

# **The Effects of Racial Identity and Discrimination on Political Participation and Political Attitudes**

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## **Abstract**

Following the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1965, which allowed for increased immigration into the United States, the United States has become increasingly racially and ethnically diverse. However, studies of political participation and public opinion have often failed to include large samples of racial and ethnic minority Americans, limiting researchers from drawing conclusions on the attitudes of these groups. Using survey data from the 2020 Collaborative Multi-Racial Post-Election Survey, which includes oversamples of racial and ethnic minority populations in the U.S., we investigate the impact of racial identity and racism on political participation and public opinion. First, we analyze whether valuing belonging in a racial group can influence a respondent's interest in politics. Then, we analyze how personal experiences with racism may influence how respondents value policies aimed at addressing racial and ethnic discrimination. Our findings suggest that racial group belonging may be associated with higher odds of increased political interest, while gender identity, racial identity, and party affiliation may be associated with higher levels of political interest. Additionally, gender identity, racial identity, and personal experiences with discrimination may be associated with higher odds of increased levels of support for anti-discrimination policies.

## **Introduction**

The United States is becoming increasingly racially and ethnically diverse. In the decades following the 1965 Immigration and Nationality Act, the population of Americans born outside of the U.S. increased by more than 400% [1]. This increased diversity was also visible in the results from the 2020 decennial U.S. Census. According to data from the 2020 U.S. Census, the share of Americans that are White alone (and do not identify as any other race or ethnicity in

addition to White) has declined by approximately 9% since 2010. In addition, the population of multiracial Americans has experienced a 276% increase since the 2010 decennial Census. The percentage of people who reported multiple races increased more than all of the single-race groups, increasing from approximately 3% of the population in 2010 to 10% of the population in 2020 [2].

As a result of these trends that have led to increased shares of non-white groups in the U.S. the electoral power of racial and ethnic minority groups has become more salient in American politics. Researchers, policymakers, and advocacy groups must understand the factors that drive political participation and issue preferences among racial and ethnic minority groups, as well as differences between groups.

Researchers commonly understand the drivers for participation in American politics through the “resource model of political participation”, popularized by Henry E. Brady, Sidney Verba and Kay Lehman Schlozman [3]. This theory asserts that socioeconomic status predicts political participation, with a specific focus on resources such as time, money, and the organizational skills that are used to navigate civic life (“civic skills”). However, other scholars have pushed back on the generalizability of this theory for non-white groups, as these analyses were based on studies of white Americans and their conclusions may not hold true for members of minority groups [4]. In this study, we analyze how racial and ethnic minority groups navigate American politics and the factors that influence their political participation and issue preference.

In a similar vein, researchers have studied whether racial and ethnic discrimination can have a causal effect on the political participation of minority communities. Recent studies on Latino Americans and Indian Americans [5] [6], have found mixed effects. We address how racial and ethnic discrimination may potentially shape the issue preferences of American voters in this study.

Our analysis focuses on two questions within the field of racial and ethnic politics.

1. Are Americans who believe that their race is important to their identity more likely to be interested in politics than those that are not?
2. How do personal experiences with racism, in combination with demographic factors such as race, gender, and education, influence the importance respondents place on policies aimed at addressing racial and ethnic discrimination, controlling for other social and political factors?

To investigate these two research questions, we used survey data from the 2020 Collaborative Multi-Racial Post-Election Survey (CMPS) [7]. The CMPS is an extensive dataset designed to capture perspectives across racial and ethnic groups in the United States offered in multiple languages, including English, Spanish, Chinese, Korean, Vietnamese, Arabic, Urdu, Farsi, and Haitian Creole.

## Methods

The 2020 Collaborative Multi-Racial Post-Election Survey (CMPS) dataset contains 17,545 rows, with each row representing an individual respondent's data, and 1,490 columns, each capturing a specific variable or question response. These variables include demographic information and responses to survey questions on political and social issues.

Prior to modelling, we conducted exploratory data analysis to examine relationships between our predictor and outcome variables. First, we created summary tables for multiple survey questions. Then, we conducted chi-square tests to understand the relationship between the categorical variables. Finally, we plotted the relationships between the outcome variables and demographic variables to account for potential differences for subgroups in our dataset.

To prepare the data, variables with over 50% missing values were excluded. Key demographic variables, including educational attainment, sexual orientation, and rurality were re-coded into simplified categories. Age and race were structured into meaningful groups. Extraneous variables were removed, and categorical variables were converted to ordered factors to ensure consistency and clarity for analysis.

