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Development and Validation of the Index of Race-Related Stress (IRRS)

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This article describes the development and validation of a measure of the stress experienced by African Americans as a result of their daily encounters with racism and discrimination. The Index of Race-Related Stress (IRRS) is a 46-item instrument developed according to the theoretical framework of daily hassles (R. S. Lazarus & S. Folkman, 1984) and integrated with P. Essed's (1990) concept of everyday racism. The IRRS has adequate indexes of internal consistency and fair-to-adequate estimates of test–retest stability. Several subscales of the IRRS and a global racism index were correlated with other measures of stress and racism. Furthermore, the IRRS discriminated between Blacks and non-Blacks in a group-differences study. Both principal-components and confirmatory factor analyses supported a 4-component model of race-related stress.

Racism and acts of discrimination against African Americans have taken on various forms over the past 350 years, ranging from lynchings, burnings, beatings, and other forms of direct violence to more subtle slights and innuendoes (Duckitt, 1992; Ponterotto & Pederson, 1993; Thompson, Neville, Weathers, Poston, & Atkinson, 1990). There have been several scholarly works of historical significance examining the nature of racism and discrimination in relation to the experiences of African Americans in the United States (e.g., Allport, 1954; Dovidio & Gaertner, 1986; Duckitt, 1992; Essed, 1990; Myrdal, 1944; Jones, 1972; Pettigrew, 1964; Simpson & Yinger, 1985). For the most part, racism has been of interest primarily to social psychologists who study the development and expression of prejudice and in-group/out-group attitudes, or sociologists who are primarily concerned with the outcome effects of racism and discrimination on groups of people within society. However, psychologists have more recently begun to examine the clinical significance of racism and its relationship to the psychological well-being of African Americans who experience it as a chronic stressor in their daily lives (see Burke, 1984; Fernando, 1984; Jackson, Williams, & Torres, 1995; McNeilly et al., in press; Smith, 1985; White & Parham, 1990).

Despite some perceived progress made in U.S. race relations over the last three decades, many writers believe that for African Americans, racism continues to be an inescapable and painful reality of daily life (Essed, 1990; Feagin & Sikes, 1994; McNeilly et al., in press). Essed (1990), in her groundbreaking qualitative study of the daily experiences of Blacks with racism, described the chronic nature of the stress associated with racism this way: "to live with the threat of racism means planning, almost everyday of one's life, how to avoid or defend oneself against discrimination" (p. 260). The experience of racism for African Americans is cumulative, whereby new encounters are interpreted on the basis of past experiences with racism, knowledge of others' experience with racism, and knowledge about the systemic nature of racism (Essed, 1990; Feagin & Sikes, 1994).

According to Dovidio and Gaetner (1986) racism is embedded in the "social norms, institutional policies, and cognitive and affective systems of White Americans" (p. xi) and as a result has a significant adverse impact on the quality of life for African Americans. Racism can occur in three spheres: (a) *individual racism,* experienced on a personal level; (b) *institutional racism,* experienced as a result of racism being embedded in the policies of a given institution; and (c) *cultural racism,* results from the cultural practices of one group being lauded as superior to those of another (Essed, 1990; Jones, 1972). Essed (1990) extended the individual realm of racism to include collective racism. *Collective racism* occurs when organized (or semiorganized) Whites/non-Blacks seek to restrict the rights of Blacks (e.g., when a Black family moves into a White community and is met with open hostility by its new neighbors). Because of the omnipresence of racism, it makes intuitive sense that any effort to study its impact on African Americans would focus on the multidimensional character of its expression and experience.

Due to the insidiousness of everyday racism, empirical examination of this construct can be an arduous task. Consequently, past research has generally focused on examining the most overt acts of racism experienced by African Americans. However, the racism experienced by African Americans throughout the day—whether at work, in public places, in route to and from their homes, or on television and other popular media outlets—for the most part has remained unexamined (Essed, 1990). The greatest challenge

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faced by researchers who wish to measure the stressful effects of everyday racism is to first identify it. The difficulty of this task is exacerbated by the fact that everyday racism is often covert and can be subtle, elusive, or seemingly intangible to those who experience it in their daily lives (Dovidio, 1993; Dovidio & Gaertner, 1986; Essed, 1990).

The stress associated with the experience of discrimination has been implicated in the development of psychiatric disorders such as depression (Burke, 1984), antisocial behavior (Simpson & Yinger, 1985), lowered self-esteem (Fernando, 1984), lowered levels of general happiness and life satisfaction (Jackson et al., 1995), and poor academic performance (Gougis, 1986). The deleterious effect on the psychological health of African Americans that may result from everyday racism is significant and should be addressed by counseling psychologists and other mental health practitioners. When providing psychological services to African American clients, counselors can include an assessment, possibly during the intake process, of the extent to which racism and discrimination might be related to the client's presenting problem or problems, or in some way interfering with the client's current level of functioning (Smith, 1985). Consequently, there is a strong need for a self-administered, psychometrically sound (and relatively brief) measure of the magnitude and range of an individual's experiences with racism and discrimination (Outlaw, 1993).

Previous attempts to quantitatively examine the experiences of African Americans with racism have resulted in the development of several paper-and-pencil self-report instruments, none of which have been published in the major psychological journals. These efforts have been aimed at examining the cognitive processes, emotional responses, and the behavioral reactions associated with the experience of racism and discrimination as reported by African Americans. The measures of racism currently available include the Racial Discrimination Index (RDI; Terrell & Miller, 1980), the Racism Reaction Scale (RRS; Thompson et al., 1990), the Perceived Racism Scale (PRS; McNeilly et al., in press), and the Racism and Life Experience Scales—Brief Version (RaLES–B; Harrell, 1994). In spite of several theoretical and methodological limitations, these attempts to quantify the experiences of African Americans with racism and discrimination have made a substantial contribution to the empirical examination of the stressful effects of racism.

A psychometrically sound self-report instrument that measures the stress associated with daily encounters of racism and discrimination experienced by African Americans is needed. Such an instrument, if used in a clinical setting, would allow for the effective and efficient assessment of the experience of race-related stress and its impact on the psychological functioning of an individual. Having a valid and reliable self-report measure available to determine the extent to which racism adversely affects an individual's psychological well-being would aid in the diagnosis and treatment of some psychological and somatic stress-related disorders prevalent in the African American community. Furthermore, a measure of race-related stress would have implications as a research tool, which would effectively allow for an examination of the relationship between racism and some of the stress-induced psychological and somatic health problems of African Americans. Other possibilities for research inquiry include the relationship between the stressful experience of racism and discrimination and racial-identity development among African Americans. One could also examine the relationship between the stressful effects of racism and the impact of the counselor's willingness to address these issues on counseling outcomes for African Americans.

