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EXPLORING THE MODERATING EFFECTS OF RACIAL/ETHNIC SOCIALIZATION, ACADEMIC MOTIVATION AND AFRICAN AMERICAN IDENTITY ON THE RELATION BETWEEN MICROAGGRESSIONS AND MATTERING OF AFRICAN AMERICAN STUDENTS AT PREDOMINANTLY WHITE INSTITUTIONS

by

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A DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate College of the University of Nebraska-Lincoln

In Partial Fulfillment of Requirements

For the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Major: Psychology

Counseling

Under the Supervision of Dr. Michael J. Scheel

Lincoln, Nebraska

July 2018

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University of Nebraska–Lincoln, 2018

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African Americans remain underrepresented in higher education (Thompson, Gorin, & Chen, 2006) and experience subtle forms of racism called microaggressions (Sue et. al, 2007). The impact of microaggressions in post-secondary institutions may manifest in the achievement gaps that exist between African American and White people; moreover, they may influence the inequitable treatment of African American students by staff, teaching assistants and faculty (Ancis, Sedlacek, & Mohr, 2000; Becker & Luther, 2002). 108 African American undergraduate students at three Predominantly White Institutions (PWIs) participated. The current study employed an online survey to explore relationships of microaggressions, racial/ethnic socialization, African American racial identity, academic motivation, and mattering of African American students at PWIs, including moderating relationships. Generally, results demonstrated the following significant relationships: experiences of microaggressions were negatively related to a sense of belonging on campus and the belief that instructors were invested in their success; feeling valued on campus was significantly related to experiences of microaggressions; receiving racial stereotype messages about the cynicism of white people was negatively related to the perception that they mattered to instructors;
receiving messages of racial protection and cultural insight was positively related to experiences of microaggressions. There were a number of significant relationships between mattering and intrinsic and extrinsic academic motivation. Of particular interest was a negative relationship between amotivation, mattering to instructors, and students perception that they do not belong on campus. Intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation was positively related to microaggressions. Students’ belief that others on campus regarded their culture positively was negatively associated with microaggressions. Students’ highly held regard for their African descent was positively associated with microaggressions. Moreover, Black Identity Nationalist Ideology significantly moderated the negative relationship between microaggressions and mattering to instructors. The findings of the current study are an important contribution to the existing literature regarding the experiences of African American college students at PWIs. Recommendations based on the results of the current study are provided for administrators and clinicians who work with African American college students.
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CHAPTER I

Introduction


The complicated past of race in the United States is well documented (Esposito & Romano, 2014). Africans brought to the United States were strategically enslaved and deprived of basic rights and needs for many years before finally gaining freedom post-Civil War. After emancipation, other forms of discrimination remained in place for years including lynchings, disenfranchisement, and inadequate education (Bell Jr., 2004; Wood, 1968). The scars of slavery and the implications of the Jim Crow South—a term used to describe legalized racial discrimination on the state and county level enacted in 21 states and the District of Colombia prior to the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964—have proven difficult for many African Americans to escape (Krieger, Chen, Coull, Waterman, & Beckfield, 2013; Equal Justice Initiative, 2015). During the Civil Rights movement of the 1960’s, legislation was enacted to continue the process toward racial equality, but issues remain (Aguirre & Martinez, 2003). Ideals of being self-reliant, locally governed, and personally responsible for moral enforcement, considered the cornerstones of American rugged idealism and individualism, have created a backdrop
for state sanctioned violence toward people in underserved populations by authorities of the dominant culture (Hirschfield, 2015). Currently in our society, killings of unarmed African American men and women by the police caught on cell phone cameras have widely circulated on social media and have reignited and refocused African Americans on historical inequities and reopened historical scars (Pillsbury, 2016). The consistent media focus on issues that involve race has ignited the divisions further. Race continues to be a difficult issue to discuss in a constructive manner without negative emotions surfacing and complicating civil discourse (Graham, West, Martinez & Roemer, 2016).

Racism, covert and systematic in nature, persists within society (Sue, 2007). Microaggressions, defined as intentional or unintentional racial slights, are a common form of covert racism often found in many organizational sectors throughout society (Omi & Winant, 1994; Sue et al. 2007; Wong, Derthick, David, Saw, & Okazaki, 2014). College campuses, microcosms of society, are not immune to the effects of this form of covert racism. The impact of microaggressions in post-secondary institutions may be reflected in the numerous achievement gaps that exist between African American and White people; moreover, they may influence the inequitable treatment of African American students by staff, teaching assistants and faculty (Ancis, Sedlacek, & Mohr, 2000; Becker & Luther, 2002). In addition to inequitable treatment, Ancis and colleagues (2000) found African American students reported feeling increased pressure to conform to stereotypes and experienced more racial conflict than their white counterparts. These experiences can significantly impact African American students’ overall health, mental health, energy level, satisfaction with their university, and sense of mattering, a student's
sense that others depend on them and are interested in them (Helm, 2013; Schacht, 2009). Although there is a lack of specific research focused on the impact of microaggressions on African American College students’ sense of mattering, there are a few studies investigating the impact of microaggressions on African American college students’ perceptions of campus racial climate, in which mattering is a central construct (Caplan & Ford, 2014; Solorzano, 2000). Microaggressions are only one of many variables that may significantly impact an African American student’s sense of mattering. Additional variables may include, but are not limited to, racial/ethnic socialization, African American racial identity, and academic motivation. To date, few studies have investigated the effect of the aforementioned variables on mattering. Additionally, few studies have explored possible moderating effects of racial/ethnic socialization, African American racial identity or academic motivation on the relationship between microaggressions and mattering. Therefore, the aim of the current study is two-fold. First, this study explores the effect of microaggressions, racial/ethnic socialization, African American racial identity and academic motivation on African American college student’s sense of mattering at Predominantly White Institutions (PWIs); and second, the present study explores possible Moderating effects of racial/ethnic socialization, African American racial identity and academic motivation on the relationship between microaggressions and the overall sense of mattering of African American students at PWIs.
Statement of the Problem

Although efforts were made during the 1960’s to augment access and equity in education, this progress has been stymied by several factors: the persistent underrepresentation of African American students at PWIs, protracted efforts to discontinue affirmative action programs, reductions in need-based federal aid, and negative reports of college experiences and reports of racism at PWIs (Harper, 2009). Anderson (2002) proposes that racism within United States higher education has been an ongoing issue since the founding of Harvard College, the nation’s first college in 1636. Within the system, assuring multicultural, equitable and diverse environments for learning has continued to be a major aim of institutions of higher education (Pope, Mueller, & Reynolds, 2009). There are inherent benefits to creating a diverse student community and creating a positive environment for learning that are of major significance to institutions (Hurtando, 2007). It is questionable if African American students or other students of color at PWIs reap the benefits of diversity on campus (Milem, Chang, & Antonio, 2005). Thus, creating and maintaining a diverse campus environment, although desirable, may not create equitable benefits for all students on campus.

African Americans remain underrepresented in higher education (Thompson, Gorin, & Chen, 2006). Referencing the American Council on Education, of the 40% of eligible black students that went to college at the turn of the century, only 46% of them graduated within 6 years of entering college (Astin & Oseguera, 2005). Consequently, African American students failing to complete their four-year degrees at PWIs is a
serious problem (National Center for Education Statistics, 2014). There are several possible factors contributing to this issue, including students’ past experiences, self-efficacy, personality characteristics or personal coping strategies, initial attributions, motivation to attend and skills and abilities (Bean and Eaton, 2000). Creating intensive programs for these students and designing space for them on campus where they can relax and let their guard down may help improve outcomes (Solorzano, Ceja & Yosso, 2000).

College environment plays a major role in the success of students. Harper and Hurtado (2007) found that minority students’ sense of belonging is negatively impacted by racial hostility, and experiences of this hostility can further cause an increased sense of alienation from the greater campus community. Thousands of dollars are spent yearly on most college campuses to create an interesting and engaging environment for students (Dey, 1997). Events on campus are typically created by a select group of students. Students who are underrepresented on campus are left with little opportunity to contribute and therefore find that their interests are also underrepresented (Jones, Terell, & Duggar, 1991). This issue is amplified on predominantly white campuses. On these campuses, minority students may not feel comfortable participating in extra-curricular activities (Milem, Chang & Antonio 2005). Thus, African American students must work to navigate a wide array of challenges, internal and external, to overcome barriers to their success in higher education. The current study seeks to learn more about the factors that influence this journey.
The following sections describe key variables to be examined in the present study for their influences on mattering of African American college students. Each variable will be briefly described in this introductory chapter with an explanation of the reasons for considering it as influential on mattering.

**Microaggressions**

Racism is significantly interwoven into the fabric of the United States (Constantine and Sue, 2007). White Americans grow up in a society that allows and, in many cases, encourages them to internalize certain prejudices and stereotypes (Sue, 2003). It is important to grasp that we are all socialized to understand and recognize differences. Consider a child’s first experience with a child of another race. Inherently, they notice a difference, but their interpretation of that difference is based upon what they have learned. American history provides a difficult narrative to learn about people who are different from ourselves, especially if they are of a different skin color. On a daily basis, African American people face both overt and covert types of racism (DeVos and Banaji, 2005). Mid-20th century forms of racism that have been thoroughly documented and depicted in modern day movies like *Selma* are no longer accepted by most of mainstream society. However, in the present day, covert and internalized forms of racism are practiced by many well-meaning and progressive white people (Constantine & Sue, 2007). These brief and commonplace verbal, behavioral, and environmental indignities that communicate denigrating and negative messages to people of color are called *microaggressions* (Franklin, 1999; Sue, Capodilupo, Torino, Bucceri, Holder, Nadal, & Esquilin, 2007). Although the perpetrators of microaggressions may find them to be
inoffensive, they have insidious effects on people of color (Franklin, 1999). As we continue to create social contexts in the United States that are not immune to the racial issues of the past, college campuses serve as a microcosm of these environments. Furthermore, PWIs that recruit minorities in an effort to diversify their enrollment should be aware of the challenges that inherently face students of color on their campuses concerning microaggressions. Most white individuals that harbor negative and stereotypical thoughts about people of color are unaware of these thoughts (Constantine, 2007). This group includes young, progressive white college students who may find it difficult to escape the racial attitudes and beliefs of their forbearers (Sue, 2003). African American students at PWIs may experience difficulty in feeling accepted if the university does not make a concerted effort to make them feel welcome on campus. Microaggressions, by definition, serve to alienate people (Sue, et. al., 2007). As PWIs seek to figure out methods to help students of color feel as though they matter on campus, it is critical to understand the implications of microaggressions on these students.

**Mattering**

The construct of mattering is a reference to the self-concept with which an individual views himself as significant in his world and able to make a difference (Thomas, 2011). It is important to recognize that although mattering does share some similarities with self-esteem, it differs in regard to validation (Rosenberg and McCullough, 1991). Self-esteem is an external form of validation, whereas mattering is internal. The extent to which a person believes he or she matters can have a significant impact on their mental health (Elliott et al., 2004). Similarly, mental health professionals
consistently have reiterated the unique value of mattering among their students (Tovar, Simon & Lee, 2009). Mattering is considered lowest at points of transition due to the belief that when an individual is the newest member of a group, he or she is least worthy of attention (Schlossberg et al., 1989). Mattering on college campuses is essential for students to persist; higher education research that has found that relationships and participation in co-curricular activities (both strong sources of mattering on campus) are a major indicator of a student’s decision to remain in school (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Tinto, 1993).

**Racial/Ethnic Socialization**

Numerous messages concerning race are passed down to adolescents by their parents and others in the community. Some of these messages are positive and proactive, and some are ill-founded (Bentley-Edwards & Stevens Jr. 2016). This racial/ethnic socialization (R/ES) is utilized to prepare youth for the challenges they may face as a result of their race (Eberhardt, Goff & Purdie, 2004). This preparation does not preclude these youth from experiencing racism; however, multiple researchers have found that R/ES could provide protection from stress caused by racism and other life stresses (Bentley, Adams & Stevenson, 2009; Bynum, Burton & Best, 2007; Davis and Stevenson 2006). Indeed, the main objective of most R/ES is to protect youth from the harmful effects of racism (McKown and Strambler 2009). Gaining a better understanding of African American college students’ experiences with R/ES may help to explain the process by which they persevere even when exposed to microaggressions on PWIs.
African American Racial Identity

There have been multiple studies conducted on the racial identity of African Americans and the impact it has on their psychological functioning (Sellers, Rowley, Chavous, Shelton & Smith 1997). These studies have further associated racial identity with a range of outcomes, including but not limited to, academic performance (Taylor, Casten, Flickinger, Roberts, & Fulmore, 1994) and self-esteem (Parham & Helms, 1985; Rowley, Sellers, Chavous, & Smith, 1998).

Academic Motivation and Self Determination Theory

The academic motivation of African American students has been a major focus of researchers for many years (Coakley, 2003). More specifically, research has investigated the process by which academic motivation, or lack thereof, has contributed to the academic underachievement of African American students at PWIs (Ford, 1996).

Critical Race Theory

Based on the racially charged history of the United States, Critical Race Theory (CRT) provides an essential foundation for the current study. CRT can be summarized into seven specific elements, as put forward by Harper, Patton and Wooden (2009): (a) Racism is a normalized part of our everyday life, making it difficult to notice and address; (b) CRT refutes the idea of being “colorblind,” as it fails to recognize the institutionalized forms of racism that exist and further creates an environment in which only overt forms of racism are considered; (c) CRT values and gives credence to the unique perspectives of people of color who have unique and valuable experiences that are the result of living through the struggle for equality; (d) CRT recognizes a concept
termed “interest convergence”, a process by which whites only accept the movement of blacks toward equality when it serves to benefit their interests; (e) CRT works toward a “revisionist history,” which takes a more in depth look at history and considers the experiences of people of color in history, in addition to the common majoritarian view of history; (f) CRT is dependent upon “Racial Realism”, a concept that establishes the inherent purpose of racism as a mechanism for maintaining privilege and power of white people in the United States, and establishes slavery in the United States as the foundation of discrimination and prejudice, making it impossible to overlook in the consideration of modern day racism; and finally, (g) CRT maintains that there is a constant level of tension with the idea that this country is based upon a meritocracy. Rather, meritocracy is a concept that serves to bolster white supremacy, posing specific rebuttals to mainstream culture’s ideas about race, including, but not limited to the following: the idea that, by not acknowledging the importance of race, racism will be eliminated; racism is perpetrated mainly by people, not institutions; and racism can be eradicated separate from other oppressive practices, such as those exacted upon people in the LGBTQ community, and those who are exploited economically and through sexism. The current research seeks to gain a deeper understanding of how African American college students are able to persist at PWIs despite the experiences of racism. Critical Race Theory grounds the current research and acknowledges the seven aforementioned elements.

The Current Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was two-fold. First, this study explored the relationships of microaggressions, racial/ethnic socialization, African American racial
identity, academic motivation and mattering of African American students at PWIs. And
second, this investigation explores the potential moderating effects of racial/ethnic
socialization, African American racial identity, and academic motivation on the
relationship between microaggressions and mattering of African American students at
PWIs. The independent variables will be defined generally as follows: based on Sue and
colleagues’ (2007) definition, microaggressions are “brief and commonplace daily verbal,
behavioral, and environmental indignities, whether intentional or unintentional, that
communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative racial slights and insults that potentially
have harmful or unpleasant psychological impact on the target person or group” (p. 273).
The Multidimensional Model of Racial Identity will guide the interpretation of African
American racial identity, thus defined as an individual’s ideology they associate with
their identity, how they regard other African Americans, and the centrality of which they
consider their membership as an African American (Sellers et. al, 1997). Racial/Ethnic
socialization, outlined by Bentley-Edwards & Stevens Jr. (2016), will be defined as “the
transmission and acquisition of intellectual, affective, and behavioral skills toward the
protection and affirmation of racial self-efficacy.” (pg. 96). Academic motivation will be
defined as the driving forces behind a student’s desire to attain education in higher
education, whether internal, external or amotivational (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Deci,
Vallerand, Pelletier & Ryan 1991). Mattering (the dependent variable of this study) will
be defined following the description by Rosenberg and McCullough (1981) “Mattering is
a motive: the feeling that others depend on us, are interested in us, are concerned with our
fate, or experience us as an ego-extension exercises a powerful influence on our actions”
(p. 165).
Research Questions and Hypotheses. The current study seeks to gain more information about the journeys of African American college students at PWIs in regard to their experiences with microaggressions and mattering. To that end, the following research questions and a priori hypotheses are posed to learn about this journey and gain a deeper understanding:

**Research Question 1.** Do African American college students on PWIs experience racial microaggressions, and does their experience of racial microaggressions relate to mattering?

*Hypothesis 1.* Racial microaggressions will negatively relate to mattering.

**Research Question 2.** To what extent do African American students at PWIs experience racial/ethnic socialization, and how much do these experiences relate to microaggressions and mattering?

*Hypothesis 2.* Racial/ethnic socialization will positively relate to microaggressions and mattering.

**Research Question 3.** What types of academic motivation do African American college students endorse at PWIs, and how does their academic motivation relate to microaggressions and mattering?

*Hypothesis 3.* Intrinsic academic motivation will negatively relate to microaggressions and positively relate to mattering. Extrinsic academic motivation will
negatively relate to microaggressions and positively relate to mattering. Amotivation will negatively relate to microaggressions and mattering.

**Research Question 4.** Is Black Identity important to African American students on PWIs, and does their Black Identity relate to microaggressions and mattering?

**Hypothesis 4.** Black identity will positively relate to microaggressions and mattering.

**Research Question 5.** Does African American college students’ racial/ethnic socialization moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering?

**Hypothesis 5.** Racial/ethnic socialization will moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering.

**Research Question 6.** Does African American college students’ academic motivation moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering?

**Hypothesis 6.** Academic Motivation will moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering.

**Research Question 7.** Does African American college students’ Black Identity moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering?