To model the outcome variable, interest in participating in politics, in the first research question, we will use an ordinal logistic regression with predictors including the importance of belonging to a racial group to one's identity, race, age, educational attainment, and political party affiliation. The outcome variable has 4 ordered levels: "Not at all interested in politics", "Not that interested in politics", "Somewhat interested", and "Very interested in politics". We will also include an interaction term between gender and the importance of belonging to a racial group to one's identity to assess whether the effect of the importance of belonging to a racial group on one's identity differs based on one's gender identity. To assess the model we will use a confusion matrix to compare predicted and observed values, and compare the model's accuracy and no information rate. Finally, we will conduct a Brant test to provide additional evidence regarding whether the proportional odds assumption was violated.

For the second research question, which examines the importance placed on anti-discrimination policies, we will use a binomial logistic regression. The predictors include race, gender identity, sexual orientation, age, education, community type (i.e. rurality), experiences with racism, and perceptions of racism affecting different groups. To further explore intersectionality theory, we will develop a second model that includes an interaction term between gender and race. After identifying the better-performing model, we will evaluate its performance using a range of metrics, including the confusion matrix, accuracy, and other relevant indicators.

## Results

For the first research question, the outcome variable, interest in participating in politics, was modeled using ordinal logistic regression. Interest in participating in politics, an ordinal

variable, captured responses to the question: “Some people are very interested in politics while other people can’t stand politics, how about you? Are you...” with response options “Very interested in politics”, “Somewhat interested”, “Not that interested in politics”, and “Not at all interested in politics.” The overall sample reported high levels of interest in politics, with 43% of respondents reporting that they were somewhat interested and one in four (25%) saying they were very interested in politics.

**Table 1.1: Breakdown of respondents’ interest levels in politics**

Response to Q29	Count	Share of Total Respondents
Very interested in politics	4,306	25%
Somewhat interested	7,612	43%
Not that interested in politics	3,643	21%
Not at all interested in politics	1,984	11%
Total	17,545	100%

The model also included the predictor variable regarding the importance of belonging to a racial group to one’s identity, a categorical variable that captured responses to the question: “How important is being [RACIAL GROUP] to your identity?”, with response options “Extremely important”, “Very important”, “Moderately important”, “Slightly important”, and “Not at all important”. The respondent’s identified racial group was brought into the survey question based on their prior survey responses. Over half (56%) of respondents reported that being a member of their racial group was very or extremely important to their identity. Only 23% of respondents said that being a member of their racial group was slightly or not at all important to their identity.

The model included multiple predictor variables that control for the impact of other aspects of a respondent’s identity, socioeconomic status, and political preferences. These included demographics such as the primary race reported by a respondent, their age, and gender, as well as a respondent’s reported level of educational attainment and political party affiliation. Finally, the model included an interaction term between gender and the importance a respondent placed in belonging to their racial group to investigate whether the relationship between racial belonging and political interest differs depending on gender. This interaction term allows us to evaluate if the effect of racial belonging on political interest is different for males, females, non-binary respondents, or respondents who specified a different gender identity.

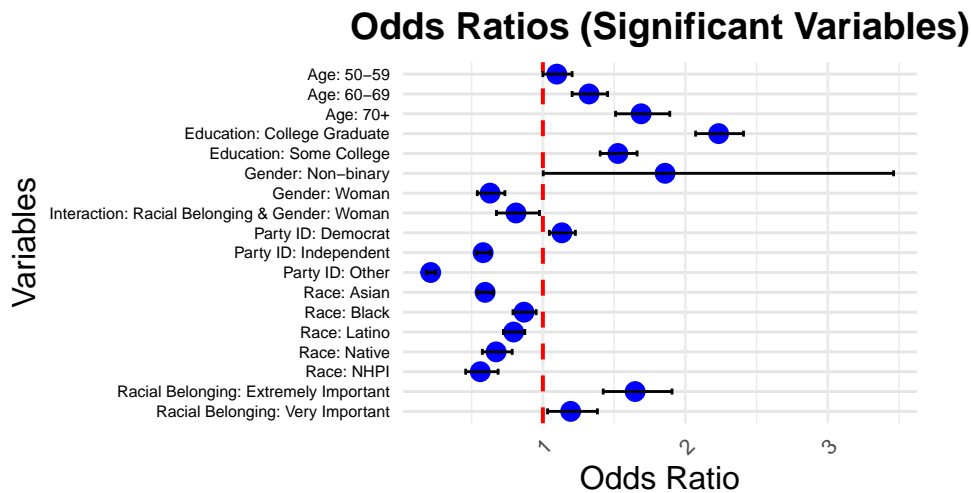


Fig. 1.1: Odds ratio for variables with significant associations

*Note: Some variable levels are excluded due to filtering for significant variables. To view the reference level for each variable group, please see table A1 in the Appendix.*

