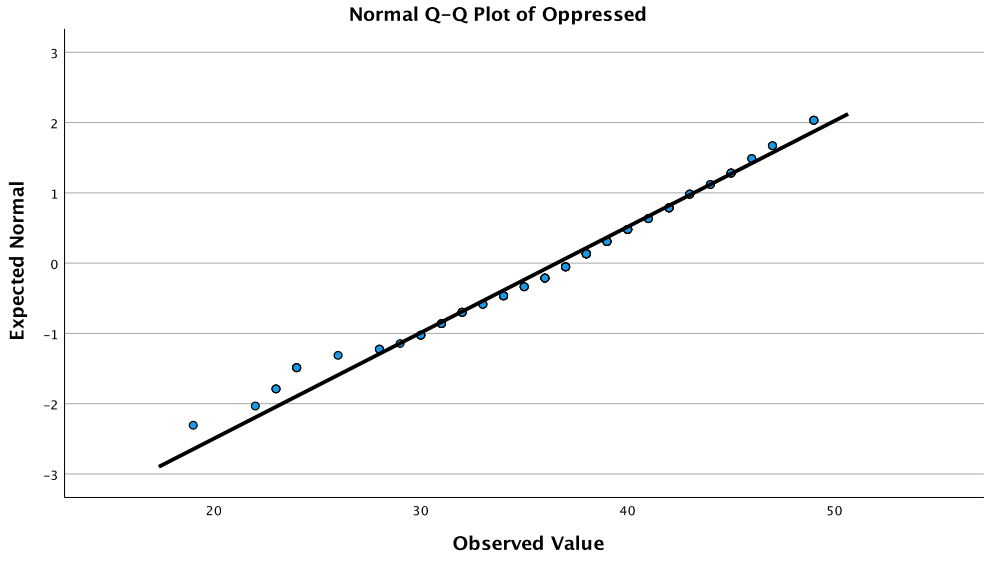


Figure E5

Q-Q Plot for Nationalist

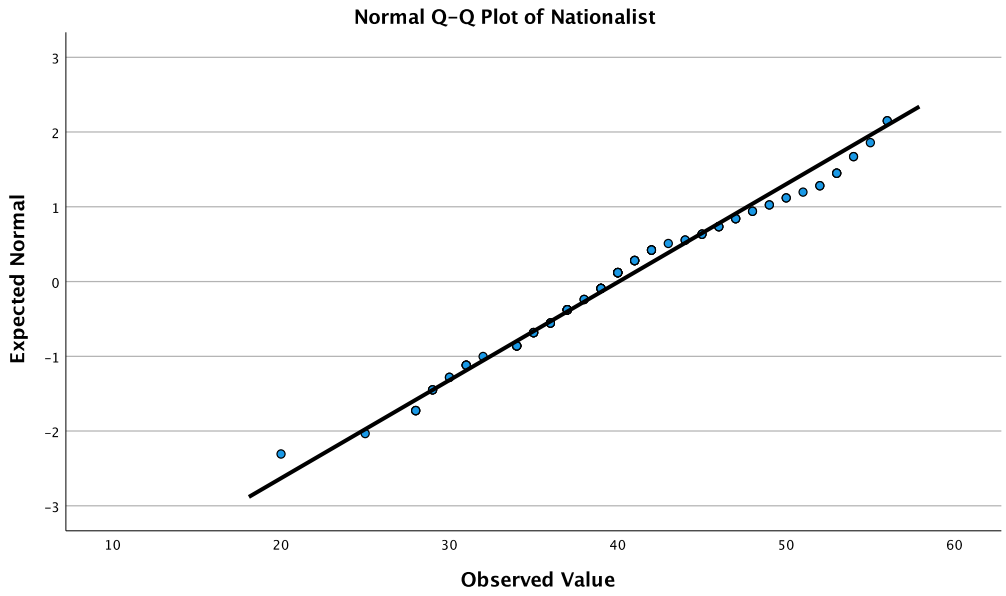


Figure E6

Q-Q Plot for Private Regard