The Index of Race-Related Stress (IRRS) is intended to provide a much needed measure of the stress associated with the experiences of racism and discrimination encountered by African Americans in their daily lives. The theoretical framework of the IRRS is grounded in the daily hassles conceptualization of life stress proposed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) and integrated with Essed's (1990) concept of everyday racism. The IRRS samples the occurrence and perceived magnitude of stressful race-related events occurring daily in the lives of African Americans. The IRRS also takes into account the stressful effects of *network events,* which are stressful events that happen to family members and people one cares about (Feagin & Sikes, 1994; Thoits, 1991). According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), "it is perfectly appropriate to measure stress as either input, response, or strained relationship" (p. 307). Furthermore, they posit that stress can be envisioned as a general concept much like emotion, motivation, or cognition, but operationalized according to the perceived magnitude of the interactions with the environment that tax or exceed the person's resources. Accordingly, the IRRS measures race-related stress operationalized as the occurrence and perceived magnitude of specific events of racism and discrimination that African Americans potentially experience in their daily lives.

In the development of the IRRS as a measure of race-related stress, the researchers sought to answer several significant and related questions. First, is the experience of racism that African Americans encounter in their daily lives a multidimensional phenomenon that occurs across domains (i.e., institutionally, culturally, etc.)? Second, would the IRRS correlate with other measures of stress and racism, thereby proving itself to be a valid measure of race-related stress within its own right? Furthermore, could the IRRS be proven as a reliable measure of race-related stress on the basis of indexes of internal consistency and stability over time? Finally, because the IRRS is intended to measure the stress associated with everyday racism as uniquely experienced by African Americans, would it effectively discriminate between Blacks and non-Blacks?

On the basis of a review of the literature (Essed, 1990; Feagin & Sikes, 1994; Jones, 1972), an examination of existing measures of racism (RDI; Terrell & Miller, 1980; RRS; Thompson et al., 1990; PRS; McNeilly et al., in press; RaLES–B; Harrell, 1994), and a pilot study, we anticipated that the IRRS would sample the multidimensionality of racism. More specifically, on the basis of the pilot study and the model of racism posited by Jones (1972) and later expanded on by Essed (1990), we hypothesized that the

principal-component structure of the IRRS would produce a three- or four-component model. Using one of the racism measures currently in existence (RaLES–B; Harrell, 1994; see *Instruments*), the researchers also hypothesized that the IRRS and the RaLES–B would be positively correlated on measures representing comparable domains of racism (i.e., RaLES–B Group and the IRRS' measure of cultural racism) as well as their global measures of racism. It was also hypothesized that the IRRS subscales and global measure would be positively correlated with another measure of stress (PSS; Cohen, Karmarck, & Mermelstein, 1983; see *Instruments*). Finally, the researchers hypothesized that the IRRS would discriminate between Blacks and non-Blacks, with Blacks having higher indicators of race-related stress.

General Method

Item Development

The development of the initial items included on the IRRS was based on informal interviews with African Americans from diverse backgrounds (both men and women), a review of the literature, and the personal life experiences of the primary researcher (a male African American). Efforts were made to ensure that the items could be easily understood by someone reading at the eighth-grade level or higher. The researchers reviewed all potential items for redundancy, and those found to be repetitious were eliminated from the scale. On the basis of these procedures, a total of 74 items were generated and placed on a 5-point Likert-type scale. If an individual was the victim of a racist or discriminatory act, they were to indicate their reaction to the event on the basis of the following response choices: 1 = *no reaction,* 2 = *irritation,* 3 = *anger,* 4 = *hostility,* 5 = *rage.* Individuals were to respond only to those events that they experienced, leaving the ones they did not experience blank.

Content Validity

To aid in assessing the content validity of the IRRS, a focus group composed of 5 African Americans was facilitated by the primary researcher for approximately 2½ hr. In addition to evaluating the content validity of the IRRS, it was examined for its efficiency of administration and any potential harmful effects that might result from its completion. The group members completed the IRRS and a discussion concerning its structure, item clarity, item domain appropriateness, and the comprehensiveness of the scale ensued.

As a result of the focus group, concerns were raised that resulted in several changes being made to the IRRS. First, the original 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *no reaction;* 2 = *irritation;* 3 = *anger;* 4 = *hostility;* and 5 = *rage*), on which group members found it difficult to differentiate between several of the response choices (i.e., anger, hostility, and rage), was changed (1 = *unaffected by the event;* 2 = *slightly bothered by the event;* 3 = *event was upsetting;* and 4 = *extremely upset by event*) to allow respondents to more clearly distinguish between their reactions. Second, some of the events were ambiguous and needed clarification. Third, the group pointed out that several significant events fitting the criteria for inclusion were omitted (i.e., events relating to the race–sex dynamic).

In addition to the focus group, five individuals (who were not part of the focus group) with extensive research backgrounds on racial–ethnic, gender, and cultural issues examined the IRRS items for their clarity and domain appropriateness. Each expert judge, who was a published scholar in the topical area, rated the items on the IRRS using a 4-point Likert-type scale (1 = *confusing;* 2 = *ambiguous;* 3 = *fairly clear;* and 4 = *very clear*) to indicate the item's clarity. The domain appropriateness of each item was rated as *yes* or *no.* Those items receiving a mean rating of less than 3.0 on item clarity were either rewritten or eliminated. Items rated as not being domain appropriate were likewise rewritten or eliminated. The net result was an initial IRRS version consisting of 67 items with a total score range of 1 to 268, with higher scores indicating a greater severity of race-related stress.

Pilot Study

Following the item development and content validity studies of the IRRS, a pilot study was conducted with 377 participants from various geographic locations throughout the United States. The sample consisted of 203 women and 163 men (11 missing gender variables) with ages ranging from 17 to 57, with a mean age of 22.65 years (SD = 6.85). One purpose of the pilot study was to determine the logistics of the IRRS's administration, such as the time it takes to complete, the readability and clarity of the items, the clarity of the IRRS instructions, and the content validity of the IRRS items, with a sample of participants similar in demographic background to the target population. Another purpose of the pilot study was to conduct a preliminary examination of the IRRS's factor structure for an informal comparison to Jones's (1972) three-tier model of racism and Essed's (1990) four-tier model.