**Hypothesis 7.** Black identity will moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering.
CHAPTER II

Review of Literature

There are compelling reasons to examine the journey of African American college students. In essence, through having a more relevant understanding of the academic and social challenges they face, we can seek to better serve all students. The needs and experiences of African American students have been given a reasonable amount of attention in the last two decades (Harper & Quaye, 2007). Furthermore the myriad of issues including, but not limited to, isolation, racism, and sociocultural challenges that these students face at PWIs have been highlighted in multiple studies (e.g., Sedlacek, 1987). It has been well documented that students who are engaged inside and outside of the classroom and believe they matter to the campus community tend to experience more positive student outcomes. Among these outcomes are increased intellectual and cognitive development (Kuh, 1985; Ory and Braskamp, 1988;) higher levels of moral and ethical development (Evans, 1987; Liddell and Davis, 1996), a more positive self-image, as well as being seen by others in a more positive light (Bandura, Peluso, Ortman, & Millard, 2000); and higher persistence rates (Bergen & Milem, 1999; Braxton, Mitchell & Dell 1992). These findings highlight the need for more studies that investigate African American students sense of mattering on campus. Previous studies have documented the benefits that engagement has on retention and other positive outcomes for African American students (Evans et. al., 1998; Harper, 2004; Cokley, 2001). When African American students decide to become engaged on campus, and then subsequently participate in campus activities, many are mindful about the purpose of their engagement
(Harper and Quaye, 2007). In many instances, these students are carrying the weight of generations of academic expectations. They are well aware of the lower graduation rates of their minority peers and they are not immune to the negative academic perceptions regarding African American students that their white fellow students and faculty members may harbor. Some of these African American students are expected to fully represent the aspirations and needs of their entire race. This can create significant stress and pressure on the individual.

**Operational Definition of Microaggressions**

Microaggressions are considered to be subtle forms of racism that people of color experience in a wide range of settings, including the work place and institutions of higher learning (Harwood, Hunt, Mendenhall & Lewis, 2012). This concept of microaggressions originated in the late 70’s from the work of Chester Pierce, an African American psychiatrist (Pierce, 1978). Pierce utilized this terminology to describe the relations between White and Black Americans post-civil rights era. The original definition proposed by Pierce was “subtle, stunning, often automatic, and nonverbal exchanges, which are ‘put downs’ of Blacks by offenders” (p. 66). Pierce recognized that overt forms of racism had become taboo, and more covert forms were being found as more acceptable among white Americans in mainstream society (Pierce, 1978). Although covert, these forms of racism still had an adverse effect. Multiple scholars have continued to research contemporary and covert forms of racism in the United States beyond the works of Pierce (Sue, Capodilupo, & Holder, 2008; McConahay, 1986; Pierce, 1978; Thompson & Neville, 1999). Clinical Psychologist Derald Sue and colleagues (2007) identified three
different types of microaggressions. These are (1) microassaults, which are intentionally and explicitly derogatory verbal or nonverbal attacks; (2) microinsults, which are rude and insensitive subtle put-downs of someone’s racial heritage or identity; and (3) microinvalidations, which are remarks that diminish, dismiss, or negate the realities and histories of People of Color (p. 274). The current study will employ the above definitions of types of microaggressions proposed by Sue and colleagues (2007).

**Microaggressions in Higher Education.** In seeking a deeper understanding of microaggressions, institutions of higher learning are prime areas of focus for research. Fueled by shifting demographics of the U.S. and educational policies designed to recruit students from underserved populations, many universities have experienced increased diversification of their student populations over the past two and a half decades (Feagin, Vera, and Imani, 1996). Despite the increase in diversity numbers and research that has demonstrated benefits of diversified PWIs, students of color experience the campus differently than their white counterparts (Harper & Hurtado, 2007; Rankin & Reason, 2005). Moreover, researchers have found that the racial environment of an institution can negatively affect academic performance and mental health, as well as contribute to high dropout rates for minority students (Allen, Epps, & Haniff, 1991; Carroll, 1998; Hurtado et al., 1998; Hurtado & Ponjuan, 2005; Smith, Allen, & Danley, 2007; Solórzano, Villalpando, & Oseguera, 2005; Worthington, Navarro, Loewy, & Hart, 2008). To date, the majority of research on racial microaggressions has been focused on the experiences of Asian Americans (Lin, 2010; Sue et al., 2007) and African Americans (Sue et al., 2008; Watkins, LaBarrie, & Appio, 2010) across multiple contexts. In one such study,
Solorzano, Ceja, and Yosso (2000) sought to apply the concept of racial microaggressions to understanding racial campus climates and bring attention to the way African American students experience these campuses. Students in this study reported experiencing a multitude of racially insensitive comments on campus and feeling responsible in certain instances for individually representing the perspective of their entire race (Solorzano et al. 2000). In a similar study that investigated campus climate, researchers found that African American students reported increased pressure to conform to stereotypes, more racial conflict, and less equitable treatment by staff teaching assistants and faculty than their white counterparts (Anics, Sedlacek, and Mohr, 2000). Watkins, Green, Goodson, Guuidry and Stanley (2007) reported that African American students’ experiences on predominantly white campuses “included stress related to cultural conflict, fitting in, help seeking, mistrust of the institution, acceptance, racism, social support and stigma” (p. 110). These studies establish the need to further explore the experiences of microaggressions of African American students in an attempt to understand how they are able to persist at PWIs, and furthermore to understand what other factors may contribute to their interpretation of campus climate.

**Operational Definition of Mattering**

Mattering was a concept initially described by sociologist Morris Rosenberg during the early 1980’s. Rosenberg and McCullough (1981) stated, “Mattering refers to the individual’s feeling that he or she counts, makes a difference . . .” (p. 163). This concept was further expanded in Schlossberg’s theory of college students’ mattering and marginality. She proposed that mattering is having the experience of others being
concerned with our future, depending on us and showing interest in us; whereas marginality is considered the opposite, feeling left out, unessential and rejected (Schlossberg, 1989). When people believe they are important and cared about, they are able to experience mattering in their relationships (Rosenberg, 1985; Rosenberg & McCullough, 1981). Mattering is highly important to an individual’s self-worth and helps establish a sense of relevance in the context of others, including friends, colleagues and family members (Mak & Marshal, 2004; Marshall, 2001; Rosenberg, 1985; Schieman & Taylor, 2001). As mattering evolved in the literature, researchers’ studies emphasized how imperative it is for an individual to feel important and significant in her or his life (Dixon Rayle, 2005, 2006; Elliott, Colangelo, & Gelles, 2005; Elliott, Kao, & Grant, 2004; Rosenberg, 1985; Schlossberg, 1989). After a brief hiatus from research on mattering, the concept re-emerged in the early 21st century as a psychosocial construct of importance with a renewed focus on studies involving younger and older adolescents, older adults, college students, couples, corporation employees, children and their fathers, medical residents, military cadets, and school counselors (Connolly & Myers, 2002; Dixon, Scheidegger, & McWhirter, 2009; Dixon Rayle, 2005, 2006; DixRayle & Chung, 2007; Elliott et al., 2004; Elliott et al., 2005; Mak & Marshal, 2004; Marshall, 2001; Myers & Bechtal, 2004; Powers, Myers, Tingle, & Powers, 2004; Schieman & Taylor, 2001; Taylor & Turner, 2001). The construct of mattering has been applied in psychological and nursing literature. One such study by Elliott, Colangelo and Gelles (2005) found that the perception of mattering to others had an influence on adolescents’ self-esteem and directly affected levels of depression. Moreover, a study by Marshall (2001), which included college and high school students, made a case for the importance
of perceived mattering in the establishment of global self-esteem. Considering the implications mattering may have on the mental health of adolescents and college students in transition, further exploration of mattering in higher education is warranted.

**Mattering and Higher Education.** Research has validated the significant role that nurturing school climates can play in increasing the academic and personal success of students from marginalized groups, such as African Americans and students with disabilities (Brown, Anfara, & Roney, 2004; Stewart, 2007). Furthermore, research has demonstrated that racially and ethnically diverse students’ sense of interpersonal mattering to others is related to several positive outcomes, including higher levels of social support and self-esteem, decreased levels of academic stress and depression, and increased psychosocial wellness and wellbeing (Dixon et al., 2009; Dixon Rayle, 2005; Dixon Rayle & Chung, 2007; Dixon Rayle & Myers, 2004; Marshall, 2001; Taylor & Turner, 2001). Evidence that student development of meaningful and positive relationships with peers and faculty members is theoretically and empirically linked to persistence toward graduation and degree attainment is extremely relevant for the present study (Astin, 1993; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). The present study focuses on African American students’ sense of mattering. A deeper understanding of the degree to which African American students believe they matter on campus may help explain the persistence of these students.

**Operational Definition of Racial/Ethnic Socialization**

Identity development is a critical aspect of adolescence (Erikson, 1968). Parents
and guardians play a major role in helping their children to develop a strong sense of identity by relaying values, behaviors, beliefs and norms (Eccles, 1993). More specifically, parents of racial/ethnic (R/E) minorities are additionally burdened by the need to impart positive R/E identities to their children in a society where negative stigmas and discrimination can be based primarily on R/E (Eccles, Wong, & Peck, 2006). The extent to which these students are able to overcome these trials can partly be attributed to their preparation to face these challenges. Many African American students have been taught unique strategies to help them deal with issues of race (Brown & Tylka, 2011; Sellers & Shelton, 2003). This is a process that researchers have termed racial/ethnic socialization (R/E S). For purposes of this study, RE/S will be operationally defined as a process by which African American college students are intentionally and unintentionally communicated messages and philosophies regarding race and ethnicity by their parents and others (Coard & Sellers, 2005). T. L. Brown and Krishnakumar (2007) conceptualize R/E S as two separate but related constructs: racial socialization and ethnic socialization.

Blackmon and Thomas (2014) draw a distinction between racial socialization and ethnic socialization: “Racial socialization is the process by which African American parents provide children with an understanding of ‘intergroup protocol’ when interacting with individuals from the majority culture. Ethnic socialization is the process by which African American parents communicate messages about ethnic identity and ‘intragroup protocol’ for interacting with other African Americans” (pg. 304). Due to the focus of the current study on the combination of these two types of socialization, a deeper explanation of each is essential to draw a distinction between the two.
**Racial Socialization.** Racial socialization messages include cross-racial relationships, coping with racism, and racial barrier awareness. Cross-racial relationship messages consist of parents and others convincing youth about the importance of interacting with and learning about other races. Coping with racism messages consist of providing youth with a blueprint of how to deal with racism when it happens. It is important to note that many parents take a ‘when, not if’ approach with this message. Racial barrier awareness messages consist of preparing and warning youth about barriers they will face as a result of their race. By providing youth with an understanding of barriers and methods of coping with racism, parents and others provide a cognitive schema with which their children can negotiate and conceptualize the challenges they will face (Blackmon and Thomas, 2014).

**Ethnic Socialization.** Ethnic socialization messages consist of imparting ethnic pride, African American history, African American heritage, African American cultural values and cultural embeddedness. Ethnic pride messages are comprised of encouraging African American youth to be proud of their African American identity. African American history messages entail teaching youth about African American history (e.g., segregation, the significance of Barack Obama and Martin Luther King Jr., etc.). African American cultural values messages consist of aiding African American youth in understanding the development of African American customs, practices and cultural mores. African American heritage messages include encouraging youth to celebrate their roots through activities and traditions (e.g., Kwanza and Black History month). Cultural embeddedness is comprised of displaying cultural artifacts and other African American
representations in the home (e.g., African American dolls, publications and art) (Blackmon and Thomas, 2014). When parents and others engage in encouraging youth to have self-pride and appreciate their African American culture, they help to buffer stigmatizing and discriminatory situations these youth may face (D. L. Brown & Tylka, 2011; Fischer & Shaw, 1999).

Racial/Ethnic Socialization and Higher Education. Anglin and Wade (2007) found a positive link between academic adjustment and racial socialization. African American college students, who are experiencing a critical developmental time in their lives, are apt to struggle with issues of race (Arnett, 2000). Racial socialization has been associated with resilience (D. L. Brown, 2008), positive mental health (Fischer & Shaw, 1999), approach-oriented coping strategies (Scott, 2003), and self-esteem (Constantine & Blackmon, 2002). Bynum, Burton, and Best (2007) found racial socialization as a moderator between psychological distress and racism. Moreover, previous research suggests that receiving racial socialization messages is related to racial identity development (Thompson, Anderson, & Bakeman, 2000) and positive academic adjustment in college (Anglin & Wade, 2007). In one study of black and white adolescents, researchers found that students who received more frequent messages regarding racial socialization were also more likely to report higher levels of academic self-efficacy (Hughes, Witherspoon, Rivas-Drake, & West-Bey, 2009). Furthermore, other researchers have found that student’s exposure to messages regarding equality and self-worth are associated with other positive academic outcomes (Nebbett, Philip, Cogburn, & Sellers, 2006). These racial socialization experiences prepare these students
to deal with discriminatory interactions, decreasing the impact of these instances. An example of this was demonstrated in a study by Neblett and colleagues (2008), who found that African American adolescents who experienced discrimination, but were also exposed to racial socialization, reported less engagement in problem behaviors and less perceived stress than their counterparts who were not exposed to racial socialization messages. Even though preparing children for situations in which they will be discriminated against is a major goal of racial socialization, African American parents may have other reasons to relay messages regarding race to their children such as instilling knowledge and pride about African American culture (Boykin & Toms, 1985).

Overall, recent studies have posed theoretical models developed to better understand the process by which R/E identity development is influenced by R/E socialization (e.g., Hughes, et. al, 2009; Murry, Berkel, Brody, Miller, & Chen, 2009). Murray and colleagues (2009) reported that children exposed to R/E socialization from their parents were less likely to internalize negative stereotypes about African Americans and demonstrated self-esteem and R/E pride (Neblett, Smalls, Ford, Nguyen, & Sellers, 2009).

**Operational Definition of Academic Motivation**

Coakley (2003) posits that Self Determination Theory (Coak; Deci & Ryan, 1985) has been overlooked as a non-attribution conceptualization for the academic motivation of African American students. SDT represents a range of perceived locus of causality for motivated behavior from more external forms considered to be control, in contrast to more internal forms, which are considered to be self-determined (Deci, Vallerand,
Pelletier & Ryan, 1991). Controlled behavior is regulated by extrinsic factors such as laws, regulations or consequences. Consider a student that chooses not to cheat on a test based on the fact that the professor has clearly stated academic fraud will result in an automatic dismissal from the class and a failing grade. This threat of consequences has served to control the behavior of the student. Another student in the class may choose to not cheat on the test because he feels like he should do his own work and take responsibility for the grade he earned no matter how much or little he decided to study. His behavior is self-determined, because it is regulated by intrinsic factors, or his internal beliefs about why cheating is wrong. Both students have chosen not to cheat, but for different external and internal reasons. Deci and colleagues (1991) in SDT have separated academic motivation into two categories, extrinsic and intrinsic, with three different types in each category. Extrinsic academic motivation involves being engaged academically for the purposes of accomplishing a goal. This category of academic motivation has three types. The first type, identified regulation, refers to behavior engaged in because it is internalized and valued. An example of this would be a student choosing to complete an internship because it is required to get into medical school. The student is engaged in this behavior and has incorporated it into their self, but mainly because it is a requirement for their overall goal, this making it extrinsically motivated (Deci et al., 1991). The second type, introjected regulation refers to engaging in a behavior because of internalized demands and rules. An example of this would be a student who chooses to turn in their homework on time, because they believe that completing work in a timely manner is a marker of being a conscientious student. The third type, external regulation, is engaging in a behavior because of an expected reward
or a threat of punishment. This is considered to be the least self-determined behavior. A student who turns in a homework assignment because it is required to participate in a field trip exemplifies this type of behavior. Intrinsic academic motivation is engaging in academic behaviors for the sake of learning (Deci et al., 1991). The first type is intrinsic motivation to know, this is being engaged in a behavior for the pure gratification that a student experiences when she learns something new. The second type is intrinsic motivation to accomplish. Behavior, which is driven by the feeling a student experiences when they are able to accomplish something. The third type is intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation, this is behavior engaged in because of the sensory arousal a student may experience when they learn something new. A student interested in biology may have these intrinsic experiences of motivation in a biology lab as they learn about science and gain more knowledge about their major. Deci and colleagues (1991) describe students who engage in academic behavior without any purpose as being amotivated. These students consider their behavior to be directly driven by outside factors. It is essential to gain a deeper understanding of the process by which African American students on PWIs are academically motivated.

**Academic Motivation and Higher Education.** African American students are faced with an array of factors that contribute to their academic motivation and academic success, including school environment (Brand, Felner, Shim, Seitsinger, & Dumas, 2003; Cohen, McCabe, Michelli, & Pickeral, 2009; Zullig, Koopman, Patton, & Ubbes, 2010). Research has demonstrated that African American students may differ in motivation compared to other students (Graham, 1994). Coakley (2003) investigated the motivations
of African American students and found them to be more extrinsically motivated than their white counterparts. Moreover, Coakley (2003) found that the intrinsic motivation of African American students was positively related to self-esteem, but not GPA; whereas for white students their intrinsic motivation was positively related to GPA and not self-esteem. A qualitative study conducted in a Chicago area school chosen for their evidenced success with their students reported that teachers and administrators focused on extrinsic forms of motivation such as celebrating academic achievements of other students and highlighting unique contributions of prominent African Americans (Pressley, Raphael, Gallagher, & DiBella 2002). This finding is consistent with other research that illustrates racial identity as a component that is linked the academic motivation of African American students (Coakley, 2001).