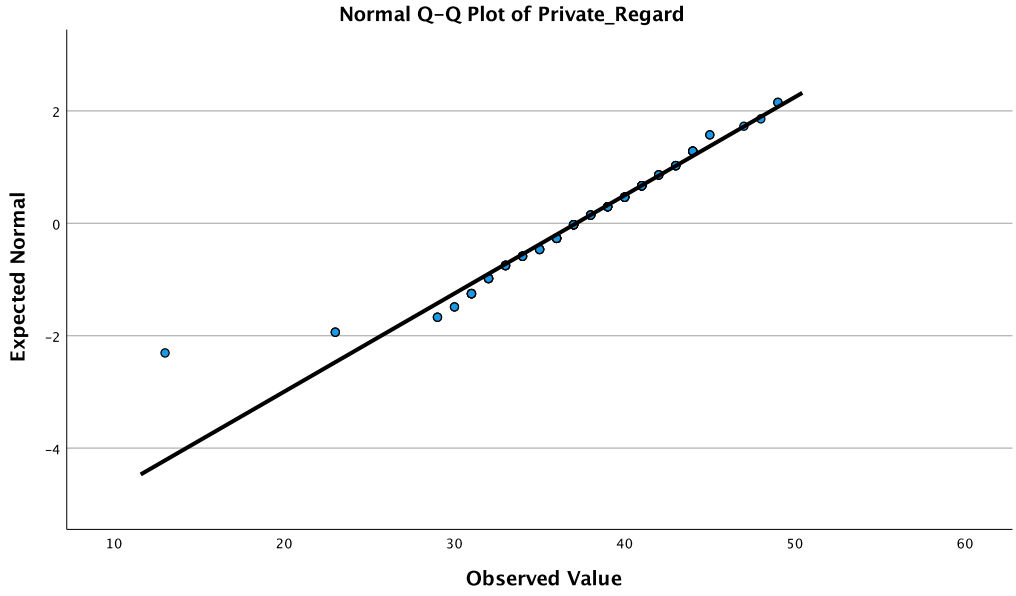


Figure E7

Q-Q Plot for Assimilationist Behavior

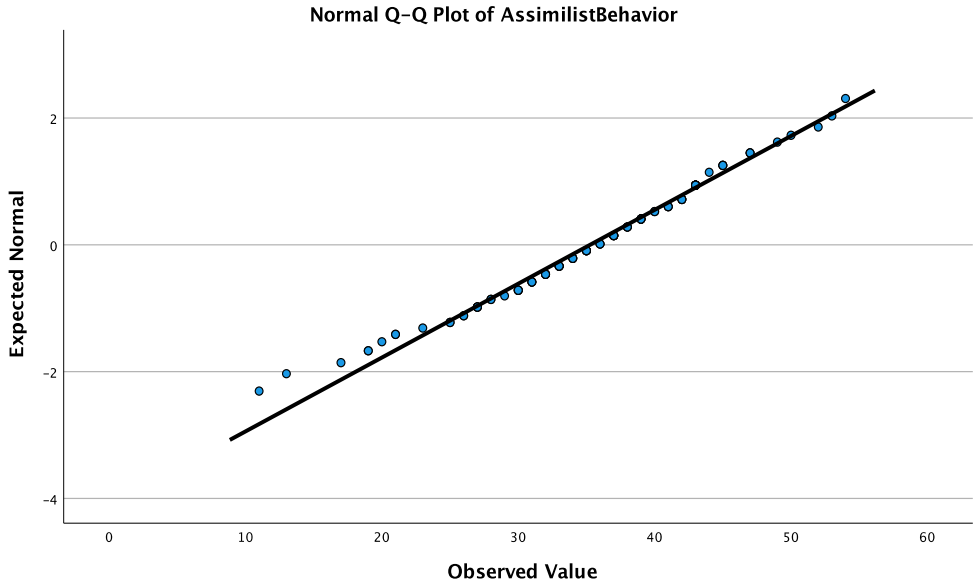


Figure E8

Q-Q Plot for Assimilationist Belief