Controlling for age, gender identity, educational attainment, and party affiliation, all racial groups in our sample reported lower odds of reporting a higher level of interest in politics compared to white respondents, except for Arab, Middle East & North African (MENA) respondents. However, the effects for respondents of Arab/MENA heritage was not statistically significant. The odds of Black respondents being in a higher level of interest in politics were 0.87 times as high as White respondents (CI: 0.79-0.95). The odds of Latino respondents being in a higher level of interest in politics were 0.79 times as high as White respondents (CI: 0.72-0.87). These effects were even more pronounced for smaller racial/ethnic minority groups. Asian Americans' odds of reporting a higher level of interest in politics were 0.60 times as high as that of White respondents (CI: 0.54-0.65).

Increases in educational attainment were associated with higher odds of reporting a higher level of interest in politics. Respondents with some college experience had 1.53 times higher odds of being in a higher level of interest in politics than respondents with no college experience (CI: 1.40-1.66). Respondents who were college graduates had 2.23 times higher odds of being in a higher level of interest in politics than respondents with no college experience (CI: 2.07-2.40). This represents the strongest positive effect in our model.

Respondents in older age groups had odds of being in a higher level of interest in politics that were higher than individuals ages 18-29 years old. Respondents ages 60-69 years old had 1.32 times higher odds of being in a higher level of interest in politics than respondents ages 18-29

years old (CI: 1.21-1.45). Respondents that were 70+ had 1.69 times higher odds of being in a higher level of interest in politics than respondents ages 18-29 years old (CI: 1.51-1.89).

Regarding gender differences, women showed significantly lower odds of political interest compared to men (OR: 0.63, CI: 0.54-0.73). The reference group for the interaction term of the importance of racial belonging and gender identity is male respondents who reported that their belonging to a specific racial group is not at all important to their identity. Respondents who said that their belonging to a specific racial group was “Very important” to their racial identity had 1.19 times higher odds of reporting a higher level of interest in politics than this reference group (CI: 1.03-1.38). Respondents who said that their belonging to a specific racial group was “Extremely important” to their racial identity had 1.64 times higher odds than this reference group (CI: 1.42-1.90).

To determine if the ordinal logistic regression model violated the proportional odds assumption, we produced a confusion matrix. The confusion matrix revealed that the model had a low level of precision, with an accuracy value of 0.4503. The model’s accuracy is slightly higher than the No Information Rate (0.4339), indicating that the model does not perform much better than a random guess based on the distribution of respondents in various levels of the outcome variable, interest in politics.

The values for the sensitivity and specificity of the model for each class are present in table A4 in the Appendix. The sensitivity of the model was low (below 0.20) for the levels “Very interested in politics”, “Not that interested in politics”, and “Not at all interested in politics.” The only level with a high sensitivity value was the response option of being “Somewhat interested” in politics, which had an associated sensitivity of 0.90. These results indicate that the model struggled to correctly identify respondents who were “Very interested”, “Not that interested”, or “Not at all interested” in politics. The specificity of the model was high for each level, except for the response option of being “Somewhat interested” in politics (Specificity: 0.16), indicating that the model classified a high rate of false positives for this level, and it was potentially overly biased to predicting that respondents were “Somewhat interested” in politics. We also produced a confusion matrix for a multinomial model with the same predictor variables. The confusion matrices were very similar, providing evidence that there is not a sizable difference in performance between the ordinal model and the multinomial model. In addition, we conducted a Brant test. The Brant test result indicated that there is not strong evidence that the proportional odds assumption was violated.

For the second research question, the outcome variable ‘Importance placed on stopping discrimination against racial/ethnic minorities’ was modeled using binomial logistic regression. Despite the skewed distribution of the dependent variable—74.25% of respondents considered it “Not Important”—logistic regression is robust to such imbalances.

To examine factors influencing the importance of anti-discrimination policies, the model included predictors like personal experiences with racism (measured via ‘Unfair treatment or discrimination’ and its impact on life satisfaction), alongside demographic variables such as primary race, sexual orientation, gender, age, education, and community type. Variables

Q629R1–Q629R7, which captured specific experiences of unfair treatment (e.g., due to race or gender), were excluded due to substantial missing data (>52%). However, this was justified since the broader question on ‘unfair treatment or discrimination’ retained the key essence of experiences with racism.