**Racial Identity vs. Ethnic Identity**

There are often misconceptions about the similarities between racial and ethnic identity. Researchers should be clear about the type of identity they intend to study (Helms, 2007). Ethnic identity is focused on self-identification; conversely, racial identity represents an incorporation of the influence that social oppression through an antiracism paradigm illuminates (e.g., Helms, 1990; Helms & Talleyrand, 1997). Models addressing racial identity are more specific to race (i.e., Cross, 1971; Helms, 1990), whereas ethnic identity principals have multiple racial and ethnic group applications (Phinney, 1989, 1996). In summation, racial identity research has aimed to account for intergroup relations, internalized stereotypes, and social structures (Helms, 1990), but ethnic identity does not emphasize those areas over other considerations (Phinney, 1996). Coakley
(2005) states the importance of drawing the distinction: “If race and ethnicity should be
treated as separate yet related constructs, so too should racial identity and ethnic identity”
(p. 518). For the purposes of the current study, we will focus on racial identity. In order
to provide an orientation to racial identity, a brief account of some of the similarities and
differences between racial identity and ethnic identity will be reviewed.

**African American Racial Identity.** Cross (1995) proposed a definition of racial
identity that included personal characteristics that cut across ethnicity, race, and gender
and culture and the cultural norms shared by groups of people. He theorized that
development of racial identity was facilitated through socialization (Cross, 1995). He put
forth four stages of identity formation: pre-encounter, encounter, immersion-emersion
and internalization. Individuals in the pre-encounter stage experience low salience
attitudes toward race and believe that it has a limited, mostly physical role in their daily
journeys. In the encounter stage, an individual is faced with multiple instances in which
they are forced to begin to recognize their race as instrumental to their development.
These interactions and events can be positive and negative and serve to push the
individual toward a deeper understanding of their racial heritage. The combination of
these processes moves the individual toward constructing a new frame of reference, while
simultaneously deconstructing their existing frame. In the immersion-emersion stage,
individuals demonize white culture and white people and immerse themselves in
activities that represent blackness. In the final stage, internalization stage, a person works
toward reconciling the cognitive dissonance created by the duality of the prior two stages
to find peace in the pride they find in their identification with their race (Cross, 1995).
**Operational Definition of African American Racial Identity**

The depth of research concerning racial identity has produced numerous theories and operational definitions, some which are contradictory (Sellers, Rowley, Chavous, Shelton & Smith 1997). In order to streamline and accommodate these inconsistencies the Multidimensional Model of Racial Identity (MMRI) was developed (Sellers, Rowley, Chavous, Shelton & Smith 1997). This approach is closely connected to identity theory in that it considers identities as hierarchical and situational (Stryker & Serpe, 1994). Thus, MMRI poses race as one of African Americans many roles and identities. There is a lack of consensus in the research on exactly what the meaning of being “African American” is, and therefore MMRI does not put forth any specific set of behaviors or attitudes (Sellers et al., 1997). MMRI proposes four dimensions of racial identity. These are (a) Salience, which refers to the degree to which a person, at a given time considers race a relevant part of her self-concept; (b) Centrality, which represents the degree to which a person defines himself with regard to race, normatively; (c) Ideology, which is a combination of the opinions, attitudes and beliefs an individual holds concerning the way he believes people of his race should act; and (d) Regard, which is a reference to evaluative and affective judgment of a person’s race (Sellers et al., 1997). For the purposes of the current research centrality, ideology and regard will be considered because the extent to which an individual identifies with their racial group is hypothesized to be associated with the influence of racial microaggressions as well as an African American student’s sense of mattering on a campus in which the race identified has minority status.
**Racial Identity and Higher Education.** The post-secondary years spent in college are considered to be a highly important time for identity development. Butler (1991) and Willie (2003) focused on the strong influence of peers within an educational community on this process. PWIs present a unique challenge in this regard concerning racial identity development due to the fact that they are not culturally neutral environments (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1977; Levinson and Holland, 1996; & Luttrrell, 1996). These college campuses are no different than American society, which espouses white dominance as the norm (Fine, 1997; Powell, 1997; Winant, 1997). Research studies on well-established sense of racial identity have yielded associations with multiple positive outcomes including increased moral reasoning (Moreland & Leach, 2001), self-esteem (Oyserman, Harrison, & Bybee, 2001), intercultural competence and maturity (King & Baxter-Magolda, 2005), institutional commitment (Dovidio, Gaertner, Niemann, & Snider, 2001), and academic achievement (Ortiz & Santos, 2009). Despite many positive outcomes, strong racial identity can have disadvantages if the environment for people within that race on campus are marginalized or discriminated against (Cameron, 2004).

**Moderators**

Due to the negative impact microaggressions have been found to have on the individuals that experience them, the current study seeks to explore potential moderating variables. A moderating variable, when present, may impact the relationship between two related variables. The following section proposes potential moderating effects of racial/ethnic socialization, academic motivation and African American racial identity on
the relationship between microaggressions and mattering.

**Racial/Ethnic Socialization.** As students are prepared to face racism and navigate challenges that await them within and outside of their cultural group, they learn more about how their race and ethnicity interact within the greater society. Racial/ethnic socialization may potentially moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering by creating increased awareness. Reynolds, Gonzales-Backen, Allen, Hurley, Donovan, Schwartz, & Williams, (2017) found ethnic racial socialization as a protective factor against negative mental health of African American students. Students with an increased awareness through racial/ethnic socialization may still face microaggressions, but potentially maintain a sense of mattering due to being prepared by their support system to recognize and deal with these challenges.

**Academic Motivation.** Academic motivation serves as the reason that students choose to engage in their studies (Deci & Ryan, 1991). Based on Self-Determination Theory (SDT), students with more internal forms of motivation are more likely to successfully persist in school with better outcomes (Coakley, 2003). Thus, more intrinsic forms of academic motivation could potentially moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering, by serving as a deeper connection for the student to their reasoning for choosing to attend school in spite of experiencing subtle forms of racism. Extrinsic academic motivation may also moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering albeit less than intrinsic. Regarding amotivation, due to an overall lack of motivation, students who face microaggressions who are a motivated may experience a decreased sense of mattering.
**African American Racial Identity.** Increased African American racial identity development has been linked to increased self-esteem, improved self-concept and more positive academic outcomes (Oyserman, Harrison and Bybe, 2001). As a potential moderator of microaggressions and mattering, increased African American racial identity may serve as a buffer against the effects of microaggressions in turn allowing African American students to maintain higher levels of mattering in the face of subtle forms of racism.
CHAPTER III

Research Design and Methodology

Methods

Participants

A nonrandom sample of 108 African American students currently enrolled as undergraduates at three predominantly white Midwestern institutions in the United States were recruited for the study. African American was operationally defined as having one or more biological parents of African American descent. Recruitment took place over a year and a half period. Students were solicited by fliers, word of mouth and snow-ball sampling, a method in which future participants can be recruited by current participants that are participating in a study (Browne, 2005). Of the 108 participants, 18 were excluded after failing to meet full criteria for the survey. Of the 90 participants that began the survey, only 77 met full completion criteria. With regard to additional demographics of the sample, 100% of the students identified as African American, 57% of the participants identified as female and 40% identified as male, 2% of the sample participants identified as non-binary and 1% percent preferred to not select a choice.

Procedure

Permission was obtained from the universities’ respective Institutional Review Boards prior to collecting data. The researcher sent out numerous preliminary emails that
described the aims of the study to organizations designed to provide social and academic services to African American students on the campuses. Additional participants from programs at the universities designed to support minority students were also recruited. The researcher also recruited participants through registered student organizations that are traditionally supportive of minority students (i.e. historically black fraternities and sororities and African American Student government body). Finally, the researcher employed snowball sampling, soliciting the support of participants to assist in recommending friends who were willing to participate in the study. Students who chose to participate in the study were directed to a unique URL, where they found the survey. An online survey mechanism called Qualtrics was utilized to ensure the standardization of each survey. Students were prompted to read and sign the informed consent. Upon completing the informed consent, students were asked a series qualifying questions to determine if they fit the criteria for the study. If students failed to answer these questions correctly, they were re-directed to a screen thanking them for their time. Students who fit the study criteria were then asked to complete the battery of surveys. At the end of the survey Students were prompted to enter their email address in order to be compensated with a $5 Amazon gift card, which was sent to them electronically. The online survey mechanism provided anonymity to students who chose to participate in the study.

**Instruments**

**Microaggressions.** Racial microaggressions were assessed with the Inventory of Microaggressions Against Black Individuals (IMABI; Mercer, Zeigler-Hill, Wallace & Hayes, 2011). The IMABI includes 14 items that measure perceptions and experiences of
covert forms of racism. Participants were asked to “Indicate whether you have experienced each event DURING THE LAST YEAR ON CAMPUS and how much the event upset you if you experienced it.” The IMABI measures seven different aspects of racial microaggressions: (1) Myth of meritocracy is the belief that minorities are given equal and ample opportunities to be as successful as those of the majority culture (e.g., “Someone told me that everyone can get ahead if they work hard, when I described a difficulty related to my racial/ethnic background”); (2) Assumption of inferior status is the belief that minorities are inferior to those of the majority culture (e.g., “I was treated like I was of inferior status because of my racial/ethnic background”); (3) Assumption of superiority of white cultural values is the belief that the cultural values of the majority culture are superior to and to be valued more than the values of the minority culture (e.g., “I was made to feel as if the cultural values of another race/ethnic group were better than my own”); (4) Ascription of intelligence is the belief that minorities are inherently less intelligent than people of the majority culture (e.g., “I was mad to feel that my achievements were primarily due to preferential treatment based on my race/ethnic background”); (5) Assumption of criminality is the belief that minorities are prone to criminal behavior (e.g., “I was treated as if I was a potential criminal because of my race/ethnic background”); (6) Assumed universality of ethnic minority experiences is the belief that all minorities share the same life experiences (“Someone asked my opinion as a representative of my race/ethnic background”); and (7) Denial of individual racism/color blindness is the act of depriving minorities of their cultural experience and uniqueness by claiming to acknowledge no recognition of color and denying any racist
beliefs as a result (e.g., “Someone made a statement to me that they are not racist or prejudice because they have friends from different racial/ethnic backgrounds”).

Each item on the IMABI is rated on a 5-point scale (0= This has never happened to me; 1= This event happened but I was not upset; 2= This event happened and I was slightly upset; 3= This event happened and I was moderately upset; 4= This event happened to me and I was extremely upset). This scale is a combination of frequency and severity of an emotional response. Items are keyed in a positive direction, meaning that a higher score denotes more frequent and/or more severe experiences with microaggressions.

The IMABI was validated by comparing scores from the measure to scores from the Index of Race Related Stress (Utsey, 1999). The internal consistency of the IMABI compared to this index was .94 in an African American undergraduate sample (Mercer et al., 2011). Moreover, scores were examined in conjunction with other constructs linked with racial and ethnic identity, including emotional distress (Pieterse & Careter, 2010), general perceptions of life stress (Utsey and Ponterotto, 1996), emotional distress (Pieterse & Careter, 2010), and racial and ethnic identity (Rollins and Valdez, 2006).

**Mattering.** Mattering will be measured by the College Mattering Inventory (CMI; Tovar, Simon & Lee, 2009). The CMI was designed to closely align with the past research from Rosenberg and McCullough (1981) and Schlossberg (1989). Tover, Simon & Lee (2009) state “we proposed a construct definition of mattering that incorporated the following themes: being the object of attention of others (faculty, counselors/ advisors,
students), perception of support in various student endeavors by others (faculty, counselors/advisors, students), supportive learning environment, sense of fit within the college, and perceived marginality owing to personal characteristics (pg. 159). Respondents use a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranges from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much) to answer questions. The CMI started with 55 questions, however after multiple iterations six factors emerged with 34 questions accounting for 48.2%. The final Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .94, and Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant, $\chi^2(666, n = 1,577) = 26,301, p < .001$ (Tovar, Simon & Lee, 2009). Factor One, General College Mattering, which included (8 Items) (e.g., “There are people on campus who are sad for me when I fail in something I set out to do”) and accounted for 9.94% of the variance. Factor Two, Mattering Versus Marginality, which included (7 Items) (e.g., “Sometimes I feel alone at the college”), accounted for 9.52% of the variance. Factor Three, Mattering to Counselors (or advisors) included (5 items) (e.g., “My counselor is generally receptive to what I have to say”), and accounted for 8.34% of the variance. Factor Four, Mattering to Instructors, Included (7 items) (e.g., “Sometimes my instructors simply do not listen to what I have to say”), and accounted for 7.85% of the variance. Factor Five, Mattering to Students, which included (4 items) (e.g., “Some students are dependent on my guidance or assistance to help them succeed”), accounted for 7.43% of the variance. Factor Six Perception of Value, which included (3 items) (e.g., It is comforting to know that my contributions are valued by my instructors”), accounted for 5.12% of the variance. Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient of internal consistency reliability was reported as follows: Total Mattering Scale, $\alpha = .91$; General College Mattering, $\alpha = .89$; Mattering Versus Marginality, $\alpha = .83$; Mattering to Counselors, $\alpha = .84$; Mattering
to Instructors, $\alpha = .76$; Mattering to Students, $\alpha = .77$; and Perception of Value, $\alpha = .72$ (Tovar, Simon & Lee, 2009). Convergent Validity of the CMI was assessed and confirmed by utilizing the Sense of Belonging Scale (Hoffman et al., 2002–2003).

**Racial Ethnic Socialization.** The Cultural and Racial Experiences of Socialization (CARES) was created utilizing racial/ethnic socialization R/ES theory as a foundation (Stevenson 2014), the CARES measures the frequency of R/ES messages (Bentley-Edwards & Stevens Jr., 2016). The CARES poses the question “Has someone said to you any of the following statements throughout your lifetime?” The respondent must then endorse a response that accurately describes their level of exposure to that item, 1-Never, 2-Sometimes, or 3-All of the Time. The CARES was normed on 373 Black college students. The original CARES had 74 items, but after realizing issues with the length was reduced down to 53 items. After an analyses of skewness, kurtosis, redundancy, and face value, all but three items that did not have correlations of .30 or above were removed. Although this process reduced the CARES to 53-items, the reliability of ($\alpha = .93$) was preserved for the pilot sample (Bentley-Edwards & Stevens Jr., 2016). After performing an Exploratory Factor Analysis a five-factor solution emerged accounting for 33.6% of the variance. This yielded a 35 item CARES. The five factors that emerged are Racial Protection (e.g., “Whites make it hard for people to get ahead in this world”) 10 Items; ($\alpha = .82; M = 2.27$), Cultural Insights (e.g., “Spiritual battles that people fight are more important than physical battles”) 4 items; ($\alpha = .64$), Racial Stereotyping (“Poor Black people are always looking for a handout”) 10 items; ($\alpha = .79; M = 1.95$), Bicultural Coping (e.g., “You can’t trust Black people who act too
friendly with White people”) 5 Items; ($\alpha = .66; M = 1.52$) and Old School Cultural Thinking 6 Items; ($\alpha = .68; M = 1.96$); these factors align with the complex and multidimensional aspects of R/ES. The 35 item CARES demonstrated strong reliability, ($\alpha = .89; M = 2.01$).

**Academic Motivation.** Academic motivation will be measured by the Academic Motivation Scale, a scale first developed in French and then translated into English for use with College students (AMS; (Vallerand, Pelletier, Blais, Briere, Senecal, & Vallieres, 1992). The Academic Motivation Scale (AMS; Vallerand et al. 1992) is a 28-item scale that measures intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation. Respondents are asked to respond to the question “Why do you go to college?” These questions use a 7-point scale ranging from (1=does not correspond at all) to (7=corresponds exactly). The scale has seven subscales with four items in each. The three intrinsic motivation subscales are Intrinsic Motivation to Know (IMTK), Intrinsic Motivation to Accomplish (IMTA) and Intrinsic Motivation to Experience Stimulation (IMTES). The three extrinsic motivation subscales are Extrinsic Motivation External Regulation (EMER), Extrinsic Motivation Introjected Motivation (EMIN) and Extrinsic Motivation Identified Regulation (EMID). There is one subscale of Amotivation (AM). The AMS was found to be internally consistent with values ranging from .83 to .86 for the seven subscales (Vallerand et al. 1992). Construct validity was established through correlations between motivational antecedents and the correlations of the subscales (Vallerand, Pelletier, Blais, Briere, Senecal, & Vallieres, 1993). Construct validity of the
intrinsic and extrinsic subscales was further bolstered by correlations of the subscales with self-actualization, optimism and academic performance (Vallerand et al. 1993).

**African American Racial Identity.** The current study will use the Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (*Sellers et al., 1997*), to measure three out of the four racial identity dimensions described in the Multidimensional Model of Racial Identity. These are 1) Centrality, which represents the degree to which a person defines himself with regard to race, normatively. 2) Ideology a combination of the opinions, attitudes and beliefs an individual holds concerning the way he believes people of his race should act. 3) Regard is a reference to evaluative and affective judgment of a person’s race (*Sellers et al., 1997*). Participants will be asked to respond to 51 items using a 7-point Likert-type scale, which ranges from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Their answer to each question represents the extent to which they agree with each statement. There are three scales within the MIBI. These are Centrality, (8 item scale) (e.g., “In general, being Black is an important part of my self-image”); Private Regard (7 item scale) (e.g., “I feel that Blacks have made major accomplishments and advancements”); and the Ideology scale, which is made up of (9 item scale) subscales: Nationalist (e.g., It is important for Black people to surround their children with Black art, music and literature.) Humanist (e.g. Blacks should have the choice to marry interracially.), Oppressed Minority (e.g. The same forces which have led to the oppression of Blacks have also led to the oppression of other groups and Assimilationist (e.g. Because America is predominantly White, it is important that Blacks go to White schools so that they can gain experience interacting with Whites. For each scale and
subscale a mean total score is determined. Due to the focus of the current study the Cronbach’s Alpha scores for African American students at PWIs will be the focus. These values are Centrality $a=.78$ ($M=5.23$, $SD = 1.14$), Private Regard $a=.55$ ($M=6.38$, $SD=.59$), Assimilation $a=.66$ ($M= 5.16$, Humanist $a=70$, Oppressed Minority $a=.76$, and Nationalist $a=.79$ (Sellers et al, 1997). In order to provide support for the three factor structure used in the three dimensions of the MIBI (i.e., Ideology, Centrality and Regard) a factor analysis was performed for the entire sample and yielded results of .86, .83, and .61 respectively for the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test on the appropriateness of the factor analysis of the MIBI.