Based on the results of the pilot study, several changes were made to the IRRS. Foremost, it was discovered that during the pilot study many of the questionnaires were incorrectly completed. The researchers suspected that requiring participants to check some items, while leaving others blank, was confusing. As a result, a new Likert-type scale on which no items are left blank was designed (0 = *This has never happened to me;* 1 = *This event happened, but did not bother me;* 2 = *This event happened and I was slightly upset;* 3 = *This event happened and I was upset;* 4 = *This event happened and I was extremely upset*). This response rating scale is consistent with those used on other stress-related measures (i.e., Daily Hassles Scale; Kanner, Coyne, Schafer, & Lazarus, 1980; Perceived Stress Scale, Cohen et al., 1983; Ways of Coping Scale, Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Using only those surveys that were completed correctly, a principal-components analysis was performed on all 67 items of the IRRS. This procedure yielded 17 factors with eigenvalues of greater than 1.0. However, a scree test (Cattell, 1965) indicated that as many as four factors were interpretable. Consequently, the researchers forced a one-, two-, three-, and four-component extraction using both an orthogonal and oblique solution. The most interpretable of the four extractions, and consistent with the literature on the multidimensionality of racism (i.e., Essed, 1990; Jones, 1972), was the three-component orthogonal solution. Component 1 (eigenvalue = 13.6), with 25 items, accounted for 20% of the common variance; Component 2 (eigenvalue = 3.4), with 20 items, accounted for 5.1% of the common variance; and Component 3 (eigenvalue = 3.0), with 15 items, accounted for 4.6% of the common variance. The criteria for retaining items were as follows: (a) items with component loadings of .35 or higher were selected; (b) items meeting the .35 criteria on more than one component were eliminated.

From the results of the principal-components analysis, a total of eight items were eliminated on the basis of the selection criteria. An additional item was dropped on the basis of the researchers'

judgment. Thus, the current version of the IRRS comprised 59 items in total.

Study 1

The purpose of Study 1 was to determine the principal-component structure of the revised IRRS by conducting a second principal-components analysis. In addition to determining the component structure of the IRRS, indexes of internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) were computed for each of the components extracted during this study. Furthermore, Pearson's product–moment correlation coefficients were calculated to determine the relationship between the IRRS subscales.

The IRRS is intended for use with individuals identifying themselves as African American. As the IRRS is intended for use with African American adults in general, the researchers attempted to sample a heterogeneous population for Study 1. Only those individuals over the age of 17 were included in this study, as the scale is designed to measure race-related stress in African American adults. Moreover, various geographic regions, educational levels, and socioeconomic levels are represented in the sample.

Method

Sample. The total sample for Study 1 included 302 participants from Greensboro, NC, and New York City. In an effort to obtain a sample demographically similar to the target population, participants were selected from a variety of settings: colleges and universities, a substance abuse treatment facility, and the community at large. It is significant to note that there were no incorrectly completed surveys in this study. There were approximately 10 surveys that were incomplete or suspected of being invalid. A total of 7 individuals refused to participate, primarily non-Blacks who found the material offensive. Participants in Study 1 did not take part in the pilot study.

Of the 302 participants in Study 1, 167 (55%) were female and 115 (38%) were male (19 missing values). Their ages ranged from 18 to 61 years, with a mean age of 26.77 (SD = 9.02). The sample included 90% American-born Blacks (8% represent Caribbean-born Blacks; 2% = missing values). Geographically, the sample included 188 participants from the New York City region and 113 from North Carolina (1 missing value). Of the entire sample, 35% were from the community at large, 51% were college students, and 13% were residents in a substance abuse treatment facility. The marital status of the sample included 76% single, 13% married, 5% separated, and 1% widowed. For the entire sample, 29% were employed, with 17% earning between $10,000 and $25,000 annually, and 28% earning below $10,000. Only 10% of those employed earned more than $25,000 annually. The sample's mean years of education was 13.79.

Procedure. In cases in which the IRRS was sent away for data collection, it was administered by doctoral-level proctors who had been thoroughly briefed in the proper protocol for its administration. In all other cases, the primary researcher was responsible for administration of the questionnaires. The survey was completed anonymously, and participation was on a voluntary basis. Each survey included a cover letter and demographic questionnaire. In the cover letter a statement was issued to the effect that by completing the questionnaire, informed consent could be assumed. The survey generally took 20 to 30 min to complete, dependent on the average reading ability of the group.

The recruitment of participants was aided by a lottery held as an incentive for participation in the study. Individuals who agreed to participate were given a lottery number, and a drawing was held at the conclusion of each data collection session. The winner received a $25 cash prize. The participants were debriefed individually or in groups following the collection of data.

Results

IRRS component structure. A principal-components analysis was again performed on all items of the IRRS. This time the procedure yielded 15 components with eigenvalues of greater than 1.0. Once more, a scree test (Cattell, 1965) indicated that as many as four components were interpretable. As a result, one-, two-, three-, and four-component extractions were forced using both an oblique and orthogonal rotation method. For this study the most interpretable of the four extractions, and the one conceptually supported by the literature (see Essed's, 1990, Collective Racism as an extension of the three-tier model proposed by Jones, 1972), was the four-component orthogonal solution.

The four-component orthogonal solution accounted for 38% of the common variance, as did the oblique solution, but the orthogonal solution loaded items to components that were consistently more logical than the oblique. The criteria for retaining items to the scale were as follows: (a) items were required to have a component loading of .40 or higher to be selected, and (b) items meeting the .40 criteria must also have been at least .15 greater than all other items loading on the same component. See Table 1 for IRRS items, component loadings, communalities, and item means and standard deviations.

Component 1 (eigenvalue = 13.36) was responsible for 23% of the common variance, with 16 items loading on this component. These items represent the experience of racism on a cultural level. Component 2 (eigenvalue = 4.58) was responsible for 8% of the common variance, with 11 items meeting the selection criteria. For the most part these items represent the experience of racism on an institutional level. Component 3 (eigenvalue = 2.45) accounted for 4% of the common variance, with 11 items meeting the criteria for selection. The general theme of these items relates to the experience of racism on an individual level. Component 4 (eigenvalue = 2.06) accounted for 3% of the common variance, with 8 items meeting the criteria for selection. The concept of collective racism, an extension of individual racism (Essed, 1990), accounts for the general theme of this component.

Internal consistency and subscale intercorrelations. The coefficient alphas for the new IRRS subscales were .87 for Component 1, Cultural Racism; .85 for Component 2, Institutional Racism; .84 for Component 3, Individual Racism; and .79 for Component 4, Collective Racism.

