

v1: 6 August 2024

## Research Article

# Racial Composition and Perceptions of Microaggressions: Implications for High School Counselors

Peer-approved: 6 August 2024

© The Author(s) 2024. This is an Open Access article under the CC BY 4.0 license.

Qeios, Vol. 6 (2024)  
ISSN: 2632-3834

Samantha Robinson<sup>1</sup>, Kristi Perryman<sup>1</sup>, Kendra Shoge<sup>1</sup>

1. University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, United States

This study examined the impact that the racial composition of prior environments (specifically, high school and neighborhood environments) has on the reported occurrence of racial microaggressions among self-identified minority college students in the Midwest. Participating students completed the Racial Microaggression Scale, a survey instrument whose primary domain is intended to assess the frequency of occurrence of racial microaggressions. Findings indicated that the racial composition of high school and neighborhood environments has a statistically significant effect on the reported occurrence of racial microaggressions. Additionally, findings indicated that the microaggression themes of criminality and undesirability are particularly related to the racial composition of prior environments, with students from a majority minority background reporting incidents of criminality- and undesirability-themed racial microaggressions more frequently than their peers. Implications will be included for professional school counselors working with these students at the high school level.

**Correspondence:** [papers@team.qeios.com](mailto:papers@team.qeios.com) — Qeios will forward to the authors

## Introduction

At institutions of higher education (IHE), especially many selective IHE, White students are still over-represented, as are White faculty and administrators<sup>[1]</sup>, and with racial protests and tensions on many college campuses, focus has returned to campus climate issues.

With the legal basis against discrimination and racially motivated acts of violence, some may assume that any observable differences in college experiences for people of color (POC) are not related to race but, rather, to behavioral and cultural attributes<sup>[2]</sup>. However, multiple studies suggest racially related incidents are still embedded into the cultural fabric of the United States

and contribute to disparities between racial/ethnic groups<sup>[3][4][5][6]</sup>.

Discriminatory actions have increasingly been in the spotlight for several years. In 2014, 18-year-old Michael Brown, Jr., a Black male, was shot by a Ferguson police officer who was not indicted for the murder, resulting in weeks of violent protests. The following year, a series of events marked by racial discrimination also led to protests<sup>[7]</sup>. These events, and others, resulted in a NAACP travel advisory being issued in 2017, alerting people of color to use caution while in Missouri<sup>[8]</sup>. The murder of George Floyd by police officers in 2020 highlighted the violence against Black people<sup>[9]</sup> and has cast media attention on these occurrences and their frequency since.

Discriminatory actions are also apparent in educational institutions<sup>[3]</sup>. In the spring of 2019, a high school

student in Southwest Missouri posted a racist video to social media in which he threatened to lynch Black classmates<sup>[10]</sup>. In Nebraska, students at a majority Latino high school faced racist remarks and were spit on during sporting events by fans of opposing teams<sup>[11]</sup>. Unfortunately, these types of reports of discrimination on both high school and college campuses persist. Despite the persistence of blatant discriminatory actions, this study focuses on the experiences of students of color with the more subtle forms of racism, such as microaggressions, which also have a powerful impact.

### *Microaggressions*

Negative racial interactions, discrimination, and prejudice are based on stereotypes<sup>[5]</sup>. Microaggressions, then, are the outward expression of these stereotypes<sup>[5]</sup>. They are defined as brief and commonplace daily behavioral, verbal, and environmental indignities that communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative racial slights or insults, whether intentional or unintentional<sup>[3][5][12]</sup>. Examples of microaggressions include assumptions of criminality, including being treated as if one is aggressive or dangerous<sup>[13]</sup>. Assumptions of criminality may include being watched closely in a store with the expectation that one is stealing or being avoided on the sidewalk out of fear. This is consistent with findings that Black men are often stereotyped as being aggressive or criminals,<sup>[14]</sup> and Black women are stereotyped as being antagonistic<sup>[15]</sup>. Another example involves messages of undesirability. This includes being treated as though persons from your racial background are all the same, are incapable, and are low achieving<sup>[3][13]</sup>. Any successful individuals from that particular race would be seen as special or having received some special treatment rather than being capable, hardworking, and high achieving<sup>[13]</sup>.