**Data Analysis**

After data were collected, correlations and multiple regressions were conducted. A description follows of how each research question will be statistically addressed.

**Research Question 1.** Do African American college students on PWIs experience racial microaggressions and does their experience of racial microaggressions relate to mattering?

Descriptive statistics were used to answer this research question. Specifically, the mean and standard deviation of the scores on the IMABI were used to describe the existence of microaggressions on campus. In order to determine the potential relationships between microaggressions and mattering a Pearson Product Moment correlation was utilized to investigate significance.
**Research Question 2.** To what extent do African American student at PWIs experience racial/ethnic socialization and how much do these experiences relate to microaggressions and mattering?

Descriptive statistics were used to answer this research question. Specifically, the means and standard deviations of the scores on the CARES were used to describe the racial ethnic socialization experienced by the students in the sample. In order to determine the potential relationships between racial ethnic socialization, mattering and microaggressions a Pearson Product Moment correlation was utilized to investigate significance.

**Research Question 3.** What types of academic motivation do African American college students endorse at PWIs and how does their academic motivation relate to microaggressions and mattering?

Descriptive statistics were used to answer this research question. Specifically, the means and standard deviations of the scores on the AMS-C were used to describe the types of academic motivation experienced by the students in the sample. In order to determine the potential relationships between academic motivation, mattering and microaggressions a Pearson Product Moment correlation was utilized to investigate significance.

**Research Question 4.** Is Black Identity important to African American students on PWIs and does their Black Identity relate to microaggressions and mattering?
Descriptive statistics were used to answer this research question. Specifically, the means and standard deviations of the scores on the MIBI were used to describe the dimensions of Black Identity that were most important to the students in the sample. In order to determine the potential relationships between Black identity, mattering and microaggressions a Pearson Product Moment correlation was utilized to investigate significance.

**Research Question 5.** Does African American college students’ racial/ethnic socialization moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering?

To test for moderating effects in Research Question 5, multiple regression analyses were conducted (Aiken & West, 1991). Significant relationships reported in Research Question 1, between microaggressions and mattering were utilized to test Research Question 5, as moderation can only take place if there is an established relationship between two variables.

**Research Question 6.** Does African American college students’ academic motivation moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering?

To test for moderating effects in Research Question 6, multiple regression analyses were conducted (Aiken & West, 1991). Significant relationships reported in Research Question 1, between microaggressions and mattering were utilized to test Research Question 6, as moderation can only take place if there is an established relationship between two variables.
**Research Question 7.** Does African American college students’ Black Identity moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering?

To test for moderating effects in Research Question 7, multiple regression analyses were conducted (Aiken & West, 1991). Significant relationships reported in Research Question 1, between microaggressions and mattering were utilized to test Research Question 7, as moderation can only take place if there is an established relationship between two variables.
CHAPTER IV

Results

The following chapter will provide a summary of the analyses and results used to explore the research questions proposed in the study. Data screening also will be discussed. Generally, Research Questions 1 through 4 will explore frequencies and correlational relationships of the study variables; Research Questions 5 through 7 will explore selected moderating effects of these variables. Research Question 1 will explore the existence of microaggressions on the campuses of the students in the study, as well as the extent to which the students in the sample believe they matter on campus. The potential relationship that may exist between microaggressions and mattering will also be explored. Research Question 2 will explore the extent to which students in the sample report they have been racially/ethnically socialized by their support system prior to attending school, in addition to the potential relationship that may exist between racial/ethnic socialization, microaggressions and mattering. Research Question 3 will explore the academic motivation of the students from the sample, as well as the potential relationship that may exist between academic motivation, microaggressions and mattering. Research Question 4 will explore to which dimensions of Black Identity the students in the study ascribe, in addition to the potential relationship that may exist between the dimensions of Black Identity, microaggressions and mattering. Research Question 5 will utilize a series of linear regressions to examine potential moderating effects of racial/ethnic socialization on the relationship between microaggressions and
mattering. Research Question 6 will utilize a series of linear regressions to examine potential moderating effects of academic motivation on the relationship between microaggressions and mattering. Research Question 7 will utilize a series of linear regressions to examine potential moderating effects of Black Identity on the relationship between microaggressions and mattering.

**Data Screening**

In order to assess for outliers, a univariate outlier analysis was conducted using SPSS version 24.0 (IBM Corp., 2016). No outliers were found in the data. Furthermore, dependent variable measures revealed a normal distribution of scores regarding skewness and kurtosis. Table 4.1 provides descriptive statistics and correlations for the measures utilized in the study. A power analysis done at The Nebraska Evaluation and Research (NEAR) Center suggested collecting data from 269 participants. Nevertheless, limited access to students fitting the study criteria and lack of motivation to complete the survey protocol significantly stymied data collection. Therefore, interpretation of the results of the present study should consider the challenges that exist when utilizing a small sample, the amplified impact of outliers and/or extreme scores on a small sample, the possibility of the sample representing an extreme group, and inability to derive causality from the correlations found in the results (Runyon, et. al., 1996).
Table 4.1

**Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations for Measures**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<th>7</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>1.95</td>
<td>.94</td>
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<td>2. CMI</td>
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<td>3. CARES</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>.277</td>
<td>.278*</td>
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<td><strong>Academic Motivation Subscales</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. AM</td>
<td>77</td>
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<td>1.44</td>
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<td>.026</td>
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<td>5. EMER</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. EMIN</td>
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<td>.193</td>
<td>.213</td>
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<td>.679**</td>
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<td>7. EMID</td>
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<td>.625**</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. IMTK</td>
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<td>.657**</td>
<td>.568**</td>
<td>.724**</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. IMTES</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>.255**</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.135</td>
<td>-.270*</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>.382**</td>
<td>.305**</td>
<td>.506**</td>
<td></td>
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<td>10. IMTA</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>.160</td>
<td>.231*</td>
<td>.157</td>
<td>-.313**</td>
<td>.504**</td>
<td>.669**</td>
<td>.534**</td>
<td>.688**</td>
<td>.597**</td>
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</table>

*Note.* *p* < .05; **p** < .01. Inventory of Microaggressions Against Black Individuals (IMABI) 0= *This has never happened to me*; 1= *This event happened but I was not upset*; 2= *This event happened and I was slightly upset*; 3= *This event happened and I was moderately upset*; 4= *This event happened to me and I was extremely upset*. College Mattering Inventory (CMI), 1= *not at all* to 5= *very much*. The Cultural and Racial Experiences of Socialization (CARES), 1= *Never*, 2= *Sometimes*, or 3= *All of the Time*. Subscales from the Academic Motivation Scale-28 College. Responses range from 1= *strongly disagree* to 7= *strongly agree*. Amotivation Subscale (AM) Extrinsic Motivation Emotion Regulation Subscale (EMER). Extrinsic Motivation Introjected Subscale (EMIN). Extrinsic Motivation Identified Regulation Subscale (EMID). Intrinsic Motivation to Know (IMTK) Intrinsic Motivation to Experience Stimulation (IMTES). Intrinsic Motivation to Accomplish Subscale (IMTA).
Research Question 1: Do African American college students on PWIs experience racial microaggressions and do their experience of racial microaggressions relate to mattering?

First, the reliability of the Instrument of Microaggressions Against Black Individuals was explored. Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient of internal consistency reliability for the IMABI was $\alpha = .89$, indicating an acceptable level of reliability. The mean score on the IMABI for the sample was ($M = 1.95$, $SD = .94$), indicating that microaggressions indeed have occurred within the sample. Each item on the IMABI is rated on a 5-point scale ($0 = \text{This has never happened to me}$; $1 = \text{This event happened but I was not upset}$; $2 = \text{This event happened and I was slightly upset}$; $3 = \text{This event happened and I was moderately upset}$; $4 = \text{This event happened to me and I was extremely upset}$). This scale is a combination of frequency and severity of an emotional response.

The College Mattering Inventory (CMI) internal consistency reliability obtained for the study was also found to be acceptable ($\alpha = .84$). The internal reliability of the subscales for the CMI were also acceptable for this sample: General Mattering Subscale (GMS; $\alpha = .85$); the Mattering Versus Marginality Subscale (MVMS, $\alpha = .83$); the Mattering to Counselors Subscale (MTCS; $\alpha = .82$); the Mattering to Students Subscale (MSS; $\alpha = .72$); and the Mattering Perception of Value Subscale (POVS; $\alpha = .70$). The College Mattering Inventory uses a 5-point scale, ranging from $1 = \text{not at all}$ to $5 = \text{very much}$. Students are asked to endorse statements that represent the extent to which they believe they matter on campus. The students in the sample scored the highest on the POVS ($M = 3.97$, $SD = .87$). The POVS determines how much students believe others on campus value their involvement and contributions. Students in the sample scored the lowest on the MVMS ($M = 3.05$, $SD = .98$). The MVMS is an indicator of perception of fit and belongingness on campus. Higher scores on this subscale represent a belief that
students matter on campus, in contrast low scores on this subscale represent a perception. Table 4.2 presents additional scores from the sample.

Table 4.2

Means, Standard Deviations and Sample Cronbach’s Alpha Values for College Mattering and Microaggressions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale/Subscale</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cronbach’s α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full Scales</td>
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<tr>
<td>IMABI</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>.89</td>
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<tr>
<td>CMI</td>
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<td>3.40</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.84</td>
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<tr>
<td>CMI Subscales</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GMS</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTCS</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTIS</td>
<td>77</td>
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<tr>
<td>MTSS</td>
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<td>3.15</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MVMS</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POVS</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Inventory of Microaggressions Against Black Individuals (IMABI), 0 = This has never happened to me; 1 = This event happened but I was not upset; 2 = This event happened and I was slightly upset; 3 = This event happened and I was moderately upset; 4 = This event happened to me and I was extremely upset. Subscales from the College Mattering Inventory 1 = not at all to 5 = very much: General Mattering Subscale (GMS), Mattering to Counselors Subscale (MTCS), Mattering to Instructors Subscale (MTIS), Mattering to Students Subscale (MTSS), Mattering Versus Marginality (MVMS), and Perception of Value Subscale (POVS).

Results of the Pearson correlations indicated a significant negative relationship between microaggressions and mattering versus marginality, \( r(75) = -0.273, p = 0.016 \) and mattering to instructors, \( r(75) = -0.485, p < 0.001 \). Results indicated a significant positive relationship between microaggressions and perception of value, \( r(75) = 0.284, p = 0.012 \). Table 4.2 presents additional correlation coefficients.

In summary, to answer the first research question, microaggressions were present in the sample, meaning that students in the study had experienced subtle forms of racism on campus. These results ranged from experiencing no microaggressions at all to experiencing microaggressions and being moderately upset by the experience. The majority of students in the sample experienced microaggressions and were slightly upset by them. Furthermore,
experiencing microaggressions negatively related to students’ perceptions that, (1) their instructors support them inside and outside of the classroom, and (2) they fit in and belong on campus; and positively related to students’ perception that others on campus value their contributions and involvement. Additional correlations for the IMABI and CMI can be found in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>GMS</th>
<th>MTCS</th>
<th>MTIS</th>
<th>MTSS</th>
<th>MVMS</th>
<th>POVS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IMABI</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>.089</td>
<td>-.485*</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>-.273*</td>
<td>.284**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *p < .05; **p < .01. Inventory of Microaggressions Against Black Individuals (IMABI), 0= This has never happened to me; 1= This event happened but I was not upset; 2= This event happened and I was slightly upset; 3= This event happened and I was moderately upset; 4= This event happened and I was extremely upset. College Mattering Inventory (CMI), 1= not at all) to 5= very much: General Mattering Subscale (GMS), Mattering to Counselors Subscale (MTCS), Mattering to Instructors Subscale (MTIS), Mattering to Students Subscale (MTSS), Mattering Versus Marginality (MVMS), and Perception of Value Subscale (POVS).

Research Question 2: To what extent do African American students at PWIs experience racial/ethnic socialization, and how much do these experiences relate to microaggressions and mattering?

Reliability for the Cultural and Racial Ethnic Socialization (CARES) obtained in the study was found to be acceptable (\(\alpha = .85\)).

Three of the five subscales for the CARES were found to possess acceptable reliability for the study sample (\(\alpha \geq .50\)). Alpha coefficients were the following: Racial Protection Subscale, \(\alpha = .78\); Racial Stereotyping Subscale, \(\alpha = .79\); Old School Basics Subscale, \(\alpha = .44\); Bicultural Coping Subscale, \(\alpha = .48\); and Cultural Insight Subscale, \(\alpha = .56\). According to Ramayah (2011), Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient values of more than 0.7 are considered good but
values of more than 0.5 are acceptable. Due to inadequate reliability for the Old School Basics and Bicultural Coping Subscales, these scales were omitted from additional data analysis. The CARES utilizes a three point scale, \(1=\text{Never}, 2=\text{Sometimes}, \text{ or } 3=\text{All of the Time}\) and asks students to endorse the frequency which they have heard certain messages that represent different types of racial ethnic socialization. Students in sample scored the highest on the Racial Protection subscale \(M = 2.6, SD = .32\). The RPS measures the frequency of receiving positive affirmations regarding a student’s race, messages that raise awareness about racism, and ways to cope with it. The lowest subscale score from the sample was on the Bicultural Coping subscale \(M = 1.71 SD = .40\). The BCS represents the transmission of messages of how to navigate mainstream society and assimilate. Table 4.4 presents additional scores.

Table 4.4

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
\text{Scale/Subscale} & N & M & SD & \text{Cronbach’s } \alpha \\
\hline
\text{Full Scale} & & & & \\
\text{CARES} & 87 & 2.20 & .27 & .85 \\
\hline
\text{Subscales} & & & & \\
\text{RPS} & 87 & 2.60 & .32 & .78 \\
\text{RSS} & 87 & 2.03 & .42 & .79 \\
\text{OSBS*} & 87 & 2.28 & .35 & .44 \\
\text{BCS*} & 87 & 1.71 & .40 & .48 \\
\text{CIS} & 87 & 2.16 & .48 & .56 \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

*Denotes subscales excluded from data analysis due to inadequate reliability. The Cultural and Racial Experiences of Socialization (CARES), \(1=\text{Never}, 2=\text{Sometimes}, \text{ or } 3=\text{All of the Time}\): Racial Protection Subscale (RPS), Racial Stereotypes Subscale (RSS), Old School Basics Subscale (OSBS), Bicultural Coping Subscale (BCS), and Cultural Insights Subscale (CIS).

Results of the Pearson correlation indicated there was significant negative association between the racial stereotypes subscale and mattering to instructors, \(r(75) = -.226, p = .048\).

Moreover, results indicated significant positive relationships between racial protection and
microaggressions, \( r(75) = .282, p = .013 \); and cultural insight and microaggressions, \( r(75) = .228, p = .046 \). Table 4.5 includes additional correlation coefficients.

In summary, to answer the second research question, students in the sample did receive reasonable exposure to messages of racial and ethnic socialization from their support system as a part of their upbringing. Furthermore, their exposure to these messages was related to both their perceptions of mattering and their experiences of microaggressions. Students’ exposure to racial stereotyping messages that include suspicion of the motives of White people and cynicism regarding appraisals of inter- and intra-racial relationships was negatively related to their perceptions that their instructors support them and give them attention. Furthermore, students’ exposure to messages of racial protection—including awareness of racism and strategies to cope with racism and cultural insights designed to instill Black heritage, spirituality and traditions—was positively related to their experience of microaggressions on campus. Table 4.5 presents additional correlation coefficients.

Table 4.5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures, Standard Deviations and Correlations for Cultural and Racial Ethnic Socialization, Microaggressions and College Mattering.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>N</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>RPS</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CIS</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** *p < .05.** Racial Protection Subscale (RPS), Racial Stereotypes Subscale (RSS), and Cultural Insights Subscale (CIS). Inventory of Microaggressions Against Black Individuals (IMABI) 0= *This has never happened to me*; 1= *This event happened but I was not upset*; 2= *This event happened and I was slightly upset*; 3= *This event happened and I was moderately upset*; 4= *This event happened to me and I was extremely upset*; Subscales from the College Mattering Inventory 1= *not at all* to 5= *very much*: General Mattering Subscale (GMS), Mattering to Counselors Subscale (MTCS), Mattering to Instructors Subscale (MTIS), Mattering to Students Subscale (MTSS), Mattering Versus Marginality (MVMS), and Perception of Value Subscale (POVS).
Research Question 3: What types of academic motivation do African American college students endorse at PWIs, and how does their academic motivation relate to microaggressions and mattering?