To investigate the factors influencing the importance respondents placed on anti-discrimination policies, we developed two regression models. The first, termed the “base model,” excluded interaction terms. The second, the “interaction model,” included an interaction term between ‘race’ and ‘gender’ to explore the principles of intersectionality theory.

To evaluate multicollinearity in both models, we calculated the normalized Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values. As detailed in Appendix Table B1, all normalized VIF values were consistently below 2, indicating robustness of both models with minimal correlation among predictors, thereby ensuring the reliability of the estimated coefficients.

To further assess the goodness-of-fit for the two models, a chi-square test was conducted with their residual degrees of freedom and deviance for were as follows:

- **Base Model:** Residual Degrees of Freedom = 17,487, Residual Deviance = 17,934
- **Interaction Model:** Residual Degrees of Freedom = 17,469, Residual Deviance = 17,913

The difference in deviance between the two models was 21.145 with 18 degrees of freedom, indicating the interaction model to be slightly superior. However, the p-value of 0.2722 exceeded the 0.05 significance level, suggesting that including the interaction term did not significantly improve the model fit. Consequently, the base model was selected as it was more parsimonious with comparable explanatory power. The findings from the base model revealed that personal experiences with discrimination and certain demographic factors significantly influence the importance respondents place on policies aimed at addressing racial and ethnic discrimination.

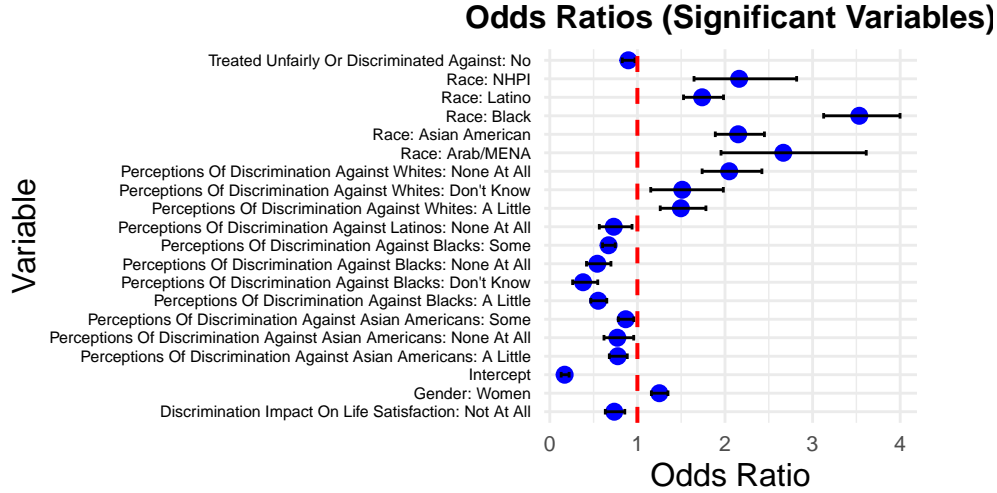


Fig. 2.1: Odds ratio for variables with significant associations

As shown in Fig. 2.1, the variables with significant associations are illustrated. For reference levels of each variable group, please see Table B3 in the Appendix. Overall, gender and race emerged as the most consistent and influential predictors of prioritizing anti-discrimination policies. Women had 1.25 times higher odds of prioritizing anti-discrimination policies than men (CI: 1.16-1.35), while Black respondents had 3.53 times higher odds than White respondents (CI: 3.13-4.00). Latino and Asian American respondents had 1.74 (CI: 1.53-1.98) and 2.15 (CI: 1.89-2.45) times higher odds, respectively, to emphasize such policies compared to their White counterparts.

Additionally, individuals who perceived higher levels of discrimination against racial or ethnic groups tended to prioritize anti-discrimination policies. For example, those who believed there was “a little” discrimination against Blacks were 45% less likely to prioritize these policies compared to those who saw “a lot” of discrimination (CI: 0.47-0.65). In contrast, education and sexual orientation did not have a statistically significant impact on prioritizing anti-discrimination policies. To further assess the base model, several performance metrics summarized in Appendix Table B4 and the confusion matrix below provide valuable insights into its strengths and limitations.

**Table 2.1: Confusion Matrix**

Predicted / Actual	Not Important	Important
Not Important	12361	3812
Important	666	706



Overall, the model performed well in identifying respondents who did not prioritize anti-discrimination policies (“Not Important”), as evidenced by its high specificity of 94.89%. However, the sensitivity for the “Important” class was notably low at 15.63%, indicating that the model struggled to accurately classify a substantial proportion of respondents who prioritize these policies. This imbalance underscores a significant limitation in identifying the minority class. While the precision for the “Important” class was moderate at 51.46%, the F1 score of 0.2397 highlighted the model’s poor overall performance in addressing this class effectively.