Racial microaggressions and their frequency can be easily dismissed due to the unclear nature of the interactions. As stated previously, microaggressions can occur outside of the perpetrator's conscious awareness, and they can be unintentional<sup>[3][5]</sup>. Researchers<sup>[16]</sup> have found that students of color frequently experience racial microaggressions and, when reporting negative racially motivated incidents on their college campus, students stated feeling that they were quickly dismissed or ignored. Students reported that peers continued to make racist jokes even after being told the comments were offensive<sup>[16]</sup>, and other students have

reported that attempts to have conversations about race and racism in classes were shut down by peers or faculty<sup>[17]</sup>. This invalidation can result in the students of color believing that they lack importance and do not belong in education. Microaggressions have complex dynamics that may be more psychologically stressful than other more blatant forms of discrimination. The subtlety involved leaves the recipient feeling confused and questioning their judgment, which makes a response difficult<sup>[3][18][19]</sup>.

Racial microaggressions can have a lasting impact, and Torres et al.<sup>[20]</sup> found that Black college students encountered microaggressions that included having their personal ability underestimated, feeling that they were being treated like criminals, and feeling that they were isolated from others. The students reported increased levels of stress and were at higher risk for depression than other students<sup>[20]</sup>. Other studies have reported similar results; McGee & Stoval<sup>[21]</sup> stated that many of the Black students they interviewed appeared resilient, but they were also suffering from chronic or acute stress due to the racism they endure on a daily basis. Discrimination has consistently been associated with negative mental health indicators such as anxiety, depression, and lower levels of life satisfaction, self-esteem, and happiness<sup>[22][23]</sup>. Students experience discrimination and prejudice<sup>[16]</sup>, then receive messages that they are incapable, incompetent, or dangerous criminals, and all of this has an impact on student life as well as their emotional and psychological well-being and academic success<sup>[20]</sup>.

***Microaggressions in Education.*** Though students of color report often experiencing negative, racially motivated interactions with peers, others seem unaware of the problem<sup>[24]</sup>. A multi-campus study was conducted by Harper and Hurtado<sup>[25]</sup> examining racial climate at different colleges, and they found that White students were unfamiliar with the negative dispositions minority students held about their institution. Midgette and Mulvey<sup>[24]</sup> conducted a study with similar results investigating White students attending predominantly white institutions (PWIs). White students adopting the color-blind ideology evaluated microaggressions as appropriate responses. Studies have further shown that PWIs adversely affect the academic achievements of minority students and create social conflicts when faculty and deans remain insensitive to, or unaware of, multicultural issues<sup>[25][26]</sup>. Thus, it is vital that those in positions of power on college campuses gain awareness

of the impact of their actions and address incidences of discrimination directly.

Education and advocacy regarding microaggressions and their impact must start earlier for subsequent changes to be evident before students enter college. There is currently little research concerning high school students and their experiences of racial microaggressions. However, a study by Hunt, et al. [27] found that students who are part of all minority communities reported the least amount of discrimination, those in mixed communities reported more, and those in majority White communities reported the most. Reported discrimination can be highest for those first moving into all White communities, or from a diverse neighborhood to a PWI[27]. Leath et al.[28] found that the perceived discrimination was higher for Black students in districts where the majority of students were White. Districts where the majority of students were Black had lower perceived discrimination, despite the fact that teachers in both districts were predominantly White. This further underscores the importance of teachers being trained and demonstrates that having an awareness of a student's background and community experiences can be beneficial in helping that student prepare for new environments. It is also important to be aware that students still experience microaggressions and discrimination, and to take reports of such events seriously.

## *Purpose of the Study*

The purpose of this study was to determine if reported racial microaggression occurrence (overall and among six racial microaggression themes) among self-identified racial or ethnic minority college students differs based upon the racial composition of the prior environment, where the prior environment was defined as school and neighborhood environments prior to college. Research questions posed were:

- Does the racial composition of the prior environment impact racial microaggression occurrence?
- Does the racial composition of the prior environment impact racial microaggression occurrence differentially by theme?