The reliability for the subscales of the Academic Motivation Scale-College Version (AMS-C 28) obtained in the study was found to be acceptable: Internal Motivation to Know Subscale, $\alpha = .78$; Internal Motivation Toward Accomplishment Subscale, $\alpha = .83$; Internal Motivation To Experience Stimulation Subscale, $\alpha = .88$; External Motivation Identified Subscale, $\alpha = .82$; External Motivation Introjected Subscale, $\alpha = .82$; and External Motivation External Regulations, $\alpha = .86$, Amotivation Subscale, $\alpha = .86$. For the Academic Motivation Scale College version, students are asked on a 7-point scale (ranging from $1 = \text{strongly disagree}$ to $7 = \text{strongly agree}$) the extent to which they agree with statements that represent different types of academic motivation. The participants in the study demonstrated the highest score on the Extrinsic Motivation Identified Subscale (EMIS; $M = 6.1, SD = 1.0$). EMIS represents the desire of students to perform academic activities in order to gain a sense of personal value or importance. Students in the sample obtained the lowest score on the Amotivation Scale (AS; $M = 2.5, SD = 1.4$). The AS score is an indicator of a genuine lack of academic motivation. Table 4.6 presents additional scores.
Table 4.6

Means, Standard Deviations and Sample Cronbach’s Alpha Values for Academic Motivation Subscales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale/Subscale</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cronbach’s α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AM</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMER</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>6.05</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMID</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>5.70</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMTK</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>5.87</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMTES</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMTA</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Motivation and Mattering. Results of the Pearson correlation indicated there were significant positive and negative relationships between academic motivation and mattering. Significant negative relationships were found between Amotivation and Mattering Versus Marginality, $r(75) = -.342, p = .002$, as well as Amotivation and Mattering to Instructors, $r(75) = -.250, p = .02$. Significant positive relationships were found between Extrinsic Motivation External Regulation and General Mattering $r(75) = .265, p = .02$, Mattering to Counselors, $r(75) = .264, p = .02$, and Perception of Value, $r(75) = .247, p = .03$. A significant positive relationship was found between External Motivation Introjected and General Mattering, $r(75) = .265, p = .02$. Significant positive relationships were found between Extrinsic Motivation Identified and General Mattering, $r(75) = .295, p = .009$, Mattering to Counselors, $r(75) = .261, p = .02$ and Perception of Value, $r(75) = .309, p = .006$. Significant positive relationships were found between Intrinsic Motivation To Know and General Mattering, $r(75) = .247, p = .03$, Mattering to Counselors, $r(75) = .242, p = .03$, and Perception of Value, $r(75) = .362, p = .001$. Significant positive relationships were found between Intrinsic Motivation to Experience Stimulation and General Mattering, $r(75) = .275, p = .01$, and Perception of Value, $r(75) = .248, p = .03$. Finally,
significant positive relationships were found between Intrinsic Motivation Toward Accomplishment and General Mattering, \( r(75) = .335, p = .003 \), and Perception of Value, \( r(75) = .313, p = .006 \). Moreover, results indicated a significant positive relationship between intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation and microaggressions, \( r(75) = .255, p = .025 \). Additional correlation coefficients are presented in Table 4.7.

**Table 4.7**

*Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations for Academic Motivation, Microaggressions and College Mattering*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscales</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>IMABI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AM</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>.053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMER</td>
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<td>6.05</td>
<td>1.14</td>
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<tr>
<td>EMIN</td>
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<td>IMTA</td>
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<td>1.16</td>
<td>.160</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* *p < .05; **p < .01. Subscales from the Academic Motivation Scale-28 College. 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree. Amotivation Subscale (AM) Extrinsic Motivation Emotion Regulation (EMER). Extrinsic Motivation Introjected Subscale (EMIN). Extrinsic Motivation Identified Regulation Subscale (EMID). Intrinsic Motivation to Know Subscale (IMTK) Intrinsic Motivation to Experience Stimulation Subscale (IMTES); Intrinsic Motivation to Accomplish Subscale (IMTA). Inventory of Microaggressions Against Black Individuals (IMABI), 0=This has never happened to me; 1=This event happened but I was not upset; 2=This event happened and I was slightly upset; 3=This event happened and I was moderately upset; 4=This event happened to me and I was extremely upset. Subscales from the College Mattering Inventory 1=not at all to 5=very much): General Mattering Subscale (GMS), Mattering to Counselors Subscale (MTCS), Mattering to Instructors Subscale (MTIS), Mattering to Students Subscale (MTSS), Mattering Versus Marginality (MVMS), and Perception of Value Subscale (POVS).

In summary, students in the sample demonstrated their highest levels of academic motivation as extrinsic identified regulation. This type of academic motivation represents a student’s desire to complete academic activities in order to gain a sense of importance and personal value. Moreover, there were significant relationships between the students’ academic motivation, microaggressions and mattering. Students’ general mattering (i.e., the belief that others at the university are interested in their well-being) was positively related to extrinsic
motivation external regulation (i.e., the participation in activities to achieve rewards or avoid consequences). General mattering was also positively related to external motivation identified (i.e., a student’s desire to complete academic activities in order to gain a sense of importance and personal value). Regarding intrinsic forms of motivation, general mattering was positively related to intrinsic motivation to know (i.e., engaging in an academic activity for the pleasure of learning) and intrinsic motivation to accomplish (i.e., engaging in academic activities for the pleasure of creation or accomplishment). Mattering perception of value (i.e., the perception that others at the college value their contributions) was also positively related to extrinsic motivation external regulation and external motivation identified. This type of mattering was also positively related to intrinsic motivation to know and intrinsic motivation to accomplish. Students’ general mattering separately related positively to intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation. Student’s amotivation (i.e., showing a lack of academic motivation) related negatively to mattering to instructors (i.e., their perception that instructors are supportive of them inside and outside of the classroom) and mattering versus marginality (i.e., their belief that they belong on campus). Mattering to counselors (i.e., the student’s perception that their advisors are supportive, attentive and concerned for them) was positively related to external motivation identified (i.e., a student’s desire to complete academic activities in order to gain a sense of importance and personal value) and intrinsic motivation to know (i.e., engaging in an academic activity for the pleasure of learning). Finally, microaggressions related positively to intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation. Overall, based on the study results, higher levels of self-regulated motivation were negatively related to microaggressions and positively related to mattering.
Research Question 4: Is Black Identity important to African American students on PWIs and does their Black Identity relate to microaggressions and mattering?

The reliability of the Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (MIBI) obtained in the study was found to be acceptable, $\alpha = .86$. The reliability of the subscales of the MIBI obtained in the study were found to be acceptable. Cronbach’s Alpha coefficients of internal consistency reliability were as follows: Centrality Scale (CS; $\alpha = .75$), Private Regard Scale (PrRS; $\alpha = .84$), Public Regard Subscale (PuRS; $\alpha = .74$), the Assimilation Subscale (AS; $\alpha = .62$), Humanist Subscale (HS; $\alpha = .65$), Oppressed Minority Subscale (OMS; $\alpha = .80$), and Nationalist Subscale (NS; $\alpha = .73$). The students in the sample scored the highest on the Centrality Scale (CS; $M = 5.58$, $SD = 1.02$). The CS is an assessment of how important or salient the student’s racial/ethnic group is to the student’s self-concept. Students scored the lowest on the Public Regard Subscale (PuRS) ($M = 3.27$, $SD = .95$). PuRS is a measure of how much the African American students in the study believe others think positively of their racial/ethnic group. Higher scores on the MIBI questions indicated a stronger endorsement of the specific dimension of Black identity. Please refer to Table 4.8 for additional scale and subscale values.
Table 4.8

Means, Standard Deviations and Sample Cronbach’s Alpha Values for Black Identity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale/Subscale</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cronbach’s α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>AS</td>
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<td>HS</td>
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<td>.65</td>
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<td>OMS</td>
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<tr>
<td>NS</td>
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<td>.82</td>
<td>.73</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Note. Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (MIBI), 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree. Centrality Scale (CS), Public Regard Subscale (PuRS), Private Regard Subscale (PrRS), Assimilation Subscale (AS), Humanist Ideology Subscale (HS), Oppressed Minority Ideology Subscale (OMS), and Nationalist Ideology Subscale (NS).

Results of the Pearson correlation indicated there were no significant correlations between Black Identity and College Mattering. There was a significant positive relationship between nationalist ideology and microaggressions, \( r(75) = .232, p = .024 \), and a significant negative association between public regard and microaggressions \( r(75) = -.229, p = .045 \).

Additional correlation coefficients are presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9

Mean, Standard Deviations and Correlations for Black Identity, Microaggressions College Mattering

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MIBI Subscale</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>IMABI</th>
<th>GMS</th>
<th>MTCS</th>
<th>MTIS</th>
<th>MTSS</th>
<th>MVMS</th>
<th>POVS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>.089</td>
<td>-.076</td>
<td>-.055</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>.066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PuRS</td>
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<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.01</td>
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<td>.309</td>
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<td>.012</td>
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<td>.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NS</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>.232*</td>
<td>-.052</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-.083</td>
<td>-.22</td>
<td>.084</td>
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</table>

Note. Scales and Subscales from the Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (MIBI 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree); Centrality Scale (CS), Public Regard Subscale (PuRS), Private Regard Subscale (PrRS), Assimilation Subscale (AS), Humanist Ideology Subscale (HS), Oppressed Minority Ideology Subscale (OMS), and Nationalist Ideology Subscale (NS). Inventory of Microaggressions Against Black Individuals (IMABI), 0= This has never happened to me; 1= This event happened but I was not upset; 2= This event happened and I was slightly upset; 3=This event happened and I was moderately upset; 4=This event happened to me and I was extremely upset. Subscales from the College Mattering Inventory, 1=not at all) to 5=very much: General Mattering Subscale (GMS), Mattering to Counselors Subscale (MTCS), Mattering to Instructors Subscale (MTIS), Mattering to Students Subscale (MTSS), Mattering Versus Marginality (MVMS), and Perception of Value Subscale (POVS).
In summary, to answer Research Question 4, students in the sample demonstrated that Black Identity is central to their self-concept, scoring the highest on the centrality scale. Conversely, students scored the lowest on the public regard scale a scale that represents a student’s belief that others think positively of their ethnic group. There were no significant relationships between Black Identity and mattering. Regarding microaggressions, there was a positive relationship between the students’ experiences of microaggressions and having a nationalist identity, which is representative of holding African descent in high regard. Conversely, there was a negative relationship between the thought that others think positively about their ethnic group and the students’ experiences of microaggressions.

Research Question 5: Does African American college students’ racial/ethnic socialization moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering?

In an approach outlined by Aiken and West (1991), multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine the moderating relationships proposed in Research Question 5. It is important to note that for this moderation analysis, the CARES (the measure of racial/ethnic socialization) was entered into the moderation model as a single factor, wherein a higher score on the CARES indicated higher levels of racial and ethnic socialization.

Mattering versus marginality. In the first regression analysis, racial/ethnic socialization was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and mattering versus marginality. The results of the regression analysis indicated that the two predictors together (i.e., microaggressions and racial/ethnic socialization) explained 8% of the variance ($R^2 = .08, F(2,74) = 2.99, p < .05$). Individually microaggressions significantly predicted mattering versus marginality ($\beta = -.275, p < .021$), but racial ethnic socialization did not ($\beta = .004, p = .971$). In
the second step of the regression analysis, the interaction term (Microaggressions x Racial/Ethnic Socialization) was entered into the model to determine the possibility of moderation. The interaction did not account for a significant increase in the variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .010$, $\Delta F = .785$, $p = .378$.)

**Mattering to instructors.** Next, racial/ethnic socialization was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and mattering to instructors. The results of this regression analysis indicated the two predictors (i.e., microaggressions and racial/ethnic socialization) explained 24% of the variance ($R^2 = .24 F(2,74) = 11.39$, $p < .001$). Individually, microaggressions accounted for a significant portion of the variance in mattering to instructors ($\beta = -.48$, $p < .001$), but racial/ethnic socialization did not ($\beta = .019$, $p = .861$). In the second step of the regression analysis the interaction term, (Microaggressions x Racial/Ethnic Socialization) was entered into the model to determine the possibility of moderation. The interaction did not account for a significant increase in the variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .006$, $\Delta F = .829$, $p = .366$).

**Mattering perceptions of value.** Next, racial/ethnic socialization was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and mattering perception of value. The results of the regression analysis indicated the two predictors (i.e., microaggressions and racial/ethnic socialization) explained 9% of the variance ($R^2 = .09 F(2,74) = 3.45$, $p < .05$). Microaggressions significantly predicted mattering perception of value ($\beta = .26$, $p = .026$), whereas CARES did not ($\beta = .072$, $p = .534$). In the second step of the regression analysis, the interaction term, (Microaggressions x Racial/ethnic socialization) was entered into the model to determine the possibility of moderation. The interaction did not account for a significant increase in the variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .004$, $\Delta F = .337$, $p = .563$).
In summary, to answer Research Question 5, students’ exposure to cultural and racial ethnic socialization did not significantly moderate the established relationships between microaggressions and (1) mattering versus marginality (i.e., students’ perceptions of feeling like they fit in and belong on campus); (2) mattering to instructors (i.e, students’ perception that their instructors support them inside and outside of the classroom), and (2) students’ perception that others on campus value their contributions and involvement and the experience of microaggressions.

**Research Question 6: Does African American college students’ academic motivation moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering?**

In an approach outlined by Aiken and West (1991), multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine the moderating relationships proposed in Research Question 6. It is important to note that for the moderation analyses, the Academic Motivation Scale-College (AMS-C) was entered as three factors: intrinsic motivation (AMSIM; which included all three intrinsic subscales), extrinsic motivation (AMSEM), and amotivation (AS; which included the questions regarding amotivation).

AMSIM was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and mattering versus marginality. The results of the regression indicated that the two predictors explained 8% of the variance ($R^2 = .08, F(2,74) = 3.03, p = .054$). Microaggressions significantly predicted mattering versus marginality ($\beta = -.268, p = .021$), whereas AMSIM did not ($\beta = -.030, p = .795$). In the second part of the regression analysis, the interaction term (Microaggressions x AMSIM) was entered into the model to determine the possibility of moderation. The interaction did not account for a significant increase in the variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .016 \Delta F = 1.26, p = .258$).
AMSIM was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and mattering to instructors. The results of the regression indicated that the two predictors explained 24% of the variance ($R^2 = .24$, $F(2,74) = 11.89$, $p < .001$). Microaggressions significantly predicted mattering to instructors ($\beta = -.503$, $p < .001$), whereas AMSIM did not ($\beta = .091$, $p = .380$). In the second part of the regression analysis, the interaction term (Microaggressions x AMSIM) was entered into the model to determine the possibility of moderation. The interaction did not account for a significant increase in the variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .000$, $\Delta F = .029$, $p = .865$).

AMSIM was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and mattering perception of value. The results of the regression indicated that the two predictors explained 17% of the variance ($R^2 = .17$, $F(2,74) = 7.55$, $p = .001$). Microaggressions significantly predicted mattering to instructors ($\beta = .225$, $p = .041$), and AMSIM did as well ($\beta = .304$, $p = .006$). In the second part of the regression analysis, the interaction term (Microaggressions x AMSIM) was entered into the model to determine the possibility of moderation. The interaction did not account for a significant increase in the variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .012$, $\Delta F = 1.09$, $p = .300$).

AMSEM was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and mattering versus marginality. The results of the regression indicated that two predictors explained 8% of the variance ($R^2 = .08$, $F(2,74) = 2.99$, $p = .056$). It was found that microaggressions significantly predicted mattering versus marginality ($\beta = -.273$, $p = .018$), whereas AMSEM did not ($\beta = -.007$, $p = .948$). In the second part of the regression analysis, the interaction term (Microaggressions x AMSEM) was entered into the model to determine the
possibility of moderation. The interaction did not account for a significant increase in the variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .030 \Delta F = 2.45, p = .122$).

AMSEM was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and mattering to instructors. The results of the regression indicated that the two predictors explained 25% of the variance ($R^2 = .25, F(2,74) = 12.16, p < .001$). Microaggressions significantly predicted mattering to instructors ($\beta = -.496, p < .001$), whereas AMSEM did not ($\beta = .111, p = .278$). In the second part of the regression analysis, the interaction term (Microaggressions x AMSEM) entered into the model to determine the possibility of moderation. The interaction did not account for a significant increase in the variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .002 \Delta F = .222, p = .639$).

AMSEM was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and mattering perception of value. The results of the regression indicated that the two predictors explained 15% of the variance ($R^2 = .17, F(2,74) = 6.41, p = .003$). Microaggressions significantly predicted mattering to instructors ($\beta = .258, p = .019$), and AMSEM did as well ($\beta = .260, p = .018$). In the second part of the regression analysis, the interaction term (Microaggressions x AMSEM) was entered into the model to determine the possibility of moderation. The interaction did not account for a significant increase in the variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .008 \Delta F = .711, p = .402$).

AMSA was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and mattering versus marginality. The results of the regression indicated that two predictors explained 18% of the variance ($R^2 = .18, F(2,74) = 8.25, p = .001$). Microaggressions significantly predicted mattering versus marginality ($\beta = -.256, p = .017$), and AMSA did as well ($\beta = -.328, p = .003$). In the second part of the regression analysis, the interaction term (Microaggressions x AMSA) was entered into the model to determine the possibility of
moderation. The interaction did not account for a significant increase in the variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .009 \Delta F = .839, p = .363$).

AMSA was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and mattering to instructors. The results of the regression indicated that the two predictors explained 27% of the variance ($R^2 = .27, F(2,74) = 14.82, p < .001$). Microaggressions significantly predicted mattering to instructors ($\beta = -.473, p < .001$), and AMSA did as well ($\beta = -.226, p = .024$). In the second part of the regression analysis, the interaction term (Microaggressions x AMSA) was entered into the model to determine the possibility of moderation. The interaction did not account for a significant increase in the variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .001 \Delta F = .059, p = .809$).

AMSA was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and mattering perception of value. The results of the regression indicated that the two predictors explained 14% of the variance ($R^2 = .14, F(2,74) = 5.89, p = .004$). Microaggressions significantly predicted mattering perception of value ($\beta = .296, p = .008$), and AMSA did as well ($\beta = -.239, p = .030$). In the second part of the regression analysis, the interaction term (Microaggressions x AMSA) was entered into the model to determine the possibility of moderation. The interaction did not account for a significant increase in the variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .014, \Delta F = 1.23, p = .270$).

In summary, to answer Research Question 6, students’ intrinsic, extrinsic, or lack of academic motivation did not significantly moderate the relationships between microaggressions and (1) mattering versus marginality, (2) students perceptions of feeling like they fit in and belong on campus and mattering to instructors, (3) student’s perception that their instructors
support them inside and outside of the classroom, and (4) student’s perception that others on
campus value their contributions and involvement.