The Area Under the Curve (AUC) value of 0.72 (see Fig. 2.2 below) indicates a moderate capacity to discriminate between the two classes, though it fell short of an optimal level. Additionally, the balanced accuracy of 55.26% reflects the model’s challenges in addressing the effects of class imbalance.

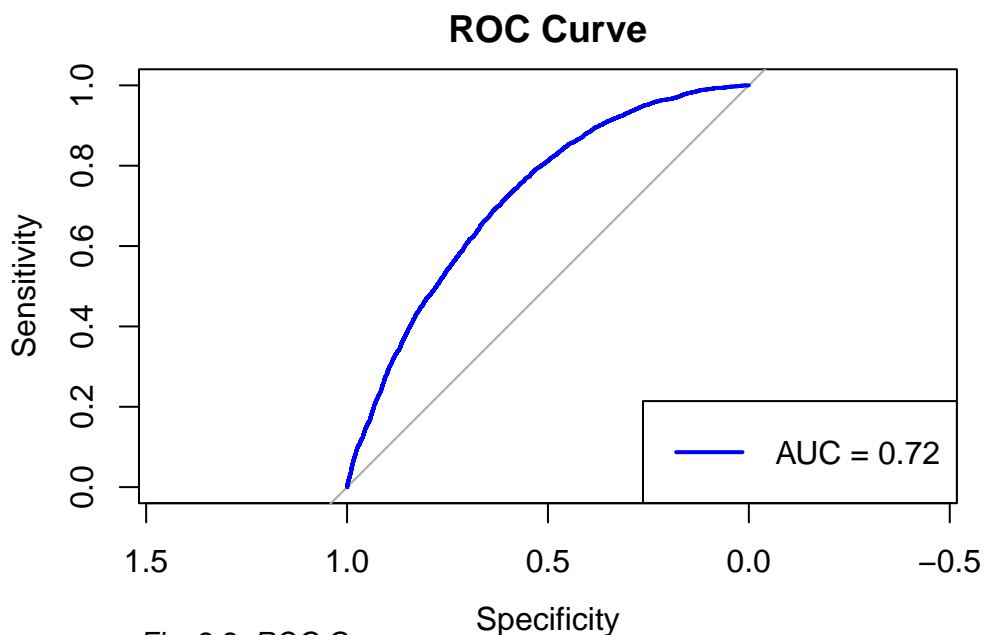


Fig. 2.2: ROC Curve

Although the model achieved statistical significance as indicated by McNemar’s test in Appendix Table B4 ( $p\text{-value} < 2e\text{-}16$ ), its predictive performance remains suboptimal, with predictions deviating considerably from observed data. While the model demonstrates strong performance in identifying respondents who do not prioritize anti-discrimination policies, its ability to accurately predict those who do prioritize these policies is markedly limited.

## Conclusion

In this analysis, we investigated whether valuing belonging in a racial group can influence a respondent’s interest in politics. We found that the higher levels of importance an individual

placed in belonging to their specific racial group (reporting that belonging to their group was “Very important” or “Extremely important”) had a significant positive effect on their interest in politics when compared to male respondents who did not place a high level of importance on belonging to their specific racial group. Further research is needed to understand how an individual’s racial belonging can impact their political participation. Following the resource model of participation, age and increases in educational attainment appeared to be associated with higher odds of reporting a higher level of interest in politics. Individuals who graduated from college had much higher odds of reporting a higher level of interest in politics than individuals with no college experience. This follows findings that educational attainment can lead to increases in political participation [8], and that older Americans vote at higher rates than younger Americans [9].

For our second question, we analyzed how personal experiences with racism influence respondents’ prioritization of policies addressing racial and ethnic discrimination. Our findings highlight the significant impact of race, gender, and lived experiences with discrimination, as well as the critical role of perceptions of racism against various groups in shaping public attitudes. These results underscore the complex social dynamics that drive policy preferences and provide valuable insights for designing targeted advocacy and policy efforts to address the unique experiences and needs of marginalized communities.