## **Method**

### *Participants*

Participants in this study included 41 self-identified racial or ethnic minority college students located on one university campus. All participants in this study were volunteers. Approximately 61% of the participating students were female, and 54% identified their race as being African or African American. Table 1 provides additional demographic information for the sample participants.

<i>Demographic</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Percentage (%)</i>
<i>Sex</i>	<b>41</b>	<b>100.00</b>
<i>Male</i>	16	39.02
<i>Female</i>	25	60.98
<i>Race/Ethnicity</i>	<b>41</b>	<b>100.00</b>
<i>African or African American</i>	22	53.66
<i>Asian, Pacific Islander or Asian/American</i>	4	9.76
<i>Hispanic</i>	8	19.51
<i>Multiracial</i>	7	17.07
<i>Education Level (Class)</i>	<b>41</b>	<b>100.00</b>
<i>Freshman</i>	35	85.37
<i>Sophomore</i>	2	4.88
<i>Junior</i>	1	2.44
<i>Senior</i>	1	2.44
<i>Graduate</i>	2	4.88
<i>Neighborhood Racial Composition</i>	<b>41</b>	<b>100.00</b>
<i>Majority Minority</i>	22	53.66
<i>Majority White</i>	19	46.34
<i>High School Racial Composition</i>	<b>41</b>	<b>100.00</b>
<i>Majority Minority</i>	16	39.02
<i>Majority White</i>	25	60.98

**Table 1.** *Demographic Features Representative of the Sample Participants*

## *Procedure*

After receiving prior approval from the university Institutional Review Board, the researcher contacted professors and representatives of multicultural organizations, requesting permission to speak with students and members. Forty-one students who met the criteria for the current study responded during the data collection period. The researcher notified students that their names and responses would remain confidential and that they could cease participation in the study without repercussions.

Those who chose to participate received an informed consent document and multiple surveys, including a demographic survey and the Racial Microaggressions

Scale (RMAS). The participants and all data obtained from them through questionnaires were kept anonymous.

## *Measures*

The study utilized the RMAS, a previously validated instrument, to measure the occurrence of racial microaggressions.

**RMAS.** The RMAS consists of 32 items rated on a four-point Likert-type scale. Each item is evaluated on two domains: a primary domain assessing the frequency of occurrence of racial microaggressions and a secondary domain assessing incident-related stress. The instrument is used to assess the secondary domain measure of incident-related stress for each item only if

an individual reports having experienced that particular racial microaggression. This necessarily implies that the secondary domain of incident-related stress is not assessed for all individuals across all items. Given that assessment of the secondary domain is contingent upon participants' item-level responses on the primary domain, the current study will focus only on the primary domain of the RMAS.

The primary domain for each item is intended to assess the frequency of occurrence of racial microaggressions and is rated on a four-point Likert-type scale, with 0 = never, 1 = a little/rarely, 2 = sometimes/a moderate amount, 3 = often/frequently<sup>[13]</sup>. Examples of items on the instrument include: "Because of my race, people suggest that I am not a 'true' American", "Others hint that I should work hard to prove that I am not like other people of my race", and "I am singled out by police or security people because of my race".

Responses on the primary domain for all 32 items on the RMAS instrument were averaged to create a scale score (0.0 to 3.0) and subscale scores (0.0 to 3.0) for each of six particular racial microaggression themes (Foreigner, Criminality, Sexuality, Undesirability, Invisibility, and Environmental Invalidations), with

higher scores indicating a greater frequency of racial microaggression occurrence.

In previous studies, the six microaggression theme subscales were shown to be related yet distinct<sup>[13]</sup>. Torres-Harding et al.<sup>[13]</sup> also noted that the internal consistency reliability of the RMAS items was found to be adequate for each of the six microaggression theme subscales using Cronbach's alpha values: Foreigner/Not Belonging ( $\alpha = .78$ ), Criminality ( $\alpha = .85$ ), Sexuality/Sexualization ( $\alpha = .83$ ), Undesirability of Culture/Low-Achieving Culture ( $\alpha = .87$ ), Invisibility ( $\alpha = .89$ ), and Environmental Invalidations ( $\alpha = .81$ ).