**Research Question 7: Does African American college students’ Black Identity moderate the
relationship between microaggressions and mattering?**

In an approach outlined by Aiken and West (1991), multiple regression analyses were
conducted to examine the moderating relationships proposed in Research Question 7. It is
important to note that for the moderation analysis the Multidimensional Inventory of Black
Identity (MIBI) was entered as three factors; higher scores on the Centrality Scale, Private
Regard Subscale, and Nationalist Ideology Subscale represent a stronger adherence to Black
Identity.

**Mattering vs. marginality**

Centrality was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and
mattering versus marginality. The results of the regression indicated that the two predictors
explained 8% of the variance (R² = .08, F(2,74) = 3.16, p = .048). Microaggressions significantly
predicted mattering versus marginality (β = -.286, p = .014), whereas Centrality did not (β =
.065, p = .574). In the second part of the regression analysis, the interaction term
(Microaggressions x Centrality) was entered into the model to determine the possibility of
moderation. The interaction did not account for a significant increase in the variance explained
(ΔR² = .005 ΔF = .365, p = .548).

Private Regard was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions
and mattering versus marginality. The results of the regression indicated that the two predictors
explained 9% of the variance ($R^2 = .09, \ F(2,74) = 3.48, \ p = .036$). Microaggressions significantly predicted mattering versus marginality ($\beta = -.289, \ p = .012$), whereas Private Regard did not ($\beta = .107, \ p = .343$). In the second part of the regression analysis, the interaction term (Microaggressions x Private Regard) was entered into the model to determine the possibility of moderation. The interaction did not account for a significant increase in the variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .010 \ \Delta F = .810, \ p = .371$).

Nationalist Ideology was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and mattering versus marginality. The results of the regression indicated that the two predictors explained 8% of the variance ($R^2 = .08, \ F(2,74) = 4.15, \ p = .020$). Microaggressions significantly predicted mattering versus marginality ($\beta = -.235, \ p = .042$), whereas Nationalist Ideology did not ($\beta = .166, \ p = .147$). In the second part of the regression analysis, the interaction term (Microaggressions x Nationalist Ideology) was entered into the model to determine the possibility of moderation. The interaction did not account for a significant increase in the variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .006 \ \Delta F = .458, \ p = .501$).

**Mattering to instructors.** Centrality was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and mattering to instructors. The results of the regression indicated that two predictors explained 24% of the variance ($R^2 = .24, \ F(2,74) = 11.40, \ p < .001$). Microaggressions significantly predicted mattering to instructors ($\beta = -.489, \ p < .001$), whereas Centrality did not ($\beta = .020, \ p = .845$). In the second step of the regression analysis, the interaction term (Microaggressions x Centrality) was entered into the model. The interaction did not explain a significant increase in the variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .021 \ \Delta F = 2.01, \ p = .160$).

Private Regard was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and mattering to instructors. The results of the regression indicated that two predictors explained
27% of the variance ($R^2 = .27, F(2,74) = 13.82, p < .001$). It was found that microaggressions significantly predicted mattering to instructors ($\beta = -.513, p < .001$), whereas Private Regard did not ($\beta = .194, p = .057$). In the second step of the regression analysis, the interaction term (Microaggressions x Private Regard) was entered into the model. The interaction did not explain a significant increase in the variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .010, \Delta F = .985, p = .324$).

Nationalist Ideology was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and mattering to instructors. The results of the regression indicated that two predictors explained 24% of the variance ($R^2 = .24, F(2,74) = 11.38, p < .001$). Microaggressions significantly predicted mattering to instructors ($\beta = -.483, p < .001$), whereas Nationalist Ideology did not ($\beta = .008, p = .938$). In the second step of the regression analysis, the interaction term (Microaggressions x Nationalist Ideology) was entered into the model. The interaction did explain a significant increase in the variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .075, \Delta F = 7.93, p = .006$). To further explore the nature of this interaction effect, the sample was split into three subsamples: Low Nationalist Ideology (SD $\leq -1$), Medium Nationalist Ideology (-1 $< SD < 1$), and High Nationalist Ideology (SD $\geq 1$). Within each of these three subsamples, regression analyses were plotted (see Figure 1). As demonstrated in Figure 1, higher levels of Nationalist Ideology amplified the negative relationship between microaggressions and mattering to instructors into significance. More specifically, at low levels of NI, microaggressions did not predict perception of mattering to instructors ($\beta = -.054, p < .239$); at average levels of NI, microaggressions negatively predicted perceptions of mattering to instructors ($\beta = -.141, p < .001$); and at high levels of NI, microaggressions negatively predicted perceptions of mattering to instructors with a greater effect ($\beta = -.228, p < .001$).
Figure 1. Graph of the significant moderating effect of National Ideology (NI) on the relationship between microaggressions and mattering to instructors.

Mattering perception of value. Centrality was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and mattering perception of value. The results of the regression indicated that two predictors explained 8% of the variance ($R^2 = .08, F(2,74) = 3.25, p < .05$). Microaggressions significantly predicted mattering perception of value ($β = .282, p = .016$), whereas Centrality did not ($β = .011, p = .925$). In the second step of the regression analysis, the interaction term (Microaggressions x Centrality) was entered into the model to determine the possibility of moderation. The interaction did not account for a significant increase in the variance explained ($ΔR^2 = .000, ΔF = .028, p = .867$).

Private Regard was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and mattering perception of value. The results of the regression indicated that two predictors
explained 12% of the variance ($R^2 = .12$, $F(2,74) = 4.90, p < .05$). Microaggressions significantly predicted mattering perception of value ($\beta = .256$, $p = .023$), whereas Private Regard did not ($\beta = .193$, $p = .084$). In the second step of the regression analysis, the interaction term, (Microaggressions x Private Regard) was entered into the model to determine the possibility of moderation. The interaction did not account for a significant increase in the variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .023$, $\Delta F = 1.97$, $p = .164$).

Nationalist Ideology was examined as a moderator of the relation between microaggressions and mattering perception of value. The results of the regression indicated that two predictors explained 8% of the variance ($R^2 = .08$, $F(2,74) = 3.26, p < .05$). Microaggressions significantly predicted mattering perception of value ($\beta = .279$, $p = .017$), whereas Private Regard did not ($\beta = .019$, $p = .866$). In the second step of the regression analysis, the interaction term (Microaggressions x Nationalist Ideology) was entered into the model to determine the possibility of moderation. The interaction did not account for a significant increase in the variance explained ($\Delta R^2 = .000$, $\Delta F = .014$, $p = .907$).

In summary, to answer Research Question Seven, Black Identity Centrality, Private Regard and Nationalist Ideology did not significantly moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering versus marginality (i.e., student’s perceptions of feeling like they fit in and belong on campus). Additionally, Black Identity Centrality and Private Regard were not found to significantly moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering to instructors (i.e., student’s perception that their instructors support them inside and outside of the classroom). However, Nationalist ideology (i.e., holding Afrocentricity in high regard) was found to be a significant moderator of the relationship (i.e. microaggressions and
mattering to instructors). More specifically, students who held more strong beliefs regarding
their African descent were more likely to endorse lower levels of mattering to instructors when
exposed to more microaggressions, as compared to students who held less strong beliefs
regarding their African descent (see Figure 1). Finally, Black Identity Centrality, Private Regard
and Nationalist Ideology did not significantly moderate the relationship between
microaggressions and perception of value (i.e., student’s perception that others on campus value
their contributions and involvement). Table 4.10 provides all the standardized beta values, p-
values and r-square change for all regression analyses of the interactions.
Table 4.10

Beta Values, P Values and R-Square Change Values of The Interactions Utilized to Test Moderating Effects of Racial Ethnic Socialization, Extrinsic Academic Motivation, Intrinsic Academic Motivation, Amotivation and Black Identity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Question</th>
<th>Interaction (IV)</th>
<th>Dependent (DV)</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>R-Square Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>IMABI x CARES</td>
<td>MVMS</td>
<td>-.821</td>
<td>.378</td>
<td>.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>IMABI x CARES</td>
<td>MTIS</td>
<td>-.766</td>
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<td>.009</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>IMABI x CARES</td>
<td>POVS</td>
<td>.536</td>
<td>.563</td>
<td>.004</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>IMABI x AMSEM</td>
<td>MVMS</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>.122</td>
<td>.030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>IMABI x AMSEM</td>
<td>MTIS</td>
<td>-.326</td>
<td>.639</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>IMABI x AMSEM</td>
<td>POVS</td>
<td>.618</td>
<td>.402</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>IMABI x AMSIM</td>
<td>MVMS</td>
<td>-.793</td>
<td>.258</td>
<td>.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>IMABI x AMSIM</td>
<td>MTIS</td>
<td>.109</td>
<td>.865</td>
<td>.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>IMABI x AMSIM</td>
<td>POVS</td>
<td>-.690</td>
<td>.300</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>IMABI x AMSIM</td>
<td>POVS</td>
<td>.337</td>
<td>.363</td>
<td>.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>IMABI x AMSIM</td>
<td>POVS</td>
<td>-.084</td>
<td>.809</td>
<td>.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>IMABI x AMSIM</td>
<td>POVS</td>
<td>.418</td>
<td>.270</td>
<td>.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>IMABI x CS</td>
<td>MVMS</td>
<td>.417</td>
<td>.548</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>IMABI x CS</td>
<td>MTIS</td>
<td>-.884</td>
<td>.160</td>
<td>.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>IMABI x CS</td>
<td>POVS</td>
<td>.116</td>
<td>.867</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>IMABI x PrRS</td>
<td>MVMS</td>
<td>-.925</td>
<td>.371</td>
<td>.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>IMABI x PrRS</td>
<td>MTIS</td>
<td>-.901</td>
<td>.324</td>
<td>.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>IMABI x PrRS</td>
<td>POVS</td>
<td>-.141</td>
<td>.164</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>IMABI x NS</td>
<td>MVMS</td>
<td>.478</td>
<td>.501</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>IMABI x NS</td>
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<td>.006*</td>
<td>7.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>IMABI x NS</td>
<td>POVS</td>
<td>-.084</td>
<td>.907</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *p < .05; **p < .01. Microaggressions Against Black Individuals (IMABI) 0= This has never happened to me; 1= This event happened but I was not upset; 2= This event happened and I was slightly upset; 3=This event happened and I was moderately upset; 4=This event happened to me and I was extremely upset. Composite scores from the Academic Motivation Scale 1=strongly disagree) to 7=strongly agree: Extrinsic Motivation (AMSEM); Intrinsic Motivation (AMSIM), and Amotivation (AMA). The Cultural and Racial Experiences of Socialization (CARES), 1=Never, 2=Sometimes, or 3=All of the Time. Subscales from the Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (MIBI): 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree: Centrality Scale (CS), Private Regard (PrRS), and Nationalist Ideology (NS). Subscales from the College Mattering Inventory 1=not at all to 5 =very much: Mattering to Instructors Subscale (MTIS), Mattering Versus Marginality (MVMS), and Perception of Value Subscale (POVS).
CHAPTER V

Discussion

African American students continue to be underrepresented in higher education, and despite making it to college, they are less likely to graduate from college than their white peers (Astin & Oseguera, 2005). African American students face a wide range of challenges that make it difficult for them to persist, including experiencing racial microaggressions on campus (Ancis, Sedlacek, & Mohr, 2000). Researchers have found that the racial environment of an institution can negatively affect academic performance and mental health, and can contribute to high dropout rates for minority students (Allen, Epps, & Haniff, 1991; Carroll, 1998; Hurtado et al., 1998; Hurtado & Ponjuan, 2005; Smith, Allen, & Danley, 2007; Solórzano, Villalpando, & Oseguera, 2005; Worthington, Navarro, Loewy, & Hart, 2008). The aim of the current study was to examine the journeys of African American undergraduates at predominantly white institutions and to gain a deeper understanding of their experiences on campus with racial microaggressions and mattering. Moreover, factors that may contribute to these students’ concept of believing that they matter on campus were investigated. This chapter will further discuss the findings of the study and their implications. First, findings from the investigation of the research questions posed in the study will be discussed, including their relevance to the current literature. Next, implications for practice will be presented. Last, the limitations and future research considerations will be presented.
Research Question 1: Do African American college students on PWIs experience racial microaggressions, and does their experience of racial microaggressions relate to mattering?

The objective of Research Question 1 was to establish a) if students in the sample had been exposed to microaggressions on their campuses, b) how much students believed they matter on their campus and c) if the students experiences of microaggressions relate to their beliefs that they matter. The findings from the study confirmed that students had experienced microaggressions on the three campuses from which the sample was taken. The majority of the students in the study endorsed that they had experienced microaggressions and it had upset them slightly. A smaller percentage endorsed experiencing no microaggressions or experiencing microaggressions and being moderately upset. This is consistent with previous research about African American students’ experiences with subtle forms of racism on predominantly White campuses (Solorzano et al. 2000, Watkins et al. 2007). There are many factors that could possibly contribute to students being exposed to microaggressions on campus. Students in the sample from this study were significantly underrepresented on campus as African Americans. Some students from the majority culture and other cultures on the campuses studied may have had their first contact with a person of color when they attended college. The racially charged history of the United States and the current political climate may create tensions on campus that manifest as microaggressions toward the students in the study. Although the students in the study were found to have been exposed to microaggressions, these microaggressions did not appear to have a major emotional impact on them. This is consistent with previous research that describes the experiences of microaggressions by African American students on college campuses to include increased stress related to cultural conflict (Anics et. al. 2000, Watkins et. al. 2007).
These findings are also consistent with Critical Race Theory that posits that race and racism is an inescapable part of our American society, especially for people of color (Harper et. al, 2009).

The students in the study generally believed they matter on campus. Students’ high score on perception of value is representative of their perception that others on campus value their involvement and contributions. This was in contrast with the Tovar et al. (2009) study on mattering and African American students in which they found the highest mattering scores in the mattering to instructors subscale. In the present study, the finding of students’ low score on the mattering versus marginality score is of particular interest. This low score suggests that students in the current study tended to feel they did not belong on campus. This was in contrast with the Tovar et al. (2009) study in which the students scored the lowest on the Mattering to Students subscale (Tovar, et. al, 2009). The results from the current study indicate that the students believe others value their contributions, but they also feel marginalized.

Regarding the relationship between microaggressions and mattering, microaggressions were found to relate negatively to a student’s perception that their instructors support them inside and outside of the classroom. Thus, as students endorsed experiencing higher levels of microaggressions, they also endorsed believing less in the idea that their instructors felt they mattered. This is consistent with past research that indicates that African American students may feel they are treated differently than their White counterparts by their professors on racially charged campuses (Solorzano et al., 2000). Students in the sample may have experienced some microaggressions on campus from instructors, which could further explain the significant relationship between these variables. Although this is difficult to consider, it may also represent the potential significant positive impact that instructors and administrators can have on students if they are culturally competent and supportive of these students.
Student’s experiences of microaggressions on campus were also negatively related to their belief that they belonged on campus. This is consistent with research regarding the effects of microaggressions, as these forms of racism primarily invalidate and individuate the people who experience them, making these individuals feel unimportant, singled out, and alone (Sue et al., 2007). This is an important finding in this study, because there are multiple studies that stress the importance of involvement, belonging, and engagement as indicators of being able to persist successfully in college (e.g., Astin, 1993; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). The students in the current study may be discouraged from getting involved in campus activities as a result of being exposed to microaggressions and therefore continue to feel they do not belong on campus. Students who are not connected and involved on campus are at a higher risk to drop out from school (Allen et al., 1991; Carroll, 1998; Hurtado et al., 1998).

There was a positive significant relationship that existed between microaggressions and perception of value. At face value, it may appear strange that students who believe others on campus value their contributions and involvement more would endorse experiencing higher levels of microaggressions. This is an important and unique finding of the current study and an area where no previous research exists. A number of explanations are possible for these results. Only a small number of groups and organizations cater specifically to African American students at PWIs. Therefore, if these African American students are interested in getting involved they will likely have to venture out into organizations that are created for and by White students on campus. When students of color choose to get involved, they are likely to have more contact with White students, thereby increasing their likelihood of experiencing microaggressions. A separate possibility for this positive relationship is the recognition of microaggressions by African American students who are more involved on campus, and thus more visible on campus,
increasingly exposing them to microaggressions. This is also an important finding because it highlights the possibility that students who do choose to get involved on campus may face racial barriers and negative experiences. Moreover, students who do not choose to get involved due to perceived barriers may be exposed to fewer microaggressions, but still feel a decreased connection and less belongingness on campus for other reasons.

Research Question 2: To what extent do African American student at PWIs experience racial/ethnic socialization, and how much do these experiences relate to microaggressions and mattering?

The objective of Research Question 2 was to determine to what extent students in the study had been prepared by their support system in racial/ethnic socialization. A second aim of this research question was to determine if there were relationships among racial/ethnic socialization, microaggressions and mattering. Results from the study demonstrated that students in the sample did receive messages of racial/ethnic socialization prior to attending college. This finding was consistent with past research demonstrating that many African American students’ parents make efforts to prepare their children for racial challenges they may face in life (Hughes et al., 2009). This finding supports the findings of multiple previous studies demonstrating numerous positive outcomes resulting from parents who prepare their students through racial/ethnic socialization (Brown, 2008; Fischer and Shaw, 1999; Scott, 2003; Constantine and Blackmon, 2002). This preparation is important for African American students. The students in the current study were prepared to face racial barriers and challenges they may encounter in college. Specifically, the students in the current study indicated the most racial/ethnic socialization was through racial protection messages, including awareness of racism and strategies to cope with racism. They received the least racial/ethnic socialization in bicultural
coping messages and messages of how to navigate mainstream society and assimilate. These findings are consistent with past research regarding African American students’ experiences with cultural and racial/ethnic socialization (Bentley-Edwards and Stevenson, 2009). If students are receiving the strongest messages regarding being able to recognize racism and the least about how to assimilate or navigate mainstream society, this may complicate their experiences on PWIs. It could be said that they may be ill-equipped to negotiate the racially- and ethnically-oriented stressors present on PWIs. This is an important finding in the study, because these messages of cultural and racial ethnic socialization have an effect on the students’ belief that they matter, as demonstrated by the significant relationships found between CARES and mattering. Specifically, a significant negative relationship was found between students receiving racial stereotype messages about the cynicism of white people and the perception that they mattered to instructors. In other words, students who were told by their parents that they should be apprehensive about their relationships with White people were more likely to question that they mattered to their instructors (who are more often White). It may be more difficult for students who receive these messages from their support system to align with their professors, precluding them from some of the inherent benefits of getting to know an instructor, or being willing to approach an instructor for support.