Despite the value of this survey’s oversamples of racial minorities, some limitations were present in our study. For the first analysis, we used educational attainment as a proxy for socioeconomic status. This is a common practice in social sciences [10]. Further research on the influence of socioeconomic status on political participation for racial minorities would help us understand if the resource model of participation is generalizable to other groups in the U.S. Both models had low specificity, suggesting that they struggled to correctly identify cases where respondents had low levels of political interest or respondents who considered anti-discrimination policies to be important. Similarly, in our second research question, while the model effectively identified respondents who do not prioritize anti-discrimination policies, it struggled to predict those who do. This imbalance underscores the challenges of accurately modeling the minority class—respondents who view anti-discrimination policies as important—and highlights the need for more nuanced approaches to capture these perspectives.

Overall, these challenges and opportunities highlight the importance of disaggregated data and further research in partnership with small racial and ethnic minority communities. Future work on political participation and public opinion among racial and ethnic minorities could support researchers, policymakers, and advocates in designing more inclusive policies and interventions. By addressing these gaps, future research can better capture the diverse and intersectional realities of minority groups and contribute to more effective advocacy and policy efforts.

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## Appendix

### Research Question 1

Table A1: Reference levels for variables

Variable Group	Reference Level
Education	No college experience
Gender	Man
Age	18-29 years old
Race	White
Racial Belonging	Not At All Important
Party ID	Republican
Interaction: Racial Belonging & Gender: Woman	Man, Not At All Important

Table A2: Ordinal Model Statistics

	Metric
Accuracy	0.4503
95% CI	(0.4429, 0.4577)
No Information Rate (NIR)	0.4339
P Value [Acc > NIR]	6.105e-06
Kappa	0.0787
Mcnemar's Test P-Value	<2.2e-16

Table A3: Confusion Matrix

	Actual - Very interested in politics	Actual -Somewhat interested	Actual - Not that interested in politics	Actual - Not at all interested in politics
Predicted - Very interested in politics	650	505	120	31
Predicted - Somewhat interested	3567	6830	3202	1550

	Actual - Very interested in politics	Actual -Somewhat interested	Actual - Not that interested in politics	Actual - Not at all interested in politics
Predicted - Not that interested in politics	57	181	203	186
Predicted - Not at all interested in politics	32	96	118	217

Table A4: Statistics by Class

	Very interested in politics	Somewhat interested	Not that interested in politics	Not at all interested in politics
<b>Sensitivity</b>	0.15095	0.8973	0.05572	0.10938
<b>Specificity</b>	0.95045	0.1625	0.96950	0.98419
<b>Balanced Accuracy</b>	0.55070	0.5299	0.51261	0.54678

Table A5: Odds Ratio Table

Variable	Odds Ratio	2.5% (Confidence Interval)	97.5% (Confidence Interval)
Racial Belonging: Slightly important	0.9672589	0.811845068	1.1525850
Racial Belonging: Moderately important	0.9776608	0.845556718	1.1303745
Racial Belonging: Very important	1.1952004	1.033019394	1.3828451
Racial Belonging: Extremely important	1.6474969	1.423670208	1.9066091
Gender: Woman	0.6294256	0.540015144	0.7336072
Gender: Non-binary	1.8576658	1.002509318	3.4617409
Gender: Something else (Specify)	2.1359493	0.377740111	13.5124525

Variable	Odds Ratio	2.5% (Confidence Interval)	97.5% (Confidence Interval)
Race: Black	0.8676620	0.790376010	0.9524806
Race: Asian American	0.5945609	0.541964870	0.6522143
Race: Latino	0.7946622	0.575235415	0.7848896
Race: AIAN	0.6719204	1.27404185	1.7384045
Race: NHPI	0.5606006	0.458205702	0.6860792
Race: Arab/MENA	1.1589043	0.899447122	1.4956228
Age: 30-39	1.0310801	0.946696738	1.0563119
Age: 40-49	0.9247623	0.98549367	1.1229868
Age: 50-59	1.0979487	1.000027913	1.2054892
Age: 60-69	1.3238874	1.205240800	1.4542874
Age: 70+	1.6896464	1.510226543	1.8907050
Education: Some college experience	1.5264694	1.402573135	1.6614197
Education: College graduate	2.2337286	2.072162224	2.4081069
Party ID: Democrat	1.1333513	1.045765624	1.2282275
Party ID: Independent	0.5806653	0.533801211	0.6315870
Party ID: Other party	0.2127592	0.182654104	0.2477198
Racial Belonging: Slightly important:	0.9955364	0.782564309	1.2663323
Gender: Woman			
Racial Belonging: Moderately important:	0.9461281	0.780040309	1.1475378
Gender: Woman			
Racial Belonging: Very important:	0.9791675	0.810674379	1.1826356
Gender: Woman			
Racial Belonging: Extremely important:	0.8114102	0.674275440	0.9763646
Gender: Woman			
Racial Belonging: Slightly important:	0.6505015	0.198565161	2.1505278
Gender: Non-binary			