The internal consistency reliability in the present study was evaluated for agreement with these previous study findings. The internal consistency reliability of the RMAS scale and respective subscales for the study sample was measured with Cronbach's alpha. Table 2 provides the mean, standard deviation, internal consistency reliability (coefficient alpha), and corresponding confidence interval for the current sample on the RMAS overall and each of the six subscales. The internal consistency reliability for the present study was found to be both adequate and consistent with previous studies (see Table 2).

<i>Instrument</i>	<i># of Items</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>Coefficient Alpha</i>	<i>95% CI for Alpha</i>
<b><i>RMAS Overall (Likert 0.0 to 3.0)</i></b>	<b>32</b>	<b>1.25 (0.65)</b>	<b>0.94</b>	<b>[0.92, 0.97]</b>
<i>Foreigner</i>	3	0.94 (0.91)	0.73	[0.59, 0.87]
<i>Criminality</i>	4	1.09 (0.97)	0.88	[0.82, 0.94]
<i>Sexuality</i>	3	0.98 (1.02)	0.86	[0.78, 0.93]
<i>Undesirability</i>	9	1.64 (0.86)	0.91	[0.86, 0.95]
<i>Invisibility</i>	8	0.72 (0.63)	0.85	[0.78, 0.91]
<i>Environmental Invalidations</i>	5	1.74 (0.89)	0.79	[0.68, 0.89]

**Table 2.** Scale-Level Internal Consistency Reliability for Average Item Scale Score

**Racial Composition of Prior Environment.** The demographic survey utilized in this study defined the term “Minority” as an individual coming from racial or ethnic groups such as Black/African American, Hispanic, and Asian American. With this terminology provided on the survey, respondents also answered two questions related to the approximate racial composition of the high school the respondent had attended and to the approximate racial composition of the neighborhood in which the respondent primarily grew up. Responses to these two questions were used to determine the racial composition of the prior environment. Respondents reported an approximate percentage of minority members in each environment. This reported percentage was then dichotomized such that  $\geq 50\%$  minority was considered to be a “Majority Minority” environment and  $< 50\%$  minority was considered to be a “Majority White” environment. Approximately 60% of respondents attended a “Majority White” high school, yet nearly 55% of respondents grew up in a “Majority Minority” neighborhood (see Table 1).

High school and neighborhood racial composition considered together resulted in three emergent groups: (1) individuals who attended both a majority minority high school and grew up in a majority minority neighborhood, (2) individuals who attended a majority White high school but grew up in a majority minority neighborhood or vice versa, and (3) individuals who attended both a majority White high school and grew up in a majority White neighborhood. These three groups serve as three levels for the factor of racial

composition of prior environment: (1) All Minority, (2) Minority/White Mixture, and (3) All White.

### Data Analysis

Average scale and subscale scores for racial microaggression occurrence overall (and for six microaggression themes), along with coded indicators of the racial composition in each respondent’s prior environment, were analyzed to determine if a significant relationship exists between background environmental racial composition and reported racial microaggression occurrence among self-identified racial or ethnic minority college students.

In order to assess the statistical significance of differences in reported racial microaggression occurrence among these college students based on racial composition of prior environment, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed. All analyses were performed with statistical significance set at the  $p = .05$  level.

## Results

The primary goal of the present study was to examine the impact that racial composition of prior environment (specifically, high school and neighborhood environments) has on reported racial microaggression occurrence among self-identified minority college students.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to evaluate the relationship between racial composition of prior environment and reported racial

microaggression occurrence (overall and for six microaggression themes) among self-identified racial or ethnic minority college students. The strength of the relationship between the variables of interest was also summarized with a measure of effect size, Cohen's *f*, an extension of Cohen's *d* used in settings with more than 2 groups. All analyses were performed with statistical significance set at the  $p = .05$  level.