Pearson product–moment correlation coefficients were calculated to determine the subscale intercorrelations of the

Table 1
Items, Component Loadings, Item Means, Standard Deviations, and Communalities for the Index of Race-Related Stress

Item	Component loadings				Item		
	1	2	3	4	*M*	*SD*	h^2
2. You notice that crimes committed by White people tend to be romanticized, whereas the same crime committed by a Black person is portrayed as savagery, and the Black person who committed it, as an animal.	**.65**	−.03	.17	.01	3.21	1.13	.45
3. You notice that when a Black person is killed by a White mob or policeman no one is sent to jail.	**.59**	−.03	.14	.10	3.26	1.12	.38
8. You notice that when Black people are killed by the police, the media informs the public of the victim's criminal record or negative information in their background, suggesting they got what they deserved.	**.60**	−.09	.14	.18	3.01	1.13	.43
13. You have observed that White kids who commit violent crimes are portrayed as "boys being boys," while Black kids who commit similar crimes are wild animals.	**.63**	.12	.15	−.00	2.86	1.28	.44
15. You seldom hear or read anything positive about Black people on radio, TV, newspapers, or in history books.	**.49**	−.01	.13	.06	2.48	1.35	.26
21. You have observed a double standard in the way the law or other systems of government (court, media, disciplinary committees, etc.) work (or don't work) when dealing with Blacks as opposed to Whites/non-Blacks.	**.57**	.19	.19	.01	2.68	1.48	.40
23. White/non-Black people have been apologetic about the Japanese internment, Jewish holocaust, and other violations of human rights, but would prefer to forget about slavery, Jim Crowism, and other abuses of Black people.	**.57**	.26	−.05	.05	2.51	1.59	.40
29. You have observed the police treat White/non-Blacks with more respect and dignity than they do Blacks.	**.55**	.09	.18	.19	2.68	1.45	.38
31. You have noticed that the public services are inadequate or nonexistent in Black communities (police, sanitation, street repairs, etc.).	**.55**	.09	.18	.19	2.54	1.48	.38
34. You have heard Blacks constantly being compared with other immigrants and minorities in terms of what they have not achieved, in spite of having been in the U.S. for so much longer than the other groups.	**.57**	.28	−.08	.17	2.27	1.62	.44
35. You have observed situations where other Blacks were treated harshly or unfairly by Whites/non-Blacks because of their race.	**.56**	.06	.22	.14	2.95	1.36	.38
37. You have heard reports of White people/non-Blacks who have committed crimes, and in an effort to cover up their deeds falsely reported that a Black man was responsible for the crime.	**.56**	−.03	.02	−.07	3.15	1.30	.32
40. You notice that the media plays up those stories that cast Blacks in negative ways (child abusers, rapists, muggers, etc. [or as savages] Wild Man of 96th St., Wolf Pack, etc.) usually accompanied by a large picture of a Black person looking angry or disturbed.	**.65**	.04	.13	−.08	3.01	1.28	.44
42. You have heard it suggested that Black men have an uncontrollable desire to possess a White woman.	**.49**	.24	.22	−.15	2.19	1.58	.36
43. You have heard racist remarks or comments about Black people spoken with impunity by White public officials or other influential White people.	**.59**	.12	.08	.18	2.54	1.48	.40
44. You have heard or seen other Black people express the desire to be White or to have White physical characteristics because they disliked being Black or thought it was ugly.	**.45**	.23	.06	−.11	2.51	1.48	.28
12. You did not receive a promotion you deserved; you suspect it was because you are Black.	.07	**.49**	.14	.23	0.92	1.52	.32
18. White people have expected you to denounce or reject the views or remarks of controversial Black leaders.	.29	**.42**	.15	.17	1.35	1.57	.31
19. You did not get the job you applied for although you were well qualified; you suspect because you are Black.	.14	**.53**	.18	.21	1.36	1.63	.38
20. You were refused an apartment or other housing; you suspect it was because you are Black.	−.02	**.59**	.08	.18	0.98	1.53	.39
26. You were passed over for an important project although you were more qualified and competent than the White/non-Black person given the task.	.03	**.60**	.04	.29	0.95	1.47	.44
32. You have been subjected to racist jokes by Whites/non-Blacks in positions of authority, and you did not protest for fear they might have held it against you.	−.10	**.59**	.14	.33	1.03	1.52	.49
38. You have held back angry or hostile feelings in the presence of White/non-Black people for fear they would've accused you of having a "chip" on your shoulder.	.08	**.57**	.20	.10	1.36	1.55	.38

Table 1 (*continued*)

Item	Component loadings 1	2	3	4	Item *M*	*SD*	h^2
39. You have been asked to pay in advance for goods/services that are usually paid for after a person receives them; you suspect it was because you are Black.	.20	**.54**	.26	.23	1.54	1.65	.45
41. You have been given more work or the most undesirable jobs at your place of employment, whereas the White/non-Black of equal or less seniority and credentials is given less work and more desirable tasks.	.09	**.51**	.28	.07	1.66	1.70	.36
45. When you have interacted with Whites/non-Blacks, you anticipated them saying or doing something racist either intentionally or unintentionally.	−.26	**.53**	.20	.03	1.79	1.57	.39
46. You have discovered that the White/non-Black person employed in the same capacity as you with equal or less qualifications is paid a higher salary.	.22	**.62**	.15	.09	1.95	1.77	.46
1. You have been in a restaurant or other White/non-Black establishment where everyone was waited on before you.	.19	.21	**.49**	.15	2.05	1.60	.34
4. You have been followed by security (or employees) while shopping in some stores.	.19	.13	**.50**	.19	2.88	1.36	.35
5. Sales people/clerks did not say thank you or show other forms of courtesy and respect (i.e. put your things in a bag) when you shopped at some White/non-Black owned businesses.	.18	.04	**.60**	.09	2.19	1.46	.40
6. White people or other non-Blacks have treated you as if you were unintelligent and needed things explained to you slowly or numerous times.	.05	.22	**.57**	−.06	2.09	1.54	.39
9. Whites/non-Blacks have failed to apologize for stepping on your foot or bumping into you.	.10	.10	**.40**	.08	1.59	1.42	.19
17. Although waiting in line first, you were assisted after the White/non-Black person behind you.	.18	.22	**.45**	.09	1.35	1.54	.29
22. While shopping at a store, the sales clerk assumed that you couldn't afford certain items (i.e., you were directed toward the items on sale).	.20	.37	**.60**	−.07	2.16	1.63	.54
24. You were treated with less respect and courtesy than Whites and other non-Blacks while in a store, restaurant, or other business establishment.	.36	.19	**.58**	.12	2.34	1.49	.51
27. Whites/non-Blacks have stared at you as if you didn't belong in the same place with them, whether it was a restaurant, theater, or other place of business.	.28	.11	**.54**	.11	2.41	1.47	.39
30. White/non-Black people have mistaken you for a salesperson, waiter, or other service help when you were actually a customer.	.24	.24	**.43**	.15	1.91	1.55	.33
33. While shopping at a store or when attempting to make a purchase, you were ignored as if you were not a serious customer or didn't have any money.	.28	.24	**.62**	.03	2.34	1.52	.52
7. You have been questioned about your presence in a White neighborhood for no apparent reason.	−.02	.09	.24	**.57**	0.99	1.48	.39
10. You have been threatened with physical violence by an individual or group of Whites/non-Blacks.	.03	.16	.19	**.50**	0.89	1.50	.31
11. You were physically attacked by an individual or group of White/non-Blacks.	.00	.25	.10	**.51**	0.43	1.10	.33
14. You have had trouble getting a cab to go certain places or even stop for you.	.10	.06	−.09	**.72**	1.52	1.63	.54
16. While on public transportation or in public places, White people/non-Blacks have opted to stand up rather than sit next to you.	.11	.26	.18	**.47**	1.01	1.24	.33
25. You were the victim of a crime and the police treated you as if you should just accept it as part of being Black.	.12	.26	.12	**.59**	1.18	1.64	.44
28. You called the police for assistance and when they arrived they treated you like a criminal.	.02	.37	.12	**.59**	1.23	1.65	.49
36. You have attempted to hail a cab, but they refused to stop, you think because you are Black.	.17	.22	−.09	**.67**	1.50	1.70	.54