Variable	Odds Ratio	2.5% (Confidence Interval)	97.5% (Confidence Interval)
Racial Belonging: Moderately important: Gender: Non-binary	0.6563254	0.249594245	1.7277048
Racial Belonging: Very important: Gender: Non-binary	0.5140828	0.205132143	1.2905898
Racial Belonging: Extremely important: Gender: Non-binary	0.8770903	0.354410521	2.1835545
Racial Belonging: Slightly important: Gender: Something else (Specify)	0.2279084	0.023857021	2.0164000
Racial Belonging: Moderately important: Gender: Something else (Specify)	1.7158304	0.146865519	19.7516328
Racial Belonging: Very important: Gender: Something else (Specify)	0.1049752	0.006213617	1.4210951
Racial Belonging: Extremely important: Gender: Something else (Specify)	0.6584933	0.079780177	4.9850479

## Research Question 2

**Table B1: Normalized VIF Values**

	Normalized VIF: Base Model	Normalized VIF: Interaction Model
Gender	1.022	1.978
Treated Unfairly or Discriminated Against	1.125	1.126

	Normalized VIF: Base Model	Normalized VIF: Interaction Model
Discrimination Impact on Life Satisfaction	1.036	1.037
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Whites	1.105	1.106
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Blacks	1.329	1.329
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Asian Americans	1.308	1.308
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Native Americans	1.224	1.224
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Immigrants	1.357	1.359
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Latinos	1.370	1.371
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Gays and Lesbians	1.262	1.262
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Muslims	1.341	1.342
Education	1.058	1.060
Orientation	1.042	1.044
Community Type	1.017	1.018
Age	1.028	1.030
Race	1.027	1.725
Gender * Race		1.308

**Table B2: Odds Ratios**

Description	Odds Ratio	Lower Confidence Interval	Upper Confidence Interval	P-Value
Intercept	0.1695	0.1300	0.2203	9.84e-40



<b>Description</b>	<b>Odds Ratio</b>	<b>Lower Confidence Interval</b>	<b>Upper Confidence Interval</b>	<b>P-Value</b>
Gender: Women	1.2507	1.1598	1.3490	6.41e-9
Gender: Non-Binary	1.3434	0.9160	1.9517	1.25e-1
Gender: Something Else	1.6771	0.7294	3.6061	2.00e-1
Treated Unfairly Or Discriminated Against: No Discrimination	0.8970	0.8270	0.9730	8.79e-3
Impact On Life Satisfaction: Some Discrimination	1.0452	0.8981	1.2172	5.69e-1
Impact On Life Satisfaction: A Little Discrimination	1.0053	0.8701	1.1626	9.43e-1
Impact On Life Satisfaction: Not At All Discrimination	0.7362	0.6337	0.8561	6.58e-5
Impact On Life Satisfaction: Don't Know Discrimination	0.8978	0.7439	1.0831	2.61e-1
Impact On Life Satisfaction: Refused Perceptions Of Discrimination	0.8404	0.5695	1.2177	3.69e-1
Against Whites: Some Perceptions Of Discrimination	1.0698	0.8812	1.3012	4.97e-1
Against Whites: A Little	1.4965	1.2609	1.7824	4.94e-6

<b>Description</b>	<b>Odds Ratio</b>	<b>Lower Confidence Interval</b>	<b>Upper Confidence Interval</b>	<b>P-Value</b>
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Whites: None At All	2.0482	1.7390	2.4214	2.00e-17
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Whites: Don't Know	1.5124	1.1525	1.9811	2.74e-3
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Blacks: Some	0.6710	0.6023	0.7472	4.00e-13
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Blacks: A Little	0.5524	0.4684	0.6504	1.32e-12
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Blacks: None At All	0.5423	0.4191	0.6979	2.52e-6
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Blacks: Don't Know	0.3797	0.2609	0.5475	3.00e-7
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Asian Americans: Some	0.8667	0.7825	0.9599	6.05e-3
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Asian Americans: A Little	0.7756	0.6799	0.8845	1.52e-4
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Asian Americans: None At All	0.7710	0.6188	0.9580	1.97e-2