Means and standard deviations of RMAS scale scores were calculated for each of the three racial composition levels ("All Minority", "Minority/White Mixture", "All

White"). These descriptive statistics are provided in Table 3 to summarize the relative strength of the observed association between the racial composition of the prior environment and reported racial microaggression occurrence (overall and for six microaggression themes). RMAS scale scores ranged from 0.0 to 3.0, with higher values indicating a greater frequency of racial microaggression occurrence. Students coming from a minority/White mixture environment appeared to report a lower frequency of microaggression occurrence overall and for all six microaggression themes (see Table 3).

<i>Instrument</i>	<i>Majority Minority M (SD)</i>	<i>Minority/ Majority Mixture M (SD)</i>	<i>Majority White M (SD)</i>	<i>p-value</i>	<i>Effect Size (f<sub>Cohen</sub>)</i>
<b><i>RMAS Overall (Likert 0.0 to 3.0)</i></b>	<b>1.48 (0.45)</b>	<b>1.02 (0.70)</b>	<b>1.11 (0.75)</b>	<b>0.158</b>	<b>0.32</b>
<i>Foreigner</i>	1.04 (0.71)	0.61 (0.61)	0.96 (1.14)	0.617	0.16
<i>Criminality</i>	1.50 (0.85)	0.50 (0.77)	0.89 (1.00)	0.044**	0.42
<i>Sexuality</i>	0.92 (1.06)	0.61 (1.04)	1.17 (0.98)	0.495	0.19
<i>Undesirability</i>	1.99 (0.49)	1.17 (1.02)	1.48 (0.99)	0.067*	0.39
<i>Invisibility</i>	0.92 (0.60)	0.63 (0.73)	0.55 (0.62)	0.216	0.29
<i>Environmental Invalidations</i>	2.05 (0.76)	1.43 (0.92)	1.56 (0.94)	0.172	0.31

**Table 3.** Relationships Between Racial Composition of Prior Environment and Reported Racial Microaggression Occurrence

\* ANOVA is Significant at the 0.10 Level \*\* ANOVA is Significant at the 0.05 Level

### Research Question 1

At the  $p = .05$  level, the ANOVA for the overall RMAS scale score was not significant,  $F(2, 37) = 1.94$ ,  $p = .158$ ,  $f_{Cohen} = 0.32$ . However, the strength of the relationship between the racial composition of the prior environment and reported racial microaggression occurrence overall, as assessed by Cohen's  $f$ , was moderate to large. The RMAS scale score means and standard deviations for each of the three racial composition levels, as well as the ANOVA results, are provided in Table 3. It appeared that those students from an all-minority background (i.e., those students attending a majority minority high school and growing up in a majority minority neighborhood) reported incidents of racial microaggression more frequently than those students attending majority White high schools, regardless of the racial composition of their neighborhood.

Overall, though not statistically significant, self-identified racial or ethnic minority college students who attended majority minority high schools and grew up in majority minority neighborhoods reported more frequently occurring racial microaggressions.

### Research Question 2

There were no significant relationships between the racial composition of the prior environment and the reported occurrence of racial microaggressions for the

themes of Foreigner, Sexuality, and Invisibility (Table 3). While the ANOVA for the Environmental Invalidations theme was not statistically significant, the strength of this relationship between racial composition and reported Environmental Invalidations-themed racial microaggression occurrence was moderate to large,  $F(2, 38) = 1.85$ ,  $p = .172$ ,  $f_{Cohen} = 0.31$ . It appeared that those students from an all-minority background reported incidents of environmental invalidation-themed racial microaggressions more frequently than those attending majority White high schools.

There were statistically significant or marginally significant relationships between the racial composition of the prior environment and the racial microaggression occurrence themes of Criminality and Undesirability (Table 3).

At the  $p = .05$  level, the ANOVA for the RMAS criminality microaggression theme was significant,  $F(2, 38) = 3.39$ ,  $p = .044$ ,  $f_{Cohen} = 0.42$ . Additionally, the strength of the relationship between racial composition and reported racial microaggression occurrence, as assessed by Cohen's  $f$ , was large. Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate the pairwise differences among the means. There was a significant difference in the means between students from an all-minority environment and those students that came from a minority/White mixture environment. Those students from an all-minority environmental background reported incidents of criminality-themed racial microaggressions more frequently in comparison to others (Table 3).