In consideration of being more aware of racism due to cultural and racial/ethnic socialization, the current study found a positive relationship between receiving messages of racial protection and cultural insight and experiences of microaggressions. This was highly interesting and also consistent with previous research findings that students with increased levels of racial/ethnic socialization are more likely to recognize racism and discrimination (Neblett et al., 2009). As aforementioned, when parents are preparing their students to face challenges of
race in society, they are also giving them an increased awareness of what racism may look like. This could potentially lead students to recognize more instances of racism or even be more sensitive to racist messages and behaviors around them. It also provides protection for students and may help them persist in the face of challenges as evidenced by the results indicating that the students in the current study still do believe they matter and are appreciated on campus.

**Research Question 3: What types of academic motivation do African American college students endorse at PWIs, and how does their academic motivation relate to microaggressions and mattering?**

The goal of Research Question 3 was to determine what types of academic motivation the students in the study demonstrated and also to explore possible relationships between their academic motivation, microaggressions and mattering. Students in the sample endorsed higher levels of extrinsic motivation, scoring the highest on the extrinsic motivation identified scale and the lowest on the amotivation scale. This is consistent with the past research finding that African American college students are more extrinsically academically motivated (Coakley, 2003). A multitude of significant relationships were found between academic motivation, microaggressions and mattering. They are described in detail below.

First, the negative relationship between academic motivation and mattering will be discussed. Second, the positive relationships between general mattering and academic motivation will be discussed. Third, positive relationships between academic motivation and perception of value will be discussed. Fourth, positive relationships between academic motivation and mattering to counselors will be presented. Lastly, the relationship between academic motivation and microaggressions will be presented.
Mattering and academic amotivation. Results from the study indicated a significant negative relationship between amotivation and mattering to instructors and also mattering versus marginality. To explain, students who endorsed higher levels of amotivation (i.e., lack of any kind of academic motivation) also increasingly endorsed questions indicating they did not believe their instructors valued their contributions and they lacked a sense of belonging on campus. This is consistent with previous research that found that students who lack academic motivation are less likely to believe that their instructors and others on campus are invested in their academic success (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). This is also consistent with Self-Determination Theory, which proposes that as academic motivation progresses from external to internal motivators, students may feel more of a connection to their academic outcomes due to their internalization of self-regulation (Deci et al., 1991). Thus, a student who has no academic motivation at all is more likely to feel no connection to their instructor and others on campus, and therefore believe their instructor and peers do not value them or their contributions. These students may be at increased risk of leaving school, due to their belief that they have no control over their academic outcomes.

General Mattering and Extrinsic Academic Motivation. Results yielded multiple positive relationships between academic motivation and general mattering. General mattering is considered to be a student’s perception that others at the university are interested in their well-being, demonstrating interest and concern for them through behavioral and affective expression, including disappointment when a student falls short of their expectations (Tovar, Simon & Lee, 2009). To gain a deeper understanding of these relationships, it is necessary to explore the different types of academic motivation that were positively related to this type of mattering. Extrinsic motivation external regulation is the participation in activities to achieve rewards or
avoid consequences. Along the spectrum of self-determination, this type of academic motivation is one step beyond amotivation and is considered to be low when considering self-regulated types of motivation (Deci and Ryan, 1991). The positive relationship between extrinsic motivation external regulation and general mattering is important because it seems that when motivation is driven by reinforcers or punishers, the students in the study also felt they mattered at the university. Deci and colleagues have indicated that students who are identified in their extrinsic academic motivation are on their way to being able to experience a level of regulation that is increasingly internal (Deci and Ryan, 1991; Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier & Ryan, 1991).

**General mattering and intrinsic academic motivation.** General mattering was also positively related to intrinsic motivation to know, (i.e., engaging in an academic activity for the pleasure of learning); to intrinsic motivation to accomplish (i.e., engaging in academic activities for the pleasure of creation or accomplishment); and intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation (i.e., involvement in academic activities for stimulation). The positive relationship between these intrinsic forms of academic motivation and general mattering are consistent with past research of academic motivation in higher education and also the tenets of Self-Determination Theory, regarding the importance of the contribution of internal regulation to the process of progressing successfully on campus (Marshall, 2001; Deci & Ryan, 1991, Dixon-Rayle & Myers, 2004).

**Mattering Perception of Value and Academic Motivation.** Results from the current study also demonstrated multiple positive relationships between academic motivation and perception of value (i.e., student’s beliefs that others on campus value their contributions). The types of academic motivation that shared a positive relationship with perception of value are almost identical to the types that shared a positive relationship with general mattering excluding
intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation. These motivations were extrinsic motivation external regulation, external motivation identified, intrinsic motivation to know (i.e., engaging in an academic activity for the pleasure of learning) and intrinsic motivation to accomplish (i.e., engaging in academic activities for the pleasure of creation or accomplishment).

This finding is consistent with Self-Determination Theory, demonstrating that as students become more internally motivated they also experience improved self-concept and self-esteem and decreased levels of academic stress (Deci & Ryan, 1991; Dixon et al., 2009; Dixon Rayle, 2005; Dixon Rayle & Chung, 2007; Dixon Rayle & Myers, 2004; Marshall, 2001; Taylor & Turner, 2001). Students who come into college with more internalized motivation to succeed academically may be better equipped to recognize their value on campus. Moreover, culturally appropriate programing on campus to support students in increasing their perception of value is important.

Mattering to counselors and academic motivation. Mattering to counselors was found to have positive a relationship with extrinsic motivation identified (i.e., a student’s desire to complete academic activities in order to gain a sense of importance and personal value) and intrinsic motivation to know (i.e., engaging in an academic activity for the pleasure of learning). These types of academic motivation are further along the spectrum of self-determination and represent motivation driven by internal regulation (Deci & Ryan, 1991). This significant relationship is representative of students internally invested in their academic success, who based on the results are more likely to endorse that they value their relationship with an advisor on campus. This finding highlights the importance of being able to connect students with an advisor or counselor they believe is truly invested in their success.
Academic motivation and microaggressions. Results indicated a significant positive relationship between microaggressions and intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation. This is the first study to have found that students who are intrinsically academically motivated may experience more microaggressions. Two possible explanations are proposed. Students who demonstrate this form of intrinsic motivation may be more likely to also be exposed to microaggressions through their involvement in academic programs and activates on campus. These students may also be more attuned to microaggressions around them as they navigate campus with more internal academic focus. Further study is warranted to confirm the existence of this relationship and the proposed interpretation of this unique finding.

Research Question 4: Is Black Identity important to African American students on PWIs, and does their Black Identity relate to microaggressions and mattering?

The objective of Research Question 4 was to explore the importance of Black Identity to the students in the study and determine if Black Identity related to microaggressions and mattering. Students in the sample found Black Identity as central to their self-concept as evidenced by their endorsement of their highest scores on the centrality scale of the Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (MIBI). These findings were consistent with previous research of African American college students that found Black Identity as a key component to students’ development and persistence at their institutions (Moreland and Leach, 2001; Ortiz and Santos, 2009; Dovidio et al., 2001; Butler, 1991). The results yielded no significant relationships between Black Identity and mattering. This is an important finding because it is in contrast with previous research that has shown more positive outcomes for students who are able to progress through multiethnic identity development. These outcomes include increased self-esteem, intercultural competence and maturity, institutional commitment
and academic achievement (Oyserman, Harrison and Bybe, 2001; King and Baxter-Magolda, 2005; Dovidio et al., 2001; Ortiz and Santos, 2009). There was a significant positive relationship between microaggressions and having a nationalist ideology, wherein individuals think highly of being of African descent. Previous research confirms that students who are more strongly racially identified may experience higher levels of marginalization if their campus environment is not perceived as friendly toward their culture (Cameron, 2004). Results also indicated that students who more strongly adhere to the importance of their African descent also endorse experiencing higher levels of microaggressions on campus. This may also apply to students who seek to participate in organizations that are organized around the African culture. These students are likely spending more time around other African American students who can share their experiences and also have a place to discuss the challenges they are experiencing on campus. However therapeutic these interactions may be, they may also serve to further highlight inequities on campus.

A negative relationship was found between public regard and microaggressions. That is, students who believed that others think more positively about their ethnic group experienced fewer microaggressions. This is consistent with previous research regarding the cultural impact of American history on college campuses (Fine, 1997; Powell, 1997; Winant, 1997). Since the institutions included in this study are predominantly white, naturally, students who are more aligned with the dominant culture on campus may be less likely to recognize and be affected by microaggressions.

**Research Question 5:** Does African American college students’ racial/ethnic socialization moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering?
Based on the results from the current study, racial/ethnic socialization did not significantly moderate the negative relationships between microaggressions and mattering versus marginality and mattering to instructors, or the positive relationship with mattering perception of value. More specifically, significant correlations between scores on the Instrument of Microaggressions Against Black Individuals (IMABI) and subscales from the College Mattering Inventory (CMI) were not found to be significantly influenced by scores on the Cultural and Racial Ethnic Socialization (CARES) instrument. No previous research has explored the potential moderating effects of racial/ethnic socialization between microaggressions and mattering. There are some possible factors that could have contributed to these findings. The sample size in the current study should be taken into consideration. Due to the relatively small number of participants, variability of scores may have been an issue making it more difficult to investigate moderation. Furthermore, the CARES instrument uses a three-point scale, which may cause additional issues with score variability. Although moderation was not found, this is an important finding in the study. Previous research has shown that most parents seek to prepare their African American students to face racism prior to them leaving the home (Bentley-Edwards & Stevenson Jr., 2016). Results of this study also demonstrated that these students who have experienced microaggressions are already more likely to believe that their instructors do not value them and feel they don't belong on campus. Therefore, parents should provide their students with fair warning that their journeys may be somewhat complicated. Another potential reason racial ethnic socialization moderation was not found, is the significance of the combination of the other factors. If a student believes that others on campus, including professors, don't think highly of them and also feel like they don't belong on campus, it may be
difficult to imagine how any level of socialization could prepare them for the challenges they are facing.

**Research Question 6: Does African American college students’ academic motivation moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering?**

Based on the results from the current study academic intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation did not significantly moderate the negative relationships between microaggressions and mattering versus marginality and mattering to instructors, or the positive relationship between microaggressions and mattering perception of value. More specifically, significant correlations between scores on the IMABI and subscales from the CMI were not found to be significantly influenced by scores on the Academic Motivation Scale-College (AMS-C). There has been no research that has explored these potential moderating effects. As stated above, the relatively small sample size should be strongly considered as a potential factor. Despite the lack of significant moderation, this is an important finding in the study. Although intrinsic forms of motivation are considered more desirable, these internally regulated forms of academic motivation do not serve to significantly increase or decrease student’s perception that they matter on campus when they are faced with microaggressions. This is a powerful reminder that the experience of microaggressions is impactful and can be harmful to students regardless of their academic motivation.

**Research Question 7: Does African American college students’ Black Identity moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering?**

Based on the results from the current study Black Identity Centrality, Private Regard and Nationalist Ideology did not significantly moderate the negative relationship between microaggressions and mattering versus marginality and the positive relationship between
microaggressions and mattering perception of value. Regarding microaggressions and mattering to instructors, Black Identity Centrality and Private Regard did not moderate the relationship, but Nationalist Ideology was found as a significant moderator. Based on the results, African American students in the study who experienced microaggressions and held a strong regard for their African descent endorsed lower levels mattering to instructors. For students who endorsed lower levels of Nationalist Ideology, there was no significant relationship between microaggressions and mattering to instructors. Students who come to college with a strong sense of their African heritage, may be more deeply affected by microaggressions and also more aware of microaggressions directed at them by their instructors, who are more often White. This is a compelling finding of the current study and no previous research has explored the moderating effects of Black Identity Centrality, Private Regard and Nationalist Ideology as moderators of the relationship between microaggressions and mattering. Furthermore, no previous research has found Nationalist Identity to be a moderator of the relationship between microaggressions and mattering to instructors. This is an area that warrants additional research.

Implications of the Current Study

The current study adds to existing research about the journeys of African American students in higher education. The results of the current study indicated that African American students at PWIs are being exposed to microaggressions on their college campuses. They overall have a positive perception of themselves and also believe that their professors, advisors and other students value them on campus. The students in the study were predominantly extrinsically academically motivated, prepared by their support system to face discrimination and other racial challenges, and considered racial identity to be salient in their lives. College campuses are a microcosm of American society and racial tensions have seemingly increased in recent years.
Thus it is not surprising that these students in the study faced a myriad of racial challenges on campus. Despite the microaggressions that the students were exposed to, they still believed that they mattered and were academically motivated. This is one of the more exciting findings of the current study. The students are demonstrating resilience in the presence of adversity. It is important for clinicians on college campuses to consider the multiple of unique pressures on African American students that attend PWIs. It is also imperative that administrators and instructors gain a deeper understanding of the positive impact that their cultivated relationships with African American students can facilitate. Furthermore, universities should make a reasonable effort to honestly prepare prospective African American students for the racial challenges they may encounter on campus. The study further highlights the significant impact that experiencing microaggressions can have on students. Universities and Colleges that lack diversity should seek to better understanding the cultural climates on their campuses and work diligently to make appropriate changes to better serve their marginalized students. Below are additional specific recommendations based on the results of the current study, and a hypothetical model of mattering for African American undergraduates in PWIs is presented in Figure 2.

**Administrative Recommendations**

- Administrators at PWIs should be more open about the challenges regarding microaggressions that may face African American students when they arrive on campus and provide relevant resources for support during the admissions process.
- Administrators at PWIs should seek to create more inclusive policies, programs and spaces on campus for all students, which would undoubtedly positively benefit African American students.
Figure 2. Model of mattering for African American undergraduate students at PWIs.
• Instructors at PWIs should be aware of some of the unspoken barriers that could exist between them and their African American students and seek to facilitate professional and healthy relationships with these students.

• Administrators at PWIs should continue to create programming to increase African American student’s sense of belonging on campus.

• Administrators at PWIs should create campus-wide programming to teach all students about privilege, unconscious bias, and microaggressions, in recognition that some of the African American students on their campuses may be experiencing challenges.

• Administrators and program staff at PWIs should celebrate the academic accomplishments of all students, especially African American students keeping in mind that these students may tend to be more extrinsically academically motivated.

• Retention and remediation programming at PWIs for academic probation should include more robust exploration of challenges and barriers for African American students.

• Administration at PWIs should provide African American students with resources for mental health support throughout their college journey.

Clinical Recommendations

• Clinicians at PWIs should strongly consider racial identity salience when working with African American college students.

• Clinicians at PWIs should seek to better understand the wide range of challenges that may face African American students.

• Clinicians at PWIs should learn about racial/ethnic socialization and incorporate a discussion of this process into their work with African American students as necessary.
• Clinicians at PWIs should seek to become more aware of the cultural climate on campus for their African American clients.

Limitations and Future Research

The current study has a number of limitations. Unfortunately, there were multiple difficulties in recruiting students for this study. Due to the small number of African American students on the campuses where recruiting took place, it was difficult to find students to participate in the research. The small number of participants in the current study may limit the generalizability of the results. Moreover, other issues associated with a small sample size include increased probability of a Type I error, inflated effect size estimation and low statistical power (Runyon, Pittenger & Coleman 1996). Future research should consider a more robust form of recruiting that includes a larger numbers of participants and institutions. The survey instruments used for the current study were also very extensive and long. Numerous participants started the survey but failed to complete it due to the length. Future research should consider utilizing specific subscales of interest in order to increase the potential of survey completion. There are also limitations to utilizing quantitative results to describe the journeys of African American students. The results from the current study are limited to the confines of the language and scoring criteria used on the survey instruments. Considering the importance of storytelling within the African American community, utilizing a mixed-methods approach may provide a more in-depth picture of these students’ journeys and experiences. Future research could select students based on their scores on the IMABI to further explore how they overcome microaggressions while maintaining higher levels of mattering. Students should also be distinguished by their year in school to better understand how students newer to the campus versus older students experience these factors. Future research should also explore the differing experiences of African
American men and women and also students who identify as Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Queer. The process by which African American students are able to persist and maintain adequate levels of self-esteem and confidence, despite facing racial barriers at PWIs, is an area that warrants further research. If researchers are able to better understand how these students remain resilient in the presence of adversity, perhaps parents, teachers and administrators can better prepare students who may face similar challenges in the future.

**Conclusion**

The current study explored the relationships between microaggressions, racial ethnic socialization, academic motivation, Black Identity and mattering and the moderating effects of racial ethnic socialization, academic motivation and Black Identity on the relationship between microaggressions and mattering of African American college students at predominantly white institutions. By examining the relationships between microaggressions and mattering, the current study aimed to determine if there were any factors that moderated the relationship. Racial/ethnic socialization, academic motivation, Black Identity Centrality and Private Regard were not found to moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering. Nationalist Ideology, a dimension of Black Identity was found to moderate the relationship between microaggressions and mattering to instructors. Results of the current study provide a unique look into the journeys of African American students at predominately white institutions. Results from this study confirmed that students do face microaggressions on campus; find value in themselves and consider their peers, instructors and advisors to value them; are extrinsically academically motivated; and see African American Identity to be a salient part of their lives. The African American students in this study who experienced more microaggressions believed that their instructors did not value them, and felt like they did not belong on campus. The students in the
current study were also more likely to have been prepared by the people in their support system to face racism and tended to be more academically motivated. The academic and social challenges of college are difficult to navigate. The current study brings attention to the added issues that African American college students who attend PWIs are tasked with navigating. These students, despite facing racism on their college campuses, are able to maintain, persist and find value in their experiences.
References


Scott Jr., L. D. (2003). THE RELATION OF RACIAL IDENTITY AND RACIAL SOCIALIZATION TO COPING WITH DISCRIMINATION AMONG AFRICAN AMERICAN ADOLESCENTS. 
*Journal Of Black Studies*, 33(4), 520.