<b>Description</b>	<b>Odds Ratio</b>	<b>Lower Confidence Interval</b>	<b>Upper Confidence Interval</b>	<b>P-Value</b>
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Asian Americans: Don't Know	0.8565	0.6102	1.1936	3.65e-1
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Native Americans: Some	1.1117	0.9991	1.2372	5.22e-2
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Native Americans: A Little	1.0371	0.9143	1.1763	5.71e-1
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Native Americans: None At All	0.8500	0.7074	1.0193	8.11e-2
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Native Americans: Don't Know	0.8513	0.6600	1.0930	2.11e-1
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Immigrants: Some	0.9502	0.8560	1.0548	3.38e-1
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Immigrants: A Little	0.8910	0.7621	1.0410	1.47e-1

<b>Description</b>	<b>Odds Ratio</b>	<b>Lower Confidence Interval</b>	<b>Upper Confidence Interval</b>	<b>P-Value</b>
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Immigrants: None At All	0.9524	0.7299	1.2371	7.17e-1
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Immigrants: Don't Know	1.0978	0.7820	1.5323	5.86e-1
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Latinos: Some	0.9670	0.8689	1.0763	5.39e-1
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Latinos: A Little	0.9118	0.7873	1.0559	2.18e-1
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Latinos: None At All	0.7300	0.5653	0.9387	1.50e-2
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Latinos: Don't Know	0.8705	0.6080	1.2386	4.45e-1
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Gays And Lesbians: Some	0.9924	0.8987	1.0959	8.80e-1
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Gays And Lesbians: A Little	0.9305	0.8106	1.0677	3.05e-1

<b>Description</b>	<b>Odds Ratio</b>	<b>Lower Confidence Interval</b>	<b>Upper Confidence Interval</b>	<b>P-Value</b>
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Gays And Lesbians: None At All	0.9859	0.8012	1.2100	8.93e-1
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Gays And Lesbians: Don't Know	1.2728	0.9666	1.6698	8.35e-3
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Muslims: Some	0.9928	0.8937	1.1029	8.93e-1
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Muslims: A Little	1.0623	0.9122	1.2364	4.36e-1
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Muslims: None At All	1.0402	0.8131	1.3261	7.52e-1
Perceptions Of Discrimination Against Muslims: Don't Know	0.8257	0.5955	1.1374	2.46e-1
Education: Some College Experience	0.9806	0.8774	1.0959	7.30e-1
Education: College Graduate	0.9402	0.8514	1.0387	2.24e-1
Sexual Orientation: Queer	1.1197	0.9914	1.2632	6.73e-2

Description	Odds Ratio	Lower Confidence Interval	Upper Confidence Interval	P-Value
Sexual Orientation:	0.8894	0.6647	1.1760	4.20e-1
Refused Community Type: Ur- ban/Suburban	1.0465	0.9079	1.2090	5.34e-1
Race: Black	3.5331	3.1265	3.9983	4.83e-90
Race: Asian American	2.1506	1.8896	2.4504	7.08e-31
Race: Latino	1.7392	1.5267	1.9831	1.09e-16
Race: AIAN	1.2235	0.9679	1.5365	8.69e-2
Race: NHPI	2.1618	1.6465	2.8179	1.81e-8
Race: Arab/MENA	2.6661	1.9547	3.6127	3.71e-10
Age: 30-39 Years	0.9447	0.8443	1.0569	3.21e-1
Age: 40-49 Years	0.8969	0.7937	1.0132	8.08e-2
Age: 50-59 Years	0.9589	0.8476	1.0845	5.05e-1
Age: 60-69 Years	0.8891	0.7833	1.0089	6.88e-2
Age: 70+ Years	1.0035	0.8612	1.1681	9.64e-1

**Table B3: Reference Levels**

Variable Group	Reference Level
Education	No college experience
Gender	Man
Age	18-29 years old
Race	White
Community Type	Rural
Sexual Orientation	Straight
Treated Unfairly/Discriminated Against	Yes
Discrimination Impact on Life Satisfaction	A lot
Perceptions of Discrimination Against Whites	A lot
Perceptions of Discrimination Against Blacks	A lot

Variable Group	Reference Level
Perceptions of Discrimination Against Asian Americans	A lot
Perceptions of Discrimination Against Native Americans	A lot
Perceptions of Discrimination Against Immigrants	A lot
Perceptions of Discrimination Against Latinos	A lot
Perceptions of Discrimination Against Gays and Lesbians	A lot
Perceptions of Discrimination Against Muslims	A lot

**Table B4: Summary Statistics**

	Metric
Sensitivity (Recall)	0.1563
Specificity	0.9489
Precision	0.5146
F1	0.2397
Balanced Accuracy	0.5526
No Information Rate (NIR)	0.7425
Kappa	0.1361
Mcnemar's Test P-Value	<2e-16