The ANOVA for the RMAS undesirability microaggression theme was marginally significant,  $F(2, 38) = 2.90$ ,  $p = .067$ ,  $f_{Cohen} = 0.39$ . Additionally, the strength of the relationship between neighborhood and high school racial composition and reported racial microaggression occurrence, as assessed by Cohen's  $f$ , was moderate to large. There appeared to be a significant difference in the means between students from an all-minority environment and those students from a minority/White mixture environment. Those students from an all-minority environmental background reported incidents of undesirability-themed racial microaggressions more frequently in comparison to others (Table 3).

Overall, self-identified racial or ethnic minority college students who attended majority-minority high schools and grew up in majority-minority neighborhoods reported more frequently occurring Criminality and Undesirability-themed racial microaggressions.

## Discussion

### Significant Findings

Overall, a college student's background in terms of the racial composition of their neighborhood and high school is highly correlated with the frequency of reported racial microaggressions overall, especially for the criminality and undesirability themes. At the 0.05 significance level, despite incredibly low statistical power, the relationship between the incidence of microaggressions and background racial composition is statistically significant.

It appears that the more exposed an individual is to majority White institutions prior to attending college, the less frequently racial microaggressions are reported. This could suggest a desensitization to racial microaggressions over time or, perhaps, a lack of awareness of the behaviors. It is interesting to note that, on average, a mixed racial composition background results in the lowest reported incidence of microaggressions. The results of the current study show that students from minority neighborhoods who attend majority-minority schools report the highest levels of microaggressions in college. Previous research has, however, indicated that ethnic identity may create a protective role against the impacts of discrimination

[29][28][30]. Living in a majority-minority neighborhood thus may increase one's ethnic identity and, therefore, the ability to cope with discrimination at a PWI. Both may be true, as desensitization may, in some ways, offer a way to cope and may be modeled and even taught

more in a predominantly minority neighborhood where individuals are accustomed to dealing with racism. Armoring is a term that has been used in the literature to describe the self-protective behaviors or psychological buffer one develops in order to deal with racism<sup>[31]</sup>. Such behaviors are often ingrained from birth by Black parents in order to strengthen and equip their children for dealing with racism. The results indicate that armoring may be taking place in minority neighborhoods and families where students attend majority White high schools, making them less likely to report or acknowledge microaggressions later. Woods-Giscombe<sup>[32]</sup> used the term *Superwoman* to conceptualize the strong persona embraced by Black women. Participants in her study reported benefits of this role, such as self-preservation as well as that of their family and community. They also described liabilities of this role in terms of their inability to express themselves, which can lead to relationship issues and stress-related health behaviors, as well as the embodiment of stress. Again, the socialization to be strong or armored in order to survive, or desensitization, is likely a factor in the lack of microaggressions reported by some students in this study.

### Implications for Professional School Counselors

The American School Counselor Association (ASCA) National Model<sup>[33]</sup> states that one of the responsibilities of the school counselor is to "promote cultural competence to help create a safer, more inclusive school environment" (p. 25). Therefore, it is crucial that the school counselor is skilled in recognizing and addressing microaggressions and discrimination. Since they are often the person to whom students report such occurrences, it is crucial that they acknowledge and validate the student's experience. The school counselor should conduct needs assessments regarding climate and discrimination and administer them to all stakeholders (students, teachers, parents, community, etc.) to gain awareness of the needs in the school. As leaders and advocates, they must also work to increase administration and teacher awareness in these areas so that they are better equipped to help students who are being negatively impacted. Finally, the Professional School Counselor is accountable. By assessing their school data report card, achievement gaps should be identified along with data from the needs assessments, and then interventions created to address the gaps and reported concerns. Specifically, assessing gaps related to students of color is necessary for finding measurable interventions. The interventions can be implemented

Specific to the findings in this study, the professional school counselor at a majority White high school should be especially aware of those students who live in predominantly minority neighborhoods. These students, in particular, may present with symptoms of anxiety or depression but not directly report an awareness of microaggressions or discrimination. They may also have difficulty expressing their emotions. High school counselors should specifically include in their student assessment experiences of discrimination, with particular attention to those that include microaggressions, since these occurrences negatively impact psychological well-being, and be cognizant of the trauma that students may have experienced as a result. Individual counseling or providing counseling instruction in a small group format may be beneficial for helping these students feel more connected and understood.