Note. Values in boldface type are component loadings at or above the criteria for selection. Component loadings: 1 = Cultural Racism; 2 = Institutional Racism; 3 = Individual Racism; 4 = Collective Racism.

IRRS. Cultural Racism correlated .42 with Institutional Racism, .56 with Individual Racism, and .30 with Collective Racism, *ps* < .01. Institutional Racism correlated .57 with Individual Racism and .58 with Collective Racism, *ps* < .01. Individual Racism correlated .39 with Collective Racism, $p < .01$. On the basis of these low-to-moderate intercorrelations, the IRRS subscales are best conceptualized as related yet distinct measures of the stress experienced by African Americans in their encounters with racism and discrimination.

Study 2

A second study was conducted to examine other forms of construct validity for the IRRS. First of all, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the IRRS component structure was conducted. A CFA is an effective and powerful method for investigating the construct validity of a measure (Rahim & Magner, 1995). Also, in an effort to establish the concurrent validity of the Index of Race-Related Stress, we administered simultaneously a second measure of the perceived stressful magnitude of racism and discrimination (RaLES–B) as well as a second measure of perceived stress (Perceived Stress Scale). Furthermore, we used the group-differences method (see Cronbach & Meehl, 1955) for establishing construct validity by comparing IRRS subscale scores for Blacks with the scores of a subsample of non-Blacks (Whites and Asians; $n = 31$). Moreover, indexes of internal consistency for the IRRS subscales were again calculated.

Method

Sample. The total sample size for Study 2 was 341 participants, including a subsample of 31 non-Blacks used for the group-comparison validity procedure. The non-Black subsample was not included in any data analysis other than the group-comparison procedure. In this study, as with the previous one, participants were selected from colleges, universities, and the community at large. Again, there is representation of African Americans from a wide range of socioeconomic backgrounds, geographic regions, and educational levels.

For Blacks exclusively, the total sample size in Study 2 was 310. Of this number, 207 (67%) were female and 92 (30%) were male. Their ages ranged from 17 to 76 years, with a mean age of 23.38 ($SD = 7.74$). This sample included 87% American-born Blacks (12% represent Caribbean-born Blacks; missing values = 4). Geographically, the sample for Study 2 included 153 participants from Washington, DC, and 157 from New York City. Of the entire sample, 16% were from the community at large and the remainder were college students representing various colleges and universities in the Northeast. The marital status of the sample was 85% single, 9% married, 3% separated, 2% divorced, and 6% widowed. For participants in the community sample, 6.7% were employed. Of this group the annual income was $10,000 or less for the majority of participants. The mean years of education for the community-at-large sample was 12.39.

In the non-Black subsample ($n = 31$), there were 23 Whites and 8 Asians. The non-Black subsample had an age range of 19 to 47 years, with a mean of 27.97 ($SD = 7.64$). There were 16 women (55%) and 15 men (45%). The mean for years of education in the non-Black subsample was 13.74 ($SD = 3.97$). The marital status of the subsample was 78% single, 16% married, and 6% divorced. The majority of participants in the non-Black subsample also had an annual income level below $10,000.

Instruments. The RaLES–B is a self-report measure that samples the minority group members' perceptions of the impact of racism on their lives. Part I of the scale produces a Perceived Racism—Self total score and consists of 20 items, with a range from 0–80. Part II produces a Perceived Racism—Group total score and consists of 12 items, with a range from 0–48. The RaLES, in a study on the adaptive functioning of African American adolescents (Wells, 1995), was reported to have a Cronbach's alpha of .88 for the Racism—Self subscale and .90 for the Racism—Group subscale. In addition, Racism—Self was significantly correlated with the Immersion dimension of racial identity ($r = .26$, $p < .01$) and with adaptive functioning ($r = .18$, $p < .05$). Racism—Group was significantly correlated with both the Encounter ($r = .23$, $p < .01$) and Internalization ($r = .29$, $p < .01$) dimensions of racial identity development. In the current study the RaLES–B Self and Group subscales had Cronbach alphas of .90 and .83, respectively ($n = 55$).

The Perceived Stress Scale is a 14 item Likert-type (item response scale = 0–4) self-report measure of the degree to which one views situations in his or her life as stressful. The PSS was designed to assess the degree to which people find events in their lives to be unpredictable, uncontrollable, and overloading. PSS scores are calculated by first reversing the scores on 7 positive items and then summing across all 14 items. In one study (Cohen et al., 1983), the PSS was found to correlate positively and significantly with Life Events Scores among two separate college samples (.20 to .35, $p < .01$). Cohen et al. (1983) reported Cronbach alphas of .84 and .85 for the two college samples and .86 for a smoking cessation sample. The PSS had a 2-day test–retest correlation of .85 and a .55 correlation after 6 weeks. In the current study, the PSS had a Cronbach's alpha of .70 ($n = 51$).

Procedure. A new sample of participants was recruited for Study 2, of which most were participating on a volunteer basis, the exception being one group of college students ($n = 153$), who received extra class credit for participation. In administering the IRRS, the same procedures as followed in the previous studies were repeated. Participants were again debriefed individually or in groups following the questionnaire's administration. All participants except those in the non-Black subsample were given the same instructions for completing the IRRS. The non-Black subsample was instructed to replace "Black" with their own racial group identity; for example, instead of reading the item "you were treated with less respect because you are Black," it would be "you were treated with less respect because you are White (or Asian)."

As previously noted, two additional instruments were administered simultaneously with the IRRS to two separate subsamples for the purpose of establishing the scale's concurrent validity. The first subsample ($n = 51$) received the PSS, randomly distributed over the entire sample of Study 2. The second subsample ($n = 57$) received the RaLES–B. These were also randomly distributed over the entire sample. For the RaLES–B, the sequence in which the surveys were administered was alternated to control for instrumentation effects. However, the PSS was always placed before the IRRS in its order in the survey package to prevent the participants from being influenced in their responses to the PSS by the nature of the IRRS items.