Appendix A

Operational Definitions of Key Factors

**Microaggressions** - Sue and colleagues’ (2007) definition, microaggressions are “brief and commonplace daily verbal, behavioral, and environmental indignities, whether intentional or unintentional, that communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative racial slights and insults that potentially have harmful or unpleasant psychological impact on the target person or group” (p. 273).

**Mattering** - will be defined following the description by Rosenberg and McCullough (1981) “Mattering is a motive: the feeling that others depend on us, are interested in us, are concerned with our fate, or experience us as an ego-extension exercises a powerful influence on our actions” (p. 165).

**Racial/Ethnic socialization** - outlined by Bentley-Edwards & Stevenson Jr. (2016), will be defined as “the transmission and acquisition of intellectual, affective, and behavioral skills toward the protection and affirmation of racial self-efficacy.” (pg. 96).

**Academic motivation** - will be defined as the driving forces behind a student’s desire to attain education in higher education, whether internal, external or amotivational (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier & Ryan 1991).

**The Multidimensional Model of Racial Identity** - will guide the interpretation of African American racial identity, thus defined as an individual’s ideology they associate with their identity, how they regard other African Americans, and the centrality of which they consider their membership as an African American (Sellers et. al, 1997).
Informed Consent

Title: EXPLORING MODERATING EFFECTS OF RACIAL/ETHNIC SOCIALIZATION, ACADEMIC MOTIVATION AND AFRICAN AMERICAN RACIAL IDENTITY ON THE RELATION BETWEEN MICROAGGRESSIONS AND MATTERING OF AFRICAN AMERICAN STUDENTS AT PREDOMINANTLY WHITE INSTITUTIONS

Purpose:

This research project will aim to examine how the experience of racial microaggressions, covert racial insults and subtle comments that invalidate a minority’s experience, effect the mattering of African American students enrolled at predominantly white institutions. You are being asked to participate in this study because you are an African American undergraduate student, at least 19 years of age or older, currently enrolled at a predominantly white institution.

Procedures:

In this study, you will be asked to complete an online questionnaire that asks questions about your experiences of microaggressions, racial/ethnic socialization, academic motivation, African American racial identity and mattering. This questionnaire will take approximately 20-30 minutes to complete. These questionnaires may help faculty and administrators better understand how to better support African American students at your institution. This online questionnaire can be completed on a desktop or laptop computer or on a smartphone.

Benefits:

There are no direct benefits to you as a research participant.

Risks and/or Discomforts:

There are no known risks or discomforts associated with this research.

Confidentiality:

Any information obtained during this study which could identify you will be kept strictly confidential. The data will be stored in a locked cabinet in the investigator’s office and will only be seen by the investigator during the study and for 5 years after the study is complete. The information obtained in this study may be published in scientific journals or presented at scientific meetings but the data will be reported as aggregated data.

Compensation:
You will receive $5 Gift Card for participating in this project.

**Opportunity to Ask Questions:**

You may ask any questions concerning this research and have those questions answered before agreeing to participate in or during the study. Or you may contact the investigator(s) at the phone numbers below. Please contact the University of Nebraska-Lincoln Institutional Review Board at (402) 472-6965 to voice concerns about the research or if you have any questions about your rights as a research participant.

**Freedom to Withdraw:**

Participation in this study is voluntary. You can refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without harming your relationship with the researchers or the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, or in any other way receive a penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

**Consent, Right to Receive a Copy:**

You are voluntarily making a decision whether or not to participate in this research study. Your signature certifies that you have decided to participate having read and understood the information presented. You will be given a copy of this consent form to keep.

**IRB#**

**Participant Feedback Survey:**

The University of Nebraska-Lincoln wants to know about your research experience. This 14 question, multiple-choice survey is anonymous; however, you can provide your contact information if you want someone to follow-up with you. This survey should be completed after your participation in this research. Please complete this optional online survey at: https://ssp.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_aVvlNCf0U1vse5n.

**Signature of Participant:**

__________________________________________________________________________  ___________________________________________________________________
Signature of Research Participant                                      Date

**Name and Phone number of investigator(s)**

Lawrence J. Chatters, M.A., Principal Investigator Office: (402) 730-3437

Michael Scheel, Ph.D., Secondary Investigator Office (402) 472-0573
Appendix C
Demographic Questions

Please indicate your age.

○ Under 19

○ 19 or Older

Ethnicity origin (or Race): Please specify your ethnicity.

○ White

○ Hispanic or Latino

○ Black or African American

○ Native American or American Indian

○ Asian / Pacific Islander

○ Other

What school do you currently attend?

○ University of Nebraska-Lincoln

○ University of Nebraska-Omaha

○ University of Nebraska Medical Center

What is your gender?

○ Female

○ Male
- Non-binary/third gender
- Prefer not to say
Appendix D

College Mattering Inventory (CMI)


We are interested to learn about your experiences as a student at College. On a scale of 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much), please indicate the degree to which you believe each of the statements is representative of your experience.

1=Not at all 2=Slightly 3=Somewhat 4=Moderately 5=Very much

1. I often feel my instructor(s) care more about other things than me as a student.
2. Knowing that other people at the college care for me motivates me to do better.
3. There are people at the college that sincerely appreciate my involvement as a student.
4. It is comforting to know that my contributions are valued by my instructors.
5. Sometimes I feel that I am not interesting to anyone at the college.
6. I believe that my counselor(s) would miss me if I suddenly stopped attending college.
7. My counselor is generally receptive to what I have to say.
8. I sometimes feel my instructor(s) want me to hurry up and finish speaking.
9. Other students rely on me for support.
10. If I stopped attending college, my counselor(s) would be disappointed.
11. Sometimes my instructors simply do not listen to what I have to say.
12. Other students are happy for me when I do well in exams or projects.
13. Sometimes I feel that no one at the college notices me.
14. Sometimes I feel alone at the college.
15. Sometimes I get so wrapped up in my personal problems that I isolate myself from others at the college.
16. I often feel isolated when involved in student activities (e.g., clubs, events).

17. My instructors sometimes ignore my comments or questions.

18. If I had a personal problem, I believe that counselors would be willing to discuss it with me.

19. People on campus seem happy about my accomplishments.

20. When in groups, other students tend to rely on my contributions.

21. There are people on campus who are sad for me when I fail in something I set out to do.

22. Some students are dependent on my guidance or assistance to help them succeed.

23. Some people on campus are disappointed in me when I do not accomplish all I should.

24. People on campus are generally supportive of my individual needs.

25. There are people at the college who are genuinely interested in me as a person.

26. I often feel socially inadequate at school.

27. Counselors at the college generally show their concern for students' well-being.

28. There are people at the college who are concerned about my future.

29. I sometimes feel pressured to do better because people at the college would be disappointed if I did not.
Inventory of Microaggressions Against Black Individuals (IMABI)


Instructions: Events that sometimes occur in the lives of students are listed below. Please read each event carefully. Indicate whether you have experienced each event DURING THE LAST YEAR and how much the event upset you if you experienced it. Please respond using the following scale:

0 – This has NEVER HAPPENED TO ME
1 – This event happened but I was NOT UPSET
2 – This event happened and I was SLIGHTLY UPSET
3 – This event happened and I was MODERATELY UPSET
4 – This event happened and I was EXTREMELY UPSET

1. I was made to feel that my achievements were primarily due to preferential treatment based on my racial/ethnic background.

2. I was treated like I was of inferior status because of my racial/ethnic background.

3. I was treated as if I was a potential criminal because of my racial/ethnic background.

4. I was made to feel as if the cultural values of another race/ethnic group were better than my own.

5. Someone told me that I am not like other people of my racial/ethnic background.

6. Someone made a statement to me that they are not racist or prejudiced because they have friends from different racial/ethnic backgrounds.

7. I was made to feel like I was talking too much about my racial/ethnic background.

8. When successful, I felt like people were surprised that someone of my racial/ethnic background could succeed.

9. Someone assumed I was a service worker or laborer because of my race/ethnicity.
10. I was followed in a store due to my race/ethnicity.

11. Someone reacted negatively to the way I dress because of my racial/ethnic background.

12. Someone asked my opinion as a representative of my race/ethnicity.

13. Someone told me that they are not racist or prejudiced even though their behavior suggests that they might be.

14. Someone told me that everyone can get ahead if they work hard when I described a difficulty related to my racial/ethnic background.
Appendix F

Youth Version-Cultural And Racial Experiences of Socialization (CARES-Frequency)

Howard C. Stevenson, Ph.D., University of Pennsylvania and Keisha L. Bentley-Edwards, Ph.D., Duke University

Have your parents/relatives, friends/peers, teachers/professors, other adults or the media said to you any of the following statements throughout your lifetime? Please use the following scale.

1= Never 2=A Few Time 3=Lots of Times

1. You should be proud to be Black.
2. Schools should be required to teach all children about Black history.
3. It’s important to remember the experience of Black slavery.
4. Living in an all Black neighborhood is no way to show that you are successful.
5. African and Caribbean people think they are better than Black Americans.
6. You really can’t trust most White people.
7. Poor Black people are always looking for a hand out.
8. Fitting into school or work means swallowing your anger when you see racism.
9. Spiritual battles that people fight are more important than the physical battles.
10. Whites make it hard for people to get ahead in this world.
11. Life is easier for light-skinned Black people than it is for dark-skinned Black people.
12. Since the world has become so multicultural, it’s wrong to only focus on Black issues.
13. Black children should be taught early that God can protect them from racial hatred.
14. Sports are the only way for Black kids to get out of the hood.
16. Black women keep the family strong.
17. Africans and Caribbean people get along with Black Americans.

18. When Black people make money, they try to forget they are Black.

19. You can’t trust Black people who act too friendly with White people.

20. "Don't forget who your people are because you may need them someday."

21. You should learn more about Black history so that you can prevent people from treating you unfairly.

22. Black children will learn more if they go to a mostly white school.

23. You have to work twice as hard as whites in order to get ahead in this world.

24. Knowing your African heritage is important for the survival of Black people.

25. Sometimes you have to correct White people when they make racist statements about Black people.

26. You can learn a lot from being around important White people.

27. Racism is not as bad today as it used to be.

28. "Train up a child in the way he should go, and he will not turn away from it."

29. Black people have to work together in order to get ahead.

30. More jobs would be open to African Americans if employers were not racist.

31. Sometimes you have to make yourself less threatening to make White people around you comfortable.

32. Light skinned Blacks think they are better than dark-skinned Black people.

33. Racism is real, and you have to understand it or it will hurt you.

34. Good Black men are the backbone of a strong family. Black women just want money.
Appendix G

Academic Motivation Scale (AMS-C)

Robert J. Vallerand, Luc G. Pelletier, Marc R. Blais, Nathalie M. Brière,
Caroline B. Senécal, Évelyne F. Vallières, 1992

Using the scale below, indicate to what extent each of the following items presently corresponds to one of the reasons why you go to college

1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Somewhat Disagree 4=Neutral 5=Somewhat Agree 6=Agree 7=Strongly Agree

WHY DO YOU GO TO COLLEGE?

1. Because with only a high-school degree I would not find a high-paying job later on. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. Because I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning new things. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. Because I think that a college education will help me better prepare for the career I have chosen. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. For the intense feelings I experience when I am communicating my own ideas to others. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. Honestly, I don't know; I really feel that I am wasting my time in school. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. For the pleasure I experience while surpassing
myself in my studies.

7. To prove to myself that I am capable of completing my
college degree.

8. In order to obtain a more prestigious job later on.

9. For the pleasure I experience when I discover
new things never seen before.

10. Because eventually it will enable me to enter the
job market in a field that I like.

11. For the pleasure that I experience when I read
interesting authors.

12. I once had good reasons for going to college;
however, now I wonder whether I should continue.

13. For the pleasure that I experience while I am surpassing
myself in one of my personal accomplishments.

14. Because of the fact that when I succeed in college
I feel important.

15. Because I want to have "the good life" later on.
WHY DO YOU GO TO COLLEGE?

1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Somewhat Disagree 4=Neutral 5=Somewhat Agree 6=Agree 7=Strongly Agree

16. For the pleasure that I experience in broadening my knowledge about subjects which appeal to me.  
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

17. Because this will help me make a better choice regarding my career orientation.  
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18. For the pleasure that I experience when I feel completely absorbed by what certain authors have written.  
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19. I can't see why I go to college and frankly, I couldn't care less.  
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult academic activities.  
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

21. To show myself that I am an intelligent person.  
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

22. In order to have a better salary later on.  
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

23. Because my studies allow me to continue to learn about many things that interest me.  
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

24. Because I believe that a few additional years of education will improve my competence as a worker.  
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
25. For the "high" feeling that I experience while reading about various interesting subjects.

26. I don't know; I can't understand what I am doing in school.

27. Because college allows me to experience a personal satisfaction in my quest for excellence in my studies.

28. Because I want to show myself that I can succeed in my studies.
Appendix H

The Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (MIBI)


1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Somewhat Disagree 4=Neutral 5=Somewhat Agree 6=Agree 7=Strongly Agree

1. Overall, being Black has very little to do with how I feel about myself.

2. It is important for Black people to surround their children with Black art, music and literature.

3. Black people should not marry interracially.

4. I feel good about Black people.

5. Overall, Blacks are considered good by others.

6. In general, being Black is an important part of my self-image.

7. I am happy that I am Black.

8. I feel that Blacks have made major accomplishments and advancements.

9. My destiny is tied to the destiny of other Black people.

10. Blacks who espouse separatism are as racist as White people who also espouse separatism.

11. Blacks would be better off if they adopted Afrocentric values.

12. Black students are better off going to schools that are controlled and organized by Blacks.

13. Being Black is unimportant to my sense of what kind of person I am.


14. Black people must organize themselves into a separate Black political force.

15. In general, others respect Black people.

16. Whenever possible, Blacks should buy from other Black businesses.

17. Most people consider Blacks, on the average, to be more ineffective than other racial groups.

18. A sign of progress is that Blacks are in the mainstream of America more than ever before.

19. I have a strong sense of belonging to Black people.

20. The same forces which have led to the oppression of Blacks have also led to the oppression of other groups.

21. A thorough knowledge of Black history is very important for Blacks today.

22. Blacks and Whites can never live in true harmony because of racial differences.

23. Black values should not be inconsistent with human values.

24. I often regret that I am Black.

25. White people can never be trusted where Blacks are concerned.

26. Blacks should have the choice to marry interracially.

27. Blacks and Whites have more commonalities than differences.

28. Black people should not consider race when buying art or selecting a book to read.

29. Blacks would be better off if they were more concerned with the problems facing all people than just focusing on Black issues.

30. Being an individual is more important than identifying oneself as Black.

31. We are all children of a higher being, therefore, we should love people of all races.

32. Blacks should judge Whites as individuals and not as members of the White race.

33. I have a strong attachment to other Black people.
34. The struggle for Black liberation in America should be closely related to the struggle of other oppressed groups.

35. People regardless of their race have strengths and limitations.

36. Blacks should learn about the oppression of other groups.

37. Because America is predominantly white, it is important that Blacks go to White schools so that they can gain experience interacting with Whites.

38. Black people should treat other oppressed people as allies.

39. Blacks should strive to be full members of the American political system.

40. Blacks should try to work within the system to achieve their political and economic goals.

41. Blacks should strive to integrate all institutions which are segregated.

42. The racism Blacks have experienced is similar to that of other minority groups.

43. Blacks should feel free to interact socially with White people.

44. Blacks should view themselves as being Americans first and foremost.

45. There are other people who experience racial injustice and indignities similar to Black Americans.

46. The plight of Blacks in America will improve only when Blacks are in important positions within the system.

47. Blacks will be more successful in achieving their goals if they form coalitions with other oppressed groups.

48. Being Black is an important reflection of who I am.

49. Blacks should try to become friends with people from other oppressed groups.

50. The dominant society devalues anything not White male oriented.

51. Being Black is not a major factor in my social relationships.

52. Blacks are not respected by the broader society.
53. In general, other groups view Blacks in a positive manner.

54. I am proud to be Black.

55. I feel that the Black community has made valuable contributions to this society. Society views Black people as an asset.

56. Black women just want money.

## Appendix I

### Recruitment Cards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thank you for your interest in participating in this study!</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Please go to: <a href="http://tinyurl.com/zmbesoz">http://tinyurl.com/zmbesoz</a> or scan the VR Code on this card for more information.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Hi my name is Lawrence Chatters. I want to start off with saying thank you for giving me the opportunity to come to your gathering. I am a doctoral candidate in the counseling psychology department here at the University of Nebraska Lincoln. I am examining how the experience of racial microaggressions, covert racial insults and subtle comments that invalidate a minority’s experience, effect the mattering of African American students enrolled at predominantly white institutions. You are being asked to participate in this study because you are an undergraduate African American student, at least 19 years of age or older, currently enrolled at a predominantly white institution. Students who participate in the study will be asked to complete a set of questions that ask about their experiences with microaggressions, racial/ethnic socialization, academic motivation African American racial identity and mattering.

The information provided by you will be kept in the strictest confidence. Your responses to the questionnaire will not be seen by anyone other than me and your responses to the questions will not be linked to your name or any identifiable information. All data will be kept confidential.

If you have any questions after I leave you can contact me at 402-730-3437 or email me at Lawrence.chatters@gmail.com.

If you choose to participate and complete the survey you will be compensated with a $5 Gift Card.

Please feel free to ask your group leader for a card with the information to access the survey. Thank you for your time.