- ays". *St. Louis Post-Dispatch* (MO). Retrieved from <http://0-search.ebscohost.com.library.uark.edu/login.aspx?direct=true&db=nfh&AN=2W64074545097&site=ehost-live&scope=site>.
9. <sup>^</sup>Hill E, Tiefenthaler A, Triebert C, Jordan D, Willis H, Stein R (May 3, 2020, Updated January 24, 2022). "How George Floyd was killed in police custody". *The New York Times*. Retrieved from <https://www.nytimes.com/2020/05/31/us/george-floyd-investigation.html>.
  10. <sup>^</sup>McLaughlin K (2019, May 14). "Kickapoo high school student in Missouri is being investigated after posting a racist Snapchat threatening to lynch Black athletes". In *Business Insider*. Retrieved from <https://www.businessinsider.com/kickapoo-high-school-student-investigated-over-racist-video-2019-5>.
  11. <sup>^</sup>Djeka J (2018, July 26). "State's top educator says he's 'sick' of racist comments at Nebraska schools". In *Omaha World-Herald*. Retrieved from <https://www.omaha.com/news/education/primary-secondary/state-s-top-educator-says-he-s-sick-of-racist/article8201ffd5-ab60-5e3d-860c-8a7a3d03d6ac.html>.
  12. <sup>^</sup>Williams MT, Skinta MD, Kanter JW, Martin-Willett R, Mier-Chairez J, Debreau M, Rosen DC (2020). "A qualitative study of microaggressions against African Americans on predominantly White campuses." *BMC Psychology*. 8(111): 1-13. doi:10.1186/s40359-020-00472-8.
  13. <sup>^</sup><sub>a</sub> <sup>^</sup><sub>b</sub> <sup>^</sup><sub>c</sub> <sup>^</sup><sub>d</sub> <sup>^</sup><sub>e</sub> <sup>^</sup><sub>f</sub> Torres-Harding SR, Andrade JAL, Romero Diaz CE (2012). "The Racial Microaggressions Scale (RMAS): A new scale to measure experiences of racial microaggressions in people of color." *Cultural Diversity & Ethnic Minority Psychology*. 18(2): 153-164. doi:10.1037/a0027658.
  14. <sup>^</sup>Bridges EM (2010). "This ain't ET: Racist images in entertainment". *PsycCRITIQUES*. 55(27). doi:10.1037/a0019942.
  15. <sup>^</sup>Jacobs MS (2017). "The violent state: Black women's invisible struggle against police violence". *William & Mary Journal of Women & the Law*. 24(1): 39-100.
  16. <sup>^</sup><sub>a</sub> <sup>^</sup><sub>b</sub> <sup>^</sup><sub>c</sub> Harwood SA, Hunt MB, Mendenhall R, Lewis JA (2012). "Racial microaggressions in the residence hall: Experiences of students of color at a predominantly White university". *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*. 5(3): 159-173.
  17. <sup>^</sup>Bryan ML, Wilson BS, Lewis AA, Wills LE (2012). "Exploring the impact of 'race talk' in the education classroom: Doctoral student reflections". *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*. 5(3): 123-137.
  18. <sup>^</sup>Noh S, Kaspar V, Wickrama KAS (2007). "Overt and subtle racial discrimination and mental health: Preliminary findings for Korean immigrants". *American Journal of Public Health*. 97: 1269-1274. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2005.085316.
  19. <sup>^</sup>Sue DW (2010). *Microaggressions in everyday life: Race, gender, and sexual orientation*. John Wiley & Sons.
  20. <sup>^</sup><sub>a</sub> <sup>^</sup><sub>b</sub> <sup>^</sup><sub>c</sub> Torres L, Driscoll MW, Burrow AL (2010). "Racial microaggressions and psychological functioning among highly achieving African-Americans: A mixed-methods approach". *Journal of Social & Clinical Psychology*. 29(10): 1074-1099. doi:10.1521/jscp.2010.29.10.1074.