Results

Confirmatory factor analysis. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted on the 46 items of the IRRS, using the *LISREL 7* computer program (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989). Comparisons were made between the identified four-component orthogonal model, a four-component oblique model, a global component model, and a null model. Several indexes assessing the degree to which the model fits the data were computed by the researchers for all four competing models. First, a chi-square statistic was computed for each of the models, including the null. It is important to note that the chi-square statistic tends to be affected by large sample sizes and will likely produce a

significant result in spite of a reasonable fit to the data (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). In addition, significant chi-squares will occur with models that have numerous variables and high degrees of freedom (Bryant & Yarnold, 1995).

By referring to Table 2 for a complete summary of the results of the confirmatory factor analysis, it will be observed that the chi-square statistic for all four competing models was significant, suggesting an unsatisfactory fit. Additionally, as indicated by all indexes used in this study to evaluate the fit of the competing models, the four-component oblique model had the greatest degree of fit across all measures. The four-component oblique model was the best fit because it had the lowest χ^2 value (1,865.24), the highest goodness-of-fit index (GFI; .78) and adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI; .76), the lowest χ^2/df value (1.89), the lowest root mean square residual (RMSR; .080), and the highest relative noncentrality index (RNI; .80). The RNI is also independent of sample size, and according to Gerbing and Anderson (1993), the best available measure for determining the fit of structural equation models.

Looking closely at these values, we would evaluate the general fit of the proposed model as unsatisfactory. More desirable fits have, for example, the GFI in the high .80s and .90s. According to Bagozzi and Heatherton (1994), it is common for measurement models to have an unsatisfactory fit when more than four or five items represent each component and the sample size is large. The poor fit in these cases is likely to be related to several factors: (a) the complexity of the models, (b) high levels of random error to be found in a scale with many items, and (c) the many parameters to be estimated. One method that has been recommended (see Bagozzi & Heatherton, 1994; Rahim & Magner, 1995) to address this problem is to sum items within each component, thus creating aggregate variables that represent parallel indicators of the construct being measured by the items. Items with the highest component loadings are paired with items having the lowest component loading in sequential order in which the first, second, and third highest loadings are paired with their corresponding lowest loadings, whereas the remaining items are randomly distributed among the new indicator variables (see Mathieu, 1991). After the items have been aggregated to form new and fewer indicators of the same construct, they are reentered into the *LISREL 7* program and subjected to a second confirmatory factor analysis.

Using the method recommended by Bagozzi and Heatherton (1994) and Rahim and Magner (1995), the authors created the following aggregate variables to be reanalyzed using the *LISREL 7* program: Cultural Racism 1 (Items 2, 15, 31, & 3); Cultural Racism 2 (Items 40, 44, 43, & 34); Cultural Racism 3 (Items 8, 29, 21, & 35); Cultural Racism 4 (Items 13, 42, 23, & 37); Institutional Racism 1 (Items 18 & 46); Institutional Racism 2 (Items 12, 26, & 19); Institutional Racism 3 (Items 20, 45, & 39); Institutional Racism 4 (Items 32, 41, & 38); Individual Racism 1 (Items 9 & 33); Individual Racism 2 (Items 22, 30, & 4); Individual Racism 3 (Items 5, 17, & 27); Individual Racism 4 (Items 1, 24, & 6); Collective Racism 1 (Items 14 & 16); Collective Racism 2 (Items 10 & 36); Collective Racism 3 (Items 7 & 25); Collective Racism 4 (Items 11 & 28). Because these aggregated variables represent new items of the same components, Cronbach's alphas were again calculated. For Cultural Racism, Institutional Racism, Individual Racism, and Collective Racism, the Cronbach alpha was .86, .77, .83, and .75, respectively.

On review of the second confirmatory factor analysis results found in Table 3, it will be observed that the fit indexes for the four-component 16 aggregate variables improved. The GFIs and AGFIs for both the orthogonal and oblique models ranged from .78 to .90 and .71 to .86, respectively. The RNIs for the orthogonal and oblique models ranged from .74 to .92, respectively. Although a better fit for the proposed model (orthogonal) would have been desirable, the primary objective of this study was to find the best fit for the data among the competing models. According to Bryant and Yarnold (1995), the most common use of a confirmatory factor analysis is to determine "whether a particular factor model fits the data better than others" (p. 119). Consequently, and in contradiction to the hypothesized model (four-component orthogonal model), the four-component oblique model demonstrated the best overall fit among the competing component models in this study (see Table 3). That the four-component oblique model is the best fit is not surprising given the moderate correlations found between some subscales of the IRRS.

Internal consistency and intercorrelations of IRRS subscales. Consistent with Study 1, the internal consistency of the IRRS subscales was determined to be sufficiently ade-

Table 2
Goodness-of-Fit Indicators for the Null Model and Competing Hypothesized Models for the 46-Item IRRS

Model	χ^2	*df*	*p*	GFI	AGFI	χ^2/df	RMSR	RNI
Null model	5,445.34	1035	.00	.28	.25	5.3	.23	
Global component	2,957.48	989	.00	.55	.50	3.0	.11	.55
Four-component orthogonal	2,261.29	989	.00	.74	.72	2.3	.17	.71
Four-component oblique	1,873.56	983	.00	.78	.76	1.9	.08	.80

Note. $N = 289$. IRRS = Index of Race-Related Stress; GFI = goodness-of-fit index; AGFI = adjusted goodness-of-fit index; RMSR = root mean square residual; RNI = relative noncentrality index.

Table 3
Goodness-of-Fit Indicators for the Null Model and Competing Hypothesized Models for the IRRS Based on 16 Aggregate Variables

Model	χ^2	*df*	*p*	GFI	AGFI	χ^2/df	RMSR	RNI
Null model	2,354.47	120	.00	.32	.23	19.6	.35	
Global component	885.39	104	.00	.65	.55	8.5	.12	.65
Four-component orthogonal	672.19	104	.00	.78	.71	6.4	.27	.74
Four-component oblique	268.90	98	.00	.90	.86	2.7	.06	.92

Note. $N = 309$. IRRS = Index of Race-Related Stress; GFI = goodness-of-fit index; AGFI = adjusted goodness-of-fit index; RMSR = root mean square residual; RNI = relative noncentrality index.

quate. Component 1, Cultural Racism, obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .89. Component 2, Institutional Racism, obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .82. Component 3, Individual Racism, obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .84. For Component 4, Collective Racism, Cronbach's alpha was .74.