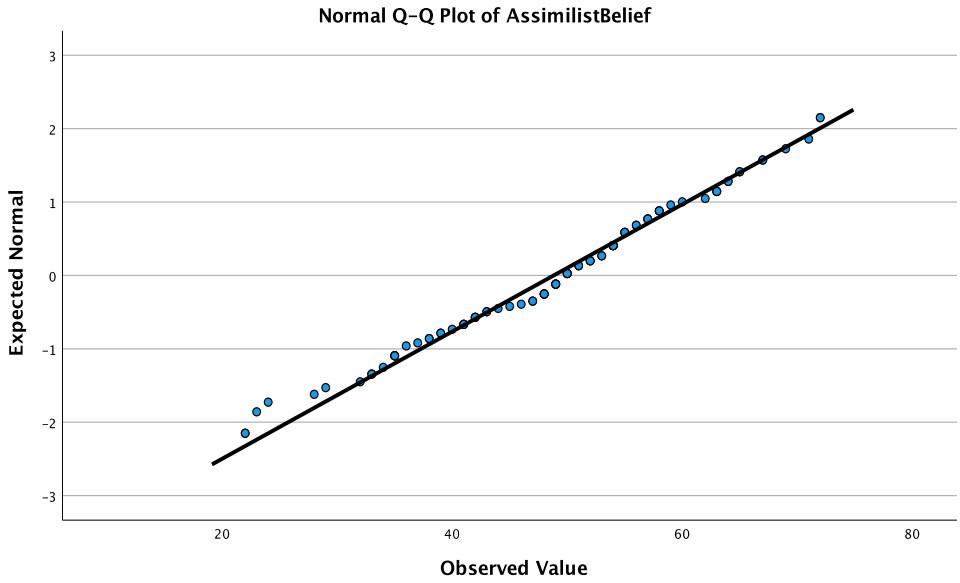


Figure E9

Q-Q Plot for Traditionalist Behavior

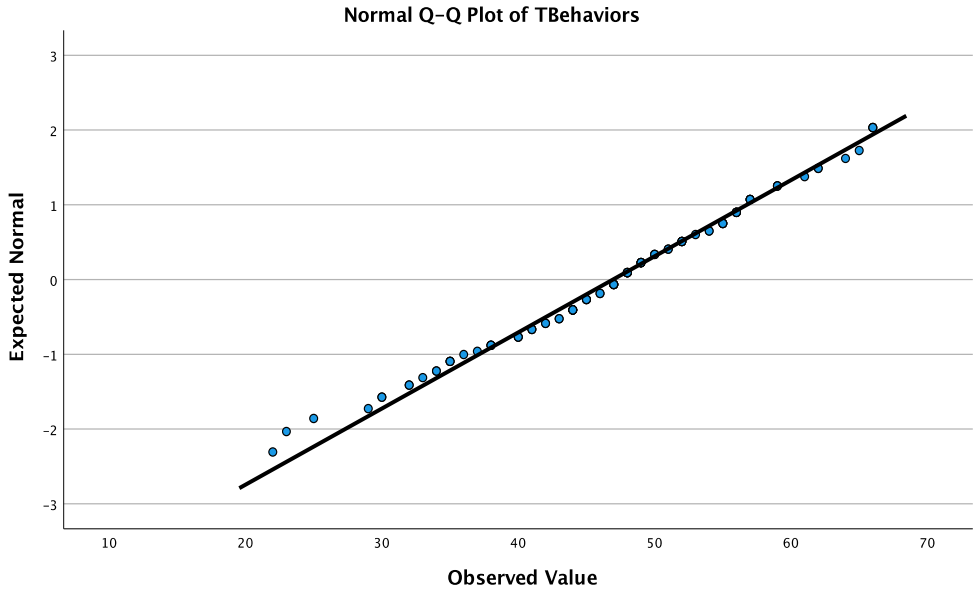
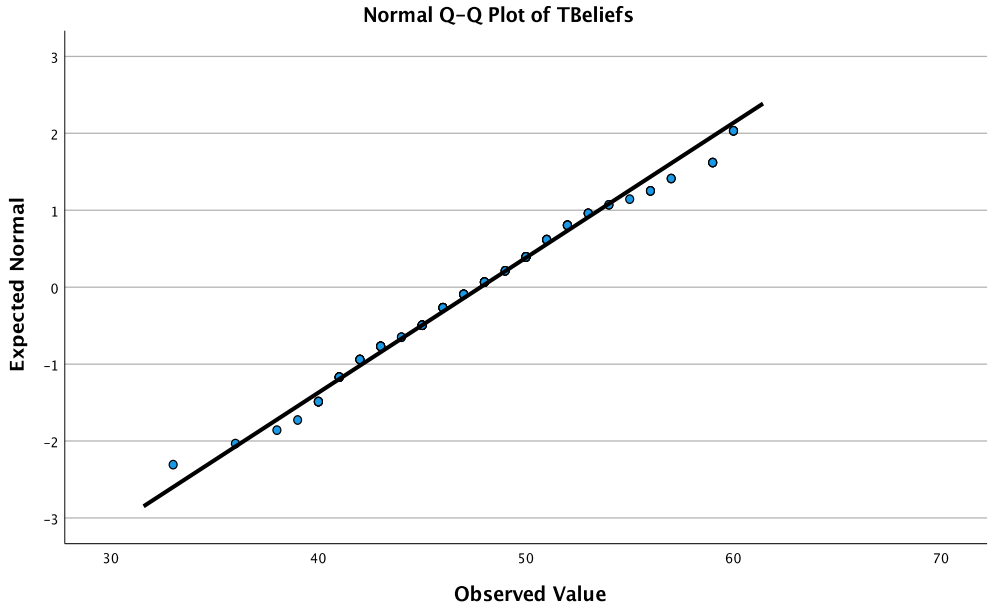