  21. <sup>^</sup>McGee EO, Stovall D (2015). "Reimagining Critical Race Theory in education: Mental health, healing, and the pathway to liberatory praxis". *Educational Theory*. 65(5): 491-511. doi:10.1111/edth.12129.
  22. <sup>^</sup>Franco M, Durkee M, McElroy-Heltzel S (2021). "Discrimination comes in layers: Dimensions of discrimination and mental health for multiracial people". *Cultural Diversity & Ethnic Minority Psychology*. 27(3): 343-353. doi:10.1037/cdp0000441.
  23. <sup>^</sup>Williams DR, Neighbors HW, Jackson JS (2003). "Racial/ethnic discrimination and health: Findings from community studies." *American Journal of Public Health*. 93(2): 200-208. doi:10.2105/AJPH.93.2.200.
  24. <sup>^</sup><sub>a</sub> <sup>^</sup><sub>b</sub> Midgette AJ, Mulvey KL (2022). "White American students' recognition of racial microaggressions in higher education". *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*. doi:10.1037/dhe0000391.
  25. <sup>^</sup><sub>a</sub> <sup>^</sup><sub>b</sub> Harper SR, Hurtado S (2007). "Nine themes in campus racial climates and implications for institutional transformation". *New Directions for Student Services*. 2007(120): 7-24.
  26. <sup>^</sup>Karkouti IM (2016). "Black students' educational experiences in predominantly White universities: A review of the related literature". *College Student Journal*. 50(1): 59-70.
  27. <sup>^</sup><sub>a</sub> <sup>^</sup><sub>b</sub> Hunt MO, Wise LA, Jipguep MC, Cozier YC, Rosenberg L (2007). "Neighborhood racial composition and perception of racial discrimination: Evidence from the Black women's health study". *Social Psychology Quarterly*. 70(3): 272-289. doi:10.1177/019027250707000306.
  28. <sup>^</sup><sub>a</sub> <sup>^</sup><sub>b</sub> Leath S, Mathews C, Harrison A, Chavous T (2019). "Racial identity, racial discrimination, and classroom engagement outcomes among Black girls and boys in predominantly Black and predominantly White school districts". *American Educational Research Journal*. 56(4): 1318-1352. doi:10.3102/0002831218816955.
  29. <sup>^</sup>Brittian AS, Kim SY, Armenta BE, Lee RM, Umaña-Taylor AJ, Schwartz SJ, Villalta IK, Zamboanga BL, Weisskirch RS, Juang LP, Castillo LG, Hudson ML (2015). "Do dimensions of ethnic identity mediate the association between perceived ethnic group discrimination and d

- epressive symptoms?" *Cultural Diversity & Ethnic Minority Psychology*. 21: 41–53.
30. <sup>^</sup>Pascoe EA, Smart Richman L (2009). "Perceived discrimination and health: A meta-analytic review". *Psychological Bulletin*. 135: 531–554. doi:10.1037/a0016059.
  31. <sup>^</sup>Greene B (1994). "African American women". In L. Comas-Diaz & B. Greene (Eds.) *Women of color: Integrating ethnic and gender identities in psychotherapy*. Guilford Press.
  32. <sup>^</sup>Woods-Giscombé C (2010). "Superwoman schema: African American women's views on stress, strength, and health." *Qualitative Health Research*. 20(5): 668–683. doi:10.1177/1049732310361892.
  33. <sup>^</sup><sup>^</sup>American School Counselor Association (2019). *The ASCA national model: A framework for school counseling programs* (4th ed). American School Counseling Association.

## Declarations

**Funding:** No specific funding was received for this work.

**Potential competing interests:** No potential competing interests to declare.