Also consistent with Study 1, the IRRS subscale intercorrelations were as follows: Cultural Racism correlated .37 with Institutional Racism, .53 with Individual Racism, and .22 with Collective Racism, $ps < .01$. Institutional Racism correlated .56 with Individual Racism and .66 with Collective Racism, $ps < .01$. Individual Racism correlated .51 with Collective Racism, $p < .01$. Subscale intercorrelations remain low to moderate, again suggesting that the IRRS is measuring related yet distinct aspects of race-related stress.

Concurrent validity. To establish the concurrent validity of the IRRS, Pearson product–moment correlation coefficients were computed between its four subscales, the RaLES–B Self and Group subscales, and the PSS. In addition, an IRRS Global Racism score was calculated by converting each subscale total score to a *z* score, thereby weighting equally the contribution that each racism domain contributes to the Global score. The IRRS Global Racism score was then correlated with a global racism score for the RaLES–B (Self and Group subscale score combined) and the PSS.

The results of the Pearson product–moment correlation procedure between the IRRS subscales, including the Global Racism measure, and the RaLES–B are presented in Table 4. A positive and significant correlation was found to exist between Cultural Racism, Institutional Racism, Individual Racism, and the Group subscale of the RaLES–B. Collective Racism did not significantly correlate with the RaLES–B Group subscale. For the Self subscale of the RaLES–B, there was a positive and significant correlation with the Institutional Racism, Individual Racism, and Collective Racism subscales of the IRRS. The RaLES–B Self subscale did not significantly correlate with the IRRS Cultural Racism subscale. The IRRS Global Racism measure was positively and significantly correlated with the RaLES–B Global Racism measure.

Table 4
Pearson Product–Moment Correlation Coefficients for the IRRS Subscales, the PSS, and the RaLES–B

	RaLES–B			
IRRS	Self	Group	Global	PSS
Cultural racism	.04	**.46****	**.29***	**.31***
Institutional racism	**.39****	**.36****	**.44****	.15
Individual racism	**.23***	**.31****	**.31****	**.24***
Collective racism	**.25***	−.02	.15	.09
Global racism	**.30***	**.38****	**.39****	**.24***

Note. Values in boldface type are significant. IRRS = Index of Race-Related Stress; PSS = Perceived Stress Scale; RaLES–B = Racism and Life Experience Scale—Brief Version.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

To establish further evidence of the concurrent validity of the IRRS' subscales and its Global Racism measure, a second measure of stress (Perceived Stress Scale; Cohen et al., 1983) was administered simultaneously. Consequently, Pearson's product–moment correlation coefficients were calculated on these variables. It can be observed, by referring to Table 4, that a positive and significant correlation exists between Cultural Racism, Individual Racism, and the PSS. Institutional Racism and Collective Racism were not significantly correlated with the PSS. However, a positive and significant correlation was found to exist between the IRRS's Global Racism measure and the PSS.

Group differences. On the expectation that Blacks would score significantly higher than non-Blacks on the IRRS subscales, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) comparing these two subsamples was performed. Whites and Asians were combined for this analysis on the basis of a MANOVA finding of no significant difference between the groups' IRRS subscale scores, Hotellings $T^2 = F(4, 27) = 1.21$, $p = .32$. The MANOVA comparing Blacks with non-Blacks (Whites and Asians) produced a significant result, Hotellings $T^2 = .322$, $F(4, 336) = 27.04$, $p = .00$. The Bonferroni formula was used to control for the inflated alpha due to four follow-up univariate ANOVAs. Alpha was set at .012. Subsequent univariate *F* test and mean examination indicated that Blacks scored significantly higher than non-Blacks on Cultural Racism, $F(1, 339) = 55.89$, $p < .00$ (Blacks' $M = 44.50$, $SD = 13.03$; non-Blacks' $M = 18.38$, $SD = 17.75$); Institutional Racism, $F(1, 339) = 10.37$, $p < .00$ (Blacks' $M = 13.88$, $SD = 9.88$; non-Blacks' $M = 6.22$, $SD = 5.63$); Individual Racism, $F(1, 339) = 37.89$, $p < .00$ (Blacks' $M = 21.46$, $SD = 10.39$; non-Blacks' $M = 10.12$, $SD = 6.93$); and Collective Racism, $F(1, 339) = 15.27$, $p < .00$ (Blacks' $M = 8.63$, $SD = 6.75$; non-Blacks' $M = 5.66$, $SD = 4.93$).

Study 3

To establish the stability of the IRRS over time, two separate samples were recruited for a test–retest administration. In addition to using two separate samples, we used different test–retest intervals in the IRRS's administration.

Method

Sample. The first sample was recruited from introductory psychology classes at an historically Black college in Greensboro, NC ($n = 31$). Of the 31 in this sample, 9 were men and 21 were women (1 missing). The mean age of this group was 20.48 ($SD = 3.78$). The participants in the second sample ($n = 19$) were recruited from an adult education program located in New York City. Of these participants, 4 were men and 15 were women. The mean age for this group was 29.42 ($SD = 9.42$).

Procedure. The general procedures followed during regular administrations of the IRRS were followed during Study 3 for both test–retest samples. The IRRS was administered to the first sample of participants on a designated day and then again 3 weeks later. Likewise, the second sample of participants was administered the IRRS on a designated day and then again 2 weeks later. In both cases participants were debriefed individually or in groups.

Results

In the first sample the test–retest reliability coefficients for Cultural Racism, Institutional Racism, Individual Racism, and Collective Racism were .77, .69, .61, and .79, respectively. In the second sample, the test–retest reliability coefficients for Cultural Racism, Institutional Racism, Individual Racism, and Collective Racism were .58, .71, .54, and .75, respectively.

Discussion

The current research sought to develop and validate a paper-and-pencil self-report instrument that measures the stress associated with the experience of racism in the daily lives of African Americans. The theoretical framework underlying the development of this measure was based on an integration of the daily-hassles concept of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and the multidimensional conceptualization of everyday racism posited by Essed (1990). The net result of the preliminary phase of this study was a 46-item, self-report instrument, intended for use with African American adults from a wide range of demographic backgrounds.

A principal-components analysis and a confirmatory factor analysis supported a four-component structure as best representing the experiences of racism in the daily lives of African Americans. The four subscales of the IRRS repeatedly demonstrated adequate internal consistency reliabilities over two separate studies. In addition, the subscale intercorrelations were low to moderate across the two studies. Moreover, the four subscales of the IRRS proved to be consistent with Essed's (1990) conceptual model of everyday racism; the following domains were represented by the four-component structure: (a) cultural, (b) institutional, (c) individual, (d) collective.