Figure E10

Q-Q Plot for Traditionalist Beliefs



Appendix F: Scatterplots

Figure F1

Scatterplot for Self Concept Threat

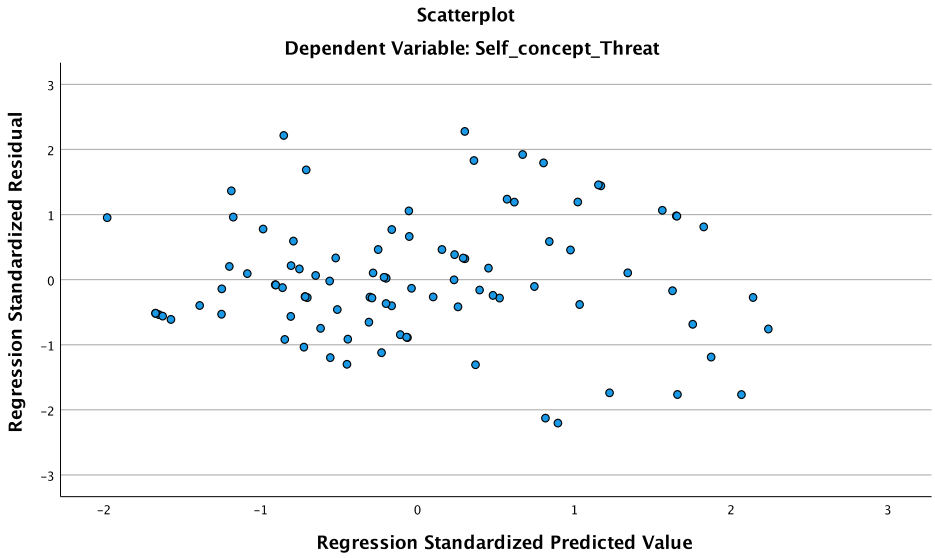


Figure F2

Scatterplot for Group Concept Threat

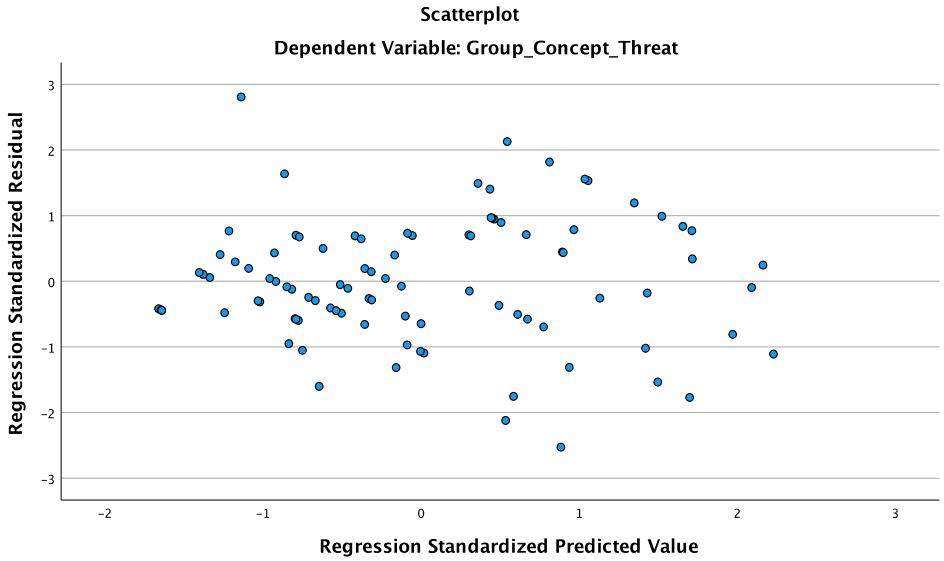


Figure F3

Scatterplot for Own Reputation Threat