Initial evidence for the concurrent validity of the IRRS subscales was established by using a second measure of racism (RaLES–B) and a second measure of perceived stress (PSS). Both the Self and Group subscales of RaLES–B provided support for the concurrent validity of the IRRS by positively and significantly correlating with several of its subscales. The RaLES–B Group subscale, as hypothesized, correlated positively and significantly with the Cultural Racism, Institutional Racism, and Individual Racism subscales of the IRRS. The RaLES–B Self subscale was significantly correlated (in a positive direction) with the Institutional Racism, Individual Racism, and Collective Racism subscales of the IRRS. In addition, the IRRS Global Racism measure was positively and significantly correlated with the RaLES–B Global Racism measure. The fact that no correlation was found between the RaLES–B Self subscale and the Cultural Racism subscale of the IRRS is logical given the divergent manifestations associated with these two types of racism.

In a second correlational study, the PSS, as hypothesized, correlated positively and significantly with the Cultural Racism, Individual Racism, and a Global Racism measure of the IRRS. The lack of a significant correlation between the PSS and the other subscales of the IRRS might be explained by several factors. For example, encounters with institutional racism are likely to be less frequent than exposure to cultural racism, and better concealed by the perpetrator or perpetrators than the direct encounters of individual racism. The lack of a significant correlation of the Collective Racism measure and the PSS might be explained by the extreme nature of these events and their low rate of incidence among the current sample.

Using the group differences approach, the IRRS demonstrated adequate criterion-related validity by discriminating between Blacks and non-Blacks on its Cultural Racism, Institutional Racism, Individual Racism, and Collective Racism subscales. As hypothesized, the IRRS performed well as an index of the unique experiences and the magnitude of such experiences that African Americans have with racism. The fact that the IRRS subscales discriminate between Blacks and non-Blacks provides further evidence for the construct validity of the instrument.

Based on the results of two separate studies, using two distinct samples, the test–retest reliability of the IRRS subscales ranged from fair to adequate. In the first sample, which consisted primarily of college students from the South, the IRRS subscales obtained indexes of stability over a 3-week period ranging from .61 to .79. In the second study, with participants from an adult education program, the indexes of stability for the IRRS subscales over a 2-week period ranged from .54 to .75. Indexes of stability are considered adequate when they are in the .70 range. For the IRRS subscales, the college sample obtained indexes much more consistent with this criterion (i.e., .77, .69, .61, and .79). This might be accounted for in part by the fact that the college sample is from a historically Black college, where the likelihood of having had any new encounters with

discrimination during the test–retest interval is reduced. On the other hand, the sample from the adult education program were exposed to events, including racism and discrimination, that might normally be experienced by African Americans in their daily contact with Whites and other non-Blacks.

A potential criticism of the IRRS relates to the absence of a time frame in which the participants are requested to recall the occurrence of an event relating to racism or discrimination, or both, that they have experienced. The question arises in this circumstance as to how accurate one can remember his or her reaction to an event that occurred several months ago, or even several years in the past. However, assessing the stressful impact of African Americans' experiences with racism is best served by not restricting the period of time in which it occurred; for as Feagin and Sikes (1994) suggested, the effects of such traumatic experiences are long lasting. Another potential criticism of the IRRS and an ongoing issue in the field of stress research relates to the potential confound between the occurrence of race-related events and the intensity of such experiences. Because participants who have not experienced a given event are requested to select a response of 0, and those who have had a given experience must select a response between 1 and 4, it might be argued that the two responses are measures of separate constructs and should be analyzed separately. This is a debatable issue (J. E. Holm, personal communication, April 22, 1996; R. S. Lazarus, personal communication, April 30, 1996), and it continues to be deliberated between the major camps (i.e., daily hassles and stressful life events proponents) of stress researchers and can by no means be solved within the limits of this study. For all practical purposes, and consistent with the work of Lazarus and his colleagues (on which this study is in part based), not having experienced an event results in a stress score of 0 and is viewed within the realm of a scoring continuum of 0 to 4 (see Daily Hassles Scale [Revised] by Holm & Holroyd, 1992; Ways of Coping Scale by Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

The current findings suggest that the IRRS is a reliable and valid measure of the multidimensional aspects of race-related stress that African Americans potentially experience in their daily lives. The IRRS can be used in assessing the impact of racism and discrimination on the psychological well-being of African American clients. Those providing counseling services to this population can use the IRRS in determining the need to address issues related to the client's experience with racism and discrimination. In addition, the IRRS can be further studied for possible adaptation as a semistructured clinical interview protocol that can be used qualitatively by counseling psychologists in serving an African American population. The research utility of the IRRS is limitless and includes such topical areas as examining the therapy outcomes for African American clients, the impact of racism on the racial identity development of African Americans, racism and its relation to the life satisfaction of African Americans, and the impact of racism on vocational choices and academic outcomes.

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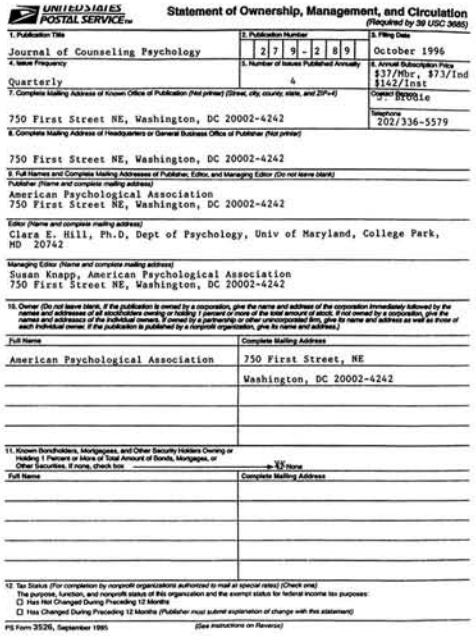

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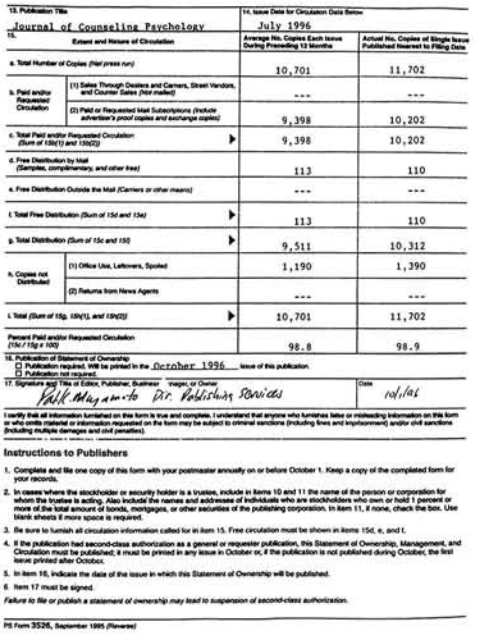

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